

The response of trophic interaction networks to multiple stressors along a large-scale latitudinal range in the Southern Hemisphere

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The response of trophic interaction networks to multiple stressors along a large-scale latitudinal range in 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. Understanding how these networks respond to global change stressors is of increasing interest, especially along geographical gradients. This review summarizes potential 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. The objectives are: 1) to describe the structure of marine food webs along this latitudinal axis using a network approach; 2) to identify predominant global change-related stressors affecting each ecosystem; and 3) to summarize observed food web changes and hypothesize on stressor impacts. The effects of stressors were primarily reviewed at the species level. Alternative hypotheses for each study area were formulated considering: a) main stressors; b) impacted parameters; c) node-level species properties; and d) network-level food web properties. Global warming emerges as the most common stressor among the studied areas across the latitudinal gradient, except in the Beagle Channel and Burdwood Bank, where alien species introduction and fisheries are more influential. We offer a series of alternative hypotheses on how warming may affect the food webs. This review emphasizes the benefits of using a network approach to understand and predict stressor effects in Southern Hemisphere marine ecosystems. This approach provides a holistic understanding of ecosystems, which enhances our ability to identify key species and their interactions, offering insights for ecosystem management and conservation in the face of global change stressors.

Keywords: stressors, global warming, 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 that may be crucial for ecosystem stability, and hence important for ecosystem management and biodiversity conservation (Thompson et al. 2012). There is a growing interest in understanding how ecological networks respond to environmental and anthropogenic stressors along geographical gradients (Cirtwill et al. 2015; Bauer et al. 2022). Yet, only a few studies have described variation in food web structure along latitudinal gradients in marine ecosystems. The few that have come from the Global North (Wood et al. 2015; Kortsch

44 et al. 2019; Pecuchet et al. 2020), whereas no studies, nor meta-analyses, on geographical variation in marine
45 food webs exist for the Global South (Southern Hemisphere).

46 Here we review for the first time stressor responses of marine food webs for areas located along a Southwest
47 Atlantic to Antarctic gradient (45 - 78°S, Figure 1). We considered proven and expected changes in food webs
48 driven by global change-related stressors in selected areas along this large-scale latitudinal range. The aim
49 of this review is threefold: 1) describe the complexity and structure of marine food webs along the Southwest
50 Atlantic to Antarctic axis from a network perspective; 2) identify the ongoing global change-related stressors
51 for each marine ecosystem containing the food webs; and 3) review proven food web changes and elaborate
52 on a series of alternative hypotheses on how the identified stressors might affect food web features (energy
53 flow, stability and topology), combining information on node- and network-level properties. To identify
54 the main stressors, we performed an exploratory and configurative review (Haddaway et al. 2015), where
55 we considered more than 200 peer-reviewed articles retrieved mainly from Google Scholar using keywords
56 combining location ("San Jorge Gulf", "Beagle Channel", "Burdwood Bank", "Scotia Sea", "Weddell Sea",
57 "Potter Cove") and stressors ("acidification", "alien species", "climate change", "contamination", "fishery",
58 "glacier retreat", "global warming", "ice scouring", "invasive species", "marine contaminant", "microplastics",
59 "mercury", "pollution", "sea ice", "sea warming", "urban waste"). Additionally, we specifically searched for
60 publications by authors we know may have conducted related studies in the area including grey literature.
61 We performed this type of review because our objective was to formulate evidenced-based hypotheses rather
62 than providing an exhaustive list of species-level stressors for each ecosystem. Finally, we suggest which
63 additional data and analyses are needed to gain insights into the stressors' effects on food web properties in
64 the Southwest Atlantic to Antarctic region.

65 **2. Assessment of the food web structure and stressors in the Southwest Atlantic** 66 **- Antarctic region**

67 The Southwest and the Atlantic sectors of the Southern Ocean comprise one of the most biologically produc-
68 tive regions of the world's oceans (Acha et al. 2004; Latorre et al. 2023). The referred region extends from
69 San Jorge Gulf (45°S) in the Patagonian shelf to the Weddell Sea (78°S) in the Southern Ocean and covers
70 a well-connected oceanic area (Matano et al. 2010; Guihou et al. 2020).

71 Throughout this region, many studies address the ecology of predator-prey relationships but most of these
72 studies are restricted to a few interacting species or certain components of the food web such as fish, crus-
73 taceans, and benthos (e.g., Vinuesa and Varisco (2007), Padovani et al. (2012), Pasotti et al. (2015),
74 Riccialdelli et al. (2020), Saunders et al. (2019), Pasti et al. (2021), Cordone et al. (2022)). Only few
75 studies consider the complexity of trophic interactions within highly resolved food webs containing hundreds
76 of species, ranging from phytoplankton, zooplankton, benthos, fish, seabirds to whales (but see Jacob et al.
77 (2011), Marina et al. (2018), Funes et al. (2022), López-López et al. (2022), Rodríguez et al. (2022), Marina
78 et al. (2024b)). Neglecting this complexity might lead to a misunderstanding of the structure and func-
79 tioning of the ecosystems and ultimately reduce the ability to predict ecosystem responses to perturbations
80 (Montoya et al. 2009).

81 The Southwest Atlantic - Antarctic marine biota has been and is currently subjected to a variety of stressors
82 (e.g., sea warming, glacial retreat, ice changes, acidification, species invasion, fisheries, and contamination).
83 Here, we consider a stressor as a global change variable if it causes a quantifiable change, irrespective
84 of its direction (increase or decrease), in a biological response (Orr et al. 2020). This aligns with the
85 framework established during the early years of the International Geosphere-Biosphere Programme (IGBP)
86 for classifying driving forces. These driving forces are grouped into those that modify the composition of
87 the Earth's fluid envelopes (e.g., sea warming, acidification), and those that originate as local processes but
88 attain global importance due to their widespread impact (e.g., species invasion, fisheries) (Vitousek 1992;
89 Sage 2020). Although it is well-known that multiple stressors act in concert at any given time (e.g., warming
90 and fishery; acidification and contaminants) (Gutt et al. 2021), to date stressor assessments have been
91 performed individually. Moreover, the potential for interactive effects of two or more stressors (synergy or
92 antagonism) (Côté et al. 2016) is almost unknown for the region (Rowlands et al. 2021).

93 In this review, we included six large marine areas in the Southern Hemisphere for which highly-resolved

empirical food webs in terms of species diversity and trophic interactions have been previously described: (1) San Jorge Gulf (~45 - 47°S, 65 - 68°W) (Funes et al. 2022), (2) Beagle Channel (~54°S, 68°W) (Rodriguez et al. 2022), (3) Burdwood Bank (~54°S, 59°W) (Marina et al. 2024b), (4) Scotia Sea (~48 - 58°S, 50°W) (López-López et al. 2022), (5) Potter Cove (62°S, 58°W, Antarctica) (Marina et al. 2018), and (6) Weddell Sea (74 - 78°S, 30°W, Antarctica) (Jacob et al. 2011; Marina et al. 2024a) (Figure 1). The geographic locations of these marine biomes span from temperate Atlantic waters to Antarctic, and are exposed to global change stressors (e.g., sea warming, glacial retreat, fishery, pollution) (Sage 2020), of which some are locally more important, e.g., fisheries in the San Jorge Gulf or glacial retreat in the Antarctic.

In the following subsections, we describe the complexity and structure of the mentioned marine food webs, identify the main stressors, the species (or trophic species), and the parameters affected. Table 1 summarizes the properties of the marine food webs (number of nodes, trophic interactions, connectance, path length, mean trophic level, and omnivory); Table 2 provides a list of the main stressors affecting species inhabiting each area, considering: stressors' nature, species and parameter affected, and locality.

