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**DIVERSIDADE E CONTAMINAÇÃO POR MICROPLÁSTICO EM CAMARÕES
PELÁGICOS DE MAR PROFUNDO DAS REGIÕES NORTE E NORDESTE DO
BRASIL**

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CARLOS EDUARDO ARAGÃO NEVES XAVIER

Dissertação apresentada ao Programa de
Pós-graduação em Oceanografia (PPGO)
da Universidade Federal de Pernambuco,
como um dos requisitos para a obtenção do
título de Mestre em Oceanografia.

Orientador: Prof. Dr. Jessor Fidelis de Souza Filho.

Co-Orientadores: Dra. Anne Karen da Silva Justino

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CARLOS EDUARDO ARAGÃO NEVES XAVIER

ESTRUTURA DE COMUNIDADE E PADRÕES DE CONTAMINAÇÃO POR
MICROPLÁSTICO EM CAMARÕES PELÁGICOS DE MAR PROFUNDO DA ZONA
ECONÔMICA EXCLUSIVA DAS REGIÕES NORTE E NORDESTE DO BRASIL

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RESUMO

Os camarões pelágicos desempenham papéis ecológicos cruciais em ambientes marinhos, das águas superficiais até as regiões mais profundas do oceano. São espécies que possuem grande importância na teia trófica, servindo muitas vezes como presas para espécies de elevado valor econômico e além de serem fatores determinantes no transporte de carbono para regiões de alta profundidade. Durante as expedições oceanográficas AMAZOMIX e ABRACOS, amostras representando a biodiversidade de camarões foram obtidas na região oceânica do Norte e Nordeste do Brasil, o que proporcionou uma oportunidade única para ampliar o conhecimento sobre a diversidade e ecologia desse grupo em regiões ainda pouco investigadas. Nesse contexto, a presente dissertação tem como objetivo analisar a diversidade e abundância de camarões na Zona Econômica Exclusiva (ZEE) das regiões Norte e Nordeste do Brasil, além de examinar os padrões de distribuição vertical desses organismos ao longo do dia. Discutindo também o impacto da poluição por microplásticos (MPs) nos ecossistemas marinhos, com foco na contaminação dos camarões de profundidade. Foram identificadas 66 espécies de camarões distribuídas em 34 gêneros e 10 famílias, destacando a Acanthephyridae como a mais representativa em número de espécies. Foram observados padrões de migração vertical diária, com a maior abundância sendo registrada em águas superficiais e a maior biomassa nas camadas mesopelágicas (400 - 800 m), ambos no período noturno, evidenciando o papel desses organismos na transferência de nutrientes e na bomba biológica de carbono. A pesquisa também documentou, pela primeira vez, formações de cardumes de invertebrados na região e ampliou a distribuição conhecida de várias espécies no Brasil. A contaminação por MPs foi avaliada em quatro espécies de camarões de profundidade, na região norte da ZEE brasileira. Foram identificadas 209 partículas de MPs em 70 espécimes (2.25 ± 2.19 indivíduo⁻¹), sendo as fibras o formato predominante. A espécie *Notostomus gibbosus* apresentou o maior nível de contaminação (4.55 ± 2.01 MPs Camarão⁻¹). Esses resultados destacam os riscos ecológicos associados à poluição por MPs, especialmente em áreas influenciadas pela pluma do Rio Amazonas, e ressaltam a importância desses camarões para a compreensão da dinâmica trófica e do impacto ambiental em regiões profundas.

Palavras-chave: Crustáceos; Mar Profundo; Poluição Plástica;

ABSTRACT

Pelagic shrimp play crucial ecological roles in marine environments, ranging from surface waters to the deepest ocean regions. These species are highly important in the trophic web and hold significant economic value. During the AMAZOMIX and ABRACOS oceanographic expeditions, key samples representing the biodiversity of shrimp were collected from the oceanic region of Northern and Northeastern Brazil, providing a unique opportunity to expand knowledge on the diversity and ecology of this group in areas that are still poorly studied. In this context, the present thesis aims to analyze the diversity and abundance of shrimp in the Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) of Northern and Northeastern Brazil and examine the vertical distribution patterns of these organisms throughout the day. The study also discusses the impact of microplastic (MP) pollution on marine ecosystems, focusing on the contamination of deep-sea shrimp. Sixty-six shrimp species were identified and distributed across 34 genera and 10 families, with Acanthephyridae being the most representative in terms of number of species. The analysis revealed daily vertical migration patterns, with higher abundance in surface waters at night and greater biomass in mesopelagic layers (400 – 800 m) during the night, highlighting the role of these organisms in nutrient transfer and in the biologic carbon bomb. The research also documented, for the first time, the formation of invertebrate schools in the region and expanded the known distribution of several species in Brazil. Regarding MP contamination evaluated in four deep-sea shrimp species in the Amazon EEZ, 209 MP particles were identified (2.25 ± 2.19 individual⁻¹), with fibers and transparent particles being the predominant forms. The species *Notostomus gibbosus* showed the highest contamination levels (4.55 ± 2.01 MPs Shrimp⁻¹). These findings underscore the ecological risks associated with MP pollution, especially in areas influenced by the Amazon River plume, and highlight the importance of these shrimp for understanding trophic dynamics and environmental impact in deep regions.

Keywords: Crustaceans; Deep sea; Plastic Pollution;

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1 INTRODUÇÃO

Os crustáceos são um dos grupos mais bem-sucedidos e diversificados do reino animal, com uma presença marcante nos oceanos. Esses organismos, predominantemente marinhos, são encontrados em uma vasta gama de profundidades e habitats, desde as zonas costeiras até as regiões mais profundas do oceano (Viana et al., 2021). Sua abundância e diversidade fazem deles componentes essenciais da fauna marinha, especialmente na plataforma continental e no oceano profundo (Nunomura, 2024). A diversidade morfológica dos crustáceos é uma das mais elevadas entre os metazoários, permitindo-lhes explorar uma grande variedade de nichos ecológicos (Bánki et al., 2023; Campi et al., 2024).

Dentro deste vasto grupo, a ordem Decapoda Latreille, 1803 se destaca, abrangendo algumas das espécies mais conhecidas e estudadas, como camarões, caranguejos, lagostas e siris. Esta ordem é dividida em duas subordens principais: Dendrobranchiata, que inclui camarões das superfamílias Penaeoidea e Sergestoidea, e Pleocyemata, subdividida em infraordens como Anomura (caranguejos eremitas), Astacidea (lagostas), Brachyura (caranguejos verdadeiros) e Caridea (camarões verdadeiros). Esses animais desempenham papéis ecológicos cruciais, atuando como predadores, herbívoros, omnívoros, saprófitos e filtradores, além de estarem adaptados a diferentes estratégias alimentares e ambientes aquáticos (De Grave et al., 2009; Aguirre-Guzmán & López-Acevedo, 2020; Medina-Contreras et al., 2022).

Entre os diversos ambientes aquáticos habitados por esses crustáceos, muitos camarões habitam o domínio pelágico, o maior habitat da Terra (Omori, 1975), estendendo-se da superfície até o oceano profundo e considerado um dos mais importante (Webb et al., 2010). O oceano profundo é parte da zona pelágica, sendo um ambiente hostil, e repleto de diversidade de vida a ser conhecida (Grassle & Maciolek, 1992; Jamieson et al., 2013). Com o aumento da profundidade, os organismos lidam com fortes gradientes de temperatura, pressão, oxigênio, nutrientes e a ausência de luz (Danovaro et al., 2014; Winnikoff et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2024). Devido à dificuldade de acesso, o conhecimento

1 sobre a diversidade do mar profundo é bastante limitado, principalmente por
2 questões logísticas e financeiras (Jamieson et al., 2013; Soares, 2020).

3 A zona mesopelágica é a região da coluna d'água que se estende de 200 a
4 aproximadamente 1000 metros de profundidade no oceano (Quero et al. 2020) e
5 a batipelágica a partir de 1000 metros até meados de 4000 m (Sutton et al., 2017;
6 Eduardo et al., 2024). As pesquisas sobre as comunidades das zonas meso- e
7 batipelágicas estão ainda em seus estágios iniciais, o que gera grande
8 preocupação de que os serviços ecossistêmicos fornecidos por essas espécies
9 estejam em risco antes que possamos compreender plenamente as
10 consequências das ações antrópicas, como a pesca, mineração e poluição
11 (Santos et al., 2013; Groeneveld et al., 2024).

12 Apesar dos desafios logísticos, expedições oceanográficas
13 multidisciplinares com ênfase no ambiente de mar profundo foram realizadas e os
14 esforços de pesquisa vem aumentando no últimos anos (Howell et al., 2021).
15 Dentre elas, destaca-se a expedição do REVIZZE (Programa de Avaliação do
16 Potencial Sustentável de Recursos Vivos na Zona Econômica Exclusiva) por ser
17 uma das pioneiras na Zona Econômica Exclusiva (ZEE) do Brasil e possuir
18 grande amplitude geográfica. Ela ocorreu entre os anos de 1996 e 2006,
19 proporcionando novos conhecimentos sobre a fauna pelágica e demersal (Simões,
20 2007). Posteriormente, entre os anos de 2015 e 2022, foram realizadas
21 duas outras expedições na região Norte e Nordeste com ênfase no estudo do
22 ambiente de mar profundo e conhecimento da fauna mesopelágica, com
23 amostragens focadas em peixes e diversos grupos de invertebrados. Expedições
24 essas que fizeram parte os projetos ABRACOS I e II (*Acoustics along the*
25 *Brazilian Coast*), com ênfase na região Nordeste da ZEE brasileira e avaliação do
26 papel das ilhas e monte oceânicos e AMAZOMIX (*Amazon Shelf Mixing and its*
27 *Impact on Ecosystems*), que possui ênfase na região Norte e influências da pluma
28 do Rio Amazonas (BERNTRAND, 2015; BERNTRAND, 2017; BERNTRAND,
29 2021).

30 Mesmo com esse esforço amostral, e atualmente havendo a possibilidade
31 de detecção acústica de outros grupos de organismos pelágicos, a maioria dos
32 estudos ainda estão sendo direcionados para o estudo de comunidades de peixes
33 (PROUD et al., 2019; PEÑA & HERNÁNDEZ-LEÓN, 2023). Esta lacuna de
34 conhecimento é ainda maior em outros grupos como os crustáceos, cnidários e

1 cefalópodes (Díaz-Pérez et al., 2024).

2 No oceano profundo, camarões são considerados importante elos na
3 cadeia trófica, sendo a principal presa de peixes e moluscos, mas também
4 importante consumidores de plâncton (Fanelli et al., 2011; Eduardo et al., 2023).
5 No entanto, quantitativamente, possuem uma baixa ocorrência em amostras
6 devido à alta seletividade equipamentos de amostragem (Christiansen et al.,
7 2024). Atualmente, é utilizada uma combinação de redes e equipamentos
8 acústicos para aumentar a precisão na estimativa de dados sobre a biomassa e
9 abundância (Kang et al., 2024). Decápodes, peixes pelágicos de pequeno porte e
10 eufasiídeos constituem a maior parte da biomassa do micronectôn, com os
11 decápodes representando cerca de 20% da biomassa total (Díaz-pérez et al.,
12 2024).

13 Apesar da relevância ecológica, econômica (Bordbar et al., 2018; Prezello
14 et al., 2024) e da elevada biomassa dos crustáceos pelágicos, ainda há uma
15 lacuna de informações acerca de sua diversidade, abundância, ecologia,
16 distribuição espacial e composição taxonômica (Lizarraga, 2022). A biomassa
17 desses crustáceos varia tanto latitudinalmente quanto verticalmente na coluna
18 d'água (Vereshchaka et al., 2019). Uma grande parte da comunidade de
19 camarões pelágicos realiza migrações verticais ao longo da coluna d'água (Deleo
20 & Bracken-Grissom, 2020). Durante o dia, esses organismos permanecem nas
21 camadas mais profundas, onde a baixa intensidade luminosa dificulta sua
22 detecção por predadores (Suntsov & Domokos, 2013; Chipps et al., 2022).

23 Durante a noite, os camarões migram para as camadas superficiais para
24 forragear, retornando as camadas mais profundas ao amanhecer (Krumme, 2009;
25 Chipps, 2022). Esse comportamento é um fator muito importante para a
26 diversificação desse grupo de crustáceos (Deleo, 2020). As migrações dependem
27 de diversos fatores, desde ambientais como as condições oceanográficas ou
28 estratégias específicas relacionadas à fatores comportamentais, como
29 forrageamento, competição por alimento e espaço e a ontogenia (Kikuchi & Omori,
30 1986; Aguzzi, 2007).

31 O funcionamento do ciclo biogeoquímico do ecossistema pelágico tem
32 grande relação com esses movimentos e migrações de biomassa, caracterizando
33 a bomba de carbono. Diariamente, os organismos ingerem carbono orgânico nas
34 camadas mais superficiais produtivas e ao amanhecer, se deslocam para as

1 camadas mais profundas do oceano, onde excretam, respiram e também podem
2 ser predados (Baustian et al., 2014; Folkersen et al., 2018; Thibault et al., 2024).

3 Os camarões possuem uma fase larval planctônica e processos
4 hidrológicos, como frentes e vórtices, são descritos como importantes fatores para
5 a maior abundância, dispersão e retenção de larvas de decápodes (Mcconaugha,
6 1992; Anger & Urzúa, 2024; Monteiro et al., 2024). Esses processos hidrológicos
7 atuam diretamente na abundância e na distribuição das comunidades
8 planctônicas e são fatores potenciais que podem causar distúrbios no gradiente
9 costeiro-oceânico. Normalmente, há uma maior abundância de organismos em
10 águas mesotróficas costeiras, em oposição às áreas oceânicas oligotróficas
11 (Boltovskoy et al., 1999; Farias et al., 2024). As interações biológicas, incluindo
12 relações como presa-predador e competição, assim como mudanças físicas no
13 ambiente, exercendo um efeito simultâneo e sinérgico e destacando-se pela sua
14 importância na estruturação das populações e comunidades de organismos
15 (Mcgill et al., 2006; Gray & Elliott, 2009; Veloso et al., 2017).

