

# The response of trophic interaction networks to multiple stressors in a marine latitudinal gradient of the Southern Hemisphere

## Running Title: Marine stressors in the Southern Hemisphere

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## Abstract

Ecological networks offer valuable insights into community structure, key species identification, and ecosystem management for biodiversity conservation. Understanding how these networks react to environmental and anthropogenic stressors, especially along geographical gradients, is of increasing interest. This review presents a pioneering analysis of stressor responses in marine food webs from the southwest Atlantic to the Antarctic (45 - 78°S), encompassing areas such as San Jorge Gulf, Beagle Channel, Burdwood Bank, Scotia Sea, Potter Cove, and the Weddell Sea in Antarctica. Our objectives are to: 1) describe the structure of marine food webs along this axis using a network approach; 2) identify predominant environmental and anthropogenic stressors affecting each ecosystem; and 3) summarize observed food web changes and hypothesize on stressor impacts. Our collaborative team, comprising regional experts and global authorities on high-latitude marine food webs and stressor effects, ensures a comprehensive and credible literature review. We assessed the effects of stressors primarily at the species level, with notable exceptions like fisheries in San Jorge Gulf. Hypotheses for each study area were formulated considering: a) stressors; b) impacted parameters; c) node-level species properties; and d) network-level food web properties. Global warming emerges as the most common stressor across the gradient, except in the Beagle Channel and Burdwood Bank, where alien species introduction and fisheries are more influential, respectively. We offer specific hypotheses on how warming may affect food webs. Our findings highlight the benefits of a network approach in understanding and predicting stressor effects in Southern Hemisphere marine ecosystems. This approach provides a holistic understanding of ecological networks, enhances our ability to identify key species and interactions, and offers insights for ecosystem management and conservation in the face of various stressors.

Keywords: anthropogenic stressors, environmental stressors, food webs, latitudinal gradient, Southern Hemisphere

## 1. Introduction

The application of a network perspective has emerged as a powerful tool to tackle the complexity of species interactions, facilitating a better understanding of the structure and functioning of ecosystems (Belgrano et al. 2005; Thompson et al. 2012). Trophic networks (or food webs) allow identifying properties and key species

42 that may be crucial for ecosystem stability, and hence important for ecosystem management and biodiversity  
43 conservation (Thompson et al. 2012). There is a growing interest in understanding how ecological networks  
44 respond to environmental and anthropogenic stressors along geographical gradients (Cirtwill et al. 2015;  
45 Bauer et al. 2022). Yet, only a few studies have described variation in food web structure along latitudinal  
46 gradients in marine ecosystems. The few that have come from the Global North (Wood et al. 2015; Kortsch  
47 et al. 2019; Pecuchet et al. 2022), whereas no studies, nor meta-analyses, on geographical variation in marine  
48 food webs exist for the Global South (Southern Hemisphere).

49 Here we review for the first time the state-of-the-art knowledge on stressor response of marine food webs  
50 along the southwest Atlantic to Antarctic gradient (45 - 78°S, Figure 1). We focus on proven and expected  
51 changes in food webs driven by stressors in selected areas along this large-scale latitudinal gradient. We  
52 recruited food web experts from different marine systems of Argentina and the world (see co-authors' list).  
53 Throughout the year 2023 we maintained regular discussion meetings, typically held every two or three weeks.  
54 The aim of this review is threefold: 1) describe the complexity and structure of marine food webs along the  
55 southwest Atlantic to Antarctic axis from a network perspective; 2) identify the ongoing environmental and  
56 anthropogenic stressors for each marine ecosystem containing the food webs; and 3) resume proven food web  
57 changes and elaborate hypotheses on how the identified stressors might affect food web features (e.g. energy  
58 flow, stability), combining information on node- and network-level properties. Finally, we suggest which  
59 additional data and analyses are needed to gain insights into the stressors' effects on food web properties in  
60 the southwest Atlantic to Antarctic region.

## 61 **2. The structure of marine food webs in the Southwest Atlantic - Antarctic** 62 **region**

63 Together, the southwest and the Atlantic sector of the Southern Ocean comprise one of the most biologically  
64 productive regions of the world's oceans (Acha et al. 2004; Latorre et al. 2023). The referred region extends  
65 from San Jorge Gulf (45°S) in the Patagonian shelf to the Weddell Sea (78°S) in the Southern Ocean, and  
66 covers a well-connected oceanic latitudinal gradient (Matano et al. 2010; Guihou et al. 2020).

67 Throughout this latitudinal gradient, many investigations have been carried out addressing the trophic  
68 ecology of specific species and prey-predator relationships (Vinuesa and Varisco 2007; Pasotti et al. 2015;  
69 Saunders et al. 2019; Riccialdelli et al. 2020), but few studies have considered the complexity of the ecosystem  
70 in terms of a high resolution of species and their prey-predator interactions (but see Jacob et al. (2011),  
71 Marina et al. (2018), Funes et al. (2022), López-López et al. (2022), Rodríguez et al. (2022), Marina et al.  
72 (in rev.)). Neglecting this complexity might lead to a misunderstanding of the structure and functioning of  
73 the ecosystems, and ultimately reduce the ability to predict ecosystem responses to perturbations (Montoya  
74 et al. 2009).

75 In this review, we consider marine areas in the Southern hemisphere for which highly-resolved empirical  
76 food webs, in terms of species diversity and trophic interactions, have been previously described. These  
77 areas include: (1) San Jorge Gulf (45 - 47°S, 65 - 68°W), (2) Beagle Channel (~54°S, 68°W), (3) Burdwood  
78 Bank (~54°S, 59°W), (4) Scotia Sea (48 - 58°S, 50°W), (5) Potter Cove (62°S, 58°W, Antarctica), and (6)  
79 Weddell Sea (74 - 78°S, 30°W, Antarctica) (Figure 1). The geographic locations of these marine biomes  
80 span from temperate to Antarctic, and are exposed to both environmental (sea warming, glacial retreat) and  
81 anthropogenic (fishery, pollution) stressors.

82 San Jorge Gulf is the northernmost study area considered in this review. It is a partially enclosed basin span-  
83 ning approximately 34,000 km<sup>2</sup> and ~100 m of maximum depths, located from Cabo dos Bahias (44°55'S)  
84 to Cabo tres Puntas (47°06'S) (Figure 1). The shallower northern and southern ends of the Gulf (with  
85 depths ~40 m) present two prominent frontal systems. These systems are the areas of highest productivity  
86 (Glembocki et al. 2015). The Gulf's productivity supports large invertebrate and vertebrate fisheries (Gón-  
87 gora et al. 2012), as well as marine mammal and seabird populations (Yorio 2009). The San Jorge Gulf  
88 food web comprises 165 nodes and 1015 trophic interactions with a connectance of 0.04. The percentage of  
89 top predators is 16%, 78% of intermediate nodes and 6% of basal nodes; 60% of predators are omnivorous  
90 (Table 1). The most connected nodes are: the Argentine red shrimp *Pleoticus muelleri*, the squat lobster

