## Macrobenthic communities of sub-Arctic deep fjords: composition, spatial patterns and community assembly

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FACULTY OF BIOSCIENCES AND AQUACULTURE



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### Preface

The thesis is submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Philosophiae Doctor (PhD) at the faculty of Biosciences and Aquaculture (FBA), Nord University. The presented original research was performed at Nord University, Bodø.

The project team consisted of the following members:

Valentin Kokarev, MSc, FBA, Nord University: PhD student
Henning Reiss, Associate Professor, FBA, Nord University: primary supervisor
Sylvie Bolla, Associate Professor, FBA, Nord University: co-supervisor
Eivind Oug, Research scientist, Norwegian Institute for Water Research: co-supervisor



Valentin Kokarev

Bodø, August, 2021

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#### Abstract

There is a well-established link between biodiversity and ecosystem properties, including functioning and stability. Biodiversity estimates such as species richness are not standalone entities but rather properties of biological communities. Therefore, understanding of assembly and dynamics of these communities is essential to comprehend patterns of biodiversity and how they can be affected by human impacts. Macrobenthic communities are an important component of marine habitats, which contribute to various ecological processes on the seafloor such as organic matter remineralisation. Despite their important ecological role, there is a major gap in knowledge on macrobenthic diversity and community assembly in deep sub-Arctic fjords that limits the understanding of these depositional habitats.

The aim of the present thesis is to investigate the structure of macrobenthic communities in eight deep sub-Arctic fjord basins (>290 m) located in the Vestfjord region (Norwegian coast). In general, the composition of macrobenthos was similar to other deep depositional environments influenced by Atlantic water masses, such as deep boreal fjords in Western Norway and deep Skagerrak. However, considerable differences were observed in macrobenthic community structure between shallow-silled and deep-silled fjords, which were characterised by distinct bottom water masses. Shallow sill hampers the inflow of more saline and warmer Atlantic water masses, and, therefore, acts as a hydrological barrier that limits dispersal of macrobenthic taxa. Some species recorded only in shallow-silled basins might be isolated populations which distributions are restricted to colder bottom water masses. Biological trait composition revealed that, generally, basins with a shallow sill have a higher proportion of deep-dwelling subsurface deposit feeding fauna, indicating differences in benthic functioning.

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Further strong community differentiation was observed even among fjords with similar levels of water exchange with surrounding waters on approximately a basin scale. These communities were characterised by different levels of diversity and redundancy, suggesting that ecosystem functioning in some basins is more vulnerable to species loss. Within one studied fjord, local organic input from a fish farm seemed to have a minor impact on the sediment organic matter in the deep basin. However, most macrofaunal taxa showed clear trophic niche separation, possibly indicating the importance of biological interactions and resource partitioning for the community structure. I suggest that low connectivity among basins/fjord systems, and particularly the presence of dispersal barriers such as a shallow sill, results in independent community assembly and, consequently, among-basin macrobenthos variation. This finding indicates that ecological processes in closely situated fjords are only weakly interconnected.

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## List of papers

**Paper I**. Jordà Molina È, Silberberger MJ, Kokarev V, Reiss H (2019) Environmental drivers of benthic community structure in a deep sub-arctic fjord system. Estuar Coast Shelf Sci 225:106239.

**Paper II**. Kokarev V, Tachon M, Austad M, McGovern M, Reiss H (2021) Strong macrobenthic community differentiation among sub-Arctic deep fjords on small spatial scales. Estuar Coast Shelf Sci 252:107271.

Paper III. Kokarev V, Oug E, Reiss H Combining species and biological trait composition to assess macrobenthic community assembly in deep sub-Arctic fjords. Manuscript.

**Paper IV**. Kokarev V, Bolla S, Reiss H Combining stable isotope and fatty acid analyses to assess trophic niches of macrofauna in an anthropogenically influenced deep fjord basin. Manuscript.

#### 1. Introduction

Most ecosystem functions and services that benefit society rely upon biodiversity (Palumbi et al., 2009; Strong et al., 2015), which is a major determinant of the main ecosystem properties, including productivity, stability, and nutrient dynamics (Tilman et al., 2014). Biodiversity patterns can be altered by global stressors, such as ocean warming and acidification, together with local stressors, such as eutrophication (Doney, 2010; Hoegh-Guldberg and Bruno, 2010; Nagelkerken and Connell, 2015). Changes in biodiversity affect ecosystem functioning often with unknown consequences (Gamfeldt et al., 2015; Bulling et al., 2010). While the majority of the studies focus on the local biodiversity, little is known how broader spatial context influences community assembly and the resulting biodiversity-ecosystem functioning relationships (Leibold et al., 2017).

Community structure in marine ecosystems can be significantly altered due to expected shifts in the distribution of species associated with increasing temperature as well as climate-driven extinctions and invasions (Cheung et al., 2009; Doney et al., 2012; Molinos et al., 2016; Weinert et al., 2021). Thus, it is important to understand the processes underlying the formation of local biodiversity and communities to better understand the current patterns and, consequently, to predict future changes due to altered climate or other anthropogenic impacts. Macrobenthos is an ecosystem component that plays a key role in marine ecosystems, although its importance for ecosystem functioning is often underestimated (Norling et al., 2007; Woodin et al., 2016; Snelgrove et al., 2018). Moreover, changes in macrobenthic communities reflect ecosystem processes on various spatial scales integrated over time, and macrobenthos is widely used for environmental monitoring (Borja et al., 2009; Węsławski et al., 2011; Grebmeier et al., 2012; Rice et al., 2012). Therefore, studying the drivers that determine spatial distribution and community assembly of macrobenthos can

provide essential knowledge for both understanding marine ecosystem functioning as well as providing a baseline for detecting changes in the marine environment and decoupling such changes from natural variability.

#### **1.1.** Diversity of soft-bottom macrobenthos

Benthos comprises all organisms that live in direct association with the seafloor. Macrobenthos can be distinguished based on the size class (500  $\mu$ m- 5 cm) or a taxonomic basis (Gray and Elliot, 2009). Taxonomically macrobenthos is a very diverse ecosystem component with polychaetes, crustaceans, molluscs, and echinoderms being the most species-rich groups (Snelgrove et al., 1997). The species diversity of soft-bottom macrobenthos is hard to estimate as new species are constantly described even from well-studied areas. Many species have restricted distributional ranges and/or lower abundances ("rare species"), therefore, limited sampling effort might result in underestimation of species richness (Ellingsen, 2001; Ellingsen et al., 2007). Moreover, previously reported species appear to comprise high levels of cryptic diversity discovered with molecular markers, especially for polychaetes (e.g. Braiser et al., 2016; Nygren et al., 2018). Cryptic species might have high morphological similarity yet have some other adaptations to the environment, e.g. physiological, that would result in different responses to various stressor impacts, and, consequently, might not be entirely ecologically equal (Feckler et al., 2014). While molecular markers show an increased potential in biodiversity studies, particularly for the inventory of cryptic biodiversity, the lack of molecular data is hampering its wider use to date (Hestetun et al., 2020). Thus, currently, morphological identifications remain the main tool for biodiversity assessment of macrofauna, although the species richness might be underestimated due to the complicated taxonomy of some groups and the presence of species, that are not morphologically delimited.

Nevertheless, the functional role of macrofauna, e.g. their feeding behaviour, can be inferred from morphology (Snelgrove et al., 1997). This comes from the assumption that phylogenetically related species show to some extent conservatism of an ecological niche (Webb et al., 2002), and, therefore, representatives of the same genus/family would have similar traits. For instance, the well-developed feeding guild classification of polychaetes shows that the lifestyles of representatives of the same family are often similar (Jumars et al., 2015). The diversity of feeding habits within other major macrobenthic groups is also well-documented (Arruda et al., 2003; Scipione, 2013; Jangoux and Lawrence, 1982). Apart from feeding, various morphological, behavioural and life history traits of macrobenthic species have been used to describe functional role of macrofauna (Bremner et al., 2006; Beauchard et al., 2018; Degen et al., 2018). Therefore, macrofaunal diversity and community composition can be perceived through two different approaches: species diversity as a number of species/operational taxonomic units found in a specific locality and functional diversity as the range of functional niches occupied by these species.

#### 1.2. Biological traits of macrobenthos

A trait is a well-defined property of an organism that is comparable among species (McGill et al., 2006). Recently, the use of traits to understand species-environment relationships considerably increased in marine community ecology (Beauchard et al., 2017). Communities may converge in trait composition but diverge in species composition, as the latter is more influenced by historical contingencies, while trait composition of a community better reflects adaptations to the environment (Fukami et al., 2005). Thus, trait approaches might allow for better generalisations and comparison, especially among different biogeographic regions with different species pools (Bremner et al., 2006). As mentioned above, various morphological,

behavioural, and life history traits are used to describe the functional role of macrofauna. Traits, expressed by macrofauna, are associated with different ecosystem functions and properties such as energy and nutrient cycling, secondary production, stability, and heterogeneity (Bremner et al., 2006, Bremner, 2008; Degen et al., 2018). The combination of morphological traits (e.g. body size, body design) and behavioural traits (e.g. feeding habit, living habit) can be used to classify species into functional (resource use) guilds (Wilson, 1999). Together these characteristics qualitatively describe the ability of a given animal to process or redistribute sedimentary particles (Aller, 1977). Therefore, species that share traits, or belong to the same functional guild, are ecologically similar in the way they utilise resources and modify their habitat, and, therefore, contribute similarly to the ecosystem functioning.

The number of species within a functional guild, known as functional redundancy, is an important ecosystem property, as it provides robustness of ecosystem processes in case of species loss (Naeem, 1998; Hooper et al., 2005; Micheli and Halpern, 2005). In case of species loss, ecologically similar species might occupy the newly available vacant niches as the realized niche of a species is generally narrower compared to its fundamental niche as the result of competition and resource partitioning (McGill et al., 2006). Therefore, it is vital to understand the variety of responses to an environmental disturbance among species within the same functional guild, termed as "response diversity" (Elmqvist et al., 2003). For instance, species within the same functional guild can respond differently to hypoxia (Diaz and Rosenberg, 1995). Thus, higher functional redundancy possibly ensures ecosystem functioning in a changing environment, but only if species from the same functional guild differ in their response diversity. Currently little is known about the functional redundancy of macrobenthic communities, but previous studies suggested low functional redundancy of marine macrobenthic communities (Micheli and Halpern, 2005; Kokarev et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2019).

Historically, many functional classifications of macrobenthos were related to trophic/feeding groups, and the trait "feeding mode/habit" is the most frequent trait used in functional studies of macrobenthos (Lam-Gordillo et al., 2020). Macrobenthic feeding habits are diverse, including microphages (suspension, surface deposit, and subsurface deposit feeders) and macrophages (carnivores, herbivores, and omnivores) (Jumars et al., 2015). Soft bottom macrobenthic communities are typically dominated either by suspension or deposit feeders that rely on various food sources such as plankton-derived detritus or bacteria associated with sediment organic matter (Levinton, 1972). Both groups utilise a high ratio of mineral to organic particles (Aller, 1977). Therefore, indirect methods such as stable isotope and fatty acid analyses are often used to assess food sources that are assimilated by benthic consumers (Dang et al., 2009; North et al., 2014; Blanchet-Aurigny et al., 2015; Rossi et al., 2015). Stable isotopes of carbon and nitrogen are often used to characterize the trophic niche of a species, particularly carbon sources and trophic levels (Newsome et al., 2007). Fatty acids are used as dietary markers for different food sources such as phytoplankton, bacteria macroalgae, and vascular plants (Kelly and Scheibling, 2012). These methods can provide useful information on resource partitioning of species with similar feeding habits (Karlson et al., 2015; Richoux et al., 2014), and, thus, contribute to a better understanding of macrobenthic community organization through accounting for information that cannot be assessed through traits classifications only.

Many processes during community assembly might be influenced by dispersal (Leibold et al., 2004; Heino et al., 2015). Therefore, traits related to the dispersal capabilities of a species might but not directly associated with resource use might be also important to understand community patterns. For instance, the importance of competition in structuring communities might be overridden by high dispersal (Gravel et al., 2006). Therefore, life history traits, particularly larval type, might be important for understanding spatial patterns in community ecology as long-living

pelagic larvae allow for higher dispersal capabilities (Mileikovsky, 1971; Fetzer and Arntz, 2008).

#### **1.3.** From species to communities: community assembly

The definition of a community has a long history in marine ecology related to the debates whether communities are discrete systems or represent a continua along environmental gradients (Mills, 1969). It seems impossible to define what a community is without understanding the mechanisms of its formation and organization. A community forms from species that can potentially colonise a habitat, referred to as species pool, which on a large scale is influenced by evolutionary and historical processes (Carstensen et al., 2013; Mittelbach and Schemske 2015). For instance, the species composition and speciation of amphi-boreal fauna were influenced by trans-Arctic dispersal events of the past (Laakkonen et al., 2020). Modern distribution of biogeographical boundaries largely corresponds to the distribution of water masses with different properties, particularly, temperature, and might reflect physiological adaptations of species as well as dispersal with major currents (Gaylord and Gaines, 2000; Clarke, 2003; Clarke et al., 2020).

Two main processes contribute to community assembly from the available pool of species: environmental filtering and competitive exclusion (Götzenberger et al., 2012; Kraft et al., 2015). Early studies of benthic communities suggested that similar environmental conditions, e.g. depth and sediment type, would be inhabited by similar or "parallel" communities with dominant species being biogeographic variants of the same genus (Thorson, 1966). Sediment properties are related to near-bed flow conditions, which determine grain size as well as food and larvae supply, all being important factors for the distribution of macrobenthos (Snelgrove and Butman,

1994). For some localities, sediment grain size alone correlates well with the distribution of macrobenthic communities (e.g. Degraer et al., 2008). However, many benthic species are able to colonize different types of sediment (Wu and Shin, 1997), suggesting that the grain size has an indirect influence on benthic community structure, which could potentially include the influence on competition outcome among species. Competition among benthic invertebrates is documented (Wilson, 1990), which implies that some degree of niche differentiation and resource partitioning among coexisting species is present in natural communities in accordance with the limiting similarity principle (Abrams, 1983; Götzenberger et al., 2012). The possible niche differentiation/resource partitioning mechanisms include trophic niche separation by utilizing qualitatively different resources (Blanchet-Aurigny et al., 2015) or selecting for different particle sizes of sediment (Whitlatch, 1980), sediment dwelling depth (Hughes, 1979; Lopez and Elmgren, 1989), spatial avoidance of overlapping in feeding area on sediment surface (Dauer et al., 1981) and association with different habitat patches caused by activities of ecosystem engineers (Donadi et al., 2015). Although environmental filtering clearly affects the distribution of macrofauna, especially when major disturbance events select for species with specific traits, e.g. hypoxia (Diaz and Rosenberg, 1995; Levin et al., 2009), salinity fluctuations (van der Linden et al., 2012), glacier and terrestrial sedimentation (Wlodarska-Kowalczuk et al., 2005; Kokarev et al., 2017; McGovern et al., 2020), it is not always possible to distinguish its effects from biological interactions. Kraft et al. (2015) suggested to use the term "environmental filtering" only when abiotic environment hampers an establishment of a species population in a particular habitat in absence of other competitors. The term "species sorting" is often used to describe the combined effects of biotic and abiotic factors along environmental/resource gradient (Leibold et al., 2004).

Both competitive exclusion and environmental filtering can be considered deterministic factors, in a sense that in environmentally similar habitats that share

a pool of species, the resulting communities should be similar. This is opposed to recognized stochasticity during community assembly that results in community divergence and higher species turnover (beta diversity) across similar habitats than can be expected from deterministic outcome only (Chase, 2007; Chase and Myers, 2011). The stochasticity in community assembly includes fluctuations in populations due to demographic stochasticity, termed "ecological drift", as well as the order of species colonising the habitat, termed "priority effects" (Orrock and Watling, 2010; Fukami, 2015). Ecological drift might override results of competition, particularly in smaller communities (Orrock and Watling, 2010). Priority effects reflect the influence of immigration history on community assembly on species composition as early arriving species might occupy and modify available niches preventing late-arriving species from establishing a population (Fukami, 2015). It has been hypothesised that the relative importance of deterministic and stochastic processes depends on the level of disturbance of the habitat since disturbance events would result in a deterministic community assembly due to environmental filtering of species that can tolerate such conditions (Chase, 2007; Lepori and Malmqvist, 2009).

Spatial structure of macrobenthos is linked not only to environmental drivers but also to dispersal processes, suggesting that community assembly should be considered on different spatial scales in accordance with metacommunity theory (Josefson, 2016; Corte et al., 2018; Rao et al., 2020). Metacommunity theory suggests that local communities, where species are directly interacting with each other, are influenced on a larger scale by neighbouring communities through dispersal (Leibold et al., 2004). It has been suggested that in marine coastal ecosystems with high dispersal rates communities may be homogeneous, irrespective of their environmental heterogeneity ("mass effects"; Heino et al., 2015). Thus, community assembly along with deterministic or stochastic processes might be influenced by dispersal abilities of species as well as connectivity among local communities and presence of dispersal barriers. Dispersal patterns are reflected in population

connectivity, which might range from fully open to fully closed (Cowen and Sponaugle, 2009); therefore, understanding processes on a population level might be essential to understand community assembly.

Mills (1969) defined communities as follows: "a group of organisms occurring in a particular environment, presumably, interacting with each other and with the environment, and separable by means of ecological survey from other groups". From a metacommunity point of view, this would be a definition for a local community, but on larger spatial scales these local communities can interact with each other via dispersal. Moreover, local diversity is not formed strictly locally and is influenced by regional diversity, which is shaped by historical evolutionary and ecological processes (Ricklefs, 2007). The relationship between local and regional diversity is well established for macrobenthic communities (Gray, 2002; Gage, 2004). The scheme that represents all possible processes related to community assembly is present in figure 1. However, the relative importance of these processes can be different depending on the studied system.



*Figure 1. Conceptual scheme of community assembly processes. Red arrows indicate deterministic processes, blue ones indicate stochastic processes.* 

#### 1.4. Fjord deep basins as a habitat for benthos

Fjords are deep estuaries located at high latitudes in both hemispheres (Syvitsky et al., 1987). Basins of fjords are considered important coastal areas for carbon cycling due to their relatively high sedimentation rates and organic matter burial in the basins (Faust and Knies, 2019). Generally, such deeper depositional environments differ from other coastal habitats in their benthic community structure and are dominated by deposit feeding fauna (Dauwe et al., 1998). However, several characteristics of fjords distinguish them from depositional environments offshore, particularly, enclosure by land and isolation by a sill at the entrance as well as freshwater runoff. Generally, fjords have three distinct water layers: a surface brackish water layer, the intermediate layer below the brackish layer and above the sill, and deep water trapped below the sill depth (Syvitsky et al., 1987; Inall and Gillibrand, 2010; Aksnes et al., 2019). For some fjords, deep water renewal happens on a yearly scale, which might cause hypoxia in the bottom water layer and reduction of diversity in benthic communities (Diaz and Rosenberg, 1995; Levin et al., 2009). In fjords with high sedimentation rates from glacier/riverine runoff, reduction in diversity may result in environmental filtering of fauna adapted to unstable sediment conditions (Holte and Gulliksen, 1998; Wlodarska-Kowalczuk et al., 2005; McGovern et al., 2020). Habitat deterioration was suggested as the main driver for the observed differences in macrobenthic communities and decreased diversity between Svalbard fjords and the Barents Sea shelf (Włodarska-Kowalczuk et al., 2012). Decreased diversity was also observed in deep fjords of Western Norway which was related to higher fluxes of organic matter compared to habitats offshore that might favour dominance of opportunistic species, although it was acknowledged that shallow sills may act as dispersal barriers for some taxa (Buhl-Mortensen and Høisæter, 1993). In a deep fjord system of New Zealand, basin-scale processes were suggested as main drivers for structuring macrobenthic communities, including local connectivity, disturbance, and productivity, as well as fjord connectivity through the regional species pool (Brewin et al., 2011). Therefore, environmental filtering and connectivity can be proposed as factors structuring basin communities in fjords. But fjords are distributed in a wide range of environmental settings and biogeographic regions, and, consequently, observed patterns might be specific to a study region. The deep basins of fjords, with the depths considerably exceeding the euphotic zone, might share many similarities in ecological processes with deep sea environments (Brattegard, 1980; Witte et al., 2003; Sweetman and Witte, 2008). Well-ventilated sub-euphotic deep basins in boreal and sub-Arctic fjords can be perceived as partially isolated and physically stable habitats for benthos, for which export of labile carbon from overlaying waters might be a major limiting factor (Burrell, 1988). Such systems can be used to study community assembly in deep sea macrobenthos: located in the direct vicinity of each other they share biogeographic species composition and geographical setting, yet each basin can be perceived as a local community due to its partially isolated nature.

#### 1.5. Fjords of Vestfjord region

Vestfjord is a large fjord, located north of the Arctic circle, between mainland Norway and the Lofoten islands (Figure 2). Vestfjord has hydrological characteristics of a bay with two distinct water masses: more saline Atlantic waters are overlayed by water masses brought with the Norwegian Coastal Current that originates from the Baltic Sea (Mitchelson-Jacob and Sundby, 2001). Several fjord systems with deep basins (>300 m) are connected to Vestfjord on the mainland side, including Saltfjord/Skjerstadfjord, Folda, Sagfjord, Tysfjord, and Ofotfjord. The general circulation pattern in Vestfjord follows the Norwegian mainland along the east side and flows out along the Lofoten to the west (Mitchelson-Jacob and Sundby, 2001). This circulation pattern in Vestfjord can be altered by strong winds, and such windinduced circulation influences the water exchange with the mainland fjords: southwesterly winds cause coastal water flow into the mainland fjords and presses the underlying Atlantic water out, while north-easterly winds have the opposite effects (Furnes and Sunby, 1981). Unlike the basins with deep (>200 m) sills, which are characterized by Atlantic basin water masses, shallower sills allow only for inflow of less dense coastal water masses transported with Norwegian Coastal Current (Figure 3; Skreslet et al., 2020). Deep waters show almost no seasonal variation in salinity and temperature but surface water temperature and salinity experience seasonal variation associated with river runoff (Skreslet et al., 2000; Myksvoll et al., 2011). Due to the influence of relatively warm currents, the fjords remain seasonally ice-free. However, seasonality affects the light regime, which changes from dark winters with little light radiation during the Polar night to 24 hours of daylight during the Midnight Sun. This results in a shorter phytoplankton growth season compared to fjords at lower latitudes, but also might affect photoperiod-regulated processes (Eilertsen and Degerlund, 2010). Despite shorter phytoplankton vegetation season, the inflow of nutrient-rich Atlantic water supports high marine productivity in the area that results in comparatively high rates of marine organic carbon burial in the basin of the Vestfjord and adjacent fjord systems (Faust and Knies, 2019).



Figure 2. Map of the study area, showing locations of the sampled basins



Figure 3. A scheme representing the difference between deep-silled (top) and shallowed-silled fjords (bottom) in water exchange: shallow sill hampers inflow of Atlantic water into the basin and resulting bottom water masses are colder and less saline.