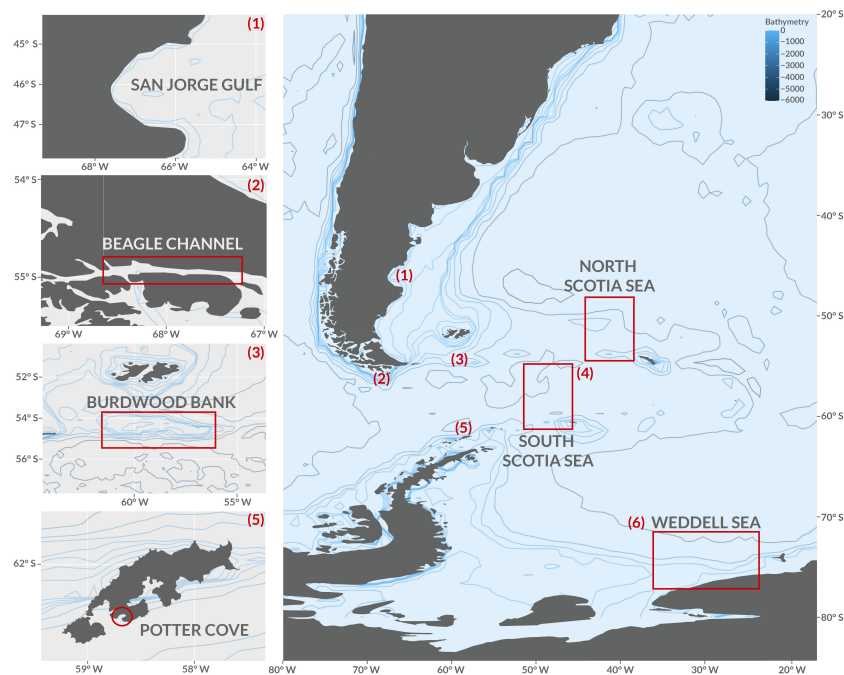


Figure 1: Map of the study areas along the southwest Atlantic - Antarctic latitudinal gradient. The areas are marked with numbers from one to six. Smaller areas (1. San Jorge Gulf, 2. Beagle Channel, 3. Burdwood Bank, and 5. Potter Cove) are shown on the panels to the left, whereas the larger areas (4. 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.

107 2.1 San Jorge Gulf

108 San Jorge Gulf is the northernmost study area considered in this review (Figure 1), located from Cabo dos
 109 Bahias (44°55'S) to Cabo tres Puntas (47°06'S). It is a partially enclosed basin spanning approximately 34,000
 110 km² and ~100 m of maximum depths. The gulf's productivity supports large invertebrate and vertebrate
 111 fisheries (Góngora et al. 2012), as well as marine mammal and seabird populations (Yorio 2009). Two
 112 prominent frontal systems meet in the shallower northern and southern ends of the gulf (with depths ~40
 113 m), which are also the places of highest productivity (Glenbocki et al. 2015).

114 The San Jorge Gulf food web contains 165 nodes (trophospecies) and 1015 trophic interactions with a
 115 connectance of 0.04. The percentage of top predators is 16%, 78% of the nodes are intermediate and 6%
 116 are basal; 60% of the consumers are omnivorous (Table 1). The most connected nodes are the Argentine

117 red shrimp *Pleoticus muelleri*, the squat lobster *Gimothoa gregaria*, squids (*Illex argentinus* as dominant
118 species), and Amphipoda. Notably, these nodes are positioned at mid-trophic levels in the food web (3, 2.5,
119 3.6, and 2, respectively) (Funes et al. 2022).

120 The gulf is subject to several global change stressors (Table 2), especially fisheries (González-Zevallos and
121 Yorio 2006, 2011; Galván et al. 2022). By discarding species, trawl fisheries add new trophic interactions to
122 the food web which results in decreasing trait variability and stability of the system (Rincón-Díaz et al. 2021;
123 Funes et al. 2022). Moreover, this has changed the availability of resources to some predators. For example,
124 the Argentine hake *Merluccius hubbsi*, one of the main bycatch species, has become a prey item of non-diving
125 seabirds, like the kelp gull *Larus dominicanus* (González-Zevallos and Yorio 2006) and reef fish (Funes et al.
126 2019). Although juveniles of *M. hubbsi* is largely the main bycatch species, 29 cartilaginous and 69 bony local
127 fish species were also registered as incidental catch between 2005 and 2014 (Bovcon et al. 2013; Ruibal Nuñez
128 2020). This level of impact has triggered a shift in the functional diversity of fish assemblages in the gulf,
129 homogenizing their trophic function (Rincón-Díaz et al. 2021), for example in the sites with the historical
130 highest fishing activity, the fish assemblage experienced a relative increase in midwater fusiform species and
131 lost variability in their depth range (Rincón-Díaz et al. 2021). Other functional changes were a decrease in the
132 maximum sizes of individual fish, together with a drop in elasmobranch biomass and an increase in crustacean
133 biomass (Funes 2020). The significant increase in crustacean biomass was mainly due to the increase in the
134 Argentine red shrimp and the squat lobster (Funes 2020). These species have become the most important
135 prey for the most abundant fish in the area, the Argentine hake and the narrownose smooth-hound *Mustelus*
136 *schmitti* (Belleggia et al. 2017; Pasti et al. 2021). However, since commercial fisheries ceased their activities
137 in the San Jorge Gulf in 2015 (Annex I, Resolution CFP No 7/2018), the effects mentioned above from trawl
138 fisheries on the structure and function of the ecosystem may have changed since then. Nowadays only small-
139 scale trawling from artisanal fishery is practiced in the gulf. Sea warming is another important stressor in the
140 San Jorge Gulf, because of the southward shifts of northern fish populations to the area (Galván et al. 2022).
141 Signs of sea warming have been detected in the gulf and nearby regions. Anomalous bottom temperature
142 increments of up to 2°C have been observed in the gulf since 2000 (Isla and Cortizo 2024), and a positive trend
143 in sea surface temperature of 0.3°C/0.4°C per decade over a 30-year series (Saraceno et al. 2022; Risaro et al.
144 2022). Additionally, a positive trend in sea surface temperature (~0.5 °C increase in the last 20 years) has
145 been reported for the Nuevo and San Jose Gulfs, both located close to and northward of the San Jorge Gulf
146 (Williams and Nocera 2023). The region is especially prone to be affected by climate-driven shifts in species
147 ranges because it is situated in the ecotone of two biogeographic provinces, the Argentine (30°S - 44°S) and
148 the Magellanic (43°S - 55°S) (Balech and Ehrlich 2008). In addition to tropicalization from northern fish
149 populations, alien species are also documented to affect demersal assemblages of fish and macroinvertebrates
150 in the gulf (Galván et al. 2022). Finally, the gulf is exposed to urban and industrial pollution (Verga et al.
151 2020). In particular, there is an oil monobuoy from which oil manipulation and general oil transport along
152 the Patagonian coast registered several oil spills and chronic oil discharges (García-Borboroglu et al. 2008).
153 Other marine systems impacted by the oil spill have shown extraordinary mortality events for cetacean (Litz
154 et al. 2014), sea turtles (Wallace et al. 2017), and important decrease in marine bird populations (Irons et
155 al. 2000) sea otters (Garrott et al. 1993) and macroalgae (Southward and Southward 1978), with cascading
156 effects throughout the food web (Peterson 2001).

157 2.2 Beagle Channel

158 Located at a more southern latitude (~54°S, 68°W), the Beagle Channel (Figure 1) is an interoceanic passage
159 at the southernmost tip of South America, spanning 240 km in length and 5 km in width (~1200 km²), with
160 a depth range of 0 - 140 m. It features complex coastlines, varying bathymetry, a prevailing west-to-east
161 circulation pattern, and a significant longitudinal gradient of glacial freshwater discharge (Schloss et al. 2023).
162 Bruno et al. (2023) suggests that locally produced suspended particulate organic matter (mostly composed
163 of phytoplankton) and organic matter accumulated in the sediments (macroalgae-originated detritus) are
164 the primary food sources for the marine ecosystem, as opposed to allochthonous materials.

165 The Beagle Channel food web includes 145 nodes and 1115 trophic interactions with a connectance of 0.05
166 (Table 1). This food web is hypothesized to have a wasp-waist structure (i.e., the structure and dynamics
167 of the ecosystem are regulated primarily by mid-trophic level species), where the following species play

168 a crucial role in the dynamics of the ecosystem: Fuegian sprat *Sprattus fuegensis*, longtail southern cod
169 *Patagonotothen ramsayi*, black southern cod *P. tessellata*, frogmouth *Cottoperca trigloides*, and squat lobster
170 *G. gregaria* (Riccialdelli et al. 2020). Moreover, the squat lobster has been identified as a species linking
171 food web modules and connecting the entire food web (Rodriguez et al. 2022).

