

1 **Influence of Oxygen Minimum Zone on Macrobenthic Community Structure in the**
2 **Northern Benguela Upwelling System: A Macro-Nematode Perspective**

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11 **Abstract**

12 Understanding the dynamics of marine ecosystems, particularly the benthic communities, is crucial
13 for predicting the impacts of climate change and human activities on oceanic biodiversity. In this
14 context, we conducted a study on the macrobenthic communities in the Benguela Upwelling
15 System (BUS). Macrobenthic samples were collected offshore Namibia on board *R/V Mirabilis*
16 during the 3rd RGNO training and the National Marine Information and Research Centre's
17 (NatMIRC's) plankton survey from 13th May to 17th May 2016. Two transects, Terrace Bay (20°
18 S) and Walvis Bay (23° S), hosted three stations each, while the third transect, Luderitz (26° S),
19 hosted only one station. From the results, three oxygen zones were identified, namely Microxic
20 (<0.1 ml l⁻¹), Dysoxic (0.1-1.0 ml l⁻¹), and Oxic (>1.0 ml l⁻¹). A total of 20 Macrobenthic taxa were
21 identified; Nematoda, Polychaeta, Cumacea, and Oligochaeta were the most dominant taxa and
22 were present in all oxygen zones. Eighteen genera of macro-nematoda were identified;
23 *Desmolaimus* and *Paracomesoma* dominated in all oxygen zones, *Metoncholaimus* recorded
24 higher abundance in the dysoxic stations, and were absent in the oxic stations, and the opposite
25 was observed for *Halanonchus* and *Dorylaimopsis*. H' Diversity values for both the general
26 macrofauna and macro-nematoda were higher in the oxic stations and lower in both the dysoxic
27 and microxic stations, while an opposite trend was observed for dominance values. Density values
28 were lower in microxic stations and higher in dysoxic stations, while at the oxic stations, the
29 density values fell in between the two hypoxic zones. In conclusion, this study provides an
30 overview on the distribution, diversity, and response to varying oxygen conditions of macrobenthic
31 communities and their importance in marine ecosystems.

- 32 **Keywords:** Macrofauna, Macro-Nematoda, Oxygen minimum zone, Benguela Upwelling System
- 33 (BUS), Dissolved oxygen, hypoxia

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35 **1.0 Introduction**

36 In recent decades, the concentration of dissolved oxygen (DO) in the ocean, specifically in the
37 tropics, has been decreasing. This not only increases the size of areas under hypoxia but also their
38 prevalence (Breitburg et al., 2018). Hypoxia is ranked among the major threats to the actualization
39 of the blue economy and the achievement of the 14th pillar of the Sustainable Development Goals
40 (SDGs), specifically target 14.7 which aims at increasing the economic benefits of marine resource
41 utilization through its sustainable use by developing countries (Rossi, 2023; Liu, 2023). Although
42 hypoxia can result from natural phenomena like upwelling and thermal stratification, the current
43 expansion of hypoxic areas is mainly a result of accelerated nutrient inputs in coastal areas which
44 increases algal production subsequently resulting in higher organic matter production which in
45 turn results in increased aerobic microbial decomposition lowering the levels of DO in the water
46 (Gobler & Baumann, 2016). It has been projected that such changes may affect different organisms
47 differently depending on their tolerance and reactions to lower dissolved oxygen in their habitats
48 (Rudolph et al., 2020). Studies on ecosystems with hypoxia as a natural phenomenon can assist in
49 predicting and understanding how human-induced hypoxia might affect and shape marine
50 ecosystems in the face of the expansion of marine areas under hypoxia.

51 The Benguela upwelling system (BUS) is located off the southwest coast of Africa. It extends from
52 Cape Frio in Angola to the southern tip of the continent in Cape Agulhas, South Africa, and is one
53 of the most productive regions of the world's ocean (Magalhães, 2018). The high productivity
54 provides a huge source of carbon resulting from photosynthesis, which gradually sinks through the

55 water column resulting in a rapid oxygen loss due to biochemical oxygen consumption. This
56 consequently causes low dissolved oxygen concentrations and thus creates a permanent extensive
57 shallow oxygen minimum zone (Bohata & Koppelman, 2013; Emeis et al., 2018). When the
58 oxygen minimum zone (OMZ) comes into contact with the seafloor, it creates a strong oxygen
59 gradient at the benthic zone at depths ranging between 50 meters and 300 meters, resulting in a
60 hypoxic ($<0.5 \text{ ml l}^{-1}$) inner shelf (Gibson & Atkinson, 2003). The oxygen gradient created at the
61 OMZ's benthic zone is believed to primarily regulate the benthic community distribution and
62 diversity patterns (Zettler et al., 2013; Teuber et al., 2013). In these zones, microbial communities
63 play a key role in the cycling of elements like carbon, nitrogen, and sulfur. The expansion of OMZs
64 may increase nitrate use by nematode-associated microbes such as SAR11, a significant player in
65 the marine nitrogen cycle. These nematodes and the communities they are part of influence
66 biogeochemical processes and ecosystem dynamics within OMZs. For this reason, understanding
67 these communities is crucial, especially with the ongoing expansion of OMZs due to climate
68 change.

69 The general trend observed in most OMZs in global oceans namely, Walvis Bay, Namibia (the
70 location of this study), California, USA, and Oman margin (off the Arabian Peninsula) indicates
71 that the densities of macrofauna (benthic organisms large enough to be seen with the naked eye
72 and are typically retained in a 0.5 mm sieve but pass through a 2.00 mm sieve (Bachelet, 1990)
73 generally display a negative response to reducing oxygen levels within the OMZ with a 30% to
74 70% reduction in densities in regions with less than 0.15 ml l^{-1} (Gibson & Atkinson, 2003).
75 Similarly, diversity reduces as oxygen levels reduce within the OMZ because of the loss of
76 intolerant species and increased dominance of the tolerant species (Currie et al., 2018; Levin et al,
77 2009). Nematodes and some families from the annelid worms have been observed to be able to

78 tolerate low oxygen, with Nematoda (in the meiofauna group) having 95-99% abundance. Some
79 polychaetes families like Spinoid, Dorvilleid, and Lumbrinerid can also tolerate low oxygen in the
80 OMZ by having a high gill surface area for increasing oxygen uptake. On the other hand,
81 harpacticoid copepods are the most sensitive taxon to hypoxia (Levin et al., 2009; Zeppilli et al.,
82 2015).

83 It has been observed that the macrofauna diversity is lowest off Walvis Bay, a city located on the
84 western coast of Namibia, attributed to the perennial intense OMZ over the shelf (Currie et al.,
85 2018). In contrast, the diversity increases significantly northwards off the Kunene River (Zettler
86 et al., 2013), which flows from the highlands of Angola, along the border with Namibia, and into
87 the Atlantic Ocean (See Figure 1). This increase in diversity is proposed to be a result of moving
88 away from the intense OMZ cells off Walvis Bay and also the reflection of the biogeography where
89 diversity increases with reducing latitude (Zettler et al.,2009). Outside the OMZ, bathymetry, and
90 latitude are said to be the factors affecting the infaunal communities at the Namibian shelf (Steffani
91 et al., 2015).

92 This study aims to identify the relationship between the levels of dissolved oxygen and the
93 macrobenthic community distribution across the Northern Benguela Upwelling system as a guide
94 on how the expansion of man-made hypoxia might influence the benthic fauna distribution on the
95 seafloor.

96 **2.0 Material and Methods**

97 **2.1 Study Area**

98 The study area was located across the Northern Benguela Upwelling System (between 26° S and
99 20° S) along the Namibian continental shelf, which hosts a deep continental shelf (around 300 m)

100 (Figure 1). The intense upwelling in the study site has rendered the area highly productive,
101 resulting in a characteristic shallow OMZ (50-200 m) with stronger productive cells around
102 Luderitz and Walvis Bay (Bohata & Koppelman, 2013). The inner shelf is described to be
103 extremely oxygen-depleted, caused by in situ organic matter decomposition and warm poleward
104 Angola current, which peaks in June-July while the continental slope below the OMZ is better
105 oxygenated (Levin et al., 2009; Emeis et al., 2004).