Vestfjord and adjacent fjords are considered ecologically important overwintering areas for populations of planktonic copepods *Calanus finmarchicus* (Espinasse et al., 2016) and herring *Clupea harengus* (Huse et al., 2010), and spawning grounds for Atlantic cod *Gadus morhua* (Ottersen et al., 2014). The studies on the zooplankton populations of these fjords show a very dynamic basin-scale pattern, influenced by

sill depth, particularly the size of overwintering populations in deep basins (Espinasse et al., 2018; Skreslet et al., 2015; 2020). There is some evidence that basin-scale patterns affect population dynamics of other pelagic and benthic components of these fjords, such as Atlantic cod and European lobster. Retention of Atlantic cod eggs in fjords suggests that the fjord populations of this species have low connectivity with the coastal cod population, and fjord populations can be considered a metapopulation (Myksvoll et al., 2011; 2014). Similarly, fjord-scale populations can be suggested for European lobster based on the genetic differences documented between Folda and Tysfjord populations (Jørstad et al., 2004). Considering stated above, it might be suggested that there is low connectivity among fjord systems, and consequently limited dispersal, which might affect community assembly and structure of macrobenthos. The present study is the first step towards describing these systems as a habitat for macrobenthos and understanding the pattern of its communities.

#### 2. Objectives

The main aim of the present study is to describe macrobenthic communities of the mainland fjords in the Vestfjord region. Located in close vicinity of each other, these fjords are characterized by the same environmental setting, yet as mentioned earlier, there might be low connectivity, and, consequently, low dispersal among fjord systems. Therefore, macrobenthic communities would reflect assembly processes on a fjord/basin scale. This is one of the few studies on fjord macrofauna that assesses the spatial pattern on both within- and among-basin scales in detail. Specifically, I aimed to:

**Paper I**: Describe macrobenthic communities in a deep multibasin fjord system (Tysfjord) and the main drivers affecting its distribution along the fjord axis.

**Paper II**: Compare macrofaunal communities and environmental conditions of three sub-Arctic fjord basins with different morphologies and assess the degree of differentiation of inhabitant macrobenthic communities with respect to within-basin variation.

**Paper III:** Assess the main differences between species and functional trait composition of fjord basin communities on among-basin spatial scales to evaluate their degree of functional redundancy and possible factors affecting community assembly.

**Paper IV:** Describe the trophic niche differentiation among dominant species of macrofauna in a deep basin and assess whether their trophic niche is influenced by aquaculture using a combination of stable isotopes and fatty acids analyses.

#### 3. Main results

The fjords of the Vestfjord region have been rarely studied and little information is available about their macrobenthic composition in the literature. A comprehensive dataset of 80 grab stations (116 samples) was used to describe species composition, diversity, and spatial patterns of macrobenthic communities in the study area.

# **3.1.** Environmental drivers of benthic community structure in a deep sub-arctic fjord system (Paper I)

The distribution of macrobenthic communities in Tysfjord largely corresponded to the multibasin topography of this fjord system. The community in the deepest basin was similar to the community in the adjacent Vestfjord basin and was dominated by the bivalve Kelliella miliaris. In the inner branch of the fjord system, Hellmofjord, the two basins separated by a shallow (60 m) sill were inhabited by two distinct communities. In the middle basin, the relative abundance of K. miliaris decreased, where it was dominant along with the bivalves *Thyasira obsoleta*, Mendicula ferruginosa, Abra nitida, and the polychaete Heteromastus filiformis. In the innermost basin, the bivalve Parathyasira equalis was the most dominant species along with the polychaetes H. filiformis and Terebellides stroemii. Several environmental drivers correlated with the distribution of the communities: depth, organic matter content in sediment, and bottom water properties. Organic matter content was highest in the deepest basin and decreased towards the middle basin. Restricted water exchange by a shallow sill resulted in decreased temperature, salinity, and lower oxygen content. Our results demonstrate that a multibasin topography and associated environmental factors are important drivers of ecological processes that result in distinct communities.

# **3.2.** Strong macrobenthic community differentiation among sub-Arctic deep fjords on small spatial scales (Paper II)

The three fjords studied here were inhabited by distinct macrobenthic communities. The deep-silled fjords, Saltfjord and Sørfolda, were characterised by similar bottom water mass properties, and the community in the inner basins of these fjords were similar to the ones in the respective adjacent basins. Saltfjord was largely dominated by the sipunculid Onchnesoma steenstrupii, followed by the polychaete Spiochaetopterus typicus. The latter was the most abundant species in Sørfolda, followed by the polychaete Heteromastus filiformis. Skjerstadfjord was the only fjord where a change in the community structure along the fjord axis was evident. The shallow (26 m) sill between Saltfjord and Skjerstadfjord restricts water exchange to the uppermost layers. Denser surface water masses from Saltfjord are advected into Skjerstadfjord by strong tidal forcing and sink to the deeper layers of Skjerstadfjord, resulting in turbulent mixing of bottom water masses in Skjerstadfjord and probably enhancing bentho-pelagic coupling at the fjord entrance. The resulting communities close to the fjord entrance were more abundant and diverse compared to the rest of the fjord and differ in their dominance structure with higher abundances of polychaetes Galathowenia oculata, Paramphinome jeffreysii, and Chaetozone setosa. Further down-fjord, communities were dominated by *H. filiformis* and the bivalve Parathyasira equalis. The strong differentiation of macrobenthos among different nearby fjords could be only partially attributed to differences in depth and measured sediment parameters. Moreover, in all three fjords relatively high number of unique taxa (present only in a particular fjord) was found with the highest number observed in Sørfolda. Therefore, it is suggested that the observed communities developed independently with stochastic processes during community assembly as an additional driver of the observed pattern.

# **3.3.** Combining species and biological trait composition to assess macrobenthic community assembly in deep sub-Arctic fjords (Paper III)

The joint community analysis of the data from papers 1 and 2 with the inclusion of additional data on two shallow-silled fjords (Nordfjord and Mistfjord) confirmed the previously described pattern of distinct fjord/basin scale communities. There was also a clear and significant difference in community structure based on species composition between shallow- and deep-silled fjords. Biological trait composition revealed that, generally, basins with a shallow sill had a higher proportion of deepdwelling subsurface deposit feeding fauna, indicating differences in benthic functioning. However, Nordfjord with a relatively deep sill (120 m) has a trait composition similar to the deep-silled basins, while the species composition was similar to the other shallow silled fjords, resulting in a discrepancy between taxonomic and functional community structure. It is suggested that trait composition reflects community adaptation to the fluxes of fresh pelagic organic matter, which is mediated by the water exchange over the sill. In contrast, community assembly with regard to species composition might be more influenced by local connectivity among basins and inflow of Atlantic water in deep basins, which facilitates connectivity between fiords and the offshore species pool. The relationship between taxonomic and functional diversity appeared to be similar between two groups of fjords: first functional diversity increased rapidly at low levels of species diversity before slowing down as functional space reaches saturation. However, shallow-silled fjords had higher functional diversity at low species diversity, while deep-silled fjords showed higher functional diversity at higher levels of species diversity. This pattern indicates that both groups of fjords have a high functional redundancy at high levels of taxonomic diversity.

# **3.4.** Combining stable isotope and fatty acid analyses to assess trophic niches of macrofauna in an anthropogenically influenced deep fjord basin (Paper IV)

The importance of food resource partitioning on macrobenthic community structure was studied in Nordfjord, where salmon farming close to the main basin was an additional potential source of organic matter. Fatty acid markers indicated that this community, dominated by deposit feeders, relied on bacterially reworked detritus of phytoplankton origin. The biomass dominant species (bivalves *Abra nitida* and *Nucula tumidula*, polychaetes *Melinna cristata*, *Aphelochaeta* sp. and *Phylo norvegicus*, pectinarid and maldanid polychaetes, and the seastar *Ctenodiscus crispatus*) were characterised by distinct trophic niches. Although the sampling was performed in the direct vicinity of a fish farm ( $\geq$ 500 m) at the end of the production cycle, the role of the fish farm waste as an additional carbon source for macrobenthos could not be traced in this study. It is concluded that in sub-euphotic basins resource partitioning might be important for species coexistence due to its isolated nature and low amounts of phytoplankton-derived organic matter reaching the seafloor due to weak bentho-pelagic coupling.

#### 4. General discussion

#### 4.1. Composition of macrobenthic communities in fjord basins

Vestfjord is an area influenced by two major currents: the Norwegian Atlantic Current and the Norwegian Coastal Current. Water masses transported with the Norwegian Atlantic Current (salinity over 34.5 and temperature over 6.5 °C) form the bottom water layer in Vestfjord and deep-silled basins (Mitchelson-Jacob and Sundby, 2001; Paper I; Paper II). The major currents might have important implications for benthos distributions defining their distributional range (Gaylord and Gaines, 2000; Gaston, 2009). This is reflected in the composition of the macrobenthos in the studied fjords with dominant species reported in Paper I and Paper II being widely distributed further south in the Atlantic Ocean, e.g. thyasirid bivalves Thyasira obsoleta, Genaxinus eumyarius, Parthyasira equalis, Mendicula ferruginosa (Payne and Allen, 1991), the bivalve Kelliella miliaris (Allen, 2001), the sigunculid Onchnesoma steenstrupii (Murina and Sørensen, 2004), the polychaete Paramphinome jeffreysii (Gunton et al., 2015). The composition of the fauna in the fjords found in our studies resemble other deep-water depositional habitats influenced by Atlantic water masses at lower latitudes, particularly deep parts of Skagerrak and deep fjords of Western Norway, where similar bottom water masses were observed (Brattegard, 1967; Josefson, 1985; Buhl-Mortensen and Høisæter, 1993; Rosenberg et al., 1996). Therefore, it may be assumed that the inflow of Atlantic water masses also affects the species composition in the sub-Arctic fjords of our study region, possibly through larval recruitment from offshore habitats. Indeed, Thomsen and Vorren (1986) showed that boreal Atlantic fauna replaced representatives of the Arctic fauna in the deep basins, which were the first to colonize fjords after deglaciation, and such changes corresponded to the inflow of Atlantic water. In this sense, it may be noted that the connectivity of macrobenthic fjords along the Norwegian coast might be related to the distribution of meroplanktonic larvae with Norwegian coastal current, as shown for herring larvae, which are generally transported from spawning grounds on the west coast of Norway into the Barents Sea, but might be advected into the fjords depending on wind conditions (Skagseth et al., 2015). However, most of the species recorded in the basins do not have a planktotrophic larva (Josefson, 1985; **Paper III**), and not so many meroplanktonic larvae that would correspond to species in the basins were recorded over the nearby shelf area, e.g. polychaetes of the families Amphinomidae, Chaetopteridae, Spionidae (Silberberger et al., 2016). Therefore, distribution with coastal waters masses that overlay water masses of Atlantic origin might be important for a limited number of macrobenthic taxa in the basins.

Analyses on a large spatial scale in the study area showed differences in macrobenthic composition especially between deep-silled basins, which are characterized by bottom water masses of Atlantic origin with recorded temperatures >7 °C and salinity >35, and shallow-silled basins with colder (<7 °C) and less saline (<35) water masses, indicating only inflow of less dense coastal water advected into Vestfjord with Norwegian Coastal Current (Paper III). Although the temperature limits for distribution can be considered a species-specific trait, an upper limit of 2-6 °C was observed in several Arctic taxa (Renaud et al., 2015). Some of the species, recorded only in shallow-silled basins in this study, might be the populations of the Arctic fauna that inhabited basins before the inflow of Atlantic waters and living at the limit of their distribution range, e.g. the seastar *Ctenodiscus crispatus*, the polychaete Praxillella gracilis, the scaphopod Siphonodentalium lobatum (Paper III). These species have an upper limit of distribution at 6-7 °C, e.g., 4-6 °C for C. crispatus (Renaud et al., 2015), 5.8 °C for S. lobatum (Ivanov and Zarubina, 2004), 7 °C for P. gracilis (Jirkov, 2001). This finding is in line with previous ideas that fjord basins might act as biogeographical enclaves for some species (Brattegard, 1980; Wesławski et al., 2011). For instance, a higher proportion of Arctic species has also been recorded in the inner fjords of Svalbard that are less influenced by Atlantic waters (Wlodarska-
Kowalczuk et al., 1998). The basins with shallower sills are less affected by hydrological fluctuations and retain colder bottom water masses, therefore their transition from Artic to boreal communities possibly happened on a longer timescale, allowing some populations to adapt to warmer temperatures (Węsławski et al., 2011). However, there were further differences in species composition and community structure of macrobenthos among basins with similar bottom water masses (**Paper I, Paper II, Paper III**), which are most probably related to the possible differences in community assembly described below.

# 4.2. Spatial patterns and community assembly

Understanding community dynamics and assembly relies on adequate delineating of local communities. Significant differences in community structure (relative abundances of dominant species) and composition (presence of unique species) show that local communities can be defined approximately on a basin scale (**Paper I**; **Paper II**). Our results demonstrate that sufficient sampling effort is required to distinguish within and among fjord variation. Although it was acknowledged before that nearby basins can differ considerably in their species composition (Brattegard, 1980), this study is the first study, to my knowledge, to describe such a pattern on an extensive dataset comprising several fjord systems.

Community structure based on biological traits composition revealed that basins in the study area can be divided into two groups: deep-silled basins and Nordfjord, which has a higher proportion of surface deposit and suspension feeders, and the rest of shallow-silled basins, where subsurface deposit feeding is more common (**Paper III**). Benthos relies on organic matter sedimentation from overlaying waters, and, accordingly, differences in organic matter fluxes might be a major structuring factor in deep boreal and sub-Arctic fjords, where deep basin environment can be considered physically stable (Burrell, 1988). Populations of subsurface deposit feeders might feed on more refractory microbially degraded sediment organic matter, and, in general, their populations are less dependent on episodic inputs of high-quality detritus (Rice and Rhoads, 1989; Josefson et al., 2002; Levinton and Kelaher, 2004). Therefore, differences in sedimentation regime among basins might be a major driver for the functional community structure. In line with this finding, in Skjerstadfjord, a down-fjord gradient was observed in community structure, with decreasing abundances of surface deposit feeders *Galathowenia oculata* and *Chaetozone setosa* which was related to stronger bentho-pelagic coupling at the fjord mouth (**Paper II**). In turn, such differences in community structure might suggest differences in ecosystem functioning among the basins, particularly the amount of sedimented phytodetritus that is remineralised on sediment surface versus the amount that is buried deeper in sediments (Josefson et al., 2002; Sweetman and Witte, 2008).

The differences between shallow- and deep-silled basins cannot be attributed solely to shifts in functional structure based on biological traits as discrepancy was observed between analyses of community structure based on species and trait compositions, mostly related to Nordfjord community converging in functional structure with deepsilled fjords (Paper III). This finding supports the hypothesis that species and traits compositions are different levels of community organisation, with the former being influenced by historical contingencies and priority effects (Fukami et al., 2005; Fukami, 2015). The species composition in fjords might be also influenced by colonisation history from an offshore pool of species (Smith, 2001). Shallow sills that restrict the inflow of Atlantic water masses may serve as dispersal barriers for the majority of taxa in the deep basins with lecithotrophic development as they are mainly distributed with near-bottom currents (Josefson, 1985; Paper III). This hypothesis was not favored for the fjords in Western Norway (Buhl-Mortensen and Høisæter, 1993). However, our data on population connectivity obtained using a genotyping-by-sequencing approach for the bivalve Parathyasira equalis with lecithotrophic development suggest low but significant Fst values between Saltfjord and Skjerstadfjord (Fst = 0.005), separated only by a shallow sill, but not between Saltfjord and Sørfolda (Fst = -0.001) separated by distance, but both characterized by Atlantic water masses (own unpublished data). Therefore, a continuous population in Atlantic waters is "interrupted" by a shallow sill.

Communities in the deep-silled fjord basins (Saltfjord, Sørfolda Tysfjord deep, and Tysfjord middle basins) have a similar species composition as the adjacent basins beyond the sill (Paper I; Paper II). Such a pattern indicates high dispersal, which results in the homogenization of communities ("mass effects"; Heino et al., 2015). While this connectivity between adjacent basins is most probably a result of the inflow of Atlantic water over a deep sill several times a year (Skreslet et al., 2020), the connectivity among different fjord systems for macrobenthos still might be low as an outflow of bottom water masses from below the sill depth is unlikely. The outflow is generally limited to the uppermost desalinated layer during periods with strong stratification (Myksvoll et al., 2011), while wind-induced advection in and out of fjord over a sill is more important for connectivity of plankton through coastal waters (Asplin et al., 1999; Espinasse et al., 2018). However, even this connectivity through coastal waters can be low, particularly between Tysfjord and Sørfolda. This is supported by simulation of dispersal of Atlantic cod eggs, which are retained in the fjords (Myksvoll et al., 2011; 2014), and genetically isolated populations of European lobster, a species with a planktonic larva (Jørstad et al., 2004). Dispersal limitation and priority effects, enhanced by larvae retention in deep basins, might hamper establishments of populations in fjords otherwise environmentally suitable for a species, affecting species sorting and increasing the role of stochasticity in community assembly (Heino et al., 2015; Fukami, 2015).

The resulting communities are distinct with different levels of diversity, with species-poor communities such as the ones in Mistfjord and Saltfjord having the lowest functional redundancy (**Paper III**). However, at some point increase in

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species diversity did not lead to an increase in functional diversity, indicating high functional redundancy (Micheli and Halpern, 2005). It may be assumed that functional redundancy depends on the number of co-existing species, which is influenced by many factors including demographic stochasticity, dispersal, available resources, and resource partitioning (Hart et al., 2017; **Paper IV**). Generally, the number of coexisting species increases with habitat area, however, smaller and isolated habitats might be an exception as they are more influenced by demographic stochasticity and disturbance events, which might result in different species richness irrespective of habitat size ("small island effects"; Lomolino, 2000). The communities appear to be very different in their dominance structure with the ones largely dominated by a single species, e.g. *Onchnesoma steenstrupii* in Saltfjord and *Kelliella miliaris* in Tysfjord deep basin, while in others several species are equally dominant, e.g. Tysfjord middle basin (**Paper I; Paper II**). Studying resource partitioning and population dynamics on a basin scale might give further insights into factors structuring these local communities.

# 4.3. Trophic niches and resource partitioning

Several potential carbon sources can be important for benthic consumers in fjord ecosystems. Fjords are estuarine environments, and accordingly input of terrestrial carbon to the sediments can be expected, which might be a carbon source for benthic invertebrates (McGovern et al., 2020). Fjords in the study are characterised by the low contribution of terrestrial organic matter, however, an increase in terrestrial input can be expected in the more inner parts (Faust and Knies, 2019; **Paper II, Paper IV**). The main source of marine carbon is phytoplankton production, but contributions of macroalgal carbon to deeper habitats devoid of vegetation have been recently investigated (Renaud et al., 2015; Silberberger et al., 2018; Zaborska et al., 2018). Deposit feeders, a group that is dominant in the basins (**Paper III**), might consume

detritus of various origins and associated bacteria in the sediments, but might depend on less degraded organic matter of phytoplankton origin as a source of certain compounds, such as polyunsaturated fatty acids (Lopez and Levinton, 1987). Phytoplankton is a major source of polyunsaturated fatty acids, such as 20:5n-3 and 22:6n-3, which are incorporated by benthic consumers (Bell and Sargent, 1985; Kelly and Scheibling, 2012). Fatty acid analysis in Nordfjord suggested that both phytoplankton and bacteria are important for benthic consumers in fjord basins, although the combination of fatty acid and stable isotope analyses revealed differences in trophic niches among species studied (**Paper IV**). Although fish farm waste can be consumed by benthos as well (Witte et al., 2019), no clear shifts in trophic niches of the deposit feeders were observed relative to the distance from the fish farm suggesting insignificant contributions of this carbon source to the deep basin (**Paper IV**).

Distinct trophic niches of common taxa in Nordfjord suggested that food resource partitioning might be an important factor structuring communities on a basin scale (**Paper IV**). The differences were observed even between taxa with the same feeding habit, e.g. surface deposit feeders bivalves *Abra nitida*, *Nucula tumidula*, and the polychaete *Melinna cristata*. This is not always the case for marine macrobenthos as many studies did not observe such differences in trophic niches, e.g. deposit feeding bivalves on the Bering Sea shelf (Oxtoby et al., 2016), native species of deposit feeders in the Baltic Sea (Karlson et al., 2015), echinoderm species in a shallow Swedish fjord (Godbold et al., 2009). However, evidence of resource partitioning was documented for bathyal holothurians in the Northeast Atlantic (Hudson et al., 2003) and rocky shore suspension feeders (Richoux et al., 2014). It seems that the relative importance of competition for macrobenthos depends on the habitat. Rocky shores are highly competitive habitats for sessile organisms due to high competition for space (Worm and Karez, 2002). In the softbottom communities, the competition for space is less pronounced as animals can

adjust their position in the sediment, including the sediment dwelling depth (Wilson, 1990). The persistent supply of organic material to the benthos may also decrease interspecific competition for the food resource (Wigham et al., 2008). Indeed, generally, deep sub-euphotic fjord basins are characterised by low amount of phytoplankton detritus reaching the seafloor (Burrell, 1988). Sub-euphotic basins, like the fjord basins I have studied, might be a more resource-limited environment for macrobenthos due to weak bentho-pelagic coupling and irregular input of labile organic matter, which would increase the role of competition for food resources.

# 5. Conclusions and further perspectives

Our results suggest the differentiation of macrobenthic fjord communities approximately on a basin scale. Such differentiation reflects the semi-isolated nature of fjords and low connectivity among basins. These communities can be described based on two levels of organisation: species composition and functional structure based on traits composition. Species composition might reflect more the history of community assembly, particularly colonization from the offshore pool of species and priority effects, while trait composition might be more driven by adaptation of the community to the environment, such as organic matter fluxes to the seafloor mediated by water exchange with adjacent waters. In addition, competition and resource partitioning might structure communities on the withinbasin scale. A combination of the above-suggested processes results in a unique pattern of among-fjord variation.

Undisturbed habitats are generally characterised by high variation among local communities, such as observed in this study, while anthropogenic activities can result in human-induced homogenization due to loss of endemics or prevalence of cosmopolitan species (Mori et al., 2018). The ecosystems of Norwegian fjords are potentially vulnerable to anthropogenic impacts due to restricted water exchange and, consequently, accumulation of discharged pollutants and waste, however, baseline knowledge on different ecosystem components is currently lacking (Manzetti and Stenersen, 2010). In fjords of Western Norway, recent distribution of an opportunistic species *Polydora* sp. was observed accompanied by increasing temperatures of water masses and organic matter content in sediments and decreasing oxygen content (Johansen et al., 2018). Dominance of few opportunistic species, such as *Polydora* sp., is often linked to hypoxia rather than organic enrichment per se (Gray et al., 2002), and might result in homogenization of benthic communities in the basins, consequently affecting ecosystem functioning (Mori et

al., 2018). Warming of Atlantic water can alter water exchange of fjords in Western Norway leading to a decrease in oxygen in the bottom water layer (Aksnes et al., 2019). The organic loading from fish farm production can also contribute to oxygen depletion in the basin waters, although current monitoring results suggest low impact for the majority of farming locations (Taranger et al., 2015). Fjords in the study area are characterised by deep sills or good water exchange (e.g. Skjerstadfjord, **Paper II**) compared to the fjords of Western Norway, and, therefore might be less affected by decreasing oxygen in the deep water, although Mistfjord (Skreslet et al., 2020) and Tysjord inner basin (**Paper I**) might be exceptions. Comparison of fjords along the Norwegian coast as well long-term monitoring, both in terms of benthic fauna and water exchange, might give further insights into factors structuring benthic communities, as well as how they can be affected by increasing organic load or increasing temperatures.