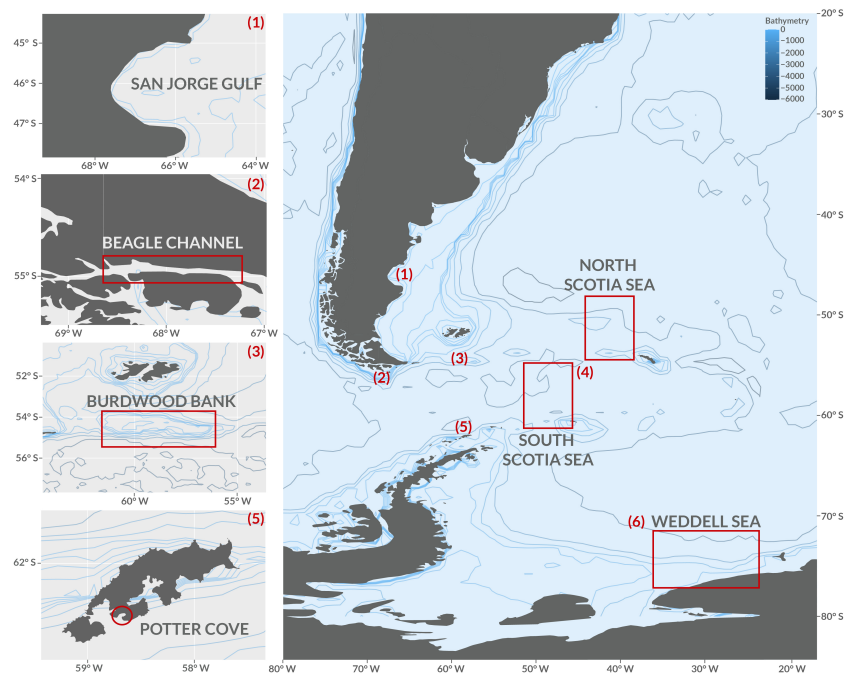


Figure 1: Map of the study areas along the southwest Atlantic - Antarctic latitudinal gradient. The areas are marked with numbers from one to six. Smaller areas (1. San Jorge Gulf, 2. Beagle Channel, 3. Burdwood Bank, and 5. Potter Cove) are shown on the panels to the left, whereas the larger areas (4. North and South Scotia Sea, and 6. Weddell Sea) are marked with a red rectangle on the map. The map was drawn using the ‘marmap’ R package (Pante et al. 2023). Continental contour shapefiles were obtained from [www.ign.gob.ar](http://www.ign.gob.ar).

91 *Gimothoa gregaria*, squids (*Illex argentinus* as dominant species) and Amphipoda. Notably, these nodes  
92 present mid-trophic positions in the food web (3.0, 2.5, 3.6 and 2, respectively) (Funes et al. 2022).

93 At a southern latitude, the Beagle Channel (54°52'S, 68°8'W) is an interoceanic passage located at the  
94 southernmost tip of South America, spanning 240 km in length and 5 km in width (~1200 km<sup>2</sup>), and a range  
95 depth of 0 - 140 m (Figure 1). It features complex coastlines, varying bathymetry, a prevailing west-to-east  
96 circulation pattern, and a significant longitudinal gradient of glacial freshwater discharge (Schloss et al. 2023).  
97 Bruno et al. (2023) suggests that locally produced suspended particulate organic matter (mostly composed  
98 by phytoplankton) and organic matter accumulated in the sediments (macroalgae-originated detritus) are  
99 the primary food sources for the marine ecosystem, as opposed to allochthonous materials. Beagle Channel  
100 food web includes 145 nodes and 1115 trophic interactions with a connectance of 0.05 (Table 1). The  
101 food web is suggested to have a wasp-waist structure, where the following species play a crucial role in  
102 the dynamics of the ecosystem: Fueguian sprat *Sprattus fuegensis*, longtail southern cod *Patagonotothen*  
103 *ramsayi*, black southern cod *P. tessellata*, frogmouth *Cottoperca trigloides*, and squat lobster *Grimothoa*  
104 *gregaria* (Riccialdelli et al. 2020). Moreover, the squat lobster has been identified as a species responsible  
105 for linking modules and connecting the entire food web (Rodríguez et al. 2022).

106 The so-called Burdwood Bank ecosystem comprises Marine Protected Areas Namuncurá - Burdwood Bank  
107 I and II, meaning the shallow submarine plateau named Burdwood Bank with a 200 m isobath boundary,  
108 and a deep slope that reaches 4000 m in depth, respectively (Administración de Parques Nacionales 2022)  
109 (Figure 1). Physical features in the plateau are fairly stable, with salinity averaging 34 all year round and  
110 temperature ranging between 4 and 8°C (Acha et al. 2004). The plateau is surrounded by steep flanks  
111 of up to 4000 m depth, protected by the Marine Protected Area Namuncurá - Burdwood Bank II (32,000  
112 km<sup>2</sup>; ~55° - 56°S, ~58° - 62°W). Intense upwelling and mixing occur in relation to the slope, entraining deep  
113 nutrient-rich waters into the photic layer (Matano et al. 2019), and resulting in a fairly homogeneous water  
114 column both spatially and temporally (Matano et al. 2019). The Burdwood Bank food web comprises 379  
115 nodes and 1788 interactions, with a connectance of 0.01, and an asymmetric degree distribution (i.e. most of  
116 the species have a relatively low number of interactions and few species concentrate most of them). Almost  
117 half of the consumers are omnivores (0.48), and the network displays a small-world pattern (Marina et al.  
118 in rev.) (Table 1).

119 The Scotia Sea is a deep-sea basin, delimited by the Drake Passage to the West and by the island complex  
120 of the Scotia Arc to the North, East, and South, with an approximate extension of 1.5 x 10<sup>6</sup> km<sup>2</sup> and  
121 a depth range of 0 - 3000 m (Murphy et al. 2006) (Figure 1). Its oceanography is dominated by the  
122 Antarctic Circumpolar Current, which is spatially structured by frontal systems (Whitworth 1980). The  
123 South Antarctic Circumpolar Current Front subdivides the Scotia Sea into two biogeographic regions: the  
124 Northern Scotia Sea is characterized by higher and more variable temperatures, and the Southern Scotia Sea  
125 by lower and more stable temperatures and influenced by seasonal sea ice (Raymond 2011). The analysis of  
126 the Northern and Southern Scotia Sea food webs shows that the former is relatively more complex than the  
127 latter: with higher species richness (218 vs 192) and interactions (10008 vs 7241) and a higher connection  
128 overall (0.21 vs 0.20). As expected from a more complex network, the path length is shorter in the Northern  
129 Scotia Sea food web. In the same sense, the Southern Scotia Sea network displays a greater proportion of  
130 omnivores and a lower mean trophic level (López-López et al. 2022) (Table 1).

131 In the Antarctic realm, Potter Cove is a ~9 km<sup>2</sup> fjord with a depth range of 0 - 200 m located at 25 de  
132 Mayo/King George Island (62°14'S, 58°38'W, South Shetland Islands) on the West Antarctic Peninsula  
133 (Figure 1). The cove, bordered by the Fourcade Glacier, is divided into three areas: a) the internal cove,  
134 a high glacier-influenced, soft sediment zone with a 50 m maximum depth; b) the central cove, a mixed  
135 substrate area with low meltwater influence and an 80 m maximum depth; and c) the external cove, ice-free  
136 for 60 years with a 185 m maximum depth and rocky substrate (Jerosch et al. 2018). Potter Cove's high-  
137 latitude location results in variable environmental conditions due to photoperiod length seasonality. Sea  
138 ice often covers this area in winter (Schloss et al. 2012). With low phytoplankton biomass, macroalgae,  
139 and microphytobenthos are likely the primary food sources for secondary benthic production (Quartino  
140 and Boraso de Zaiisso 2008). The Potter Cove food web includes 110 nodes and 649 interactions, with an  
141 asymmetric degree distribution, and a connectance value of 0.05 (Table 1). It presents a modular structure  
142 (groups of species interact more strongly with each other than with species belonging to other groups),

143 that's positively associated with stability, since perturbation can be retained within modules (Rodriguez et  
144 al. 2022).

145 Located between 74 and 78°S, the high Antarctic Weddell Sea shelf spans approximately 450 km from  
146 East to West (Jacob et al. 2011) (Figure 1). The water depth ranges from 200 to 500 m, with shallower  
147 regions being covered by continental ice that forms the coastline along the eastern and southern parts of  
148 the Weddell Sea. Within this shelf area, exists a complex three-dimensional benthic habitat characterized  
149 by substantial benthic biomasses and an intermediate to high diversity when compared to benthic boreal  
150 communities (Teixidó et al. 2002). The Weddell Sea food web exhibits a high level of network complexity,  
151 featuring the greatest number of nodes (490) and trophic interactions (16041) among the analyzed food webs  
152 in this review (Table 1). Its connectance (0.07) and other structural properties are intermediate compared  
153 to the other food webs. Recently, the interaction strengths of this food web were estimated, revealing the  
154 presence of numerous weak and few strong interactions, which is consistent with findings in other complex  
155 food webs (Nilsson and McCann 2016). Notably, this asymmetric distribution of interaction strength is likely  
156 to promote community persistence.