106 The benthic zone in the OMZ in Northern BUS is characterized by extensive areas of diatomaceous
107 mud, which are associated with high primary production at the ocean surface and low
108 concentration of dissolved oxygen (Levin et al., 2009; Steffani et al., 2015). These low oxygen
109 levels, as per the findings of Levin et al.(2009) were found to be less than 0.5 ml L⁻¹ in 55% of
110 the total shelf. Furthermore, extreme anoxia, defined as oxygen concentrations less than 1 µM,
111 was observed over an expansive area of almost 900 km².

112 **2.1 Sample Collection**

113 Samples were collected from three transects (off Luderitz (OL) 26° S, off Walvis Bay (OWB) 23°
114 S, and off Terrace Bay (OTB) 20° S) onboard *R/V Mirabilis* during the RGNO training National
115 Marine Information and Research Centre's (NatMIRC's) plankton survey from 13th May to 17th
116 May 2016. The sampling stations were located at 02 nm, 20 nm, 40 nm, or 70 nm at each transect,
117 with the 26° S transect hosting only one station at 90 nm (Figure 1). However, benthic samples
118 from these stations were dependent on the prevailing weather conditions and the ability to get good
119 core samples (Table 1).

120 Sampling was done using a multi-corer from which individual cores were taken and sub-sampled
121 for macrobenthos using a 6.4 cm diameter corer, and sediment samples for granulometry and

122 organic matter analysis were taken simultaneously. Replicate samples were taken from a
123 subsequent deployment of the multi-corer, where possible, to avoid pseudoreplication. The
124 macrofauna cored samples were put in sampling bottles and immediately fixed with 5% buffered
125 formalin, while samples for organic matter analysis were frozen to arrest microbial decomposition.
126 Depth and temperature measurements were collected from a probe attached to the multi-corer,
127 while dissolved oxygen concentrations in this study used the Winkler method from the overlying
128 water (Montgomery et al., 1964).

129 **2.3 Laboratory analysis**

130 In the laboratory, macrobenthic samples were sieved between 2.00 mm and 0.45 mm sieves.
131 Studies typically employ a sieve size of 0.5mm, our study however utilized a 0.45mm sieve due
132 to its availability during the course of our research. This size, although slightly smaller, falls within
133 the range of commonly used sieve sizes (300 to 500 microns). The use of a 0.45mm sieve is also
134 not unprecedented in macrofaunal studies; studies by Li et al. (2018) and Zhang et al. (2022) have
135 successfully employed this sieve size. Therefore, while acknowledging the slight deviation, results
136 remain valid and comparable to those obtained using the more common sieve sizes.

137 The sieve fraction retained in the 0.45 mm mesh sieve was then preserved in 5% buffered formalin
138 solution, with 3-5 drops of Rose Bengal solution added to aid in sorting. After rinsing the samples
139 with water, they were sorted under a dissecting microscope using the key provided by Thiel &
140 Higgins (1988) to the class or order levels and then counted. Subsequently, the nematodes were
141 pin-picked, fixed on permanent slides, and identified to the genus level using the key from Platt &
142 Warwick (1988). Feeding types were determined for these genera following the methodology
143 described by Wieser (1953), whereby nematodes are classified based on their buccal morphology,

144 including shape, size, and presence or absence of buccal armature, resulting in four groups. Those
145 lacking buccal armature are categorized as deposit feeders (group 1), further subdivided into
146 selective deposit feeders (1A) and non-selective deposit feeders (1B) based on the size of their
147 buccal cavity, with the former possessing a very small buccal cavity, and the latter having a larger
148 one (Moens and Vincx, 1997; Moens et al., 2013). Nematodes with buccal armature constitute
149 group 2 and can be Selective epigrowth feeders and herbivores (2A), using small teeth to graze
150 diatoms, microalgae, and bacteria, or carnivores and omnivores (2B), characterized by the
151 possession of teeth, mandibles, or onchia for piercing and consuming prey (Moens et al., 2013)

152 For sediment granulometry, samples were wet-sieved using a 1.00 mm sieve, 0.5 mm, 0.25 mm,
153 105 μ m, 0.063 mm, and those below 0.063 mm (<0.063 mm). The sediments collected at the
154 different sieves were then put on pre-weighed Petri dishes and dried in an oven at 60° C until a
155 constant weight was reached, and these dried weights were used for sediment granulometry
156 (Wentworth, 1922).

157 The samples for total organic matter (TOM) were dried in an oven at 60° C until a constant weight
158 was achieved, then a known weight of each sample was then placed in labeled aluminum foil, and
159 the loss of weight on ignition (LOI) technique was used to determine TOM from the study site
160 (Thiel & Higgins, 1988).

161 **2.4 Data analysis**

162 Out of the seven sampled stations, only three had replicates (Table 1), making direct statistical
163 comparisons between stations impossible. To overcome this limitation, the sampling stations were
164 grouped based on the measured environmental variable that provided the most significant
165 relationship identified through step-wise regression analysis with the various biotic indices

166 documented within the macrofauna community. The communities within these key 'habitat types'
167 were then compared using the indices and analyses outlined below;

168 Grouping Stations; Following the approach of (Levin, 2003), stations with DO levels less than 0.1
169 ml l⁻¹ were grouped as 'microxic,' those with DO levels between 0.1 and 1.0 ml l⁻¹ were grouped
170 as 'dysoxic' and those with DO levels of 1.0 ml l⁻¹ and above grouped as 'oxic'. This approach was
171 taken to investigate the role of DO levels in these communities. It was further justified by the
172 application of SPSS, which indicated that DO was a key determinant in macrobenthic community
173 structures ($R^2=0.521$, $P=.012$) (Table S1a; S1b(1); S1b(2)).

174 Abundance Analysis; The data recorded were analyzed for abundance (density and relative
175 abundance) in Excel. Additionally, the Paleontological Statistics Software package (PAST v2.17c)
176 (Hammer et al., 2001) was used to calculate the diversity and the diversity t-test between the
177 stations.

178 Community Similarity and Diversity; Bray Curtis similarity, Analysis of Similarity (ANOSIM),
179 and Similarity percentages (SIMPER) were conducted using Plymouth Routines in Multivariate
180 Ecological Research (PRIMER v5.2.9) (Clarke & Gorley, 2005).

181 **3.0 Results**

182 **3.1 Abiotic variables**

183 Total Organic Matter (%TOM) demonstrated an inverse relationship with depth, with higher
184 organic matter values recorded in the shallower stations. For example, the shallowest stations
185 20020, 20002, and 23002 had the highest TOM of $38.6\% \pm 2.16$, $27.5\% \pm 1.55$ and 23.1% ,
186 respectively whilst the lowest TOM values were found in most offshore stations, stations 23070

187 and 26090, with 9.89 ± 1.55 and 4.4, respectively (Table 1). The lowest oxygen values were
188 recorded on the OWB 23° S transect, with the two most onshore stations (23020 and 23002)
189 recording the lowest levels of oxygen (0.02 and 0.06 ml l^{-1} , respectively). The inshore station from
190 transect OCF 20° S (20002) had a higher DO (1.8 ml l^{-1}) than stations 20020 and 20040 from the
191 same transect, where the DO levels recorded were 0.67 and 0.53 ml l^{-1} , respectively, while the
192 offshore stations 23070 in transect OWB 23° S and 26090 in transect OL 26° S recorded the highest
193 dissolved oxygen (2.30 and 4.34 ml l^{-1} , respectively) (Table 1).

194 Fine sand was the most common sediment size ranging between 30-38.8% in all stations. Most
195 stations from the sites also recorded higher proportions of medium sand and silt, except for station
196 23020 in transect OWB 23° S, which recorded a lower proportion of silt and an increased
197 abundance of coarse sand compared to the other stations (Table 2).

