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11 **Abstract**

12 Macrobenthic samples were collected offshore Namibia on board *R/V Mirabilis* during the 3<sup>rd</sup>  
13 RGNO training and the National Marine Information and Research Centre's (NatMIRC's) plankton  
14 survey from 13<sup>th</sup> May to 17<sup>th</sup> May 2016. Two transects, Cape Frio (20° S) and Walvis Bay (23° S),  
15 hosted three stations each, while the third transect, Luderitz (26° S), hosted only one station. From  
16 the results, three oxygen zones were identified, namely Microxic (<0.1 ml l<sup>-1</sup>), Dysoxic (0.1-1.0  
17 ml l<sup>-1</sup>), and Oxic (>1.0 ml l<sup>-1</sup>). A total of 20 Macrobenthic taxa were identified; Nematoda,  
18 Polychaeta, Cumacea, and Oligochaeta were the most dominant taxa and recorded abundances in  
19 all oxygen zones. Eighteen genera of macro-Nematoda were identified; *Desmolaimus* and  
20 *Paracomesoma* dominated in all oxygen zones, *Metoncholaimus* recorded higher abundance in the  
21 Dysoxic stations, and no abundance in the Oxic stations, and the opposite was observed for  
22 *Halanonchus* and *Dorylaimopsis*. H' Diversity values for both the general Macrofauna and Macro-  
23 Nematoda were higher in the Oxic stations and lower in both the Dysoxic and Microxic stations,  
24 while an opposite trend was observed for Dominance values. Density values were lower in  
25 Microxic stations and higher in Dysoxic stations, while at the Oxic stations, the density values fell  
26 in between the two hypoxic zones.

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



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## 30 **1.0 Introduction**

31 Hypoxia is ranked among the major threats to the actualization of the blue economy and the  
32 achievement of the 14<sup>th</sup> pillar of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), specifically target  
33 14.7 which aims at increasing the economic benefits of marine resource utilization through its  
34 sustainable use by developing countries. In recent decades, the concentration of dissolved oxygen  
35 (DO) in the ocean, specifically in the tropics, has been decreasing. This not only increases the size  
36 of areas under hypoxia but also their prevalence (Breitburg et al., 2018). Although hypoxia can  
37 result from natural phenomena like upwelling and thermal stratification, the current expansion of  
38 hypoxic areas is mainly a result of accelerated nutrient inputs in coastal areas which increases algal  
39 production subsequently resulting in higher organic matter production which in turn results in  
40 increased aerobic microbial decomposition lowering the levels of DO in the water (Gobler &  
41 Baumann, 2016). It has been projected that such changes may affect different organisms differently  
42 depending on their tolerance and reactions to lower dissolved oxygen in their habitats (Brodie  
43 Rudolph et al., 2020). Studies on ecosystems with hypoxia as a natural phenomenon can assist in  
44 predicting and understanding how human-induced hypoxia might affect and shape marine  
45 ecosystems in the face of the expansion of marine areas under hypoxia.

46 The Benguela upwelling system (BUS) is one of the most productive regions of the world's ocean  
47 (Magalhães, 2018). The high productivity provides a huge source of carbon resulting from  
48 photosynthesis, which gradually sinks through the water column resulting in a rapid oxygen loss  
49 due to biochemical oxygen consumption. This consequently causes low dissolved oxygen



50 concentrations and thus creates a permanent extensive shallow oxygen minimum zone (Bohata &  
51 Koppelman, 2013; Emeis et al., 2018). When the oxygen minimum zone (OMZ) comes into  
52 contact with the seafloor, it creates a strong oxygen gradient at the benthic zone at depths ranging  
53 between 50 meters and 300 meters, resulting in a hypoxic ( $<0.5 \text{ ml l}^{-1}$ ) inner shelf (Gibson &  
54 Atkinson, 2003). The oxygen gradient created at the OMZ's benthic zone is believed to primarily  
55 regulate the benthic community distribution and diversity patterns (Zettler et al., 2013; Teuber et  
56 al., 2013).

57 The term 'benthos' refers to organisms living on and in the sediments of the seafloor and are  
58 distinguished based on their sizes as either megafauna, macrofauna, meiofauna, or microfauna  
59 with some taxa appearing in more than one size category. Macrobenthos are part of the benthos  
60 consisting of organisms retained in a 0.5mm sieve but pass through a 2.00mm sieve (Bachelet,  
61 1990).

62 The general trend observed in most OMZs in global oceans (off Walvis Bay, California, and Oman  
63 margin) indicates that the densities of macrofauna generally display a negative response to  
64 reducing oxygen levels within the OMZ with a 30% to 70% reduction in densities in regions with  
65 less than  $0.15 \text{ ml l}^{-1}$  (Gibson & Atkinson, 2003). Similarly, diversity reduces as oxygen levels  
66 reduce within the OMZ because of the loss of intolerant species and increased dominance of the  
67 tolerant species. Nematodes and some families from the annelid worms have been observed to be  
68 able to tolerate low oxygen, with Nematoda (in the meiofauna group) having 95-99% abundance.  
69 Some polychaetes families like Spinoid, Dorvilleid, and Lumbrinerid can also tolerate low oxygen  
70 in the OMZ by having a high gill surface area for increasing oxygen uptake. On the other hand,  
71 harpacticoid copepods are the most sensitive taxon to hypoxia (Levin et al., 2009; Zeppilli et al.,  
72 2015).



73 It has been observed that the macrofauna diversity is lowest off Walvis Bay, attributed to the  
74 perennial intense OMZ over the shelf, while the diversity northwards off the Kunene River  
75 increases significantly, which was proposed to be a result of moving away from the intense OMZ  
76 cells off Walvis Bay and also the reflection of the biogeography where diversity increases with  
77 reducing latitude. Outside the OMZ, bathymetry, and latitude are said to be the factors affecting  
78 the infaunal communities at the Namibian shelf (Steffani et al., 2015).

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

## 83 **2.0 Material and Methods**

### 84 **2.1 Study Area**

85 The study area was located across the Northern Benguela Upwelling System (between 26° S and  
86 20° S) along the Namibian continental shelf, which hosts a deep continental shelf (around 300 m).  
87 The intense upwelling in the study site has rendered the area highly productive, resulting in a  
88 characteristic shallow OMZ (50-200 m) with stronger productive cells around Luderitz and Walvis  
89 Bay (Bohata & Koppelman, 2013). The inner shelf is described to be extremely oxygen-depleted,  
90 caused by in situ organic matter decomposition and warm poleward Angola current, which peaks  
91 in June-July while the continental slope below the OMZ is better oxygenated (Levin et al., 2009;  
92 Emeis et al., 2004).



