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## The contribution of deep-sea macrohabitat heterogeneity to global nematode diversity

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### Abstract:

The great variety of geological and hydrological conditions in the deep sea generates many different habitats. Some are only recently explored, although their true extent and geographical coverage are still not fully established. Both continental margins and mid-oceanic seafloors are much more complex ecologically, geologically, chemically and hydrodynamically than originally thought. As a result,

fundamental patterns of species distribution first observed and explained in the context of relatively monotonous slopes and abyssal plains must now be re-evaluated in the light of this newly recognized habitat heterogeneity. Based on a global database of nematode genus composition, collected as part of the Census of Marine Life, we show that macrohabitat heterogeneity contributes significantly to total deep-sea nematode diversity on a global scale. Different deep-sea settings harbour specific nematode assemblages. Some of them, like coral rubble zones or nodule areas, are very diverse habitats. Factors such as increased substrate complexity in the case of nodules and corals seem to facilitate the co-existence of a large number of genera with different modes of life, ranging from sediment dwelling to epifaunal. Furthermore, strong biochemical gradients in the case of vents or seeps are responsible for the success of particular genera, which are not prominent in more typical soft sediments. Many nematode deep-sea genera are cosmopolitan, inhabiting a variety of deep-sea habitats and oceans, whereas only 21% of all deep-sea genera recorded are restricted to a single habitat. In addition to habitat heterogeneity, regional differences are important in structuring nematode assemblages. For instance, seeps from different regions yield different genera that thrive on the sulphidic sediments. This study also shows that many areas and habitats remain highly under-sampled, affecting our ability to understand fully the contribution of habitat heterogeneity versus regional differences to global nematode diversity.

**Keywords:** Biodiversity; census of marine life; deep sea; habitat heterogeneity; meiofauna; nematode genera

64 **Introduction**

65 The deep-sea floor has long been considered to be a relatively homogeneous environment on a large  
66 scale, comprising vast areas of soft well-oxygenated surface sediments. Mainly depth-related factors,  
67 such as food input, hydrodynamics and occasionally sediment composition, were assumed to be the  
68 main drivers of differences in benthic standing stock, biodiversity and community composition of the  
69 benthos (Grassle, 1989; Gage & Tyler, 1991). However, as a result of increasing exploration by means  
70 of bathymetric and visual mapping of habitats (Wefer *et al*, 2003), there is now a growing awareness  
71 of the true extent of habitat heterogeneity and associated biodiversity along continental margins and  
72 abyssal plains. Knowledge of the biological communities associated with particular, locally restricted  
73 habitats in the deep sea has significantly increased during the last decade, as has the understanding of  
74 how other interdependent variables such as substrate availability and type, biogeochemistry, nutrient  
75 input, productivity, hydrologic conditions and catastrophic events shape patterns of diversity on  
76 regional scales (Levin *et al*, 2001).

77 The increasing interest in particular deep-sea environments, such as cold seeps, hydrothermal  
78 vents, cold water corals, canyons and nodule areas, and the wider accessibility of ROV technology,  
79 have facilitated the direct sampling of these different habitats, which was often not possible using  
80 traditional remote coring techniques. Such studies have shown that they are occupied by benthic  
81 communities that are different from those living in surrounding areas of typical deep-sea floor (Wefer  
82 *et al*, 2003). However, the extent to which these special habitats contribute to the overall deep-sea  
83 biodiversity has never been investigated, since biodiversity studies focused on particular habitats were  
84 often restricted to comparisons between their biodiversity and that of the surrounding background  
85 environments on a local or occasionally regional scale (*e.g.* several papers from this volume). No  
86 comparisons have been made yet on a larger scale comprising different deep-sea habitats. This mainly  
87 reflects the lack of comprehensive databases required to determine if the high turnover between  
88 macrohabitats on these smaller scales also holds when data are compiled over ocean-basin or even  
89 global scales.

90 In this study, a large database containing quantitative data on nematode genus composition  
91 from different areas and habitats around the world was assembled, allowing a global comparison of  
92 nematode biodiversity to be made. This database was made possible through the global initiative, “The  
93 Census of Marine Life”, which aims to make a realistic estimation of currently known marine  
94 biodiversity by 2010, and to provide a better insight into the factors responsible for changes in  
95 biodiversity. Nematode data from several distinct deep-sea habitats, including soft sediments from  
96 different water depths, manganese nodules, coral, seamounts, cold seeps, hydrothermal vents, canyons  
97 and trenches, were included in this comparative analysis. Nematodes are among the most abundant  
98 and diverse benthic metazoan taxa. They are present from shallow water environments to the deep sea,  
99 and from oxygenated to anoxic, sulphidic sediments (Heip *et al*, 1985). They show a preference for  
100 soft sediment but also colonize hard substrates in close contact with deep-sea sediments, such as

101 nodules and coral rubble. Since nematode data at the species level are scarce, and since the majority of  
102 deep-sea nematodes remain undescribed, we investigated patterns at the genus level. It has been shown  
103 that nematode community composition at the genus level reflects macro-ecological patterns  
104 (Vanreusel *et al*, 2000, Vanaverbeke *et al*, 1997, Fonseca & Soltwedel 2007) and thus provides an  
105 appropriate basis for comparisons of communities between habitats on a world-wide scale.

106 Based on this database of nematode genus assemblages collected within the Census of Marine  
107 Life projects CoMARGE and CeDAMar as well as the MarBef European network of Excellence,  
108 several hypotheses can be put forward. Inevitably the compilation of various datasets collected for  
109 multiple purposes by different researchers includes a high degree of heterogeneity partly generated by  
110 differences in temporal and spatial scales of sampling. Furthermore the sampling design is highly  
111 unbalanced leading to under-representation of different habitats and regions. Therefore caution is  
112 needed in the interpretation of the results taking into account the fragmented nature of the  
113 observations. With these restrictions in mind, the following three main testable hypotheses were  
114 identified. (1) Habitat heterogeneity contributes significantly to the total deep-sea nematode diversity  
115 when integrated over large scales. (2) Different deep-sea habitats harbour specific nematode  
116 assemblages. (3) Higher biodiversity is associated with particular deep-sea habitats compared with  
117 others.

118

## 119 **Materials and methods**

120 Data on nematode density and genus composition were obtained from 542 samples collected from the  
121 shelf to the hadal zone. In order to preserve the original composition and biodiversity estimates, data  
122 from replicate samples were kept separate and not pooled. Figure 1 shows all geographical areas  
123 (some including multiple samples) from which data were collected for this study. Since the focus was  
124 on the deep-sea, data obtained from shelf stations (< 200 m) were only included if these were part of a  
125 bathymetric transect that covered a significant part of the continental slope. Samples were always  
126 collected quantitatively (using different types of corers) and treated with standardized extraction  
127 procedures in order to guarantee the most comparable data (Heip *et al*, 1985). Literature datasets that  
128 did not provide complete taxonomic lists were not included, since the analyses required full genus  
129 counts and densities, including the rare taxa. Detailed sample information is available on request.