198 **3.2 Macrobenthic assemblages**

199 Macrofaunal densities differed significantly across the various oxygen zones; In the microxic
200 stations, very low densities were observed ($4,661 \pm 4,834 \text{ ind. m}^{-2}$), and the lowest number of taxa
201 was recorded, with only six taxa present. These included Nematoda, Polychaeta, Oligochaeta, and
202 Cumacea, the only peracarid crustacean found across all oxygen zones. Despite the low number of
203 taxa ($S=6$), these stations recorded slightly higher diversity indices than the dysoxic stations, while
204 the dominance index was intermediate (0.5 ± 0.18) (Figure 5).

205 Dysoxic stations contrastingly recorded the highest densities ($74,108 \pm 134,126 \text{ ind. m}^{-2}$). One
206 station within this Oxygen range, station (20040), recorded an extremely high density of 274,991
207 ind. m^{-2} , primarily due to a high abundance of Nematoda and Oligochaeta. Although the taxa in
208 the dysoxic stations were similar to those of the microxic stations, the composition and dominance

209 differed significantly. The macro-nematoda was the most dominant taxa in this zone, with numbers
210 reaching as high as 233,354 ind. m⁻² in one of the stations. Interestingly, Bivalvia and Ostracoda,
211 absent in the microxic stations, were present here, albeit in low abundance (Figure 3). Dominance
212 was highest in these stations (0.6 ± 0.28) (Figure 5).

213 Oxic stations demonstrated the highest number of taxa (18) and the second-highest average density
214 ($14,345\pm 6,726$ ind. m⁻²) (Figure. 2). These stations recorded taxa like Echinodermata
215 (Ophiuroidea), Holothuroidea, Aeolosomatidea, Isopoda, Aplacophora, and Amphipoda, which all
216 had average abundances of more than 1%. Nemertina, Turbellaria, and Cnidaria were also recorded
217 in these stations; however, their abundances were below 1%, and they were grouped as ‘others’
218 (Figure 3). These stations recorded the highest H’ diversity (1.46 ± 0.4) and the lowest dominance
219 (0.31 ± 0.18) (Figure 5).

220 All the oxygen zones were dissimilar to one another based on multivariate community analysis
221 using Bray-Curtis analysis of dissimilarity. The highest dissimilarity was observed between the
222 dysoxic and microxic zones which were 77.99% dissimilar despite both stations being
223 characterized by low dissolved oxygen levels. The oxic stations were also highly dissimilar to the
224 microxic and dysoxic zones, with values of 68.58% and 65.91%, respectively (Figure 4).

225 **3.3 Macro-nematodes density and diversity**

226 On average, macro-nematodes were the most dominant taxon in this study as a result of their
227 dominance in the dysoxic station. Nematodes were abundant in all oxygen zones recording relative
228 abundances of 8%, 74%, and 24% in microxic, dysoxic, and oxic zones respectively (See Figure
229 3).

230 In our study, eighteen different genera of macro-nematodes were identified. Notably,
231 *Desmolaimus* and *Paracomesoma* were detected across all stations and were the only genera
232 present in microxic stations. These two, along with *Metoncholaimus*, exhibited their highest
233 abundance in dysoxic stations. Additionally, in these dysoxic environments,
234 *Paralongicyatholaimus* and *Neochromadora* recorded high abundances, each constituting (>4%)
235 of the total population (Figure 6), *Thalassolaimus*, *Paramesacanthion*, *Enoploides*, *Halanonchus*,
236 *Rhabdodemia*, and *Dorylaimopsis* recorded high abundances in oxic stations but were absent in
237 dysoxic stations except for *Thalassolaimus*. *Metoncholaimus* and *Paralongicyatholaimus*, were
238 present in dysoxic stations but absent in oxic stations, while *Paramesacanthion*, *Enoploides*, and
239 *Rhabdodemia* were present in the oxic station and absent in the dysoxic stations. For the
240 purposes of graphing the relative abundance, *Thoracostomopsis*, *Anticoma*, *Cephalanticoma*,
241 *Trileptium*, *Mesacanthoides*, *Terschellingia*, and *Marylinnia* were grouped as ‘others’ as they
242 recorded low abundances (<4%) and were absent in dysoxic stations except for *Marylinnia* and
243 *Terschellingia*, whereby, the former was absent in the oxic station while the latter was present in
244 both oxygen zones (See Figure 6).

245 The feeding guild composition exhibited variation across distinct oxygen zones within the study
246 site. Selective epigrowth feeders and herbivores, categorized as Type 2A, emerged as the
247 predominant nematodes within dysoxic zones, comprising 40% of the population. This was closely
248 followed by non-selective deposit feeders (Type 1B), contributing to 35% of nematodes within the
249 same zone. Carnivores and omnivores, classified as Type 2B, constituted 28% of the nematode
250 population, while selective deposit feeders and bacteriovores, categorized as Type 1A, accounted
251 for 10%. Conversely, in the oxic zone, non-selective deposit feeders (Type 1B) and selective
252 epigrowth feeders and herbivores (Type 2A) predominated, representing 35% and 32% of the

253 nematodes, respectively. Carnivores and omnivores (Type 2B) and selective deposit feeders (Type
254 1A) accounted for 18% and 15%, respectively (Figure 7). Within the feeding modes, selective
255 deposit feeders had the largest differences in composition between the two oxygen zones, with the
256 highest concentration observed in the oxic zones. While 2A and 2B had slightly higher values in
257 the dysoxic zone compared to the oxic zones.

258 The nematode diversity exhibited a pattern akin to the overall macrofaunal diversity, wherein one
259 of the microoxic stations (23002) was devoid of nematodes, while its counterpart station (23020)
260 harbored only two nematodes. Consequently, station 23002 was excluded from the diversity
261 analysis. Across the remaining oxygen ranges (dysoxic and oxic), a parallel trend was observed as
262 in the broader macrofaunal analysis within the study area. Specifically, oxic stations displayed
263 higher H' Diversity (1.38 ± 0.5) compared to dysoxic stations (0.81 ± 0.84). Conversely, dysoxic
264 stations exhibited greater dominance (0.59 ± 0.39) relative to oxic stations (0.32 ± 0.18) (Fig. 8).

265 **4.0 Discussion**

266 Upwelling systems are known for their high surface productivity and Oxygen Minimum Zones
267 (OMZ), which impinge on the benthic zone creating strong oxygen gradients on the seafloor and
268 acting as the dominant driver for benthos diversity in these zones (Zettler et al., 2013). Despite the
269 Benguela Upwelling System (BUS) being recognized as one of the major Eastern Boundary
270 Upwelling systems, there is limited information on the structure and composition of the benthic
271 communities. Information on macrofauna communities in the BUS will not only improve the
272 existing database on benthic fauna but also provide insight into how increasing hypoxic areas in
273 the ocean might structure benthic communities.

274 In this study, we adapted Levin's grouping system (Levin, 2003), classifying the different stations
275 into three zones based on the oxygen levels recorded (microxic zone ($<0.1 \text{ ml l}^{-1}$); dysoxic zone
276 ($0.1\text{-}1.0 \text{ ml l}^{-1}$); oxic zone ($>1.0 \text{ ml l}^{-1}$)), which was supported by step-wise regression. The
277 structure and composition of the macrofauna communities varied among the various oxygen zones.
278 Most macrofaunal studies identify Polychaeta as the most abundant macrofauna taxon in both oxic
279 and hypoxic areas (Eisenbarth & Zettler, 2016; Soto et al., 2017). However, in this study,
280 Polychaeta only had the highest relative abundance in the oxic zones. In the microxic zone, the
281 abundant taxon was Cumacea, followed by Polychaeta. It is essential to note that numerically
282 Polychaeta was the most abundant in this oxygen zone, but the presence of other taxa in these
283 stations reduced their relative abundance. . Here, relative abundance refers to the proportion of
284 polychaetes to the total number of organisms in the same area. Therefore, even though polychaetes
285 were numerically abundant, the diversity of other taxa present reduced their share of the total
286 population, hence the low relative abundance. The presence of cumaceans in high abundance in
287 the core OMZ (Area of lowest DO) has been reported by Zettler et al., (2013) and Eisenbarth &
288 Zettler (2016), who described them as possible opportunistic species colonizing permanent
289 hypoxic areas from adjacent areas, and thus their abundance may be season-specific. Currie et al.
290 (2018) attributed the presence of Cumacea and other macrofauna taxa in the BUS to the Sulfur-
291 oxidizing bacteria, possibly providing a detoxified condition in this area. In this case, the mobility
292 of the cumaceans gives them an advantage over other tolerant taxa like polychaetes and nematodes
293 at the core and hence their high relative abundances at the OMZs core.