93 The benthic zone in the OMZ in Northern BUS is characterized by extensive areas of diatomaceous  
94 mud, which are associated with high surface primary production and low concentration of  
95 dissolved oxygen (Levin et al., 2009; Steffani et al., 2015).

## 96 **2.1 Sample Collection**

97 Samples were collected from three transects (off Luderitz (OL) 26° S, off Walvis Bay (OWB) 23°  
98 S, and off Cape Frio (OCF) 20° S) onboard *R/V Mirabilis* during the RGNO training National  
99 Marine Information and Research Centre's (NatMIRC's) plankton survey from 13<sup>th</sup> May to 17<sup>th</sup>  
100 May 2016. The sampling stations were located at 02 nm, 20 nm, 40 nm, or 70 nm at each transect,  
101 with the 26° S transect hosting only one station at 90 nm. However, benthic samples from these  
102 stations were dependent on the prevailing weather conditions and the ability to get good core  
103 samples (Figure 1).

104 Sampling was done using a multi-corer from which individual cores were taken and sub-sampled  
105 for macrobenthos using a 6.4 cm diameter corer, and sediment samples for granulometry and  
106 organic matter analysis were taken simultaneously. Replicate samples were taken from a  
107 subsequent deployment of the multi-corer, where possible, to avoid pseudoreplication. The  
108 macrofauna cored samples were put in sampling bottles and immediately fixed with 5% buffered  
109 formalin, while samples for organic matter analysis were frozen to arrest microbial decomposition.  
110 Depth and temperature measurements were collected from a probe attached to the multi-corer,  
111 while dissolved oxygen concentrations in this study used the Winkler method from the overlying  
112 water (Montgomery et al., 1964).



113 **2.3 Laboratory analysis**

114 In the laboratory, macrobenthic samples were sieved between 2.00 mm and 0.45 mm sieves, and  
115 what was retained in the 0.45 mm sieve was then preserved in 5% buffered formalin solution, and  
116 3-5 drops of Rose Bengal solution were added to aid in sorting. The samples were then rinsed with  
117 water, sorted under a dissecting microscope using the key from (Thiel & Higgins, 1988), and  
118 counted. The macro-nematodes were then pin-picked later, fixed on permanent slides, and  
119 identified to the genus level using the key from (Platt & Warwick, 1988).

120 For sediment granulometry, samples were wet-sieved using a 1.00 mm sieve, 0.5 mm, 0.25 mm,  
121 105 mm, 0.063 mm, and those below 0.063 mm (<0.063 mm). The sediments collected at the  
122 different sieves were then put on pre-weighed Petri dishes and dried in an oven at 60° C until a  
123 constant weight was reached, and these dried weights were used for sediment granulometry  
124 (Wentworth, 1922).

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

129 **2.4 Data analysis**

130 Out of the seven sampled stations, only three had replicates. Therefore, a data analysis approach  
131 was needed to provide detailed insight into the structure of the macrobenthic communities in the  
132 northern Benguela Upwelling System. The environmental variable that had the highest significant  
133 correlation with the various biotic indices was used to group the stations for proper community  
134 analysis. The data recorded were analyzed for abundance (density and relative abundance) in



135 Excel, Paleontological Statistics Software package (PAST v2.17c) (Hammer et al., 2001) was used  
136 to calculate the diversity and the diversity t-test between the stations. Bray Curtis similarity,  
137 Analysis of Similarity (ANOSIM), and Similarity percentages (SIMPER) were conducted using  
138 Plymouth Routines in Multivariate Ecological Research (PRIMER v5.2.9) (Clarke & Gorley,  
139 2005).

140 Stepwise regression analysis (using SPSS) was used to determine the environmental variables that  
141 were predictors of the distribution patterns of the macrobenthic diversity patterns in the BUS.  
142 Various diversity indices were calculated using PAST for each station; the various replicates were  
143 considered as a single station, and these indices were then correlated individually with the  
144 environmental variables recorded in the study.

### 145 **3.0 Results**

#### 146 **3.1 Abiotic variables**

147 Total Organic Matter (%TOM) showed an opposite trend with depth, with higher organic matter  
148 values recorded in the shallower stations where stations 20020, 20002, and 23002 had the highest  
149 TOM of  $38.6\% \pm 2.16$ ,  $27.5\% \pm 1.55$  and  $23.1\%$ , respectively. The lowest TOM values were found  
150 in most offshore stations, stations 23070 and 26090, with  $9.89 \pm 1.55$  and  $4.4$ , respectively (Table  
151 1). Similarly, dissolved oxygen values had lower values recorded in the shallower onshore station.  
152 The lowest oxygen values were recorded on the OWB 23° S transect, with the two most onshore  
153 stations (23020 and 23002) recording the lowest levels of oxygen ( $0.02$  and  $0.06 \text{ ml l}^{-1}$   
154 respectively). The inshore station from transect OCF 20° S (20002) had a higher DO ( $1.8 \text{ ml l}^{-1}$ )  
155 than stations 20020 and 20040 from the same transect, where the DO levels recorded were  $0.67$   
156 and  $0.53 \text{ ml l}^{-1}$ , respectively, while the offshore stations 23070 in transect OWB 23° S and 26090





157 in transect OL 26<sup>0</sup> S recorded the highest dissolved oxygen (2.30 and 4.34 ml l<sup>-1</sup>, respectively)  
158 (Table 1). Fine sand was the most common sediment size ranging between 30-38.8% in all stations.  
159 Most stations from the sites also recorded higher proportions of medium sand and silt, except for  
160 station 23020 in transect OWB 23<sup>0</sup> S, which recorded a lower proportion of silt and an increased  
161 abundance of coarse sand compared to the other stations (Table 2).

### 162 **3.2 Biotic factors**

163 Stepwise regression analysis revealed that most diversity indices (H' Diversity, Evenness,  
164 Dominance, Berger-Parker, Fisher Alpha, Equitability J, and Brillouin) had no predictive variables  
165 except Margalef index, Richness, and Menhinick whose predictors were identified as TOM, DO,  
166 and very coarse sand respectively. Pearson correlation analysis indicated a significantly high  
167 correlation between DO and TOM, as TOM reflects surface production, which is the driver of the  
168 low DO at the BUS (Table S1).

169 Due to the lack of replicates in some stations and the high predictive role in DO compared to the  
170 other two factors, the sampling stations were thus grouped based on their recorded levels of DO  
171 as described by (Levin Lisa, 2003), i.e., stations with DO less than 0.1 ml l<sup>-1</sup> were grouped as  
172 'Microxic,' those with DO between 0.1 and 1.0 ml l<sup>-1</sup> grouped as 'Dysoxic' while those with DO of  
173 1.0 ml l<sup>-1</sup> and above grouped as 'Oxic' in a bid to analyze how DO affects macrobenthic  
174 communities structure.