172 One of the main local stressors in the Beagle Channel is the introduction of invasive species (Table 2).
173 Salmonidae were introduced to Tierra del Fuego in the 1930s. Especially, the Chinook salmon *Oncorhynchus*
174 *tshawytscha* causes concern. The detection of this species in Tierra del Fuego dates back to April 2006, and
175 its population has been expanding since then (Nardi et al. 2019). Being a top predator, the Chinook salmon
176 can compete for resources with several native predators in the Beagle Channel (Correa and Gross 2008),
177 but also prey on them. This is the case for Notothenioids (*Eleginops maclovinus*, *Patagonotothen tessellata*,
178 *P. cornucola*, *P. sima*, *Paranotothenia magellanica*, *Harpagifer bispinis*), the Atherinidae *Odontesthes smitti*
179 and *O. nigricans*, the Fuegian sprat, and larvae of king crabs (*Lithodes antarcticus* and *Paralomis granulosa*)
180 (Fernández et al. 2010). Ciancio et al. (2008) observed that Chinook salmon primarily feeds on sprats in the
181 Southern Patagonian Shelf Ecosystem area and display trophic levels comparable to those of intermediate-
182 sized fish and cephalopod predator species, showing significant dietary overlap with the Magellanic penguin
183 *Spheniscus magellanicus*. Another potential competitor for Chinook salmon in the Beagle Channel, sharing
184 a similar diet, is the native Commerson's dolphin *Cephalorhynchus commersonii* (Riccialdelli et al. 2013).
185 In invaded ecosystems, predation emerges as the primary driver of significant damage, often leading to cas-
186 cading effects impacting even primary producers (David et al. 2017). In the Beagle Channel, other stressors
187 include contaminants like metals, perfluorinated compounds, hydrocarbons, and microplastics found in ani-
188 mal tissue (algae, mussel, fish, and guano) and sediments (Duarte et al. 2011; Llorca et al. 2012). Carbon
189 and carbohydrate levels in Ushuaia Bay's (54°48 S, 68°18 W) surface sediments are similar to hypertrophic
190 ecosystems (i.e., greater input of nutrients than an eutrophic situation), along with hydrocarbons and heavy
191 metals linked to port and industrial activities (Gil et al. 2011; Commendatore et al. 2012). Ferreira et al.
192 (2021) showed that the black southern cod in Ushuaia Bay may be exposed to endocrine-disrupting com-
193 pounds from urban and industrial pollution. Moreover, Pérez et al. (2020) and Ojeda et al. (2021) found
194 microplastics in the Chilean mussel *Mytilus chilensis* and the sea snail *Nacella magellanica*, respectively.
195 These studies link pollutants to port and industrial activities of Ushuaia; we therefore expect the area of
196 the Beagle Channel closest to the city to be the most affected by contaminants. Contaminants potentially
197 spread through the food web, from lower to higher trophic level taxa. In the Beagle Channel and Atlantic
198 coast of Tierra del Fuego food webs mercury concentrations rose with benthivory, and higher mercury was
199 found in phytoplankton and the squat lobster. This latter species connects pelagic and benthic habitats, so
200 any disruption to them could disrupt the food web (Rodriguez et al. 2022). Dodino et al. (2022) found the
201 highest mercury levels in Magellanic penguin feathers from offshore colonies in Tierra del Fuego. Recently,
202 Ushuaia's kelp forests have also seen changes in composition along with a decrease in biodiversity as a result
203 of urban pollution (Kaminsky et al. 2023). It is important to note that sea warming might be a less signifi-
204 cant stressor in the Beagle Channel compared to the other areas, as global warming is melting glaciers and
205 the influx of cold freshwater is actually slightly cooling the seawater (Saraceno et al. 2022).

206 **2.3 Burdwood Bank**

207 The so-called Burdwood Bank ecosystem comprises Marine Protected Areas Namuncurá - Burdwood Bank
208 I and II (~54°S, 59°W), meaning the shallow submarine plateau named Burdwood Bank with a 200 m
209 isobath boundary, and a deep slope that reaches 4000 m in depth, respectively (Administración de Parques
210 Nacionales 2022) (Figure 1). Physical features in the plateau are fairly stable, with salinity averaging 34 all
211 year round and temperature ranging between 4 and 8°C (Acha et al. 2004). The plateau is surrounded by
212 steep flanks of up to 4000 m depth, protected by the Marine Protected Area Namuncurá - Burdwood Bank
213 II (32,000 km²). Intense upwelling and mixing occur in relation to the slope, entraining deep nutrient-rich
214 waters into the photic layer (Matano et al. 2019), and resulting in a fairly homogeneous water column both
215 spatially and temporally (Matano et al. 2019).

216 The Burdwood Bank food web comprises 379 nodes and 1788 interactions, with a connectance of 0.01, and
217 an asymmetric degree distribution (i.e. most of the species have a relatively low number of interactions and
218 few species concentrate most of them). Almost half of the consumers are omnivores (48%), and the network

219 displays a small-world pattern (Marina et al. 2024b) (Table 1). This network pattern implies a rapid spread
220 of a perturbation (e.g., contaminant, population fluctuation, local extinction) throughout the food web due
221 to a short distance among species but, at the same time, a greater resistance caused by the confinement of
222 perturbations mainly within subnetworks as a result of a high clustering coefficient (Bornatowski et al. 2017;
223 Dormann et al. 2017).

224 The main stressors reported for the ecosystem of the Marine Protected Areas Namuncurá within Burdwood
225 Bank I and II are related to human activities such as fisheries and contamination (Table 2). Several fisheries
226 targeting demersal fish operate in the vicinity and within the Marine Protected Areas. The fishery of the
227 Patagonian toothfish *Dissostichus eleginoides* has gained prominence in recent years (Allega et al. 2020;
228 Gorini et al. 2021). Although these are regulated by the Argentinean government, incidental bycatches do
229 occur, where demersal fish of the genera *Coelorinchus* and *Macrourus*, seabirds and benthic invertebrates
230 (30+ taxa) are the most common bycatches (Gaitán and Marí 2016; Martínez et al. 2022). Noteworthy,
231 among the invertebrates caught, eight species are indicator taxa of vulnerable marine ecosystems (Gaitán
232 and Marí 2016; Schejter and Albano 2021). However, independent assessments of these bycatches suggest
233 no significant impact on the populations (Gaitán and Marí 2016; Martínez et al. 2022). Besides bycatches,
234 seabirds are being affected by fisheries due to discards, altering their diet; the most frequently encountered
235 species are black-browed albatross *Thalassarche melanophris*, Southern giant petrel *Macronectes giganteus*,
236 Cape petrel *Daption capense*, Southern royal albatross *Diomedea epomophora*, Northern giant petrel *M.*
237 *halli*, and white-chinned petrel *Procellaria aequinoctialis* (Tamini et al. 2023). Nevertheless, there is a
238 lack of knowledge considering their role in the ecosystem and the potential joint effect of both target fish
239 and bycatch in a broader food web framework. Contaminants such as microplastics and mercury occur
240 in the water column of the Burdwood Bank ecosystem (Cossi et al. 2021; Fioramonti et al. 2022; Di
241 Mauro et al. 2022). Microplastics are distributed along the entire water column, from surface to deep
242 waters (3-2450 m) (Di Mauro et al. 2022). More importantly, microplastics were found in soft tissues
243 of benthic macroinvertebrates (sea stars *Henricia obesa* and *Odontaster penicillatus*) and benthopelagic
244 fish (*Patagonotothen guntheri* and *P. ramsayi*), which not only incorporated the contaminant from the
245 environment through their filter-feeding system but could also get it indirectly from prey organisms already
246 containing plastics in their tissues (Cossi et al. 2021). Notably, one of the contaminated species is the
247 longtail southern cod *P. ramsayi*. This species is part of the core group of species that drive the ecosystem
248 through the suggested wasp-waist control (Ricciardelli et al. 2020). Mercury transfer and biomagnification
249 are occurring at a greater pace than near coastal areas such as the Beagle Channel (Fioramonti et al. 2022).
250 The Fuegian sprat *S. fuegensis*, a pelagic fish with a mid-trophic level in the food web, has the highest levels
251 of mercury recorded (Fioramonti et al. 2022). Considering the wasp-waist control of the Fuegian sprat in the
252 food web (Ricciardelli et al. 2020), a rapid and widespread contamination to the top predators is expected
253 (Fioramonti et al. 2022). Despite evidence of warming of surface, mid-water and bottom layers (100 m)
254 in Burdwood Bank (Franco et al. 2020a), studies on the oceanographic aspects of the system are lacking.
255 Warming impacts on the species and trophic interactions in Burdwood Bank are also unknown.