294 Some polychaete families have physiological adaptations to tolerate the low oxygen quantities
295 found in OMZs (Hanz et al., 2019; Joydas & Damodaran, 2014; Levin et al., 2009). At the microxic
296 zone, polychaetes had the numerical abundance in the microxic stations despite cumaceans leading

297 in relative abundance. In station (23002), where Cumacea was located, only two taxa were present.
298 As a result, cumaceans accounted for 75% of the population despite having a density of only 932
299 individuals per square meter. In contrast, in Station (23020), Polychaeta had a numerical high of
300 4350 individuals per square meter, which is relatively higher than the number recorded by
301 cumaceans in the station (23002). However, the diversity of other taxa in this station was much
302 higher, and as a result, despite the high density, Polychaeta's proportion of the whole population
303 was reduced to 53%, hence the lower relative abundance.

304 In the dysoxic zone, the macro-nematoda was the most dominant taxa, out-competing the
305 polychaetes in all the dysoxic stations, recording more than 70% relative abundance. Oxygen can
306 cause shifts in community structure and trophic transfer (Neira et al., 2018), as evidenced in this
307 study. Nematoda as a taxon has not received significant attention in the macrofaunal size range in
308 most studies despite evidence of their presence therein (Joydas & Damodaran, 2014; Sharma et
309 al., 2011). An increase in the size of nematodes to macrobenthic class sizes has been reported in
310 chemosynthetic environments that experience similar characteristics as OMZs, i.e., low oxygen
311 and high sulfidic contents (Vanreusel et al., 2010). Apart from the increase in size, OMZs also
312 tend to enhance the regional dominance of tolerant organisms such as nematodes with high
313 biomass recorded in response to organic matter inputs. The high abundances are thought to reflect
314 the availability of organic matter, a significant nutrient source for macrofauna, coupled with a
315 reduction in predation by larger fauna that are affected adversely by the reduced oxygen
316 concentrations (Moens et al., 2013).

317 The high nematode abundance in partnership with Oligochaeta occurred in the dysoxic zone;
318 oxygen conditions were low enough to exclude some taxa but sufficient for tolerant species to
319 survive and reproduce. Such conditions are referred to as the 'edge effect,' and such high densities

320 are characteristics of the edge of the OMZs, where various species have been observed to have
321 abnormally high densities. The reasons for these high abundances are not well understood, but
322 Gutiérrez et al. (2008) alluded that the nematodes' population can multiply in low oxygen
323 conditions, which experience high loads of organic matter input. Despite their tolerance to anoxia,
324 nematodes cannot survive long-term exposure, as observed in the anoxic zone (Moens et al., 2013).
325 It is not clearly understood then whether the high abundance of the nematodes in one of the stations
326 is characteristic of the study site or just congregation to a food source. Thus, the patchiness and
327 high variability in the dysoxic zone call for more studies (Buhl-Mortensen et al., 2010).

328 At dysoxic sites (DO 0.1-1.0 ml l⁻¹), other taxa like Ostracoda and Bivalvia were observed, albeit
329 in low numbers. Despite ostracodes flourishing better in well-oxygenated marine areas, various
330 families (Platycopina) have been observed to tolerate and thrive in Oxygen Minimum Zones. At
331 oxic sites, where DO levels were above 1.0 ml l⁻¹, more taxa were recorded, and these numbers
332 increased even more when DO levels surpassed 2.0 ml l⁻¹.

333 Our findings were in line with the various studies in OMZs whereby a decrease in richness and
334 diversity of macrofaunal species is observed towards the core and vice versa (McClain &
335 Schlacher, 2015). In the core (microxic) area, the macrofauna taxa had the lowest density and
336 diversity. Each square meter of core area contained 1243 individuals, indicating low species
337 richness. A similar number was recorded by Zettler et al., (2009). In our study, we also observed
338 an increase in the number of taxa recorded in sites with DO levels above 1 ml l⁻¹. The high
339 dominance of the tolerant taxa, as evidenced in the microxic and dysoxic areas, was reduced. Taxa
340 such as Amphipoda, Isopoda, Echinodermata, Nemertina, Aeolosomatidae, Aplacophora,
341 Holothuroidea, and Cnidaria were only recorded in the oxic zones indicating low tolerance to low
342 oxygen levels. Of this fauna, crustaceans were the most abundant. This conforms to the

343 observations of Soto et al. (2017) at oxic sites in an upwelling system in Chile. Conversely, Zettler
344 et al. (2009) recorded amphipod species in low-oxygen areas. These contradictory results indicate
345 that at least amongst the Amphipoda, tolerance/intolerance to hypoxia is species-specific.

346 Macro-nematoda abundance varied across the OMZ, with very low abundance in the microxic
347 zones, extremely high numbers at the dysoxic zones, and a substantial amount at the oxic stations,
348 accounting for only 28% of the total abundance. Nematodes are considered one of the most tolerant
349 taxa in the marine environment, with the ability to tolerate low oxygen and high sulphidic
350 environments characteristic of OMZs and may reach very high abundances in these environments
351 (Neira et al., 2018; Gutierrez et al., 2008). This was the case at the dysoxic zone, where nematodes
352 recorded high abnormal densities in one station, indicating the high tolerance of these taxa and
353 their ability to dominate the macrofaunal component. Even with such high tolerance levels,
354 nematode abundance can be impacted by microxic conditions, as observed in the microxic areas
355 with a recording of only 621 nematodes m⁻² in this oxygen zone. This low value, however, may be
356 at the macrofauna level, and the case may be different at the meiofauna level, where nematodes
357 have recorded substantial densities in microxic environments (Neira et al., 2018; Steyaert et al.,
358 2007).

359 Despite their high abundance in OMZs, not all nematodes are tolerant to low oxygen levels (Moens
360 et al., 2013), as observed in this study. *Metoncholaimus*, *Paracomesoma*, and *Desmolaimus*
361 dominated the dysoxic zone; these three genera are members of Oncholaimidae, Comesomatidae,
362 and Linhomoeidae, respectively. Members of the family Oncholaimidae have large bodies that can
363 disperse rapidly and colonize carcasses of macrofauna and even fish that may have succumbed to
364 the low levels of oxygen found in the dysoxic zone (Moens et al., 2013). Nevertheless, their bodies
365 are large enough to fit within the macrofauna size range, while their ability to swim ensures they

366 actively locate their food source (Moens et al., 2013). Their high abundance in this study might
367 reflect a congregation upon a food source that had attracted nearby members in large numbers.
368 Their ability to colonize the 'food source' in such numbers in a dysoxic environment indicates their
369 tolerance to low oxygen levels.

370 On the other hand, Comesomatidae and Linhomoeidae members have been noted to have high
371 abundances in enriched sediments with low oxygen, indicating tolerance to anoxic conditions
372 (Steyaert et al., 2007). Their long and slender bodies might be the reason for their records at the
373 macrofauna level. Despite this generalization at the family level and the assumptions that members
374 of the same family may portray similar life strategies (Bongers et al., 1991), tolerance of nematodes
375 to hypoxia is species-specific (Moens et al., 2013) as Steyaert et al. (2007) observed members of
376 the same genera (*Sabatiera*) reacting differently to hypoxic and anoxic conditions. Thus, further
377 analysis should be done to identify the species that are tolerant to hypoxia at these OMZs at
378 macrofauna levels. Tolerance to hypoxia is indicated by both the presence and absence of taxa;
379 most genera present in the oxic zone were absent in the dysoxic area and may be seen as genera
380 intolerant to low oxygen levels.

381 Wieser's feeding types, as outlined in his study (Wieser, 1953), have long been used to assess the
382 trophic structure of nematode communities. This study had a high abundance of non-selective
383 feeders (1B) and selective epigrowth feeders and herbivores (2A), with the latter dominating the
384 dysoxic zone, while the former dominating the oxic zones.