157 Table 1. Complexity and structure properties of the marine food webs considered in the present review. Refer to Table 2 for  
 158 definition of properties. mean TL: mean trophic level. Food webs are ordered by increasing latitude.

Food web	Nodes	Links	Connectance	Path length	mean TL	Omnivory	Reference
San Jorge Gulf	165	1015	0.04	2.17	3.02	0.63	Funes et al. (2022)
Beagle Channel	145	1115	0.05	2.12	2.37	0.55	Rodriguez et al. (2022)
Burdwood Bank	379	1788	0.01	2.99	2.52	0.49	Marina et al. (in rev.)
Potter Cove	110	649	0.05	2.33	2.22	0.46	Marina et al. (2018); Rodriguez et al. (2022)
N Scotia Sea	218	10008	0.21	1.87	3.29	0.73	López-López et al. (2022)
S Scotia Sea	192	7241	0.20	1.90	3.21	0.71	López-López et al. (2022)
Weddell Sea	490	16041	0.07	2.19	2.62	0.51	Jacob et al. (2011)

### 159 3. Environmental and anthropogenic stressors in the Southwest Atlantic - 160 Antarctic region

161 A stressor is any environmental or anthropogenic variable that causes a quantifiable change, irrespective of its  
 162 direction (increase or decrease), in a biological response (Orr et al. 2020). In the light of this, the southwest  
 163 Atlantic - Antarctic marine biota has been and is currently subjected to a variety of stressors (e.g. sea warming,  
 164 glacial retreat, ice changes, acidification, species invasion, fisheries, and contamination). Although it is well-  
 165 known that multiple stressors act in concert at any given time (e.g. warming and fishery; acidification and  
 166 contaminants) (Gutt et al. 2021), to date stressor assessments have been performed individually. Moreover,  
 167 the potential for interactive effects of two or more stressors (synergy or antagonism) (Côté et al. 2016) is  
 168 almost unknown for the region (Rowlands et al. 2021).

169 In the following subsections, we describe the main environmental and anthropogenic stressors, and the species  
 170 (or trophic species) and parameters affected reported for the marine ecosystems that contain the food webs  
 171 considered in this review. In Table S2 we provide an exhaustive list of all stressors affecting species inhabiting  
 172 each area, considering: the type of stressor, species and parameter affected, and locality.

#### 173 3.1 San Jorge Gulf

174 San Jorge Gulf experienced several environmental and anthropogenic stressors (Table S2). Trawl fisheries  
 175 discard several species and add new trophic interactions to the food web which resulted in a decrease in  
 176 trait variability and the stability of the system (Rincón-Díaz et al. 2021; Funes et al. 2022). Moreover, it  
 177 changed the availability of prey to several predators. For example, *Merluccius hubbsi* one of the main bycatch  
 178 species, became prey item to non-diving seabirds, like the kelp gull *Larus dominicanus* (González-Zevallos  
 179 and Yorio 2006) and reef fishes (Funes et al. 2019). Although juveniles of *M. hubbsi* are largely the main  
 180 bycatch item, 29 other cartilaginous and 69 bony local fish species were also registered as incidental catch  
 181 between 2005 and 2014 (Bovcon et al. 2013; Ruibal Nuñez 2020). This level of impact triggered a shift in the  
 182 functional diversity of the assemblages homogenizing the trophic function of fishes (Rincón-Díaz et al. 2021).  
 183 Other functional changes were a decrease in the maximum sizes of individual fish, together with a drop in  
 184 elasmobranchs biomass and an increase in crustaceans biomass (Funes 2020). The significant increase in  
 185 crustacean biomass was mostly due to the increase in *Pleoticus muelleri* and *Grimothea gregaria* populations  
 186 (Funes 2020). These species rapidly became the most important prey for the most abundant fishes in the  
 187 area: *M. hubbsi* and *Mustelus schmitti* (Pasti et al. 2021). However, the above-mentioned effects of trawl  
 188 fisheries on the structure and function of the San Jorge Gulf community may have changed again, since the  
 189 fisheries ceased activity in 2015 (Annex I, Resolution CFP No 7/2018), remaining a small trawling artisanal  
 190 fishery.

191 Sea warming is another important environmental stressor in the San Jorge Gulf, because of the southward  
 192 shifts of northern fish populations to the Gulf (Galván et al. 2022). The San Jorge Gulf is especially prone

193 to be affected by climate-driven shifts in species ranges, because it is located in the ecotone between two  
194 biogeographic provinces, the Argentine (30°S - 44°S) and the Magellanic (43°S - 55°S) (Balech and Ehrlich  
195 2008). In addition to this tropicalization from northern fish populations, alien species are also documented to  
196 affect the demersal assemblage (fish and macroinvertebrates) in the Gulf (Galván et al. 2022). Finally, San  
197 Jorge Gulf is exposed to urban and industrial pollution due to an oil monobuoy from which oil manipulation  
198 and general oil transport along the Patagonian coast registered several oil spills and chronic oil discharges  
199 (García-Borboroglu et al. 2008). Other marine systems impacted by oil spill showed an important decrease  
200 in marine bird populations (Irons et al. 2000), seals and macroalgae (e.g. Paine et al. (1996)), with examples  
201 of cascading effects throughout the food web (Peterson 2001).

### 202 **3.2 Beagle Channel**

203 A main anthropogenic stressor in the Beagle Channel is the introduction of invasive species (Table S2).  
204 Salmonidae were introduced to Tierra del Fuego in the 1930s. Especially Chinook salmon *Oncorhynchus*  
205 *tshawytscha* causes concern. The detection of Chinook salmon in Tierra del Fuego dates back to April  
206 2006, and its population has been expanding since then (Nardi et al. 2019). Being a top predator Chinook  
207 salmon can compete with several native species in the Beagle Channel (Correa and Gross 2008), and prey  
208 over native species such as *Notothenioids* (*Eleginops maclovinus*, *Patagonotothen tessellata*, *P. cornucola*, *P.*  
209 *sima*, *Paranotothenia magellanica*, *Harpagifer bispinis*), the *Atherinidae* *Odontesthes smitti* and *O. nigricans*,  
210 the Fuegian sprat *Sprattus fuegensis*, and larvae of king crabs (*Lithodes antarcticus* and *Paralomis granulosa*)  
211 (Fernández et al. 2010). Ciancio et al. (2008) observed that Chinook salmon in the Southern Patagonian  
212 Shelf Ecosystem Area primarily feed on sprats and display trophic levels comparable to those of intermediate-  
213 sized fish and cephalopod predators species, showing significant dietary overlap with Magellanic penguins  
214 (*Spheniscus magellanicus*). Another potential competitor for Chinook salmon in the Beagle Channel is the  
215 Commerson's dolphin (*Cephalorhynchus commersonii*), which shares a similar diet (Riccialdelli et al. 2013).