256 2.4 Scotia Sea

257 The Scotia Sea is a deep-sea basin (~48 - 58°S, 50°W), delimited by the Drake Passage to the West and by
258 the island complex of the Scotia Arc to the North, East, and South, with an approximate extension of 1.5 x
259 106 km² and a depth range of 0 - 3000 m (Murphy et al. 2006) (Figure 1). Its oceanography is dominated by
260 the Antarctic Circumpolar Current, which is spatially structured by frontal systems (Whitworth 1980). The
261 South Antarctic Circumpolar Current Front subdivides the Scotia Sea into two biogeographic regions: the
262 Northern Scotia Sea, characterized by higher and more variable temperatures, and the Southern Scotia Sea,
263 characterized by lower and more stable temperatures and influenced by seasonal sea ice (Raymond 2011).

264 Analysis of the Northern and Southern Scotia Sea food webs shows that the former is relatively more
265 complex in terms of number of species and links than the latter: with more species richness (218 vs 192) and
266 interactions (10008 vs 7241) and a slightly higher connectance (0.21 vs 0.20). Mean path length is shorter in
267 the Northern Scotia Sea food web, whereas the Southern Scotia Sea network displays a greater proportion
268 of omnivores and a lower mean trophic level (López-López et al. 2022) (Table 1).

269 The Scotia Sea is a vast and heterogenous oceanic region, where especially the zone around South Georgia

270 island represent an area of interest, here referred to as ‘Northern Scotia Sea’. The majority of studies
271 analyzing the stressors’ effects come from this area (e.g., Murphy et al. (2007); Whitehouse et al. (2008);
272 Trathan (2023)) (Table 2). The main stressor of the Scotia Sea is commercial fisheries. Krill fishery on
273 *Euphausia superba* not only impacts the targeted species, but also the many predators that depend on it as
274 a food source (Hilborn et al. 2017). Yet, data currently available from monitoring of krill and its predators
275 remain insufficient, hence identifying the potential fishery impacts on the ecosystem is difficult (Trathan
276 et al. 2021). Apart from krill fishery, two other commercial fisheries operate in the Scotia Sea, targeting
277 Patagonian toothfish species *D. eleginoides* and *Dissostichus mawsoni*. The *D. eleginoides* stock is linked
278 to the stock at South Georgia (‘Northern Scotia Sea’) (Collins et al. 2010), while the *D. mawsoni* stock is
279 linked to the Antarctic continental shelf (‘Southern Scotia Sea’) (Soeffker et al. 2022). Recently, Trathan
280 (2023) has identified several concerns regarding aspects of these fisheries, highlighting that it is crucial to
281 recognize ongoing changes such as the recovery of baleen whales and climate change. These factors increase
282 the uncertainty for fishery managers, necessitating direct consideration in the management of harvested and
283 dependent species.

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 Antarctic krill *E. superba* also showed an increase in mean body length (Atkinson et
288 al. 2019), likely altering predator-prey interactions. Moreover, it allows krill to reach colder feeding grounds
289 near the seabed, with the potential to link krill to unexpected predators such as demersal fish (Schmidt et
290 al. 2011). Because of warming, the krill distribution has shifted southward (Atkinson et al. 2019), changing
291 the food web from a krill-based to a non-krill-based, where myctophid fish and squid are playing important
292 roles as key species in a wasp-waist controlled system (Saunders et al. 2019). While the krill distribution
293 has shifted southward, the most abundant calanoid copepods have maintained their distribution (Tarling et
294 al. 2018). Mercury transfer and biomagnification are current processes occurring in the Scotia Sea, where
295 the total concentration of contaminants increase with trophic level and are highest in notothenioid and
296 myctophid fish (e.g. *D. eleginoides*, *Gymnoscopelus nicholsi*), and seabirds (Seco et al. 2021). During years
297 of low Antarctic krill abundance, predators must deal with both the stress of reduced prey availability and
298 the concurrent rise in mercury exposure (Seco et al. 2021).

299 **2.5 Potter Cove (Antarctica)**

300 In the Antarctic realm, Potter Cove is a ~ 9 km² fjord with a depth range of 0 - 200 m located at 25 de
301 Mayo/King George Island (62°S, 58°W) on the South Shetland Islands of the West Antarctic Peninsula
302 (Figure 1). The cove, bordered by the Fourcade Glacier, is divided into three areas: a) the internal cove,
303 a high glacier-influenced, soft sediment zone with a 50 m maximum depth; b) the central cove, a mixed
304 substrate area with low meltwater influence and an 80 m maximum depth; and c) the external cove, ice-free
305 for 60 years with a 185 m maximum depth and rocky substrate (Jerosch et al. 2018). Potter Cove’s high-
306 latitude location results in variable environmental conditions due to photoperiod length seasonality. Sea
307 ice often covers this area in winter (Schloss et al. 2012). With low phytoplankton biomass, macroalgae,
308 and microphytobenthos are likely the primary food sources for secondary benthic production (Quartino and
309 Boraso de Zaiuso 2008).

310 The Potter Cove food web includes 110 nodes and 649 interactions, and a connectance of 0.05 (Table 1). It
311 presents an asymmetric degree distribution and a modular structure, i.e., groups of species interact more
312 strongly with each other within modules than with species belonging to other modules (Rodriguez et al.
313 2022).

314 Regional warming in the West Antarctic Peninsula recorded in the last half-century (Chown et al. 2022)
315 has been one of the main stressors driving changes in Potter Cove (Table 2), a system highly dependent on
316 glacier and sea ice dynamics (Deregibus et al. 2017). This has caused drastic environmental and biological
317 transformations such as shifts in dominance within the benthic community (Schloss et al. 2012; Quartino
318 et al. 2013; Sahade et al. 2015). In Potter Cove, there has been a decreasing trend in total sea ice
319 cover since 1991 (Schloss et al. 2012). Changes in the annual timing of landfast ice formation and the
320 breakup of the sea ice cover has multiple effects on species (Michel et al. 2019). Warmer winters and

321 springs result in earlier sea ice melt, causing an abrupt increase in the light available for benthic primary
322 producers (Deregibus et al. 2020). Sea ice also mediates physical disturbances to the benthos by influencing
323 sedimentation and iceberg scouring. These factors affect the production of macroalgae, albeit in opposite
324 ways (Deregibus et al. 2017), and microphytobenthos (Hoffmann et al. 2019). On the other hand, sea ice
325 is an important habitat for diatoms and their associated consumers, including copepods and the Antarctic
326 krill (Flores et al. 2012), and thus important for benthic-pelagic nutrient and carbon cycling during winter.
327 Additionally, a decrease in winter sea ice cover produces an increase in physical perturbation on benthic
328 shallow communities in coastal shallows due to ice scouring (Deregibus et al. 2017). The glacier surrounding
329 Potter Cove has been receding at an increasing rate since 1950 (Rückamp et al. 2011), which has caused
330 a massive discharge of sediment-laden meltwater (Meredith et al. 2018). Large quantities of suspended
331 particles affect growth, survival, and reproduction of benthic species. This led to a major shift in the benthic
332 community structure, from a filter feeders–ascidian domination to a mixed assemblage with scavengers and
333 opportunistic species (Sahade et al. 2015), and the metabolic balance in benthos went from net autotrophy
334 to heterotrophy (Braeckman et al. 2021). Additionally, massive stranding events of the tunicate *Salpa*
335 *thompsoni* and the Antarctic krill linked to the presence of glacial meltwater have been reported (Fuentes
336 et al. 2016). Rising temperatures leading to ice and glacial melting has also substantial impacts on pelagic
337 primary productivity, since it reduces water salinity, affecting water column stratification, light penetration
338 and nutrient availability for photosynthesis (Schloss et al. 2012). In Potter Cove, changes in biomass of
339 most phytoplankton species have been observed under heat wave conditions, resulting in a shift from a
340 microplankton to a nanoplankton dominated community (Antoni et al. 2020; Latorre et al. 2023). This
341 means that in areas strongly affected by glacier melt, the planktonic food web is dominated by the microbial
342 loop (i.e., ciliates and heterotrophic dinoflagellates preys upon nanophytoplankton, which are sequentially
343 available prey for small omnivorous copepods), instead of being predominantly herbivorous (Garcia et al.
344 2016, 2019). In addition, phytoplankton species under these warming conditions showed a decrease in
345 metabolic rate and in the quality of the fatty acid composition (Latorre et al. 2023).