16 A partir da Segunda Guerra Mundial, plásticos se tornaram uma parte
17 fundamental do estilo de vida contemporâneo, integrando-se a diversos setores
18 da economia (Andrady, 2009; Geyer et al., 2017; Paterson, 2019). Embora a
19 indústria do plástico tenha impulsionado avanços tecnológicos significativos, o
20 acúmulo de resíduos plásticos em habitats naturais e aterros sanitários emergiu
21 como uma grave ameaça para os ecossistemas e saúde dos organismos vivos
22 (Getor et al., 2020; Pilapitiya & Ratnayake, 2024; Thushari & Senevirathna, 2020).
23 A produção global de plásticos ultrapassou 400 milhões de toneladas em 2022
24 (PlasticsEurope, 2023). Esse elevado consumo, somado à ineficiente gestão de
25 resíduos, fez da poluição plástica um dos principais desafios ambientais da
26 atualidade (Cowger, 2024; Pilapitiya & Ratnayake, 2024).

27 Os detritos plásticos são divididos em três categorias quanto à dimensão:
28 macroplásticos, com tamanho superior a 5 mm; microplásticos, que possuem até
29 5 mm; e nanoplásticos, com dimensões menores que 1 μm (Pelegri et al., 2023).
30 Nos últimos anos, os microplásticos (MPs) têm recebido crescente atenção em
31 pesquisas ao redor do mundo, pelo seu descarte indevido, ocorrência em diversos
32 ecossistemas e capacidade de adsorver e transportar diversos contaminantes
33 (Rochman et al., 2019; Pilapitiya & Ratnayake, 2024; Zhu et al., 2024). Os MPs
34 podem ser classificados como primários, quando são produzidos em pequenas

1 dimensões para serem utilizados em processos industriais, ou como secundários,
2 que surgem da fragmentação de plásticos maiores, como fibras têxteis sintéticas,
3 devido à degradação mecânica, térmica ou biológica (Cao, 2024; Thavasimuthu,
4 2024; Yang, 2024).

5 Atualmente, os MPs são identificados como um dos contaminantes
6 ambientais emergentes de maior preocupação nos ecossistemas marinhos
7 (Martín, 2022), e já foram encontrados em ambientes terrestres, marinhos, de
8 água doce e inclusive em regiões polares (Meng, 2020; Tirelli, 2022; Arat, 2024;
9 Zeb, 2024). Essa ampla distribuição dos MPs aumenta significativamente o risco
10 de ingestão acidental por diversos animais aquáticos, que acabam consumindo
11 essas partículas durante suas atividades alimentares (Amponsah 2024; Valdez-
12 Cibrián, 2024). Diversos estudos evidenciam a presença de MPs em camarões de
13 profundidade, entre eles camarões de importância econômica (Curren et al., 2020;
14 Bordbar et al., 2023; Timilsina et al., 2023). Os MPs podem ainda estar
15 associados a outros contaminantes, como Hidrocarbonetos Policíclicos
16 Aromáticos (HPAs) e metais pesados (Aydin et al., 2024; Narwal et al., 2024; Xie
17 et al., 2024) devido ao processo de fabricação do plástico ou à adsorção no
18 ambiente (Holmes et al., 2014; Kong et al., 2023; Sui et al., 2024)

19 Considerando essa problemática, o presente estudo fornecerá uma
20 descrição detalhada da composição e variabilidade espacial de espécies de
21 camarão de mar profundo em áreas oceânicas, inclusive em áreas influenciadas
22 pela pluma do Rio Amazonas. Analisando também a distribuição vertical diária.
23 Com isso ampliando a distribuição de diversas espécies raras, em um ambiente
24 extremo e de alta dificuldade de amostragem. Além disso, uma das áreas de
25 coleta é de importância mundial, a região da Pluma do Rio Amazonas, o maior rio
26 do mundo (Mikkola, 2024). Adicionalmente, serão investigados os níveis e
27 padrões de contaminação por MP na fauna, identificando e classificando as
28 principais formas encontradas.

29 .

2 CAPÍTULO 1

2.1 Diversity and vertical distribution of deep-pelagic shrimps in the western central and south Atlantic Ocean

Abstract

This study analyzes the biodiversity and vertical distribution of deep-sea pelagic shrimps in the Exclusive Economic Zone of Brazil's North and Northeast regions. Sample were taken during the ABRACOS (2015-2017) and AMAZOMIX (2021) campaigns, covering depths from 70 to 1200 m during daytime and nighttime periods. A total of 66 species were identified, distributed in 34 genera and 10 families, with Acantheephyridae as the most representative family. The species *Challengerosergia* sp. stood out in abundance, while *Acantheephyra acutifrons* and *Robustosergia regalis* showed a high frequency of occurrence. The biomass was concentrated in mesopelagic layers (400-800 m), especially at night, showing vertical migration. We also observed the unprecedented formation of shoals of shrimps in the region. This work expanded the known distribution of several species in Brazil and provided the first integrated list of pelagic shrimps in the North and Northeast regions. The results highlight the importance of these organisms in trophic dynamics and biogeochemical cycles, contributing to the advancement of knowledge about deep-sea biodiversity.

Keywords: Marine biodiversity, DVM, Decapoda

2.2 Introduction

Pelagic shrimps are a vital part of deep-pelagic ecosystems. The families Sergestidae, Benthescymidae, Acantheephyridae, and Oplophoridae are dominant groups in terms of abundance and biomass (Vereshchaka et al., 2019; Worms, 2024). With a worldwide presence, these shrimp frequently have vertical migrations and have developed several adaptations to survive the unique econditions of the deep ocean (Decele, 2010; Deleo et al., 2020; Yuan et al., 2021).

The diel vertical migration of marine fauna is the largest daily movement of animal biomass on Earth (Hays, 2003; Bianchi et al., 2013; Archibald et al., 2019; Behrenfeld et al., 2019; Hernández-León, 2013). Typically, migrating organisms feed in shallower waters and descend to deeper layers, releasing organic carbon

1 through respiration, excretion, or egestion (Getzlaff & Kriest, 2024). This behavior
2 drives the active carbon pump (Boyd et al., 2019) and influences biogeochemical
3 cycles (Buesseler & Boyd, 2009).

4 Mesopelagic shrimp are crucial for capturing and storing carbon, cycling
5 nutrients through the ecosystem, and functioning as important intermediaries
6 between primary consumers and top predators in the food chain (Hügler et al.,
7 2011;). They also serve as an essential food source for commercially valuable fish
8 stocks and act as a vital connection between shallow and deep-sea ecosystems
9 (Braga et al., 2012; Drazen et al., 2017).

10 The deep sea is one of the most unexplored extreme environment, holding
11 immense potential and interest for scientific study (Nagano & Nagahama, 2012;
12 Colaço et al., 2017). Given that the deep-pelagic zone constitutes most of the
13 habitable volume of the ocean, it is essential to accurately assess the biomass of
14 its primary components, including shrimps (Spalding, 2012; Vereshchaka, 2019).
15 Extreme environments encompass a variety of abiotic factors that surpass the
16 tolerance limits of most organisms, with abiotic factors playing a major role in
17 determining the presence and abundance of species (Convey, 1997; Rampelotto,
18 2016). However, biotic factors remain important contributors to ecosystem
19 dynamics (Camacho, 2006; Hogg et al., 2006).

20 The mesopelagic habitat is distinguished by its unique temperature, oxygen
21 levels and light conditions, which include low irradiance, a narrow spectral range,
22 and a restricted angular distribution (Li et al., 2014; Kaartvedt et al., 2019;
23 Aparecido et al., 2023; Eduardo et al., 2024). Some shrimp species are adapted to
24 extreme environments and share their habitats with many microorganisms and
25 other multicellular organisms (Benvenuto et al., 2015). The crustaceans' complex
26 visual and bioluminescence systems inhabiting this zone exhibit several
27 adaptations that allow them to maximize using these light conditions (Bracken-
28 Grissom et al., 2020; Collins et al., 2024). Some other adaptations include low
29 metabolic rates and morphological adaptation, such as an increase in the size of
30 the gills (Childress, 1995; Decelle, 2010). Through these specialized biological
31 adaptations, many of these species are endemic to their extreme habitatssuch as
32 the deep sea (Eilertsen et al., 2024; Giraldes et al., 2024). This makes the
33 mesopelagic zone home to one of the ocean's most diverse shrimp communities,

1 contributing to numerous essential ecosystem functions (Basher, 2014; Therber et
2 al., 2014; Antonio et al., 2024).

3 The REVIZEE program (*Programa de Avaliação do Potencial Sustentável*
4 *de Recursos Vivos na Zona Econômica Exclusiva*) conducted expeditions
5 between 1996 and 2006, surveying waters 200 m deep off the Brazilian coast
6 (SIMÕES et al., 2007). These explorations culminated in the identification of new
7 species, the documentation of previously unrecorded specimens, and an
8 expanded understanding of the distribution of pelagic shrimp species (Anker, 2014;
9 Silva, 2020). Between 2015 and 2022, two more expeditions targeting
10 mesopelagic fauna were conducted in the North and Northeast regions. These
11 were part of the ABRACOS (Acoustics Along the Brazilian Coast) and AMAZOMIX
12 (Amazon Shelf Mixing and Its Impact on Ecosystems) projects and marked the first
13 extensive survey of the mesopelagic zone in the Southwestern Tropical Atlantic
14 (SWTA), resulting in the collection of thousands of deep-sea invertebrates and
15 fishes.

16 Several studies have been published based on these collections, exploring
17 the taxonomy, ecology and geographical distribution of deep-sea shrimps (Alves-
18 Júnior et al., 2019a), taxonomic descriptions (Alves-Junior et al., 2019b), new
19 species (Rodrigues et al., 2018) and new records (Alves-Júnior et al., 2016, 2018).
20 In addition to these studies, there exists a body of research concerning other
21 assemblages of deep-sea crustaceans, such as Amphipoda (Alves-Júnior et al.,
22 2021) and Isopoda (Ferreira et al., 2023), but predominantly focusing on fish
23 (Afonso et al., 2021; Eduardo et al., 2020; Mincarone et al., 2022).

24 There is a noticeable lack of research on deep-water pelagic shrimp in
25 Brazil's northern and northeastern regions, particularly in the area influenced by
26 the plume of the Amazon River. While these regions are home to rich and diverse
27 marine ecosystems, the specific focus on pelagic shrimp, especially those
28 inhabiting deeper waters, has been largely overlooked in scientific studies. Also,
29 no published work on any aspect of pelagic shrimp biology using AMAZOMIX data
30 and much of the ABRACOS expedition's data, such as findings on shrimp, remain
31 unpublished. In general, there is a lack of knowledge about mesopelagic species'
32 diversity, ecology and distribution (Sutton et al., 2017; Martin et al., 2020;
33 Lizarraga, 2022).

1 The present study analyzes the mesopelagic shrimp biodiversity in the
2 SWTA, presenting a comprehensive species list gathered during the ABRACOS
3 and AMAZOMIX expeditions. It highlights newly recorded species and potential
4 discoveries while examining critical aspects of mesopelagic shrimp diversity, such
5 as depth distribution.

6 **2.3 Material and methods**

7 **2.3.1 Sampling Strategy**

8 The study area is located in the North and Northeast of Brazil. The deep-
9 sea shrimps were collected during three multidisciplinary oceanographic
10 campaigns on board the R/V ANTEA (Figure 1). The Northeast region was
11 sampled during two expeditions, ABRACOS 1 and 2 (AB1 and AB2). The study
12 area extended from Rio Grande do Norte to Alagoas, including the Fernando de
13 Noronha Archipelago, various seamounts, and the Atol das Rocas. The geological
14 features of this region significantly influence current dynamics, enhancing primary
15 productivity by driving nutrient-rich deep currents to the surface. This process
16 fosters a unique variety of ecosystems, which play a vital role in supporting the
17 fishing productivity of the Brazilian Exclusive Economic Zone (Tchamabi et al.,
18 2017; Claudino-Sales, 2019; Eduardo et al., 2022).

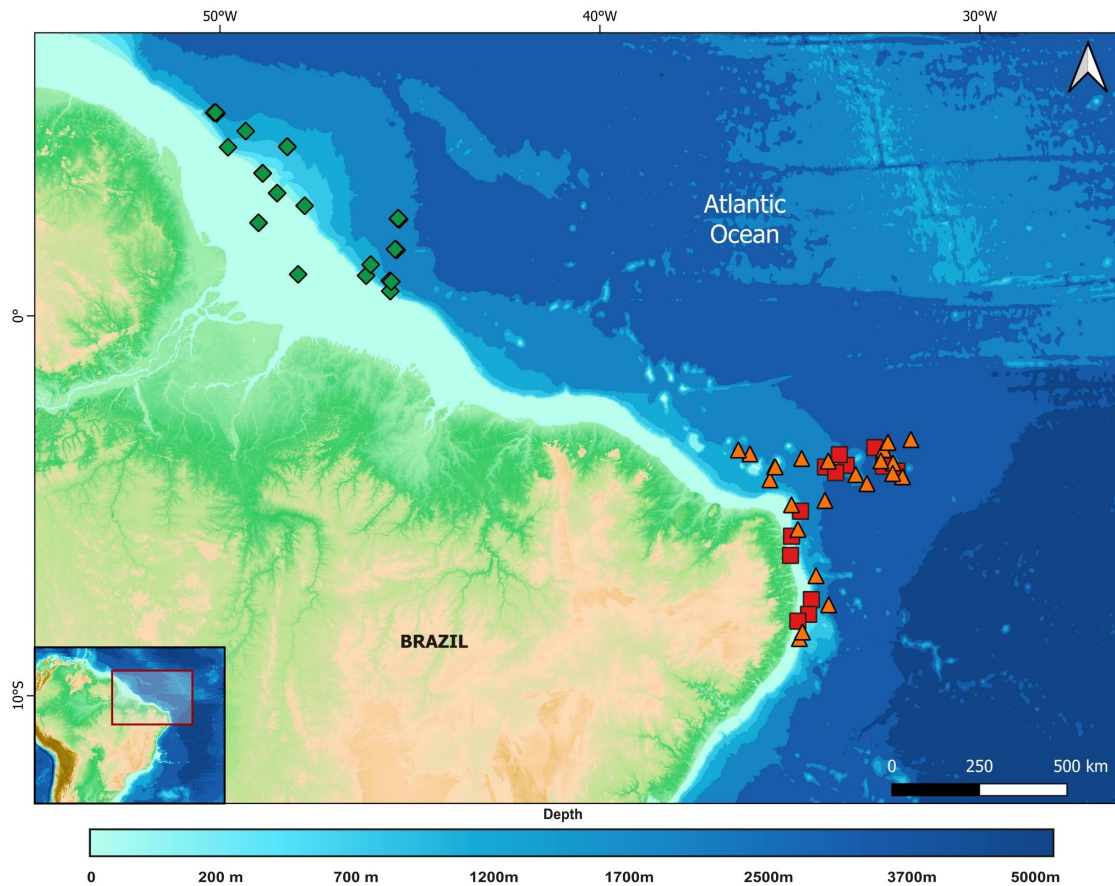


Figure 1. Map of the North and Northeast regions, including areas close to oceanic islands, sampled by the R/V ANTEA. Campaign ABRACOS 1 (AB1), ABRACOS 2 (AB2) and AMAZOMIX (AM). Red circles represent the AB1 samples: Orange for the AB2 samples and Green for the AM samples.