130 Data analysis was performed using the statistical package PRIMER v6.0. nMDS was  
131 combined with SIMPER and ANOSIM to identify differences in genus composition between habitats.  
132 A Bonferroni correction was applied in the case of multiple pairwise comparisons and a significance  
133 level of 5 % was used. Diversity indices were also calculated using the PRIMER v6.0 software.  
134 Genus richness was calculated as the total number of genera (Hill's  $N_0$ ; Hill, 1973). By analogy with  
135 the expected number of species (Hurlbert, 1971), we calculated the expected number of genera for  
136 theoretical samples of 51 [EG (51)] and 100 [EG (100)] individuals. In the case of seamount samples,  
137 the number of individuals was lower than 50 and no EG (51) was calculated. Samples were

138 classified into 10 different macrohabitats (also referred to as habitats throughout the text) (Table 1)  
139 based on the following criteria: substrate composition (homogeneous soft sediment versus presence of  
140 manganese nodules or large biogenic substrate such as coral rubble and mussels), water depth,  
141 topography (canyon, trench and seamounts) and biochemistry (oxygen, methane and H<sub>2</sub>S). Some  
142 macrohabitats were assumed to be more common than others, as indicated in Table 1. Also, the degree  
143 of connectivity between similar habitats differs as a function of their general distribution. Figure 2  
144 shows some examples of visual habitat heterogeneity in the deep sea. The definition of the shelf,  
145 slope, abyssal plain and trench macrohabitats used here is rather arbitrary, being based on water depth  
146 and not considering differences in local or regional topography. For instance, the abyssal basins of the  
147 Mediterranean Sea are much shallower (3000–4000m) than elsewhere, and the shelf of the Weddell  
148 Sea margin extends out to a depth of 500 m. However, all the slopes identified in this paper have soft  
149 sediments from the depth zone between 200 and 4100 m, are from topographically regular settings,  
150 covered by well-oxygenated bottom waters and lack any indication of nearby flows of reduced  
151 chemical compounds. Some macrohabitats are characterized by considerable patchiness and comprise  
152 different micro- (or sub-) habitats. For instance, seeps includes both completely anoxic, sulphidic  
153 sediments as well as sediments that are well oxygenated at the surface but shows an increase in  
154 sulphide concentration below the surface. Similarly, the coral samples includes coral rubble and dead  
155 sponges as well as coralligenous sediments. Temperature is not taken into account as a habitat  
156 characteristic, since the deep Mediterranean has much higher bottom temperatures than other oceans.

157 The number of samples per macrohabitat was unbalanced and ranged from three on seamounts  
158 to 355 from regular soft sediments along the slope (Table 2). Furthermore, the coral samples (NE  
159 Atlantic), the seamounts (NE Atlantic), the nodules (NE Pacific) and the trench samples (Atacama  
160 trench, NE Pacific) were all collected from within single regions, in contrast to samples from the  
161 slope, shelf, abyssal plains, seeps, canyons and hydrothermal vents, which covered different  
162 geographical regions. The slope sediments were geographically the best represented of all the  
163 macrohabitats and distributed in many parts of the World Ocean, although the majority of these  
164 samples were collected from the Atlantic including the Mediterranean Sea.

165 .

## 166 **Results**

### 167 **Differences in nematode community composition between habitats**

168 A total of 362 genera was recorded from the 542 samples (Table 2). The majority of these genera  
169 (about 90 %) were previously recorded from soft-bottomed, regular slope habitats, indicating that the  
170 additional habitat heterogeneity is only responsible for 10 % of the total genus pool recorded from  
171 deep-sea environments. The proportion of genera restricted to a single habitat within the total number  
172 of genera found in that habitat was highest in regular soft slope sediments (15%), followed by the  
173 nodule area (10%), the abyssal plains (8%), and the hydrothermal vents (6%). In the remaining  
174 habitats the proportion of genera restricted to the habitat was less than 2 %. Many of the dominant

175 genera from soft-slope sediments were also represented in the other habitats, although in different  
176 proportions (Fig 3; Table 3). The highly abundant genera *Acantholaimus*, *Halalaimus*,  
177 *Thalassomonhystera*, but also *Desmodora*, *Desmoscolex* and *Theristus*, are the main ones showing  
178 wide distributions that include most of the investigated habitats.

179 Multivariate analysis, on the other hand, suggested that different deep-sea habitats harboured  
180 significantly different nematode communities (Fig. 4) (ANOSIM:  $R = 0.39$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ). According to  
181 the MDS ordination based on nematode genus composition (%), samples collected at seeps,  
182 hydrothermal vents, coral rubble, seamounts and nodule areas differed in genus composition from the  
183 majority of soft sediment samples collected on the shelf, slope and abyssal plains (Fig. 4). Within  
184 these three regular soft sediment habitats, shelf samples plotted mainly on one side of the central  
185 cluster of slope samples whereas the abyssal plains were grouped on the opposite side. Canyon and  
186 trench samples overlapped to a large extent with the slope samples. Nodule samples were clustered  
187 adjacent to the abyssal samples. The coral samples, as well as the seep, hydrothermal and seamount  
188 samples, were generally more separated from the central slope cluster, although samples from these  
189 specific habitats occasionally overlapped with slope samples in the MDS ordination. The pairwise  
190 comparison with Bonferroni correction ( $p < 0.05$ ) showed that seeps ( $R = 0.367$ ), hydrothermal vents  
191 ( $R = 0.759$ ), corals ( $R = 0.336$ ) and seamounts ( $R = 0.913$ ) differed significantly in genus composition  
192 from the slope samples. Shelf communities also differed significantly from the slope communities ( $R$   
193  $= 0.426$ ), whereas the communities from abyssal plains ( $R = -0.044$ ), canyons ( $R = 0.095$ ), nodules ( $R$   
194  $= 0.136$ ) and trench samples ( $R = 0.197$ ) were not significantly different from slope samples. All  
195 habitats also significantly differed from the abyssal plains ( $R > 0.377$ ) except for the trench ( $R =$   
196  $0.316$ ) and slope samples ( $R = -0.044$ ).

197 The average relative abundances of the dominant genera responsible for the similarity within  
198 each macrohabitat, as identified by a SIMPER analysis, are shown in Figure 5. This list of genera (also  
199 shown in Table 3) overlapped largely with the main genera responsible for the dissimilarity between  
200 each of the habitats and the slope. In general, slopes were characterized by several dominant genera  
201 (e.g. *Thalassomonhystera*, *Acantholaimus*, *Halalaimus*, *Daptonema* and *Sabatieria*) that occurred in  
202 similar proportions. The genus *Sabatieria*, however, declined in abundance below 2000 m and was  
203 absent from the abyssal plains and trenches. From this analysis it was also clear that the average  
204 communities at abyssal plain, canyon and trench sites shared several dominant genera with the slope  
205 communities. The other habitats were more distinct both in the composition of the dominant genera as  
206 well as in their diversity in terms of evenness. The highest dissimilarity with slope communities was  
207 found in the seamount samples, which were characterized by high abundances of the genera  
208 *Desmodora*, *Richtersia*, *Ceramonema* and *Desmoscolex*, and a low diversity. In contrast to the slope  
209 samples, *Thalassomonhystera*, *Sabatieria*, *Acantholaimus* and *Daptonema* were uncommon. However,  
210 the seamount assemblages were not representative of general patterns because of the low number of

211 samples (3) and the restricted geographical coverage. The same was true for the trench habitat, which  
212 was represented only by 3 samples from the Atacama Trench.

213 Shelf and slope samples also differed in terms of the proportions of taxa; *Thalassomonhystera*,  
214 *Acantholaimus* and *Halalaimus* were abundant along the slope but found only occasionally on the  
215 shelf. *Sabatieria* was a dominant genus on the shelf and slope but, on average, less abundant along the  
216 slope compared with the shelf. Vent samples differed from slope samples in the increased dominance  
217 of the Monhysteridae (*Thalassomonhystera* and *Halomonhystera*), and the greater abundance of  
218 *Anticoma* and *Desmodora*, two genera that were rather rare on the slope. Seep samples differed from  
219 slope samples in the high dominance of *Halomonhystera* and *Sabatieria*; other typical slope genera,  
220 such as *Acantholaimus*, *Thalassomonhystera* and *Halalaimus*, were still present but reduced in  
221 abundance. Corals also showed a much reduced abundance of *Thalassomonhystera* and *Sabatieria*  
222 compared with soft sediments from similar depths, but were characterized by genera such as  
223 *Desmoscolex* and *Epsilonema*. However, the genera *Acantholaimus* and *Halalaimus* were still  
224 common. Some typical genera, such as *Theristus* and *Marisalbinema*, appeared in the nodule samples  
225 but were either not abundant or absent on slopes and in other abyssal samples.