As indicated by our data, monitoring results from one fjord might not reflect that ecosystem processes in adjacent fjords, particularly if they are separated by a shallow sill. Accordingly, long-term data sets are also necessary to distinguish between spatial and temporal variation. Understanding of population dynamics of species with different reproduction strategies and connectivity of these populations might give useful insights into the temporal dynamics of basin communities. In **Paper II** interannual changes are briefly discussed, particularly an increase in abundances in the fjords in 2015 compared to 2013. Many potential factors might result in interannual changes of carbon export to the seafloor and consequently in the abundances of macrobenthic consumers, which are currently poorly understood for the fjords in the study area, e.g. differences in primary productivity, wind-induced advection of nutrients/phytoplankton/organic matter in and out of fjords, abundance of plankton grazers in the mesopelagic zone (Burrell, 1988; Wassmann et al., 1996; Lalande et al., 2020). Therefore, studies of vertical export of carbon to the seafloor might give useful insights into the dynamics of macrobenthic communities in the basins. Further, palaeoecological data would allow studying actual colonization history and responses of these communities on a longer timescale and, particularly, on how stable are populations in the basins, whether they are subject to stochastic extinctions and recolonizations (Levinton, 1970; Thomsen and Vorren, 1986; Einarsson et al., 2016).

We observed a difference in functional structure between deep-silled and shallowed-silled basins (**Paper III**). Whether this difference corresponds to differences in ecosystem functioning, such as carbon burial, remains unknown. The fjords in the Vestfjord region are characterised by high burial rates of marine organic matter burial (Faust and Knies, 2019). Further investigation on sedimentation and the role of macrobenthos in organic matter remineralization are needed to understand carbon cycling in these depositional habitats (Burrell, 1988).

The observed trophic niche differentiation in Nordfjord (**Paper IV**) suggested the possible importance of competition in structuring communities. Comparison of trophic niches of the same species, but from different communities, would give further insights on the role of competition and how it affects realized niches of species. Moreover, as invasive species often occupy vacant niches (Karlson et al., 2015), such an approach would indicate the susceptibility of the communities in the study area to possible invasions by comparing data with fjords in Western Norway, which are already invaded by *Polydora* sp. (Johansen et al., 2018).

It is not clear whether such basin-specific communities, described for macrobenthos, are characteristic for different size classes of benthos. Different size classes can have different scales of their spatial organization as body size is one of the main scaling factors for ecological patterns (Azovsky, 2000). However, little is known about megabenthic and meiobenthic communities in the Vestfjord region. Meiobenthic communities might be structured differently from macrobenthos as these two groups differ not only taxonomically, but also functionally in generation

time, life-history traits, dispersal mode, and resource use (Warwick, 2014). . Megabenthic epifaunal communities might be structured on different spatial scales compared to macrofauna as well due to more exposed mode of life (Silberberger et al., 2019; Meyer et al., 2020). However, how such functional differences between different benthic components affect among-fjord variation remains a topic for future investigations.

These are only a few examples of possible future research that could foster our understanding of fjord ecosystems. As mentioned by Brattegard (1980) deep basins can be treated as unique natural laboratories for studying deep-sea communities and might be used to study all aspects of biology and ecology of deep-sea fauna.

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Paper I

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# Environmental drivers of benthic community structure in a deep sub-arctic fjord system



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# ABSTRACT

Fjords are unique geomorphological features that are found globally along (previously) glaciated coasts. They are characteristic for the entire Norwegian coast, where growing human populations and economic development increasingly impact the associated fjord ecosystems, and accordingly basic knowledge about ecosystem structure and functioning is needed. Knowledge about benthic systems within deep basins (over 400 m) of sub-Arctic fords is currently missing and it remains questionable whether our understanding of similarly deep temperate fjords or shallower sub-arctic fjords is directly transferable to such systems. This study aims to investigate the patterns of soft-bottom benthic communities within a northern Norwegian deep multibasin fjord system and relate them to the prevailing environmental conditions, following a sampling strategy of many-sites with onesample each. Here we show that oxygen content of the water and organic matter gradients in the sediment, structure the benthic communities of the fjord reflecting the main basins. We found that the community of the deepest basin (> 700 m) of this sub-Arctic fjord is similar to the community just outside of Tysfjord at the same depth but differ from other communities within the fiord. Furthermore, the deep basin community reflects deep communities of temperate fjords and the deep Skagerrak. The community within the innermost basin is well adapted to periodic hypoxia with low quality or degraded food supply. Our results demonstrated that fjord specific multibasin topography and the corresponding environmental factors are important drivers of ecological processes, which resulted in distinct benthic communities in each of the three basins. The management of such heterogeneous fjord ecosystems should take an adaptive approach and apply measures that take the differences of these benthic communities into account.

## 1. Introduction

Norway has one of the longest coastlines in the world, which extends from temperate regions in the South to an Arctic climate close to the Norwegian-Russian border in the North. This coastline is characterized by fjords that play a key role in coastal environments. In general, fjords are estuaries with high rates of sedimentation which makes them important sites for carbon sequestration (Faust et al., 2017) and they provide nursery grounds for marine fish species as well as feeding areas for migratory birds (McLusky and Elliott, 2004). Furthermore, fjords are marine ecosystems where various anthropogenic activities take place, such as fish farming, industry, tourism, or fisheries.

Today, Arctic and sub-Arctic fjord ecosystems are under strong pressure by the ongoing climate change, since the temperature rises particularly fast at high latitudes (Kaplan and New, 2006). Consequently many fish species have been reported to extend their range further North over the last years (Berge et al., 2015; Perry et al., 2005). Similarly, responses of macrofauna were observed with some benthic species increasing their distribution range further North, thereby increasing the species richness in northern Norway (Narayanaswamy et al., 2010). However, these observations are restricted to offshore regions of the continental shelf and climate change is likely to affect coastal ecosystems differently. Expected increase in freshwater runoff and inputs of terrestrial derived organic matter (Frigstad et al., 2013) are likely to alter coastal ecosystems with potential impact on benthic communities. Accumulation of organic matter of both terrestrial and anthropogenic origin can significantly alter the structure of macrofaunal assemblages in the basins of fjords (Johansen et al., 2018; Pearson and Rosenberg, 1978; Zaborska et al., 2018).

Previous studies have shown that depth and bottom topography, especially, the presence of silled basins play an important role for the

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distribution of benthic communities in northern Norwegian fjords (Holte, 1998; Holte et al., 2005, 2004; Larsen, 1997). Although not direct environmental drivers of benthic community structure, depth and bottom topography are important surrogates which reflect other environmental variables (e.g. temperature, light regime, vertical flux) that have direct effects on benthic communities (Drewnik et al., 2016; McArthur et al., 2010). In general, basins of silled fjords are perceived as more stable environments since they are less affected by oceanographical fluctuations (Renaud et al., 2007; Syvitski et al., 1987). However, isolation of basins from adjacent sea areas can result in oxygen deficiency, which leads to lower species diversity (Holte et al., 2005). Most of the data on sub-Arctic silled fjords macrobenthic communities come from relatively shallow basins, while there is still no well-grounded knowledge on the soft-bottom benthic communities inhabiting the deepest depositional sub-Arctic fjord basins (> 400 m depth) that are characteristic for the coast of Nordland county. The benthic communities of some of the deepest western Norwegian fjords such as Hardangerfjord (max. depth: 890 m) and Sognefjord (max. depth: 1308 m) have been investigated to some extent (Husa et al., 2014; but see Manzetti and Stenersen, 2010), revealing a species poor and low abundant community in the deepest part of the Hardanger basin. It remains, however, questionable whether a similar diversity pattern occurs in deep sub-Arctic fjords, including Tysfjord, the deepest fjord of northern Norway with a maximum depth of 725 m.

This is in contrast to the known ecological importance of this fjord, which contains a genetically isolated population of the European lobster (*Homarus gammarus*) (Jørstad and Farestveit, 1999) as well as reefforming sponges and cold water corals (David Cothran, personal communication 2017). Furthermore, Tysfjord served as an important overwintering region for herring from 1986 through 2005 (Røttingen et al., 1994), which sustained a dense population of killer whales preying on the herring (Nøttestad and Axelsen, 1999). In this regard, it is well documented that the ecosystem has experienced radical changes in recent years. Large aggregations of overwintering Norwegian spring spawning herring and associated whales have not been observed in Tysfjord since 2006 (Jourdain and Vongraven, 2017).

Since a high number of human activities are developing rapidly in northern Norway together with the ongoing climate change, it is important to gain profound knowledge of the structure and dynamics of seafloor communities especially within depositional deep basins and thereby provide a basis for a sustainable ecosystem-based management of deep sub-Arctic fjords. Thus, this study aims to investigate the patterns in the distribution of soft-bottom benthic communities within a northern Norwegian deep multibasin fjord system. Specifically, we (i) assess the soft-bottom benthic communities along a head to mouth transect of Tysfjord, (ii) describe the benthic community structure within the fjord and compare this structure among the different basins, and (iii) relate faunal structure to the prevailing environmental conditions.

# 2. Material and methods

# 2.1. Study area

Tysfjord, the deepest fjord in Northern Norway, is located in Norland county and comprised the study domain (Fig. 1). Its main basin has a length of 29 km in north-south orientation with a maximum depth of 725 m and possesses multiple connections to secondary fjords in the southern and eastern margin of the fjord. The main basin is delimitated in the north by the 280 m deep Korsnes sill and in the south by the 300 m deep Helland sill. Hellmofjord, the longest secondary fjord of the Tysfjord system, has a length of 31 km and is a direct extension of the main basin in the south, prolonging the total length of the system to approximately 60 km. Hellmofjord has a maximum width of 1 km and the 455 m deep basins, the middle basin with a depth of 375 m and the 435 m deep innermost basin, which are separated by the shallow Musken sill (depth: 60 m; Fig. 1).

Tysfjord is a sub-arctic fjord (in the sense of: ice-free fjords north of the Arctic circle) that experiences pronounced seasonal variations in temperature and salinity (Brkljacic et al., 2016). The temperature of the surface water over the deep basin varies between approximately 4°C in winter and a maximum of 15°C in summer. The salinity of the surface water ranges from approximately 33 in winter to 25 in summer. The deep water of the deep basin, however, is characterized by a very stable temperature (7.3°C) and salinity (35.1–35.2) year-round. The main catchment area of Tysfjord lies towards the south and east and accordingly most runoff from land enters the secondary fjords, thereby creating a salinity gradient in the surface water that increases from the secondary fjords to the main basin.

### 2.2. Sampling and sample processing

The sampling campaign was conducted between the 22nd and the 26th May 2017 on board RV *Tanteyen*. A Van Veen grab  $(0.1 \text{ m}^2)$  was used to collect samples at 35 stations along the North-South axis of the fjord system (Fig. 1). A sampling strategy of many-sites, one-sample was chosen as it allows to best identify the main gradient structure. According to Schweiger et al. (2016), such a sampling approach is recommended for our study where a high level of systematic error (e.g. spatial autocorrelation, unaccountable additional environmental drivers) has to be expected. Such a sampling approach is untraditional and not widely used in benthic ecology. However, van Son et al. (2016) and Silberberger et al. (2019) have demonstrated that it is well suited to identify the main gradient structure of benthic community composition and relate this structure to environmental gradients, which were the main objectives of our study.

For each grab sample, measurements of pH and Redox potential (mV) were recorded from the surface layer of the sediments using electronic probes (EcoSense\* pH10A Pen Tester & EcoSense\* ORP15A ORP Temperature Pen Tester 11). The upper 5 cm and 2 cm of the sediment were sampled with a syringe (2.5 cm diameter) and stored at -20 °C until analyzed for granulometry and total organic matter, respectively. Consecutively, macrofauna was collected by washing of the sample over a sieve (mesh size: 1 mm). Macrofauna was preserved with 4% formaldehyde buffered with borax for later taxonomic identification. The mesh size of 1 mm was chosen in accordance with the ICES recommendation for descriptive surveys (Rumohr, 2009), despite the possibility that minute individuals may get lost, since it has been shown that the general patterns of the infaunal community structure is well represented by this mesh size (Thompson et al., 2003).

In addition, 23 CTD casts were deployed along the transect to measure temperature [°C], salinity, dissolved oxygen [mg/l], fluorescence  $[\mu g/l]$  and density [kg/l] of the complete water column (Fig. 1).

In the lab, all macrofauna was collected from the samples under a stereo microscope and identified to the lowest taxonomic level possible. Names of all taxa follow the World Register of Marine Species (WoRMS Editorial Board, 2018).

The granulometry samples were wet washed through a cascade of sieves (2000  $\mu$ m; 1000  $\mu$ m; 500  $\mu$ m; 250  $\mu$ m; 125  $\mu$ m; 63  $\mu$ m) and each fraction was dried for 24 h at 90 °C. The effluent (< 63  $\mu$ m) was collected into a bucket and left for at least 48 h and up to 1 week to settle. Once the water was clear from particles, the excess water was decanted and the content dried for 24 h at 90 °C. After the drying, the weights of the individual size fractions were determined and introduced to the software GRADISTAT version 8.0 (Blott and Pye, 2001) in order to calculate the mud content [%] (< 63  $\mu$ m), sand content [%] (63–2000  $\mu$ m), and the textural group for each sample based on the Folk and Ward (1957) ternary classification in terms of mud, sand and gravel.

The organic matter content was approximated by loss on ignition at 520 °C (Heiri et al., 2001). Large fauna and organic particles were



Fig. 1. Study region. *top*: Map of Tysfjord, benthos stations indicated in red, CTD stations indicated in green; *bottom*: depth profile of the sampled transect, benthos stations indicated in red. Main basins and sills are labeled. *Note*: The depicted depth profile follows the benthos stations through the fjord and accordingly the traveled distance exceeds the total length of the fjord. The order of stations number 5 and 6 was assigned according to a ridge that runs parallel to stations 4 and 5 separating them from station 6. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

removed prior to the combustion of the sample for 5 h.

#### 2.3. Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were performed in R, version 3.5.1 (R Development Core Team, 2018), making use of methods included in the ade4 (Dray and Dufour, 2007; Thioulouse et al., 2011), vegan (Oksanen et al., 2018), and labdsv packages (Roberts, 2016).

All colonial organisms were removed from the faunal data, which was subsequently subjected to a Hellinger transformation. The Hellinger transformation is defined as  $y'_{ij} = \sqrt{\frac{y_{ij}}{y_{i+}}}$ , where  $y_{ij}$  is the abundance of species *j* at site *i* and  $y_{i+}$  is the total abundance at site *i*. This transformation was chosen to make the data suitable for Euclidean-based methods and to give a low weight to rare species, which are often encountered randomly in blind sampling in aquatic environments, especially when a sampling strategy without replication is chosen (Legendre and Gallagher, 2001).

We used Unweighted Pair Grouping Method with Arithmetic-mean (UPGMA) clustering to identify faunal communities within the fjord. Following the methods described by Borcard et al. (2018) we used fusion level values, multiscale bootstrap resampling, and species fidelity analysis to identify the optimal number of clusters. We used nonmetric multidimensional scaling (nMDS) to validate the obtained sample clusters.

The identified community clusters were then characterized using univariate diversity measures (number of taxa, total abundance, the Shannon index (H'log e & H'log 2) (Shannon, 1948), Hurlbert rarefaction (ES100) (Hurlbert, 1971), Pielou's evenness (J) (Pielou, 1966)). The Shannon index was calculated with two different bases to allow for better comparison with existing literature. Furthermore, we used a combination of three different approaches to identify key species of every cluster: Indicator value indices (IndVal) (Dufrêne and Legendre, 1997), species contribution analysis (SCA) (van Son and Halvorsen, 2014), and the most abundant taxa of each cluster. The IndVal method is aimed to identify combinations of species that can be used to discriminate a group of samples from all other samples in the analysis. SCA, however, is used to identify species that contribute most to the difference between two groups of samples, disregarding all other samples in the data set. In contrast, the most abundant taxa in a group of samples disregard all other samples entirely. Key species were then identified by combined assessment of the results of all three methods, because each method individually is biased by the amount of samples they take into account.

We used variation partitioning to identify the importance of individual environmental parameters in structuring the faunal community. Therefore, all environmental variables were assigned to three sets of environmental variables: (1) bottom water characteristics, (2) sediment characteristics, and (3) depth (Table 1). Bottom water characteristics, which were based on CTD measurements, were assigned so that the measurements of the closest CTD cast was used for each grab sample. Prior to the variation partitioning, each set of environmental variables was individually subjected to a forward selection using a

Table 1

All sets of explanatory environmental variables included in the analysis. Variables selected by the forward selection are printed in bold.

Set	Environmental variable			
Bottom water characteristics	O <sub>2</sub> in bottom water [mg/l]			
	Salinity of bottom water			
	Temperature of bottom water [°C]			
Sediment characteristics	Mud content [%]			
	Textural group pH of the sediment			
	Redox potential of the sediment [mV]			
	Organic matter in the sediment [%]			
Depth	Depth [m]			

series of constrained and partially constrained redundancy analysis (RDA) with a double stopping criterion (Blanchet et al., 2008), to avoid overestimation of the explained variation. In this approach, variables are added to the model in order of decreasing explanatory power until no variable adds significantly to the explanatory power or until the  $adj.R^2$  exceeds that of the full model. Following the variable selection, RDA was used to partition the variation in the faunal data set on the three sets of selected environmental variables and all combinations of them (Borcard et al., 1992; Peres-Neto et al., 2006).

Finally, we used a non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test (Kruskal and Wallis, 1952) and its corresponding post-hoc comparisons (with Holm correction) to compare all environmental variables selected by the forward selection between the previously identified community clusters (Borcard et al., 2018).

# 3. Results

#### 3.1. Environmental setting

The CTD measurements revealed a colder desalinated layer of water from the surface down to around 100 m depth throughout the whole fjord (Fig. 2). Beneath this upper layer, water masses differed between the basins. The water outside the Korsnes sill (*i.e.* outside the fjord) was characterized by a temperature of 7.6 °C, a salinity of 35.25, and was well oxygenated (> 8 mgO<sub>2</sub>/1). Temperature, salinity, and the oxygen contend decreased gradually from the Korsnes sill towards the Middle basin, where values between 7.4 and 7.5 °C for temperature, 35 for salinity, and 7 mgO<sub>2</sub>/1 were measured. At the Musken sill, however, the water mass characteristics changed more drastically towards the innermost basin, which was characterized by colder water (6.6 °C) with lower salinity (34.75) and lower oxygen content (between 4 and 6 mgO<sub>2</sub>/1) (Fig. 2).

Among the sediment characteristics, mud content showed a high variability with values between 3.8% (stn. 28) and 92.8% (stn. 7). In general, a pattern of high mud content in basins and a low mud content at sills and shallow stations was found. A similar pattern was observed for organic matter content in sediments with values ranging from 0.74% at the Musken Sill to 7.2% in the Deep Basin (Fig. 2).

#### 3.2. Faunal community

After removal of all colonial organisms, we found 199 different taxa (152 species) representing eight different phyla (supplement 1). 111 of these taxa were rare, *i.e.* represented by three or less individuals. The bivalve *Kelliella miliaris* was the most abundant species representing 23.4% of all individuals in this study, followed by the polychaete Heteromastus filiformis (6.0%), and the bivalves *Mendicula ferruginosa* (5.5%), *Parathyasira equalis* (5.0%), and *Genaxirus eurnyarius* (4.1%).

The UPGMA clustering identified five distinct community clusters (Fig. 3a), including three main clusters that contained 32 stations. These three main clusters (cluster A, B, and D) separated the fjord community almost exactly according to the three main basins. Cluster A included all samples from the deep basin together with the stations outside the Korsnes sill (stn. 1 and 2) and station 22 (Fig. 3b). Cluster B contained the stations from the mid-region of the fjord, which includes the Middle basin and the region around the Helland sill. Cluster D included all stations from the innermost basin. The remaining three stations were particularly shallow (~100 m depth) and were assigned to the other two clusters, which represent the Musken sill (cluster C) and the two innermost stations (Cluster E). The nMDS analysis supported the identified community clusters (Fig. 3c). The three main clusters were separated from each other along the first ordination axis, while stations of the clusters C and E were also separated along the second axis. The latter two clusters are not described in more detail below because of too low sample size.

The communities of the three main clusters showed distinct

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Fig. 2. Results of the CTD casts along the fjord transect showing (a) Temperature [°C], (b) Salinity and (c) Dissolved Oxygen [mg/]], and (d) the results for the sediment parameters showing from top to bottom pH, Redox potential [mV], Mud content [%], and Organic Matter content [%].

diversity characteristics (Table 2). Shannon diversity as well as the average number of species per sample, clearly identified cluster B as the most diverse community within the fjord basins. Cluster A was characterized by a lower evenness than the other clusters, which was primarily caused by the extreme dominance of *K. miliaris* in this part of the fjord (Fig. 4). Cluster D, in contrast, was characterized by an overall low diversity due to a particularly low number of taxa.

According to the relative contribution to the total abundance, IndVal and SCA, we identified *K. miliaris, Paradiopatra fiordica*, and *Spiochaetopterus typicus* as the characteristic taxa of the faunal community associated with cluster A (Fig. 4 and Table 2). The community associated with cluster B, however, appeared to be characterized rather by its high diversity than by any typical species. In contrast to all other clusters, no species contributed with more than 10% to the total abundance in cluster B (Fig. 4) and the most abundant species were also common in other parts of the fjord. However, with regard to the results of IndVal, SCA and the most abundant species, we found that the cooccurrence of the bivalves *K. miliaris, M. ferruginosa, Thyasira obsoleta* and the polychaete *H. filiformis* characterized this cluster. In contrast, the community associated with samples from cluster D was clearly characterized by the bivalve *P. equalis*. Even though, the polychaetes *H. filiformis* and *Terebellides stroemii* contributed each with over 10% of the total abundance in cluster D, IndVal did not identify them as good indicator species for this cluster, which was also confirmed by the SCA.

#### 3.3. Environmental driver of community structure

Forward selection of environmental variables identified all three sets of environmental variables to significantly explain some structure within the Hellinger transformed faunal data. All variables were selected for the bottom water characteristics and depth, only mud content and the organic matter content were selected for the sediment characteristics (Table 1). The variation partitioning identified the bottom water characteristics as the set of environmental variables that in dividually explained the largest fraction of the variation in the community (0.34), while depth and sediment characteristics were able to explain 0.21 and 0.17, respectively (Fig. 5). Only a small part of the explained variation was shared by bottom water and sediment characteristics (0.06) and accordingly these two sets can be considered as independent from each other. With regard to depth, the variation



Fig. 3. Structure of the Hellinger transformed abundance data. (a) Dendrogram of the UPGMA clustering, (b) cluster affiliation of each sample along the fjord transect, and (c) plot of the nMDS ordination are shown. The identified sample clusters are indicated by different colors. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

partitioning showed that a small part of the variation explained by the bottom water characteristics was also accounted for by the depth (0.09), but also that the majority of this variation was independent from depth (0.25). The sediment characteristics on the other side shared the majority of the variation they could explain with depth (0.13).

When all the selected environmental variables were analyzed individually, it became obvious that the overlap in explanatory power of depth and sediment characteristic was caused by the organic matter content. The organic matter content reflects the depth almost exactly and separated the community of cluster A from all other clusters (Fig. 6). The strong explanatory power of the bottom water characteristics, however, is a mix of all three variables included in the analysis and clearly separated the innermost fjord cluster D from clusters A and B.