### 175 **3.3 Macrobenthic assemblages**

176 Macrofaunal densities differed significantly across the various oxygen zones; the Microxic stations  
177 recorded very low densities (4,661±4,834 ind. m<sup>-2</sup>) and had the lowest number of taxa with only



178 six taxa present. The Dysoxic stations, on the other hand, recorded the highest densities  
179 ( $74,108 \pm 134,126$  ind.  $m^{-2}$ ), with one station from this Oxygen range (20040) recording an  
180 extremely high density of  $274,991$  ind.  $m^{-2}$  boosted by a high abundance of Nematoda and  
181 Oligochaeta but with a low number of taxa ( $S=6$ ). The Oxic stations recorded the highest number  
182 of taxa (18) and the second-highest average density but were comparatively lower than those  
183 registered by the dysoxic stations ( $14,345 \pm 6,726$  ind.  $m^{-2}$ ) (Fig. 2).

184 A total of 19 macrobenthic taxa were identified and were dominated by Nematoda, Polychaeta,  
185 Oligochaeta, and Cumacea, the only peracarid crustacean abundant in all the oxygen zones.  
186 Microxic stations recorded the lowest taxa count ( $S=6$ ), which constituted Cumacea (37.5%),  
187 Polychaeta (26.9%), Nematoda, Oligochaeta, and Ascidia as the only taxa present in the Microxic  
188 stations (Fig 3).

189 Although the taxa count in the dysoxic stations was like that of the microxic stations, the  
190 composition, and dominance were different. The macro-nematoda was the most dominant taxa in  
191 this zone, outnumbering all the other taxa. Its numbers were very high in one of the stations  
192 ( $233,354$  ind.  $m^{-2}$ ). Oligochaeta was the second most abundant taxon in this oxygen zone, with its  
193 high abundance coming from the same station with the highest nematode counts. Polychaeta and  
194 Cumacea were the dysoxic stations' third and fourth most abundant taxa. Bivalvia and Ostracoda,  
195 which were absent in the microxic stations, were present in the dysoxic stations, albeit in low  
196 abundance (Figure 3).

197 The oxic stations recorded the highest number of taxa counts, with 18 out of the 19 taxa recorded  
198 overall. Taxa like Echinodermata (Ophiuroidea), Holothuroidea, Aeolosomatidea, Isopoda,  
199 Aplacophora, and Amphipoda were recorded in this zone with average abundances of more than



200 1%. Nemertina, Turbellaria, and Cnidaria were also recorded in these stations; however, their  
201 abundances were below 1%, and they were grouped as others (Figure 3).

202 All the oxygen zones were dissimilar to one another. The highest dissimilarity was observed  
203 between the Dysoxic and Microxic zones which were 77.99% dissimilar despite both stations  
204 being characterized by low dissolved oxygen levels. The Oxidic stations were also highly dissimilar  
205 to the Microxic and Dysoxic zones, with values of 68.58% and 65.91%, respectively (Figure 4).

206 The Dysoxic and Microxic stations recorded low macrobenthic H' diversity (<1), with the Microxic  
207 stations recording slightly higher diversity indices than the Dysoxic stations, while the Oxidic  
208 stations recorded the highest H' diversity ( $1.46 \pm 0.4$ ). The dominance followed a negative trend to  
209 the H' diversity as the Dysoxic stations recorded the highest dominance ( $0.6 \pm 0.28$ ). In contrast, the  
210 Oxidic stations recorded the lowest dominance ( $0.31 \pm 0.18$ ), while the Microxic Dominance index  
211 fell in between the two ( $0.5 \pm 0.18$ ) (Figure 5).

### 212 **3.4 Macro-nematodes density and diversity**

213 On average, macro-nematodes were the most dominant taxon in this study as a result of their  
214 dominance in the dysoxic station. Macro-nematodes were abundant in all oxygen zones recording  
215 relative abundances of 8%, 74%, and 24% in Microxic, Dysoxic, and Oxidic zones respectively.  
216 This meant that they had a substantive contribution to the macrobenthic densities as they were  
217  $621 \pm 879$  nematodes  $m^{-2}$  from a total of  $4,661 \pm 4,834$  ind.  $m^{-2}$  in the Microxic zone,  
218  $61,912 \pm 114,424$  nematodes  $m^{-2}$  in the dysoxic zone out of  $74,108 \pm 134,126$  ind.  $m^{-2}$ , and from  
219  $14,345 \pm 6,726$  ind.  $m^{-2}$  in the Oxidic zone  $4,454 \pm 2,906$  were nematodes.

220



221 Eighteen genera of macro-nematodes were identified. *Desmolaimus* and *Paracomesoma* were  
222 present across all stations, with their abundances peaking in Dysoxic stations (together with  
223 *Metoncholaimus*), and were the only genera recorded from the Microxic zone.  
224 *Paralongicyatholaimus* and *Neochromadora* recorded significant relative abundance (>4%) in  
225 Dysoxic stations. In contrast, *Thalassolaimus*, *Paramesacanthion*, *Enoploides*, *Halanonchus*,  
226 *Rhabdodemia*, and *Dorylaimopsis* recorded significant abundance in Oxic stations but were  
227 absent in Dysoxic stations except for *Thalassolaimus*. *Metoncholaimus* and  
228 *Paralongicyatholaimus*, were present in Dysoxic stations but absent in Oxic stations, while  
229 *Paramesacanthion*, *Enoploides*, and *Rhabdodemia* were present in the Oxic station and absent  
230 in the Dysoxic stations. Graphing the relative abundance, *Thoracostomopsis*, *Anticoma*,  
231 *Cephalanticoma*, *Trileptium*, *Mesacanthoides*, *Terschellingia*, and *Marylinnia* were grouped as  
232 others as they recorded insignificant abundances (<4%) and were absent in Dysoxic station except  
233 for *Marylinnia* and *Terschellingia*, whereby, the former was absent in the Oxic station while the  
234 latter was present in both oxygen zones (Fig. 6).

235 The feeding guild differed between the various oxygen zones identified. Epistratum feeders  
236 dominated the dysoxic zones (62%), followed by predators/omnivores (28%), and finally, selective  
237 deposit feeders (10%). On the oxic zone, selective deposit feeders were the most dominant feeding  
238 guild (56%), while epistratum feeders, predators, and omnivores had the same abundance of 22%  
239 each. No non-selective deposit feeders were recorded in this study (Figure 7).