226

### 227 **Genus diversity per habitat**

228 Sample diversity, expressed as the rarefaction index EG (51) (expected number of genera for  
229 51 individuals), ranged from 1 to 33 over all habitats (Fig. 6). The highest values were recorded in the  
230 slope, shelf, nodule field and coral samples. However, whereas values from the shelf, and particularly  
231 from the slope, showed considerable variation, the coral and nodules estimates were always high (>  
232 15). Generic diversity was always low in the samples from the hydrothermal vents. The seeps  
233 exhibited a range of diversity values from very low to medium. This variation reflected the high  
234 degree of small-scale heterogeneity (patchiness) within seeps, which encompass (micro-) habitats  
235 ranging from highly-sulphidic sediments with low nematode diversity to well-oxygenated surface  
236 sediments (*e.g.* in Siboglinidae tube worm fields) only influenced by seepage in deeper sediment  
237 layers and therefore characterized by higher nematode diversity. On average, diversity was lowest in  
238 the hydrothermal and seep samples.

239 Figure 7 shows the total diversity of pooled samples, combining each habitat respectively with  
240 the slope in order to illustrate the extent to which the different habitats contributed to overall slope  
241 diversity. Since the number of genera will depend on the number of samples analysed within a habitat,  
242 diversity is also expressed as EG(100) (Fig 7a & b). The abyssal plain and nodule habitats contributed  
243 particularly to the increased total genus richness of the slope (Fig. 7a). Except for the under-sampled  
244 seamounts and trenches, all other habitats added to the total genus pool but to a lesser extent (see also  
245 Table 2). In terms of expected number of genera (Fig 7b), the contribution of the abyssal plains and  
246 nodule areas became less pronounced due to the higher abundances of dominant taxa found in both  
247 these habitats. EG(100) values suggest that, except for the shelf samples, the coral habitat was mainly

248 responsible for the increased diversity, as a result of greater evenness combined with the high number  
249 of genera present.

250

## 251 **Discussion**

### 252 **Methodological problems**

253 Several studies have addressed the importance of habitat heterogeneity at local or regional scales but  
254 no previous attempt has been made to determine whether the high turnover between macrohabitats on  
255 these smaller scales also holds for larger scales. However, investigating ecological patterns on larger  
256 scales requires the compilation of large databases, thereby increasing the heterogeneity of the data  
257 involved. The interpretation of the analyses is therefore not without risk (Soetaert & Heip 1995). Data  
258 compiled for this study were obtained using a number of different sampling gears, from small box  
259 corers (e.g. Muthumbi *et al*, 2004) to larger box-corers (e.g. Netto *et al*, 2005), multiple corers (e.g.  
260 Fonseca & Soltwedel 2007), ROV push cores (Van Gaever *et al*, this volume) or even mussel pots  
261 (Flint *et al*, 2006), for which sampling efficiency is known to vary especially for the surface sediment  
262 layers (Bett *et al*, 1994). Differences in sample processing (sieve size and extraction procedures), and  
263 the inherent small-scale and temporal variability, may have added some uncertainties to the  
264 comparison. Identification problems can occur since several genera are differentiated by relatively  
265 small differences, possibly subject to personal interpretation. However, potential misidentifications of  
266 dominant genera were carefully checked by the different data-providers. As already indicated, the  
267 main limitation of the dataset is the unbalanced design in terms of sampling intensity within different  
268 habitats and regions. The slope is clearly over-represented compared with all other habitats both in  
269 terms of number of samples and geographical coverage. For these reasons, all comparisons between  
270 macrohabitats were focussed on the slope; in other words we investigated the extent to which  
271 macrohabitats differed in composition and diversity from those of typical slope sediments.

272 In general the patterns observed in our analyses were robust across the data set and the  
273 different habitats were represented by a multitude of characteristic genera. We are confident, therefore,  
274 that the approach used in this study is the only way to overcome the problems involved in conducting  
275 extensive sampling campaigns in order to detect large-scale patterns in deep-sea nematode  
276 communities.

277

### 278 **Importance of habitat heterogeneity for deep-sea nematode biodiversity at different spatial** 279 **scales**

280 At the local scale (diversity per individual sample: Fig 6), nematode diversity varied significantly  
281 within and between habitats. In some habitats, the coexistence of genera was always relatively high,  
282 especially in corals and nodules areas, two habitats characterized by an increased substrate complexity  
283 owing to the presence of coral rubble, sponge skeletons or manganese nodules on top of the soft  
284 sediments. These observations suggest that increased substrate heterogeneity plays an important role



285 in structuring local nematode diversity and are in accordance with the small-scale habitat  
286 heterogeneity hypothesis (Bazzaz, 1975). This hypothesis, proposed for terrestrial systems, assumes  
287 that structurally complex habitats provide more diverse ways for exploiting environmental resources,  
288 thereby increasing diversity.

289 In contrast, the coexistence of genera was occasionally very low in reduced habitats (e.g. seeps  
290 and hydrothermal vents), although some seep samples also showed high diversity. In reduced  
291 environments, harsh biochemical conditions led to reduced diversity, despite the high food  
292 availability. Some opportunistic genera take advantage of the increased organic load associated with  
293 seeps or vents and dominate these communities, while the more common deep-sea genera disappear.  
294 The high variability in diversity estimates within the seep habitat was due to differences in surface  
295 biochemical conditions between different seep microhabitats. Soft sediments along the slope also  
296 showed high variability in local diversity from very genus rich (33) to extremely poor (< 5). The low  
297 values were often associated with oligotrophic areas with low densities, such as part of the Brazilian  
298 margin.

299 At the large scale, i.e. considering all samples from a given habitat as one (Fig 7), it was the  
300 abyssal habitats which increased the genus richness the most when combined with the slope,  
301 contradicting the source sink hypothesis that the abyss only acts as a sink for typical bathyal species  
302 (Rex *et al*, 2005 ). This is in accordance with previous observations for abyssal copepods (Bagulay *et*  
303 *al*, 2006). Corals increased the total slope diversity through increased evenness, whereas the nodules,  
304 an exclusively abyssal habitat, also increased total abyssal diversity. These results suggest that habitat  
305 heterogeneity plays an important role in maintaining the regional diversity of deep-sea environments  
306 by preserving taxa that are usually rare in soft sediments.

307

### 308 **Habitat specific nematode assemblages**

309 The most striking result emerging from the combination of all these independent datasets was that  
310 several nematode genera are cosmopolitan, inhabiting a variety of deep-sea habitats and oceans, while  
311 only a few genera are restricted to a single habitat. In fact, only a minority of genera (about 21% of  
312 the total genera) seem to be restricted to one particular habitat. Most of these were encountered in soft  
313 slope sediments, which may be partly explained by the higher number of samples collected in these  
314 settings (65% of all samples). All other habitats combined only contributed 10% of the genus richness.  
315 Most of these habitat-restricted genera were uncommon, suggesting that their absence from other  
316 habitats may also reflect (1) under-sampling, (2) misidentifications or (3) random colonisation of the  
317 specific habitat. Most genera have the potential to colonize a variety of deep-sea substrates, although  
318 some that are dominant in one habitat are not found in others (e.g. *Sabatieria* is not found in the abyss)  
319 or become rather rare (*Acantholaimus* and *Halalaimus* in vents). The eurytopic, cosmopolitan  
320 character of most genera does not necessarily apply to species since the few studies done at species  
321 level have shown that, while there may be some widespread nematode species, many are restricted in

322 their distribution (Vermeeren *et al*, 2004, Ingels *et al*, 2006; Fonseca & Soltwedel 2007, Fonseca *et*  
323 *al*, 2007).