The campaigns were conducted from September to October 2015 (AB1) and April to May 2017 (AB2). A total of, 31 sampling stations were surveyed using a midwater net with a 30 mm mesh, a 4 mm cod end mesh, and a net mouth size of 16.6 x 8.4 meters (AB1), while 51 collection stations were sampled using a micronekton net with a 40 mm mesh, 10 mm cod end mesh, and a net mouth size of 24 x 24 meters (AB2) (Bertrand, 2021).

Sampling from the Northern region as part of the AMAZOMIX Project was carried out on board the N/Oc ANTEA, between September and October 2021, divided into two legs along the states of Pará and Amapá. There were 14 stations in the first leg and 21 in the second leg, collecting off the Amazon River to oceanic regions adjacent to the northern continental shelf during the day and night between the isobaths of 70 and 1,200 meters. A 1mm mesh micronekton net was used, covering 15 meters of mouth and 18 meters in length, and trawled for 30

minutes at previously determined isobaths with the boat sailing at a speed of between 1.5 and 3 knots. This region encompasses the mouth of the Amazon River, which is characterized by being a region with a strong outflow of fresh water (210,000 m³/s) into the marine environment, with the river plume acting as a biogeographical barrier (Robertson et al., 2006; Moura et al., 2016; Tosetto et al., 2022).

A CTD (SBE911+) was simultaneously attached to the nets each trawl, totaling 71 depth profiles, in order to measure the physical/chemical parameters of the region (temperature (°C), salinity, dissolved oxygen (µM/Kg) and fluorescence (mm/m³). Once collected, the individuals were frozen in labeled 500 ml jars.

2.3.2 Data processing and analysis

The samples were taken to the Crustacean Laboratory (LabCarcino) at the Prof. Petrônio Alves Coelho Oceanography Museum (MOUFPE), where shrimps were identified to the lowest possible taxonomic level (Crosnier & Forest, 1973; Vereshchaka, 2009; Alves-Júnior, 2019b, 2019c; Lunina et al., 2019; Rodrigues & Cardoso, 2019), weighed and measured (total length, carapace length and total weight).

The index for abundance and biomass was calculated based on CPUE (catch per unit effort), considering the number of individuals and the weight of the shrimp caught per season, divided by the trawling time (ind./h and grams/h). The frequency of occurrence (number of occurrences of species (x100), divided by the total number at the station, %F) was also calculated (Vo et al., 2024).

The variables (richness, abundance and biomass) were compared according to depth (every 100 m) and daily periods (day/night), considering the entire survey. For richness, the number of individuals was used, and for abundance and biomass, average values. Statistical analyses and the calculation of diversity indices were carried out using WPS Spreadsheets 2024.

2.4 Results

A total of 2,559 specimens of deep-sea pelagic shrimp were collected, 296 of which in the ABRACOS 1 campaign (20 stations), 444 in the ABRACOS 2 campaign (25 stations) and 1,819 in the AMAZOMIX campaign (13 stations). A total of 65 species were identified, belonging to 34 genera and 10 families (Table 1).

Table 1. List of species and related data found in the ABRACOS 1 (AB 1), ABRACOS 2 (AB 2) and AMAZOMIX (AM) surveys, total length (TL). carapace length (CL) and total weight (TW) (average, minimum and maximum values), depth, temperature, oxygen and salinity (minimum and maximum values), locality (Alagoas, Amapá, Pará, Paraíba and Rio Grande do Norte Islands.), temperature (T), oxygen (minimum and maximum values) and salinity, location (Alagoas, Amapá, Pará, Paraíba, Pernambuco, Rio Grande do Norte, Fernando de Noronha and Seamounts) and daily period of the day (D) and night (N). * Data not sampled.

Species	N Individuals			FO%	TL (mm)	CL (mm)	TW (g)	Depth (m)	T (°C)	Oxygen	Salinity	Day Period	Locality
	AB1	AB2	AM										
ACANTHEPHYRIDAE													
<i>Acantheephyra acanthitelsonis</i>	104	81	74	9%	87.9	21.1	5	0 - 1000	4.4 - 26.7	3 - 4.7	34.4 -37.1	D - N	AL - AP - FN - PA - PE
<i>Acantheephyra acutifrons</i>	41	51	40	5%	79.8	19	2.1	0 - 1200	4.4 - 24.5	2.9 - 4.7	34.5 - 37.1	D - N	AL - AP - FN - PA - PE - PB - RN
<i>Acantheephyra curtirostris</i>	18	33	253	11%	30.8	8.5	4	400 - 1000	4.6 - 8.8	2.9 - 4.1	34.4 - 34.7	D - N	FN - PA - PB - PE - SM
<i>Acantheephyra kingsleyi</i>	5	31	*	1%	82.8	16.7	3.4	200 - 1000	4.4 - 13.7	3.6 - 4.5	34.4 -35.3	D - N	FN - RN
<i>Acantheephyra quadrispinosa</i>	9	*	*	0%	*	*	*	500 - 600	4.4	4.0	34.6	N	PE
<i>Acantheephyra sp.1</i>	*	29	*	1%	*	*	*	1100 - 1200	*	*	*	N	RN
<i>Acantheephyra sp.2</i>	*	*	1	0%	*	*	*	400 - 500	8.8	3	34.8	D	PA
<i>Acantheephyra stylostratis</i>	*	*	17	1%	56.5	13.4	1.1	0 - 1100	4.4 - 5.1	3.2 - 3.8	34.5 - 34.7	D - N	AP - FN - PA
<i>Ephyrina benedicti</i>	3	*	*	0%	*	*	*	0 - 1100	*	*	*	D	RN
<i>Ephyrina ombango</i>	3	9	10	1%	84.8	20.2	4.6	0 -1000	4.4 - 8.8	3 - 3.8	34.4 -34.8	D - N	AP - FN - RN - PA - PE
<i>Ephyrina sp.1</i>	*	*	1	0%	35.9	13.7	0.2	800 - 900	5.1	3.1	34.6	D	AP
<i>Ephyrina sp.2</i>	*	*	1	0%	*	*	*	800 - 900	5.1	3.1	34.6	D	AP
<i>Meningodora compsa</i>	*	*	10	0%	74.6	17.7	2.9	900 - 1000	5.1	3.3	34.6	D	AP
<i>Meningodora longisulca</i>	1	4	3	0%	46.4	14.3	1.1	500 -1000	5 - 5.1	3.3 - 3.7	34.4 - 34.7	D - N	FN - RN
<i>Meningodora mollis</i>	*	1	*	0%	52.2	18.2	1	400 - 700	8.8	3	34.8	D - N	PA - RN

<i>Meningodora sp.1</i>	*	*	2	0%	50.7	18	1.3	900 - 1000	4.6 - 5.1	3.3 - 3.5	34.6 - 34.7	N	PA
<i>Meningodora sp.2</i>	*	*	1	0%	66.7	25.2	2.1	900 - 1000	4.6	3.5	34.6	N	AP
<i>Meningodora vesca</i>	9	3	2	0%	45	12	0.7	400 - 1000	4.6 - 6	3.5 - 4.1	34.4 - 34.6	D - N	FN - RN
										3.7 -			
<i>Notostomus elegans</i>	4	5	0	0%	55	19	0.9	400 - 1000	4.4 - 6.9	4.1	34.4 - 34.5	D - N	FN - RN
<i>Notostomus gibbosus</i>	10	19	51	3%	91.4	39.3	6.3	400 - 1200	4.4 - 19.6	3 - 3.9	34.4 - 36.1	D - N	AP - FN - RN - PA
BENTHESICYMIDAE													
<i>Bentheogennema intermedia</i>	2	*	*	0%	*	*	1.2	0 - 200	15.7 - 24.5	3.4 - 4.7	35.7 - 37.1	D - N	FN - RN
<i>Bentheogennema sp.1</i>	*	3	*	0%	40	9	0.5	900 - 1000	4.4	3.8	34.4	D	SM
<i>Gennadas bouvieri</i>	10	14	5	1%	40	9	0.9	400 - 1100	8.5	3	34.8	D - N	AP - FN - RN
<i>Gennadas capensis</i>	3	15	9	1%	43.7	13.1	0.6	500 - 1100	4.4 - 5.1	3.3 - 3.8	34.5 - 34.7	D - N	AP - FN - RN - PA
<i>Gennadas scutatus</i>	*	5	*	0%	*	*	*	300 - 600	*	*	*	D	FN - RN
<i>Gennadas talismani</i>	*	3	*	0%	*	*	*	300 - 600	*	*	*	D	FN - RN
LUCIFERIDAE													
<i>Belzebub faxoni</i>	4	*	*	0%	*	*	0.2	0 - 500	6 - 26.8	4.1 - 4.7	34.5 - 36.8	N	FN
PALAEMONIDAE													
<i>Nematopalaemon schmitti</i>	*	*	300	11%	34.5	9.9	0.4	0 - 100	*	*	*	D	AP - MA
<i>Palaemonidae gen. sp.1</i>	3	*	*	0%	*	*	*	0 - 100	26.6 - 26.8	4.6 - 4.7	36.8 - 36.9	N	FN - RN
PANDALIDAE													
<i>Heterocarpus ensiver</i>	*	*	1	0%	35.4	12.3	0.5	500 - 600	7.9	2.6	34.7	D	PA
<i>Heterocarpus sp.1</i>	2	*	*	0%	*	*	*	100 - 200	15.7 - 25.5	3.4 - 4.7	35.6 - 37.2	N	FN - RN
<i>Plesionika sp.1</i>	2	*	*	0%	*	*	*	0 - 100	26.6	4.7	37	N	FN
PASIPHAEDAE													
<i>Eupasiphae sp.1</i>	*	*	1	0%	135.7	48.2	17.1	600 - 1000	5.1 - 6.3	3 - 3.3	34.7	D	AP
<i>Parapasiphae sp.1</i>	*	*	1	0%	55.8	7.2	2.2	800 - 900	5.1	3.1	34.6	D	AP

<i>Parapasiphae sulcatifrons</i>	*	3	6	0%	70.1	19.8	2.2	400 - 1000	4.4 - 8.8	3.1 - 3.8	34.5 - 34.8	D - N	AP - FN - RN - PA
<i>Pasiphaea</i> sp.1	*	*	1	0%	75.8	24.2	2.3	400 - 500	8.8	3	34.8	D	PA
<i>Pasiphaea antea</i>	1	1	*	0%	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	RN
<i>Pasiphaea merriami</i>	*	*	16	1%	47.5	14.6	0.5	100 - 1000	4.6 - 18.7	3 - 3.7	34.6 - 35.7	N	AP - PA
<i>Pasiphaea princeps</i>	*	*	1	0%	*	*	*	300 - 400	10.2	3.5	34.9	N	PA
<i>Pasiphaeidae</i> gen. sp.1	1	*	*	0%	*	*	*	0 - 100	24.5	4.7	37.1	D	RN
<i>Pasiphaeidae</i> gen. sp.2	*	49	*	2%	57.8	18	2.5	0 - 1000	4.4 - 13.7	3.6 - 4.5	34.4 - 35.3	D - N	FN - RN - SM
<i>Pasiphaeidae</i> gen. sp.3	*	*	1	0%	*	*	*	600 - 700	6.3	3	34.6	D	AP
PENAEIDAE													
<i>Funchalia danae</i>	*	5	5	0%	72.8	17.9	2.4	300 - 1100	4.6 - 8.8	2.6 - 3.5	34.6 - 34.8	D - N	FN - RN - MA - PA
<i>Funchalia villosa</i>	6	2	*	0%	*	*	*	0 - 700	5.3 - 24.7	4.5	34.4 - 37.2	D - N	CE - RN
<i>Hymenapenaeus laevis</i>	*	*	2	0%	51.6	17.2	0.7	0 - 1000	5.1	3.3	34.7	D	AP
<i>Penaeidae</i> gen. sp.1	1	*	*	0%	*	*	*	100 - 200	15.7	3.4	35.7	N	SM
OPLOPHORIDAE													
<i>Janicella spinicauda</i>	2	*	*	0%	*	*	*	100 - 200	24.5	4.7	37.1	N	FN
<i>Oplophorus gracilirostris</i>	18	*	45	2%	52	15.4	1.5	0 - 1000	4.4 - 25.7	2.8 - 4.7	37.1	D - N	FN - RN - PA
<i>Systellaspis curvispina</i>	6	7	*	0%	74	23.3	4.8	400 - 1000	4.4 - 5.7	3.6 - 4.5	34.4 - 35.5	D - N	FN - RN
<i>Systellaspis debilis</i>	2	*	2	0%	63	19.4	3.2	0 - 600	4.4	4	34.6	D - N	PE
<i>Systellaspis pellucida</i>	1	*	*	0%	*	*	*	0 - 100	25.5	4.7	37.2	D	FN
SERGESTIDAE													
<i>Challengerosergia</i> sp.1	*	*	842	30%	47.4	14.2	0.3	100 - 500	7 - 18.7	3 - 3.7	34.6 - 35.7	N	AP - PA
<i>Challengerosergia</i> sp.2	*	*	26	1%	59.1	18.1	2.5	0 - 700	6.3 - 21.5	3.1 - 4.3	34.6 - 36.2	D - N	PA
<i>Parasergestes</i> sp.1	*	*	1	0%	3.9	1.3	4.9	900 - 1000	5.1	3.3	34.7	D	AP
<i>Phorcosergia burukovskii</i>	10	13	30	2%	48.1	13.3	0.7	100 - 1200	5 - 18.7	3 - 4.5	34.4 - 35.7	D - N	AP - CE - FN - RN - PA
<i>Phorcosergia</i> sp.1	*	*	1	0%	118	34	5	*	*	*	*	D	AP

<i>Robustosergia regalis</i>	15	57	29	4%	60.9	17.6	1.9	300 - 1100	4.4 - 10.2	3 - 3.8	34.5 - 34.9	D - N	AP - FN - RN -PA
<i>Robustosergia</i> sp.1	*	*	1	0%	64.7	22.5	2	400 - 500	8.8	3	34.8	D	PA
<i>Sergestidae</i> gen sp.1	*	1	*	0%	*	19	3.4	400 - 500	*	*	*	N	FN
<i>Sergestidae</i> gen sp.2	*	*	3	0%	62.8	19.7	2.4	900 - 1000	4.6 - 5.1	3.3 - 3.5	34.6 - 34.7	N	AP - PA
<i>Sergestidae</i> gen sp.3	*	*	4	0%	41..5	10.9	0.2	400 - 500	7	3	34.6	N	AP
<i>Sergestidae</i> gen sp.4	*	*	8	0%	52.1	15.3	1.3	400 - 500	7	3	34.6	N	AP
<i>Sergia laminata</i>	*	*	11	0%	41.8	10.7	0.3	400 - 1000	5.1 - 7	2.9 - 3.1	34.6 - 34.7	D - N	AP
<i>Sergia</i> sp.1	*	*	1	0%	*	*	*	300 - 400	10.2	3.5	34.9	N	PA

The family Acanthephyridae represented 30% (20 species) of the species observed, followed by the family Sergestidae (19%, 13 species), and Pasiphaeidae (15%, 10 species). Other families had less than ten species (Benthesicymidae - 6 species, Oplophoridae - 5 species, Peneidae - 4 species, Pandalidae - 3 species, Palaemonidae - 2 species and Luciferidae - 1 species).