# 4. Discussion

The benthic community structure of the sub-Arctic Tysfjord clearly reflects the multibasin structure of the fjord. Our study suggests that the basin specific species assemblages are caused by the limited deep-water exchange of the innermost basin and the organic matter accumulation in the basins. We found bivalve and polychaete species in high abundances throughout the Tysfjord basin communities. In particular the deep and middle basin were characterized by a dominance of bivalves (Fig. 4; cluster A and B). Such a high dominance of bivalves is not known from other silled northern Norwegian fjords, where an overall prevalence of polychaetes has been described (Holte, 1998; Holte et al., 2005; Larsen, 1997; Oug, 2000). In general, the benthic communities in Tysfjord seem to differ from previously described silled basin communities. For instance, the tube-building polychaetes Galathowenia oculata and Maldane sarsi seemed to be indicative of silled basin communities in many locations (Holte, 1998; Larsen, 1997; Oug, 2000), while both species were virtually absent in Tysfjord. The abundances of M. sarsi can be very high (up to 12 000 ind./m<sup>2</sup>) in shallow silled basins (Holte, 2001). Studying three sub-Arctic silled basins subject to organic discharges and oxygen minima of 2-3.5 mg/l, Holte et al. (2005) showed that M. sarsi, G. oculata and Owenia fusiformis, along with Parathyasira equalis and Prionospio cirrifera, showed higher preferences towards deeper basins. Both M. sarsi and oweniid polychaetes are functionally important for carbon transport between surface and deeper layers of sediment and vice versa, and their presence can be a sign of a "mature community" (Zaborska et al., 2018). Their absence in Tysfjord in any significant amount implies different benthic functioning compared to shallower silled basins. In contrast, the community of the innermost basin of Tysfjord resembled the deeper basin of Rombacken (311-350 m deep stations) in the neighboring Ofotfjord system more closely, where Larsen (1997) found Heteromastus filiformis, Prionospio cirrifera and thyasirid bivalves dominating the community, while oweniid and maldanid polychaetes were absent. In shallower parts of Rombacken, however, these families were a common component of the benthic communities. Accordingly, basin depth seems to be an important property of northern Norwegian fjords.

# 4.1. Depth related community structure

Although we report total infaunal abundances throughout the Tysfjord system that seem to vary unrelated to the sampled depth gradient (Table 2), a separation in deep (depth > 400 m; cluster A and D) and shallow (depth < 400 m; cluster B) basin community clusters became apparent regarding the applied diversity measures. The shallow community cluster showed an average  $H'_{(\log 2)}$  over 4.4 and an ES100 of 27, while the  $H'_{(\log 2)}$  of the deep basin and the inner-most basin was 3.2 and the ES100 below 20. Furthermore, the less divers deeper communities seem to be more dominated by individual taxa, while the shallower middle basin diversity falls within the typical range reported for boreal and sub-Arctic fjords (Holte et al., 2005).

The relatively low diversity of the deep communities in Tysfjord resemble the pattern described for the deepest fjords in southern Norway, Hardangerfjord and Sognefjord (Fauchald, 1974, 1972). With high contribution of *Kelliella miliaris, Paradiopathra fjordiac* (Husa et al., 2014), and *Spiochaetopterus typicus* (Rygg and Skei, 1997) the deep benthic communities of Hardangerfjord are very similar to the community in the deep basin of Tysfjord. According to Fauchald (1974), the basins of these deep fjords are generally poorer in species than other off-shore regions with similar depths. However, Rosenberg et al. (1996), identified a characteristic deep faunal assemblage (> 400 m) with a lower species richness than at shallower regions (< 400 m) in the Norwegian Trench (maximum depth 700 m). They reported *Spio-chaetopterus bergensis, Genaxinus eunyarius,* and *Kelliella miliaris* species of the deep Skagerrak community of the deep scagerak community of the deep scagerak community of the deep skagerrak community of the deep scagerak com

#### Table 2

Summary of the characteristics of the identified sample clusters. The number of samples contributing to each cluster is given together with the average abundance, the average number of taxa per sample, the total number of taxa in the cluster, the average Shannon index ( $H'_{log} e_{0} \& H'_{log} 2$ ), Pielou's Evenness (J), Hulbert rarefaction (ES100), and species identified by the IndVal method of Dufrêne and Legendre (1997). Note: The total number of species in each cluster are reported as general information and should not be directly compared between clusters due to the different sample numbers.

	Cluster A	Cluster B	Cluster C	Cluster D	Cluster E
Number of stations Average abundance [ind./m <sup>2</sup> ] Average number of species per sample Total number of species in cluster $\vec{H}_{(\log z)}$ J ES100 IndVal species	17 1468 25.7 96 2.2 3.2 0.70 19 Paradiopatra fiordica Kelliella miliaris Spiochaetopterus typicus	10 1772 39.9 119 3.0 4.4 0.84 27 Nephtys hystricis Onchnesoma steenstrupii steenstrupii Nucula nucleus Mendicula ferrurinosa	1 680 27 2.9 4.2 0.87 24 -	5 1152 42 2.2 3.2 0.77 15 Parathyasira equalis	2 2445 42.5 64 2.9 4.3 0.79 27 -
		Mendicula ferruginosa			



Fig. 4. Results of the species contribution analysis (SCA). The five most abundant taxa for each cluster are given with their relative contribution to the total abundance within the cluster. Pairwise comparisons give the 5 taxa contributing most to the difference between the cluster pair. Colors indicate the cluster with the higher abundance for the respective taxon. Drawings by Èric Jordà Molina according to organisms in the present study. Only, *Heteromastus filiformis* was drawn according to a photo by Fredrik Pleijel and *Prionspio cirrifera* was re-drawn from Maciolek (1985). (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)



Fig. 5. Venn diagram showing the results of the variation partitioning. The explained fraction of the total variation in the Hellinger transformed abundance data is given for all three sets of environmental variables and all combinations of them. Bottom water properties (BW) includes the variables salinity, temperature, and oxygen. Sediment properties (Sediment) includes the variables organic matter content and mud content. Depth includes the sampling depth. The residuals, *i.e.* the unexplained variation, is indicated.

basin in Tysfjord very closely (Fig. 4). Rosenberg et al. (1996) suggested that the main structuring factors for the communities in the deep Skagerrak were the sediment characteristics, sediment transport and accumulation rates. The variation partitioning in our study showed that the majority of the variation in the community data that was accounted for by the depth could also be explained by the sediment properties. Particularly the organic matter content followed the depth gradient in our study, which suggests that the observed depth related diversity pattern could be largely driven by the organic matter enrichment within the deep basins.

A similar depth separation in deep and shallow communities with deep communities being more dominated by a few very abundant species has been reported for sub-Arctic offshore regions (Silberberger et al., 2019). There, however, the identified boundary between the communities lies around 800 m depth, which coincides with the boundary between Atlantic and Arctic water masses. No such water mass boundary occurs around 400 m depth in Tysfjord and accordingly the drivers of the observed depth related diversity pattern seem to differ between offshore regions and deep shelf regions (fjord basins/Norwegian trench).

Furthermore, our study identified a clear distinction between the three shallowest stations and all deep communities in the fjord. Such a separation between shallow (~100 m) and basin communities has previously been observed during environmental monitoring in a north Norwegian fjord (Helland et al., 1994) and should be expected in general due to the stronger seasonal variations in temperature and salinity in the upper 100–150 m of all fjords in the area (Brkdjacic et al., 2016) and very different sedimentary conditions (Fig. 2).

# 4.2. Oxygen limitation

We identified bottom water properties as the environmental variables that could explain most of the community structure in the Tysfjord system. In particular, the clear difference between the water mass in the innermost basin and the rest of the fjord. The colder temperature of about 6.5 °C observed in this basin indicates that its deep water is retained by the shallow Musken sill for longer periods and that deep-water renewal is an episodic event. Accordingly, we observed reduced oxygen concentration of about 4 mg/l within the innermost basin in May, a concentration below which a reduction in species numbers has been reported (Reish, 1971). In addition, we expect a continuous decrease in oxygen concentrations throughout the summer until the thermohaline stratification weakens in autumn (Diaz and Rosenberg, 1995).

It has been shown that shallow sills inhabit communities with low diversities in the basins behind the sills in southern Norwegian fjords (Buhl-Jensen, 1986; Buhl-Mortensen and Høisæter, 1993). Buhl-Mortensen and Høisæter (1993) mentioned that lack of oxygen was never an issue in their study system, but acknowledged that restricted water exchange of deep water was an important driver of the community structure. They report that oxygen concentrations were always above 2 ml/l ( $\approx 2.85 \text{ mg/l}$ ). It is well known that deep water stagnation in fiord basins can lead to a reduction in dissolved oxygen (Inall and Gillibrand, 2010). In the most extreme, anoxia can lead to a complete defaunation of the seafloor. Values lower than 1-2 mg/l of dissolved oxygen are considered critical, but hypoxic conditions (< 3 mg/l) can also cause changes in faunal assemblages (Diaz and Rosenberg, 1995). However, several studies suggest that changes in species composition can be induced with even higher oxygen concentrations of 2-6 mg/l (Molvær et al., 2007; Reish, 1971; Wu, 2002).

The five numerically dominant taxa in the innermost basin (compare Fig. 4) have all been reported as common species in hypoxic environments (Diaz and Rosenberg, 1995; Hourdez and Weber, 2005; Keuning et al., 2011; Leppäkoski, 1971). Besides their tolerance to low oxygen condition, the members of the community in the inner-most basin are also characterized by their affinity to oligotrophic conditions or low-quality food sources. Two of the most abundant species, the bivalve P. equalis and the polychaete Siboglinum ekmani possess symbiotic chemoautotrophic bacteria that can provide them with at least a considerable part of their nutrition (Dufour, 2005; Keuning et al., 2011; Southward et al., 1986, 1981), even though the genus Parathyasira is known to vary considerably in their symbiont density among and within species, Zanzerl and Dufour (2017), however, demonstrated that specimens of Parathyasira without symbionts formed deep pedal tracts, which they interpret as an adaptation to deep pedal feeding in combination with symbiont farming along the burrow walls. The polychaete H. filiformis is believed to sustain itself by utilizing a combination of deep buried low quality particulate organic carbon and dissolved organic carbon in the sediment (Clough and Lopez, 1993).

# 4.3. Organic matter of the seafloor

In addition to bottom water properties, we found total organic matter as an important driver of community structure. This gradient is directly reflecting depth (Fig. 6) and indicates the accumulation of organic material in the basins. It is, however, likely that our results underestimate the role of the available organic matter, since we had no information about organic matter quality to include in our analysis. Deep fjord basins can have several potential sources of carbon. In northern Norwegian fjords, the spring bloom is known to occur in early spring (March to April) with low rates of pelagic primary production throughout the rest of the year, when increasing sedimentation of organic matter is associated with local periods of increased river run-off or resuspension at greater depths (Wassmann et al., 1996). However, besides seasonal pulses of sedimentation, there is strong interannual variation of organic matter vertical fluxes that depends on combined biological (e.g. grazing of zooplankton) and physical processes (e.g. wind-induced advection); as a result, particulate organic matter reaches the bottom mainly in the form of larger fecal pellets and detritus (Lutter et al., 1989; Reigstad et al., 2000; Wassmann et al., 1996). Another potential carbon source to deep basins of fjords can be macroalgal detritus (Renaud et al., 2015). Although the contribution of different carbon sources to the basins of Tysfjord is unknown, the È. Jordà Molina, et al.

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Fig. 6. Box plots for all environmental variables selected by the forward selection procedure. Stars indicate the significance of the differences among groups for each environmental variable, according to Kruskal–Wallis test. Letters indicate results of the post-hoc comparison. Groups with the same letter are not significantly different.

geomorphology and water mass distribution indicate a general pattern. The deep sills and the seemingly continuously exchanged water of the deep and middle basin indicate that advection of mesozooplankton from Vestfjorden and their production of fecal pellets are probably an important source of organic matter that reaches these basins (Reigstad et al., 2000; Wassmann et al., 1996). Surface sediment chemistry, however, suggest that the importance of advection from Vestfjorden on sedimentary processes in Tysfjorden decreases with distance from the fjord opening (Faust et al., 2017). Furthermore, the shallow Musken sill seems to restrict shelf water advection into the innermost basin and accordingly the relatively high values of organic matter content suggest accumulation of refractory organic matter that is not directly accessible to macrofauna (Zaborska et al., 2018). This is confirmed by observed large particles of terrestrial organic material in samples from the innermost basin (personal observation È. Jordà Molina). Such a nature of the organic matter in the innermost basin corresponds well with the feeding modes of the dominant species at this location (described above).

#### 4.4. General diversity patterns

Studies from temperate and arctic fjord systems have shown that species diversity decreases from the open shelf to the outer part of fjords and even further towards the inner part (Buhl-Jensen, 1986; Buhl-Mortensen and Høisæter, 1993; Włodarska-Kowalczuk et al., 2012). It might seem inviting to assume a common driver behind such a general pattern, but the before mentioned studies related their observations to different environmental drivers, like sill depth, sedimentation from glaciers, or sediment carbon content.

For our study region, Silberberger et al. (2019) reported an average Shannon index ( $H_{\log} = 3.18$ ) and evenness (J = 0.88) for infaunal macrofauna samples that were collected with the same gear as in the present study from offshore waters of the Lofoten-Vesterålen region down to a depth of 800 m. Accordingly, the species diversity of samples from clusters B, C and E (Table 2; shallower than 400 m) fall within the same range as the continental shelf. Only the deep basin and the innermost basin show a reduced species diversity compared to the shelf. Since these two basins are representing the outer and inner part of the fjord, we cannot confirm an outer-inner gradient of species diversity in Tysfjord. Decreased species diversity seems rather to occur towards environmental extremes (*e.g.* oxygen limitation, depth, organic enrichment), which are often, but not necessarily, found towards the inner part of the fjord.

In conclusion, our study has demonstrated that the fjord specific topography and the corresponding environmental drivers are the main forcing drivers of ecological processes. Particularly, the multibasin topography has a strong influence on hydrology and sedimentation processes, which leads to formation of distinct communities in basins isolated by sills. Accordingly, it is difficult to infer a general and universal pattern to describe ecological processes in fjords. The environmental management of fjord systems in turn, need to take this heterogeneity on small spatial scales into account to adapt their approaches and measures accordingly. This is, however, only possible if monitoring programs are able to identify this heterogeneity. We suggest that an increased application of a sampling approach of many-sites one-sample could improve the ecosystem-based management. This approach is widely applicable to study benthic community structure in relation to environmental gradients, what has been documented in a pollution gradient in the Oslofjord (van Son et al., 2016), to identify fine-scale spatial structure in sandy shelf sediments (Silberberger et al., 2019), and to identify the community structure throughout an entire fjord system (this study).

Nonetheless, we demonstrated that deep sub-Arctic fjord communities resemble communities of other deep regions of the northern European continental shelf (including fjords). Thus, we suggest that functioning of similar fjord systems might be inferred from each other across climate zones in northern Europe, while spatial proximity alone does not permit for such a comparison.

Specifically, we observed a clear distinction between benthic communities in shallow regions of the fjord and the basins. Furthermore, we found a distinct diversity drop below 400 m depth, which raises questions about the environmental monitoring of aquaculture farms in Norwegian fjords. While the corresponding sampling guidelines acknowledge the need to monitor close-by fjord basins, the evaluation of the environmental status is based on the same scale of diversity indices as in the shallow areas (Standard Norge, 2016). This application of the addition observed community structure.

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## Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecss.2019.05.021.

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# Strong macrobenthic community differentiation among sub-Arctic deep fjords on small spatial scales



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#### ABSTRACT

Fjords play an important role in carbon cycling and sequestration, but the burial of organic matter in sediments strongly depends on the composition of macrobenthic communities. We studied three deep, sub-Arctic fjords located in northern Norway to assess the community differentiation of neighbouring fjords and the underlying environmental drivers. The fjords have relatively deep depositional basins (370–570 m), but they differ in sill depth and water exchange. In all fjords studied, the silty sediments were characterised by organic matter of mostly marine origin. We found that each basin was inhabited by a distinct benthic community, with pronounced differences in total abundance, biomass and species diversity. Only in one fjord (Skjerstadfjord), with a shallow sill, a slight mouth-to-head pattern of the community was found. The strong differentiation of macrobenthos among different fjords seems not to be directly associated with environmental drivers such as organic matter input, water masses or depth.

#### 1. Introduction

The Norwegian coastline is characterised by a high number of fjords - deep estuaries that were created or modified by glaciers. There are considerable differences among fjords in terms of their geomorphology; differences in sill depth can affect many of the processes in these coastal systems, including water exchange with adjacent systems (Syvitski et al., 1987). Apart from geomorphology, the geographic setting is also of particular importance. For instance, sub-Arctic silled fjords of northern Norway (located above the Arctic circle) differ from the fjords located at lower latitudes in having more frequent episodes of deep water exchange due to reduced stratification, higher tidal amplitude and, generally, deeper sills (Wassmann et al., 1996; Larsen, 1997; Holte et al., 2005). Even geomorphologically different fjords, located in close vicinity to each other, can have similar patterns in vertical export of organic matter to the seafloor (Reigstad et al., 2000). Sediments of sub-Arctic fjords are often characterised by low input of terrestrial organic matter compared to Arctic and boreal fjords (Faust and Knies, 2019; Włodarska-Kowalczuk et al., 2019). The phytoplankton growth season north of the Arctic circle is only 6-7 months compared to 9-12 months along the southern Norwegian coast, which results in lower yearly primary production (Eilertsen and Degerlund, 2010). Such contrasting differences in environmental settings can potentially result in very different ecosystem components among fjords at different latitudes, including macrofauna. Data on macrobenthic communities of sub-Arctic fjords are scarce and usually from fjords with relatively shallow basins (Larsen, 1997; Holte, 1998; Oug, 2000; Holte et al., 2005). There are even less data on the soft-bottom macrobenthic communities inhabiting the deep basins and almost no information exists on the spatial structure within and among sub-Arctic fjords (but see Jordà Molina et al., 2019). Fjords in the Vestfjord region are particularly interesting considering the high rates of marine organic matter burial observed in their basins compared to those of boreal and Arctic fjords (Faust and Knies, 2019). High marine productivity in the Vestfjord basin, sustained by inflow of nutrient-rich Atlantic waters and upwelling along its steep walls, can lead to advection of organic matter into neighbouring fjords, where burial and remineralization rates on the seafloor depend, in part, on macrobenthic community composition (Zaborska et al., 2018; Włodarska-Kowalczuk et al., 2019). Thus, knowledge on macrobenthic communities is essential to understand carbon cycling in these systems, as well as to monitor and predict the effects of an expanding aquaculture industry in Norwegian coastal waters - another source of allochthonous

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organic matter in fjords (Husa et al., 2014; Johansen et al., 2018).

In general, fjord communities are considered impoverished in terms of biodiversity compared to adjacent open sea areas (Buhl-Mortensen, 1996; Buhl-Mortensen and Høisæter, 1993; Włodarska-Kowalczuk et al., 2012). Apart from environmental drivers such as enhanced sedimentation from river/glacier runoff, possible periods of hypoxia etc., reduction in species richness can be caused by smaller habitat area and its homogeneity (Yang et al., 2015; Scheiner et al., 2011). In this sense, comparisons among fjord basins and their inhabitants are of particular interest. Fjords, located in direct vicinity of each other, share the same pool of species, yet each basin can still be perceived as an independent habitat due to its relative isolation by the sill at the fjord entrance. Thus, it can be assumed that neighbouring fjords with similar environmental settings should have similar macrofaunal composition. However, stochastic events such as the timing of the arrival of species into a community can potentially lead to community divergence (Chase, 2003, 2007; Fukami, 2015). Considering the above, we studied the macrofaunal communities and environmental conditions of several sub-Arctic fjord basins to assess the degree of differentiation of inhabitant macrobenthic communities. Our specific research questions were 1) how similar are closely situated sub-Arctic fjord systems in their benthic community composition and 2) what environmental conditions correlate with these biological patterns?

#### 2. Materials and methods

#### 2.1. Study area and sampling design

We sampled three sub-Arctic fjords from two fjord systems located at  $67^{\circ}$  N in Nordland, northern Norway (Fig. 1). The Saltfjord-Skjerstadfjord and Folda systems are located approximately 40 km from each other, and are separated by relatively deep sills (220–260 m) from the adjacent Vestfjord. Saltfjord is the shallowest of the three fjords

studied (max. depth 380 m), and is connected to the deeper Skjerstadfjord (max. depth 540 m) by the shallow and narrow strait 'Saltstraumen', which is only 26 m deep. Saltstraumen is a hydrologically active area, through which significant amounts of water enters Skjerstadfjord forced by tidal currents (Eliassen et al., 2001). The third studied fjord is Sørfolda (max. depth 560 m), a southern branch of the Folda fjord system, located to the north of Saltfjord-Skjerstadfjord.

All three of these sub-Arctic fjords remain ice-free throughout the year but experience seasonal variation in surface water temperature and salinity associated with river runoff (Skreslet et al., 2000; Myksvoll et al., 2011). However, the bottom water in Saltfjord shows almost no seasonal variation in salinity and temperature (ranging between 34.5 and 35.5, and 6-7.8 °C, respectively) (Skreslet et al., 2000; Busch et al., 2014). Similar bottom water properties were recorded for Sørfolda (34.7-34.9 and 6.6-6.9 °C; Aure and Pettersen, 2004). Bottom water masses in Skjerstadfjord also display little variation across different seasons, but overall are colder (4-4.9 °C) and less saline (33.5-33.9) than with Saltfjord and Sørfolda (Skreslet, 2002; Busch et al., 2014). The oxygen concentration in bottom water is usually above 5.5 ml/L in all three basins (Skreslet et al., 2000; Skreslet, 2002; Aure and Pettersen, 2004). All three fjords are anthropogenically impacted to some degree because of their close proximity to two relatively big cities (Bodø and Fauske) and their industrial facilities. In addition, salmon farming is widespread in this region with several fish farms located in both Skjerstadfjord and Sørfolda. However, for this study, no sampling occurred within 1 km of fish farms.

The sampling campaign was carried out in two periods: April–June 2013 (Saltfjord and Skjerstadfjord) and May 2015 (Sørfolda) from the research vessel "Tanteyen". The sampling was arranged in three transects along the mouth-to head axis of each fjord (Fig. 1). In Saltfjord and Sørfolda, stations outside the main basin were also included (S10, S11 and S12 for the former and F1 and F2 in the latter). Two 0,1 m<sup>2</sup> Van Veen grab samples were taken at each sampling station. Coordinates and



Fig. 1. Map of the study area. Stations denoted the following: S – Saltfjord transect (red), K – Skjerstadfjord transect (blue), F – Sørfolda transect (purple). (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

related information for all the stations are available in Supplementary Table 1.

#### 2.2. Collection of fauna

The grab samples were sieved on a 1 mm mesh and fixed with 4% formaldehyde buffered with borax. While the 1 mm mesh retains smaller total abundances than smaller mesh sizes, it is suitable for describing general patterns of macrobenthic distribution (Thompson et al., 2003; Somerfield et al., 2018). In the lab, animals were sorted from sediments, identified to the lowest taxon possible, counted, weighed (wet weight) to the nearest 0.1 mg, and stored in 70% ethanol. All polychaetes were weighted without tubes. However, for Sørfolda stations, a calculated mean of 1 mg per Spiochaetopterus typicus individual (based on specimens weighted without a tube) was used as a conversion factor from abundance to biomass to facilitate the sample processing. Colonial (e.g. colonial cnidarians, Bryozoa), meiobenthic taxa (e.g. copepods, nematodes, ostracods) and larger suprabenthic taxa (e.g. Mysida, decapod shrimps) were excluded from the analysis. The two replicate grab samples were combined in statistical analyses to remove the effects of fine-scale patchiness. The complete faunal list is available in Supplementary Table 2.

