

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

3 Hashim Said Mohamed¹, Beth Wangui Waweru², Agnes Muthumbi³

4 ¹Tokyo University of Marine Science and Technology, 5-7, Konan-4, Minato, Tokyo

5 108-8477

6 ²Ghent University, Department Biotechnology, Proeftuinstraat 86, B-9000 Gent, Belgium

7 ³Nairobi University, School of Biological and Physical Sciences, Department of Biological
8 Sciences, PO Box 30197-30100, Nairobi, Kenya

9 Corresponding author: sayeed.said01@yahoo.com

10

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 of 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

34 **1.0 Introduction**

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

50 The Benguela upwelling system (BUS) is located off the southwest coast of Africa. It extends from
51 Cape Frio in Angola to the southern tip of the continent in Cape Agulhas, South Africa, and is one
52 of the most productive regions of the world's ocean (Magalhães, 2018). The high productivity
53 provides a huge source of carbon resulting from photosynthesis, which gradually sinks through the
54 water column resulting in a rapid oxygen loss due to biochemical oxygen consumption. This
55 consequently causes low dissolved oxygen concentrations and thus creates a permanent extensive

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

67 The general trend observed in most OMZs in global oceans namely, Walvis Bay, Namibia (the
68 location of this study), California, USA, and Oman margin (off the Arabian Peninsula) indicates
69 that the densities of macrofauna (benthic organisms that are typically retained in a 0.5 mm sieve
70 but pass through a 2.00 mm sieve (Bachelet, 1990)) generally display a negative response to
71 reducing oxygen levels within the OMZ with a 30% to 70% reduction in densities in regions with
72 less than 0.15 ml l^{-1} (Levin, 2003). Similarly, diversity reduces as oxygen levels reduce within the
73 OMZ because of the loss of intolerant species and increased dominance of the tolerant species
74 (Currie et al., 2018; Levin et al, 2009). Nematodes and some families from the annelid worms have
75 been observed to be able to tolerate low oxygen, with Nematoda (in the meiofauna group) having
76 95-99% abundance. Some polychaetes families like Spionidae, Dorvilleidae, and Lumbrineridae
77 can also tolerate low oxygen in the OMZ by having a high gill surface area for increasing oxygen

78 uptake. On the other hand, harpacticoid copepods are the most sensitive taxon to hypoxia (Levin
79 et al., 2009; Zeppilli et al., 2015).

80 It has been observed that the macrofauna diversity is lowest off Walvis Bay, a city located on the
81 western coast of Namibia, attributed to the perennial intense OMZ over the shelf (Currie et al.,
82 2018). In contrast, the diversity increases significantly northwards off the Kunene River (Zettler
83 et al., 2013), which flows from the highlands of Angola, along the border with Namibia, and into
84 the Atlantic Ocean (See Figure 1). This increase in diversity is proposed to be a result of moving
85 away from the intense OMZ cells off Walvis Bay and also the reflection of the biogeography where
86 diversity increases with lower latitude (Zettler et al., 2009). Outside the OMZ, bathymetry, and
87 latitude are said to be the factors affecting the infaunal communities at the Namibian shelf (Steffani
88 et al., 2015).

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

93 **2.0 Material and Methods**

94 **2.1 Study Area**

95 The study area was located across the Northern Benguela Upwelling System (between 26° S and
96 20° S) along the Namibian continental shelf, which hosts a deep continental shelf (around 300 m)
97 (Figure 1). The intense upwelling in the study site has rendered the area highly productive,
98 resulting in a characteristic shallow OMZ (50-200 m) with stronger productive cells around
99 Luderitz and Walvis Bay (Bohata and Koppelman, 2013). The inner shelf is described to be

100 extremely oxygen-depleted, caused by in situ organic matter decomposition and warm poleward
101 Angola current, which peaks in June-July while the continental slope below the OMZ is better
102 oxygenated (Levin et al., 2009; Emeis et al., 2004).

103 The benthic zone in the OMZ in Northern BUS is characterized by extensive areas of diatomaceous
104 mud, which are associated with high primary production at the ocean surface and low
105 concentration of dissolved oxygen (Levin et al., 2009; Steffani et al., 2015). These low oxygen
106 levels, as per the findings of Levin et al. (2009) were found to be less than 0.5 ml l^{-1} in 55% of the
107 total shelf. Furthermore, extreme anoxia, defined as oxygen concentrations less than 0.02 ml l^{-1} ,
108 was observed over an expansive area of almost 900 km^2 .

109 **2.2 Sample Collection**

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

117 Sampling was done using a multi-corer from which individual cores were taken and sub-sampled
118 for macrobenthos using a 6.4 cm diameter corer, and sediment samples for granulometry and
119 organic matter analysis were taken simultaneously. Replicate samples were taken from a
120 subsequent deployment of the multi-corer, where possible, to avoid pseudoreplication. The

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

126 **2.3 Laboratory analysis**

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

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

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

150 For sediment granulometry, samples were wet-sieved using a 1.00 mm sieve, 0.5 mm, 0.25 mm,
151 105 μm , 0.063 mm, and those below 0.063 mm ($<0.063 \text{ mm}$). The sediments collected at the
152 different sieves were then put on pre-weighed Petri dishes and dried in an oven at 60 °C until a
153 constant weight was reached, and these dried weights were used for sediment granulometry
154 (Wentworth, 1922).

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

159 **2.4 Data analysis**

160 Out of the seven sampled stations, only three had replicates (Table 1), making direct statistical
161 comparisons between stations impossible. To overcome this limitation, the sampling stations were
162 grouped based on the measured environmental variable that provided the most significant
163 relationship identified through step-wise regression analysis with the various biotic indices
164 documented within the macrofauna community (See supplementary material (Tables S1-S4)). The

165 communities within these key 'habitat types' were then compared using the indices and analyses
166 outlined below;

167 Grouping Stations; Following the approach of (Levin, 2003), stations with DO levels less than 0.1
168 ml l⁻¹ were grouped as 'microxic,' those with DO levels between 0.1 and 1.0 ml l⁻¹ were grouped
169 as 'dysoxic' and those with DO levels of 1.0 ml l⁻¹ and above grouped as 'oxic'. This approach was
170 taken to investigate the role of DO levels in these communities. It was further justified by the
171 application of step-wise regression using SPSS, which indicated that DO was a key determinant in
172 macrobenthic community structures ($R^2=0.521$, $P=.012$) (Table S2(a); S2(b)).