The most abundant species in the three campaigns was *Challengerosergia* sp, had 842 individuals in just one sample, a result much higher than any other species sampled in the campaigns. Two other Sergestidae were also abundant: *Robustosergia regalis* (Gordon, 1939) (101 individuals) and *Phorcosergia burukovskii* (Vereshchaka, 2000) (53 individuals).

Nematopalaemon schmitti (Holthuis, 1950) contributed 300 individuals collected in the AM campaign. The family Acanthephyridae family is represented by the species *Acanthephyra curtirostris* Wood-Mason & Alcock, 1891 (304), *Acanthephyra pelagica* RISSO, 1813 (259), *Acanthephyra acutifrons* Spence Bate, 1888 (132) and *Notostomus gibbosus* A. Milne-Edwards, 1881 (80).

The species *Oplophorus gracilirostris* A. Milne-Edwards, 1881, also obtained less than 100 individuals in the sample. It was represented by 63 individuals. The other species had fewer than 100 individuals. Several species were represented by only one individual in the samples. They are, therefore, considered rare. These are *Heterocarpus ensifer* A. Milne-Edwards, 1881, *Meningodora mollis* Smith, 1882, *Metapenaeopsis hobbsi* Pérez Farfante, 1971, *Pasiphaea princeps* Smith, 1884 and *Systellaspis pellucida* (Filhol, 1884).

Specifically, the species with the highest frequency of occurrence were *A. acutifrons* (30%), *R. regalis* (27%), *A. curtirostris* (19%) *Ephyrina ombango* Crosnier & Forest, 1973 (19%), *N. gibbosus* (19%), *P. burukovskii* (19%), *A. pelagica* (16%) and *Acanthephyra kingsleyi* Bate, 1888 (16%). The frequency of occurrence of most the other species was considered rare.

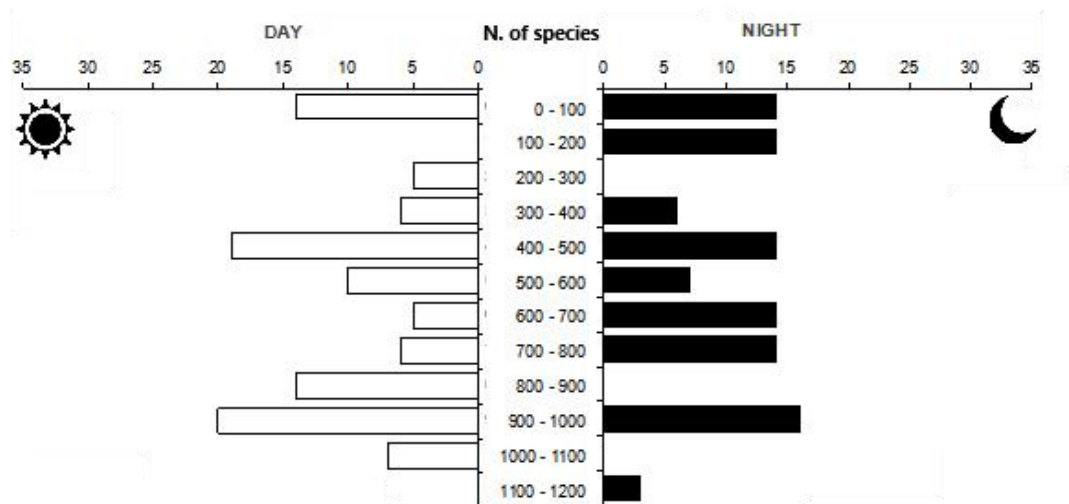


Figure 2. Total number of species by depth stratification and by day and night period of the shrimp sampled.

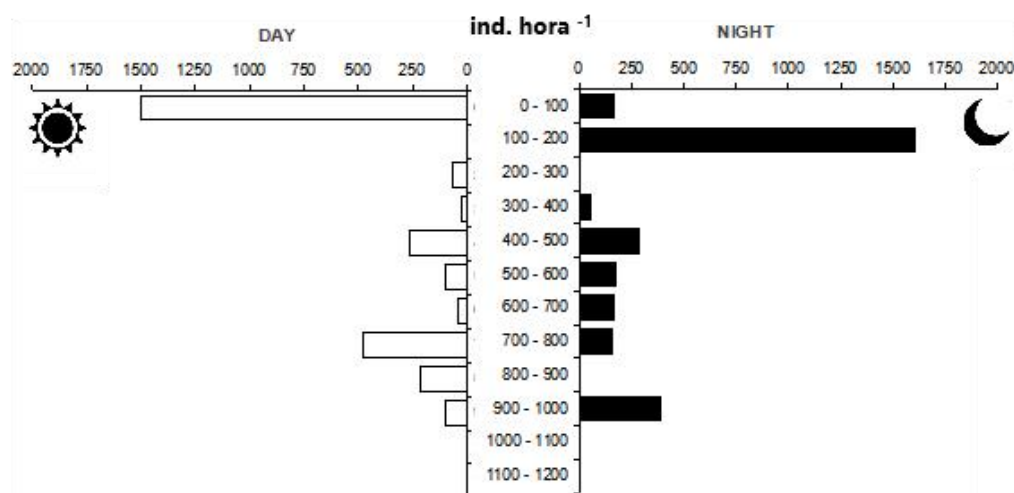


Figure 3. Average values of total abundance (ind. hora⁻¹) by depth stratification and by day and night period of the shrimp sampled.

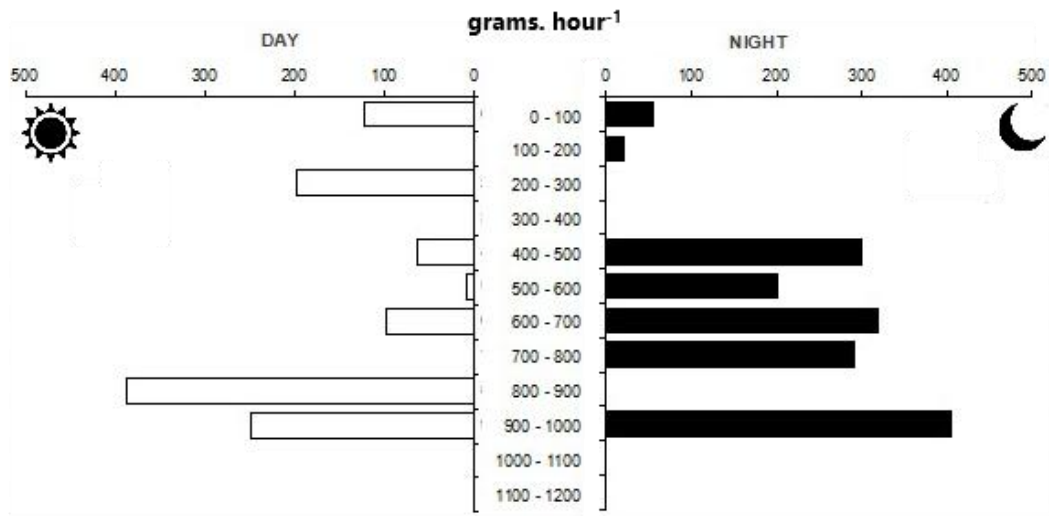


Figure 4. Average values of total biomass (grams. hour⁻¹) per depth stratification and per day and night period of the shrimp sampled.

Looking at the richness, abundance and biomass by depth and daily period (day and night) from all three campaigns (Fig. 2; Fig 3; Fig 4), it is possible to see that the shrimp show richness with peaks in the epipelagic zone (0-100m), mesopelagic zone (400-500m) and the beginning of the bathypelagic zone (900-1000m), where there is also a peak in richness at night. Species richness during the night was somewhat more similar across the depth ranges. Abundance was maximum in shallower water, with the highest values being found between 0-100m during the day and 100-200m at night. A few species were responsible for this high abundance, and there was evidence of the formation of schools. During the day, the second highest value was found in the 700-800m range, where another peak is formed. During the night, there is a greater abundance in the mesopelagic zone, with a peak at the beginning of the bathypelagic zone. Most of the biomass was distributed in the mesopelagic zone during the night, with a clear concentration of samples between 400 and 800m. There were peaks at night between 900 and 1000m and during the day, at a slightly shallower depth, between 800 and 900m. However, there was also a substantial result between 900 and 1000m during the day, the second highest biomass value found.

Species of Acanthephyridae, such as *A. pelagica* and *A. acutifrons* showed a wide distribution among the layers, both during the day and at night, ranging from the surface to more than 1000m deep, occurring in collections near the state of Amapá to Alagoas, including the oceanic islands. Also, representatives of this family, *Ephyrina benedict* and *Ephyrina ombango* had a wide distribution in the water, occurring from surface waters to depths of over 1000m. Their distribution in the Brazilian states was more restricted, occurring from Amapá to Rio Grande do Norte and on oceanic islands. *Ephyrina benedict* occurred only during the daytime, and *E. ombango* in all daily periods. The species *Hymenopenaeus laevis* was represented by only two individuals, observed at depths ranging from the surface to 1000 meters. It was recorded exclusively in the Amapá region and only during daytime. In this study, the species *O. gracilirostris* occurred from the surface to 1000m depth, day and night, in Pará, Rio Grande do Norte and the Fernando de Noronha Archipelago.

Some species were restricted to a certain depth and daily period. During the day, *Nematopalaeon schmitti*, *Systellapsis pellucida*, and some other species were restricted to the first 100m. Between 100 and 200m, during the day, there was no

occurrence of any species, while at night, there was a restricted occurrence of *Janicella spinicaudata*. Several species of the family were limited to 400 and 500m. *Meningodora compsa* and two other species of the genus were restricted to high depths, occurring only between 900 and 1000m. This is also the case for a species of the genus *Acanthephyra*, which only occurred between 1100 and 1200m during the night.

2.5 Discussion

The deep sea is a difficult environment to access, and studying it is a major challenge (Feng et al., 2022). Investigating the diversity of pelagic species is of great importance to science and society (Martin et al., 2020), and understanding the distribution, composition and lifestyle of these animals fills a gap in understanding the oceanic trophic chain. There is important work on the distribution and diversity of shrimp in the North and Northeast of Brazil, but most studies focused on estuarine (Coelho et al., 2006). Also, in the study of Coelho et al. (2006), the knowledge regarding the distribution of shrimp species in Northern and Northeastern Brazil is based on specific literature, such as the studies by Christoffersen (1998), D'Incao (1998), and Ramos-Porto and Coelho (1998), as well as on specimens stored in the crustacean collection at MOUFPE. However, there is still a huge lack of information, especially regarding the deep sea specimens of shrimp in the North and Northeast regions of Brazil.

To fill this knowledge gap, here we present data on the species collected in oceanographic campaigns from the North and Northeast of Brazil, where 66 species distributed in 34 genera and 10 families were identified. Considering the entire survey of the expeditions, the dominant family was Acanthephyridae, which is a family of shrimp with a global distribution and one of the most specious among the decapods (Lunina, 2021). This result indicates that members of this family play an important ecological role, contributing greatly to the structure of the trophic chain, often being predators, but also serving as a food source for predators such as fishes and rays (Modica et al., 2014; Dhurmeea, et al., 2020; Molina-Salgado et al., 2021).

The family Sergestidae, which also has a wide diversity around the globe and a high diversity of species (WORMS, 2024), are part of the marine zooplankton, representing the transmission of energy between photosynthesizing organisms,

1 phytoplankton and bacterioplankton to consumers at higher trophic levels such as
2 fish, molluscs and even planktivorous crustaceans, a role of paramount importance
3 for the maintenance of the ecosystem where they live (Cavalcante-Braga, 2017). In
4 addition, these shrimp are also economically important in fisheries production in
5 some African and Asian countries (Costa & Simões, 2016), as well as in northern
6 Brazil (Nunes, 2013).

7 The family Pasiphaeidae is an important component of the planktonic
8 communities of meso- and bathypelagic environments, with most of its distribution
9 documented in the Atlantic Ocean, but with a global occurrence, also occurring in
10 other oceans, including the polar regions (Komai et al., 2012). Many pasiphaeids are
11 pelagic and participate in diel vertical migrations, often consuming planktonic species
12 at night (CARTes, 1993; Karuppasamy et al., 2006). Some species can reach such
13 high abundances that they become commercially viable. (Motoh, 1999; Nanjo et al.,
14 2016). Families that obtained fewer than ten specimens also had representative
15 species of high environmental, ecological and commercial importance (Menon, 2002;
16 Mantelatto et al., 2010; Wehrtmann et al., 2012; Bochini et al., 2014; Moraes et al.,
17 2024).

18 The species most abundant was *Challengerosergia* sp1. Species of the family
19 Sergestidae are among the most common in many ecosystems and important objects
20 of fisheries in some areas, such as *Sergestes lucens* in Japan and *Acetes* spp. in
21 Masalia and Thailand (Vereshchaka et al., 2014; Anandkumar et al., 2017; Phudhom
22 et al., 2024). They also play a vital role as prey for larger, commercially harvested
23 species, and certain species, known for forming large, shallow aggregations, support
24 fisheries themselves (Collins et al., 2024). Although they are important, sergestids
25 are still not well understood when it comes to their higher-level classification and
26 phylogenetic relationships. (Vereshchaka et al., 2014). In fact, there are no in-depth
27 studies on the genus *Challengerosergia*, and there are no records for anywhere in
28 Brazil.