#### 2.3. Sediment samples

Surface sediment subsamples were taken with a spoon from one of the grab samples at each station for granulometry (approximately the top 5 cm) and organic matter (approximately the top 2 cm) analyses. The samples were stored at -20 °C before being processed further. Samples for granulometry were wet washed through a cascade of sieves (1000  $\mu$ m, 500  $\mu$ m, 250  $\mu$ m, 125  $\mu$ m, 63  $\mu$ m). All fractions were dried at 100 °C and weighed. The <63  $\mu$ m fraction was collected in a bucket and left in a cool place to settle for several days prior to decantation and drying. The percent contribution of each fraction was calculated for each sample.

The samples for organic matter analysis were dried at 60 °C, ground with a mortar and pestle and acidified with 2N hydrochloric acid to remove inorganic carbon. Stable isotope analysis and concentration measurements of nitrogen and organic carbon were performed simultaneously with a THERMO/Finnigan MAT V isotope ratio mass spectrometer, coupled to a THERMO Flash EA 1112 elemental analyser via a THERMO/Finnigan Conflo IV- interface in the stable isotope laboratory of the Museum für Naturkunde, Berlin. Stable isotope ratios are expressed in the conventional delta notation  $(\delta^{13}C/\delta^{15}N)$  relative to VPDB (Vienna PeeDee Belemnite standard) and atmospheric nitrogen. Percent of terrigenous organic matter (% Cterr) was estimated based on  $\delta^{13}C_{org}$  signature using a simple mixing model with end-member values of -19.3‰ and -26.5‰ for marine and terrigenous organic matter, respectively (Faust and Knies, 2019). We used percent of total organic carbon (TOC), C:N ratio (weight), % of terrigenous organic matter (%  $C_{terr}$ ) and  $\delta^{15}N$  to characterize quantity and origin of organic matter in sediments.

#### 2.4. CTD data

In May 2015, CTD measurements of temperature, salinity and oxygen were carried out at selected stations in each fjord to characterize bottom water masses of the silled basins. No CTD data were available for the year 2013 when the benthos was sampled in Saltfjord and Skjerstadfjord.

#### 2.5. Modelling of water exchange between Saltfjord and Skjerstadfjord

The effects of a shallow sill on the hydrodynamic regime of the Saltfjord-Skjerstadfjord fjord system were further investigated using the hydrodynamic unstructured grid Finite Volume Community Ocean Model (FVCOM; Chen et al., 2007). The model domain extended from the northernmost part of Meløy municipality to the south, to the northernmost part of Steigen municipality to the north. The model was run along a vertical transect of about 18 km crossing through Salt-straumen with forcing fields for 2013. The model was set up with a grid in which cell size ranged from around 1 km in the open ocean, down to nearly 10 m in narrow straits (e.g. Saltstraumen), and which consisted of 34 vertical sigma layers.

#### 2.6. Statistical analysis of community data

All statistical analyses were performed in R (version 3.6.1; using the packages pvclust, vegan and labdsv; R Development Core Team, 2019) and Primer 7 (Clarke and Gorley, 2015). Species abundances were used for multivariate analyses and to calculate diversity indices. Abundances were preferred over biomass for better comparability with existing literature as the majority of papers on fjords in the region use abundances to describe macrobenthic communities. Prior to multivariate analyses, data were standardized by station to reduce the effect of differences in total abundance among stations due to sampling year (see section 4.2), and subsequently square root transformed in order to reduce the role of dominant species (Clarke et al., 2014). Bray-Curtis coefficients (Bray and Curtis, 1957) were used to calculate the dissimilarity matrix. We used Unweighted Pair Grouping Method with Arithmetic-mean (UPGMA) clustering to identify the main patterns in the community data. The optimal number of clusters was identified with multiscale bootstrap resampling using a modified "pvclust()" function for the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix from the pvclust R package (Github 2019) as well as species fidelity analysis following the methods described in Borcard et al. (2018). The results were verified using non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS).

Abundance, biomass, species number per station (S), expected number of species per 25 individuals (ES (25)); Shannon index (H', to a log base of both 2 and e, for better comparison with existing literature), Pielou's evenness (J') and average taxonomic distinctness ( $\Delta^*$ ) were used as univariate characteristics of the identified clusters (Clarke et al., 2014). Furthermore, we used Species Indicator values (IndVal) (Dufrene and Legendre, 1997) to identify indicator species for each cluster. Species were clustered together using index of association: a similarity index, that is calculated as a Bray-Curtis index based on species abundances standardised across samples with values ranging from 0 (perfect "negative" association) to 100 (perfect "positive" association") (Clarke et al., 2014).

#### 2.7. Variation partitioning

The relationship between the species data set and measured environmental variables as well as sampling locations was investigated using variation partitioning (Borcard et al., 2018). Three groups of explanatory variables were used: depth (included water depth only), fjord (factor variable with three levels which corresponded to three sampling locations: Saltfjord, Skjerstadfjord and Sørdolda) and sediment (% TOC, %N,  $\delta^{13}C,\,\delta^{15}N,\,C$ :N and % of three granulometric fractions: 125  $\mu m,\,63$  $\mu$ m and <63  $\mu$ m). No hydrological parameters were used because none were measured directly for every station. Although stations S12, S11, S10, F1, F2 are located outside their respective fjords, they were considered as a part of the sampling location since the benthic fauna did not significantly differ between the stations inside the sill basin and adjacent outer stations for both Saltfjord and Sørfolda (see below). Prior to variation partitioning, three groups of factor variables were separately subjected to forward selection based on adjusted R<sup>2</sup> with significance level as stopping criteria. We used dbRDA (McArdle and Anderson, 2001) based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarities derived from standardized square root transformed abundance data both for forward selection and variation partitioning. The variables depth, fjord,  $\delta^{15}N$ , and C:N ratio were selected for the partitioning. In addition, we performed variation partitioning for each fjord separately with two groups

of variables, depth and sediment, to identify any patterns associated with environmental drivers within fjords that can be potentially masked by joint analysis. The results of forward selection are available in Supplementary Table 3.

#### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Environmental setting

The granulometry analysis revealed that the mud fraction (silt and clay, <63  $\mu$ m) was dominating the sediment composition and the size fractions below 250  $\mu$ m contributed with more than 90% of the sediment at most stations of all fjords (Fig. 2A–C). While the fraction of 63–125  $\mu$ m consisted mostly of very fine sand, the 125–250  $\mu$ m fraction was usually dominated by uniform mud aggregates rather than sand particles (Fig. 2D). The exception was station S9, located on the sill of Saltfjord, with no aggregates and coarser sediment. No apparent gradient in granulometry from outer to inner stations was found for any of the three fjords.

All fjords were dominated by marine organic matter (%  $C_{terr}$  ranged from 11.4 to 47%) with C:N ratios of less than 10 (4.5–9.5) and  $\delta^{15}N$  in the ranging from 4.3 to 6.6% (Fig. 3). TOC was strongly correlated with the percentage of nitrogen in the sediments of Sørfolda (r = 0.99, p <0.001) and Saltfjord (r = 0.87, p < 0.001) indicating that most of the nitrogen is of organic origin. While this was not the case for Skjerstadfjord as a whole (r = 0.28, p > 0.05), a strong linear relationship was revealed when stations from the anterior part of the fjord (K0–K5) were excluded (r = 1.00, p < 0.001).

The amount of organic matter differed among the basins of the three sampled fjords and their adjacent basins (Fig. 3). The TOC values were on average higher in Sørfolda with an average of 1.7% and a maximum of 2.7%, while in Saltfjord and Skjerstadfjord, TOC rarely exceeded 1.5% (Fig. 3). TOC was higher in the Saltfjord basin compared to stations located outside of the basin (S10-12). This trend was accompanied by an increase in terrigenous organic matter and C:N ratio as well as a decrease in  $\delta^{15}$ N. Skjerstadfjord showed an increase in terrigenous organic matter towards the inner part (up to 47%), which was also accompanied by increase in ratio ratio. However, the increase in TOC was not very pronounced in the inner part of Skjerstadfjord. Also, in Skjerstadfjord, the lowest  $\delta^{15}$ N values were observed (mean 5.2‰ versus 5.6‰ and 5.8‰ for Saltfjord and Sørfolda, respectively). No obvious trends in terms of

organic matter content or quality were found along the fjord axis in Sørfolda. In general, C:N significantly correlated with % C<sub>terr</sub> (r = 0.61, p < 0.001) and negatively with  $\delta^{15}N$  (r = -0.39, p < 0.05).

Based on the CTD data, bottom water masses were similar among Saltfjord, Sørfolda, and stations in the adjacent basins (Table 1), indicating regular inflow of warm and saline waters into these fjords. Bottom water masses in Skjerstadfjord were colder and less saline. All basins were generally well oxygenated with oxygen saturation over 65%.

The typical circulation patterns and water exchanges between Saltfjord and Skjerstadfjord based on the FVCOM are shown in Fig. 4. During rising tides, more saline and denser surface water from Saltfjord flows over the sill and then down to deeper levels in Skjerstadfjord, where the water has approximately the same density. The advection of surface water from Saltfjord into the greater depths of Skjerstadfjord, together with further vertical mixing, are the main processes contributing to the deep water renewal of Skjerstadfjord. During falling tides, the less saline and lighter surface water from Skjerstadfjord flows over the sill and then mixes with the surface waters of Saltfjord. Thus, water flow from Skjerstadfjord into Saltfjord is limited to the upper water layers.

#### 3.2. Faunal data

Based on the results of the UPGMA clustering, multiscale bootstrap resampling and species fidelity analysis, we identified five clusters in the faunal data (Fig. 5A). These clusters approximately corresponded to sampling location. The exception was the sill station S9 in Saltfjord, which was more similar to the stations in Sørfolda than to those in the Saltfjord. Stations K0 and K1, located close to Saltstraumen, formed a different cluster (cluster "A") than the other Skjerstadfjord stations (cluster "B") based on species fidelity analysis. However, the "approximately unbiased" (AU) p-values, identified by multiscale bootstrap resampling for clusters A and B, were only 0.68 and 0.83, respectively, indicating that clusters A and B are quite similar. This was supported by nMDS ordination (Fig. 5B), showing that all clusters clearly formed their own groups, except for clusters A and B, which were not well separated from each other. The varying level of dissimilarity among stations of cluster C was a consequence of low total abundance per station (mostly below 100 individuals), thus leading to a greater influence of rare species.

While many of the dominant species were shared among the clusters, e.g. the polychaete *Heteromastus filiformis*, which was present in high



Fig. 2. Results of granulometry for three fjords: A Saltfjord, B Skjerstadfjord, C Sørfolda. For each station, the contribution of the three main fractions are shown: >250 µm, 125–250 µm, 63–125 µm and <63 µm. D: a macrophotograph of the 125 µm fraction from station F3, showing the high abundance of uniformly shaped mud aggregates. Stations are ordered in the direction from outer fjord to inner fjord.

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Fig. 3. Characteristics of organic matter in surface sediments: A, % of total organic carbon (% TOC); B, % of terrigenous organic matter (% C<sub>terr</sub>); C, C:N ratio and D, 8<sup>15</sup>N (%).

Table 1	
Bottom water parameters in May 2015 (*station	located outside of the Saltfjord basin).

	Station	Depth (m)	Salinity	Temperature (°C)	Oxygen (%)	Oxygen (mg/L)
Saltfjord	S12*	458	35.4	7.2	84.4	8.0
	S8	368	35.3	7.3	77.3	7.3
	S5	377	35.3	7.3	79.6	7.4
Skjerstadfjord	KO	521	33.8	4.9	71.0	7.1
	K5	506	33.8	4.9	71.0	7.1
	K9	372	33.8	4.9	73.4	7.4
Sørfolda	F2	502	35.4	7.0	74.2	7.1
	F7	519	35.3	7.0	68.3	6.4
	F11	535	35.3	7.0	67.7	6.4
	F12	456	35.3	7.0	68.4	6.4
	F14	350	35.3	7.0	70.9	6.7

abundances in all fjords (Fig. 6, Table 2), each fjord was also characterized by a high number of unique taxa with a maximum of 46 taxa only found in Sørfolda (Table 2).

Skjerstadfjord clusters A and B were very similar in terms of dominant species based on both abundance and biomass (Table 2). The polychaetes *Heteromastus filiformis, Paramphinome jeffreysii* and *Ceraocephale loveni*, as well as the echinoderms *Brisaster fragilis* and *Ctenodiscus crispatus*, were the most dominant taxa in both groups. The large size of these two echinoderm species led to a much higher observed biomass in Skjerstadfjord compared to the other sampling locations. The polychaete *Galathowenia oculata*, a dominant species in cluster A, contributed little to the total abundance in cluster B, where the bivalve *Parathyasira equalis* was abundant. Moreover, cluster A had higher abundance and diversity (except taxonomic distinctness) and possessed a higher number of unique taxa than cluster B (Fig. 7, Table 2). The lower average taxonomic distinctness of cluster A indicates that the higher diversity in this cluster compared to cluster B is associated with closely related (mainly polychaete) species.

Saltfjord cluster C was characterised by the lowest abundance and

overall low diversity, but the highest average taxonomic distinctness (Fig. 7). The latter was due to the highly dominant sipunculid Onchnesoma steenstrupii, which is phylogenetically distinct from other species within this cluster (Table 2). The highest diversity values were recorded for Saltfjord cluster D, which consisted of a single station located at the sill (S9), where 15 taxa were exclusively found (Table 2). While the benthic community at this station showed higher similarity with Sørfolda stations than with any of the other Saltfjord stations (Fig. 5), it was similar to Saltfjord cluster C in that O. steenstrupii was among the most abundant species.

All Sørfolda stations were grouped together within a single cluster E. These stations had higher abundance and diversity compared to clusters A, B, and C (Fig. 7). Among the dominant species was *Thyasira obsoleta*, which was completely absent in the other clusters (Fig. 6). The dominance of the polychaetes *Spiochaetopterus typicus*, *Heteromastus filiformis* and the bivalve *Kelliella miliaris* was similar to cluster D (Table 2). In general, the benthic assemblage of cluster E was the most distinct in terms of species composition based on 46 unique taxa as well as several indicator species, identified by the IndVal routine (Table 2).



Fig. 4. Seawater density along Saltstraumen, modelled for the 1st June 2013 during both the rising tide (top) and the falling tide (bottom). The shaded area highlights the depth of the water masses which have a density that falls within the density range of the water flowing over the sill.



Fig. 5. The results of UPGMA clustering (A) and nMDS ordination diagram (B) based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix calculated from square root-transformed standardized species abundance data. Cluster A = Skjerstadfjord/Saltstraumen, Cluster B = Skjerstadfjord, Cluster C = Saltfjord and adjacent basin, Cluster D = Saltfjord sill, Cluster E = Sørfolda and adjacent basin.

#### 3.3. Variation partitioning

Results of variation partitioning showed that more than half of the variation in the data set can be explained by the factor Fjord (0.57)

(Fig. 8A). This was expected since the identified clusters were fjord specific. All of the factor groups were significant in explaining the variation in the species data set. For the sediments, only two variables were selected by forward selection: C:N ratio and  $\delta^{15} N.$  Interestingly, depth and sediment appeared to be independent of each other, but most of their explained variation could also be explained by the sampling location. Nevertheless, the majority of the variation explained by fjord was unrelated to depth and sediment characteristics, indicating that neither are the main environmental drivers responsible for differences in community structure among the fjords. The within-fjord variation was mainly associated with sediment variables for Saltfjord and Skjerstadfjord, while Depth was more important for Sørfolda (Fig. 8B-D). Interestingly, different sediment variables were selected by forward selection for different fjords: 815N for Saltfjord, C:N and 813C for Skjerstadfiord and 813C for Sørfolda. The faunal dataset in Skierstadfiord was more constrained by environmental variables than the other two fjords (0.34 of variation explained versus 0.17 and 0.18 in Saltfjord and Sørfolda, respectively).

#### 4. Discussion

The deep basins (>350m) of the three sampled fjords were characterised by stable water masses and, in general, homogeneous sediments, reflecting their depositional character for mainly marine organic matter. In general, deep depositional sites show more degraded food supply compared to shallower coastal areas, which has a pronounced effect on macrofaunal composition (Dauwe et al., 1998). We found that each fjord basin was inhabited by a distinct benthic community, despite their close vicinity to each other and exchange with adjoining waters. This stands in contrast to adjacent deep fjords of western Norway, where community structure varies with distance to offshore waters, rather than to a specific basin (Buhl-Mortensen, 1996; Buhl-Mortensen and Høisæter, 1993). These findings may indicate that different processes are structuring macrobenthos in deep sub-Arctic and boreal fjords.

#### 4.1. Sediment characteristics and organic matter sources

There were no pronounced differences in sediment particle size distributions among the fjords, however, organic matter properties differed among the studied basins. In general, TOC, % of Cterr (based on  $\delta^{13}C_{org}$ ), C:N and  $\delta^{15}N$  were in accordance with previous findings for the Vestfjord region (Faust and Knies, 2019). In all fjords studied, C:N ratios never reached values above 10, which is indicative of predominantly marine origin for organic matter (Rullkötter, 2006), and were significantly correlated with % of  $C_{terr}.$  However,  $\delta^{15}N$  values appeared to change independently from these two parameters. The low  $\delta^{15}N$  and high values of C<sub>terr</sub> observed for the inner part of the basin in Skjerstadfjord are likely related to higher terrigenous input compared to outer parts of the basin, a pattern observed for fjords worldwide (Smeaton et al., 2017; Hinojosa et al., 2014; Sepúlveda et al., 2011).  $\delta^{15} N$  values for Skjerstadfjord sediments sampled close to Saltstraumen might not reflect the organic matter sources of nitrogen because of the high inorganic nitrogen content in this part of the fjord. Interestingly, Sørfolda showed higher levels of terrestrial input than Saltfjord but also relatively high  $\delta^{15}$ N values. However,  $\delta^{15}$ N values can vary depending on the abundance of fresh phytoplankton or various fractionation processes in sediments (Silberberger et al., 2018; Robinson et al., 2012). In sub-Arctic fjords close to Tromsø (northern Norway, 69°N), organic matter fluxes and their composition depend on advection of water masses from the open coastal zone, and zooplankton abundance, showing strong seasonal and interannual variation, while fjord morphology and sill depth are of minor importance for the flux (Wassmann et al., 1996; Reigstad et al., 2000). Since sampling in Sørfolda was carried out two years after Saltfjord/Skjerstadfjord, interannual differences in the spring bloom production and the settlement of organic matter could have affected the patterns observed in this study.



Fig. 6. Shade plot of square root transformed abundances (per  $0.2 \text{ m}^2$ ) for the 25 most abundant species. Species grouped using UPGMA clustering based on index of association. Cluster A = Skjerstadfjord/Saltstraumen, Cluster B = Skjerstadfjord, Cluster C = Saltfjord and adjacent basin, Cluster D = Saltfjord sill, Cluster E = Sørfolda and adjacent basin.

#### Table 2

Dominant species based on abundance, biomass, IndVal species and number of unique taxa Cluster A = Skjerstadfjord/Saltstraumen, Cluster B = Skjerstadfjord, Cluster C = Saltfjord and adjacent basin, Cluster D = Saltfjord sill, Cluster E = Sørfolda and adjacent basin. \*- species listed in Supplement Table 2.

	Skjerstadfjord		Saltfjord		Sørfolda	
	Cluster A	Cluster B	Cluster C	Cluster D	Cluster E	
Dominant species based on total cluster abundance (% of total cluster abundance)	Paramphinome jeffreysii (19.74)	Heteromastus filiformis (48.72)	Onchnesoma steenstrupii (50.00)	Kelliella miliaris (13.28)	Spiochaetopterus typicus (23.63)	
	Heteromastus filiformis (19.64)	Parathyasira equalis (15.80)	Spiochaetopterus typicus (15.26)	Spiochaetopterus typicus (13.01)	Heteromastus filiformis (16.20)	
	Galathowenia oculata (16.62)	Ceratocephale loveni (8.37)	Parathyasira equalis (4.87)	Heteromastus filiformis (10.84)	Parathyasira equalis (4.80)	
	Ceratocephale loveni (5.67)	Paramphinome jeffreysii(4.51)	Falcidens crossotus (3.80)	Eclysippe vanelli (10.03)	Kelliella miliaris (4.67)	
	Chaetozone setosa agg. (3.78)	Microclymene acirrata (2.26)	Heteromastus filiformis (3.80)	Onchnesoma steenstrupii (7.05)	Thyasira obsoleta (4.66)	
Dominant species based on total cluster biomass (% of total cluster biomass)	Brisaster fragilis (48.53)	Brisaster fragilis (40.42)	Brissopsis lyrifera (81.17)	Chirimia biceps (41.48)	Brisaster fragilis (20.87)	
	Astarte crenata (20.54)	Ctenodiscus crispatus (32.19)	Psilaster andromeda (2.82)	Nephtys hystricis(5.95)	Sipunculus norvegicus (19.05)	
	Ctenodiscus crispatus (6.95)	Polyphysia crassa (13.90)	Onchnesoma steenstrupii (2.50)	Abra nitida (5.50)	Terebellides stroemii agg. (7.79)	
	Paraedwardsia arenaria (4.46)	Ceratocephale loveni (2.68)	Nemertea (1.68)	Ampelisca cf. amblyops (4.1)	Ophiura sarsii (7.33)	
	Notomastus latericeus (3.60)	Notomastus latericeus (1.44)	Parathyasira equalis (1.59)	Pista bansei (3.87)	Parathyasira equalis (6.13)	
IndVal species	Paraedwardsia arenaria	Parathyasira.equalis	Onchnesoma steenstrupii Eulalia tjalfiensis	Eclysippe vanelli Laonice sarsi Cuspidaria lamellosa Onchnesoma sayamatum	Mendicula ferruginea Thyasira obsoleta Genaxinus eumyarius Myrioglobula islandica	
				Kelliella miliaris	Abyssoninoe sp. Paradoneis eliasoni Augeneria sp.	
Total number of taxa	68	51	53	65	Eriopisa elongata 123	
Total Humber of task	79	01	90		120	
Number of unique taxa* (Present only in a particular cluster/fjord)	17 32	3	7 23	15	46	

Nevertheless, the fjords described here are dominated by marine organic matter, as are other fjords in the Vestfjord region, as a result of high marine productivity in the area (Faust and Knies, 2019). The relatively low contribution of terrigenous organic matter to the organic matter pool in the sediment seems to be characteristic of many sub-Arctic fjords

due to low river runoff and scarce vegetation (Faust and Knies, 2019; Włodarska-Kowalczuk, 2019). Nonetheless, based on these qualitative characteristics of organic matter and TOC content, it can be concluded that sources of organic matter differed slightly among and within the three studied fjords, with higher terrestrial input in Sørfolda compared



Fig. 7. Univariate characteristics of identified clusters: Abundance (individuals per square meter), Biomass (gram wet weight per square meter), number of species per station (S), expected number of species per 25 individuals ES(25), Shannon index (H') Pielou's evenness (J') and average taxonomic distinctness ( $\Delta^*$ ). Cluster A = Skjerstadfjord/Saltstraumen, Cluster B = Skjerstadfjord, Cluster C = Saltfjord and adjacent basin.

to Saltfjord, and increasing terrestrial input towards the inner part of the basin in Skjerstadfjord. In general, sediments were dominated by the mud (silt and clav) sediments by the benthic fauna, while the consequences of such "pelletization" for sediment biogeochemistry and carbon sequestration are yet to be understood.