216 In the Beagle Channel, other anthropogenic stressors include contaminants like metals, perfluorinated com-  
217 pounds, hydrocarbons, and microplastics found in animal tissue and sediments. Some studies reported  
218 varying heavy metal levels in sea mussel tissues and sediments, indicating bioavailability differences (Duarte  
219 et al. 2011). Other research found similar carbon and carbohydrate levels in Ushuaia Bay's surface sedi-  
220 ments to those in hypertrophic ecosystems, along with hydrocarbons and heavy metals linked to port and  
221 industrial activities (Gil et al. 2011). Commendatore et al. (2012) identified three distinct hydrocarbon  
222 accumulation zones in the Bay. Llorca et al. (2012) found high levels of perfluorinated compounds in algae,  
223 fish, and guano. Ferreira et al. (2021) showed that black southern cod in Ushuaia Bay may be exposed to  
224 endocrine-disrupting compounds from urban and industrial pollution. Pérez et al. (2020) and Ojeda et al.  
225 (2021) found microplastics in *M. edulis chilensis* and *Nacella magellanica*, respectively. These studies link  
226 pollutants to Ushuaia (54°48 S 68°18 W) and its port and industrial activities. We expect the Beagle Chan-  
227 nel area closest to the city to be most affected. Contaminants can spread through the food web, magnifying  
228 the risk to higher-level organisms. Fioramonti et al. (2022) studied mercury transfer in three southwest  
229 Atlantic Ocean food webs and found biodilution in the Beagle Channel and Atlantic coast of Tierra del  
230 Fuego webs. However, mercury concentrations rose with benthivory in these webs, and higher mercury was  
231 found in phytoplankton and *Grimothea gregaria*. Squat lobsters connect pelagic and benthic habitats, so  
232 any disruption to them could disrupt the food web (Rodriguez et al. 2022). Dodino et al. (2022) found the  
233 highest mercury levels in Magellanic penguin feathers from offshore colonies in Tierra del Fuego. Recently,  
234 Ushuaia's kelp forests have seen a decrease in biodiversity and changes in macroalgae composition due to  
235 urban pollution (Kaminsky et al. in prep.).

### 236 **3.3 Burdwood Bank**

237 The stressors reported for the ecosystem of the Marine Protected Areas Namuncurá within Burdwood Bank  
238 I and II are mostly anthropogenic; there is a lack of studies focusing on the environmental stressors that  
239 are known to be occurring at a regional scale (e.g. sea surface warming, Franco et al. (2020)) (Table S2).  
240 Several fisheries targeting demersal fishes operate in the vicinity and within the ecosystem of the Marine

241 Protected Areas (i.e. Marine National Reserve management category). The Patagonian fisheries on the  
242 toothfish *Dissostichus eleginoides* has gained prominence in recent years (Allega et al. 2020; Gorini et al.  
243 2021). Although these are regulated by the Argentinean government, incidental catches do occur, where  
244 demersal fishes of the genera *Coelorinchus* and *Macrourus*, seabirds and benthic invertebrates (30+ taxa)  
245 are the most common bycatches (Gaitán and Marí 2016; Martínez et al. 2022). Noteworthy, among the  
246 invertebrates caught, 8 species are indicator taxa of vulnerable marine ecosystems (Gaitán and Marí 2016;  
247 Schejter and Albano 2021). Independent assessments of these bycatches suggest no significant impact on  
248 the communities (Gaitán and Marí 2016; Martínez et al. 2022). Besides bycatch, species of seabirds are  
249 being affected by the fishery due to discards, altering its diet; the most frequently encountered species are  
250 Black-browed albatross *Thalassarche melanophris*, Southern giant petrel *Macronectes giganteus*, Cape petrel  
251 *Daption capense*, Southern royal albatross *Diomedea epomophora*, Northern giant petrel *M. halli*, and White-  
252 chinned petrel *Procellaria aequinoctialis* (Tamini et al. 2023). Nevertheless, there is a lack of knowledge  
253 considering the species' role in the ecosystem and the potential joint effect of both target fishes and bycatch  
254 in a broader food web framework.

255 Anthropogenic contaminants such as microplastics and mercury are present in the water column of the  
256 Burdwood Bank ecosystem (Cossi et al. 2021; Fioramonti et al. 2022; Di Mauro et al. 2022). Microplastics  
257 are distributed all along the water column, from surface to deep waters (3-2450 m) (Di Mauro et al. 2022).  
258 More importantly, microplastics were found in soft tissues of benthic macroinvertebrates (sea stars *Henricia*  
259 *obesa* and *Odontaster penicillatus*) and benthopelagic fishes (*Patagonotothen guntheri* and *P. ramsayi*),  
260 which not only incorporated the contaminant from the environment through their filter-feeding system but  
261 could also get it indirectly from prey organisms already containing plastics in their tissues (Cossi et al. 2021).  
262 Notably, one of the contaminated species, the long tail southern cod *Patagonotothen ramsayi*, is part of the  
263 core group of species that drive the ecosystem through the suggested wasp-waist control (Ricciardelli et al.  
264 2020). Mercury transfer and biomagnification are ongoing processes in the ecosystem, which are occurring  
265 at a greater pace than near coastal areas (Beagle Channel) (Fioramonti et al. 2022). It's important to note  
266 that the Fuegian sprat *Sprattus fuegensis*, a pelagic fish with a mid-trophic level in the food web, presented  
267 the highest levels of mercury (Fioramonti et al. 2022). Considering the wasp-waist control of the Fuegian  
268 sprat in the food web (Ricciardelli et al. 2020), a rapid and widespread contamination to the top predators  
269 is expected (Fioramonti et al. 2022).

270 In recent years, licenses for seismic studies and exploration of hydrocarbon resources have been granted all  
271 along the northwestern limit of the Marine Protected Areas (Secretaría de Gobierno de Energía Res. N<sup>o</sup>  
272 65/2018). Although effects from these types of surveys on marine mammals and seabirds are well-known  
273 for other regions of the world (Nowacek et al. 2015), there is no particular knowledge for this ecosystem.  
274 However, several documents warn of the potential negative effects this may have on the species inhabiting  
275 the Burdwood Bank area (Allega et al. 2019; de Haro et al. 2022).

276 Despite evidence of warming at surface, mid-water and bottom layers (100 m) in Burdwood Bank (Franco  
277 et al. 2020), specific studies on the oceanographic aspects of the system are lacking. In this sense, there  
278 is a big question mark about the environmental stressors impact on the species and trophic interactions in  
279 Burdwood Bank.

### 280 3.4 Scotia Sea

281 The Scotia Sea is a vast and heterogenous oceanic region, where especially the areas around South Georgia  
282 island represents an area of interest, here referred to as 'Northern Scotia Sea'. The majority of studies  
283 analyzing the stressors' effects come from this area.

284 The Scotia Sea has experienced one of the largest levels of warming within the polar regions (Whitehouse et  
285 al. 2008). Together with the Southern Annular Mode anomalies this has caused a long-term decrease in krill  
286 abundance; more pronounced in the northern than in the southern Scotia Sea (Murphy et al. 2007). Over  
287 the past 90 years, the krill also showed an increase in mean body length (Atkinson et al. 2019), which may  
288 also alter predator-prey interactions and allow reaching cooler feeding grounds near the seabed, with the  
289 potential to link krill to unexpected predators (Schmidt et al. 2011). Another consequence of the mentioned



290 environmental stressors, is a change in krill distribution due to a southward contraction (Atkinson et al.  
291 2019). It is noteworthy here, that the distributional shift has not affected all species inhabiting the Northern  
292 Scotia Sea, and most abundant calanoid copepods have maintained their distribution (Tarling et al. 2018).  
293 Considering the above, food web models of the Northern Scotia Sea have suggested shifts in the structure  
294 and functioning of the food web, from krill-based to non-krill-based, where myctophid fishes and squid are  
295 playing important roles (Saunders et al. 2019).

296 The principal anthropogenic stressor of the Scotia Sea is commercial fisheries. Krill fishery not only stresses  
297 the targeted species, but also the many predators that depend on it as a food source (Hilborn et al. 2017).  
298 Yet, data currently available from monitoring of krill and its predators remain insufficient, hence identifying  
299 the potential fishery impacts on the ecosystem is difficult (Trathan et al. 2021). Apart from krill fishery,  
300 two other commercial fisheries operate in the Scotia Sea, targeting Patagonian toothfish species *Dissostichus*  
301 *eleginoides* and *D. mawsoni*. The *D. eleginoides* stock is linked to the stock at South Georgia ('Northern  
302 Scotia Sea') (Collins et al. 2010), while the *D. mawsoni* stock is linked to the Antarctic continental shelf  
303 ('Southern Scotia Sea') (Soeffker et al. 2022). Despite the fact that the mentioned fisheries are certified by  
304 the Marine Stewardship Council standards, Trathan (2023) identified several concerns regarding aspects of  
305 fisheries itself, other species' population status (i.e. recovery of baleen whales), and environmental stressors  
306 (i.e. sea warming), which could have synergistic effects on the food web structure and functioning that are  
307 still unknown.