173 Abundance Analysis; The data recorded were analyzed for abundance (density and relative
174 abundance) in Excel. Additionally, the Paleontological Statistics Software package (PAST v2.17c)
175 (Hammer et al., 2001) was used to calculate the diversity and the diversity t-test between the
176 stations. For this study, H' diversity is calculated using the natural log (log_e) while dominance was
177 the complement of the Simpson Index (1-Simpson index).

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 and 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%±2.16, 27.5%±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 OTB 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 abundance
197 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 (ANOVA; $P < 0.05$).
200 In the microxic stations, very low densities were observed ($4,661 \pm 4,834 \text{ ind. m}^{-2}$) (Figure 2), and
201 the lowest number of taxa was recorded, with only six taxa present. These included Nematoda,
202 Polychaeta, Oligochaeta, and Cumacea, the only peracarid crustacean found across all oxygen
203 zones (Figure 3). Despite the low number of taxa ($S=6$), these stations recorded slightly higher H'
204 diversity than the dysoxic stations, while the dominance index was intermediate (0.5 ± 0.18) (Figure
205 5).

206 Dysoxic stations in contrast recorded the highest densities ($74,108 \pm 134,126 \text{ ind. m}^{-2}$) (Figure 2).
207 One station within this Oxygen range, station (20040), recorded an extremely high density of

208 274,991 ind. m⁻², primarily due to a high abundance of Nematoda and Oligochaeta (Figure 3).
209 Although the taxa in the dysoxic stations were similar to those of the microxic stations, the
210 composition and dominance differed significantly. The macro-nematoda was the most dominant
211 taxon in this zone, with numbers reaching as high as 233,354 ind. m⁻² in one of the stations.
212 Interestingly, Bivalvia and Ostracoda, absent in the microxic stations, were present here, albeit in
213 low abundance (Figure 3). Dominance was highest in these stations (0.6±0.28) (Figure 5).

214 Oxic stations demonstrated the highest number of taxa (18) and the second-highest average density
215 (14,345±6,726 ind. m⁻²) (Figure. 2). These stations recorded taxa like Echinodermata
216 (Ophiuroidea), Holothuroidea, Aeolosomatidea, Isopoda, Aplacophora, and Amphipoda, which all
217 had average abundances of more than 1%. Nemertina, Turbellaria, and Cnidaria were also recorded
218 in these stations; however, their abundances were below 1%, and they were grouped as ‘others’
219 (Figure 3). These stations recorded the highest H' diversity (1.46±0.4) and the lowest dominance
220 (0.31±0.18) (Figure 5).

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

226 **3.3 Macro-nematodes density and diversity**

227 On average, macro-nematodes were the most dominant taxon in this study as a result of their
228 dominance in the dysoxic station. Nematodes were abundant in all oxygen zones recording relative

229 abundances of 8%, 74%, and 24% in microxic, dysoxic, and oxic zones respectively (See Figure
230 3).

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

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

252 for 10%. Conversely, in the oxic zone, non-selective deposit feeders (Type 1B) and selective
253 epigrowth feeders and herbivores (Type 2A) predominated, representing 35% and 32% of the
254 nematodes, respectively. Carnivores and omnivores (Type 2B) and selective deposit feeders (Type
255 1A) accounted for 18% and 15%, respectively (Figure 7). Within the feeding modes, selective
256 deposit feeders had the largest differences in composition between the two oxygen zones, with the
257 highest concentration observed in the oxic zones. While 2A and 2B had slightly higher values in
258 the dysoxic zone compared to the oxic zones.

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

266 **4.0 Discussion**

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

273 existing database on benthic fauna but also provide insight into how increasing hypoxic areas in
274 the ocean might structure benthic communities.

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

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

296 cumaceans leading in relative abundance. In station 23002, where Cumacea was located, only two
297 taxa were present. As a result, cumaceans accounted for 75% of the population despite having a
298 density of only 932 ind. m⁻². In contrast, Polychaeta in Station 23020 had a numerical high of
299 4350 ind. m⁻², which is relatively higher than the number recorded by cumaceans in Station 23002.
300 However, the diversity of other taxa in this station was much higher, and as a result, despite the
301 high density, Polychaeta's proportion of the whole population was reduced to 53%, hence the
302 lower relative abundance.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

380 Wieser's feeding types, as outlined in his study (Wieser, 1953), have long been used to assess the
381 trophic structure of nematode communities. This study had a high abundance of non-selective
382 feeders (1B) and selective epigrowth feeders and herbivores (2A), with the latter dominating the
383 dysoxic zone, while the former dominating the oxic zones. Non-selective deposit feeders are
384 commonly observed to dominate substrates characterized by high levels of organic matter and
385 smaller grain size, indicating their adaptation to environments with elevated organic matter input,
386 as observed in this study (Singh and Ingole, 2016; Heip et al., 1985). In contrast to previous
387 findings on meiofaunal nematodes from Oxygen Minimum Zones (OMZs) (Singh and Ingole,

388 2016; Neira et al., 2013) and macro-nematodes in deep-sea habitats (Sharma and Bluhm, 2011),
389 which reported lower abundances of selective epigrowth feeders, our study revealed a higher
390 abundance of selective epigrowth feeders and herbivores (2A). Within OMZs, such as our study
391 site, the presence of giant bacteria such as *Thioploca*, *Beggiatoa*, and *Thiomargarita* forming
392 extensive mats (Brüchert et al., 2009) may provide a substantial food source for nematodes (Giere,
393 2008).

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

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

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

412 **5.0 Conclusion**

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

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

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

436

437 **6.0 Tables**

438 Table 1: Station information and abiotic factors information recorded from the stations in the Northern
 439 Benguela Upwelling System. NR stands for no replicate.