4.2. Faunal composition and community structure

All the fjords in this study were characterised by a distinct macrobenthic community, while the community patterns within each basin along the fjord axis were not very pronounced. Skjerstadfjord was the only fjord that showed a further clustering within the fjord, with two clusters separating the community of the entrance region from the rest of the fjord. Moreover, variation partitioning suggested a stronger environmental forcing in Skjerstadfjord indicating a pronounced effect of organic matter quality on the benthic community structure. However, variation among fjords seems to be controlled not only by organic matter quality or depth, which is discussed in section 4.3.

Saltfjord and Sørfolda have similar sill depths around 250 m as well as bottom water temperature and salinity, which suggests similar water exchange with the adjacent Vestfjord. However, the two benthic communities in these fjords were significantly different. The Saltfjord basin

fraction (<63 µm). Moreover, we observed a high percentage of mud aggregates in the sand fraction (125-250 µm), especially in Sørfolda. The aggregates were preserved in the samples following the gentle wetsieving technique used. Similar uniformly shaped aggregates were described from the Palos Verdes shelf margin in South California, which were considered to be a result of sediment "pelletization" caused by benthic fauna, mainly capitellid polychaetes (Drake et al., 2002). This could be the case also for the fjord basins in this study since the capitellid Heteromastus filiformis was one of the most dominant species in all communities observed. Pellet deposition by head-down feeding H. filiformis can significantly alter sediment characteristics by enhancing the vertical transport of carbon from deeper sediment layers to the surface and the degradation of refractory organic matter (Neira and Höpner, 1994; Wild et al., 2005). Pelletization also leads to faster sedimentation of the particles after resuspension altering the near-bottom sediment transport (Drake et al., 2002). Thus, the pellet aggregates observed in this study suggest strong modification of fjord



Fig. 8. Venn diagram showing the results of variation partitioning: A - all fjords, B - Saltfjord, C - Skjerstadfjord, D - Sørfolda. Numbers indicate the proportion of variation explained (Adjusted  $R^2$ ) independently and jointly by three groups of factors: Depth, Fjord and Sediment.

community (most stations of cluster C) was characterised by relatively low total abundances (<1000 ind./m<sup>2</sup>) and a high dominance of the sipunculid worm Onchnesoma steenstrupii, a species that represented half of all the individuals in this cluster. Infaunal sipunculids are surface deposit feeders (Cutler, 1994), while the second most abundant polychaete species Spiochaetopterus typicus can switch from suspension feeding to surface deposit feeding (Jumars et al., 2015). The mode of feeding of the most abundant species implies a high dependence of this community on organic matter settling from the water column. The dominance of O. steenstrupii in benthic communities has rarely been reported, except of a region in the western Mediterranean (800 m) with consistent organic matter supply (Mamouridis et al., 2011). Marine valleys in the Lofoten-Vesterålen region are also dominated by O. steenstrupii (Silberberger et al., 2019). It is a species sensitive to pollution (Rygg &Norling, 2013), and it is absent from areas with high organic input from fish farms, even when present in the surrounding community (Kutti et al., 2007).

O. steenstrupii and S. typicus were present in the Sørfolda basin at all stations. However, in Sørfolda, the benthic community was generally more abundant and diverse, and the higher total abundance in Sørfolda could potentially be linked to the interannual differences; several stations, revisited in Saltfjord in 2015, showed higher abundance (average 2820 ind/m<sup>2</sup>), which falls into the range of abundances for Sørfolda in this study, while S. typicus and O. steenstrupii were still the two most abundant species similar to 2013 (data not included in the present study). Probably, both communities with high contribution of surfacedeposit and suspension feeders rely on organic matter which is advected from Vestfjord, however, such advection events are subject to interannual variability (Wassmann et al., 1996; Reigstad et al., 2000). High dominance of the genus Spiochaetopterus as well as abundant thyasirid bivalves and Kelliella miliaris makes this community very similar to the communities found in the Norwegian Trench (Skagerrak), where similar C:N and slightly higher TOC values were observed, which suggests similar organic input between the two habitats (Rosenberg et al., 1996). Bulk sediment characteristics differed slightly between Sørfolda and Saltfjord, with indications of lower terrigenous organic matter input in Saltfjord. However, sediment factors explained a relatively low proportion of variance in the dataset.

The macrofaunal community of Skjerstadfjord also differed

significantly from the two other fjords, and was characterised by intermediate levels of total abundance, biomass and diversity compared to Saltfjord and Skjerstadfjord. In addition, a spatial structuring of the communities within the fjord basin was observed. The stations close to the Saltstraumen strait (cluster A), were characterised by a higher total abundance and diversity than the other stations in Skjerstadfjord (cluster B). Furthermore, the community of cluster A had a high contribution of the tube-dwelling polychaete Galathowenia oculata compared to cluster B and to the other fiords in this study. G. oculata forms dense populations in several silled basins in northern Norway but does not usually occur at depths exceeding 200 m (Larsen, 1997; Holte, 1998; Oug, 2000; McGovern et al., 2020). G. oculata selectively feeds on surface detritus particles (Bamber, 1984). Thus, its high abundances can be indicative of strong bentho-pelagic coupling in this hydrodynamically active region of the fjord. Some other distinguishing species of this cluster were the large suspension feeding bivalve Astarte crenata and burrowing anthozoans from the family Edwardsiidae, which are also known to feed on food captured in the water column (Daly et al., 2012). This contrasts with cluster B, where none of the dominant species are known to feed on the sediment surface or overlaying water layer. These differences are likely related to the dynamic environmental conditions close to Saltstraumen, where water masses from Saltfjord are advected into Skjerstadfjord by tidal currents (Fig. 4). Denser surface waters from Saltfjord sink to the deeper layers of Skjerstadfjord, enhancing bentho-pelagic coupling at the fjord entrance. Thus, higher sedimentation rates of advected organic matter and its resuspension can be expected compared to the rest of the fjord, supporting a more diverse and abundant community. However, there was no observed increase in the TOC values at these stations, which can be explained by effective utilisation of high-quality organic matter by the benthos consisting of both surface and sub-surface deposit feeders (Zaborska et al., 2018). This is corroborated by the high abundance of the omnivorous polychaete Paramphinome jeffreysii in cluster A, which indicates an opportunistic response to an increase in organic matter in deep waters (Bannister et al., 2014; Gunton et al., 2015).

The dominance of sub-surface deposit feeding species such as the bivalve *Parathyasira equalis* and the polychaete *Heteromastus filiformis* in the benthic community of Skjerstadfjord (cluster B) is very similar to the community of the innermost basin of the Tysfjord multi-basin system

(Jordà Molina et al., 2019). Although both basins in Skjerstadfjord and Tysfjord have a relatively shallow sill, 26 and 60 m respectively, their hydrological conditions are considerably different. While the Skjerstadfjord basin seems to be well oxygenated by the strong tidal driven currents, this is not the case for Tysfjord's innermost basin, where relatively low oxygen concentrations (saturation <50%) were observed (Jordà Molina et al., 2019). Although present in all three fjords, P. equalis and H. filiformis probably become the most abundant species in conditions where the supply of fresh organic matter is limited. Thus, it can be concluded that the absence of surface-deposit and suspension feeders among the most abundant species is a distinguishing characteristic of cluster B. Populations of subsurface deposit feeders are less dependent on fluxes of fresh pelagic organic matter (Rice and Rhoads, 1989). It seems that the structuring factor for Skjerstadfjord is the distance from Saltstraumen, which corresponds with a decrease in pelagic organic matter input to the sediment. Interestingly, the increase in terrestrial input towards the inner part of the fjord had no pronounced effect on the community structure, likely due to the low bioavailability of terrestrial organic matter compared to marine.

#### 4.3. Fjord-specific communities

In our study, we identified fjord-specific communities that significantly differed in their structure. The majority of the variation in the macrofaunal community structure that could be explained by depth or sediment characteristics was also associated with sampling location, as shown by results of variation partitioning. However, that shared variation accounted for less than half of the variation explained by the factor "Fjord". Considering the high level of local endemism (number of species absent from nearby fjords) found in our study, it can be assumed that the three communities of the three basins represent completely different benthic assemblages, which formed or developed independently. In line with this finding, basin-specific communities were also described for the Tysfjord multi-basin system further north (Jorda Molina et al., 2019). Thus, distinct fjord, or even basin communities, appear to be a characteristic feature for macrobenthic assemblages of fjords in this sub-Arctic region.

There were two major events that have influenced the structure of macrobenthic communities along the shelf of northern Norway: deglaciation of troughs and subsequent inflow of warm Atlantic water about 10 kyr BP, which resulted in the replacement of Arctic with boreal species (Thomsen and Vorren, 1986). Presumably, similar events at a comparable time scale occurred when the modern communities of the Vestfjord region started to develop. Water mass properties are an important factor structuring macrofaunal distribution, as benthic communities can change with inflow of warmer water masses, even on much shorter (decadal) time scales (Kędra et al., 2010). Temperature not only directly influences particular aspects of species biology such as growth and reproduction, but also interspecific relationships, which can drive local-scale community shifts (Kordas et al., 2011). Thus, the relative hydrological isolation of Skjerstadfjord, where the shallow sill limits the influence of Atlantic water masses on the macrobenthic communities and retains colder water masses in the fjord, might be a strong driver for a distinct community.

In contrast, the pronounced differences in community structure between Saltfjord and Sørfolda remains unclear, especially since the deep sills should enable sufficient water exchange with coastal water masses. However, different communities can also establish in similar environments as a result of stochastic processes during community assembly, e. g. the order of species colonizing the habitat (priority effects; Chase, 2003; Fukami, 2015). Considering that these two communities presumably started developing at the same time in the same region and shared an available pool of species, the priority effects might be a potential reason for community differentiation that should be explored further. Previous studies on boreal and Arctic fjords suggest that the reduced diversity compared to the offshore pool of species can be a result of specific environmental conditions in the fjord systems, e.g. reduced habitat complexity, higher fluxes of organic matter and sedimentation from glaciers (Buhl-Mortensen and Hoisæter, 1993; Wlodarska-Kowalczuk et al., 2012). While we have no data on the species pool from adjacent waters to compare to, we suggest that the subset of species present in these fjords forms not only as a result of environmental filtering of the fauna, but also because of stochastic processes which lead to variation among fjords with similar environmental conditions.

#### 4.4. Conclusion

Strong macrobenthic community differentiation among closely situated deep fjords is only partially correlated with environmental conditions, of which water exchange with surrounding waters is of particular importance. We suggest that stochastic processes during community assembly could be an additional driver of the observed pattern. If stochastic processes result in different communities in fjords with similar environmental settings, no typical macrobenthic community can be described for sub-Arctic fjords as many combinations of functionally similar species can be drawn from the pool of species. For instance, the proportion of surface to subsurface deposit feeders is probably maintained by the supply of organic matter to the seafloor, but species composition even within each trophic guild can be different among different fjords. However, knowledge on the variation among different fjords is meagre, which comprises not only spatial patterns, but also temporal variability of macrobenthic communities and their functional aspects. This knowledge would be necessary before any general conclusion about the isolation and differentiation of benthic communities in sub-Arctic fjords can be drawn.

#### Author statement

Valentin Kokarev: Conceptualization, Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing. Mathieu Tachon: Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing - Review & Editing. Marthe Austad: Investigation, Writing - Review & Editing. Maeve McGovern: Investigation, Writing - Review & Editing. Henning Reiss: Conceptualization, Investigation, Writing - Review & Editing, Supervision.

#### Declaration of competing interest

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.

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#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

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Paper III

# **1** Combining species and biological trait composition to assess

## 2 macrobenthic community assembly in deep sub-Arctic fjords

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### 7 Abstract

Ecosystem properties, such as functioning and stability, are often linked to 8 biodiversity. At small scales, biodiversity is determined by community assembly of 9 local communities. Biodiversity can be perceived from a taxonomic point of view as 10 the number and relative abundances of species coexisting in a local community and 11 from a functional point of view as the range of functional niches occupied by these 12 species. Biological traits expressed by species might serve as a proxy between the two 13 approaches as they are related to resource use and, consequently, a functional niche 14 of a species. There is a major gap in knowledge on macrobenthic diversity and 15 community assembly in deep sub-Arctic fjords that limits our understanding of 16 ecosystem processes in these depositional habitats. We studied eight deep (>290 m) 17 sub-Arctic basins in northern Norway to assess the community differentiation of 18 19 neighbouring fjords based on species and biological trait composition. There was a significant difference in macrobenthic community structure between shallow-silled 20 and deep-silled fjords, which were characterised by distinct bottom water masses. 21 Moreover, further differentiation was observed among fjords with similar levels of 22 water exchange with surrounding waters on a basin scale. Biological trait composition 23 revealed that, generally, basins with a shallow sill have a higher proportion of deep-24 dwelling subsurface deposit feeding fauna, indicating differences in benthic 25 functioning. We suggest that differentiation on a basin scale with regard to species 26 composition results from stochastic community assembly, low connectivity among 27 basins, and particularly presence of dispersal barriers, such as a shallow sill, while 28 water exchange with surrounding waters mediates organic matter fluxes to the 29 30 seafloor and, consequently, the functional structure of macrobenthos.

### 31 **1 Introduction**

Understanding the processes underlying species composition and abundance 32 within ecological communities is one of the fundamental problems in ecology. Fjord 33 basin species communities could serve as models for studying community assembly 34 in marine macrobenthos as the borders of this habitat are well-defined due to 35 enclosure by land and presence of sills at the fjord mouth, which can limit exchange 36 processes with the offshore environment. Several environmental drivers, such as 37 organic enrichment, hypoxia and enhanced sedimentation from river/glacier runoff, 38 have been documented to influence macrobenthic communities within fjord 39 ecosystems (e.g. Pearson and Rosenberg, 1978; Diaz and Rosenberg, 1995; 40 Wlodarska-Kowalczuk and Pearson, 2004; McGovern et al., 2020). The above-41 mentioned environmental drivers often cause instability and lead to habitat 42 deterioration, reflected in decreased species diversity of fjord communities compared 43 to the open shelf (Włodarska-Kowalczuk et al., 2012). Habitat deterioration can create 44 unfavourable abiotic conditions for some of the potential benthic colonizers leading 45 to the absence of these species in the community, a process often referred to as 46 "environmental filtering" (Kraft et al., 2015). Apart from environmental filtering, 47 many factors can potentially influence species richness, including environmental 48 heterogeneity, biotic interactions and dispersal limitations (Brown et al., 2016; 49 Scheiner et al., 2011; Hart et al., 2017). Accordingly, several hypotheses were 50 proposed to explain the reduced diversity of fjord communities compared to offshore 51 habitats: more homogenous sediment composition, competitive dominance of 52 opportunistic species due to higher organic matter content and limited dispersal due 53 to a shallow sill (Buhl-Mortensen and Hoisaeter, 1993). Fjords, particularly with deep 54 basins, are often regarded as subsets of deep-sea fauna or "mini-oceans" (Brattegard, 55 1980). Therefore, fjord basins might be perceived as smaller deep-sea patches, 56 where, potentially, species richness is more influenced by isolation and stochastic 57 processes such as disturbance and population dynamics compared to larger habitats 58 ("small island effects"; Lomolino, 2000). Such a view, for instance, is in accordance 59 with data from a deep-fjord system in New Zealand, where basin-scale processes 60 including disturbance and local connectivity were identified as major drivers (Brewin 61 et al., 2011). 62

While the majority of studies focus on local diversity, among-fjord variation in species composition might be critical to understand biodiversity organization and assembly of these communities (Mori et al., 2018), but such data are largely lacking. Geomorphology of fjords suggests that community patches, or local communities, can

correspond to basin topography. Therefore, closely situated basins can be considered 67 a metacommunity, an approach recently proposed for studying macrobenthic 68 communities (Corte et al., 2018). A metacommunity can be defined as a set of local 69 communities connected via dispersal of multiple potentially interacting species 70 (Leibold et al., 2004; Heino et al., 2015). In such a framework, the importance of local 71 72 processes such as environmental filtering and competitive exclusion on community assembly is mediated by dispersal. Particularly high dispersal might result in the 73 homogenization of local communities (Mouquet and Loreau, 2003). In fjord systems, 74 the connectivity of neighbouring patches is constrained not only by dispersal abilities 75 of species, but also by sill depth, as it limits water exchange, and consequently 76 potential exchange of larvae and adults. In smaller and isolated habitats, niche-based 77 processes such as environmental filtering and competitive exclusion can be 78 overridden by stochastic processes such as fluctuations in population size (ecological 79 drift) (Orrock and Watling, 2010; Chase and Myers, 2011;). High variation in 80 community composition among environmentally similar sites can also be established 81 due to differences in colonization history in habitats with low disturbance and a rich 82 regional pool of species ("priority effects"; Chase, 2003; Fukami, 2015). This is 83 particularly interesting, as species turn-over among closely situated fjords in New 84 Zealand was related to habitat age (time it became available for colonization), 85 indicating the importance of historical processes on community assembly (Smith, 86 2001). Thus, in fjords, where disturbance events such as enhanced sedimentation or 87 hypoxia are absent, species community assembly might be dominated by stochastic, 88 rather than deterministic processes. 89

Biological traits, expressed by species, are important to understand the link 90 between functional and taxonomic structure of local communities as they provide 91 information on resource use of species. Functional composition might be less driven 92 by dispersal limitations compared to species composition, providing a different view 93 on community assembly; moreover, traits associated with dispersal abilities can be 94 incorporated in the analysis (Fukami et al., 2005; Weiher et al., 2011). In macrobenthic 95 ecology, biological traits related to morphology, behaviour and life history are used 96 to assess community functional structure (e.g. Bremner et al., 2006; Degen et al., 97 2018). Species with similar traits belong to the same functional guild, i.e. group of 98 99 ecologically similar species that utilise resources in similar ways (Götzenberger et al., 2012). Resource partitioning and competition can be expected to be the highest 100 among species from the same functional guild. The distribution of species among 101 functional guilds further allows is related to functional redundancy, an attribute that 102

expresses to which degree different species perform similar functions in a 103 community. High functional redundancy is generally considered as insurance for 104 maintained ecosystem functioning in cases of biodiversity loss (Naeem, 1998; Walker 105 et al., 1999; Diaz and Cabido, 2001; Bellwood et al., 2003; Hooper et al., 2005). High 106 redundancy would indicate that ecosystem functions are robust to environmental 107 108 change or in case of perturbations, are able to revert to previous states (resilience). Low functional redundancy, on the other side, implies a risk that functions get lost in 109 cases of species losses, but at the same time might ensure higher adaptability to 110 changed environmental conditions (Diaz and Cabido, 2001). Determining the 111 relationships between taxonomic diversity and functional diversity can be used as 112 proxies to assess functional redundancy and susceptibility of community functioning 113 to species loss (Micheli and Halpern, 2005). 114

Sub-Arctic fiords in the Vestfjord region are generally deep, in most cases rather 115 narrow, and more or less separated from the coastal waters outside by sills of varying 116 depths. Studies of the benthic macrofauna have shown that the distribution of the 117 communities is largely restricted to a specific fjord/basin (Jordà Molina et al., 2019; 118 Kokarev et al., 2021). These communities have pronounced differences in structure 119 and composition. Basins with shallower sills are characterised by colder and less saline 120 bottom water masses, indicating restricted water exchange, while biological data 121 indicates that inhabiting communities might be more adapted to degraded food 122 123 supply (Jordà Molina et al., 2019; Kokarev et al., 2021). Macrobenthic communities in 124 basins with sufficient water exchange and similar bottom water masses shared some dominant species but still differed in their structure, and this among-basin variation 125 cannot be sufficiently explained by differences in measured sediment parameters or 126 topography (depth) (Kokarev et al., 2021). In the present study, we further explore 127 macrobenthos of sub-Arctic fjords on a larger dataset by combining species and trait 128 composition. The main objective is to assess how biological characteristics and 129 functional attributes, in particular, can contribute to explaining differences among 130 basin communities. The objective included addressing the following questions: do 131 fjords with different species compositions also differ in biological trait composition 132 (dominant functional guilds); and what is the functional redundancy (number of 133 species with similar traits) of these communities? The present study will contribute 134 135 to understanding the scale of community assembly in fjord species communities, and consequently, ecosystem functioning in fjords (Mori et al., 2018). 136

137

### 138 2 Materials and methods

### 139 2.1 Study area

In our study, we used data for eight sub-Arctic fjord basins located in the Vestfjord region, northern Norway (Figure 1, Table 1, Supplementary Table 1). The fjords in the area are characterised by relatively deep basins, stable bottom water masses throughout a year and fine-grained sediments with organic matter of mainly marine origin, although some increases in terrestrial organic matter input are observed in more inland basins (Faust and Knies, 2019; Kokarev et al., 2021).

The studied fjords were divided into two categories based on sill depth at the 146 entrance of the fjord basins. Deep-silled (> 200 m) basins (Saltfjord, Sørfolda, Tysfjord 147 deep, Tysfjord middle) are characterised by bottom water temperatures >7° C and 148 salinity >35 indicating regular inflow of Atlantic water masses (Table 1). Shallow-silled 149 basins (Skjerstadfjord, Nordfjord, Mistfjord, Tysfjord innermost) were distinguished 150 by lower temperatures and salinities, indicating a limited water exchange. However, 151 relatively low oxygen saturation was observed only in Tysfjord innermost basin, 152 indicating that in some fjords with shallow sills the bottom water renewal is a more 153 episodic event. In Skjerstadfjord, another fjord with a shallow sill, the bottom water 154 layer is regularly supplied with surface waters from Saltfjord on rising tide due to 155 turbulent mixing of inflowing water and density differences (Kokarev et al., 2021). 156 Contrary, basin water renewal in Mistfjord happens at decadal intervals (Skreslet et 157 al., 2020). Stations located just outside several basins (Saltfjord; Sørfolda; Tysfjord) 158 were treated as a part of the concerning fjord basin as community structure did not 159 significantly differ from the main basin communities (Jordà Molina et al., 2019; 160 Kokarev et al., 2021). 161

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### 163 2.2 Collection of fauna

Samples were collected by an 0.1 m<sup>2</sup> Van Veen grab. The grab samples were sieved on a 1 mm mesh on board and subsequently fixed with 4% formaldehyde buffered with borax. In the lab, animals were sorted, identified to the lowest taxon possible, counted, weighed (wet weight) to the nearest 0.1 mg, and stored in 70% ethanol. No biomass data were available for Nordfjord as some larger animals were dissected upon collection for fatty acid and stable isotope analysis as part of a separate study. The complete species list is available as Supplementary Table 2.