308 Mercury transfer and biomagnification are current processes occurring in the Scotia Sea, where the total  
309 concentration of contaminants increase with trophic level and are highest in notothenioid and myctophid  
310 fishes (e.g. *Dissostichus eleginoides*, *Gymnoscopelus nicholsi*), and seabirds (Seco et al. 2021). During years  
311 of low Antarctic krill abundance, predators must deal with both the stress of reduced prey availability and  
312 the concurrent rise in mercury exposure (Seco et al. 2021).

### 313 **3.5 Potter Cove (Antarctica)**

314 Regional warming in the last half century has been one of the main factors driving changes in Potter Cove  
315 (Western Antarctic Peninsula) (Chown et al. 2022). Sudden environmental changes have occurred, such as  
316 sea surface temperature increase, salinity decrease, suspended particulate matter loading and chlorophyll-a  
317 increase, all linked to climatic cycles (Southern Annular Mode and El Niño Southern Oscillation) (Schloss  
318 et al. 2012). Particularly, sea warming has produced drastic environmental and biological transformations  
319 (e.g. shifts in dominance of benthic community) in the Potter Cove ecosystem (Schloss et al. 2012; Quartino  
320 et al. 2013; Sahade et al. 2015), a system highly dependent on sea-ice dynamics (Table S2). In Potter  
321 Cove, total sea ice cover has decreased since 1991 (Schloss et al. 2012). Changes in the annual timing  
322 of landfast ice formation and breakup of the sea ice cover has multiple effects on species in the food web  
323 (Michel et al. 2019). Warmer winters and springs result in earlier sea-ice melt, causing an abrupt increase  
324 in the light available benthic primary producers (Deregibus et al. 2020). Sea ice also mediates physical  
325 disturbances to the benthos by influencing sedimentation and iceberg scouring. These factors affect the  
326 production of macroalgae, albeit in opposite ways (Deregibus et al. 2017), and microphytobenthos (Hoffmann  
327 et al. 2019). On the other hand, sea ice is an important habitat for diatoms and its associated consumers,  
328 including copepods and krill (Flores et al. 2012), and thus important for benthic-pelagic nutrient and carbon  
329 cycling during winter. Additionally, a decrease in winter sea ice cover produces an increase in physical  
330 perturbation on benthic shallow communities in coastal shallows due to ice scouring (Deregibus et al. 2017).  
331 The glacier surrounding Potter Cove has been receding at an increasing rate since 1950 (Rückamp et al.  
332 2011), which has caused a massive discharge of sediment-laden meltwater (Meredith et al. 2018). Large  
333 quantities of suspended particles affect growth, survival and reproduction of benthic species. This had led  
334 to a major shift in the benthic community structure, from a filter feeders–ascidian domination to a mixed  
335 assemblage with scavengers and opportunistic species (Sahade et al. 2015), and the metabolic balance in  
336 benthos went from net autotrophy to heterotrophy (Braeckman et al. 2021). Additionally, massive stranding  
337 events of the tunicate *Salpa thompsoni* and the euphausiid *Euphausia superba* (krill) linked to the presence  
338 of glacial meltwater have been reported (Fuentes et al. 2016). Rising temperatures leading to ice and  
339 glacial melting has also substantial impacts on pelagic primary productivity, since it reduces water salinity,

340 affecting water column stratification, light penetration and nutrient availability for photosynthesis (Schloss  
341 et al. 2012). In Potter Cove, changes in biomass of most phytoplankton species have been observed under  
342 heat wave conditions, resulting in a shift from a microplankton to a nanoplankton dominated community  
343 (Antoni et al. 2020; Latorre et al. 2023). This means that in areas strongly affected by glacier melt, the  
344 planktonic food web is dominated by the microbial loop (ciliates and heterotrophic dinoflagellates preys  
345 upon nanophytoplankton, which are sequentially available prey for small omnivorous copepods), instead of  
346 being predominantly herbivorous (Garcia et al. 2016, 2019). In addition, phytoplankton species under these  
347 warming conditions showed a decrease in metabolic rates and in the quality of the fatty acids composition  
348 (Latorre et al. 2023).

### 349 **3.6 Weddell Sea (Antarctica)**

350 In the Weddell Sea several stressors have already been triggered by global warming effects (Table S2), from  
351 which spatial and temporal reduction in sea ice is suggested to be driving changes in pelagic and benthic  
352 communities (Constable et al. 2014; Gutt et al. 2021). Sea ice extent has reached new record lows since the  
353 satellite era began in 1978. Sea warming has been substantial in recent years: in 2017 the mean temperature  
354 for February reached 1.45°C, the highest monthly mean ever recorded (0.56°C above the climatological mean)  
355 (Turner et al. 2020). In this context, it has been suggested that Antarctic krill *Euphausia superba* has already  
356 declined as a result of productivity changes caused by sea ice declines (Atkinson et al. 2004). Declining sea  
357 ice cover allows increased access to krill by predators (Kawaguchi et al. 2009), which further contributes to  
358 decreased krill abundances. This in turn can result in reduced carbon export due to decreased fecal pellets  
359 from krill (Pauli et al. 2021).

360 On the other hand, sea ice loss increases light availability, triggering primary production by phytoplankton  
361 in the short-term (Pineda-Metz et al. 2020). Furthermore, a warmer and more stable water column with a  
362 shallow upper mixed layer, is expected to enhance the dominance of cryptophytes over diatoms which may  
363 favor salp populations over krill populations; thereby reducing the magnitude of energy transfer to higher  
364 trophic levels and the seabed (Isla 2023).

365 Higher trophic level species are expected to respond differently to global warming in the Weddell Sea. In  
366 this regard, Notothenioid fishes (e.g. *Pleuragramma antarcticum*) face multiple stressors (sea warming, sea  
367 ice decline, ocean acidification) that threaten their survival. While some species exhibit physiological plas-  
368 ticity to compensate for increased oxygen demand, most notothenioid fishes are stenothermal and unable  
369 to adjust their metabolic functioning (Mintenbeck et al. 2012). It is anticipated that the thermal habitat  
370 preferred by the Antarctic toothfish *Dissostichus mawsoni* could undergo contraction in the coming three  
371 decades (Constable et al. 2014), further emphasizing the potential impact of global warming effects on these  
372 species. Marine mammals, Weddell and crabeater seals (*Leptonychotes weddellii* and *Lobodon carcinophag-*  
373 *us*), exhibit varying levels of sensitivity. The latter exhibits a preference for breeding in close proximity  
374 to krill swarms, and thus is particularly susceptible to reductions in sea ice concentrations and sea surface  
375 temperatures. Rescued sea ice can significantly affect their post- and future breeding foraging success (Wege  
376 et al. 2021). In addition, the Antarctic petrel *Thalassoica antarctica*, which is one of the most abundant  
377 seabirds in the area, is a sea ice dependent forager and breeder (Orgeira et al. 2021); therefore the loss of  
378 this habitat will degrade its foraging success and reproductive output over time. The snow petrel *Pagodroma*  
379 *nivea* also relies heavily on sea ice for foraging and its colonies in the Weddell Sea may be affected. The em-  
380 peror penguin *Aptenodytes forsteri* uses sea ice for breeding; any reductions could constrain its populations,  
381 as evidenced by recent observations in the Bellingshausen Sea region (Fretwell et al. 2023). The Arctic tern  
382 *Sterna paradisaea* spends the summer in the Weddell Sea exploiting krill swarms under receding ice edges,  
383 then declines in ice cover may reduce prey availability and quality of molting habitats. Continued warming  
384 is thus expected to gradually erode the abundance and distribution of these ‘primary species’ that dominate  
385 the avifauna of the Weddell Sea through loss of critical sea ice habitat (Orgeira et al. 2021). Variations in sea  
386 ice extent have implications for great whales, such as the Humpback whale *Megaptera novaeangliae*, since  
387 their primary prey resource is the Antarctic krill (Braithwaite et al. 2015). Decreased winter ice coverage  
388 results in reduced suitable habitat and lower krill abundance (Braithwaite et al. 2015), with flow-on effects  
389 for whale body condition observed historically in harvest data. With climate projections indicating ongoing

390 sea ice losses, further threats to critical krill populations pose risks to the energy intake and reproductive  
391 success and long-term viability of humpback whale populations dependent on consistent Antarctic feeding  
392 (Pallin et al. 2023).