Transect	Station (No. 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

440

441

442 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

443

7.0 Figures

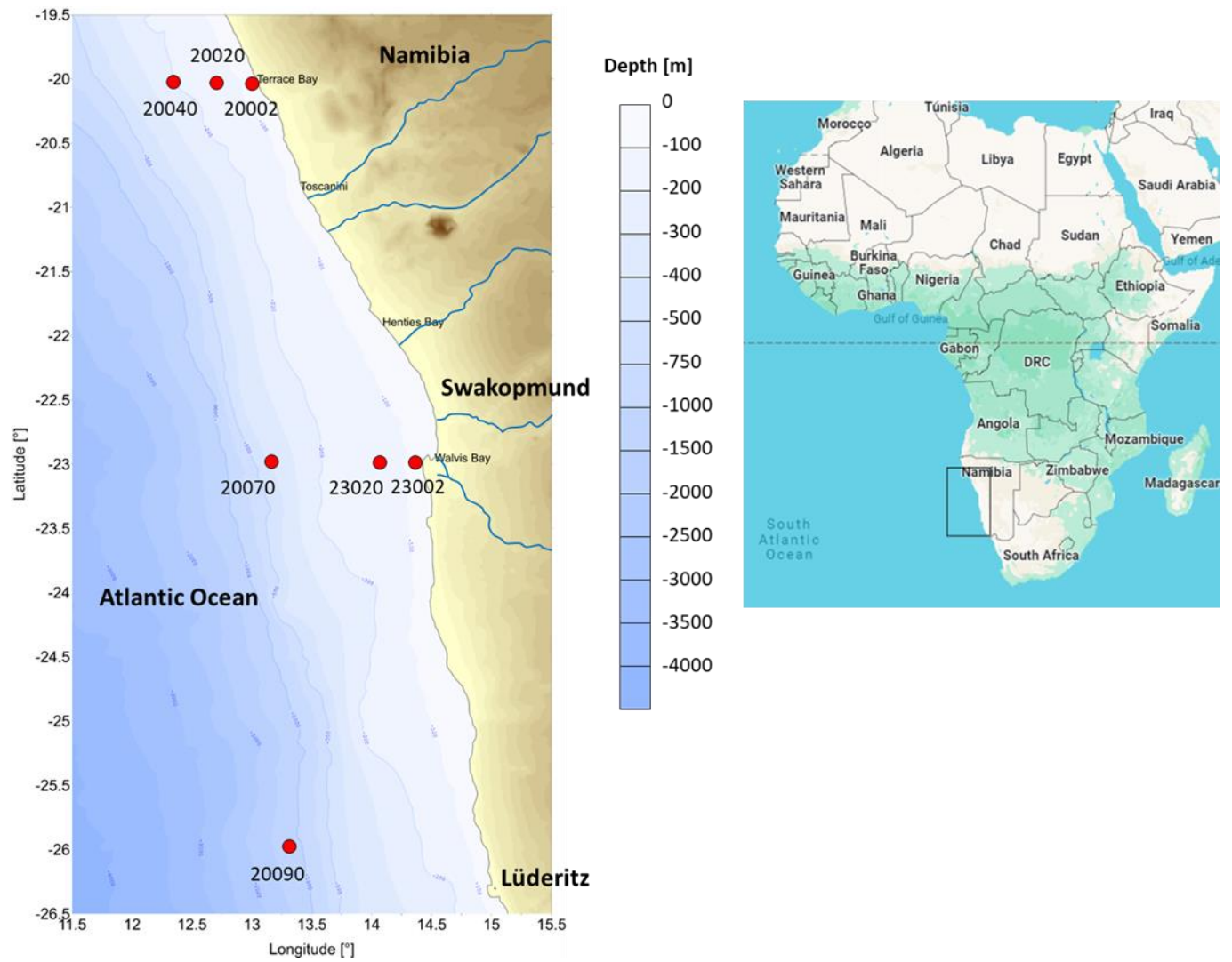


Figure 1: Sampling stations located across the Northern Benguela Upwelling System

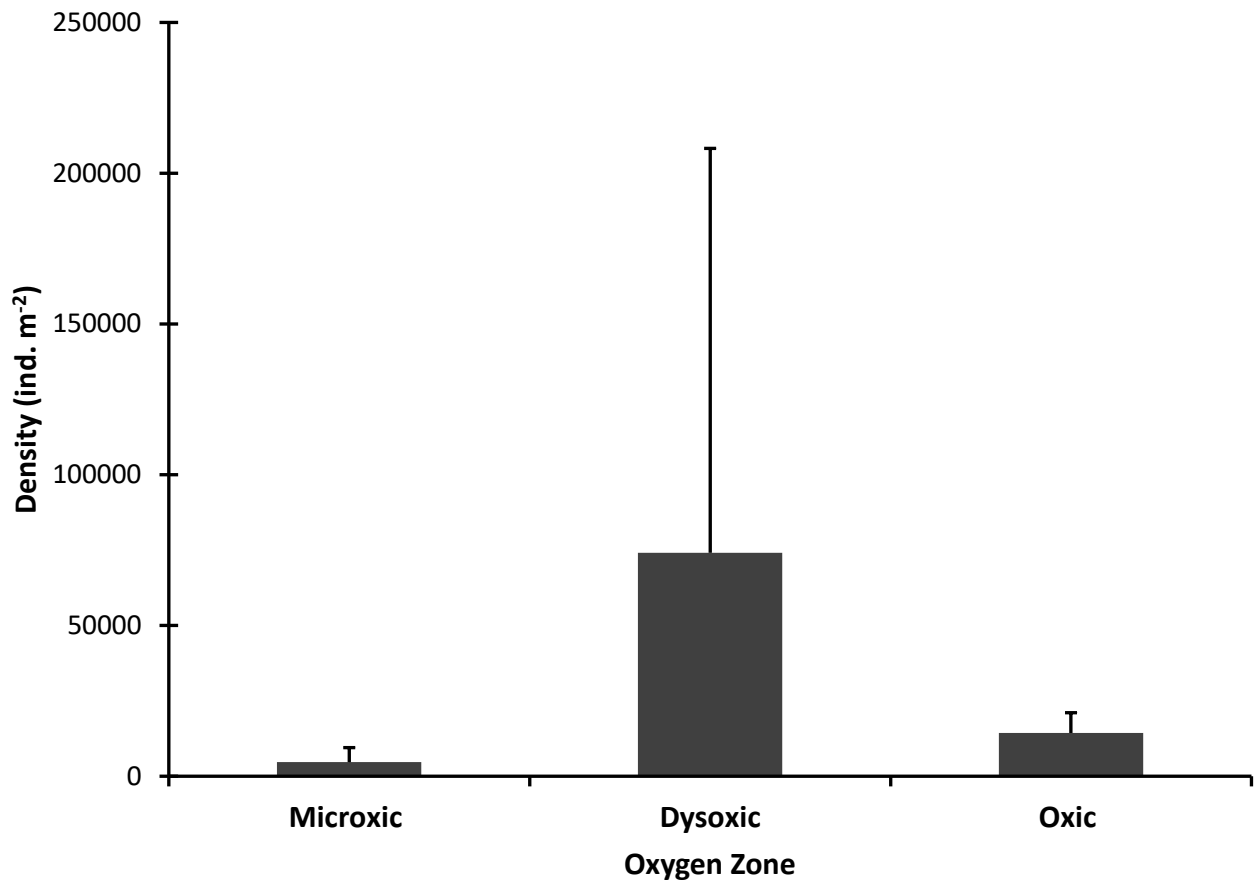


Figure 2: Macrobenthic densities in the different oxygen zones in the Northern Benguela Upwelling system. Error bars represent standard deviation (+1 SD).