324 This analysis demonstrates that each habitat hosts certain nematode genera that are usually  
325 rare in 'typical' bathyal and abyssal sediments. This is mainly because such habitats have completely  
326 different sedimentary and biochemical characteristics compared to the adjacent sediments. For  
327 instance, the 3-dimensional structure of deep-sea corals enhances the abundance of non-burrowing,  
328 interstitial or epifaunal forms such as epsilonematids, while the gravel sediments of the seamounts  
329 favours nematodes with coarsely ornamented cuticle, such as *Ceramonema*, *Richtersia* and  
330 *Desmodora*. Habitats rich in sulphide and hydrothermal vents had higher abundances of  
331 *Terschellingia*, *Sabatieria* and *Halomonhystera*, genera that are better known from organically-  
332 enriched, shallow-water environments than from other deep-sea habitats.

333

334 **Corals** The nematode communities associated with cold-water coral habitats included in this analysis  
335 were previously described by Raes & Vanreusel (2006) and Raes *et al*, (2008) from the Belgica  
336 Mound region of the Porcupine Seabight (NE Atlantic), at a depth of approximately 1000m. Here, a  
337 series of seabed mounds occurs that support cold-water coral banks and their degradation zones; these  
338 zones originate from the progressive degradation of dead coral thickets until only small-sized coral  
339 debris remains. Samples were collected in sediment-clogged coral framework (Freiwald *et al*, 2002), a  
340 three-dimensionally complex habitat composed of (1) dead *Lophelia pertusa* (Linnaeus, 1758)  
341 thickets, (2) glass sponges of the species *Aphrocallistes bocagei* (Scultze, 1886) and their skeletons,  
342 and (3) sediment. It seems that the 3-dimensional micro-structure of deep-sea coral fragments and  
343 sponges enhances the abundance of epifaunal nematodes, such as members of the Epsilonematidae and  
344 Draconematidae (for details see Raes & Vanreusel 2006 and Raes *et al*, 2008), which are unusual for  
345 ocean margins (Decraemer *et al*, 2001). Coral fragments and sponges are relatively unprotected on the  
346 ocean margin seabed and their associated fauna is therefore subject to stronger current activity, typical  
347 of areas with *Lophelia* reefs (White, 2007). Taxa that are specially adapted to crawl on larger surfaces  
348 and to withstand this physical stress may have a competitive advantage in such habitats.  
349 Epsilonematidae and Draconematidae are characterised by the presence of unique locomotory  
350 structures. Most Epsilonematidae have ambulatory setae on the ventral side of their posterior body and  
351 Draconematidae have both cephalic and posterior adhesion tubes (Gourbault & Decraemer, 1996;  
352 Decraemer *et al*, 1997). Together with the caudal glands, these structures enable the nematodes to  
353 attach themselves to a large substratum and/or crawl over its surface in a fashion that is similar to that  
354 of a geometrid caterpillar (Stauffer, 1924; Lorenzen, 1973). A comparable mode of locomotion was  
355 observed in *Desmoscolex* (Stauffer, 1924), another dominant genus on coral fragments and sponge  
356 skeletons.

357

358 **Seamounts** Interestingly, higher abundances of *Desmoscolex*, together with *Desmodora*, *Richtersia*  
359 and *Ceramonema*, were also observed on the seamounts included in this analysis (Great Meteor and  
360 Sedlo seamounts). In addition, members of the Epsilonematidae and Draconematidae were found here  
361 although in low abundances. The Great Meteor Seamount is characterized by coarse biogenic  
362 sediments composed of corals and mollusc shells, and by strong current activity (Gad 2004; Gad &  
363 Schminke 2004). These environmental conditions could be comparable to those in cold-water coral  
364 degradation zones as described above. Indeed, Gad (2004) stated that the nearest congeners of some  
365 Epsilonematidae species on the Great Meteor Seamount are found in cold-water coral habitats along  
366 the North-Atlantic continental margin. In addition to their distinct locomotory behaviour, the stout  
367 body shape together with the thick cuticle are additional morphological features that may bestow  
368 advantages for survival in such physically harsh environments. This comparison suggests that the  
369 intricate physical micro-structure of the substrate may be one of the most important factors structuring  
370 nematode assemblages. Unfortunately, little detailed information is available on the biology of the  
371 genera *Desmodora*, *Richtersia* and *Ceramonema* on the deep-sea floor.

372

373 **Nodules** Polymetallic nodule deposits on the abyssal seafloor also represent a unique habitat type in  
374 which nematode assemblages inhabit both the hard nodule substratum (Mullineaux, 1987; Veillette *et*  
375 *al*, 2007a, b), including the sediment accumulated in crevices on the nodule surface (Thiel *et al*, 1993),  
376 and the soft sediment that underly the nodules and in which the nodules are partly submerged. Data  
377 from two nodule areas in the Clarion-Clipperton Fracture Zone (CCFZ) were analysed: the eastern  
378 area (CCFZ-E) (Radziejewska, 2002) at depths of about 4300-4400 m and the central area (CCFZ-C)  
379 at depths of about 4950-5050 m (Miljutina unpublished). In both areas, samples were collected, using  
380 a multiple corer, from nodule-bearing and nodule-free patches. In the eastern area (CCFZ-E),  
381 *Desmoscolex* and *Pareudesmoscolex* were among the dominant groups, suggesting again that the  
382 presence of hard substrate favours genera with distinct locomotory behaviour. However, in the central  
383 area (CCFZ-C), the dominant genera were thread-like interstitial forms such as the Monhysteridae,  
384 *Acantholaimus*, and *Theristus*. These genera were also common in soft sediments from around the  
385 World Ocean. Nevertheless, the analysis showed that 22 genera were unique for the nodulised  
386 seafloor; furthermore none of these genera was common to the two CCFZ areas. The differences  
387 between these two areas were further accentuated by different dominant genera. In particular,  
388 *Marisalbinema* was one of the characteristic and dominant genera in the CCFZ-C. Also remarkable  
389 was the fact that the composition of the nematode fauna in the CCFZ-E differed significantly from all  
390 the other deep-sea samples included in this analysis. Owing to the dominance of *Terschellingia*, these  
391 samples showed the highest similarity with seep habitats (Nordic margin) and shelf samples. This  
392 observation suggests that the CCFZ-E environment is controlled by some factor(s) in addition to the  
393 presence of nodules and may not represent a typical nodule area. Therefore the CCFZ-E samples were  
394 not included in the MDS analysis. It is possible that the distinctly different nature of the CCFZ-E

395 nematode fauna (low abundance of abyssal genera such as *Acantholaimus* and *Thalassomonhystera*  
396 and the high abundance of genera such as *Terschellingia*) is related to hydrothermal venting, the  
397 signature of which, in the form of elevated metal contents in the water column, has been reported from  
398 the area (Tkatchenko *et al*, 1997). *Terschellingia* dominates cold seep communities on the Nordic  
399 margin) (Van Gaever *et al*, 2009) and is also reported to be abundant in sulphidic, shallow-water  
400 habitats (Heip *et al*, 1985; Vranken *et al*, 1988). Apparently, nematode of this genus are tolerant of  
401 harsh biochemical conditions that are often lethal to other meiofaunal organisms. In addition,  
402 nematode assemblages in the CCFZ-E area showed a distinct temporal shift in the suite of dominants,  
403 from *Terschellingia* in samples from the first (1995) campaign to Desmoscolecidae in the subsequent  
404 (1997) sampling programme. This was probably a response to a phytodetritus sedimentation event, the  
405 signature of which was detected in the sediment (Radziejewska, 2002).