346 2.6 Weddell Sea (Antarctica)

347 Located between 74 and 78°S, the high Antarctic Weddell Sea shelf spans approximately 450 km from East
348 to West (Jacob et al. 2011) (Figure 1). The water depth ranges from 200 to 500 m, with shallower regions
349 being covered by continental ice that forms the coastline along the eastern and southern parts of the Weddell
350 Sea. The shelf area is characterized by a complex three-dimensional benthic habitat, substantial benthic
351 biomasses, and an intermediate to high diversity (Teixidó et al. 2002).

352 The Weddell Sea food web exhibits a high level of network complexity, featuring the greatest number of nodes
353 (490) and trophic interactions (16041) among the marine food webs of the Southern Hemisphere (Table 1).
354 Its connectance (0.07), mean trophic level (2.62) and omnivory (51%) are intermediate compared to the
355 other food webs (Table 1). Recently, the interaction strengths of this food web were estimated, revealing the
356 presence of numerous weak and few strong interactions (Marina et al. 2024a).

357 In the Weddell Sea, the main stressors are related to warming impacts (sea warming, sea ice extent, iceberg
358 scouring) (Table 2), where sea warming has been substantial since the early 1980s (Turner et al. 2020).
359 For example, in 2017, the mean temperature for February reached 1.45°C, the highest monthly mean ever
360 recorded, i.e., 0.56°C above the climatological mean (Turner et al. 2020). Warming has caused spatial and
361 temporal reductions in sea ice, impacting both pelagic and benthic communities (Constable et al. 2014; Gutt
362 et al. 2021). Since the start of satellite imaging in 1978, sea ice extent has reached new record lows. Some of
363 the most pronounced impacts of decreasing sea ice are negative changes in primary productivity (Atkinson et
364 al. 2004) and declines of the Antarctic krill. Moreover, reduced sea ice cover allows increased access to krill
365 by its predators (Kawaguchi et al. 2009), which further contributes to its decline. Some outcomes of the krill
366 decline are reduced energy intake by higher trophic levels such as humpback whales *Megaptera novaeangliae*
367 Braithwaite et al. (2015) which rely heavily on krill for foraging, as well as reduced carbon export due to fewer
368 fecal pellets (Pauli et al. 2021). Many higher trophic level species in the Weddell Sea are greatly impacted by
369 sea ice reductions due to loss of habitat and food source availability, such as the Antarctic petrel *Thalassoica*
370 *antarctica* - one of the most abundant seabirds in the Weddell Sea (Orgeira et al. 2021). Other impacted sea
371 bird species are the emperor penguin *Aptenodytes forsteri*. Reductions in sea ice constrain its population as

372 evidenced by recent observations in the Bellingshausen Sea region (Fretwell et al. 2023). The Arctic tern
373 *Sterna paradisaea* spends the summer in the Weddell Sea exploiting krill swarms under receding ice edges.
374 Thus, continued warming is expected to gradually erode the abundance and distribution of marine seabirds
375 in the Weddell Sea (Orgeira et al. 2021). Many marine mammals depend on for breeding and foraging such
376 as the Weddell and Crabeater seals (*Leptonychotes weddellii* and *Lobodon carcinophagus*) (Wege et al. 2021)
377 and the Humpback whale. Reduced sea ice can significantly affect the breeding success of seals (Wege et al.
378 2021) and body condition of whales (Turner et al. 2020). Notothenioid fish, with *Pleuragramma antarcticum*
379 being the most abundant species, confront numerous stressors such as sea warming, sea ice decline, and ocean
380 acidification, posing significant threats to their survival. While certain species exhibit physiological plasticity
381 to cope with increased oxygen demand, most notothenioid fish are stenothermal and incapable of adjusting
382 their metabolic functioning (Mintenbeck et al. 2012). Projections suggest that the preferred thermal habitat
383 of the Antarctic toothfish, *Dissostichus mawsoni*, an important fish species in the Weddell Sea ecosystem,
384 may contract over the next three decades, underscoring the potential impact of global warming on these
385 species (Constable et al. 2014). Iceberg scouring is a major factor in driving the high biodiversity of benthic
386 communities in the Weddell Sea (Gutt and Starman 2001). Even at 600 m depths, iceberg scouring has a
387 strong effect on the benthic environment, disrupting the upper layers of the seabed and removing macrofauna.
388 This patchy disturbance and distribution pattern occurs roughly every 200 square meters on the Antarctic
389 continental shelf. Global warming is predicted to increase iceberg scouring frequency (Gutt 2001; Smale et
390 al. 2008), disrupting the environment (Smale and Barnes 2008) with the potential for tipping points (Gutt
391 et al. 2015).

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392 Table 1. Complexity and structure properties of the marine food webs considered in the present review. Refer to Table S2 for
 393 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. (2024b)
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)

394 3. From species' stressors to food web effects: a qualitative approach

395 A major challenge in contemporary ecology lies in predicting the effects of stressors on complex multispecies
 396 systems, such as food webs. Network analysis has proved to be a powerful tool to tackle this issue, since it
 397 can capture the effects of individual and multiple stressors on communities and ecosystems (Montoya et al.
 398 2009; O'Gorman et al. 2012; Bruder et al. 2019).

399 Global change stressor effects in the Southwest and the Atlantic sector of the Southern Ocean have been
 400 mostly assessed individually and at the organism and/or population, i.e., at the node level (Table 2), with
 401 one exception: the effect of fisheries in the San Jorge Gulf food web (see section below for more details).
 402 To address the most plausible effects of the main stressors on the selected food webs, given the current
 403 information, we formulated a series of alternative hypotheses for each study area. To this aim, we developed
 404 a theoretical framework considering the following: a) stressor(s), b) parameter(s) affected, c) node-level
 405 properties of the affected species, and d) network-level properties of the food web.

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

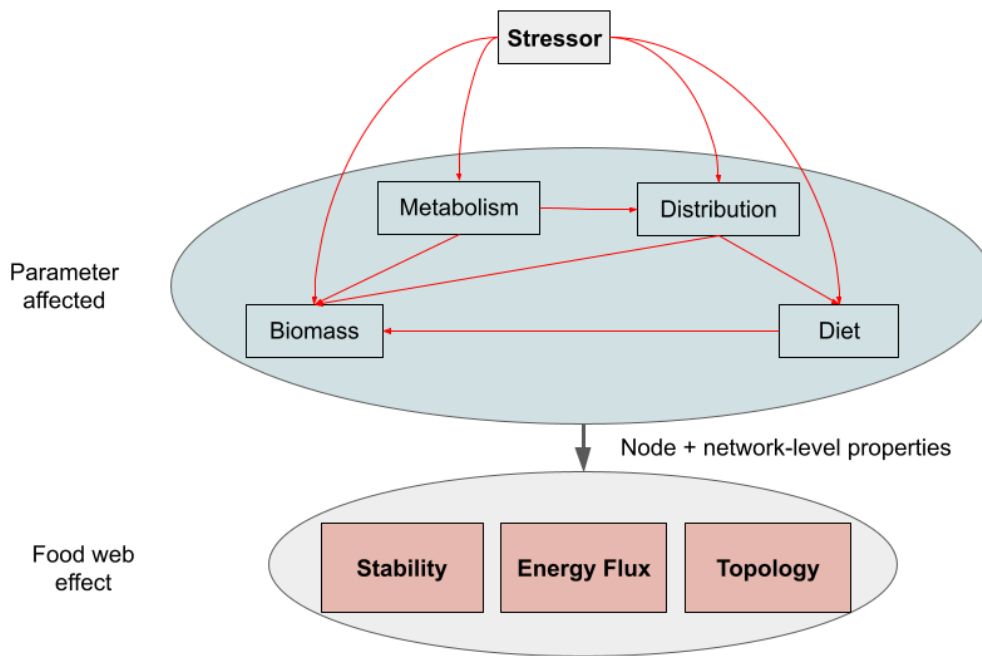


Figure 2: Conceptual diagram: from species' stressors to food web effects. A stressor (e.g., global warming) will affect one of the following species' characteristics: metabolism, population biomass, distribution, and diet. 'Metabolism' refers to any change related to metabolic rate, such as reproduction, hatching, larval development, growth and mortality, and contamination due to pollutants. 'Population biomass' indicates an effect at the population level, where the density/abundance is being impacted. 'Distribution' entails a change at the population level in the geographic space occupied by a species. 'Diet' includes alterations in the prey items of a species at the population level. Next, we considered node- and network-level properties relevant to the hypothesized stressor effects on the food webs. At the node-level, we included: a) degree, b) trophic position, c) omnivory index, and d) relative abundance. At the network-level, we considered: a) connectance, b) path length, c) mean trophic level, and d) omnivory. Finally, we elaborate a series of competing hypotheses on how the identified stressors might affect food web features (stability, energy flow, topology), combining information on node- and network-level properties.