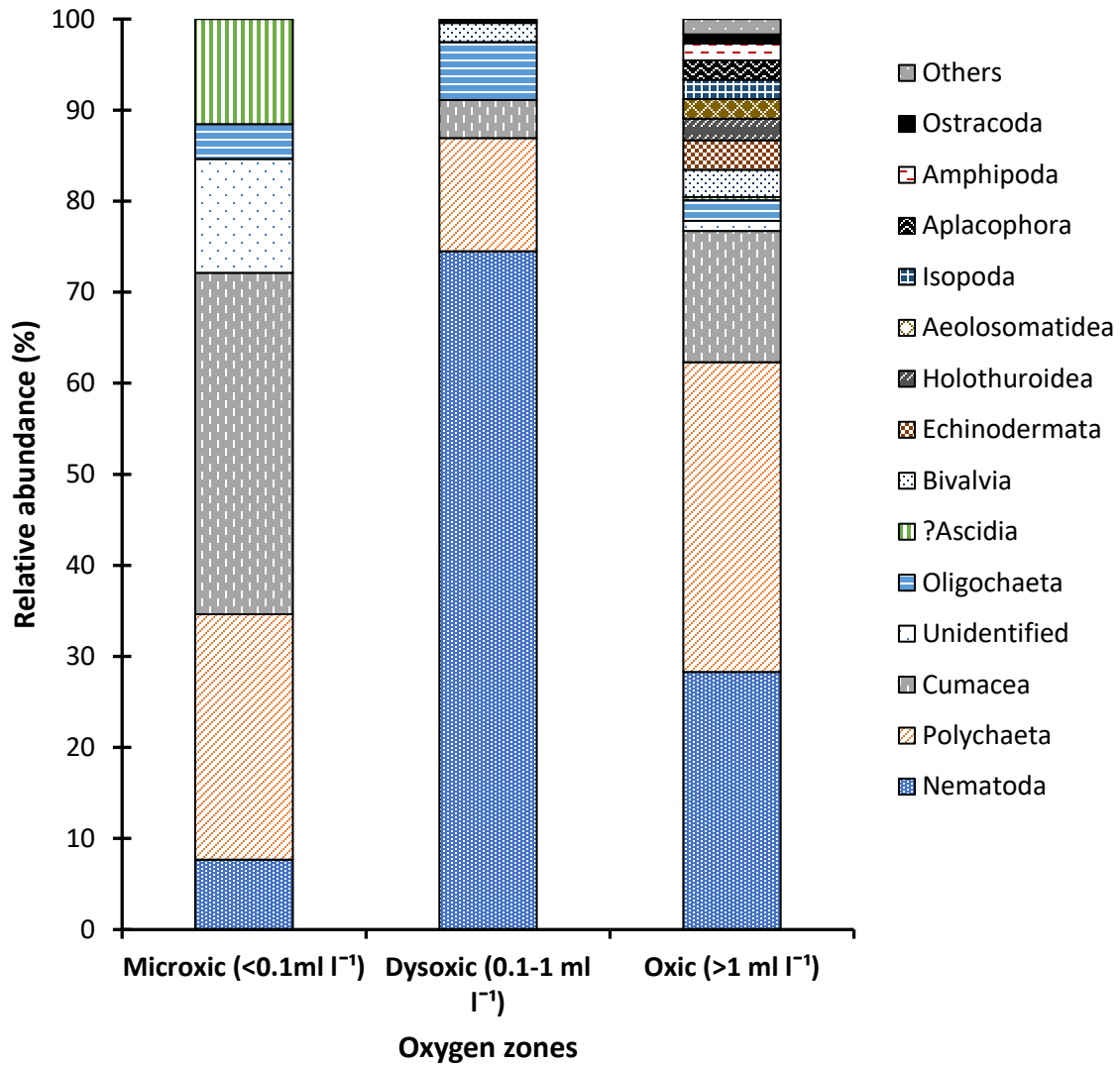


Figure 3: Macrofauna relative abundance in the Northern Benguela Upwelling System, based on the oxygen zones identified.