406  
407 **Seeps and hydrothermal vents** Relatively high abundances of certain nematode genera was  
408 occasionally observed at hydrothermal vents and more commonly at seeps. In particular, the Nordic  
409 cold seep was characterized by higher densities of *Halomonhystera* (Van Gaever *et al*, 2006) as well  
410 as by *Terschellingia*, although at lower densities (Van Gaever *et al*, 2009). The cold seep in the Gulf  
411 of Guinea was characterized by the dominance of *Sabatieria* (Van Gaever *et al*, in press). High  
412 densities of *Thalassomonhystera*, *Halomonhystera* and *Anticoma* were particularly characteristic of  
413 hydrothermal vents. *Thalassomonhystera* is a typical soft bottom deep-sea genus, but the other genera  
414 are mostly rare in deep-sea sediments and are known to attain high abundance and dominance in  
415 shallow waters (Heip *et al* 1985). In particular, *Sabatieria* occurs at higher abundances along the shelf  
416 and upper slope but gradually disappears almost completely in well-oxygenated soft sediments below  
417 2000 m, corresponding with a decreasing flux of organic matter (Soetaert & Heip 1995; Vanaverbeke  
418 *et al*, 1997). There are different possible explanations for their presence in the reduced conditions of a  
419 seep environment; for example, their relatively larger body size may be an advantage for tolerating  
420 low oxygen availability (Jensen, 1987). As already observed for other marine nematode genera (Ott *et*  
421 *al*, 2004), symbioses with sulphur-oxidizing chemoautotrophic bacteria are another adaptation for  
422 survival in seeps and hydrothermal vents. However, there is presently little evidence of symbiosis in  
423 deep-sea nematodes associated with reduced environments.

424 Some seep microhabitats, in particular the well-oxygenated sediment underneath siboglinid  
425 tubeworm patches, are inhabited by a genus-rich nematode assemblage composed of genera similar to  
426 those of the slope sediments. Here, genera such as *Acantholaimus*, *Halalaimus* and  
427 *Thalassomonhystera* are present in high numbers. Cold seeps therefore harbor a wide variety of  
428 nematode assemblages.

429  
430 **Canyons** These large-scale geomorphological features disrupt the monotony of the seafloor and create  
431 another source of spatial heterogeneity in the deep sea.. Canyon samples included in this analysis

432 covered the Western Iberian Margin (Nazaré Canyon) (Ingels *et al*, 2009), the Mediterranean Sea  
433 (Samaria Canyon) (Lampadariou, unpubl) and the West-African coast (Zaire Canyon) (Van Gaever *et*  
434 *al*, in press). Canyons are normally characterized by an extraordinary topographic and hydrodynamic  
435 complexity, which is peculiar to each site and time scale (de Stigter *et al*, 2007). Highly active axes  
436 and the relatively undisturbed areas, such as the terraces beside the active channels, result in very  
437 contrasting environmental conditions (see also Ingels *et al*, 2009). We might expect that nematode  
438 assemblages would respond to the conditions prevailing in each sub-habitat and hence exhibit  
439 considerable variability. From the present study, it was indeed clear that heterogeneity in canyons is  
440 high, as illustrated by the low similarity value of 27.9 %, reflecting their extreme environmental  
441 complexity that drives variability on various spatial and temporal scales (Canals *et al*, 2006; de Stigter  
442 *et al*, 2007). In particular, the highly active canyon axes and the more undisturbed terraces yield  
443 nematode communities that are very different in terms of their abundance, composition and diversity  
444 (Ingels *et al*, 2009; Garcia *et al*, 2007). This is consistent with the ANOSIM tests indicating that  
445 canyon assemblages differed significantly from those of the other habitats, except for the slope.  
446 Although there was a strong overlap between canyons and slope communities, nematode assemblages  
447 in canyons were characterised by a larger number of dominant genera such as *Daptonema* (4.5%),  
448 *Paralongicyatholaimus* (4.3%), *Pomponema* (3.5%), *Dichromadora* (3.5%), *Elzalia* (3.3%),  
449 *Halalaimus* (3.1%) and *Acantholaimus* (3.0%). This probably reflects the generally harsh canyon  
450 conditions, which lead to an increase in dominance and lower evenness. In contrast to sediments from  
451 coral rubbles, sponges, seamounts and nodules areas, the sedimentary properties in canyons are more  
452 similar to those of soft, regular sediments.

453 **Trenches** Only data from the Atacama Trench (Gambi *et al*, 2003) were used in this analysis. This is  
454 an atypical hadal system, characterized by close proximity to the continent (ca 80 km) and a location  
455 directly beneath one of the largest upwelling regions (Peru-Chile upwelling system). This specific  
456 geographic setting imparts the characteristics of a eutrophic system, with extremely high  
457 concentrations of nutritionally-rich organic matter (i.e. chlorophyll-a and proteins; Danovaro *et al*,  
458 2002, 2003). It is therefore too early to attempt to establish a general pattern for nematodes in  
459 trenches. For example, nematode assemblage composition (not included here) has been analysed from  
460 only two other hadal systems (the Puerto Rico and the South Sandwich trenches). While genus  
461 richness decreased significantly from the slope to hadal depths in all three trenches (Tietjen 1989;  
462 Gambi *et al*, 2003; Vanhove *et al*, 2004), genus composition varied significantly and each system was  
463 characterized by different dominant genera (Gambi *et al*, 2003). Studies carried out in the Venezuela  
464 Basin and Puerto Rico Trench suggest that the decrease in nematode biodiversity at hadal depths  
465 reflected, in addition to the reduced food availability, lower heterogeneity in sediment texture (Tietjen,  
466 1984; 1989). The more heterogeneous substrates at bathyal depths could be responsible for a higher  
467 number of microhabitats and hence an increase of nematode diversity (Tietjen 1984). The role of  
468 microhabitat heterogeneity is potentially important also in the Atacama Trench, where the rather

469 homogeneous sediments at hadal depths hosted approximately 40% fewer genera than at bathyal sites,  
470 where sediments were more heterogeneous (Gambi *et al*, 2003). The inaccessibility of hadal sediments  
471 makes fine-scale spatial studies, and a detailed analysis of microhabitat heterogeneity, difficult.  
472 Further studies are needed to clarify the influence of habitat heterogeneity on nematode biodiversity at  
473 hadal depths.

474

475 **Abyssal** In comparison to the slope environment, the vast abyss also represents a peculiar habitat for  
476 the fauna (Rex *et al*, 2005; Smith *et al*, 2008). The abyss mainly differs from the other habitats  
477 considered here in having low current velocity, sediments consisting mainly of fine sand and clay, and  
478 habitat heterogeneity created by biogenic structures, such as the tests of giant protozoans and the  
479 burrows, mounds and tracks of megabenthos (for review see Smith *et al*, 2008). The abyss is normally  
480 characterized by a distinct macro- and mega-faunal community structure (Rex *et al*, 2005, Brandt *et al*,  
481 2007, Smith *et al*, 2008). For nematodes, this is only partly true since the ANOSIM did not show that  
482 the abyssal assemblages differed significantly from slope assemblages. However, the abyssal samples  
483 contained several (16) additional genera not yet recorded from the slope. Nematode assemblages in  
484 this habitat are dominated by deposit-feeding genera. In most of the abyssal areas studied (Arctic  
485 Ocean, North Atlantic, Northeast tropical Atlantic, Southeast tropical Atlantic, Southern Atlantic,  
486 Northeast tropical Pacific), the dominant taxa are the Monhysteridae (including *Thalassomonhystera*,  
487 *Monhystrella*), *Halalaimus* and *Acantholaimus*. Apart from the unvarying dominance of  
488 Monhysterids, the identity of sub-dominant abyssal nematode taxa seems to be related to the surface  
489 primary production. It has already been observed that higher fluxes of particulate-organic carbon  
490 promote changes in polychaetes and nematode assemblages in the equatorial Pacific (Smith *et al*,  
491 1997, Lamshead *et al*, 2002). However, primary productivity is not the sole factor since we also  
492 observed that areas characterized by similar primary production levels (Northeast tropical Atlantic and  
493 Northwest tropical Atlantic) showed different sets of dominant and subdominant nematode genera. In  
494 this case, other environmental factors may be involved.