29 Although fish aggregation behavior is well-studied, our understanding of
30 shoaling in marine invertebrates remains limited (Evans et al., 2007). However, this
31 behavior has already been recorded in the literature on crustaceans (Evans et al.,
32 2007; Ward & Webster, 2016; Hassan Othman, 2021). The sergestid shrimps were
33 collected in an open sea region, where schooling is a good strategy to avoid
34 predation (Brierley & Cox, 2010; Delcourt & Poncin, 2012; Schaerf et al., 2024). In

addition, this aggregation may also be related to the search for food; environments where there are phytoplankton blooms due to an increase in nutrients cause a proportional response by zooplankton to consume this available food (Nair et al., 1992; Shakawi et al., 2021). The species *Robustosergia regalis*, and *Phorcosergia burukovski* have already been recorded in the tropical and subtropical Atlantic Ocean (Díaz-Pérez et al., 2024) and in other regions of Brazil, such as Northeast (Alves-Júnior et al., 2019) and Southeast (Cardoso et al., 2020), but in this work their distribution has been extended to the North.

The species *Nematopalaemon schmitti* is known as White Belly Shrimp, one of the main fishing items for seine fishers in China (Lakenarine et al., 2024). Also is one of several by-catch species in fisheries targeting large penaeid shrimps, including *Farfantepenaeus paulensis* (Perez-Farfante, 1967), *F. brasiliensis* (Latreille, 1817), *Litopenaeus schmitti* (Burkenroad, 1936), and *Xiphopenaeus kroyeri* (Heller, 1862) (Fransozo et al., 2009; Reis-Júnior & Freire, 2024). These species play an important ecological role within the trophic web of soft bottom environments to which it pertains (Fransozo et al., 2009). There is a substantial understanding of the biology of these species, such as studies on ecological distribution (Almeida et al., 2012), spatial and temporal distribution (Fransozo et al., 2009), population structure, reproductive strategy and period (Almeida et al., 2011; Pereira et al., 2017) and also about relative growth and morphological sexual maturity (Herrera et al., 2018). Coelho et al. (2006) previously recorded this species in states in the North and Northeast regions of Brazil. In this study, this species is again found in the North.

Belonging to the AcanthePHYridae family, the species *A. curtirostris*, *A. pelagica*, *A. acutifrons* and *Notostomus gibbosus* A. Milne-Edwards, 1881 were also quite frequent in the samples. The species of the genus *AcanthePHYra* are voracious predators, feeding on small fish, decapods and euphausiids (Burukovsky, 2009). Most species within the genus are bathypelagic, featuring morphological adaptations suited to a pelagic lifestyle, such as swimming exopods and a lightly calcified carapace (Bauer, 2004; Cardoso, 2013). Alves-Júnior et al. (2016) recorded the species *A. pelagica* for the first time in Northeastern Brazil. Subsequently, Alves-Júnior et al. (2019) published the occurrence of this and the species *A. curtirostris* and *A. acutifrons* again in the Northeast region. There are also records in other

regions of Brazil, such as the southwest (Cardoso & Young, 2005). In this work, we see an expansion of the documented distribution of these very important species.

Notostomus gibbosus is a common deep-sea shrimp found worldwide (Alves-Júnior et al., 2019), and it plays a key role in the bathypelagic food web and ecosystem functioning due to its wide distribution and substantial individual biomass (Burghart et al. 2010). According to Sanders and Childress (1988), this species stands out for its positive buoyancy, using ion replacement to balance its body density. The reinforced carapace and partially serrated mandibles of *N. gibbosus* are well-suited for feeding on gelatinous prey, primarily cnidarians (Lunna et al. 2021). Gelatinous animals are major contributors to pelagic biomass across various ocean depth zones (Vereshchaka et al., 2016), they are consumed by a relatively small number of predators, making them a potentially valuable food source. There are records of *N. gibbosus* in Northeast Brazil (Moreira, 1901; Coelho & Ramos, 1972; Coelho, 2006; Judkins, 2014). However, there is still no record for the northern region, so this work expands this distribution by filling the gap on the Brazilian coast.

An important species always present in deep-sea shrimp sampling, *Oplophorus gracilirostris*, also obtained less than 100 individuals in the sample and was represented by 63 individuals. With a global presence, these shrimps are often essential members of pelagic and benthopelagic oceanic communities, contributing significantly to these ecosystems. *Oplophorus* is consistently recorded, but only in small numbers, indicating an absence of schooling behavior (Lunina et al., 2019). Predators in this genus exhibit insatiable feeding habits, with fish and crustaceans being their most common and abundant dietary items. These shrimps possess characteristic oplophoroid mandibles featuring a reduced molar process and a subtriangular incisor process lined with teeth along the entire inner margin. This adaptation allows them to crush crustacean carapaces, break fish bones, and further cut through tissues (Burukovsky, 2009).

The ocean plays a crucial role in climate regulation by absorbing carbon from the atmosphere through both biological activity and physical mechanisms (Wang & Ren, 2024). The biological carbon pump transfers particulate organic carbon generated mainly by photosynthetic organisms that convert carbon dioxide into organic matter. This process creates a downward flow of carbon (Legendre, 2024). This downward flow consists of marine snow, phytoplankton debris, zooplankton and

nekton fecal pellets, as well as the remains of dead organisms (Christina & Passow, 2007; Burd, 2024).

About the species richness found in the results, it can be seen that there is a somewhat similar distribution of species throughout the depth ranges. Species were more abundant in shallower waters, close to the surface and up to 100 m deep, during the day and at night; there was a peak at the beginning of the mesopelagic zone and distribution of species abundance throughout this zone.

However, when we look at the biomass results, we see that the highest values are concentrated in the deep sea region, with a clear migration during the night to the mesopelagic region at depths between 400 and 800 m. There is also an increase in biomass between 900 and 1000 m. The biomass and abundance of pelagic shrimps vary with latitude and depth, and many pelagic shrimp species exhibit vertical migrations throughout the water column (Vereshchaka et al., 2019). According to Díaz-Pérez et al. (2024), these biomass movements are important for the biogeochemical functioning of the pelagic ecosystem. Daily, these micronektonic migrants consume organic carbon in the productive shallower layers and then migrate to deeper waters, where they respire, excrete, defecate, or become prey for deep-water predators (Díaz-Pérez et al., 2024). Shrimps do this strategically, seeking cover in deep dark water during daytime and only entering the risky upper layers to feed at night-time to avoid predators (Hays, 2003; Thibault et al., 2024). The relationships between predation and defense mechanisms significantly contribute to the evolutionary diversity of pelagic crustaceans (Bashevkin & Morgan, 2020; Golightly et al., 2022). The extent of this migration is influenced by preferences for specific oceanographic conditions and species-specific strategies related to ontogenetic development and foraging behaviors. (Bollens et al., 2011).

Pelagic species are reported in the literature to carry out diel vertical migration, being cited as the Earth's largest animal migration (Hans, 2003; Vestheim, Kaartvedt, 2009; Cisewski et al., 2021), these organisms are active swimmers, including fish, crustaceans and cephalopods (BRODEUR and PAKHOMOV, 2019), and although they are less abundant than zooplankton, micronekton can play a similarly important role in driving carbon flux (Pinti et al., 2022). Their greater swimming abilities allow them to go deeper, where they produce larger organic particles. Additionally, the longer gut transit time of larger migrant organisms allows organic matter to be transported into the mesopelagic zone (Kobari et al., 2008).

1 Thus, this active transport of organic carbon plays an important role in the
2 biological carbon pump within the ocean (Le Moigne, 2019).

3 By actively transporting carbon to the deep ocean, the mesopelagic migratory
4 pump reduces particle fragmentation and remineralization in surface layers while
5 improving the efficiency of the biological carbon pump (Cavan et al., 2019). These
6 migratory movements enable the transfer of energy from shallow waters to deeper
7 zones, and they are fundamental in channeling energy from zooplankton and
8 micronekton to top pelagic predators and deep-sea creatures. (Schukat et al., 2013;
9 Eduardo et al., 2022).

10 **2.6 Conclusion**

11 The study revealed notable differences in the shrimp assemblage between the
12 sampling campaigns, which used diverse strategies that enabled a broad
13 representation of the individuals caught. The shrimp collected exhibited significant
14 diversity in richness, size, shape, and life strategies, highlighting their importance in
15 ecological and environmental contexts.

16 A significant aggregation of individuals forming shoals was observed, including
17 some species whose shoaling behavior had never been documented in Brazil before.
18 This finding is especially significant, as it provides the first record of shoaling
19 behavior in invertebrates in the region and represents the discovery of a new species
20 in Brazilian waters.

21 Among the 81 species identified, *Challengerosergia* sp. stood out in terms of
22 abundance, while *A. acutifrons* and *R. regalis* were the most frequent in terms of
23 occurrence. Several species were rare, represented by only a few individuals, with an
24 occurrence frequency close to 0%.

25 Pelagic shrimp play a vital role in trophic relationships, contributing
26 significantly to nutrient transport in the water column. Some species were found to be
27 restricted to specific depths, areas, or times of day, while others had a broader
28 distribution, likely migrating vertically. Additionally, some of these species are of
29 economic importance.

30 The study also expanded the known distribution of several species in Brazilian
31 waters, particularly in the North, where no previous surveys had been conducted. As
32 a result, the research contributed to creating the first integrated checklist of deep-sea

1 pelagic shrimps in the North and Northeast of Brazil.

2 This information is valuable in advancing our understanding of shrimp diversity,
3 distribution, and ecology in the deep-sea environment, helping to fill a significant
4 knowledge gap in this field.

3 CAPÍTULO 2

3.1 Microplastics in deep-pelagic shrimps in the tropical Atlantic Ocean

Abstract

This study investigates microplastic (MP) contamination in four species of deep-sea pelagic shrimp (*Acantheephyra pelagica*, *Notostomus gibbosus*, *Challengerosergia* sp. and *Thysanopoda cristata*) collected from the North Brazilian Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ), an area influenced by the Amazon River plume. Samples from 70 specimens were analyzed to quantify and characterize MPs by size, shape, and color. More than 80% of shrimps had MPs. A total of 209 MP particles were found. Fibers was the prevalent MP shape, and most particles were transparent. Statistically significant differences in contamination levels were observed among species, with *Notostomus gibbosus* exhibiting the highest contamination rate (4.55 ± 2.01 MPs shrimp⁻¹). This research highlights the presence of MPs on mesopelagic organisms, shedding light on the potential ecological risks. These findings underscore the importance of addressing MP pollution, particularly in regions influenced by riverine inputs like the Amazon.

Keywords: Marine pollution; Oceanic crustaceans; Submarine habitats;

3.2 Introduction

Plastics are persistent in the oceans due to their resistance to degradation (Moore, 2008), being widely distributed from the surface waters to the seabed (Graham & Thompson, 2009; Murray & Cowie, 2011). While the impacts of large plastic items on marine megafauna are relatively better documented, studies on smaller plastic fragments and their effects, particularly on invertebrates, have gained attention only recently (Murray, 2011; Aragaw, 2020; Ahmed, 2021; Zhang, 2021).

The small plastic fragments, known as MPs (size between 1 nm and 5 mm), similar in size to the food particles consumed by marine invertebrates, can be mistakenly ingested, leading to harmful impacts (Browne et al., 2008; Fu & Wang, 2020), reducing feeding efficiency, survival, and fecundity (Jitrapat et al., 2024). In addition to the potential physical impacts, concern has been expressed due to the possibility of MPs adsorbing and transporting persistent organic pollutants available

1 in the water column (Teuten et al., 2007). Microplastics might pose serious threats to
2 aquatic organisms and humans who consume them (Barboza et al., 2018). Most
3 decapod crustaceans, such as crabs, shrimps and lobsters, are caught or farmed as
4 a food source and, therefore, form an important part of the diet of the human
5 population (D'Costa, 2022)

6 Rivers are the main pathways for plastic and MP waste into the oceans
7 (Lebreton & Andrady, 2019). The increase in population, most of whom live along
8 riverine and coastal areas, and the lack of proper waste management intensifies the
9 risks of environmental contamination, as well as the development of economic
10 activities, such as aquaculture, agriculture, mining and extraction of fossil fuels
11 (Capparelli et al., 2020; Galarza et al., 2021, Lucas-Solis et al., 2021).

12 The Amazon River stands out for being the largest river in the world,
13 considering its average flow. This river is estimated to carry about 38,900 tons of
14 plastic yearly into the Atlantic Ocean (Lebreton et al., 2017). Considering the dual
15 role of the Brazilian Amazon coast as both a sink and a source of MP pollution, it is
16 imperative to undertake comprehensive research into the origins and drivers of MP
17 contamination within estuarine systems. The Amazon Basin, with its critical
18 significance in fisheries, traditional communities, and biodiversity, warrants
19 prioritization as a focal region in local and global endeavors to limit the deleterious
20 effects of plastic pollution. As highlighted by Martinelli Filho and Monteiro (2019), the
21 ecological and socio-economic value of the Amazon underscores its importance in
22 the global context of pollution mitigation efforts.

23 Crustaceans under the influence of river plumes are likely to be susceptible to
24 greater MP exposure, as rivers are important sources of MPs to the oceans, and
25 decapods can be used as indicator species of environmental quality, as well as
26 model organisms to test the toxicity of various environmental pollutants (Anderson &
27 Philips, 2016). There are some criteria for choosing good bioindicator species, such
28 as the availability of basic information on the biology and ecology of the species,
29 information on the habitat, trophic level and feeding behavior, spatial distribution,
30 commercial importance, conservation status and having the ingestion of marine litter
31 documented in the literature (Fossi, 2018).

32 There are no studies that evaluate the Amazon plume's MP transport capacity.
33 Recent research has mainly documented plastic ingestion in molluscs and pelagic
34 fish species in the Brazilian EEZ (Ferreira et al., 2022; Justino, 2023). However,

studies on plastic ingestion in deep-sea crustaceans remain limited (Taylor et al., 2016; Carreras-Colom, 2018; Jamieson et al., 2019; Cau et al., 2019; Yin et al., 2022). Smaller commercial seafood, such as crustaceans, including shrimps, are more likely to be impacted by MPs rather than large fish since MPs fall in a similar size range to their prey or foods (Curren et al., 2020). Shrimps are among the most popular seafood with the highest international trade value (Gurjar et al., 2021). This evidence has raised concerns about the human ingestion of MPs through consuming contaminated crustaceans and the potential impact on human health (BARBOZA et al., 2018), highlighting the possible role of shrimp in the trophic chain.