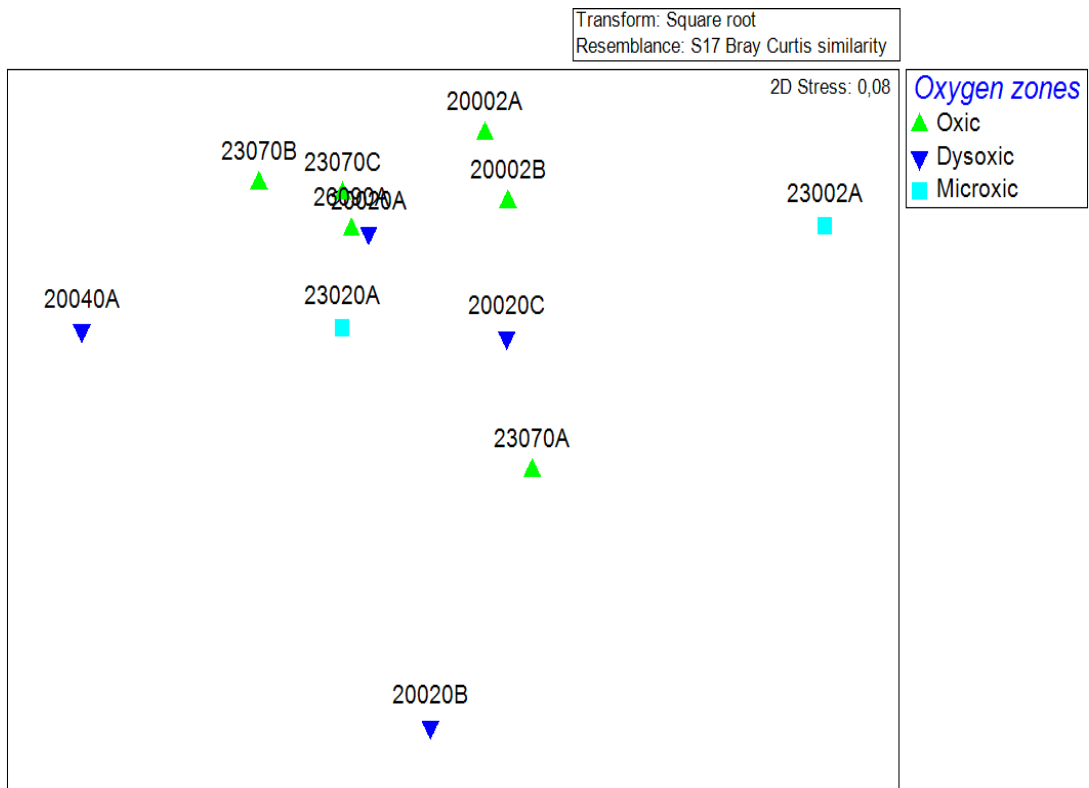


Figure 4: Non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS) plot based on Bray-Curtis Similarity index of macrobenthic fauna communities recorded in the Northern Benguela Upwelling System.

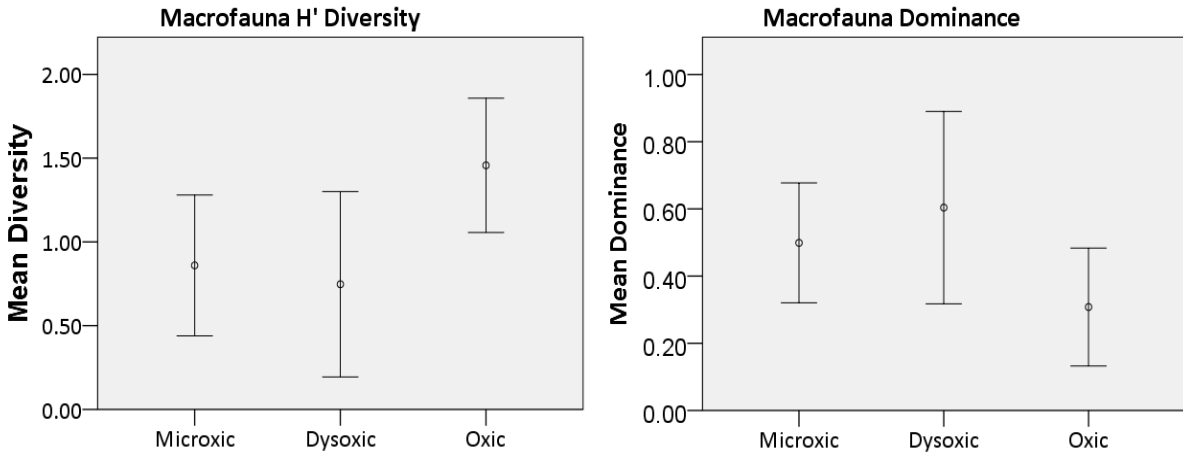


Figure 5: Macrofauna diversity indices recorded in the various oxygen zones in the Northern Benguela Upwelling system. H' diversity, calculated using the natural logarithm (\log_e), while dominance, represented the complement of the Simpson Index ($1 - \text{Simpson index}$). Error bars represent standard deviation ($\pm 1 \text{ SD}$).