240 The macro-Nematoda diversity portrayed a similar trend as the general macrofaunal diversity, with  
241 one of the Microxic stations (23002) lacking nematodes and its partner station (23020) registering  
242 only two nematodes therefore, it was left out during diversity analysis. The remaining oxygen  
243 ranges (Dysoxic and Oxic) portrayed the same trend as the general macrofaunal trend within the



244 study site as the Oxic stations recorded higher H' Diversity ( $1.38\pm 0.5$ ) than the Dysoxic  
245 ( $0.81\pm 0.84$ ) stations. In contrast, the Dysoxic stations recorded higher dominance ( $0.59\pm 0.39$ ) than  
246 the Oxic stations ( $0.32\pm 0.18$ ) (Fig. 8).

#### 247 **4.0 Discussion**

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

256 In this study, oxygen correlated significantly with various diversity indices; thus, the different  
257 stations were grouped into three based on the oxygen levels recorded. The structure and  
258 composition of the macrofauna communities varied among the various oxygen zones. Most  
259 macrofaunal studies identify Polychaeta as the most abundant macrofauna taxon in both oxic and  
260 hypoxic areas (Eisenbarth & Zettler, 2016; Soto et al., 2017). However, in this study, Polychaeta  
261 only had the highest relative abundance in the Oxic zones. In the microxic zone, the relative  
262 abundance was dominated by Cumacea, followed by Polychaeta. It is essential to note that  
263 numerically Polychaeta was the most abundant in this oxygen zone, but the presence of other taxa  
264 in these stations reduced their relative abundance. The presence of Cumacea in high quantities in  
265 the core OMZ has been reported by Zettler et al., (2013) and Eisenbarth & Zettler (2016), who



266 described them as possible opportunistic species colonizing permanent hypoxic areas from  
267 adjacent areas, and thus their abundance may be season-specific. Currie et al. (2018) attributed the  
268 presence of Cumacea and other macrofauna taxa in the BUS to the Sulfur-oxidizing bacteria,  
269 possibly providing a detoxified condition in this area. In this case, the mobility of the Cumacean  
270 gives them an advantage over other tolerant taxa like polychaetes and nematodes at the core and  
271 hence their high relative abundances at the OMZs core.

272 Some polychaete families have physiological adaptations to tolerate the low oxygen quantities  
273 found in OMZs (Hanz et al., 2019; Joydas & Damodaran, 2014; Levin et al., 2009). At the microxic  
274 zone, polychaetes had the numerical abundance in the microxic stations despite Cumacean leading  
275 in relative abundance. The station where Cumacea were located (23002) had only two taxa with  
276 Cumacea recording (75%) but with only 932 cumaceans m<sup>-2</sup>, while the polychaetes recorded 4350  
277 polychaetes m<sup>-2</sup> in the other microxic station (23020) but recorded a relative abundance of 53%  
278 and hence its average lower relative abundance compared to the Cumacea.

279 In the dysoxic zone, Nematoda was the most dominant taxa outcompeting the Polychaeta in all the  
280 dysoxic stations, recording more than 70% relative abundance. Oxygen can cause shifts in  
281 community structure and trophic transfer (Neira et al., 2018), as evidenced in this study. Nematoda  
282 as a taxon has not received significant attention in the macrofaunal size range in most studies  
283 despite evidence of their presence therein (Joydas & Damodaran, 2014; Sharma et al., 2011). An  
284 increase in the size of nematodes to macrobenthic class sizes has been reported in chemosynthetic  
285 environments that experience similar characteristics as OMZs, i.e., low oxygen and high sulfidic  
286 contents (Vanreusel et al., 2010). Apart from the increase in size, OMZs also tend to enhance the  
287 regional dominance of tolerant organisms such as nematodes with high biomass recorded in  
288 response to organic matter inputs. The high abundances are thought to reflect the availability of



289 organic matter, a significant nutrient source for macrofauna, coupled with release from predation  
290 from larger fauna affected by the reduced oxygen concentrations (Moens et al., 2013).

291 The high nematode abundance in partnership with Oligochaeta occurred in the dysoxic zone;  
292 oxygen conditions were low enough to exclude some taxa but sufficient for tolerant species to  
293 survive and reproduce. Such conditions are referred to as the 'edge effect,' and such high densities  
294 are characteristics of the edge of the OMZs, where various species have been observed to have  
295 abnormally high densities (Moens et al., 2013; Neira et al., 2018). The reasons for these high  
296 abundances are not well understood, but (Gutiérrez et al., 2008) alluded that the nematodes'  
297 population can multiply in low oxygen conditions, which experience high loads of organic matter  
298 input. Despite their tolerance to anoxia, nematodes cannot survive long-term exposure, as observed  
299 in the anoxic zone. Thus, the patchiness and high variability in the dysoxic zone calls for more  
300 studies (Buhl-Mortensen et al., 2010).

301 Once the DO levels increased to dysoxic levels, other taxa like ostracoda and Bivalvia were  
302 observed, albeit in meager numbers. Despite ostracodes flourishing better in well-oxygenated  
303 marine areas, various families (*Platycopina*) have been observed to tolerate and thrive in Oxygen  
304 Minimum Zones. When the DO levels increased to above  $1.0 \text{ ml l}^{-1}$ , more taxa were recorded, and  
305 these numbers increased more when DO was above  $2.0 \text{ ml l}^{-1}$ .

306 A general trend has been observed in the various studies in OMZs whereby macrofaunal species  
307 richness and diversity reduce towards the core and increase as one moves away from the core  
308 (McClain & Schlacher, 2015). Similarly, our core area (microxic) had the lowest density, diversity,  
309 and species richness, with only  $1243 \text{ ind. m}^{-2}$  recorded per core. A similar number was recorded  
310 by Zettler et al., (2009). Once the Oxygen levels increased above  $1 \text{ ml l}^{-1}$ , more taxa were recorded,



311 and the high dominance of the tolerant taxa, as evidenced in the microxic and dysoxic areas, was  
312 reduced. Taxa such as Amphipoda, Isopoda, Echinodermata, Nemertina, Aeolosomatidae,  
313 Aplacophora, Holothuroidea, and Cnidaria were only recorded in the oxic zones indicating low  
314 tolerance to low oxygen levels. Most of these fauna are crustaceans which Soto et al. (2017) also  
315 recorded abundances in oxic stations. However, Zettler et al. (2009) recorded amphipod species in  
316 the low oxygen areas indicative of species-specific tolerance/intolerance to hypoxia.