393 Iceberg scouring is a major factor in the high biodiversity of benthic communities in the Weddell Sea  
394 (Gutt and Starmans 2001). Even at 600 m depths, iceberg scouring has a strong effect on the benthic  
395 environment, disrupting the upper layers of the seabed and removing macrofauna. This patchy disturbance  
396 and distribution pattern occurs roughly every 200 square meters on the Antarctic continental shelf. Global  
397 warming is predicted to raise iceberg scouring frequency (Gutt 2001; Smale et al. 2008), disrupting the  
398 environment (Smale and Barnes 2008). Gutt et al. (2015) expects tipping points are significant due to these  
399 effects and lack of knowledge.

#### 400 **4. From species' stressors to food web effects**

401 A major challenge in contemporary ecology lies in predicting the effects of stressors on complex multispecies  
402 systems, such as food webs. Network analysis has proved to be a powerful tool to tackle this issue, since it  
403 can capture the effects of individual and multiple stressors on communities and ecosystems (Montoya et al.  
404 2009; O'Gorman et al. 2012; Bruder et al. 2019).

405 Environmental and anthropogenic stressor effects in the southwest and the Atlantic sector of the Southern  
406 Ocean have been mostly assessed individually and at the organism and/or population, i.e., at the node level  
407 (Table S2), with one exception: the effect of fisheries in the San Jorge Gulf food web (see section below for  
408 more details). To address the most plausible stressors effects on the selected food webs, given the current  
409 information, we built hypotheses for each study area. To this aim, we developed a theoretical framework  
410 considering the following: a) stressor(s), b) parameter(s) affected, c) node-level properties of the affected  
411 species, and d) network-level properties of the food web.

412 We considered that a stressor will affect one of the following species' characteristics or parameters:  
413 metabolism, biomass, distribution, and diet (Figure 2). 'Metabolism' refers to any change related to  
414 metabolic rate, such as reproduction, hatching, larval development, growth and mortality, and contami-  
415 nation due to pollutants (e.g. growth effect in filter-feeders due to sediment in water column in Potter  
416 Cove; endocrine disruption in fish due to urban pollutants in Beagle Channel). 'Biomass' indicates an  
417 effect at the population level, where the density/abundance is being impacted (e.g. abundance decreases in  
418 macrobenthos due to iceberg scouring in Weddell Sea). 'Distribution' entails a change at the population  
419 level in the geographic space occupied by a species, e.g. southward contraction of Antarctic krill due to  
420 sea warming of the Scotia Sea. 'Diet' includes alterations in the prey items of a species at the population  
421 level, e.g. due to prey switching, having a direct effect on the structure of the food web, e.g. new prey  
422 item (discards) for seabirds due to fishery activities in Burdwood Bank. Next, we considered node- and  
423 network-level properties relevant to the hypothesized stressor effects on the food webs, and which have been  
424 previously calculated for the studied food webs (Table 2). At the node-level, we included: a) degree, b)  
425 trophic position, c) omnivory index, and d) relative abundance (see Table S1 in Supporting Information for  
426 properties of stressed nodes). At the network-level, we considered: a) connectance, b) path length, c) mean  
427 trophic level, and d) omnivory (Table 1).

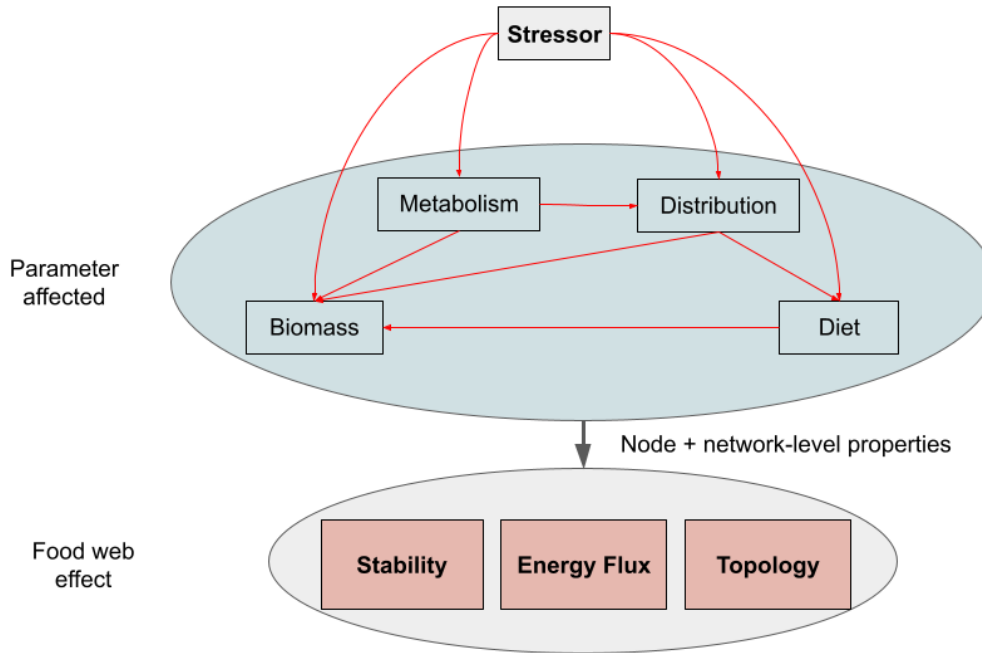


Figure 2: Conceptual diagram: from species' stressors to food web effects. See text for explanation.

428 Table 2. Node and network-level properties used to build hypotheses on the stressors' effects.

Property	Definition	Relevance for stressor effects	Reference
<i>Node-level</i>			
Degree	Number of feeding interactions in which the species participates as prey and/or predator.	Perturbations to high-degree species may have more significant effects on the food web robustness to perturbations than low-degree species.	Dunne et al. (2002b); Jordán et al. (2007)
Trophic position	Place in the food web relative to the basal resources that support the community. Classifies species in: basal, intermediate and top.	Perturbations on basal resources, intermediate species and top predators are expected to have large effects on the rest of their communities if ecosystem control is bottom-up, wasp-waist or top-down, respectively.	Williams and Martinez (2000); Thompson et al. (2007)
Omnivory	Consumer resource use across trophic levels.	High-omnivore species (generalists) are more flexible than low-omnivore species to diet changes.	Thompson et al. (2007)
Relative abundance	Species' density in proportion to the other species of the food web.	Perturbations on abundant (dominant) species are expected to have large effects on the stability and energy flux of the food and ecosystem, respectively.	Nilsson and McCann (2016)
<i>Network-level</i>			
Conectance	Proportion of actual interactions among possible ones.	Estimator of community sensitivity to stressors. High connectance gives resistance and resilience to the food web.	Dunne et al. (2002a)
Path length	Average distance, accounted by the number of interactions, between any pair of species.	Short distances enhance rapid and broad propagation of perturbations.	Albert and Barabási (2002)
Mean TL	Average of all species' trophic position contained in the food web.	Influences the magnitude and efficiency of trophic transfer. A higher mean food chain length reflects increased energy availability and productivity.	Duffy et al. (2007); Olivier et al. (2019)
Omnivory	Proportion of species that feed at different trophic levels.	It provides trophic flexibility to an ecosystem. Reduces probability of trophic cascades.	Kratina et al. (2012)