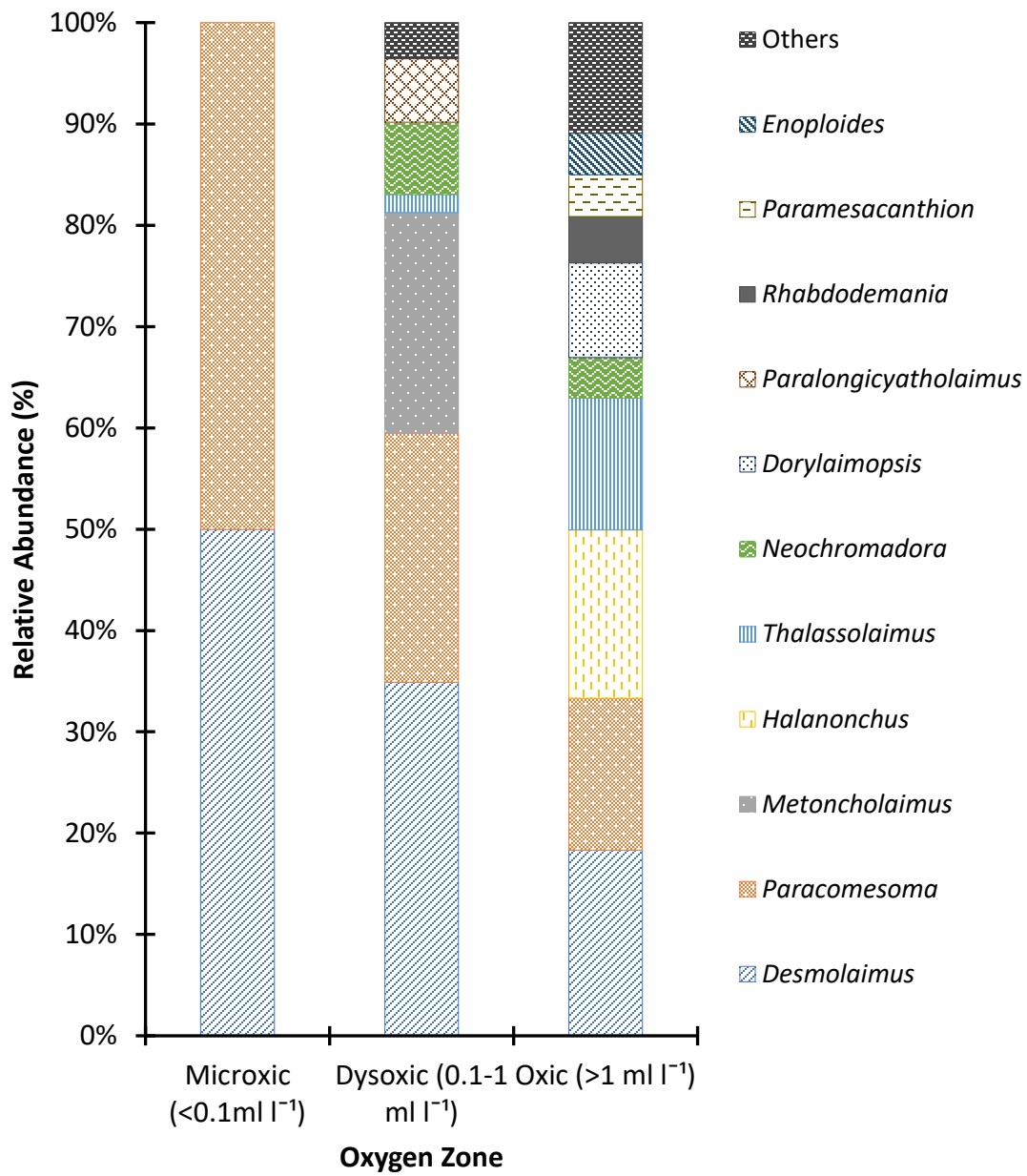


Figure 6: Macroneumatoda relative abundance in the Northern Benguela Upwelling System, based on the oxygen zones identified.

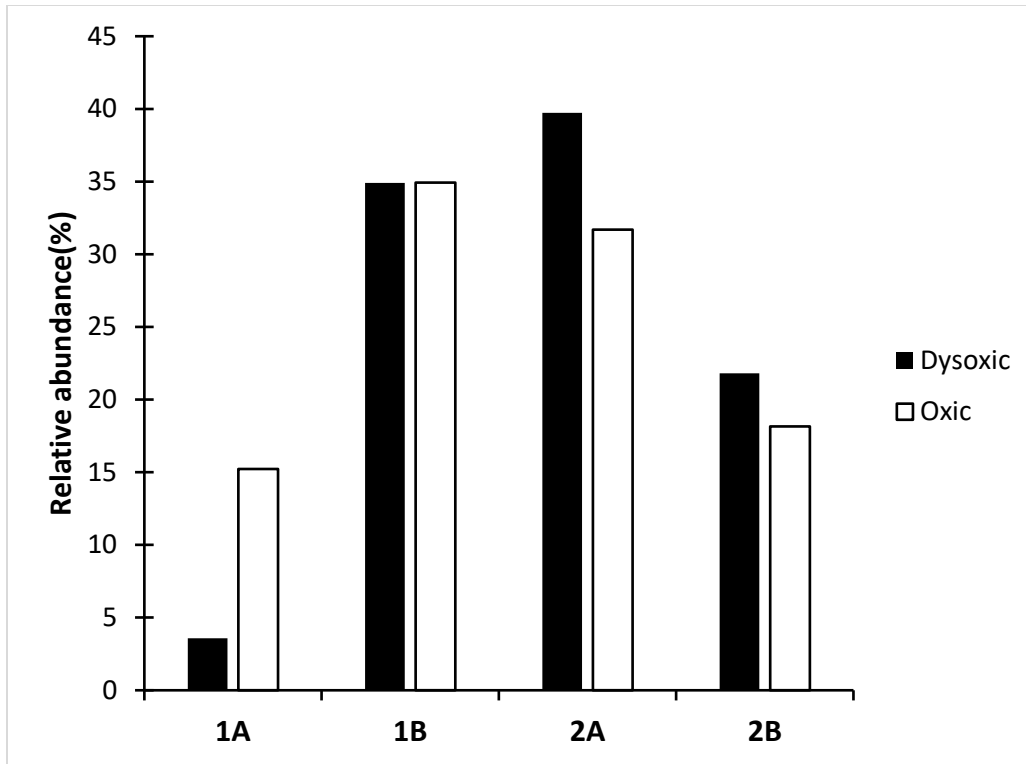


Figure 7: Feeding guilds based on Wieser (1953) of macro-Nematoda from the Northern Benguela Upwelling System. (1A= Selective deposit feeder, 1B- Non-Selective deposit feeder, 2A=Epigrwoth feeders, 2B=Predators/Omnivores).

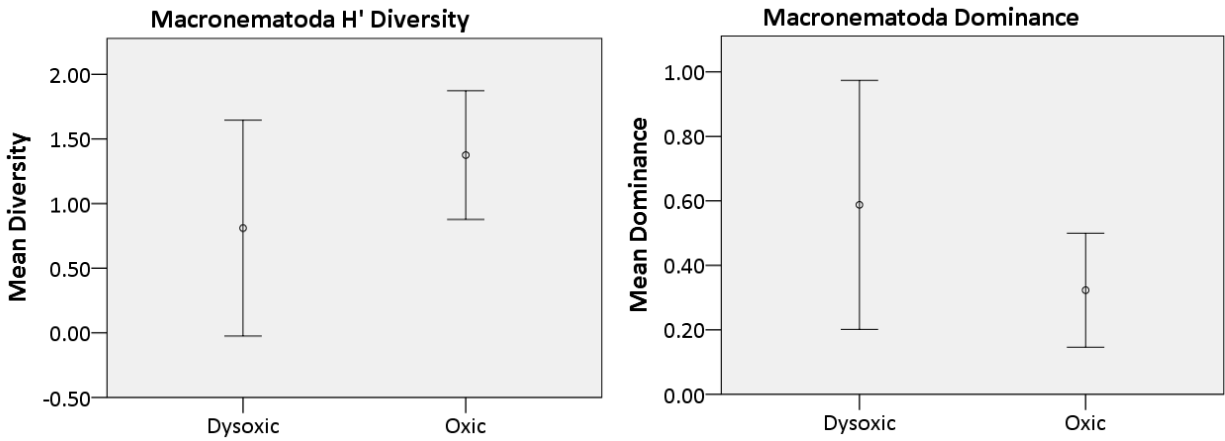


Figure 8: Macro-Nematoda diversity indices recorded in the various oxygen zones in the Northern Benguela Upwelling system. H' diversity, calculated using the natural logarithm (loge), while dominance, represented the complement of the Simpson Index (1-Simpson index). Error bars represent standard deviation (+/-1 SD).