385 Non-selective deposit feeders are commonly observed to dominate substrates characterized by
386 high levels of organic matter and smaller grain size, indicating their adaptation to environments
387 with elevated organic matter input, as observed in this study (Singh and Ingole, 2016; Heip et al.,

388 1985). In contrast to previous findings on meiofaunal nematodes from Oxygen Minimum Zones
389 (OMZs) (Singh & Ingole, 2016; Neira et al., 2013) and macro-nematodes in deep-sea habitats
390 (Sharma & Bluhm, 2011), which reported lower abundances of selective epigrowth feeders, our
391 study revealed a higher abundance of selective epigrowth feeders and herbivores. Within OMZs,
392 such as our study site, the presence of giant bacteria such as *Thioploca*, *Beggiatoa*, and
393 *Thiomargarita* forming extensive mats (Brüchert et al., 2009) may provide a substantial food
394 source for nematodes (Giere, 2008).

395 Adjacent to OMZs, the prevalence of diatomaceous mud and the settling of fresh phytodetritus
396 contribute significantly to the diet of epistratum feeders, leading to their high abundance in dysoxic
397 areas (Singh & Ingole, 2016; Sharma & Bluhm, 2011; Moens & Vincx, 1987; Heip et al., 1985).
398 However, in regions offshore from the OMZ, where the OMZ no longer interacts with the benthic
399 zone, reduced diatom production diminishes the abundance of epistratum feeders, resulting in the
400 dominance of non-selective deposit feeders.

401 While non-selective deposit feeders typically dominate muddy and silty environments, selective
402 deposit feeders and carnivores have been observed to exhibit lower abundances in these habitats
403 (Heip et al., 1985). Our study aligns with this trend; however, other investigations have reported
404 contradictory findings, with selective deposit feeders being identified among the most dominant
405 nematodes in similar environments (Neira et al., 2013; Singh & Ingole, 2016). Additionally,
406 carnivores and omnivores (2B) exhibited higher abundances in the dysoxic zone compared to the
407 oxic zone, with their overall abundance surpassing that of selective deposit feeders. These
408 observations suggest potential differences in nematode composition between the meiofaunal and
409 macrofaunal levels. Sharma and Bluhm (2011) observed that category 2B feeders were the second
410 most abundant feeding type in numerous stations within the Arctic deep-sea Canada Basin. They

411 attributed these findings to the omission of larger nematodes in previous studies, as carnivores and
412 omnivores are often large-bodied species.

413 **5.0 Conclusion**

414 In conclusion, this study provides insights into the intricate dynamics of macrofaunal communities
415 in Oxygen Minimum Zones (OMZs). By classifying stations into microxic, dysoxic, and oxic
416 zones based on oxygen levels, we observed variations in macrofaunal composition and abundance
417 across these zones. Contrary to typical findings, Polychaeta dominated only in oxic zones, while
418 Cumacea and Nematoda were prevalent in microxic and dysoxic zones, respectively. The presence
419 of tolerant taxa like nematodes and Oligochaeta in dysoxic zones suggests their ability to thrive
420 under low oxygen conditions. Conversely, taxa intolerant to low oxygen were absent in dysoxic
421 zones, highlighting the importance of oxygen levels in shaping macrofaunal communities.

422 Macro-nematodes in general were the most abundant taxon. The high nematode densities suggest
423 the ability of macro-nematodes to tolerate and thrive in low-oxygen environments. Our findings
424 highlight the importance of considering macro-nematodes in studies of OMZ ecosystems and
425 underscore the need for further research to elucidate their ecological roles and responses to
426 environmental changes. Understanding the dynamics of macro-nematode populations coupled
427 with their meiofaunal co in OMZs is crucial for comprehensively assessing the impacts of oxygen
428 depletion on benthic communities and ecosystem functioning.

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441 **6.0 Tables**

442 *Table 1: Station information and abiotic factors information recorded from the stations in the Northern*
 443 *Benguela Upwelling System. N.R stands for no replicate.*

| Transect | Station (Replicate) | Longitude | Latitude | Depth (m) | TOM(%) | DO (ml l ⁻¹) |
|----------------------------|---------------------|-----------|----------|-----------|------------|--------------------------|
| Off Terrace Bay (OTB-20°S) | 20002(2) | 12.99905 | -20 | 33 | 27.47±1.55 | 1.8 |
| | 20020(3) | 12.67858 | -20 | 125 | 38.64±2.16 | 0.67 |
| | 20040(N.R) | 11.79321 | -20 | 219 | 17.58 nr | 0.53 |
| Off Walvis Bay (OWB-23°S) | 23002(NR) | 14.3734 | -23 | 39 | 23.08 nr | 0.06 |
| | 23020(NR) | 14.06986 | -23 | 128 | 20.88 nr | 0.02 |
| | 23070(3) | 13.14 | -23 | 318 | 9.89±1.55 | 2.3 |
| Off Luderitz (OL 26°S) | 26090(NR) | 13.28 | -26 | 1282 | 4.4 nr | 4.34 |

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446 *Table 2: Sediment size distribution in the Northern Benguela Upwelling System*

| Transect | Station | Very Coarse Sand | Coarse Sand | Medium sand | fine sand | very fine sand | Silt |
|------------------------|---------|------------------|-------------|-------------|-----------|----------------|-------|
| Off Terrace Bay (20°S) | 20002 | 0.65 | 0.67 | 13.81 | 34.82 | 21.29 | 28.76 |
| | 20020 | 0.93 | 0.62 | 28.17 | 30.89 | 12.98 | 26.42 |
| | 20040 | 2.71 | 4.37 | 18.55 | 33.33 | 17.04 | 23.98 |
| Off Walvis Bay (23°S) | 23002 | 0.00 | 0.28 | 18.74 | 36.17 | 17.25 | 27.57 |
| | 23020 | 0.98 | 6.85 | 14.91 | 38.88 | 18.83 | 19.56 |
| | 23070 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 13.92 | 33.73 | 20.29 | 32.06 |
| Off Luderitz (26°S) | 26090 | 0.00 | 0.29 | 23.99 | 30.46 | 19.25 | 26.01 |