317 At the meiofaunal level (0.0038-1 mm), nematodes dominate with very high abundances in OMZs,  
318 and their structure and composition have been well documented (Gutiérrez et al., 2008; Neira et  
319 al., 2018). In contrast, despite various studies in OMZs acknowledging the presence of large  
320 nematodes (>1.00 mm), little attention has been accorded to analyzing them further. In this study,  
321 we analyzed macro-Nematoda to the genus level because of their dominance in the dysoxic zone  
322 to understand and acknowledge the structure and composition of macro-Nematoda in the BUS and  
323 OMZs in general.

324 Macro-Nematoda abundance varied across the OMZ, with very low abundance in the microxic  
325 zones, extremely high numbers at the dysoxic zones, and a substantial amount at the oxic stations,  
326 accounting for only 28% of the total abundance. Nematodes are considered one of the most tolerant  
327 taxa in the marine environment, with the ability to tolerate low oxygen and high sulphidic  
328 environments characteristic of OMZs and may reach very high abundances in these environments  
329 (Ingels et al., 2023). This was the case at the dysoxic zone, where nematodes recorded high  
330 abnormal densities in one station, indicating a high tolerance of these taxa and the ability to grow  
331 to large sizes and even dominate the macrofaunal component. Even with such high tolerance levels,  
332 Nematoda abundance can be impacted by microxic conditions, as observed in the microxic areas  
333 with a recording of only 621 nematodes m<sup>-2</sup> in this oxygen zone. This meager value, however, may





334 be at the macrofauna level, and the case may be different at the meiofauna level, where nematodes  
335 have recorded substantial densities in microoxic environments (Neira et al., 2018; Steyaert et al.,  
336 2007).

337 Despite their high abundance in OMZs, not all nematodes are tolerant to low oxygen levels (Moens  
338 et al., 2013), as observed in this study. *Metoncholaimus*, *Paracomosoma*, and *Desmolaimus*  
339 dominated the dysoxic zone; these three genera are members of *Oncholaimidae*, *Comesomatidae*,  
340 and *Linhomoeidae*, respectively. Members of the family *Oncholaimidae* have large bodies that can  
341 disperse rapidly and colonize carcasses of macrofauna and even fish that may have succumbed to  
342 the low levels of oxygen found in the dysoxic zone. Nevertheless, their bodies are large enough to  
343 fit within the macrofauna size range, while their ability to swim ensures they actively locate their  
344 food source (Moens et al., 2013). Their high abundance in this study might reflect a congregation  
345 upon a food source that had attracted nearby members in large numbers. Their ability to colonize  
346 the 'food source' in such numbers in a dysoxic environment indicates their tolerance to low oxygen  
347 levels.

348 On the other hand, *Comesomatidae* and *Linhomoeidae* members have been noted to have high  
349 abundances in enriched sediments with low oxygen, indicating tolerance to anoxic conditions  
350 (Steyaert et al., 2007). Their long and slender bodies might be the reason for their records at the  
351 macrofauna level. Despite this generalization at the family level and the assumptions that members  
352 of the same family may portray similar life strategies (Bongers et al., 1991), tolerance of nematodes  
353 to hypoxia is species-specific (Moens et al., 2013) as Steyaert et al. (2007) observed members of  
354 the same genera (*Sabatiera*) reacting differently to hypoxic and anoxic conditions. Thus, further  
355 analysis should be done to identify the species that are tolerant to hypoxia at these OMZs at  
356 macrofauna levels.



357 Tolerance is determined by both the absence and presence of taxa; most genera present in the oxic  
358 zone were absent in the dysoxic area and may be seen as genera intolerant to low oxygen levels.  
359 Ridall and Ingels (2021) categorized *Anticoma* as an indicator of hypoxia due to its intolerance to  
360 hypoxia.

361 Weiser's feeding types have long been used to assess the trophic structure of nematode  
362 communities. This study had a high abundance of selective feeders (1A) and epistratum feeders  
363 (1B), with the latter dominating the oxic zone. Neira et al., (2013) recorded a complete dominance  
364 of selective deposit feeders in one of the shallow OMZs stations and a dominance of both the  
365 selective deposit feeders and epistratum feeders on the other station with a slight abundance of the  
366 non-selective deposit feeders (1B).

367 This appears to be among the exceptions to the general rule that non-selective deposit feeders  
368 dominate substrates with a high abundance of organic matter, as the opposite trend was observed.  
369 From this study and Neira et al., (2013), the classification by Moens & Vincx, (1997) would  
370 provide insight into explaining the trophic structure. They modified the Wieser's deposit feeders  
371 from selectivity (due to lack of knowledge on selectivity) to their diet types as either microvores,  
372 ciliate feeders, or deposit feeders. As the reduced oxygen in OMZs negatively impacts the  
373 abundances of multicellular organisms, the role of microbes in such areas becomes prominent  
374 (Dietrich et al., 2021), which may favor the abundance of microvores tolerant to hypoxia over  
375 deposit feeders. The areas around the OMZ have also been observed to contain a high level of  
376 diatomaceous mud, which forms a significant component of epistratum feeders' diet, whose  
377 abundance was also high in the dysoxic areas. Below the OMZ, the production of diatoms is  
378 reduced, and the abundance of epistratum feeders also reduces, giving rise to the dominance of  
379 selective deposit feeders.



380 **5.0 Conclusion**

381 In summary, the Benguela Upwelling System (BUS) is a major Western Boundary Upwelling  
382 system known for its high surface productivity and Oxygen Minimum Zones (OMZ). This study  
383 found that the structure and composition of macrofauna communities in the BUS varied among  
384 different oxygen zones, with Polychaeta being the most abundant macrofauna taxon in oxic zones,  
385 Cumacea dominating in microxic zones, Nematoda being the most dominant in dysoxic zones, and  
386 Ostracoda and Bivalvia observed limited numbers in the anoxic zone. These results suggest that  
387 oxygen levels significantly shape benthic communities, with tolerant species dominating in low-  
388 oxygen environments and thus the increasing hypoxic areas in our ocean might result in reduced  
389 macrobenthic faunal densities, diversity, and species richness. Further studies are needed to  
390 understand the mechanisms behind the observed patchiness and high variability in the dysoxic  
391 zones.