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.

We also extend our gratitude to the reviewers for their invaluable feedback and constructive criticism, which significantly enhanced the quality and clarity of this manuscript. We deeply appreciate their time, expertise, insights, suggestion, and dedication to improving the manuscript. Their contributions have undoubtedly strengthened the final version of this manuscript, and we are sincerely grateful for their inputs.

13.0 References

- Bachelet, G.: The choice of a sieving mesh size in the quantitative assessment of marine macrobenthos: a necessary compromise between aims and constraints, *Mar. Environ. Res.*, 30(1), 21–35, 1990.
- Bohata, K., and Koppelman, R.: Chaetognatha of the Namibian upwelling region: taxonomy, distribution and trophic position, *PLoS One*, 8(1), e53839, 2013.
- Bongers, T., Alkemade, R., and Yeates, G. W.: Interpretation of disturbance-induced maturity decrease in marine nematode assemblages by means of the Maturity Index, *Mar. Ecol-Prog Ser*, 135–142, 1991.
- Breitburg, D., Levin, L. A., Oschlies, A., Grégoire, M., Chavez, F. P., Conley, D. J., Garçon, V., Gilbert, D., Gutiérrez, D., and Isensee, K.: Declining oxygen in the global ocean and coastal waters, *Science*, 359(6371), DOI: 10.1126/science.aam7240, 2018.
- Brodie Rudolph, T., Ruckelshaus, M., Swilling, M., Allison, E. H., Österblom, H., Gelcich, S., and Mbatha, P.: A transition to sustainable ocean governance, *Nat. Commun.*, 11(1), 3600, 2020.
- Brüchert, V., Currie, B., and Peard, K. R.: Hydrogen sulphide and methane emissions on the central Namibian shelf, *Prog. Oceanogr.*, 83(1-4), 169-179, 2009.
- Buhl-Mortensen, L., Vanreusel, A., Gooday, A. J., Levin, L. A., Priede, I. G., Buhl-Mortensen, P., Gheerardyn, H., King, N. J., and Raes, M.: Biological structures as a source of habitat heterogeneity and biodiversity on the deep ocean margins, *Mar. Ecol.*, 31(1), 21–50, 2010.
- Clarke, K. R., and Gorley, R. N.: *PRIMER: Plymouth Routines In Multivariate Ecological Research*. PRIMER-E Ltd., Plymouth, 2005.
- Currie, B., Utne-Palm, A. C., and Salvanes, A. G. V.: Winning ways with hydrogen sulphide on the Namibian shelf, *Front. Mar. Sci.*, 5, 341, 2018.
- Dietrich, P., Cesarz, S., Liu, T., Roscher, C., and Eisenhauer, N.: Effects of plant species diversity on nematode community composition and diversity in a long-term biodiversity experiment, *Oecologia*, 197(2), 297–311, 2021.
- Eisenbarth, S., and Zettler, M. L.: Diversity of the benthic macrofauna off northern Namibia from the shelf to the deep sea, *J. Mar. Syst.*, 155, 1–10, 2016.
- Emeis, K., Brüchert, V., Currie, B., Endler, R., Ferdelman, T., Kiessling, A., Leipe, T., Noli-Peard, K., Struck, U., and Vogt, T.: Shallow gas in shelf sediments of the Namibian coastal

- upwelling ecosystem, *Cont. Shelf. Res.*, 24(6), 627–642.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.csr.2004.01.007>, 2004.
- Emeis, K., Eggert, A., Flohr, A., Lahajnar, N., Nausch, G., Neumann, A., Rixen, T., Schmidt, M., Van der Plas, A., and Wasmund, N.: Biogeochemical processes and turnover rates in the Northern Benguela Upwelling System, *J. Mar. Syst.*, 188, 63–80, 2018.
- Giere, O.: *Meiobenthology: the microscopic motile fauna of aquatic sediments*, Springer Science and Business Media, Springer-Verlag, Berlin, Heidelberg, Germany, e-ISBN 978-3-540-68661-3, 2008.
- Gobler, C. J., and Baumann, H.: Hypoxia and acidification in ocean ecosystems: Coupled dynamics and effects on marine life, *Biol. Letters*, 12(5).
<https://doi.org/10.1098/rsbl.2015.0976>, 2016.
- Gutiérrez, D., Enríquez, E., Purca, S., Quipúzcoa, L., Marquina, R., Flores, G., and Graco, M.: Oxygenation episodes on the continental shelf of central Peru: Remote forcing and benthic ecosystem response, *Prog. Oceanogr.*, 79(2–4), 177–189, 2008.
- Hammer, Ø., Harper, D. A. T., and Ryan, P. D.: PAST: paleontological statistics software package for education and data analysis, *Palaeontol. Electron.*, 4(1), 9. 2001.
- Hanz, U., Wienberg, C., Hebbeln, D., Duineveld, G., Lavaleye, M., Juva, K., Dullo, W.-C., Freiwald, A., Tamborrino, L., and Reichart, G., J.: Environmental factors influencing benthic communities in the oxygen minimum zones on the Angolan and Namibian margins, *Biogeosciences*, 16(22), 4337–4356, 2019.
- Ingels, J., Zeppilli, D., and Giere, O.: Meiofauna—Adapted to Life at the Limits, in *New Horizons in Meiobenthos Research*, edited by Giere, O., Schratzberger, M., Springer, Cham. DOI 10.1007/978-3-031-21622-0, eBook ISBN 978-3-031-21622-0, 363-400, 2023.
- Joydas, T. V., and Damodaran, R.: Infaunal macrobenthos of the oxygen minimum zone on the Indian western continental shelf, *Mar. Ecol.*, 35(1), 22–35, 2014.
- Levin, L. A., Ekau, W., Gooday, A. J., Jorissen, F., Middelburg, J. J., Naqvi, S. W. A., Neira, C., Rabalais, N. N., and Zhang, J.: Effects of natural and human-induced hypoxia on coastal benthos, *Biogeosciences*, 6(10), 2063–2098, 2009.
- Levin, Lisa A. Oxygen minimum zone benthos: adaptation and community response to hypoxia, *Oceanogr. Marine Biol. Annu. Rev.*, 41, 1–45, 2003.
- Li, S., Cui, B., Xie, T., Bai, J., Wang, Q., and Shi, W.: What drives the distribution of crab burrows in different habitats of intertidal salt marshes, Yellow River Delta, China. *Ecol. Indic.*, 92, 99-106, 2018.