495

## 496 **Conclusions**

497 It is apparent from this study that habitat heterogeneity in the deep sea is important for global  
498 nematode diversity. However, the question of the extent to which habitat heterogeneity contributes to  
499 global diversity has no single answer. It was confirmed by this analysis that many deep-sea nematode  
500 genera are cosmopolitan, inhabiting a variety of deep-sea habitats and oceans, while only 21 % of all  
501 deep-sea genera recorded are restricted to a single habitat. Furthermore the genera restricted to one  
502 habitat are never dominant or generally present in all samples within a habitat, suggesting that their  
503 presence or absence may be random rather than a selective colonization of particular habitats. On the  
504 other hand different habitats, such as cold seeps, hydrothermal vents, cold water corals and nodule  
505 areas, do show typical nematode assemblages with dominant genera that are rare in other habitats.

506 Factors such as increased substrate complexity in the case of nodules and corals, or strong biochemical  
507 gradients in the case of vents or seeps, seem to be responsible for the success of particular genera,  
508 which are not prominent in 'normal' soft sediments. Furthermore, clear shifts in the relative  
509 proportions of the dominant genera were observed between soft-sediment habitats from the shelf to  
510 hadal depths. In this case we can conclude that different deep-sea habitats harbour specific nematode  
511 assemblages, but that few genera are restricted to one habitat. The soft sediments of the slope are  
512 responsible for more than 60 % of all the habitat-restricted genera. However, it must be born in mind  
513 that many other habitats, including nodule areas, corals, seamounts, canyons and trenches, remain  
514 under-sampled. In terms of local diversity, the nodule areas and coral rubble samples emerge as  
515 habitats where most genera co-exist in equal proportions. In both cases, the added complexity of the  
516 substrate facilitates the occurrence of sediment-dwelling as well as epifaunal taxa in the same  
517 environment.

518

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529 Fig. 1. World map showing location of the sampling areas classified according to macrohabitat

530

531 Fig. 2. Overview of deep-sea habitat diversity. (A) soft sediment in the Nazaré Canyon; (B) cold-water  
532 corals; (C) *Beggiatoa* mats at the Håkon Mosby Mud Volcano (© Ifremer Vicking 2006); (D) pingo  
533 colonised by siboglinid tube worms at Nyegga (© Ifremer Vicking 2006); (E,F) manganese nodule  
534 areas (E and F; © Ifremer Nodinaut 2004).

535

536 Fig 3 Average relative abundances of genera present in more than 8 macrohabitats and dominant (>5  
537 %) in at least one of the habitats

538

539 Fig. 4. MDS ordination of 542 samples based on nematode genus percentage abundance using the  
540 Bray Curtis similarity index, with symbols indicating the designated macrohabitats

541

542 Fig. 5. Average relative abundances (%) of the main genera responsible for the similarity within a  
543 habitat and the dissimilarity between each habitat and the slope, as identified by SIMPER analysis.

544 HV = hydrothermal vents.

545

546 Fig 6: Expected number of genera (EG(51)) per sample (black dots). Averages and  
547 standard deviations shown by the vertical bars with error bars (for number of samples per  
548 macrohabitat see Table 2)

549

550 Fig. 7 (A): Total genus diversity. (B): Expected number of genera (EG(100)) of the slope habitat and  
551 the slope combined with each of the other macrohabitats. All samples per macrohabitat are pooled.

552

553

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<b>Habitat</b>	<b>Substrate</b>	<b>Topography</b>	<b>Biochemistry</b>	<b>Depth</b>	<b>Connectivity</b>	<b>Distribution</b>
Shelf	Soft sediments	Flat		< 200m	High	Common
Slope	Soft sediments	Regular		200–4100m	High	Common
Abyssal	Soft sediments	Flat		> 4100m	High	Common
Nodules	Mn nodules on sediments	Flat		> 4100m	Low	Rare
Corals	Coral and other biogenic rubble	Mounds			Low	Medium
Canyons	Sediments	Channel and terraces			Low	Common
Seeps	Soft sediments	Pockmarks or mud volcanoes	Sulphidic and methanic		Low	Rare
Hydrothermal vents	Sediments, Mussel beds	Ridge or rise	Sulphidic		Low	Rare
Seamounts	Sediments	Mounts			Medium	Medium
Trenches	Sediments			> 6000 m	Extreme low	Rare

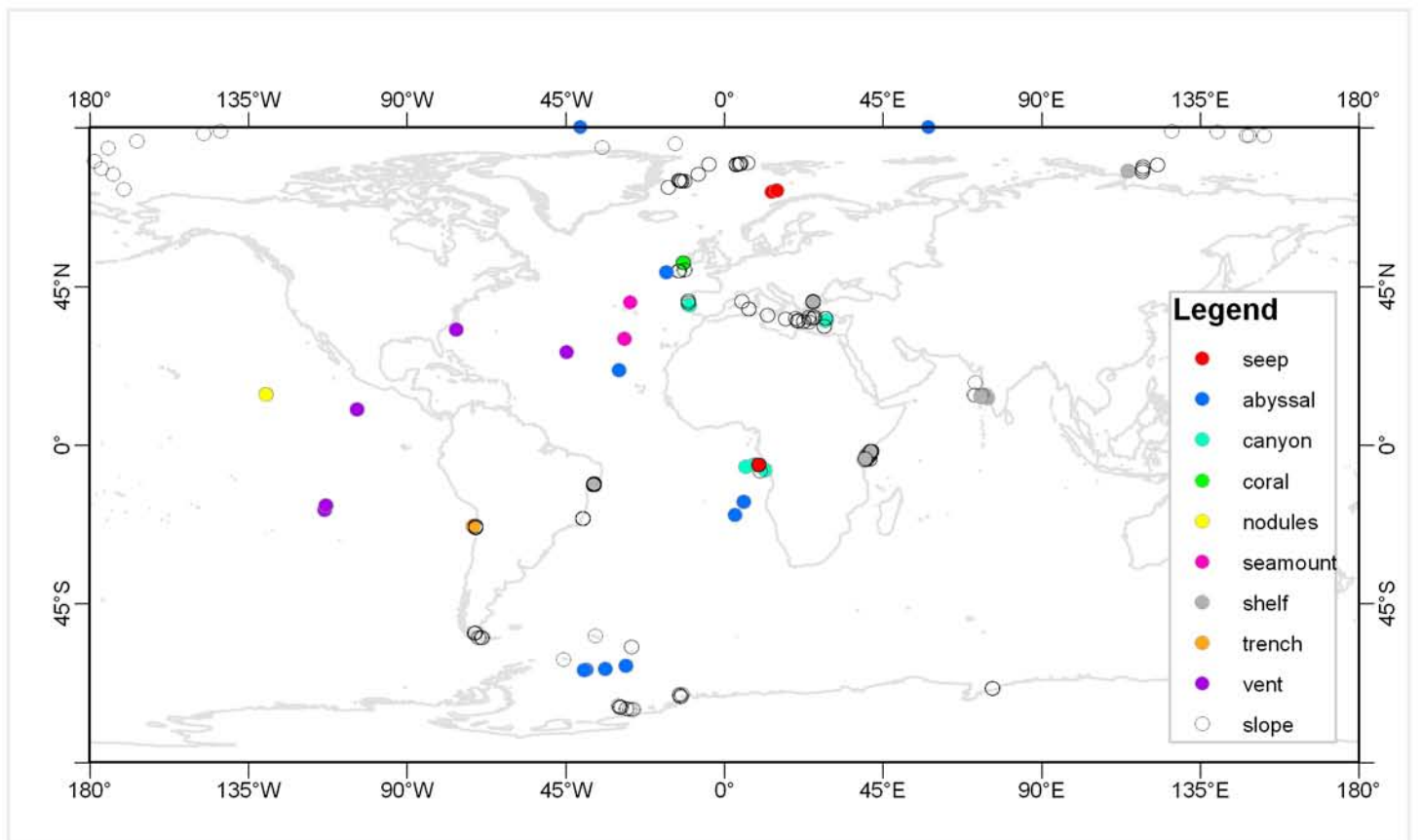
Table 1: Basic criteria used to identify the 10 main macrohabitats.