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7.0 Figures

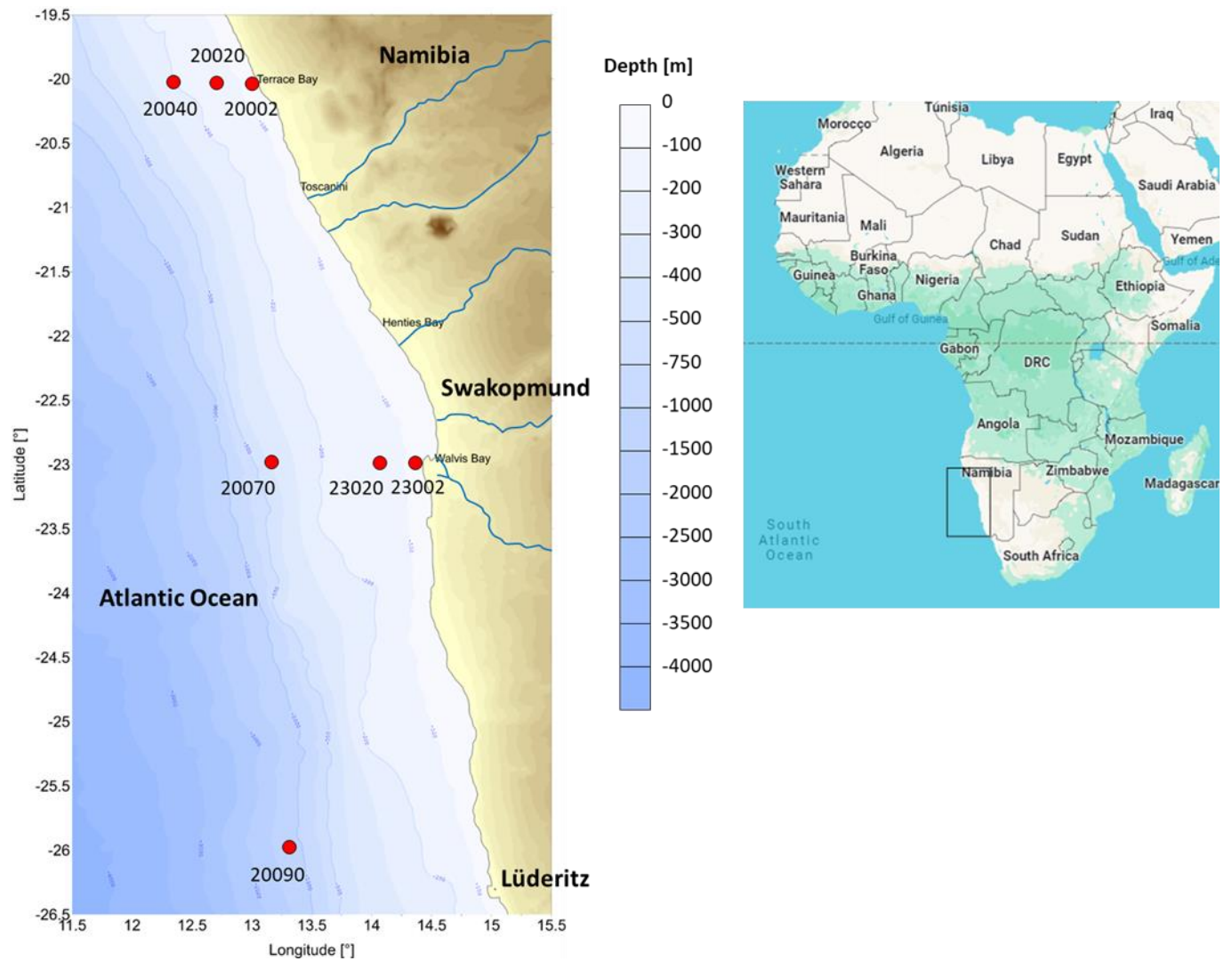


Figure 1: Sampling stations located across the Northern Benguela Upwelling System

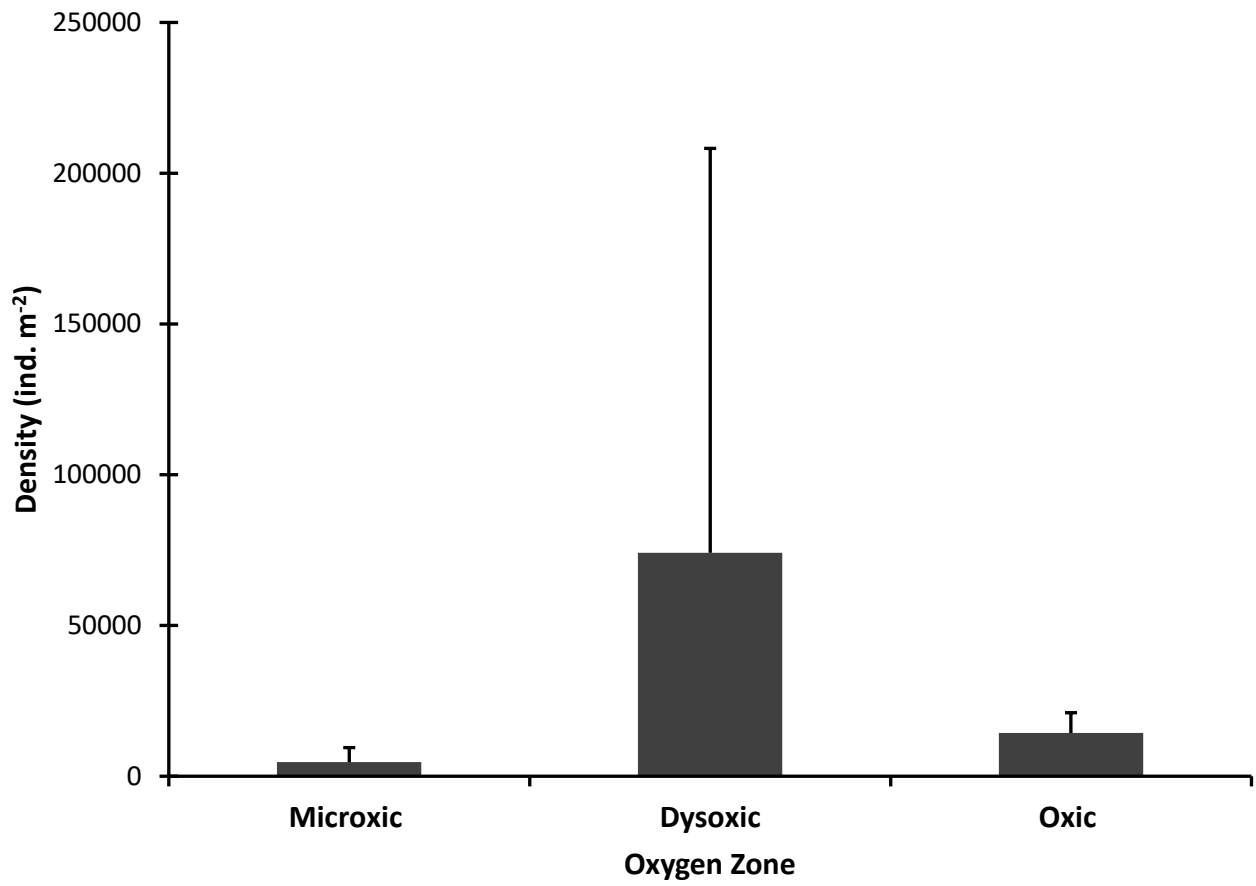


Figure 2: Macrobenthic densities in the different oxygen zones in the Northern Benguela Upwelling system