- Liu, S. Interactions within Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs): the economic and environmental dimensions of SDG Indicator 14.7, in: *Interlinkages Between the Sustainable Development Goals*, edited by: Swain, R. B., and Min, Y., Edward Elgar Publishing, <https://doi.org/10.4337/9781803924946.00008>, 37-51, 2023.
- Magalhães, A. V.: Comparison of zooplankton communities between cold and hot seasons in Lobito-Angola, Masters thesis, KOICA-PKNU International Graduate Program of Fisheries Science, Graduate School of Global Fisheries, Pukyong National University, 2018.
- McClain, C. R., and Schlacher, T. A.: On some hypotheses of diversity of animal life at great depths on the sea floor, *Mar. Ecol.*, 36(4), 849–872, 2015.
- Moens, T., Braeckman, U., Derycke, S., Fonseca, G., Gallucci, F., Gingold, R., Guilini, K., Ingels, J., Leduc, D., and Vanaverbeke, J.: Ecology of free-living marine nematodes, in: *Handbook of Zoology, Volume 2, Nematoda*, edited by: Schmidt-Rhaesa, A., De Gruyter, 109–152, <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110274257.109>, 2013.
- Moens, T., and Vincx, M.: Observations on the feeding ecology of estuarine nematodes, *J. Mar. Biol. Assoc. UK.*, 77(1), 211–227, 1997.
- Montgomery, H., Thom, N. S., and Cockburn, A.: Determination of dissolved oxygen by the Winkler method and the solubility of oxygen in pure water and sea water, *J. Appl. Chem.*, 14(7), 280–296, 1964.
- Neira, C., Ingels, J., Mendoza, G., Hernandez-Lopez, E., and Levin, L. A.: Distribution of meiofauna in bathyal sediments influenced by the oxygen minimum zone off Costa Rica, *Front. Mar. Sci.*, 5, 448, 2018.
- Neira, C., King, I., Mendoza, G., Sellanes, J., De Ley, P., and Levin, L. A.: Nematode community structure along a central Chile margin transect influenced by the oxygen minimum zone, *Deep-Sea Res. Pt. I*, 78, 1–15, 2013.
- Platt, H. M., and Warwick, R. M.: *Freeliving marine nematodes: Part II. British Chromadorida. Synopses of the British Fauna No. 38*, E.J. Brill, Dr. W. Backhuys for the Linnean Society of London and the Estuarine and Brackish-water Sciences Association, 1988.
- Ridall, A., and Ingels, J.: Suitability of free-living marine nematodes as bioindicators: Status and future considerations, *Front. Mar. Sci.*, 8, 685327, 2021.
- Rossi, S.: A Comprehensive Overview of SDG 14: Life Below Water_Final, in: *SDG 14: Life Below Water*, Springer, Cham, 1-62, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-19467-2_1, 2023.
- Sharma, J., Baguley, J., Bluhm, B. A., and Rowe, G.: Do meio- and macrobenthic nematodes differ in community composition and body weight trends with depth? *PLoS One*, 6(1), e14491, 2011.

- Sharma, J., and Bluhm, B. A.: Diversity of larger free-living nematodes from macrobenthos (> 250 μm) in the Arctic deep-sea Canada Basin, *Mar. Biodivers.*, 41, 455-465, 2011.
- Soto, E., Quiroga, E., Ganga, B., and Alarcón, G.: Influence of organic matter inputs and grain size on soft-bottom macrobenthic biodiversity in the upwelling ecosystem of central Chile, *Mar. Biodivers.*, 47, 433–450, 2017.
- Steffani, N., Sedick, S., Rogers, J., and Gibbons, M. J.: Infaunal benthic communities from the inner shelf off Southwestern Africa are characterised by generalist species, *Plos One*, 10(11), e0143637, 2015.
- Steyaert, M., Moodley, L., Nadong, T., Moens, T., Soetaert, K., and Vincx, M.: Responses of intertidal nematodes to short-term anoxic events, *J. Exp. Mar. Biol. Ecol.*, 345(2), 175–184, 2007.
- Teuber, L., Schukat, A., Hagen, W., and Auel, H.: Distribution and ecophysiology of calanoid copepods in relation to the oxygen minimum zone in the eastern tropical Atlantic, *PloS One*, 8(11), e77590, 2013.
- Thiel, H., and Higgins, R. P.: Introduction to the study of meiofauna, Smithsonian Institution Press, Washington D.C., 488 pp, ISBN 0-87474-488-1, 1988.
- Vanreusel, A., De Groot, A., Gollner, S., and Bright, M.: Ecology and biogeography of free-living nematodes associated with chemosynthetic environments in the deep sea: a review, *PLoS One*, 5(8), e12449, 2010.
- Wieser, W.: Die Beziehung zwischen Mundhohlengestalt, Ernährungsweise und Vorkommen bei freilebenden marinen Nematoden, Eine skologisen-morphologische studie, *Ark. Zool.*, 4, 439-484, 1953.
- Wentworth, C. K.: A scale of grade and class terms for clastic sediments, *J. Geol.*, 30(5), 377–392, 1922.
- Zeppilli, D., Sarrazin, J., Leduc, D., Arbizu, P. M., Fontaneto, D., Fontanier, C., Gooday, A. J., Kristensen, R. M., Ivanenko, V. N., and Sørensen, M. V.: Is the meiofauna a good indicator for climate change and anthropogenic impacts? *Mar. Biodivers.*, 45(3), 505–535, 2015.
- Zettler, M. L., Bochert, R., and Pollehne, F.: Macrozoobenthos diversity in an oxygen minimum zone off northern Namibia, *Mar. Biol.*, 156, 1949–1961, 2009.
- Zettler, M. L., Bochert, R., and Pollehne, F.: Macrozoobenthic biodiversity patterns in the northern province of the Benguela upwelling system, *Afr. J. Mar. Sci.*, 35(2), 283–290, 2013.

Zhang, Z., Xia, S., Sun, X., Zhou L.: Effects of Macrobenthos Relative to Floating-Leaved Plants on the Wintering Shorebird Assemblages at Shengjin Lake, China, *Diversity*, 14(12):1072. <https://doi.org/10.3390/d14121072>, 2022.