Despite the growing research interest in MPs in seafood and other human food items, the available information is still limited to some regions worldwide. Currently, there is no regulatory framework or international standard regarding the amount of permissible plastics in food for human safety (EFSA, 2016). Despite its progress, there are significant gaps in current legislation (Osuna-Laveaga, 2023). There is no data on MP ingestion in deep-water shrimp in the Southwestern Tropical Atlantic (SWTA). Thus, expanding our understanding of plastic contamination in deep-sea crustaceans is crucial to fill this knowledge gap. Therefore, we evaluated MP contamination in deep-sea pelagic shrimps, identifying them according to size, shape and color. In addition, an analysis will be carried out among the species sampled to understand the contamination patterns in these animals. The hypotheses that microplastic contamination is associated with the species-specific were tested, and the relationships between the total amount, size, and different shapes were verified.

3.3 Material and methods

3.3.1 Study Area

The study area is located ~450 km off Northern Brazil, within the Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ), in an ocean area influenced by the Amazon River plume (Fig. 1). The Amazon River is the largest river in average flow on the planet (Morozov et al., 2024) and has a plume of desalinated water that spreads over distances of more than 4000km from the mouth of the river, reducing the salinity of the surface and mixing to form a biogeographical barrier and strongly affecting the regime of the Tropical and Equatorial Atlantic (Varona et al., 2019). The spread of the Amazon

River plume is influenced by various processes that are regulated both by seasonal and interannual fluctuations in Amazon River discharge as well as oceanic and atmospheric factors, including heavy precipitation, ocean currents, winds and surface mixing (Grodsky et al., 2014; Coulet et al., 2025)

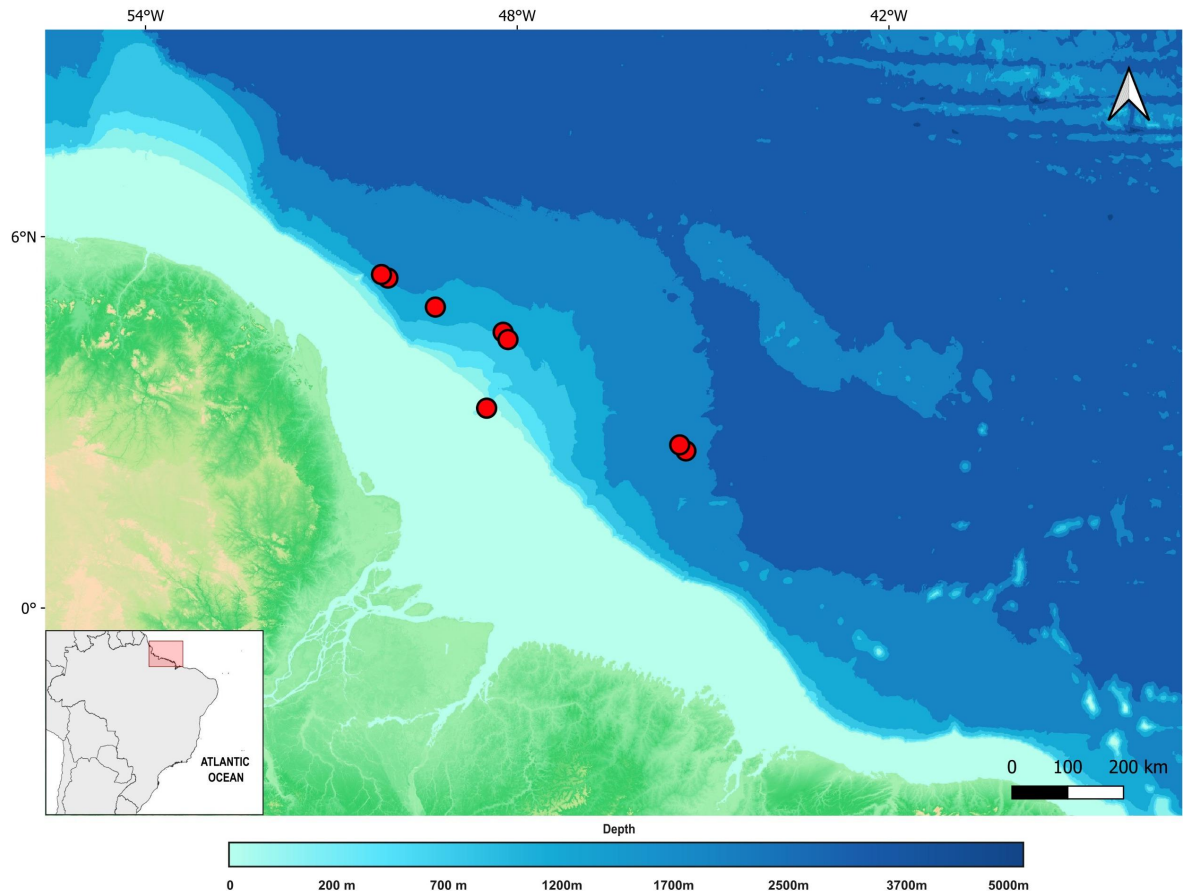


Figure. 1 Study area in the tropical Western Atlantic, sampled by the R/V ANTEA. The green circles represent the sampling stations from the AMAZOMIX campaign.

The deep-sea shrimps were collected as part of the during the AMAZOMIX project on board of the R/V ANTEA, selected according to the number of individuals, collected between September and October 2021, off the Amazon River to oceanic regions adjacent to the Northern continental shelf during the day and night, between the isobaths of 70 and 1,200 meters. Samples from five stations were used. The stations were not influenced by the river plume (Vantrepotte, *in prep*), and the minimum sample size for each species was 15 individuals to avoid bias due to a low sample size (Markic et al., 2020). A 40 mm mesh micronekton net was used, covering 15 meters of mouth and 18 meters in length, and trawled for 30 minutes at previously determined isobaths with a speed of between 1.5 and 3 knots.

After the sampling, the specimens were labelled, and the individuals were frozen (-20 °C). At the laboratory, individuals were identified (Crosnier & Forest, 1973; Vereshchaka, 2009; Alves-Júnior, 2019a, 2019b; Lunina et al., 2019; Rodrigues & Cardoso, 2019), measured (0.01 mm) and weighted (0.001 g). The frequency of occurrence (number of occurrences of MPs (x100), divided by the total number of individuals in the station, %F) was also calculated (Vo et al., 2024).

Four deep-sea shrimp species were selected for this study, given their ecological importance and key interactions in the trophic chain (Suh, 1990; Burukovsky & Andreeva, 2010; Vereshchak et al., 2014; Yuan et al., 2021). The species were *Acantheephyra pelagica* (RISSO, 1813), *Notostomus gibbosus* A. Milne-Edwards, 1881, *Challengerosergia* sp. and *Thysanopoda cristata* G.O. Sars, 1883.

3.3.2 Contamination Control

Before the laboratory analysis, several steps were carried out to ensure quality control (Quality Assurance and Quality Control - QA/QC) and avoid possible airborne and cross-contamination, following the protocol described by Justino et al. (2021). This protocol requires the use of cotton lab coats, disposable latex gloves, the filtration of any solution used and the control of the flow of people within the laboratory. In addition, blank procedures were implemented for each set of 5 and 10 samples, depending on the maximum number of samples of each species.

3.3.3 Plastic Extraction Protocol

The shrimp samples were washed with filtered distilled water to remove any particles adhering to the external tissue, following the protocol proposed by Justino et al. (2021). They were then placed in a 50 ml beaker and submerged in NaOH solution (1 mol L⁻¹; PA 97%). The samples were covered with a glass lid and dried in an oven at 60 °C for 24 hours. Afterward, the samples were filtered using a vacuum pump system through a glass fiber filter (47 mm GF/F, 0.7 µm, © Whatman). The filtered samples were carefully transferred to a Petri dish, covered, and dried again in the oven at 60 °C for an additional 24 hours.

The filters were then visually examined for MPs using a stereomicroscope. Particles suspected of being MPs were photographed, counted, and measured in length (mm). The MPs found were categorized according to their shape: fibers

(filamentous shape), fragments (irregular shape), films (flat shape), foams (soft with an irregular shape), or pellets (spherical shape) (Justino et al., 2021).

3.4 Data Analysis

3.4.1 Microplastic contamination

Violin plots were used to assess the MP contamination patterns relative to quantity, shape and size according to species. The violin plots combined boxplots and density estimations and can reveal more information about the shape of the distribution and the clusters in the dataset (Kabacoff, 2022).

a Kruskal-Wallis test was used to check whether the MPs identified (total quantity, size and shapes) varied among species. Whether significant differences were detected, a Dunn's test was performed to investigate the sources of variance (Dunn, 1964). Statistical analyses were carried out using R software version 4.4.2 (R Core Team, 2020), with a significance level of 5%.

3.5 Results

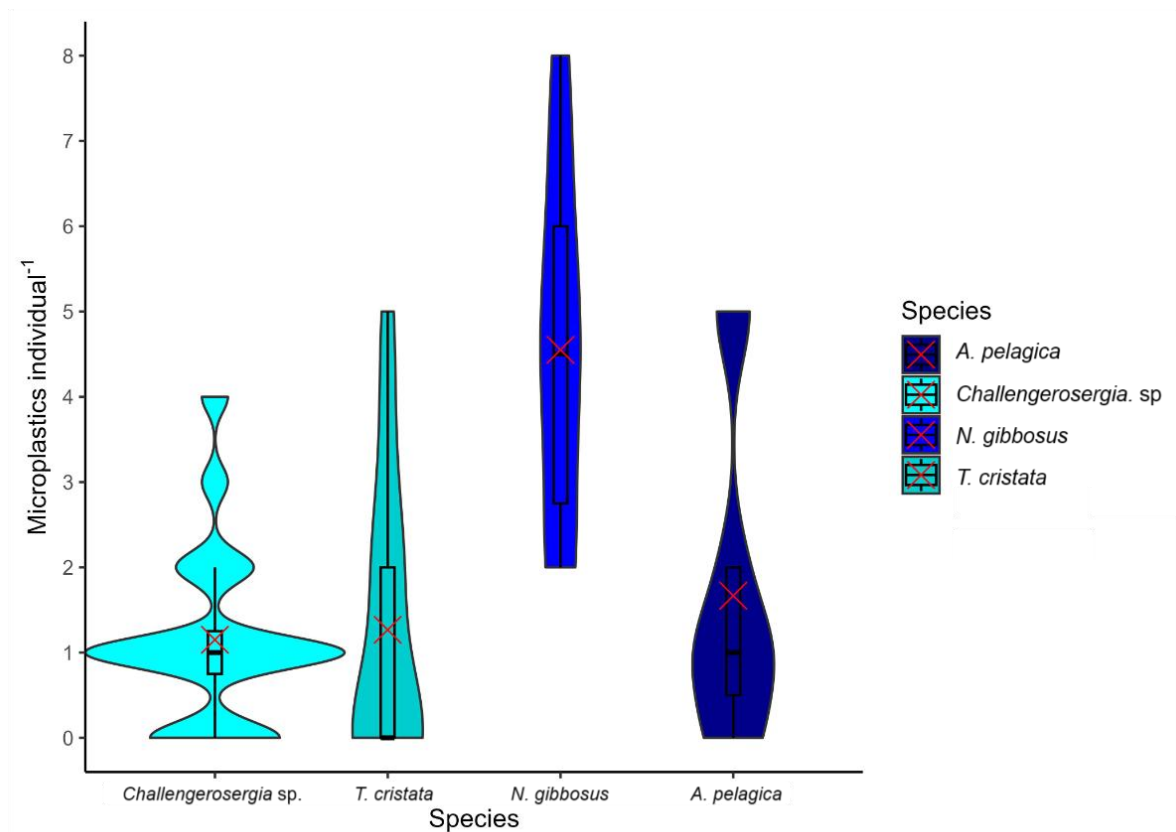
A total of 15 individuals of *Acantheephyra pelagica*, 20 of *Notostomus gibbosus*, 20 of *Challengerosergia* sp. and 15 of *Thysanopoda cristata* were analyzed. Microplastics were detected in most specimens (FO= 81.4%). A total of 209 MPs were detected with an average of 2.25 ± 2.19 individual⁻¹. The specimens *N. gibbosus* had the highest prevalence of MPs (FO= 100%), followed by *Challengerosergia* sp. (85%), *A. pelagica* and *T. cristata* (60%) (Table 1).

Table. 1. Morphometric measurements and MP data of the analyzed species. N (Sample size); depth of capture; mean \pm standard deviation of Total Length (TL); CL (Carapace Length); TW (Total Weight); Number and size of MPs and Frequency of occurrence of MP (FO%).

Species	N	Depth (m)	TL (mm)	CL (mm)	TW (g)	Number of MPs	FO%	Size of MPs (mm)
<i>AcanthePHYra pelagica</i>	15	900	70.79 \pm 21.08	21.42 \pm 6.39	3.01 \pm 1.45	1.66 \pm 1.53	80%	0.32 \pm 0.41
<i>Challengerosergia</i> sp.	20	130	47.23 \pm 4.44	14.39 \pm 1.20	0.39 \pm 0.14	1.15 \pm 1.03	85%	0.78 \pm 0.57
<i>Notostomus gibbosus</i>	20	1000	96.54 \pm 19.63	41.75 \pm 6.15	7.16 \pm 4.23	4.55 \pm 2.01	100%	1.56 \pm 0.86
<i>Thysanopoda cristata</i>	15	450	50.82 \pm 4.76	14.38 \pm 1.94	1.31 \pm 0.41	1.26 \pm 1.66	60%	0.44 \pm 0.69

1

2 *Notostomus gibbosus* was the most contaminated species (4.55 ± 2.01 MPs
3 shrimp⁻¹), followed by *A. pelagica* (1.66 ± 1.53 MPs shrimp⁻¹), *T. cristata* ($1.26 \pm$
4 1.66 MPs shrimp⁻¹) and *Challengerosergia* sp (1.15 ± 1.03 MPs shrimp⁻¹) (Fig. 2).
5 With the species *N. gibbosus* being the only source of variance (chi-squared =
6 29.283, p-value ≤ 0.05).



7

8 **Figure 2.** Total number of MPs ingested by deep-sea shrimps from the North
9 Brazilian Exclusive Economic Zone. The violin plots show kernel density estimation
10 as a representation of data distribution. The horizontal line within the box plots shows
11 the inter-quartile range, the whiskers show the 1.5× interquartile range, and the red
12 cross represents the mean values.