429 **4.1 Main stressor effects in food webs in a southwest Atlantic - Antarctic gradient**

430 The most common stressor reported along the southwest Atlantic - Antarctic gradient is global warming,  
 431 except for Beagle Channel and Burdwood Bank, which are more influenced by the introduction of an alien

432 species and fisheries, respectively (section 3, Table 3). The main characteristics of global warming in the  
433 region, and the most plausible drivers of change, are: sea warming, glacial retreat, elevated sediment input in  
434 the water column, and reduction of the sea ice extent. These drivers act in different ways and magnitudes in  
435 the studied locations along the latitudinal gradient. Despite emphasizing global warming in this section, this  
436 does not mean that no other stressors act or interact with global warming in the study systems, potentially  
437 buffering the overall effect on the food web (e.g. sea warming and fishery in San Jorge Gulf). Climate  
438 change has led to several well-documented impacts on marine species regarding distributional shifts induced  
439 by warming of marine currents (Wu et al. 2012; Poloczanska et al. 2013; Vergés et al. 2019). Furthermore,  
440 warmer temperatures increase species metabolic rates (Brown et al. 2004). Changes in metabolic rates  
441 can subsequently translate into shifts in species traits (body size, Vucic-Pestic et al. (2011); Klein et al.  
442 (2018)], biomass (Perry et al. 2020) and distribution (Kortsch et al. 2015). Alterations in the species body  
443 size and distributions have ripple effects on feeding interactions, for example, it can introduce new feeding  
444 interactions (Vergés et al. 2014; Pecuchet et al. 2020), modify existing ones, and shorten energy pathways  
445 (Bartley et al. 2019; O’Gorman et al. 2019), and reduce trophic efficiencies (Vucic-Pestic et al. 2011).

446 In recent years, several new fish (Galván et al. 2022) and macroinvertebrates species (Vinuesa 2005; López-  
447 Gappa 2022) were registered in Patagonia, mostly in San Jorge Gulf in relation to the southward range  
448 shift of warm-temperate species. This distributional change is driven by the tropicalization of temperate  
449 waters caused by sea warming (Vergés et al. 2014; Vergés et al. 2019). Because of its location in the  
450 ecotone between two biogeographic provinces, the Argentine (30°S - 44°S) and the Magellanic (43°S - 55°S)  
451 (Balech and Ehrlich 2008), the San Jorge Gulf is prone to changes in species composition. We hypothesize  
452 that sea warming will alter the food web structure topologically, by increasing the number of species and  
453 interactions. Newcomers are, in general, mid-trophic level species with generalist diets, hence an increase in  
454 food web connectance may be expected (Bartley et al. 2019). In another temperate ecosystem, an increase  
455 in the number of fish species, led to an increase in functional diversity and predation rate (Sgarlatta 2023);  
456 consequences that may also be expected in San Jorge Gulf. Given the short path length of the San Jorge  
457 Gulf food web, the disturbances from the listed stressors are expected to spread to many species of the  
458 food web (Table 3). However, it has to be acknowledged that the increase in functional diversity driven  
459 by the range expansion of warm-temperate species is contrary to the process of homogenization and loss of  
460 functional diversity in the area driven by trawl fisheries (Rincón-Díaz et al. 2021).

461 In the middle of the latitudinal gradient (considered in this study), the Scotia Sea has experienced one  
462 of the largest levels of sea warming of any polar region (Whitehouse et al. 2008; Atkinson et al. 2019).  
463 López-López et al. (2022) suggested that the southward distributional shift of generalist predators from  
464 the northern towards southern Scotia Sea increases network connectance of the latter, while decreasing its  
465 modularity. The lower modularity may increase the probability of perturbations spreading through the  
466 network (Stouffer and Bascompte 2011), which may be offset by increased connectance enhancing robustness  
467 to species loss (Dunne et al. 2002b). In the northern Scotia Sea around South Georgia Island, we suggest  
468 that the declining krill biomass driven by sea warming (Atkinson et al. 2019), ocean acidification and  
469 pollution synergy (Rowlands et al. 2021), will reduce the energy transfer to top predators like seabirds and  
470 marine mammals. However, this may be buffered since the dominant copepod species have maintained their  
471 distribution (Tarling et al. 2018), but most importantly, showed an abundance increase in recent decades  
472 likely due to reduced predation and competition for food (Ward et al. 2018). All this is significant for the  
473 structure of the food web given the central role of krill and copepods, characterized by high degree and  
474 mid-trophic position (Table S1). Overall, the food web’s inherent resilience, marked by high connectance  
475 and omnivory, added to the potential compensation for the krill decrease due to a copepod increase, may  
476 buffer against structural changes (Table 3).

477 In Potter Cove, a fjord-like Antarctic ecosystem, the impacts of climate change affect many species within  
478 the food web. Potter Cove has recently experienced frequent events of marine heatwaves, i.e. prolonged  
479 periods of anomalously high sea surface temperatures (Oliver et al. 2018; Latorre et al. 2023). This has  
480 led to decreases in biomasses of different planktonic functional groups (Garcia et al. 2019; Latorre et al.  
481 2023). Given the relatively low abundance of phytoplankton, zooplankton’s low degree, and the modular  
482 configuration of the food web, we hypothesize that changes in these nodes, due to increased sea temperatures,  
483 will be retained in the basal pelagic compartment of the food web and will not expand to higher trophic  
484 levels. Benthic primary producers in Potter Cove are being influence by the decrease in winter sea ice cover

485 (higher light availability), the increased levels of sediments in the water column due to glacial melt run-off  
486 (lower light penetration) and the newly free-ice areas available for colonization associated to glacier retreat.  
487 The overall local effect of climate change on macroalgae is a net increase in their production (Deregibus et al.  
488 2023). It has been proposed that larger diversity in primary producers can support a more diverse food web  
489 with more specialized consumers (Iken et al. 2023). We expect to see differential effects of climate change  
490 on hard and soft bottom associated food webs (Cordone et al. 2020). Given the high relative abundance  
491 and the high degree of the macroalgae functional group (Table S1), we expect a longer hard bottom food  
492 web, wider consumer trophic niches, and that it will become more stable as sea ice cover decreases and the  
493 glacier retreats due to global warming. In soft bottom areas of the Cove, multiple food web nodes are being  
494 affected by ongoing warming effects: decrease in net primary production of benthic microalgae (Hoffmann  
495 et al. 2019), and changes in the benthic community biomass, distribution and composition (Sahade et al.  
496 2015; Pasotti et al. 2015). Given that the Potter Cove food web’s present low connectance and omnivory,  
497 we suggest fragility and potential trophic cascade effects (Marina et al. 2018) with pronounced changes in  
498 energy fluxes (Table 3).

499 The southernmost location of the latitudinal gradient is the Weddell Sea, where the main effect of global  
500 warming is the decrease in sea ice extent, with reported anomalies in the past summer seasons (Fretwell  
501 et al. 2023). Declining sea ice extent has reduced the abundance of krill (Atkinson et al. 2004; Flores  
502 et al. 2012), and produced an increase in phytoplankton productivity (Pinkerton et al. 2021; Isla 2023),  
503 altering the plankton community structure, and benefiting cryptophytes over diatoms (Lin et al. 2021).  
504 Moreover, habitat loss from sea ice decline will reduce the foraging success and breeding sites of seabirds  
505 (e.g., snow petrel *Pagodroma nivea* and emperor penguin *Aptenodytes forsteri*), decreasing their biomassess  
506 and modifying their distributions. The projected rise in iceberg scouring is expected to significantly alter the  
507 biomass and community structure of macrobenthos, which in turn will impact mid-trophic level predators  
508 such as demersal fish (Gutt 2001; Mintenbeck et al. 2012). While we do not anticipate large-scale topological  
509 changes in the food web, local extinctions could lead to such changes, particularly affecting benthic species  
510 (Gutt and Piepenburg 2003). Given that the impacted species—whether individually like krill, or collectively  
511 like macrobenthos—present a mid-trophic position, high biomass and high degree (Table S1), we hypothesize  
512 that significant shifts in energy fluxes will occur (Table 3). Additionally, the food web’s low proportion of  
513 omnivores suggests reduced system resilience (Table 1), increasing the likelihood of regime changes (Gutt et  
514 al. 2015).