171

### 172 2.3 Biological traits

For analysis of trait composition and functional diversity, species were assigned to 173 seven traits using a fuzzy coding approach (Table 2). Six traits representing 174 morphology and behaviour ('Adult life habit', 'Mobility', 'Body design', 'Feeding 175 habit', 'Normal adult size' and 'Position in sediment') and subdivided into 29 176 categories (modalities) were used to describe functional guilds of benthic 177 invertebrates. One trait ('Larval type') with two modalities was used to assess larval 178 dispersal. The trait data were obtained from the NIVA database (Oug et al., 2012) and 179 various literature sources (see Supplementary Table 4). For 'Larval type', where direct 180 observations of deep-water macrofauna are scarce, we used the classification from 181 Josefson (1985): planktotrophs with wide dispersal capabilities and lecithotrophs with 182 183 either direct development or short-range dispersal with near-bottom currents. The affinities for a specific modality were assigned the following way: 3-exclusive, 2-184 moderate, 1-low. In case of missing information zero values were assigned. The trait 185 'Larval type' was missing information for about one-third of taxa and was excluded 186 from the analysis of functional structure. For the subsequent analyses, traits were 187 standardised to equal 1 per each trait for one species. 188

189

### 190 2.4 Data analyses

All statistical analyses were performed in R (version 3.6.1; R Development Core 191 192 Team, 2019) and Primer 7 (Clarke and Gorley, 2015). Prior to multivariate analyses of 193 species composition, data for abundance and biomass were recalculated to relative proportions by standardising by sample total. Abundance data were subsequently 194 square root transformed and biomass data were fourth root transformed. More 195 powerful transformation (fourth root) was used for biomass data as the magnitude of 196 difference among different species was much higher compared to abundances. Bray-197 Curtis coefficient (Bray and Curtis, 1957) was used to calculate the similarity matrix 198 based on transformed abundance and biomass. In addition, Sørensen coefficient 199 (Sørensen, 1948) was used to calculate similarity based on presence/absence data. 200 Similarity matrices were visualised using nMDS. One-way factor analysis was 201 performed using PERMANOVA and ANOSIM in conjunction with tests for differences 202 in dispersions PERMDISP (Anderson et al., 2008). Community structure based on 203 204 species composition has been addressed for most fjords in previous studies (Jordà Molina et al., 2019; Kokarev et al., 2021) and is here only briefly presented. 205

For the analysis of the functional community composition, square root transformed 206 abundance and fourth root transformed biomass values were multiplied by species 207 affinities across all traits and summarised within stations. The resulting "Stations x 208 Traits" matrix was standardised by each trait and used for Fuzzy Correspondence 209 Analysis (FCA) in the ade4 package (Dray and Dufour, 2007). One-way factor analyses 210 were performed using PERMANOVA and ANOSIM in conjunction with PERMDISP tests 211 for differences in dispersions based on Euclidian distances among the stations in the 212 213 first two axes of FCA.

Total species number (S) and Shannon index (H', using log base e) were used to 214 describe species richness and species diversity. We used Functional dispersion (Fdis) 215 as a measure of functional diversity, which was calculated using R package FD 216 (Laliberté and Legendre, 2010). Fdis calculates functional diversity as multivariate 217 dispersion in the traits space, where individual distances of species to the centroid 218 are weighted by their relative abundance. For calculation of Fdis, the species traits 219 matrix was standardised using "prep.fuzzy.var()" in the package ade4. Subsequently, 220 Fdis was calculated in two steps: first, a Gower dissimilarity matrix for species based 221 on six traits (excluding 'Larval type') was calculated using R package ade4, which 222 allows for fuzzy coded data. The values in the dissimilarity matrix range from 0 (the 223 same functional guild and high niche overlap) to 1 (no niche overlap). The resulting 224 dissimilarity matrix was used to calculate Fdis using the package FD. We used 1-225 Fdis/H' ratio to assess functional redundancy of the communities among different 226 basins: whenever this index decreases, the functional redundancy decreases (van der 227 Linden et al., 2016). To test the differences in species richness, species diversity, 228 functional diversity and functional redundancy among the basins we performed 229 Kruskal-Wallis test with subsequent post-hoc comparisons (with Holm correction) 230 using function "boxplerk()" (Borcard et al., 2018). In addition, we performed linear 231 regression of Fdis on H', where a strong linear relationship with a slope close to 1 232 would indicate low functional redundancy (Micheli and Halpern, 2005). Such an 233 approach was used to assess a larger scale pattern in the studied fjords. Before the 234 regression, indexes were normalised (subtracted the mean and divided by standard 235 deviation). 236

237

### 238 **3 Results**

### **3.1 Community structure based on species composition**

In total 209 taxa were recorded in the fjord basins. The highest number of taxa was 240 found in Sørfolda (123) whereas the lowest number was found in Mistfjord (15). The 241 differentiation of macrobenthic communities among fjord basins based on species 242 composition was evident from the ordination diagrams (Figure 2). Both tests of 243 PERMANOVA and ANOSIM indicated a significant effect of the factor "basin" (Table 244 3). PERMDISP was also significant, indicating that the results of the analyses were 245 influenced by the heterogeneity of dispersions. However, although higher dispersions 246 247 were obvious for Saltfjord and Skjerstadfjord from ordination diagrams, no overlapping among samples from different basins was observed, suggesting that 248 PERMANOVA and ANOSIM results were not due to dispersion effects. There was also 249 a significant difference between fjords with deep and shallow sills (Table 3). 250 Moreover, 39 taxa were recorded only in shallow-silled basins, and 92 only in deep-251 silled basins. Further details on species composition and dominant species are given 252 in Jordà Molina et al. (2019), Kokarev et al. (2021), and Supplementary tables 2 253 (recorded species in basins) and 3 (dominant species for each basin). 254

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### **3.2 Community structure based on trait composition**

The first two axes of the FCA analysis based on abundance explained a slightly 257 higher percentage of total variation compared to the analysis based on biomass (54% 258 259 vs. 42%, Table 4). The separation of different fjord basins was also more evident from 260 the ordination diagram based on abundance (Figure 3A), where the first axis (31%) highlighted differences between shallow-silled basins located on the left 261 (Skierstadfjord, Mistfjord, Tysfjord inner basin) and deep-silled basins located on the 262 263 right of the axis (Saltfjord, Sørfolda, Tysfjord deep, Tysfjord middle). Interestingly, Nordfjord grouped with deep-silled basins, but with 120m it has the deepest sill 264 among the shallow-silled fjords (Table 1). The separation according to sill depth was 265 mainly associated with 'Feeding habit' and 'Position in sediment' traits, and to less 266 degree with 'Mobility' and 'Body design'. More common traits in the shallow-silled 267 basins included: mobile (M1), subsurface deposit and symbiont feeding (FH3, FH6), 268 articulate or heart-shaped test body design (BD5, BD7) and deep infaunal position in 269 270 sediments (PS3) (Figure 3A). The second axis of FCA based on abundance (23%) 271 accentuated differences in 'Body design' between Saltfjord and the rest of deep-silled fjords. The results of FCA based on biomass were similar in terms of the main traits responsible for the variation in the dataset (Table 4). However, the separation of the fjord basins appeared less clear due to the high dispersion of the Saltfjord stations (Figure 3B). PERMANOVA and ANOSIM indicated a significant separation of the basins based on trait composition (Table 5), although results were potentially influenced by heterogeneity of dispersions, same as with species composition.

The differences highlighted by FCA were also evident from abundance-weighted 278 distribution of traits (Figure 4). The fjords are generally inhabited by shallow infaunal 279 discretely mobile burrowers, which are either polychaetes or bivalves (AH4, M2, BD1, 280 BD2; Figure 4). Fjords with deep sills along with Nordfjord have higher proportion of 281 suspension and surface deposit feeders (FH1 and FH2), while shallow-silled fjords 282 have a higher proportion of subsurface deposit feeders (FH6), especially in 283 Skjerstadfjord, where also deeper burrowing infauna (PS3) was observed. Although a 284 different number of species was recorded in each basin (see below), the proportion 285 of species with different larval types was very similar among the fjord basins with 286 lecithotrophic type being considerably more common (Figure 5). 287

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### 289 3.3 Diversity and functional redundancy

Apart from their different community structure, the fjord basins were characterised 290 by significantly different levels of species richness (S), species diversity (expressed as 291 H'), functional diversity (expressed as functional dispersion Fdis) and functional 292 redundancy (expressed as 1-Fdis/H' ratio) (Figure 6). Sørfolda, Tysfjord middle basin 293 and Nordfjord had the highest species richness and species diversity. The differences 294 in functional diversity were less pronounced, with only Sørfolda having significantly 295 296 higher functional diversity among all the fjords. The lowest functional redundancy (high values of 1-Fdis/H') was observed for Mistfjord and Saltfjord, where the lowest 297 number of species was recorded. 298

Both shallow- and deep-silled fjords showed a similar pattern in their relationship between species diversity and functional diversity (Figure 7). However, at higher levels of species diversity, deep-silled fjords showed generally higher functional diversity. Only a moderate linear relationship was observed, indicating that at some point increase in species diversity does not lead to an increase in functional diversity. Moreover, the linear relationship was weaker for shallow-silled fjords, indicating less dependence of functional diversity on species diversity.

### 306 4 Discussion

Previous studies of sub-Arctic silled fjords in Northern Norway have indicated that 307 the macrobenthic communities in fjord basins differ among fjords with basin-specific 308 species composition (Jordà Molina et al., 2019; Kokarev et al., 2021). This is supported 309 by the extended analyses of the data in this study including previously unpublished 310 data on Mistfjord and Nordfjord. The traits analyses have indicated that the fjord 311 basins were different also with regard to biological trait composition. Interestingly, 312 313 the shallow-silled Nordfjord had clearly different species composition from deepsilled fiords yet showed convergence in trait composition with them. Species 314 composition might be more driven by history of community assembly, while trait 315 composition might reflect more the adaptation of community to the environment 316 (Fukami et al., 2005; McLean et al., 2019). Thus, environmental conditions in 317 Nordfjord might be more similar to deep-silled basins due to relatively deep sill. The 318 functional diversity was roughly similar among most basin communities, though with 319 the highest diversity among deep-silled basins. However, the functional redundancy 320 varied among fjord basins. The variation largely corresponded with the variation in 321 species diversity, indicating that higher numbers of species did not necessarily lead to 322 323 more functionally diverse communities.

324

### 325 4.1 Community assembly

The most evident difference in community structure was observed between 326 shallow-silled and deep-silled fjords both for species and traits composition. The 327 deep-silled fjords are characterised by good water exchange with surrounding waters, 328 that allow for inflow of warmer and more saline Atlantic waters and, potentially more 329 330 frequent episodes of advection in and out of the fjords. Advection of nutrients, phytoplankton and zooplankton from adjacent waters plays a vital role in fjord 331 ecosystem, shaping the patterns of productivity and bentho-pelagic coupling, thus 332 playing important role in the carbon flux to the seafloor (Aksnes et al., 1989; 333 Wassmann et al., 1996; Reigstad et al., 2000; Skogen et al., 2009). The differentiation 334 between the two groups of fjord basins was mainly associated with traits of 335 macrofauna 'Feeding habit' and 'Position in sediments', with deep-silled fjords (along 336 with Nordfjord that has the deepest sill of shallow-silled basins) having a higher 337 proportion of surface deposit or suspension feeding and shallow infauna species, 338 while in shallow-silled fjords subsurface deposit feeding and deep burrowing species 339 340 were predominant in the sediment. Populations of subsurface deposit feeders might

feed on more refractory microbially degraded sediment organic matter, and, in 341 general, their populations show less temporal variation in response to episodic inputs 342 of high-quality detritus (Rice and Rhoads, 1989; Josefson et al., 2002; Levinton and 343 Kelaher, 2004). This indicates that with decreasing sill depth the accessibility of freshly 344 deposited or resuspended organic matter for the macrobenthos decreases. Thus, the 345 principal difference of organic matter supply to the seafloor has probably played a 346 role in structuring the composition of macrobenthos. However, the measured 347 sediment variables, such as total organic carbon and total nitrogen as well as their 348 stable isotopic values, did not explain much of the among-fjord variation, but only one 349 shallow-silled fjord was studied (Kokarev et al., 2021). This might be due to the fact 350 that single measurements provide only limited insight into dynamics (e.g. vertical 351 fluxes of organic matter to the seafloor) of an ecosystem as the sediments samples 352 provide information on organic matter integrated over periods of months or years 353 (Burrell, 1988). Most probably when supply of fresh organic matter is limited or more 354 episodic, less resources are available for surface-deposit feeders as well as suspension 355 feeders, such as Kelliella miliaris, which is particularly abundant in the deep basin of 356 Tysfjord. Species, associated with sulphur oxidising bacteria, such as Siboglinum 357 ekmani, Thyasira sarsii and Parathyasira equalis (Southward et al., 1981; Dando and 358 Spiro, 1993), were relatively more abundant in shallow-silled basins, which might 359 reflect different biogeochemical processes in the sediments resulting in increased 360 sulphide concentrations. The similarities in traits composition among fjords with 361 similar water exchange suggest that they comprise similar environmental settings. 362

The observed discrepancy between analyses based on species and trait 363 compositions was mainly associated with Nordfjord community. As mentioned 364 previously, species composition might be more influenced by the history of 365 community assembly. The historical processes with respect to fjord communities 366 might reflect their colonization from an offshore pool of species after deglaciation 367 (Smith, 2001). After deglaciation, fjords of Northern Norway were first colonized by 368 Arctic fauna, which was subsequently replaced with boreal fauna after the inflow of 369 relatively warm Norwegian Atlantic Current and the modern assemblages established 370 7800 years BP (Thomsen and Vorren, 1986). Possibly, both events may have 371 contributed to the present species composition in the basin communities. Many 372 373 species were recorded only in deep-silled basins, and some were restricted to shallow-silled basins. This might indicate that boreal species, that came with the 374 warm Atlantic waters successfully established their populations in deep-silled basins 375 but had limited colonization success in shallow-silled fjords. The reasons for this may 376

377 be colder bottom water masses, retained in shallow-silled basins, or a limited supply of larvae/individuals, which is not enough to establish a population. It was previously 378 suggested that a shallow sill might act as a dispersal barrier for fjords in Western 379 Norway (Buhl-Mortensen and Høisæter, 1993). As shallow sills restrict the inflow of 380 Atlantic water into the basin, it might have implications for the dispersal of species 381 382 with bottom water masses. As previously highlighted by Josefson (1985), deep-water species that are distributed with Atlantic water masses are largely lecithotrophic, as 383 opposed to shelf (< 200m) species. As these species, which mostly have direct or 384 short-pelagic life stage, are distributed with near-bottom currents, they might have 385 limited recruitment success into shallow-silled basins. This is supported by our 386 preliminary unpublished data on population connectivity of the lecithotrophic bivalve 387 Parathyasira equalis, which is widely distributed in both shallow- and deep-silled 388 basins. Genotyping by sequencing approach revealed low but significant Fst values 389 between shallow-silled Skjerstadfjord and deep-silled Saltfjord and Sørfolda, but not 390 between Saltfjord and Sørfolda. Thus, a continuous population of *P. equalis* in Atlantic 391 waters is "interrupted" by the presence of a shallow sill. 392

As mentioned above, shallow-silled basins retain colder water masses, and some 393 species recorded only in shallow-silled basins (e.g. bivalves Ennucula tenuis, Astarte 394 crenata, Yoldiella lenticula, scaphopod Siphonodentalium lobatum, gastropod 395 Polynices pallidus, polychaete Praxillella gracilis, seastar Ctenodiscus crispatus) are 396 397 also widely distributed in the high Arctic, indicating that even small temperature 398 difference can affect species composition. Palaeoecological data indicates that A. crenata, Y. lenticula, E. tenuis, C. crispatus, and S. lobatum inhabited basins before 399 the inflow of Atlantic water (Thomsen and Vorren, 1986). Such species have an upper 400 limit of distribution at 6-7 °C, e.g., 4-6 °C for C. crispatus (Renaud et al., 2015), 5.8 °C 401 for S. lobatum (Ivanov and Zarubina, 2004), 7 °C for P. gracilis (Jirkov, 2001), which 402 corresponds to subtle difference in temperature of bottom water masses between 403 shallow-silled and deep-silled basins (Table 1). A higher proportion of Arctic species 404 has also been recorded in the inner fjords of Svalbard that are less influenced by 405 Atlantic waters (Wlodarska-Kowalczuk et al., 1998). Similarly, deep basins with 406 shallow sills might act as "biogeographical enclaves" for more northern species 407 (Brattegard, 1980). Thus, even a small increase in temperature can potentially lead to 408 409 significant community shifts in shallow-silled basins (Kordas et al., 2011).

Deep sills as such are not a barrier for dispersal: while shallow sill always corresponds to community change in a fjord system, e.g. Saltfjord and Skjerstadfjord, communities in the deep-silled fjord basins (Saltfjord, Sørfolda Tysfjord deep and

Tysfjord middle basins) have a similar species composition as the adjacent basins 413 beyond the sill (Jordà Molina et al., 2019; Kokarev et al., 2021). Such a pattern 414 indicates high dispersal and resulting in homogenization of communities ("mass 415 effects"; Heino et al., 2015). However, the connectivity among different ford systems 416 still might be low. For instance, cod egg retention was observed for the fjords in the 417 418 study area suggesting fjord scale populations of this species (Myksvoll et al., 2011; Myksvoll et al., 2014). Furthermore, genetically different populations of European 419 lobster, a species with a long-living pelagic larva, were found in the closely situated 420 Tysfjord and Folda fjord systems (Jørstad et al., 2004). Retention of larvae was 421 previously suggested to be strong in fjord ecosystems structuring communities within 422 basins (Pearson, 1980). Thus, even in absence of a dispersal barrier, such as a shallow 423 sill, the connectivity among communities in different fjords might be limited. This 424 results in low dispersal, and, consequently, community assembly on a local scale most 425 likely is not influenced by supply of individuals from nearby fjord communities. Deep 426 sub-euphotic basins with good water exchange can be considered physically and 427 chemically stable environments, where carbon fluxes to the seafloor might be the 428 429 liming factor for benthic populations (Burrell, 1988). The interannual differences in 430 carbon fluxes might largely exceed the differences among closely situated fjords (Reigstad et al., 2000). Therefore, it may be assumed that the inhabitant communities 431 are adapted to some extent to varying organic matter input. Indeed, the position on 432 the first FCA axis suggests very similar dominant functional guilds for Saltfjord, 433 Sørfolda and Tysfjord middle basin. However, in Tysfjord deep basin suspension 434 feeders are more common, which might indicate higher near-bottom flow that gives 435 an advantage to suspension feeders (Snelgrove and Butman, 1994). But based on 436 species composition the pattern of community differentiation on a basin scale is 437 evident even from presence/absence data suggesting that the differences in deep-438 silled communities are not merely a response to different environments, but rather 439 independently developed communities where colonization history from an offshore 440 441 pool of species might have contributed as well to the observed differences, as suggested by Smith (2001). The retention of larvae within basins, mentioned earlier, 442 might give an advantage to species that established their populations first. Such 443 priority effects are more likely to happen when local communities are assembled from 444 a large stable pool of species in a way proposed by mainland-island community 445 assembly (Fukami, 2015). The inflow of Atlantic water might connect smaller fjord 446 basins with deeper habitats offshore, which might act as pools of species. 447

All things considered; our data indicate that community distribution in basins 448 reflects patterns of local connectivity. Furthermore, connectivity to the offshore pool 449 species mediated by Atlantic water inflow has a pronounced effect on community 450 assembly in terms of species composition and structure. Generally, differences in trait 451 composition were less pronounced but still evident on a basin scale. Therefore, trait 452 composition might reflect not only adaptations to the environment, particularly to 453 differences in organic matter inputs to sediment but also differences in resource 454 partitioning of the established populations in accordance with limiting similarity 455 concept (Götzenberger et al., 2012). Combination of stable isotope and fatty acid 456 analyses revealed distinct trophic niches even among species with similar feeding 457 habits in Nordfjord, corroborating that resource partitioning might be an important 458 structuring factor on a basin scale (unpubl. data). 459

460

### 461 **4.2 Diversity and functional redundancy**

There were more pronounced differences among fjord basins in species diversity 462 463 than in functional diversity. In communities, where multiple species perform the same function, the relationship between functional and species diversity can be non-linear, 464 first increasing rapidly at low levels of species diversity and then increasing at 465 declining rates as functional space reaches saturation (Micheli and Halpern, 2005). 466 Although the shape of the relationship appeared to be similar between two groups of 467 468 fjords, shallow-silled fjords appeared to have higher functional diversity at low species diversity, while deep-silled fjords showed higher functional diversity at higher levels 469 of species diversity. That allows to assume that more niches are available in deep-470 silled fjords. However, at a certain level of species diversity, further increase does not 471 lead to an increase in functional diversity, indicating that multiple species possess the 472 same traits and, consequently, high functional redundancy at high species diversity. 473

Functional redundancy is related to the number of species in a basin: Saltfjord and 474 Mistfjord were characterised by the lowest functional redundancy, and also by the 475 lowest number of species. Many biotic and abiotic factors can influence species 476 richness on a small scale (Brown et al., 2016). It may be assumed, that in a very small 477 basin such as Mistfjord, the resources are limited allowing only a few species to 478 coexist. Another reason for lower species richness may be hypoxia that would result 479 in environmental filtering of macrofaunal species that are adapted to low oxygen 480 concentration. Hypoxia is usually defined starting at 2 ml/l (Diaz and Rosenberg, 481 1995); however, oxygen concentrations in the Mistfjord basin is generally over 3 ml/l, 482

although the lowest value recorded was 1.77 ml/l (Skreslet et al., 2020). However, in 483 Tysfjord inner basins also relatively low oxygen levels were observed, yet species 484 richness was not different from Skjerstadfjord with good water exchange. Therefore, 485 the importance of hypoxia for shallow-silled basins should be further studied. 486 Relatively low diversity in Saltfjord compared to other deep-silled fjords cannot be 487 explained by smaller basin area and might reflect stochasticity during community 488 assembly that resulted in establishment of fewer species and might represent the 489 490 consequences of small island effects.