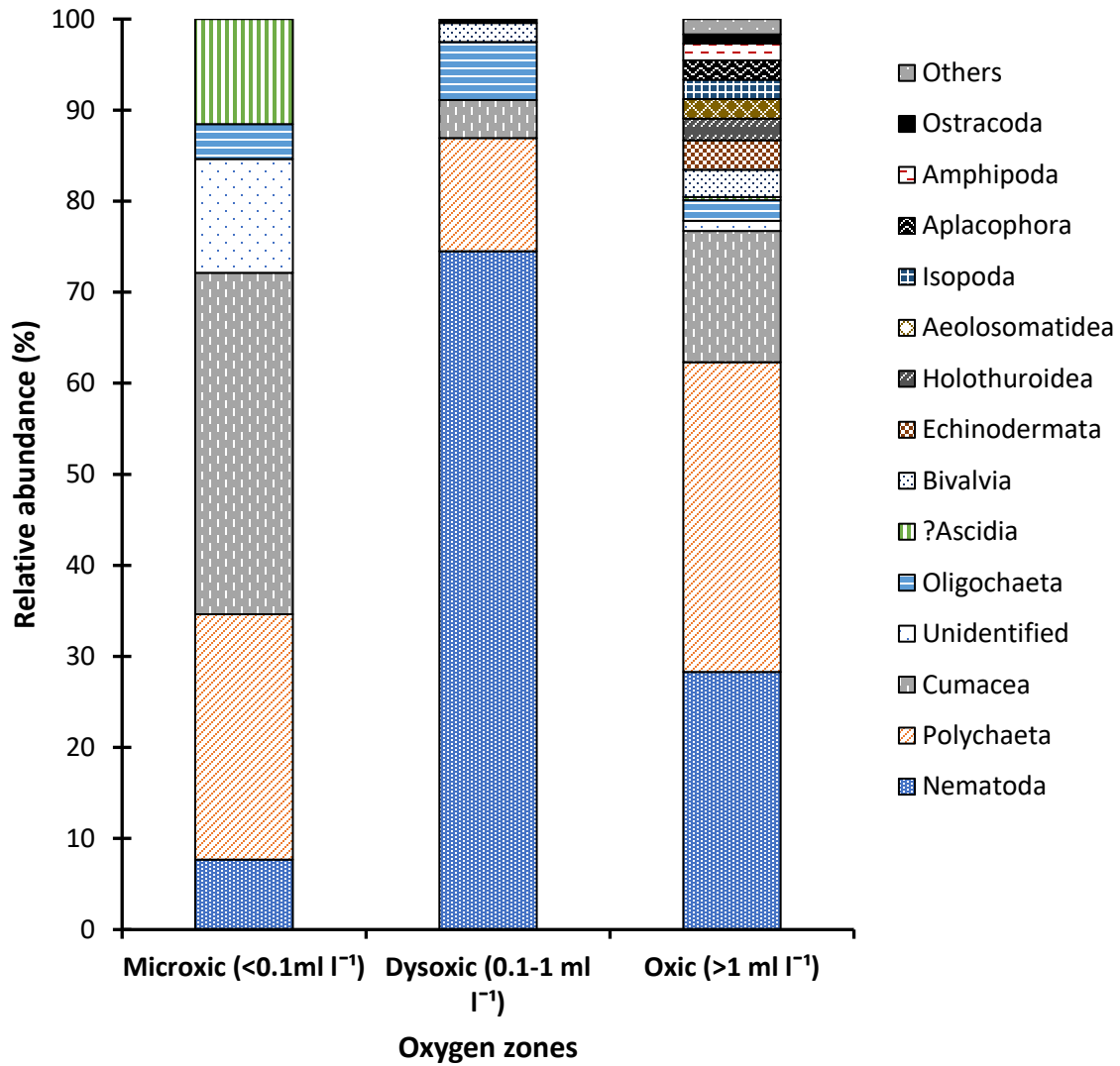


Figure 3: Macrofauna Relative abundance in the Northern Benguela Upwelling System, based on the oxygen zones identified.

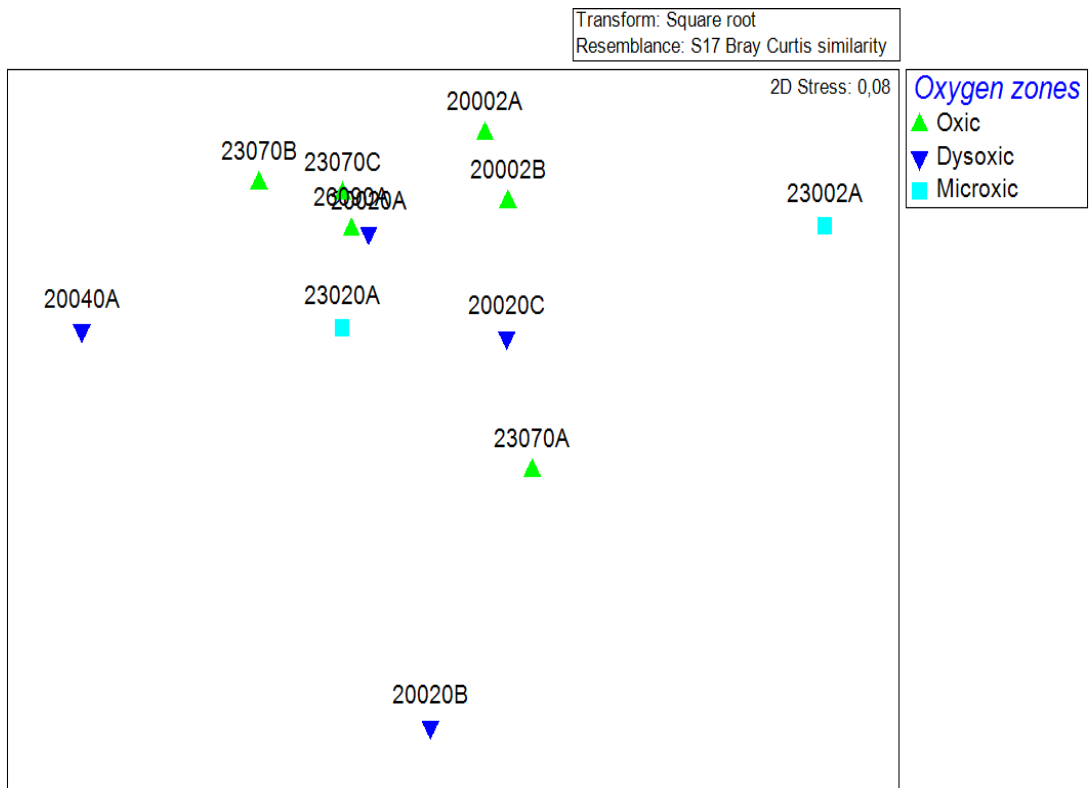


Figure 4: Non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS) plot based on Bray-Curtis Similarity index of macrobenthic fauna communities recorded in the Northern Benguela Upwelling System.

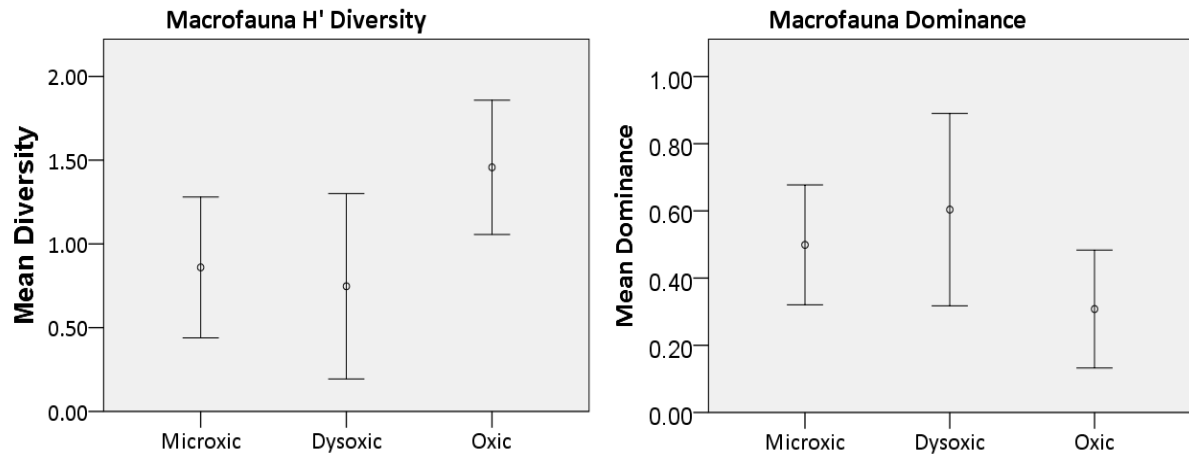


Figure 5: Macrofauna diversity indices recorded in the various oxygen zones in the Northern Benguela Upwelling system.