422 Table 2. Environmental and anthropogenic stressors reported for the study areas: San Jorge Gulf, Beagle Channel, Burdwood Bank, Scotia Sea (North and South), Potter Cove, and Weddell
 423 Sea. Stressor categories: sea warming; glacial retreat; sediment in the water column; iceberg scouring; sea ice extent; ocean acidification; ocean acidification + plastics; microplastics;
 424 mercury; urban & industrial pollution; fishery; alien species. The species affected were considered at the node level, whereas effects were considered at the organism and population levels.
 425 Categories of affected parameters and variables: metabolism; biomass; distribution; diet (see text for explanation). "Locality" indicates whether a stressor for a given species was reported
 426 for the study area ('In situ') or in another area ('Elsewhere').

Study area	Stressor	Species affected	Parameter affected	Locality	Reference
San Jorge Gulf	Sea warming	Fish assemblage & its prey	Distribution	In situ	Galván et al. (2022)
	Fishery	Demersal fish community	Biomass	In situ	Galván et al. (2022)
	Fishery	Macroinvertebrates, fish and seabirds Di	et In	situ (G?)	onzalez-Zevallos2006; González-Zevallos and Yorio (2011); Yorio et al. (2017)
Beagle Channel	Alien species	Fish assemblage & its prey	Distribution	In situ	Galván et al. (2022); Ciancio et al. (2010)
	Urban & industrial pollution	Seabirds & benthic assemblage	Biomass	Elsewhere	Moore and Dwyer (1974); Buskey et al. (2016)
	Urban & industrial pollution	Macroalgae; <i>Mytilus edulis chilensis</i> , <i>Patagonotothen tessellata</i>	Metabolism	In situ	Giarratano and Amin (2010); Ferreira et al. (2021); Kaminsky et al. (2023)
Burdwood Bank	Mercury	Phytoplankton, Zooplankton, <i>Grimothea gregaria</i>	Metabolism	In situ	Fioramonti et al. (2022)
	Microplastics	<i>Mytilus edulis chilensis</i> , <i>Nacella magellanica</i>	Metabolism	In situ	Pérez et al. (2020); Ojeda et al. (2021)
	Alien species: Chinook salmon <i>Oncorhynchus tshawytscha</i>	<i>Patagonotothen tessellata</i> , <i>Sprattus fuegensis</i>	Diet/Biomass	In situ (the presence), Elsewhere (changes in prey biomass)	Fernández et al. (2010); Ciancio et al. (2008)
Burdwood Bank	Mercury	<i>Dissostichus eleginoides</i> , <i>Sprattus fuegensis</i> , <i>Patagonotothen ramsayi</i> , <i>Cottoperca trigloides</i> (fish) & squids Me	tabolism In	situ (F?)	ioramonti2022
	Microplastics	<i>Henricia obesa</i> & <i>Odontaster penicillatus</i> (sea stars); <i>Patagonotothen guntheri</i> & <i>P. ramsayi</i> (fish) Me	tabolism In	situ (C?)	ossi2021; Pérez et al. (2021)
	Fishery	Target: <i>Dissostichus eleginoides</i> . Bycatch: <i>Macrourus</i> sp., <i>Coelorrinchus</i> sp. (fish), <i>Daption capense</i> , <i>Thalassarche melanophris</i> , <i>Macronectes giganteus</i> , <i>T. chrysostruma</i> , <i>Diomedea epomophora</i> (seabirds), 30+ spp macrobenthos Bi	omass El	sewhere (G?)	aitan2016; Martínez et al. (2022); Administración de Parques Nacionales (2022); Tamini et al. (2023)

Study area	Stressor	Species affected	Parameter affected	Locality	Reference
Scotia Sea, North & South	Fishery	Thalassarche melanophris, Macroneustes giganteus, Daption capense, Diomedea epomophora, M. halli, Procellaria aequinoctialis (seabirds)	Diet	Elsewhere	Tamini et al. (2023)
	Mercury	Krefflichthys anderssoni, Protomyctophum bolini, Electrona antarctica, Gymnoscopelus nicholsi, Gymnoscopelus braueri, Dissostichus eleginoides	Metabolism	In situ	Seco et al. (2021)
	Ocean acidification + plastics Sea warming	Euphausia superba, Limacina retroversa (Pteropoda) Euphausia superba	Metabolism Metabolism	In situ In situ	Rowlands et al. (2021); Manno et al. (2022) Murphy et al. (2007); Perry et al. (2020)
Potter Cove (Antarctica)	Sea warming Fishery	Euphausia superba Euphausia superba	Distribution Biomass	In situ In situ	Atkinson et al. (2019) Trathan et al. (2021)
	Sediment in water column	Microphytobenthos, macroalgae, benthic filter feeders (ascidians), pelagic filter feeders (krill, salps)	Metabolism	In situ	Sahade et al. (2015); Deregibus et al. (2016); Fuentes et al. (2016); Hoffmann et al. (2019)
	Sea ice extent	Krill	Biomass	Elsewhere	Flores et al. (2012)
	Sea ice extent	Benthic community (macroalgae, invertebrates)	Metabolism	Elsewhere	Clark et al. (2013); Campana et al. (2018)
	Glacial retreat	Benthic community (macroalgae, invertebrates)	Biomass	In situ	Quartino et al. (2013); Lagger et al. (2017); Lagger et al. (2018)
	Iceberg scouring	Benthic community	Biomass	In situ	Deregibus et al. (2017); Deregibus et al. (2023)
	Sea warming	Phytoplankton	Metabolism, biomass	In situ	Antoni et al. (2020); Latorre et al. (2023)
	Sea warming	Zooplankton	Metabolism, biomass, diet	In situ	Garcia et al. (2016); Garcia et al. (2019)
	Sea warming	Fish	Metabolism	In situ, elsewhere	Strobel et al. (2013); Souza et al. (2018); Saravia et al. (2021)
	Weddell Sea (Antarctica)	Iceberg scouring	Macrobentos	Biomass	In situ
Iceberg scouring		Hexactinellida sponges	Biomass	In situ	Gutt and Starmans (2001); Pineda-Metz et al. (2020); Gutt (2001); Gutt and Piepenburg (2003)
Ocean acidification		Primary producers / krill / foraminifera / flagellates	Metabolism	Elsewhere	Deppeler et al. (2020); Isla (2023); Gutt et al. (2015); Moy et al. (2009)

Study area	Stressor	Species affected	Parameter affected	Locality	Reference
	Ocean acidification	Euphausia superba, Pleuragramma antarcticum	Metabolism	In situ	Kawaguchi et al. (2010); Kawaguchi et al. (2013); Piñones and Fedorov (2016); Mintenbeck et al. (2012)
	Sea warming	Large (diatoms) & small (cryptophytes) phytoplankton, zooplankton (salps)	Metabolism	Elsewhere	Isla (2023); Gutt et al. (2015); Trebilco et al. (2020)
	Sea warming	Euphausia superba, Nototheniid fish, Pleuragramma antarcticum	Metabolism	In situ (M?)	eyer2017; Hill et al. (2013); Mintenbeck et al. (2012); Constable et al. (2014); Mintenbeck et al. (2012)
	Sea ice extent	Phytoplankton, Lobodon carcinophaga, Hydrurga leptonyx, Leptonychotes weddellii, Ommatophoca rossii, Mirounga leonina, Arctocephalus gazella	Metabolism	In situ	Pineda-Metz et al. (2020); Wege et al. (2021); Siniff et al. (2008)
	Sea ice extent	Euphausia superba, Pleuragramma antarcticum, Pagodroma nivea, Thalassoica antarctica, Pygoscelis adeliae	Metabolism	In situ	Orgeira et al. (2021); Braithwaite et al. (2015); Hill et al. (2013); Mintenbeck et al. (2012)
	Sea ice extent	Megaptera novaeangliae	Metabolism	Elsewhere	Pallin et al. (2023)
	Sea ice extent	Aptenodytes forsteri	Metabolism	Elsewhere	Orgeira et al. (2021)