13 Fibers were the prevailing MP shape in the studied species, followed by
14 fragments, *T. cristata* was the exception, with fragments corresponding to 70% of
15 MPs (Fig. 3). The predominant color was transparent, accounting for 32% of particles.
16 This was followed by blue and brown, with 28% and 15% respectively. There were

also fewer black (11%), red (6%), and purple (5%) MPs. There were no significant differences in the number of fragments among species (chi-squared = 4.3339, p-value = 0.22) (Fig. 4).

The species *N. gibbosus* was notably prominent concerning the number of fibers ingested (4.25 ± 1.30 Frags shrimp⁻¹) (Fig. 4). It was again the only source of variance, showing a statistically significant difference (chi-squared = 29.283, p-value ≤ 0.05).

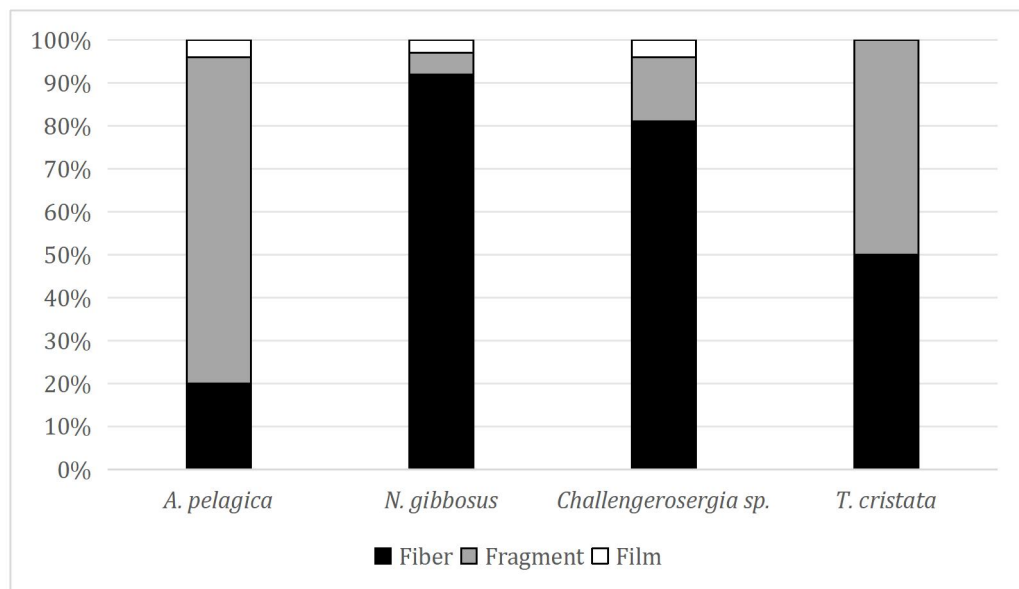


Figure 3. Different shapes of MPs (fibres, fragments, and films) ingested by deep-sea shrimp species from the North Brazilian Exclusive Economic Zone expressed as a percentage.

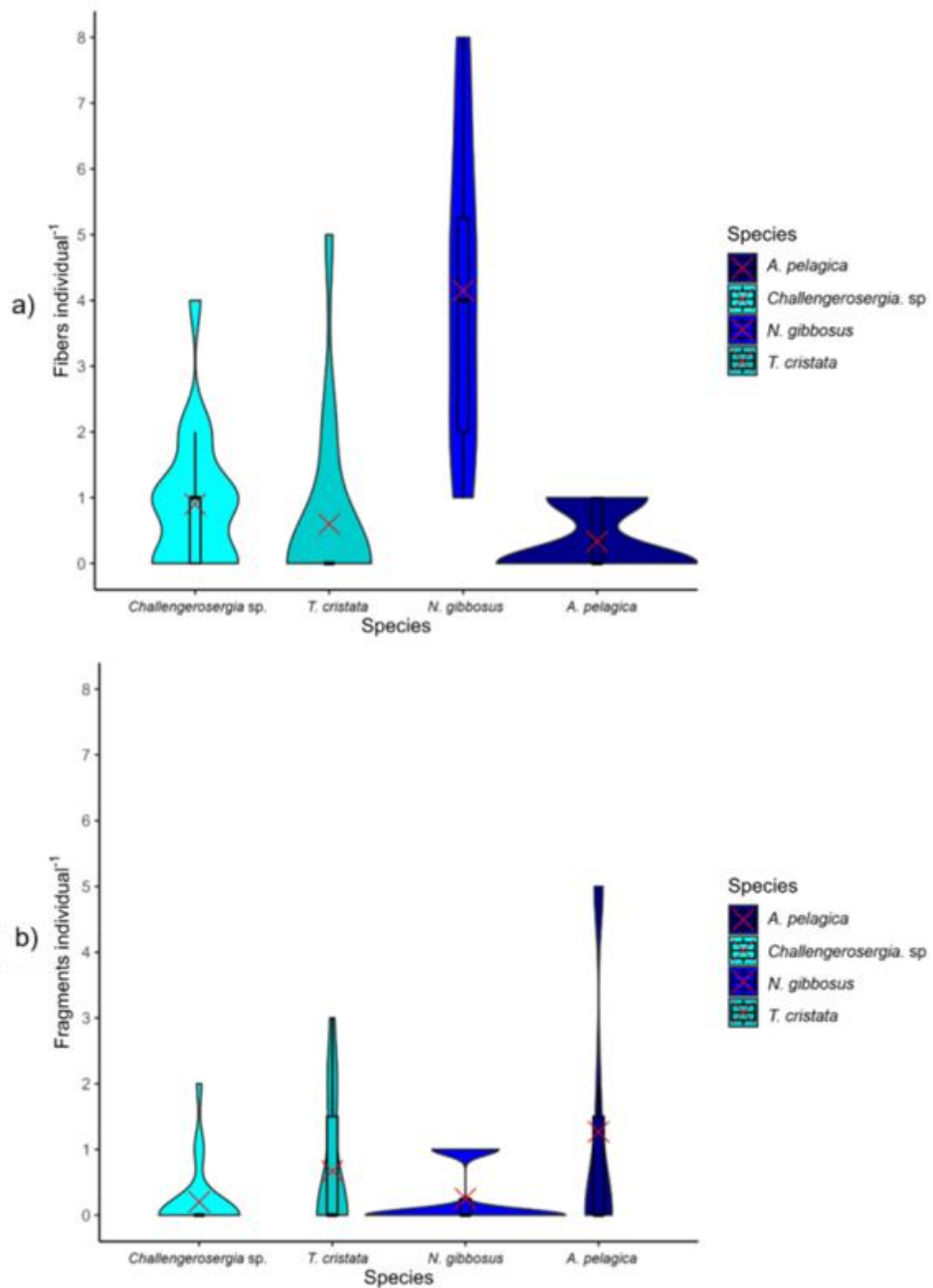


Figure 4. The number of fibers (a) and fragments (b) ingested by deep-sea shrimps from the North Brazilian Exclusive Economic Zone. The violin plots show kernel density estimation as a representation of data distribution. The horizontal line within

the box plots shows the inter-quartile range, the whiskers show the 1.5× interquartile range, and the red cross represents the mean values.

The smallest particle found measured 0.01 mm, and the largest, 2.45 mm, with an average of 0.46 ± 0.40 mm. The largest particles were found in the species *N. gibbosus* ($1,56 \pm 0,86$ mm), followed by *Challengerosergia* sp. ($0,78 \pm 0,57$ mm), *T. cristata* ($0,44 \pm 0,69$ mm) and *A. pelagica* ($0,32 \pm 0,41$ mm) (Fig. 6; Tab. 1). Statistical analysis of the size of plastic particles ingested, in relation to the species, showed a significant difference in the samples (chi-squared = 11.573, p-value ≤ 0.05), the source of variance, in this case, was the difference only between the species *N. gibbosus* and *A. pelagica* (Fig. 6).

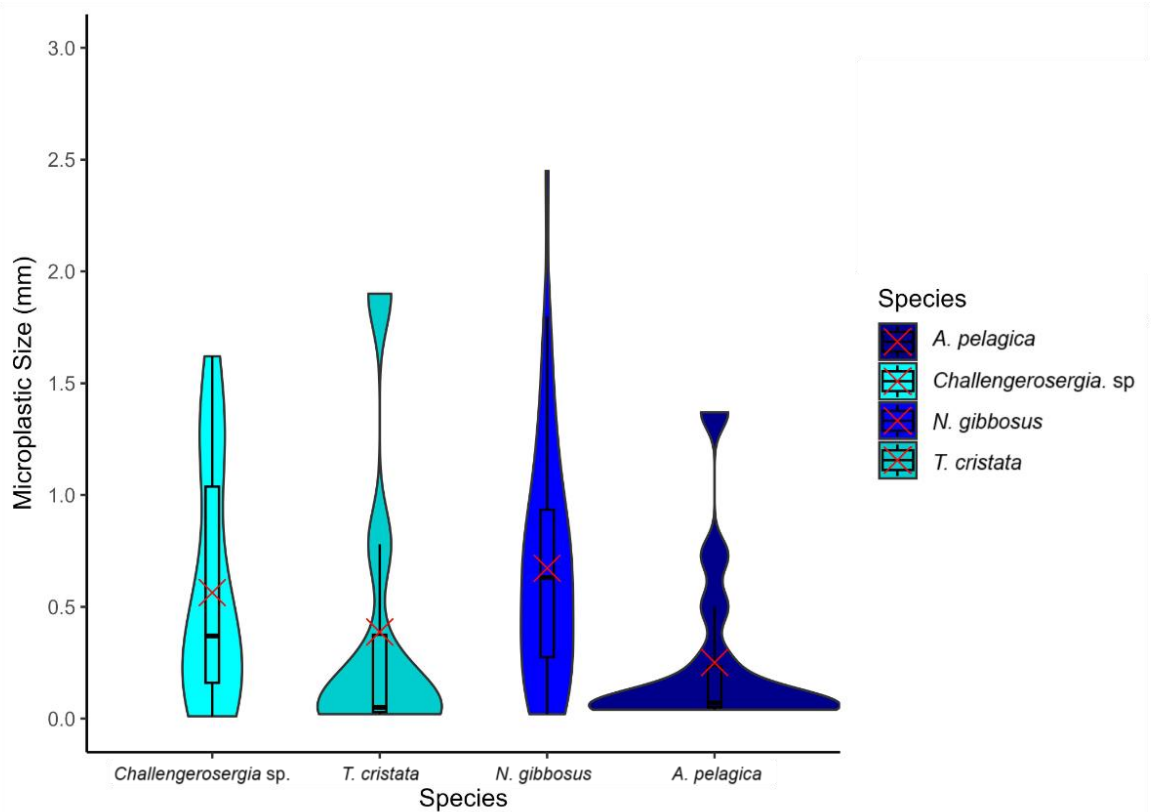
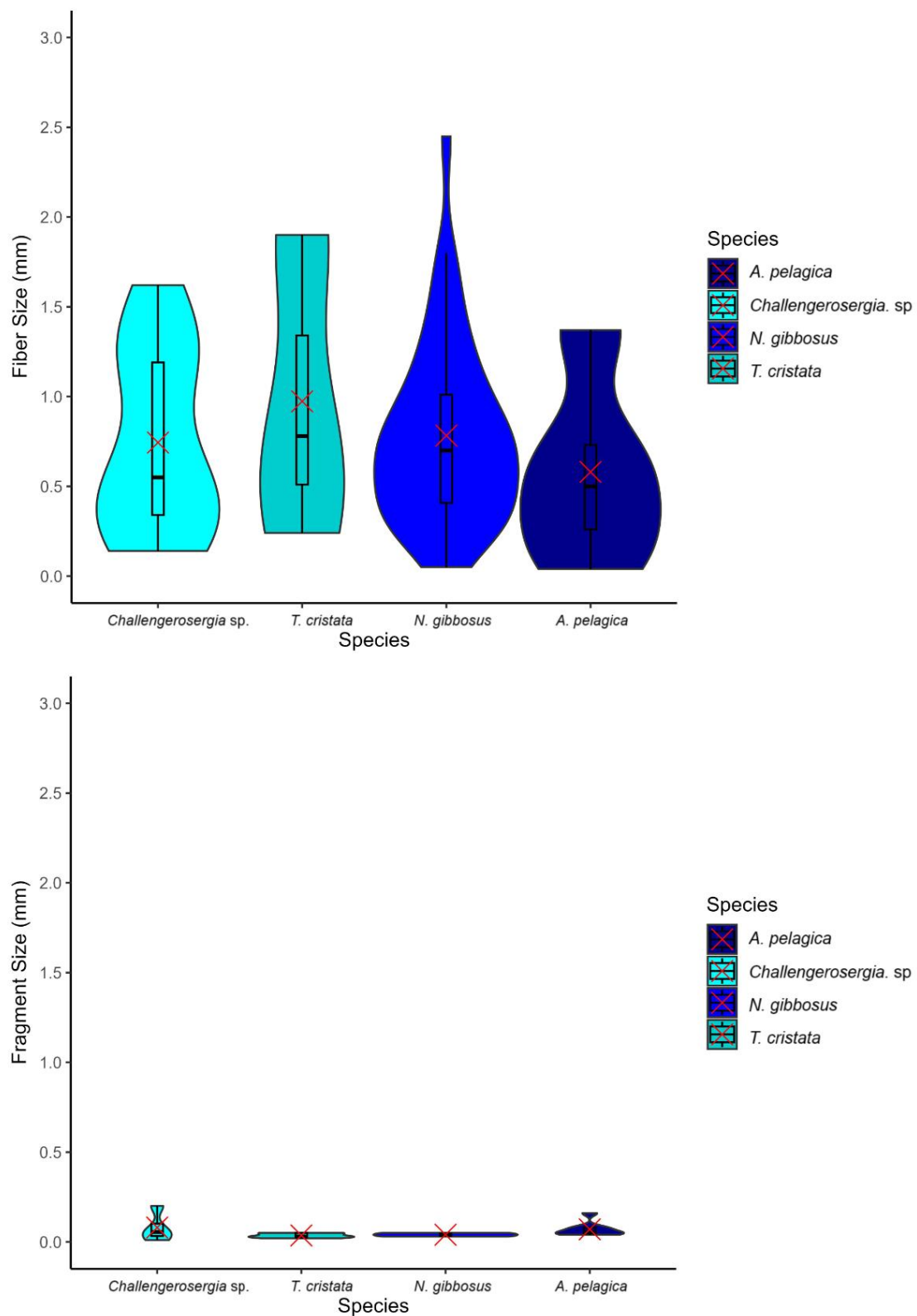


Figure 6. The size of MPs ingested by deep-sea shrimps from the North Brazilian Exclusive Economic Zone. The violin plots show kernel density estimation as a representation of data distribution. The horizontal line within the box plots shows the inter-quartile range, the whiskers show the 1.5× interquartile range, and the red cross represents the mean values.