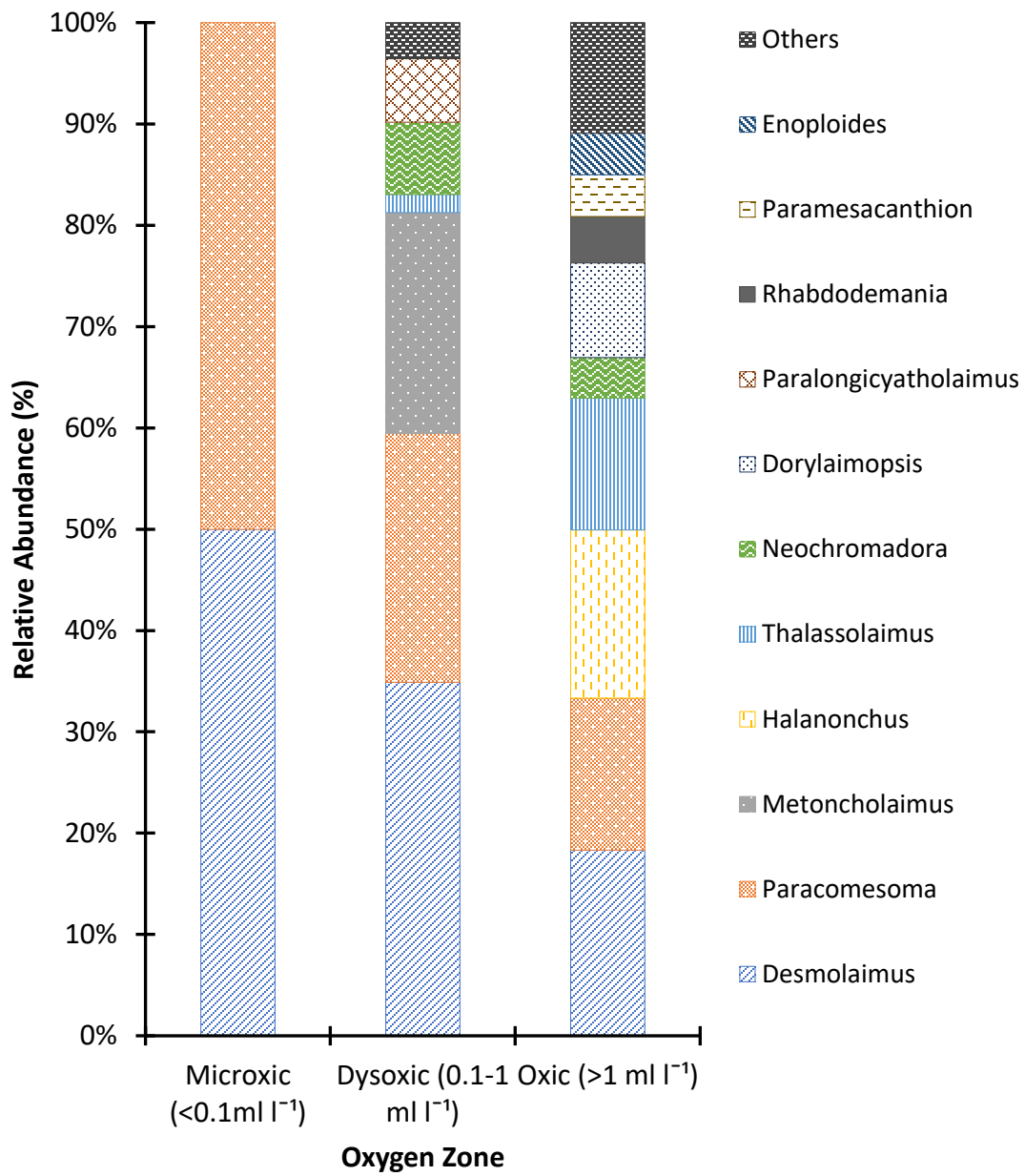


Figure 6: Macronematoda Relative abundance in the Northern Benguela Upwelling System, based on the oxygen zones identified.

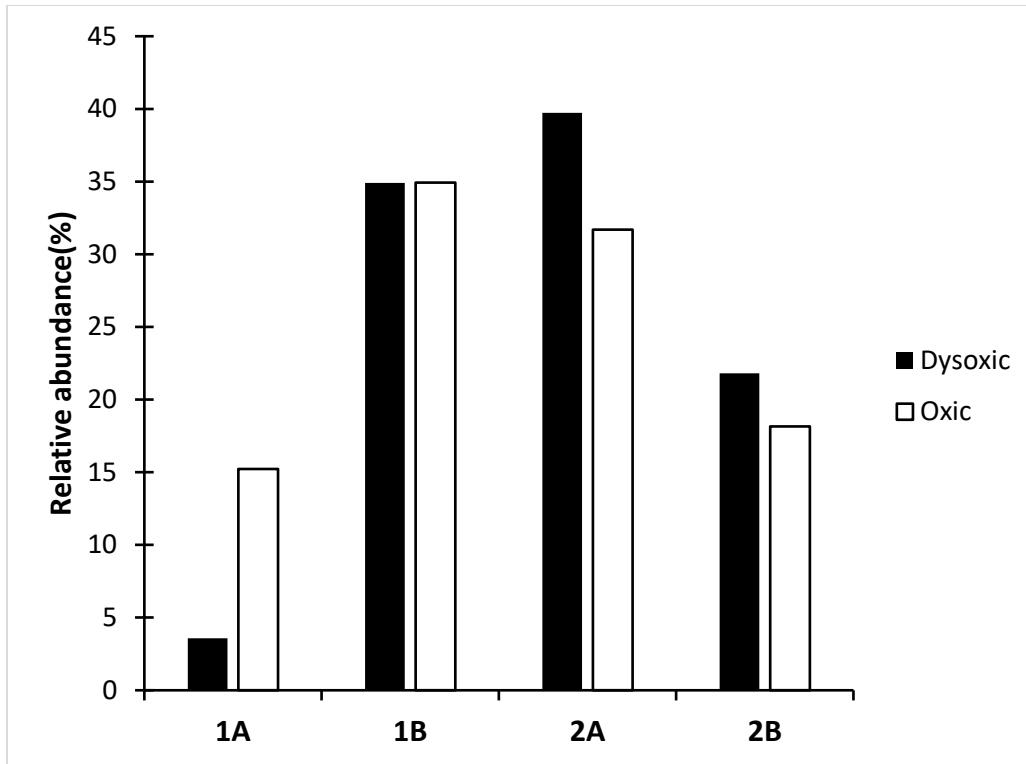


Figure 7: Feeding guilds based on Wieser of macro-Nematoda from the Northern Benguela Upwelling System. (1A= Selective deposit feeder, 1B- Non-Selective deposit feeder, 2A=Epigrowth feeders, 2B=Predators/Omnivores).

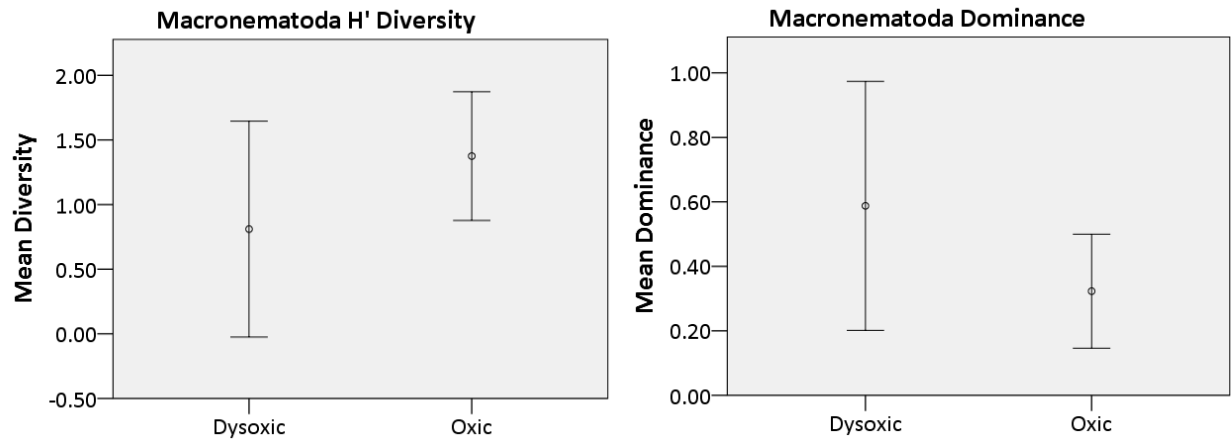


Figure 8: Macro-Nematoda diversity indices recorded in the various oxygen zones in the Northern Benguela Upwelling system.

8.0 Code/Data Availability

Currently, the data is not available but can be released upon request to the authors.

9.0 Author contribution

HS was responsible for the conceptualization of the study. HS and WB conducted the investigation, formal analysis, and drafting of the original draft. MA was responsible for supervision, review, and editing of the final draft.

10.0 Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

11.0 Special Issue Statement

Part of this manuscript was presented as a poster presentation during the 53rd International Colloquium on Ocean Dynamics: 3rd GO2NE Oxygen Conference held in Liege, 2022. As a result, the corresponding author was invited to submit a manuscript for the special issue "*Low-oxygen environments and deoxygenation in open and coastal marine waters*" as part of the journal *Biogeosciences*.

12.0 Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank the 3rd Regional Research Graduate Network in Oceanography (RGNO) organizers, all the sponsors (, and participants for technically and financially supporting the authors in the participation and subsequent sampling that resulted in the successful completion of this study. The assistance from the Namibian National Marine Information and Research Centre

(NatMIRC) was instrumental in successfully sampling, processing, and transporting samples. The crew of the sampling vessel R/V Mirabilis ensured a smooth sampling experience, and hence we take this opportunity to appreciate their services.

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