427 **3.1 Hypotheses on the main stressor effects in food webs in a southwest Atlantic - Antarctic** 428 **gradient**

429 The most common stressor reported along the Southwest Atlantic - Antarctic gradient is global warming,
430 except for Beagle Channel and Burdwood Bank, which are more influenced by the introduction of an alien
431 species and fisheries, respectively (Section 2, Table 2). The main characteristics of global warming in
432 the region, and the most plausible drivers of change, are sea warming, glacial retreat, elevated sediment
433 input to the water column, and reduction of the sea ice extent. These drivers act in different ways and
434 magnitudes in the studied locations along the latitudinal gradient. Despite emphasizing global warming in
435 this section, this does not mean that no other stressors act or interact with global warming in the study
436 systems, potentially buffering or even amplifying the overall effect on the food web (e.g. sea warming and
437 fishery in San Jorge Gulf). Climate change has led to several well-documented impacts on marine species
438 regarding distributional shifts induced by warming of marine currents (Wu et al. 2012; Poloczanska et al.
439 2013; Vergés et al. 2019). Furthermore, warmer temperatures increase species metabolic rates (Brown et
440 al. 2004). Changes in metabolic rates can subsequently translate into shifts in species traits (e.g. body size,
441 Vucic-Pestic et al. (2011); Klein et al. (2018)), population biomass (Perry et al. 2020), and distribution
442 (Kortsch et al. 2015). Alterations in the species body size and distributions have ripple effects on feeding
443 interactions, for example, it can introduce new feeding interactions (Vergés et al. 2014; Pecuchet et al. 2020),
444 modify existing ones, and shorten energy pathways (Bartley et al. 2019; O’Gorman et al. 2019), and reduce
445 trophic efficiencies (Vucic-Pestic et al. 2011).

446 **3.1.1 San Jorge Gulf** In recent years, several new fish (Galván et al. 2022) and macroinvertebrates species
447 (Vinuesa 2005; López-Gappa 2022) were registered in Patagonia, mostly in San Jorge Gulf concerning the
448 southward range shift of warm-temperate species. This distributional change is driven by the tropicalization
449 of temperate waters caused by sea warming (Vergés et al. 2014; Vergés et al. 2019). Because of its location
450 in the ecotone between two biogeographic provinces, the Argentine (30°S - 44°S) and the Magellanic (43°S
451 - 55°S) (Balech and Ehrlich 2008), the San Jorge Gulf is prone to changes in species composition. We
452 hypothesize that sea warming will alter the food web structure topologically, by increasing the number of
453 species and interactions. Newcomers are, in general, mid-trophic level species with generalist diets, hence an
454 increase in food web connectance may be expected (Bartley et al. 2019). In another temperate ecosystem,
455 an increase in the number of fish species led to increases in functional diversity and predation rate (Sgarlatta
456 2023); consequences that may also be expected in San Jorge Gulf. Given the short path length of the San
457 Jorge Gulf food web, the disturbances from the listed stressors are expected to spread to many species of
458 the 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 **3.1.2 Scotia Sea** In the middle of the latitudinal gradient considered in this study, the Scotia Sea has
462 experienced one of the largest levels of sea warming of any polar region (Whitehouse et al. 2008; Atkinson
463 et al. 2019). López-López et al. (2022) suggested that the southward distributional shift of generalist
464 predators from the northern towards southern Scotia Sea increases network connectance of the latter, while
465 decreasing its modularity. The lower modularity may increase the probability of perturbations spreading
466 through the network (Stouffer and Bascompte 2011). In the northern Scotia Sea around South Georgia
467 Island, we suggest that the declining krill biomass driven by sea warming (Atkinson et al. 2019), ocean
468 acidification and pollution synergy (Rowlands et al. 2021), will reduce the energy transfer to top predators
469 like seabirds and marine mammals. However, this may be buffered because the dominant copepod species
470 have maintained their distribution (Tarling et al. 2018), but most importantly shown an abundance increase
471 in recent decades likely due to reduced predation and competition for food (Ward et al. 2018). The potential
472 compensation for the decrease in krill by increasing abundance of copepod may buffer against structural and
473 functional changes in the food web (Table 3), since krill and copepod play similar (central) roles in the food
474 web, characterized by a high degree and mid-trophic position.

475 **3.1.3 Potter Cove (Antarctica)** In Potter Cove, a fjord-like Antarctic ecosystem, the repercussions
476 of climate change extend across numerous species. Noteworthy, these effects are non-uniform within the

477 food web, manifesting differently across its pelagic and benthic compartments. Potter Cove has recently
478 experienced frequent events of marine heatwaves, i.e., prolonged periods of anomalously high sea surface
479 temperature (Oliver et al. 2018; Latorre et al. 2023). This has led to decreases in biomasses of different
480 planktonic functional groups (Garcia et al. 2019; Latorre et al. 2023). Given the relatively low abundance of
481 phytoplankton and zooplankton low mean degree (Table S1), resulting in weak interaction strengths between
482 these low trophic levels and higher ones (Rodriguez and Saravia 2024), added to the modular configuration
483 of the food web (Rodriguez et al. 2022), we hypothesize that changes in these nodes due to warming will
484 be retained at the lower trophic levels of the pelagic compartment and will not expand to higher trophic
485 levels. Macroalgae, important benthic primary producers, are being influenced by the decrease in winter sea
486 ice cover (higher light availability), the increased levels of sediments in the water column due to glacial melt
487 run-off (lower light penetration) and the newly free-ice areas available for colonization associated to glacier
488 retreat. The local effect of climate change on macroalgae is a net increase in their production and macroalgal
489 detritus (Braeckman et al. 2019; Deregibus et al. 2023; Iken et al. 2023). On the other hand, increased
490 glacial runoff lead to a decrease in net primary production of benthic microalgae (Hoffmann et al. 2019);
491 reduced secondary benthic production; changes on the benthic community composition and an expansion of
492 its distribution towards newly free-ice areas, specially filter and deposit feeders species (Sahade et al. 2015;
493 Pasotti et al. 2015; Braeckman et al. 2024). In an increasing glacial melt disturbance scenario, it's expected
494 a shift in the food sources of benthic species towards grazing on macroalgal and their detritus (Braeckman
495 et al. 2024). It has been proposed that larger diversity in primary sources can support a more diverse food
496 web with more specialized consumers (Iken et al. 2023). Given the high relative abundance and the high
497 degree of the macroalgae functional group (Table S1), we expect a longer benthic food web (i.e., number of
498 interactions connecting low and high-trophic levels), wider consumer trophic niches, meaning an increase in
499 omnivory, and a more stable benthic food web as sea ice cover decreases and glaciers retreat due to global
500 warming. As a net effect of climate change on the overall Potter Cove food web, we expect a significant shift
501 in energy fluxes, rather than drastic alterations in the topological structure, affecting the transfer of energy
502 from lower to higher trophic levels.

503 **3.1.4 Weddell Sea (Antarctica)** In the southernmost food web, the Weddell Sea, the main effect of global
504 warming is the decrease in sea ice extent, with reported anomalies in the past summer seasons (Fretwell et
505 al. 2023). Declining sea ice extent has reduced the abundance of krill (Atkinson et al. 2004; Flores et al.
506 2012), and produced an increase in phytoplankton productivity (Pinkerton et al. 2021; Isla 2023), altering the
507 plankton community structure, and benefiting cryptophytes over diatoms (Lin et al. 2021). Moreover, habitat
508 loss from sea ice decline will reduce the foraging success and breeding sites of seabirds (e.g., snow petrel *P.*
509 *nivea* and emperor penguin), decreasing their population biomasses and modifying their distributions. The
510 projected rise in iceberg scouring is expected to significantly alter the biomass and community structure
511 of macrobenthos, which in turn will impact mid-trophic level predators such as demersal fish (Gutt 2001;
512 Mintenbeck et al. 2012). While we do not anticipate large-scale topological changes affecting mean food web
513 attributes, local extinctions may produce changes in the interactions, especially impacting benthic species
514 (Gutt and Piepenburg 2003). Given that the impacted species—whether individually like krill, or collectively
515 like macrobenthos and notothenioids (e.g., *P. antarcticum*)—present a mid-trophic position, high population
516 biomasses and high degree (Table S1), we hypothesize that significant shifts in energy fluxes will occur (Table
517 3). Additionally, the food web's low proportion of omnivores suggests reduced system resilience (Table 1),
518 increasing the likelihood of regime changes (Gutt et al. 2015).