<b>Habitat</b>	<b>Total nr of genera</b>	<b>Nr of habitat-restricted genera</b>	<b>Nr of samples analysed</b>
Shelf	210	2	43
Slope	325	48	355
Abyssal	143	11	25
Nodules	90	9	14
Corals	112	2	22
Canyons	130	2	15
Seeps	120	1	26
Vents	31	2	36
Seamounts	33	0	3
Trenches	27	0	3
Total	362		

Table 2 : Total number of genera, number of habitat-restricted genera recorded, and number of samples analysed for the each of the 10 macrohabitats

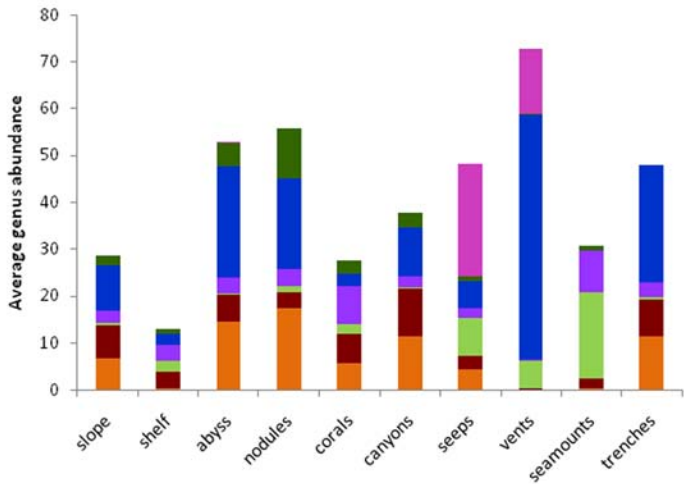
	<b>slope</b>	<b>shelf</b>	<b>abyss</b>	<b>nodules</b>	<b>corals</b>	<b>canyons</b>	<b>seeps</b>	<b>vents</b>	<b>seamounts</b>	<b>trenches</b>
<i>Acantholaimus</i>	6,67	0,65	14,49	17,44	5,62	11,57	4,32	0,54	0,53	11,57
<i>Halalaimus</i>	7,20	3,22	5,72	3,43	6,37	10,06	3,08	0,08	2,15	7,77
<i>Desmodora</i>	0,55	2,27	0,50	1,28	2,03	0,18	7,95	5,66	18,19	0,36
<i>Desmoscolex</i>	2,59	3,51	3,30	3,54	8,14	2,36	2,00	0,24	8,87	3,30
<i>Thalassomonhystera</i>	9,65	2,21	23,80	19,47	2,52	10,38	5,80	52,39		24,85
<i>Theristus</i>	1,99	1,10	4,91	10,67	3,07	3,27	0,98	0,05	0,97	
<i>Microlaimus</i>	2,48	4,13	7,91	1,79	1,30	7,87	4,46			8,84
<i>Daptonema</i>	5,51	4,67	2,69	1,23	0,51	3,13	2,29			6,24
<i>Ceramonema</i>	0,13	0,16	0,10	0,32	3,55	0,02			9,49	
<i>Sabatieria</i>	8,71	11,32			1,91	2,40	12,97	2,37		
<i>Anticoma</i>	0,22			0,67	4,44		0,23	9,05		
<i>Richtersia</i>	0,27	0,88			0,23	0,40			10,88	
<i>Epsilonema</i>	0,04	0,00			4,70	0,89	0,55		0,85	
<i>Halomonhystera</i>			0,06				24,08	13,67		
<i>Marisalbinema</i>			0,01	4,83			0,02			

Table 3: Average relative abundances (%) per habitat of the genera dominantly responsible for the similarities within habitats and the dissimilarity between each macrohabitat and the slope habitat based on a SIMPER analysis.