1 The fibers had an average size of $0,78 \pm 0,48$ mm (Fig. 7). It is possible to
2 notice a similarity in the values obtained for all species, with no significant differences
3 (chi-squared = 1.0908, p-value = 0.77). On the other hand, fragments were found in
4 smaller sizes, with an average of $0,08 \pm 0,15$ mm (Fig. 7). There was no significant
5 difference among species (chi-squared = 4.7932, p-value = 0.18)



1

2 **Figure 7.** The size of fibers and fragments ingested by deep-sea shrimps from the
 3 North Brazilian Exclusive Economic Zone. The violin plots show kernel density
 4 estimation as a representation of data distribution. The horizontal line within the box

plots shows the inter-quartile range, the whiskers show the 1.5× interquartile range, and the red cross represents the mean values.

3.6 Discussion

Microplastics currently represent one of the most significant environmental threats (Tian et al., 2023), given their pervasive presence across all ecosystems, including remote regions such as the deep ocean (Courtene-Jones et al., 2017; Cau et al., 2019). These particles primarily enter marine environments through rivers, sewage, industrial effluents and offshore activities (e.g. fishing) (Akbari et al., 2024).

In the aquatic environment, these fragments undergo degradation due to environmental and biological forcings, being readily ingested by a wide variety of marine organisms, from small invertebrates to large marine mammals (Botterell et al., 2019; Trestrail et al., 2020; Zantis et al., 2021). This can result in problems such as intestinal obstruction, nutrient depletion and the absorption of chemical compounds that can be associated with MPs (Verla et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2020; D'Costa, 2022), which may affect the health of these organisms and consequently the entire marine food chain (Siddiqui et al., 2023; Tang et al., 2024).

Deep-sea species are thought to be less affected by MP contamination than those living in surface waters, primarily because most plastic polymers are buoyant and accumulate in the upper layers (Summers et al., 2023). Furthermore, although the deep sea is located farther away from major pollution sources, surface currents and wind-driven processes contribute to forming accumulation zones in the upper layers, which consequently allow pollution to sink and reach the deep sea (Eriksen & Lebreton, 2019).

Deep-sea organisms exhibit slower metabolic rates associated with low temperatures at these depths (Mcclain et al., 2020; Yagi et al., 2025). Pelagic shrimps also inhabit the oxygen minimum zone and display tonic immobility by adopting an inverted orientation (Burford et al., 2018). This low metabolism may limit their ability to detoxify and eliminate harmful substances efficiently (Yu et al., 2023; Xing et al., 2024); however, there is no evidence that this physiological trait contributes to the accumulation of MPs. For this reason, the impact on the deep sea becomes especially worrying because, although deeper waters are less accessible, recent studies indicate that MPs are being found up to 11,000 meters deep in areas

1 such as the Marceau, Mariana and New Britain Trench (Peng et al., 2018; Peng et al.,
2 2020). This waste affects fragile ecosystems that are difficult to recover, with MPs
3 being ingested by species adapted to extreme environments (Park et al., 2024). In
4 addition, the accumulation of toxic substances by the MPs leads to their release into
5 the animals' bodies, causing cumulative effects over time (Mohan & Raja, 2024),
6 which may result in altered feeding behavior and starvation, transparent carapace,
7 impaired digestion and excretion, and further inhibit growth (Leads et al., 2019). This
8 invisible and growing pollution has global implications, affecting biodiversity, ocean
9 health and food security since many marine animals contaminated with MPs end up
10 in human food (Mamun et al., 2023; Mercy & Alam, 2024).

11 Information on ingested plastics for deep-sea shrimps is still rather scarce
12 (Chen et al., 2024). Terrazas-López et al. (2024) explored the presence of MPs in the
13 marine food web in Latin America's surrounding Atlantic and Pacific Oceans,
14 highlighting their environmental and ecological impact. The study addresses the
15 distribution of MP at different trophic levels, from planktonic organisms to larger
16 species such as fish and seabirds. It is possible to notice that fish species are the
17 most investigated group, with 61% of the studies being directed at this group, while
18 shrimp account for less than 5%.

19 The number of studies specifically focusing on deep-sea shrimp is even more
20 limited, with no research available for Tropical Western Atlantic. However, several
21 studies involving other deep-sea groups have been published in this area, focusing
22 on cephalopods (Ferreira et al., 2022) and fishes (Ferreira et al., 2023; Justino et al.,
23 2023). In the Gulf of Mexico, Bos et al. (2023) found a higher contamination rate in
24 crustaceans (29%) compared to abundant fish groups, including the Myctophidae
25 and Sternoptychidae families. These families were also the focus of an investigation
26 conducted by Justino et al. (2022) along the Fernando de Noronha Ridge, SWTA,
27 where levels of 67% were observed. In comparison to the findings of the present
28 study, these levels were notably lower.

29 Various environmental and biological factors, including migration patterns,
30 feeding strategies, and ontogenetic stages, influence MP contamination in deep-sea
31 species (Bos et al., 2019; Ferreira et al., 2022; Scacco et al., 2022). Key
32 determinants include the concentration of MPs in the water column (Hall et al., 2015),
33 which significantly affects the likelihood of ingestion by marine organisms. A higher
34 concentration of MPs in the water increases the probability of deep-sea shrimp

1 encountering and ingesting these particles. Nevertheless, data on the MP abundance
2 in the deep layers of the study area are absent in the literature. Additionally, the size,
3 shape, and composition of MPs influence the ingestion process (Grey & Weinstein,
4 2017). Smaller particles are more readily ingested (Lehtiniemi et al., 2018), whereas
5 certain MP shapes, such as fibers, tend to have a longer residence time within
6 biological systems (Cunningham et al., 2020).

7 Furthermore, the Amazon River, recognized as the largest river system
8 globally, drains an extensive area of South America and discharges vast quantities of
9 fresh water into the Atlantic Ocean (Gallo & Vinzon, 2015). This characteristic
10 establishes the Amazon as a significant vector for the transport of MPs (Lebreton et
11 al., 2017), likely originating from the improper disposal of waste from urban, industrial,
12 and fishing activities (Boucher & Friot, 2017; Geyer et al., 2017; Xue et al., 2021)
13 along its course. Although this study focuses on mesopelagic shrimps, it is crucial to
14 acknowledge that the surface layers act as a substantial source of MPs, permeating
15 deeper ocean layers (Egger et al., 2020). Thus, the input of MPs from the Amazon
16 River, combined with the transported by long-range ocean currents, constitutes a
17 potential source of contamination for the organisms investigated herein.

18 Marine biota is particularly susceptible to ingesting MP fibers (Willis et al.,
19 2017; Rebelein et al., 2021). In addition to sewage discharge, fibers can also
20 originate from using, maintaining and discarding of fisheries gear (Xue et al., 2021).
21 The high number of MP fibers in the gastrointestinal tract of fish, shrimps and oysters
22 have been previously reported (Kibria, 2022); this result corroborates that found in
23 our study, with a high number of MP fibers being found in the four species of shrimp
24 analyzed, especially in the *N. gibbosus* species.

25 In conjunction with the ecological patterns of pelagic shrimp, these
26 environmental factors are likely to influence the contamination levels. Migration and
27 feeding behaviors of deep-sea organisms, particularly pelagic species, can
28 significantly influence their exposure to MPs (Ferreira et al., 2022; 2023; Justino et al.,
29 2022). The migratory patterns, which frequently involve vertical movements, can
30 expose them to regions with elevated plastic pollution, thereby increasing their risk of
31 contamination (Bos, 2019). However, although this has been observed in other
32 species groups, such as fish, studies show that shrimp species that do not migrate
33 have the highest levels of contamination (Bos et al., 2023). When comparing
34 migration strategies of the analyzed species, corroborating the literature, it was

1 observed that non-migrant species, such as *N. gibbosus*, had the highest MP
2 contamination (Bos et al., 2023).

3 Mesopelagic euphasiid species such as *T. cristata* show daily vertical
4 migration and omnivorous behavior with opportunistic capacities to live in favourable
5 water column layers (Couwelaar, 1994). Presenting a filter-hunting strategy, they
6 often feed on marine snow, which is primarily composed of particulate organic matter,
7 such as fecal pellets, phytoplankton, bacteria, and protists, which promote increased
8 sinking rates through aggregation (Porter et al., 2018). This process, influenced by
9 bottom currents, has been identified as the primary pathway for the eventual
10 deposition of MPs in the deep sea (Kane et al., 2020; Ding et al., 2022).

11 During feeding, pelagic organisms may inadvertently ingest MPs when
12 consuming prey that has accumulated plastic particles (Ryan et al., 2019; Justino et
13 al., 2023). This dynamic interaction between migration, feeding, and the distribution
14 of MPs can ultimately affect the extent of contamination and the health of these
15 species (Fan et al., 2023). The four species analyzed are predators, each employing
16 a distinct predation strategy (Couwelaar, 1994; Burukovskii and Falkenhaus, 2015;
17 Bauer et al., 2021; Lunina et al., 2021). Consequently, contamination was observed
18 in all species, with a likely source being their foraging activities (ROCH et al., 2020).
19 Predator species exhibit heightened vulnerability to MP contamination due to the
20 trophic transfer of MPs (JUSTINO et al., 2023).

21 The species that demonstrated the highest contamination was *N. gibbosus*.
22 This species has a high trophic level (Eduardo et al., 2023), and the result was
23 shown in its high contamination, with an average ingestion three times higher than
24 the others. *Notostomus gibbosus* is a non-migrant voracious predator with
25 specialized jaw feeding mainly on cnidarians (Lunina et al., 2021; Díaz-Peres et al.,
26 2024). Interestingly, they also feed on prey larger than themselves (Lunina et al.,
27 2021), but this was not evidenced in the size of MPs ingested. *Acantheephyra*
28 *pelagica* is also a non-migrant typical predator that actively hunts, captures, and
29 consumes small fish and crustaceans with specialized jaws (Burukovskii &
30 Falkenhaus, 2015). Sergestids are migrant predators, preying upon copepods,
31 euphasiids, small crustaceans and invertebrate larvae (Bauer et al., 2021).
32 Additionally, stomach content studies also regularly find fish remains (Bauer et al.,
33 2021).

34 Our study provides information on MP contamination in four species of deep-

1 sea shrimps off the Amazon River mouth for the first time. Microplastic contamination
2 was high (frequency of occurrence of 81%) for the four analyzed pelagic species,
3 which is higher than that found in studies using other pelagic shrimps (Carreras-
4 Colomet al., 2018; Bono et al., 2020; Saborowski et al., 2022; Chiacchio et al., 2025).
5 Overall, other deep-sea pelagic species are frequently reported to have a high
6 ingestion of MPs (e.g. 1% to 100%) (Carreras-Colom et al., 2018; Cau et al., 2019;
7 Justino et al., 2023; Ferreira et al., 2025). In our samples, the fibers were the
8 prevailing MP shape detected, as often reported in the literature (Carreras-Colom et
9 al., 2018; Jamal et al., 2025). Also, transparent fibers were the most abundant fibers
10 color observed, in agreement with the findings of the other crustacean studies (Yao
11 et al., 2021).

12 13 **3.7 Conclusion**

14 This study provides the first insights into microplastic (MP) contamination in
15 deep-sea shrimps from the Amazon Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ), demonstrating
16 high contamination rates and variability among species. The non-migratory species
17 *Notostomus gibbosus* showed significantly higher contamination, likely due to its
18 predatory habits and diet, which includes gelatinous organisms associated with high
19 MP levels. Fibers were the most abundant MP shape, consistent with findings in
20 similar studies. These results emphasize the urgent need for targeted research on
21 deep-sea ecosystems. Expanding sampling efforts and monitoring programs in the
22 Amazon basin and adjacent marine regions is critical to understanding the full impact
23 of MPs on biodiversity, ecosystem health, and food security.

4 CONSIDERAÇÕES FINAIS

Este trabalho fornece informações inéditas sobre a diversidade, padrões de migração vertical e contaminação por MPs dos camarões de mar profundo da região adjacente à pluma do Rio Amazonas, possibilitando uma melhor compreensão da composição e distribuição da comunidade. Dessa forma, contribui para os estudos desse grupo nas regiões norte e nordeste do Brasil. Além disso, apresenta resultados importantes sobre a presença de microplásticos em camarões pelágicos de mar profundo, correlacionando-os com seus padrões de migração na coluna d'água e estratégias de alimentação.

Foram identificadas 66 espécies distribuídas em 34 gêneros e 10 famílias, com destaque para a Acanthephyridae, a mais representativa em abundância e diversidade. A pesquisa evidencia padrões de migração vertical diária, com maior abundância durante a noite em águas mais superficiais e maior biomassa nas camadas mesopelágicas, também durante a noite. Esses resultados ressaltam o papel crucial dos camarões pelágicos na transferência de energia e nutrientes entre diferentes níveis da coluna d'água, contribuindo para o funcionamento dos ciclos biogeoquímicos e para a estruturação das cadeias tróficas em ecossistemas de mar profundo. Além disso, houve a observação inédita de formação de cardume por indivíduos do gênero *Challengerosergia* sp. e a ampliação da distribuição de várias espécies reforçam a importância ecológica dessa comunidade para a região.

Também foram evidenciados altos níveis de contaminação por MPs em quatro espécies de camarões de profundidade, com uma FO% ultrapassando 80% e a espécie *Notostomus gibbosus* apresentando as maiores taxas de contaminação. A predominância de fibras e partículas transparentes destaca a extensão da poluição marinha em regiões profundas, enquanto os padrões de migração vertical e as estratégias de alimentação específicas de algumas espécies sugere uma vulnerabilidade acentuada à ingestão de MPs. Esses resultados enfatizam a necessidade de monitoramento contínuo da poluição por plásticos e de estudos sobre seus impactos nos organismos mesopelágicos e nos ecossistemas marinhos como um todo.

Embora este trabalho tenha fornecido contribuições para o entendimento da fauna e ecologia dos crustáceos de mar profundo na região, ele também evidencia a necessidade de esforços amostrais contínuos e de projetos direcionados ao estudo

1 dessas comunidades com objetivo de preencher lacunas de conhecimento e
2 subsidiar ações de conservação em um dos ecossistemas mais ricos e vulneráveis
3 do planeta.

4

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