515 The two ecosystems in the subantarctic region, the Beagle Channel and Burdwood Bank, are more affected  
516 by other anthropogenic stressors than warming. Although these areas are being impacted by sea warming,  
517 potentially affecting vertebrate and invertebrate species (Franco et al. 2020), to date no studies exist for  
518 Beagle Channel and Burdwood Bank ecosystems. In the Beagle Channel, the introduction of chinook salmon,  
519 a non-native species, poses a significant risk to the existing food web (Fernández et al. 2010). We hypothesize  
520 that chinook salmon’s predation on Fuegian sprat and black southern cod will disrupt the established patterns  
521 of interaction within the food web. Both of these prey species are crucial for food web dynamics due to  
522 their mid-trophic positions and relatively high abundance (Table S1). Moreover, we expect that changes  
523 in the black southern cod population will have a more significant impact on the food web than changes  
524 in the Fuegian sprat population, as the black southern cod has a higher degree (Table S1). Overall, these  
525 disruptions could have far-reaching effects on the ecosystem. This is particularly concerning given the short  
526 path length of the food web, which means that changes can quickly propagate through the system, affecting  
527 many species and potentially destabilizing the entire network. This phenomenon is further heightened by the  
528 ecosystem’s inherent vulnerability to changes at mid-trophic levels, often referred to as wasp-waist control  
529 (Table 3). In the Burdwood Bank region, fishing activities may be the main stressor causing shifts in the  
530 food web (Table S2). We hypothesize that a combination of factors will destabilize the already fragile  
531 ecosystem, characterized by low connectance and low omnivory (Table 1). These factors include a decline  
532 in the biomass of the Patagonian toothfish -a key, highly-connected species (Table S1)- as well as smaller  
533 changes in the biomass of four mid-level fish species, five top-level seabird species, and over 30 types of  
534 benthic macroinvertebrates due to bycatch (Gaitán and Marí 2016; Martínez et al. 2022; Tamini et al.  
535 2023). Additionally, alterations in the diets of six seabird species, caused by discarded catch (Tamini et al.  
536 2023), are expected to disrupt the energy flow and further reduce the stability of the food web (Table 3).

537 Table 3. Summary of food web (FW) effects according to the main stressors reported for each study area. \*Industrial trawl fishery

Study area	Stressor	Food web effects
<b>San Jorge Gulf</b>	Fishery*	↑ FW connectance ↓ FW stability ↓ functional diversity
	Sea warming	Shifts in FW topology ↑ FW connectance ↑ functional diversity
<b>Beagle Channel</b>	Alien species	Shifts in FW topology ↑ spread of perturbations
<b>Burdwood Bank</b>	Fishery	Shifts in main energy fluxes ↓ FW stability
<b>Scotia Sea</b>	Sea warming	↑ FW connectance ↓ FW modularity ↓ energy transfer to high TLs ↑ spread of perturbation
<b>Potter Cove (Antarctica)</b>	Sea warming	↓ perturbation spreading
	Sea ice decline + glacial retreat	Differential impacts, by substrate: hard (HS) or soft (SS) ↑ FW chain length & ↑ trophic niches (HS) ↑ FW fragility & trophic cascades (SS)
<b>Weddell Sea (Antarctica)</b>	Sea ice decline + iceberg scouring	Shifts in main energy fluxes ↑ likelihood of regime shifts ↓ resilience

## 539 5. Gaps and future perspectives

540 In the selected study areas along the southwest Atlantic to Antarctic latitudinal gradient, several stressors  
541 may directly affect consumers' diets triggered by modified environmental conditions (sea warming, reduced  
542 sea ice extent) and new species (due to species' distributional shifts and introductions). Moreover, the  
543 population trends (biomasses and abundances) of important species are also changing (Funes 2020; Hindell  
544 et al. 2020; Woods et al. 2023) driving shifts in their roles as either predators or prey (e.g. Belleggia et  
545 al. (2017), Pasti et al. (2021)). These diet and biomass shifts should be investigated in order to generate  
546 reliable predictions of food web responses to multiple stressors in the southwest Atlantic - Antarctic region.  
547 One could argue that both shifts might increase the complexity of food webs in the short term by adding  
548 generalist predators or new prey (e.g., Cordone et al. (2023)) or by enabling discard consumption (e.g. Funes  
549 et al. (2022)). However, in the long term, both stressors may lead to the biological extinction of certain prey  
550 and competitors (e.g. Anton et al. (2019)) or a significant reduction in target and incidental catch species  
551 (e.g. Dulvy et al. (2014)), thereby promoting food web simplification.

552 Since this review deals with qualitative data of prey-predator interactions and stressor effects influencing  
553 them, adding quantitative data to the food webs (i.e. interaction strength) and to the stressors (i.e. mag-  
554 nitude) would lead to a better comprehension of how a given stressor acts on specific species which might  
555 translate into food web effects. In this context, it would be useful to develop quantitative food web models  
556 where the strength of interactions reflect energy fluxes among species (Nilsson and McCann 2016; Kortsch et  
557 al. 2021). Emerging methods such as bioenergetic food web modeling have been proposed in this regard and  
558 present promising ways to estimate shifts in species interactions within food webs as a response to stressors  
559 (Gellner et al. 2023; Gauzens et al. n.d.). Shifts that can lead to changes in overall ecosystem functioning  
560 and stability.

561 Regarding knowledge and data gaps on species and their stressors, especially the Beagle Channel and Burd-  
562 wood Bank are poorly sampled study regions. Almost no information exists on the impact of global warming  
563 effects (sea warming, glacial retreat, ocean acidification) on communities in these ecosystems, though warm-  
564 ing of mid-water and bottom layers have been shown at a regional scale (Franco et al. 2020). Yet in Beagle  
565 Channel recent experimental studies have tested the tolerance of fishes to scenarios of sea warming and/or  
566 acidification suggesting potential metabolic impacts on species (Lattuca et al. 2018; Lattuca et al. 2023).

567 Analyzing the impact of multiple stressors through observational studies is challenging (Gutt et al. 2021).  
568 This complexity arises partly because of potential for antagonistic effects, where impacts cancel each other  
569 out, or synergistic effects, where the combined impact is greater than the sum of individual effects (Boyd et  
570 al. 2015; Côté et al. 2016). Moreover, these interactive effects are complicated to handle in the framework  
571 of complex food webs. The number of pathways through which a species may affect or be affected by other  
572 species, and through which stressors may permeate communities, increases exponentially with the number  
573 of species and interactions in a network (Menge 1995). To tackle this complexity, Beauchesne et al. (2021)  
574 developed a theory-grounded approach using motifs (i.e. groups of species that, when put together, construct  
575 whole food webs) to simplify food webs; a methodology that could be applied to our food web study cases.

## 576 Conclusions

577 We have reviewed the main environmental and anthropogenic stressors acting in six different areas along a  
578 large-scale latitudinal gradient, from temperate Atlantic to cold Antarctic ecosystems. Using a theoretical  
579 framework that combines species and food web level data, we suggest how warming effects may impact food  
580 web structure and functioning. These qualitative predictions are intended to serve as the basis for future  
581 studies in marine ecosystems of the Southern Hemisphere that aim at quantifying the magnitude of these  
582 stressors and how they are affecting quantitative food web properties, such as energy fluxes and stability.  
583 There is an urgent need to assess these changes using a holistic and quantitative framework where the  
584 magnitude of stressors and species interactions are taken into account.

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