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400 **6.0 Tables**

401 *Table 1: Station information and abiotic factors information recorded from the stations in the Northern*  
402 *Benguela Upwelling System*

Transect	Station	Longitude	Latitude	Depth (m)	TOM(%)	DO (ml l <sup>-1</sup> )
Off Cape Frio (OCF-20°S)	20002	12.99905	-20	33	27.47±1.55	1.8
	20020	12.67858	-20	125	38.64±2.16	0.67
	20040	11.79321	-20	219	17.58 nr	0.53
Off Walvis Bay (OWB-23°S)	23002	14.3734	-23	39	23.08 nr	0.06
	23020	14.06986	-23	128	20.88 nr	0.02
	23070	13.14	-23	318	9.89±1.55	2.3
Off Luderitz (OL-26°S)	26090	13.28	-26	1282	4.4 nr	4.34

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405 *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 Cape Frio (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

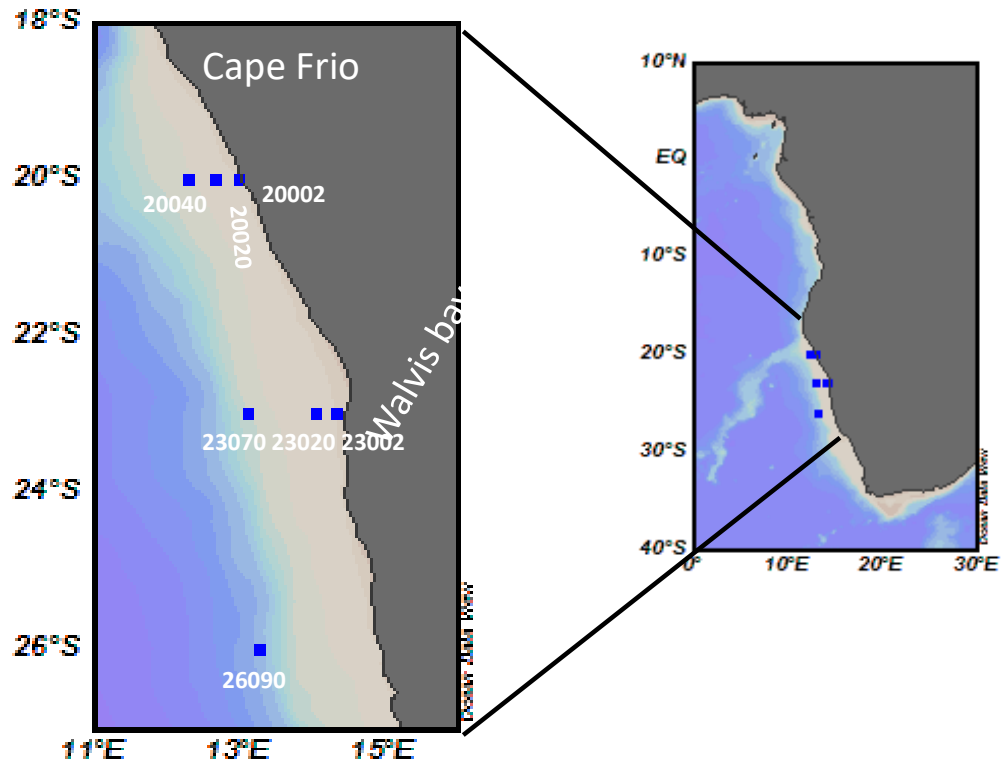


Figure 1: Sampling stations located across the Northern Benguela Upwelling System

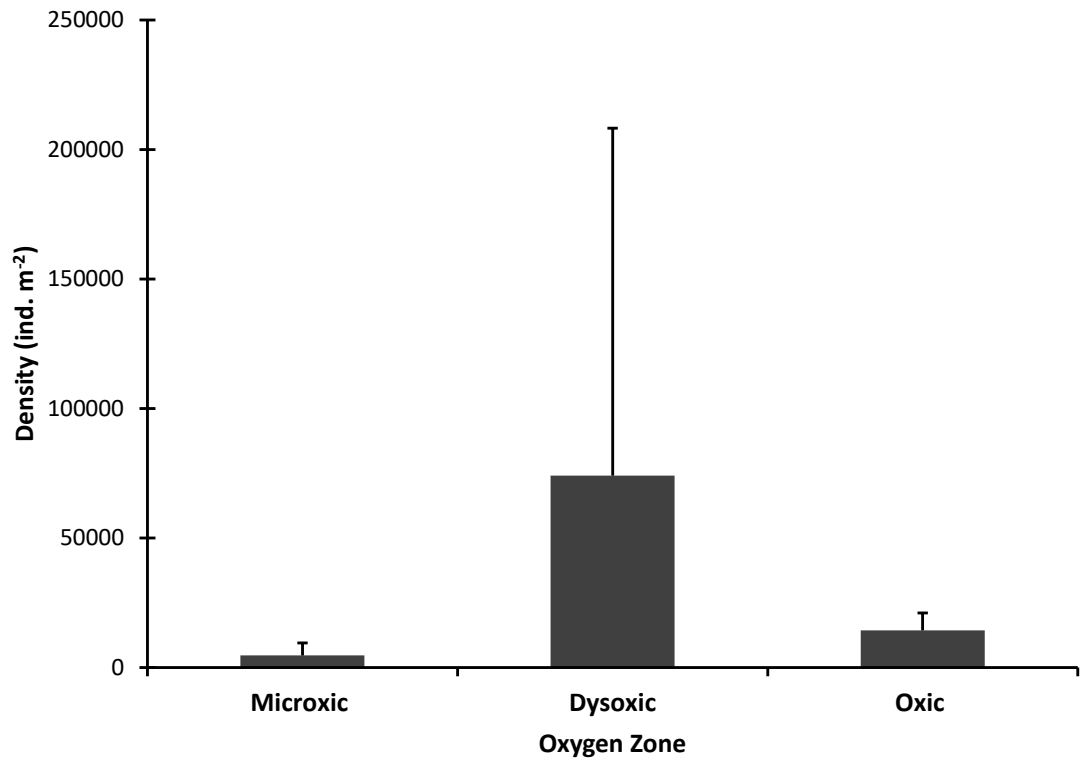


Figure 2: Macrobenthic densities in the different oxygen zones in the Northern Benguela Upwelling system