519 **3.1.5 Beagle Channel and Burdwood Bank** The Beagle Channel and Burdwood Bank -the two ecosys-
520 tems in the subantarctic region- are more affected by other stressors than warming. That said, there are
521 impacts of warming in these ecosystems, especially affecting vertebrate and invertebrate species (Franco et
522 al. 2020a), but generally studies addressing these impacts are lacking for the Beagle Channel and Burdwood
523 Bank ecosystems. In the Beagle Channel, the introduction of chinook salmon, a non-native species, poses
524 a significant risk to the existing food web (Fernández et al. 2010). We hypothesize that chinook salmon's
525 predation on Fuegian sprat and black southern cod will disrupt the established patterns of interaction within
526 the food web. Both of these prey species are crucial for food web dynamics due to their mid-trophic positions
527 and relatively high abundance (Table S1). Moreover, we expect that changes in the black southern cod pop-
528 ulation will have a more significant impact on the food web than changes in the Fuegian sprat population,

529 as the black southern cod has a higher degree (Table S1). Overall, these disruptions could have far-reaching
 530 effects on the ecosystem. This is particularly concerning given the short path length of the food web, which
 531 means that changes can quickly propagate through the system, affecting many species and potentially desta-
 532 bilizing the entire network. This phenomenon is further heightened by the ecosystem's inherent vulnerability
 533 to changes at mid-trophic levels, often referred to as wasp-waist control (Table 3). In the Burdwood Bank
 534 region, fishing activities may be the main stressor causing shifts in the food web (Table 2). We hypothesize
 535 that a combination of factors will destabilize the already fragile ecosystem, characterized by low connectance
 536 and low omnivory (Table 1). These factors include a decline in the biomass of the Patagonian toothfish -a
 537 highly-connected, key species (Table S1)- as well as smaller changes in the population biomass of four mid
 538 trophic level fish species, five top trophic level seabird species, and over 30 types of benthic macroinverte-
 539 brates due to bycatch (Gaitán and Marí 2016; Martínez et al. 2022; Tamini et al. 2023). Additionally,
 540 alterations in the diets of six seabird species, caused by discarded catch (Tamini et al. 2023), are expected
 541 to disrupt the energy flow and further reduce the stability of the food web (Table 3).

542 Table 3. Summary of hypothesized food web (FW) effects according to the main stressors reported for each study area. *Industrial
 543 trawl fishery ceased in 2015 remaining artisanal trawling activity.

Study area	Stressor	Hypothesis on food web effects
San Jorge Gulf	Fishery*	↑ FW connectance ↓ FW stability ↓ functional diversity
	Sea warming	Shifts in FW topology ↑ FW connectance ↑ functional diversity
Beagle Channel	Alien species	Shifts in FW topology ↑ spread of perturbations
Burdwood Bank	Fishery	Shifts in main energy fluxes ↓ FW stability
Scotia Sea	Sea warming	↑ FW connectance ↓ FW modularity ↓ energy transfer to high TLs ↑ spread of perturbation
Potter Cove (Antarctica)	Sea warming	↓ perturbation spreading
Weddell Sea (Antarctica)	Sea ice decline + glacial retreat	↑ FW chain length & ↑ trophic niches
	Sea ice decline + iceberg scouring	Shifts in main energy fluxes ↑ likelihood of regime shifts ↓ resilience

544 4. Gaps and future perspectives

545 In the selected study areas along the Southwest Atlantic to Antarctic latitudinal axis, several stressors may
 546 directly affect consumers' diets triggered by modified environmental conditions (sea warming, reduced sea ice
 547 extent) and new species (due to species' distributional shifts and introductions). Moreover, the population
 548 trends (biomasses and abundances) of important species are also changing (Funes 2020; Hindell et al. 2020;
 549 Woods et al. 2023) driving shifts in their roles as either predators or prey (e.g. Belleggia et al. (2017),
 550 Pasti et al. (2021)). These diet and population biomass shifts should be investigated to generate reliable
 551 predictions of food web responses to multiple stressors in the Southwest Atlantic - Antarctic region. One
 552 could argue that both shifts might increase the complexity of food webs in the short term by adding generalist
 553 predators or new prey (e.g., Cordone et al. (2023)) or by enabling discard consumption (e.g. Funes et al.
 554 (2022)). However, in the long term, both stressors may lead to the biological extinction of certain prey and
 555 competitors (e.g. Anton et al. (2019)) or a significant reduction in target and incidental catch species (e.g.
 556 Dulvy et al. (2014)), thereby promoting food web simplification and decreases in robustness.

557 Since this review deals with qualitative data of predator-prey interactions and stressor effects influencing
 558 them, adding quantitative data to the food webs (e.g., interaction strength) and to the stressors (e.g.,
 559 magnitude) would lead to a better understanding of how a given stressor acts on specific species which might
 560 translate into food web effects. In this context, it would be useful to develop quantitative food web models

561 where the strength of interactions reflects energy fluxes among species (Nilsson and McCann 2016; Kortsch
562 et al. 2021). Emerging methods such as bioenergetic food web modeling have been proposed in this regard
563 and present promising ways to estimate shifts in species interactions and energy fluxes within food webs as
564 a response to stressors (Gellner et al. 2023; Gauzens et al. n.d.). Shifts that can lead to changes in overall
565 ecosystem functioning and stability.

566 Regarding knowledge and data gaps on species and their stressors, especially the Beagle Channel and Burd-
567 wood Bank are poorly sampled study regions. Almost no information exists on the impact of global warming
568 (sea warming, glacial retreat, ocean acidification) on communities in these ecosystems, although warming
569 of mid-water and bottom layers has been shown at a regional scale (Franco et al. 2020a). Yet, in Beagle
570 Channel recent experimental studies have tested the tolerance of fish to scenarios of sea warming and/or
571 acidification suggesting high vulnerability to projected climate-driven environmental conditions (Lattuca et
572 al. 2018; Lattuca et al. 2023).

573 Analyzing the impact of multiple stressors through observational studies is challenging (Gutt et al. 2021).
574 This complexity arises partly because of the potential for antagonistic effects, where impacts cancel each
575 other out, or synergistic effects, where the combined impact is greater than the sum of individual effects
576 (Boyd et al. 2015; Côté et al. 2016). Moreover, these interactive effects are complicated to handle in the
577 framework of complex food webs. The number of pathways through which a species may affect or be affected
578 by other species, and through which stressors may permeate communities, increases exponentially with the
579 number of species and interactions in a network (Menge 1995). To tackle this complexity, Beauchesne et al.
580 (2021) developed a theory-grounded approach using motifs (i.e. groups of species that, when put together,
581 construct whole food webs) to simplify food webs; a methodology that could be applied to our food web
582 study cases.

583 In this review, we proposed a series of alternative hypotheses on how global stressors may affect food webs
584 in the Southwest Atlantic to Southern Ocean. Despite being qualitative, this is a first important step in
585 synthesizing food webs and stressor effects on species and food webs for this region. These qualitative
586 assessments must be complemented with further investigations that test their validity. To achieve this, we
587 suggest using a combination of observational data such as reported biomass changes and historic records of
588 sea temperature for the region (e.g., Laptikhovsky et al. 2013; Funes et al. 2019; Franco et al. 2020b; Winter
589 and Arkhipkin 2023), and food web modeling methods such as stressor-response matrices (Bracewell et al.
590 (2019)) and flux modeling (e.g., Gauzens et al. (2019); Beauchesne et al. (2021); Polazzo et al. (2022)).

591 **5. Conclusions**

592 We reviewed global change stressors acting in six different areas along a large-scale latitudinal gradient from
593 temperate Atlantic to cold Antarctic ecosystems. Using a theoretical framework that combines species and
594 food web-level data, we suggest how warming effects may impact food web structure and functioning. Apart
595 from an important amount of uncertainty, these qualitative predictions are intended to serve as the basis
596 for future studies in marine ecosystems of the Southern Hemisphere that aim at quantifying the magnitude
597 of these stressors and how they are affecting quantitative food web properties, such as energy fluxes and
598 stability. There is an urgent need to assess these changes using a holistic and quantitative framework where
599 the magnitude of stressors and species interactions are taken into account.

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