*Halomonhystera*

*Theristus*

*Thalassomonhystera*

*Desmoscolex*

*Desmodora*

*Halalaimus*

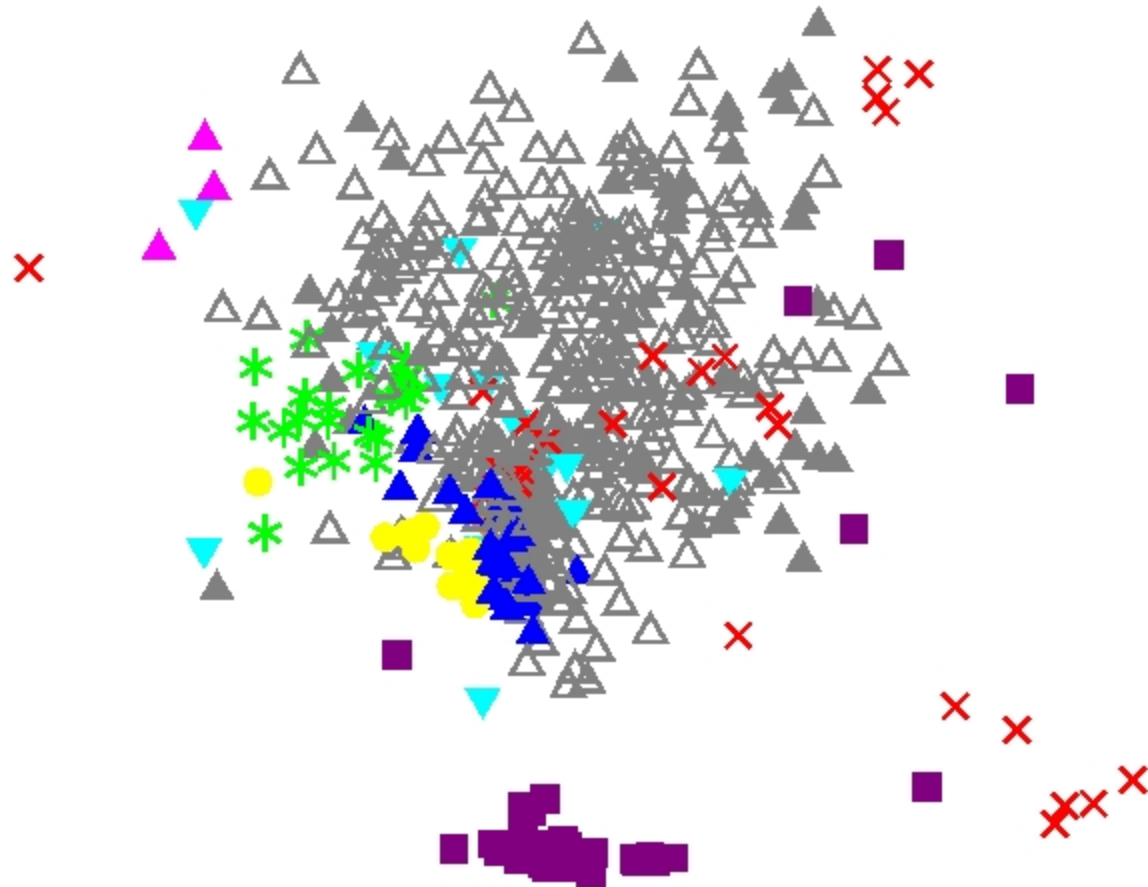
*Acantholaimus*

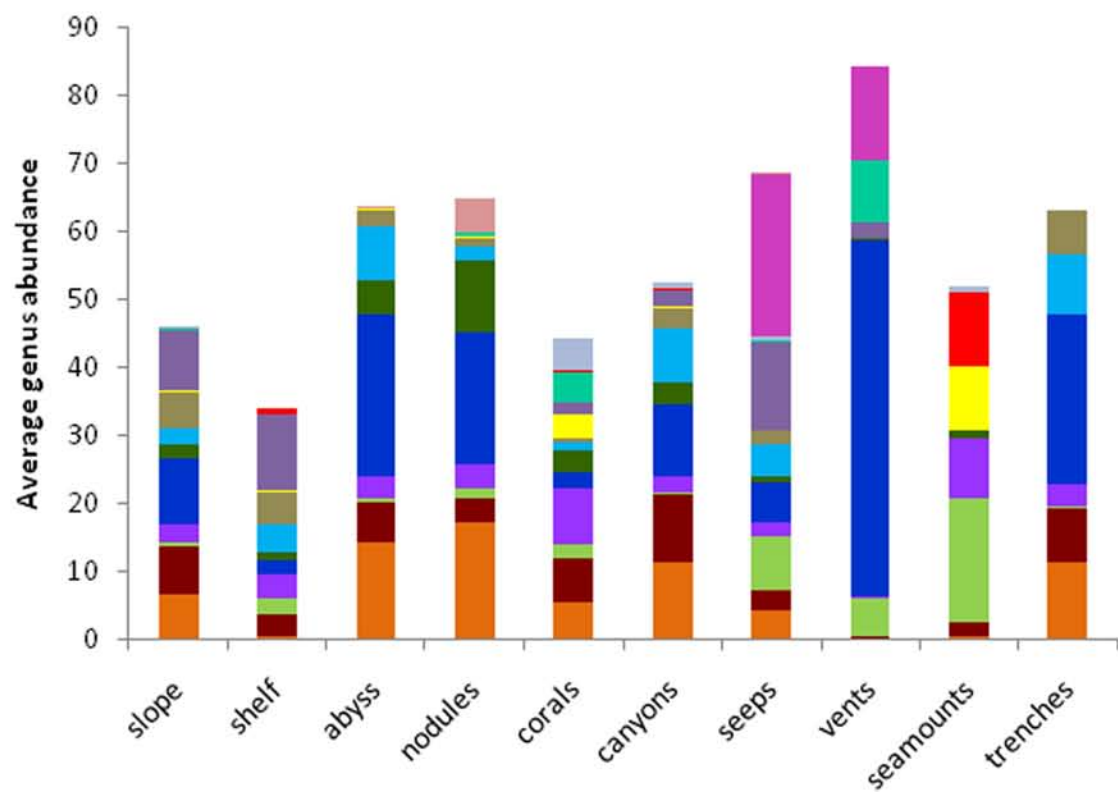
Standardise Samples by Total  
Resemblance: S17 Bray Curtis similarity

2D Stress: 0,23

*habitat*

- ▲ shelf
- △ slope
- nodules
- ◆ trench
- ▼ canyons
- ▲ abyss
- × seeps
- \* corals
- ▲ seamounts
- vents





*Marisalbinema*

*Halomonhystera*

*Epsilonema*

*Richtersia*

*Anticomma*

*Sabatieria*

*Ceramonema*

*Daptonema*

*Microlaimus*

*Theristus*

*Thalassomonhystera*

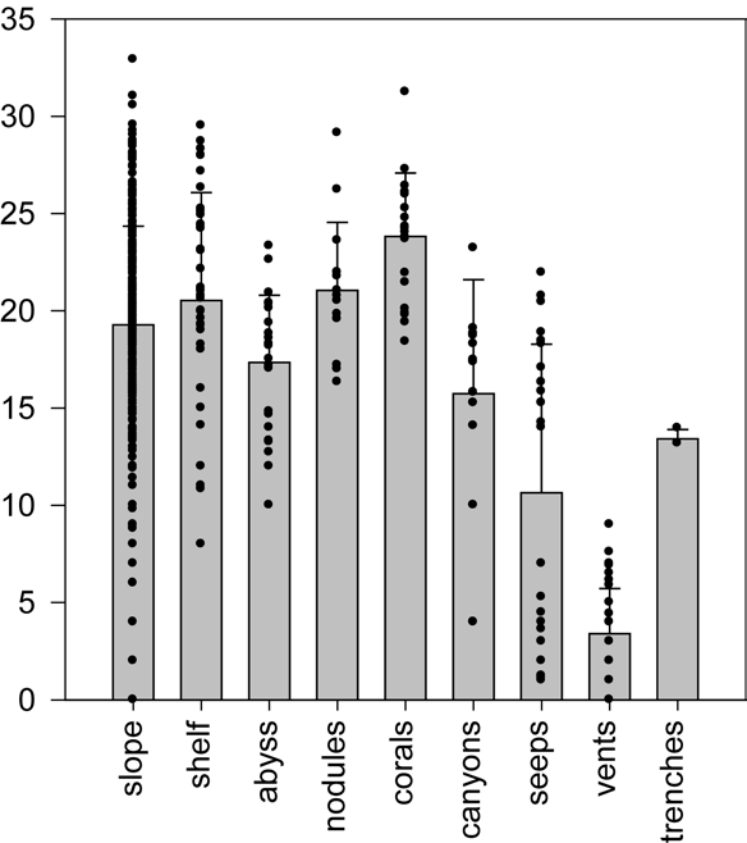
*Desmoscolex*

*Desmodora*

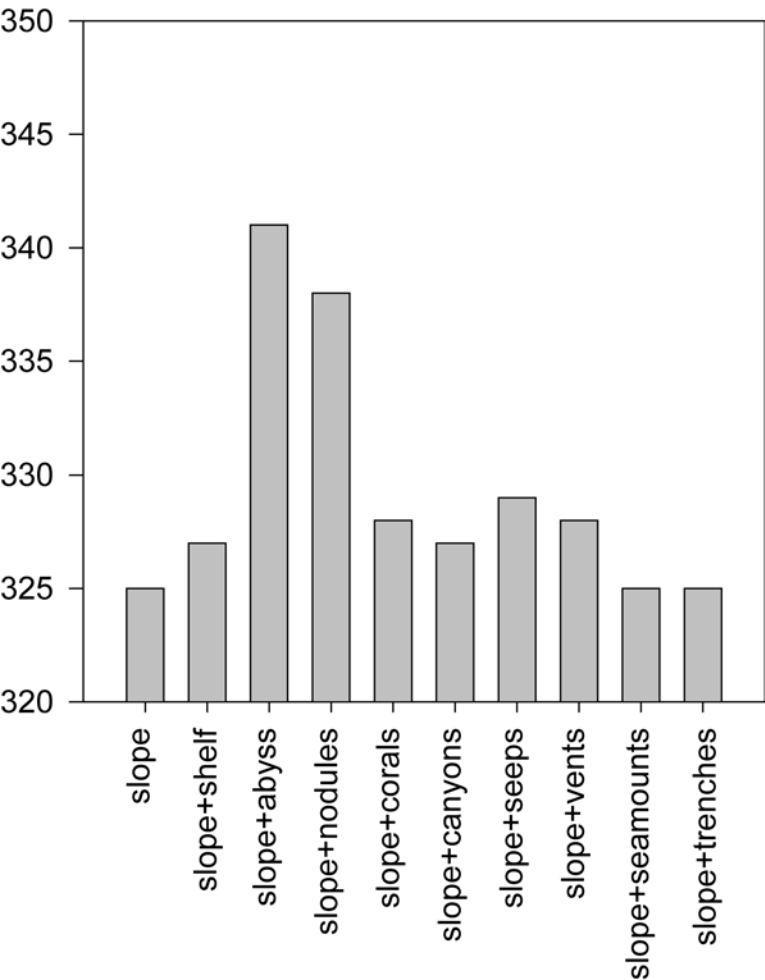
*Halalaimus*

*Acantholaimus*

# EG(51)



# Genus Richness



# EG(100)