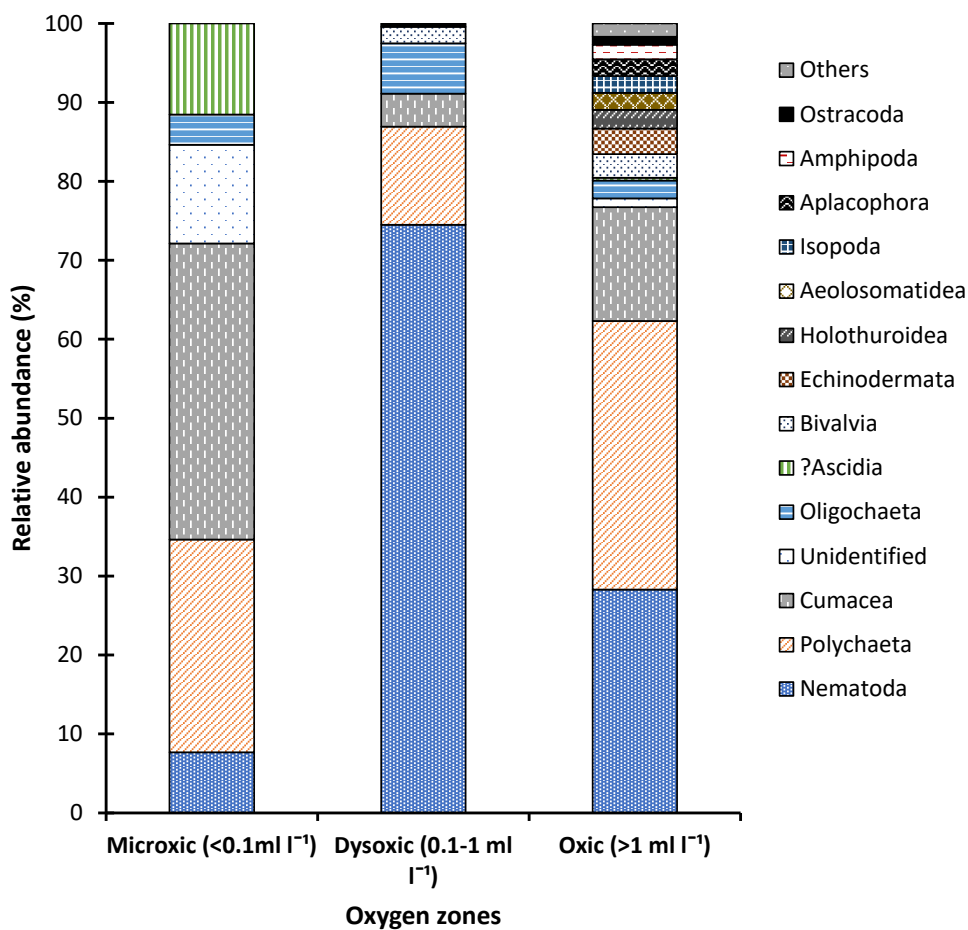


Figure 3: Macrofauna Relative abundance in the Northern Benguela Upwelling System, based on the oxygen zones identified.



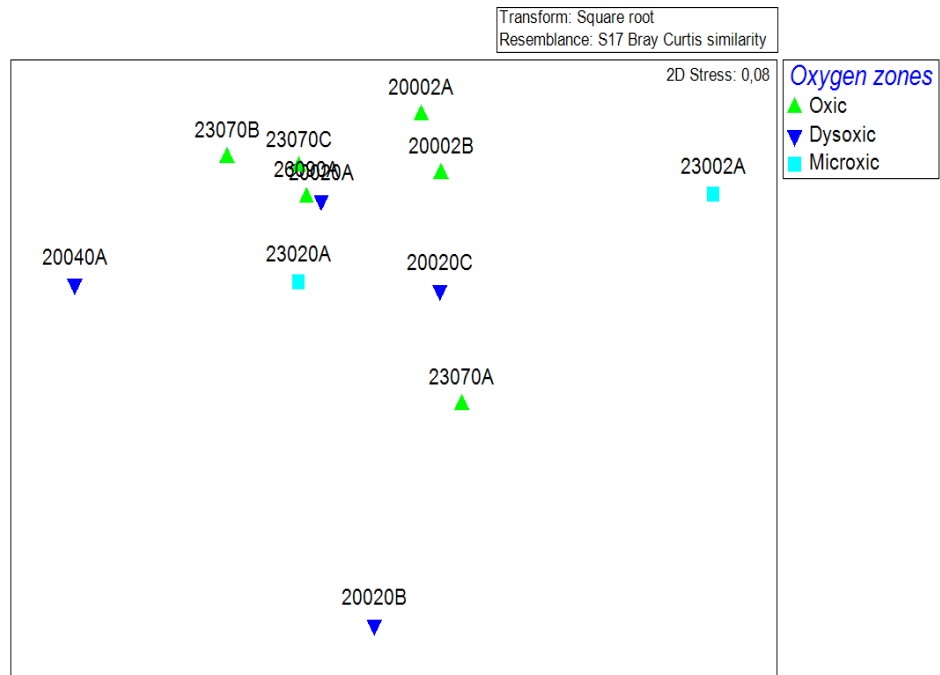


Figure 4: Non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS) plot based on Bray-Curtis Similarity index of macrobenthic fauna communities recorded in the Northern Benguela Upwelling System.

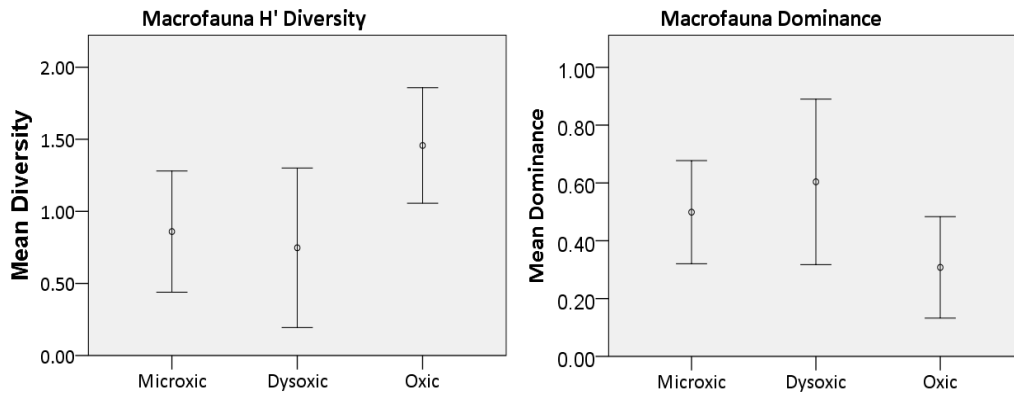


Figure 5: Macrofauna diversity indices recorded in the various oxygen zones in the Northern Benguela Upwelling system.

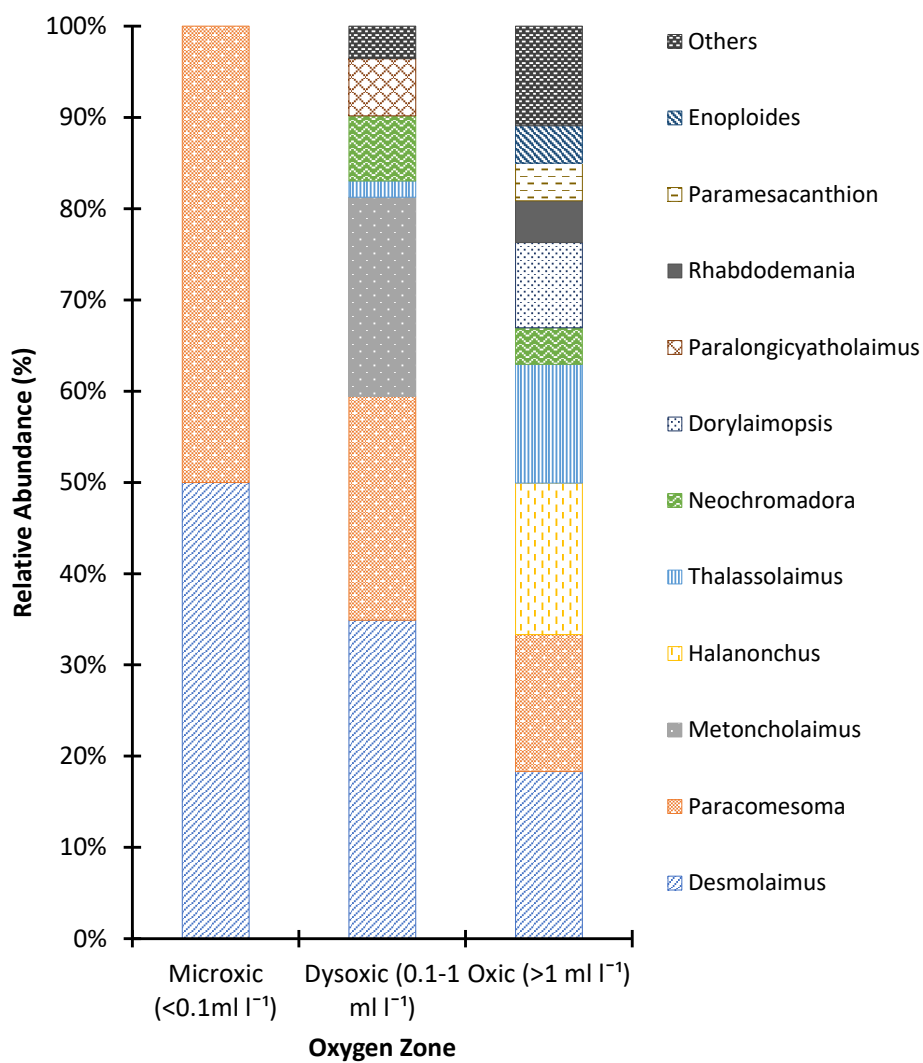


Figure 6: Macronematoda Relative abundance in the Northern Benguela Upwelling System, based on the oxygen zones identified.

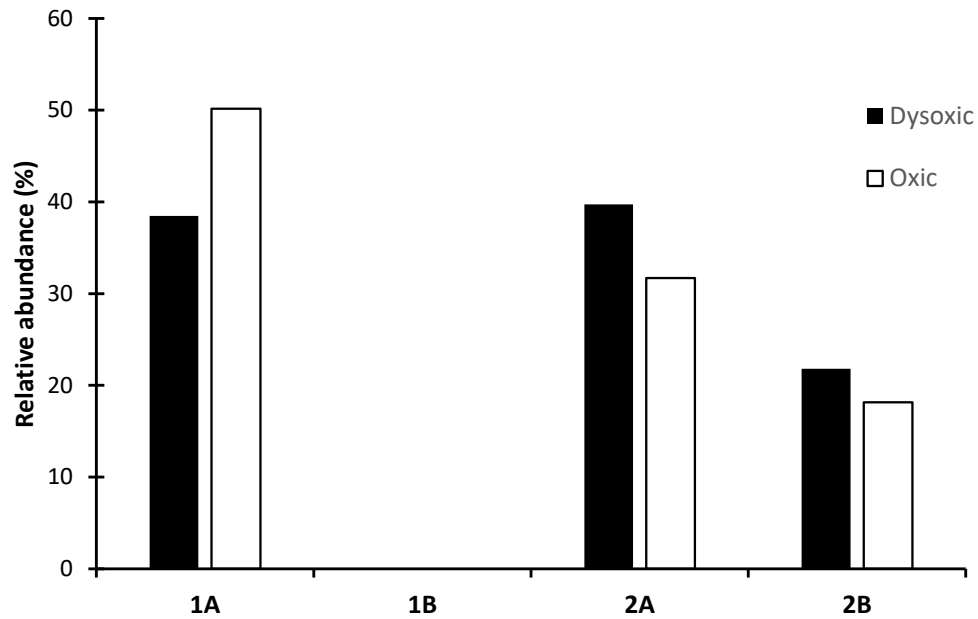


Figure 7: Feeding guilds based on Wieser of macro-Nematoda from the Northern Benguela Upwelling System. (1A= Selective deposit feeder, 1B- Non-Selective deposit feeder, 2A=Epigrwoth feeders, 2B=Predators/Omnivores).

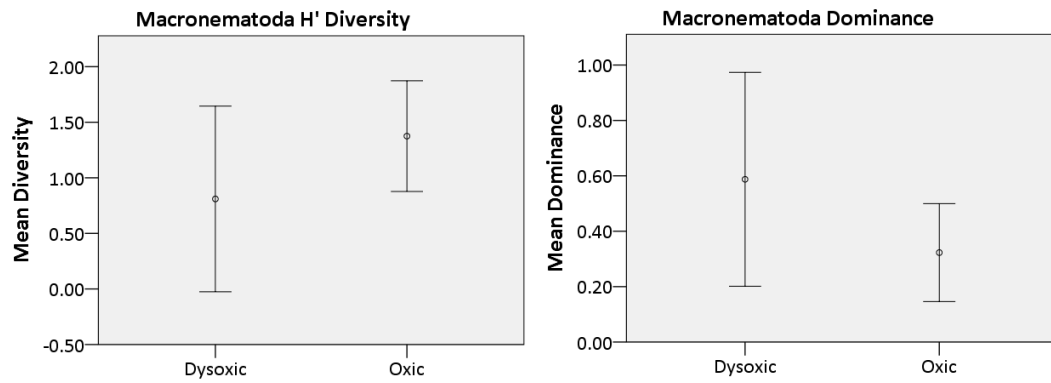


Figure 8: Macro-Nematoda diversity indices recorded in the various oxygen zones in the Northern Benguela Upwelling system.



### **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 53<sup>rd</sup> International Colloquium on Ocean Dynamics: 3<sup>rd</sup> 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.

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