Some fjords showed relatively high functional redundancy, which can be considered 491 as insurance for maintaining ecosystem functions after species loss (Micheli and 492 Halpern, 2005). Thus, functional redundancy becomes important when species can 493 494 become locally extinct, for instance, due to population stochasticity (ecological drift) or different sensitivity to disturbances, or in other words show different levels of 495 response diversity (Elmqvist et al., 2003). However, it is not clear if different functional 496 redundancy would result in different responses to possible environmental changes or 497 anthropogenic impacts. Rapid shifts in community structure were observed in basins 498 of western Norway, where the abundances of only one species, Polydora sp., 499 increased significantly in the last decade in response to increasing temperatures, 500 organic matter content in sediments and decrease in dissolved oxygen (Johansen et 501 al., 2018). If similar changes are to happen in northern Norway, homogenization of 502 503 communities can be expected due to prevalence of few opportunistic species with 504 high dispersal and high competitive potential in areas with organic enrichment. Human-induced homogenization of communities can significantly alter patterns of 505 diversity, and, consequently, ecosystem functioning (Mori et al., 2018). 506

507 Overall, the fjords in the study area are characterised by distinct communities and we suggest that this pattern is a result of low connectivity among different basins, 508 509 presence of shallow sills that act as dispersal barriers and stochasticity during community assembly. However, many aspects of their temporal dynamics, including 510 diversity and abundance requires further investigation. In particular, macrobenthic 511 communities in deep-silled fjords may be more susceptible to interannual change in 512 the flux of organic matter to the seafloor associated with advection of water masses 513 in and out of fjords (Wassmann et al., 1996). Moreover, it is still not clear whether the 514 observed pattern is specific to the deep fjords in the study area, as fjords in other 515 geographical settings can potentially exhibit more environmental filtering of the 516 fauna, which would lead to convergence of communities both in species and traits 517 composition. 518

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### 673 Tables

**Table 1**. Summary for locations studied in this study. \*In brackets the number of

stations located outside the main basin. **\*\***Nordfjord is separated from adjacent

676 Saltfjord by another 180 m deep basin with a 90 m sill. T – temperature, S – salinity,

 $O_2 - oxygen saturation.$ 

Cite	Year of	Maximum	Depth at the	Bott prop	om wa erties	ter	Number	Number
Site	sampling	depth (m)	entrance sill (m)	т (°С)	S	O2 (%)	samples	stations*
Saltfjord and adjacent basin	2013	380	220	7.3	35.3	77.3- 79.6	22	11 (3)
Sørfolda and adjacent basin	2015	560	260	7.0	35.3	67.7- 74.2	26	13 (2)
Skjerstadfjord	2013	540	26	4.9	33.8	71- 73.4	22	11
Nordfjord	2019	390	120**	6.2	34.3	90- 91.4	5	5
Mistfjord	2017	294	34	5.9	34.3	75.5- 88.7	4	4
Tysfjord deep and adjacent basin	2017	725	280	7.5	35.2	77- 96.7	16	16 (2)
Tysfjord middle and adjacent basin	2017	375	300	7.5	35.2	75.7- 78.7	11	11 (3)
Tysfjord innermost basin	2017	455	60	6.5	34.6	43.4- 56.4	5	5

Trait	Code	Modalities
	AH1	Non-tube sessile
	AH2	Permanent tube
Adult life behit	AH3	Semi-permanent tube
Adult me habit	AH4	Burrower
	AH5	Surface crawler
	AH6	Swimmer
	M1	Mobile
Mobility	M2	Discretely mobile
	M3	Sessile
	BD1	Bivalved
	BD2	Vermiform, segmented
	BD3	Vermiform,
Body design	663	unsegmented
bouy acsign	BD4	Radial
	BD5	Articulate
	BD6	Turbinate
	BD7	Heart-shaped test
	FH1	Suspension
	FH2	Surface deposit
	FH3	Dissolved
Feeding habit	сци	Carnivere/empiyere
	CUS	Parasito/commonsal
	ГПС	Subsurface denosit
	1 T 1	Blanktotronh
Larval type	172	Lecithotroph
	NC1	Minuto (<0.5 cm)
	NCO	Small $(0.5.1 \text{ cm})$
Normal adult size	NC2	Modium (1.2 cm)
	NGA	large (>2 cm)
	DC1	Enifouna
Position in	PC3	Lpriauria
sediments	r32	
	423	iniauna deep (>5 cm)

**Table 2**. Traits used in this study and related modalities.

	Basin					
	PERMANOV	Ά	ANOSI	M	PERMDISP	)
	Pseudo-F	p-value	R	p-value	F	p-value
Abundance	27.108	0.001	0.936	0.001	6.6897	0.001
Biomass	18.788	0.001	0.836	0.001	13.03	0.001
Presence/absence	21.508	0.001	0.84	0.001	9.4107	0.001
	Sill depth					
	Sill depth PERMANOV	/Α	ANOSI	M	PERMDISP	)
	Sill depth PERMANOV Pseudo-F	/A p-value	ANOSII R	M p-value	PERMDISF F	p-value
Abundance	Sill depth PERMANOV Pseudo-F 29.335	/A p-value 0.001	ANOSII R 0.648	M p-value 0.001	PERMDISF F 0.4695	p-value 0.556
Abundance Biomass	Sill depth PERMANOV Pseudo-F 29.335 24.352	/A p-value 0.001 0.001	ANOSI R 0.648 0.678	M p-value 0.001 0.001	PERMDISF F 0.4695 0.31327	p-value 0.556 0.637

### **Table 3**.One-way factor analysis based on species composition.

**Table 4**. Correlation ratios and total inertia of first two axes of FCA. Traits correlated

684 most with the axes are in bold.

	Abundance	e	Biomass	
	Axis 1	Axis 2	Axis 1	Axis 2
Adult living habit	0.038498	0.019485	0.03846	0.035989
Mobility	0.05105	0.016959	0.021225	0.002487
Body design	0.054347	0.132378	0.086273	0.098835
Feeding habit	0.08062	0.0488	0.065096	0.014683
Normal adult size	0.035118	0.025971	0.02533	0.005711
Position in sediments	0.094681	0.026416	0.061072	0.025513
Total inertia	0.31	0.23	0.26	0.16

#### **Table 5**. One-way factor analysis based on trait composition.

	Basin					
	PERMANO	/A	ANOSI	Μ	PERMDI	SP
	Pseudo-F	p-value	R	p-value	F	p-value
Abundance	91.037	0.001	0.801	0.001	4.4861	0.003
Biomass	30.871	0.001	0.55	0.001	5.3935	0.001
	Sill depth					
	PERMANO	/A	ANOSI	Μ	PERMDISP	
	Pseudo-F	p-value	R	p-value	F	p-value
Abundance	50.072	0.001	0.392	0.001	6.2616	0.036
Biomass	48.391	0.001	0.504	0.001	3.796	0.063

# 689 Figure legends

- Figure 1. Map of the study area showing geomorphology of the study area and
- locations of the basins studied. Two basins in an inner branch of the Tysfjord system
- (Hellmofjord) are here referred to as Tysfjord middle basin and Tysfjord innermost
- basin in accordance with the previous study (Jordà Molina et al., 2019).
- **Figure 2**. Results of nMDS based on species composition: A, based on abundance
- data; B, based on biomass data; C, based on presence/absence data. Squares
- indicate deep-silled basins, circles indicate shallow-silled basins. Note: no biomass
- 697 data are available for Nordfjord.
- **Figure 3**. Results of FCA: A, based on abundance; B, based on biomass. For the modality codes see Table 2. Note: no biomass data are available for Nordfjord.
- **Figure 4**. The average abundance-weighted trait profile for studied fjord basins.
- 701 Deep silled fjords (Saltfjord, Sørfolda, Tysfjord deep, Tysfjord middle) are on the left,
- shallow silled fjords on the right (Skjerstadfjord, Nordfjord, Mistfjord, Tysfjord
- inner). For the modality codes see Table 2.
- Figure 5. The proportion of species with different larval types recorded in differentbasins.
- **Figure 6**. Box plots and results of Kruskal-Wallis tests with post-hoc comparison for
- number of species (S), Shannon diversity index H'(loge), functional dispersion (Fdis)
- and functional redundancy (Fdis/H' ratio). Deep silled fjords (Saltfjord, Sørfolda,
- Tysfjord deep, Tysfjord middle) are on the left, shallow silled fjords on the right
- 710 (Skjerstadfjord, Nordfjord, Mistfjord, Tysfjord inner). Stars indicate significance level
- 711 (p<0.001). Groups with the same letters are not significantly different.
- Figure 7. Relationship between species diversity (H', x-axis)') and functional diversity
   (Fdis, y-axis) for deep-silled and shallow silled fjords.







Figure 3





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Position in sediments



724

Saltflord





729 Figure 6







# Supplementary table 1. Station coordinates.

Data	Fiord /Pacin	Station	Latitude	Longitude	Depth
Date	FJOI'0/Basin	Station	(°N)	(°E)	(m)
30 April 2013	Saltfjord	S4	67.271	14.588	373
30 April 2013	Saltfjord	S5	67.259	14.595	373
30 April 2013	Saltfjord	S6	67.261	14.565	372
30 April 2013	Saltfjord	S7	67.256	14.531	371
30 April 2013	Saltfjord	S8	67.252	14.485	367
08 May 2013	Skjerstadfjord	К6	67.282	14.915	510
08 May 2013	Skjerstadfjord	K7	67.277	14.959	509
08 May 2013	Skjerstadfjord	K8	67.265	15.010	511
08 May 2013	Skjerstadfjord	К9	67.254	15.090	503
08 May 2013	Skjerstadfjord	K10	67.216	15.278	475
10 May 2013	Saltfjord	S1	67.279	14.644	369
10 May 2013	Saltfjord	S2	67.264	14.642	369
10 May 2013	Saltfjord	S3	67.268	14.617	374
21 May 2013	Skjerstadfjord	К3	67.253	14.845	516
21 May 2013	Skjerstadfjord	К4	67.263	14.870	512
21 May 2013	Skjerstadfjord	K5	67.266	14.889	514
11 June 2013	Skjerstadfjord	КО	67.237	14.744	544
11 June 2013	Skjerstadfjord	K1	67.248	14.771	514
11 June 2013	Skjerstadfjord	К2	67.259	14.804	510
13 June 2013	Saltfjord	S10	67.197	14.022	475
13 June 2013	Saltfiord	S11	67.225	14.057	462
13 June 2013	Saltfiord	S12	67.210	14.100	455
18 May 2015	Sørfolda	F4	67.566	15.199	488
18 May 2015	Sørfolda	F3	67.583	15.142	361
18 May 2015	Sørfolda	F2	67.609	14.992	505
18 May 2015	Sørfolda	F1	67.600	14.960	516
19 May 2015	Sørfolda	F14	67.464	15.496	349
19 May 2015	Sørfolda	F13	67.481	15.502	359
19 May 2015	Sørfolda	F12	67.501	15.462	403
19 May 2015	Sørfolda	F11	67.519	15.412	551
19 May 2015	Sørfolda	F10	67.520	15.374	557
19 May 2015	Sørfolda	F9	67.528	15.322	551
19 May 2015	Sørfolda	F8	67.513	15.305	558
19 May 2015	Sørfolda	F7	67.521	15.271	566
20 May 2015	Sørfolda	F6	67.520	15.227	558
22-26 May	op.roida		071020	101227	000
2017	Tysfjord Deep	1	68.262	16.105	630
22-26 May	Tysfjord Deep	2	60.240	16 126	<b>C</b> 20
2017		Z	08.248	10.130	620
22-26 May	Tysfjord Deep	3	68 232	16 166	630
2017		5	00.233	10.100	050
22-26 May	Tysfjord Deep	4	68,239	16.124	580
2017					
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Deep	15	68.069	16.155	486

Date	Fjord/Basin	Station	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°E)	Depth (m)
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Deep	16	68.107	16.187	703
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Deep	17	68.128	16.188	708
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Deep	18	68.159	16.187	710
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Deep	19	68.158	16.187	713
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Deep	20	68.179	16.185	715
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Deep	21	68.208	16.157	716
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Deep	22	68.193	16.184	719
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Deep	23	68.184	16.226	714
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Deep	24	68.089	16.179	575
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Deep	34	68.288	15.957	548
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Deep	36	68.288	15.898	596
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Inner	5	67.869	16.366	450
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Inner	6	67.875	16.346	455
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Inner	7	67.880	16.322	452
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Inner	32	67.856	16.401	354
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Inner	33	67.886	16.291	438
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Middle	8	67.925	16.237	333
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Middle	9	67.933	16.241	346
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Middle	10	67.963	16.250	360
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Middle	11	67.987	16.230	367
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Middle	12	68.001	16.198	374
22-26 May	Tysfjord Middle	13	68.014	16.185	350
22-26 May	Tysfjord Middle	14	68.029	16.186	334
22-26 May	Tysfjord Middle	25	68.052	16.102	325
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Middle	26	68.040	16.127	325

Date	Fjord/Basin	Station	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°E)	Depth (m)
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Middle	27	68.015	16.185	375
22-26 May 2017	Tysfjord Middle	28	67.910	16.216	278
13 June 2017	Mistfjord	M1	67.443	14.888	280
13 June 2017	Mistfjord	M2	67.445	14.878	294
13 June 2017	Mistfjord	M3	67.448	14.854	294
13 June 2017	Mistfjord	M4	67.454	14.824	293
10 July 2019	Nordfjord	V1	67.150	14.315	393
10 July 2019	Nordfjord	V2	67.148	14.305	390
10 July 2019	Nordfjord	V3	67.147	14.297	379
10 July 2019	Nordfjord	V4	67.139	14.297	390
10 July 2019	Nordfjord	V5	67.125	14.275	381

	Daan-cilla	d hacine			Shallow cilled h	acine		
						CIIICD		
	Saltfjord	Sørfolda	Tysfjord Deep	Tysfjord Middle	Skjerstadfjord	Nordfjord	Mistfjord	Tysfjord Inner
Abra nitida	+	+	+	+	+	+		
Abyssoninoe sp.		+	+	+			+	+
Actinaraea indet.	+							
Aglaophamus pulcher	+	+		+				
Alvania testae			+					
Amaeana trilobata				+				+
Ampelisca cf. amblyops		+						
Ampharete gr. lindstoemi		+			+			+
Ampharete octocirrata				+				
Ampharetidae indet.				+			+	
Amphicteis gunneri				+	+			
Amphictene auricoma		+		+		+		
Amphilepis norvegica	+	+	+	+	+	+		+
Amythasides macroglossus		+	+	+		+		+
Anatoma crispata				+				
Anobothrus gracilis						+		
Antalis entalis		+	+	+				
Aphelochaeta sp.	+	+	+	+	+	+		+
Aphrodita aculeata		+	+	+				
Aphroditidae indet.		+				+		
Apodida indet.		+	+					
Aricidea catherinae		+						
Arrhinopsis longicornis		+		+				
Arrhis phyllonyx					+			
Astarte crenata					+			
Augeneria sp.		+	+	+	+			+
Bathyarca pectunculoides	+	+		+				

Supplementary table 2. Species recorded in each basin.

Bivalvia indet.					Shallow silled p	asins		
Bivalvia indet.	Saltfjord	Sørfolda	Tysfjord Deep	Tysfjord Middle	Skjerstadfjord	Nordfjord	Mistfjord	Tysfjord Inner
Duadabuero ullaca						+		
brauabyssa viilosa		+		+	+			
Brisaster fragilis		+		+	+			
Brissopsis lyrifera	+							
Bruzelia typica				+				
Bylgides groenlandicus		+				+		
Calocaris macandreae		+	+					
Campylaspis costata		+						
Capitella capitata					+			
Caudofoveata indet.	+	+				+		
Ceratocephale loveni		+		+	+	+	+	+
Ceriantharia					+			
Chaetoderma nitidulum	+	+	+	+	+	+		
Chaetozone setosa agg.					+	+		
Chirimia biceps	+	+			+			
Chone sp.				+	+			
Clymenura borealis		+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Cossura sp.					+			
Ctenodiscus crispatus					+	+		
Cumacea indet.		+						
Cuspidaria indet.		+			+			
Cuspidaria lamellosa		+	+	+				
Cuspidaria obesa			+					
Cuspidaria rostrata		+	+	+		+		
Dacrydium ockelmanni				+				
Delectopecten vitreus		+	+	+				
Diastylis cornuta	+	+		+				
Diastylis lucifera		+	+	+				
Diastylis rathkei					+			

	Deep-sille	d basins			Shallow silled b	asins		
	Saltfjord	Sørfolda	Tysfjord Deep	Tysfjord Middle	Skjerstadfjord	Nordfjord	Mistfjord	Tysfjord Inner
Diplocirrus glaucus	+	+		+		+		+
Dipolydora coeca					+			
Drilonereis brattstroemi			+	+	+	+		
Eclysippe vanelli		+	+	+				+
Edwardsiidae gen. sp. B					+			
Ennucula corticata		+		+				
Ennucula tenuis					+	+		
Entalina tetragona		+	+	+				
Eriopisa elongata	+	+	+	+	+			+
Eteone flava					+			
Eteone longa					+			
Euchone arenae	+	+		+				
Euchone incolor		+						
Euchone pseudolimnicola				+				
Euclymene lindrothi			+	+				+
Euclymeninae indet.		+	+					
Eucranta villosa		+						+
Eudorella emarginata			+		+	+		
Eudorella indet.		+						
Eulalia tjalfiensis		+		+	+			
Eulimidae		+	+	+	+			
Eunice dubitata	+							
Euspira montagui				+				
Euspira pallida					+	+		
Exogone verugera		+			+			+
Falcidens crossotus	+	+		+	+	+		
Flabelligeridae indet.	+	+						
Galathowenia oculata					+			
Gastropoda indet.		+						
				T C				

Saltfjord         Syrfjord         Tysfjord         Tysfjord         Tysfjord         Nordfjord         Nordfjord         Mistrigued           Geranituus eumyarius         + <th></th> <th>Deep-sille</th> <th>d basins</th> <th></th> <th></th> <th>Shallow silled ba</th> <th>asins</th> <th></th> <th></th>		Deep-sille	d basins			Shallow silled ba	asins		
Genakinus eumyartus         +		Saltfjord	Sørfolda	Tysfjord Deep	Tysfjord Middle	Skjerstadfjord	Nordfjord	Mistfjord	Tysfjord Inner
Gycera lapidum         +	Genaxinus eumyarius		+	+	+				
Goniada maculata         +         +         +         +         +           Harpinia crenulata         +         +         +         +         +         +           Harpinia crenulata         +         +         +         +         +         +         +           Harpinia propingua         +         +         +         +         +         +         +         +           Harpinia propingua         +<	Glycera lapidum		+	+	+				+
Harpinia crenulata       +	Goniada maculata				+				+
Harpinia propinqua       +	Harpinia crenulata			+	+				
Heteranomia squamula         +	Harpinia propinqua					+	+		
Heteromastus filiformis         +	Heteranomia squamula			+					
Idas lamellosus       +       +       +       +         Kefersteinia cirrata       +       +       +       +       +         Kelitella miliaris       +       +       +       +       +       +         Lanassa venusta       +       +       +       +       +       +       +         Lanassa venusta       +       +       +       +       +       +       +         Lanassa venusta       +       +       +       +       +       +       +       +       +         Lanassa venusta       +	Heteromastus filiformis	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Kefersteinia cirrata         +	Idas lamellosus								+
Kelliella miliaris++++++Labidoplax buski+++++++Labidoplax buski+++++++Lanassa venusta+++++++Lanassa venusta+++++++Lanassa venusta+++++++Lanassa venusta++++++Laona quadrata++++++Laonice sarsi++++++Lonnice sarsi++++++Limatula gwni++++++Limatula gwni-+++++Limatula gwni-++	Kefersteinia cirrata		+						
$ \begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	Kelliella miliaris		+	+	+		+		
lanasa venusta+++++laona quadrata++++++laonice sarsi++++++laonice sarsiteuconidae indet.+++++Levinsenia flava/gracilis spp.+++++Limatula gwyni++++++Limatula gwyni++++++Limatula gwyni++++++Limopsis tenella++++++Limopsis tenella++++	Labidoplax buskii		+		+	+			
Laona quadrata+++++Laonice sarsi-+++++Levinsenia flava/gracilis spp.+++++Levinsenia flava/gracilis spp.+++++Limatula gwyni++++++Limatula gwyni++++++Limatula gwyni++++++Limatula gwyni++++++Limatula gwyni++++++Limatula gwyni++++++Limatula gwyni++++++Limatula gwyni++++++Limatula gwyni++++++Limatula gwni++++++Limatula gwni++++++Limatula gwni++++++Limatula gwni++++++Limatula gwni++++++Limatula gwni++++++Limatula gwni++++++Limatula gwni++++++Limatula gwni++++++Limatula gwni	Lanassa venusta		+						
Laonice sarsi++++Leuconidae indet.+++++Leuconidae indet.+++++Limatula gwyni+++++Limatula gwyni+++++Limatula gwyni+++++Limatula gwyni+++++Limatula gwyni+++++Limatula gwyni+++++Limatula gwyni+++++Limatula gwyni+++++Limatula gwyni+++++Lumbriclymene cylindricauda++++Lumbriclymene minor++++Lumbriclymene minor++++Lysianassidae gen. sp.++++Makrokylindrus sp.++++Malletia obtusa++++Melina cristata++++Mendicula ferruginosa+++Limbricula ferruginosa+++Limbricula ferruginosa+++Limbricula ferruginosa+++Limbricula ferruginosa+++Limbricula ferruginosa+++Limbricula ferruginosa+++Limbricula ferrugino	Laona quadrata			+	+		+		+
Leuconidae indet.++Leuconidae indet.+++Limatula gwyni+++Limatula gwyni+++Limatula gwyni+++Limatula gwyni+++Limatula gwyni+++Limatula gwyni+++Limutoria laevis+++Limopsis tenella+++Lumbriclymene cylindricauda+++Lumbriclymene minor+++Lumbrineris near cingulata+++Lysianassidae gen. sp.+++Makrokylindrus sp.+++Maldane sarsi+++Melletia obtusa+++Mendicula ferruginosa+++	Laonice sarsi		+	+	+				
Levinsenia flava/gracilis spp.+++++Limatula gwyni+++++Limatula gwyni++++Limatula gwyni++++Limopsis tenella++++Lumbriclymene cylindricauda+++Lumbriclymene cylindricauda+++Lumbriclymene cylindricauda+++Lumbriclymene cylindricauda+++Lumbriclymene cylindricauda+++Lysianassidae gen. sp.+++Lysianassidae gen. sp.+++Makrokylindrus sp.+++Maldene sarsi+++Melletia obtusa+++Mendicula ferruginosa+++	Leuconidae indet.			+					
Limatula gwyni Limactinia laevis + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +	Levinsenia flava/gracilis spp.	+	+	+	+	+			+
Limactinia laevis + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +	Limatula gwyni		+						
Limopsis tenella Lumbriclymene cylindricauda Lumbriclymene minor Lumbriclymene minor Lumbrineris near cingulata Lysianassidae gen. sp. Makrokylindrus sp. Makrokylindrus sp. Maldane sarsi Maldane sarsi Malletia obtusa Mellina cristata Mendicula ferruginosa Heruginosa Heruginosa	Limnactinia laevis	+							
Lumbriclymene cylindricauda Lumbriclymene minor Lumbrineris near cingulata + + + + + + + + + Lysianassidae gen. sp. + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +	Limopsis tenella			+					
Lumbriclymene minor       +       +       +       +       +         Lumbrineris near cingulata       +       +       +       +       +       +         Lysianassidae gen. sp.       +       +       +       +       +       +       +         Nakrokylindrus sp.       +       +       +       +       +       +       +       +         Maldane sarsi       Malletia obtusa       +       +       +       +       +       +       +       +         Mellena cristata       +	Lumbriclymene cylindricauda				+				
Lumbrineris near cingulata       +       +       +       +       +         Lysianassidae gen. sp.       +       +       +       +       +         Nakrokylindrus sp.       +       +       +       +       +         Maldane sarsi       +       +       +       +       +         Malletia obtusa       +       +       +       +       +         Mellina cristata       +       +       +       +       +         Mendicula ferruginosa       +       +       +       +       +	Lumbriclymene minor		+						
Lysianassidae gen. sp. + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +	Lumbrineris near cingulata	+	+	+	+		+		+
Makrokylindrus sp. + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +	Lysianassidae gen. sp.	+		+	+				
Maldane sarsi++++Malletia obtusa+++++Melinna cristata+++++Mendicula ferruginosa++++	Makrokylindrus sp.		+						
Malletia obtusa         +	Maldane sarsi					+		+	
Melinna cristata + + + + + + + + + Mendicula ferruginosa + + + + +	Malletia obtusa	+	+	+	+				
Mendicula ferruginosa + + + +	Melinna cristata	+	+			+	+		
	Mendicula ferruginosa		+	+	+				
Mendicula pygmaea	Mendicula pygmaea								+

SaltfjordSørfoldaTysfjordMicroclymene acirrata++Microclymene tricirrata++Myriochele olgae++Myriochele olgae++Moriochele olgae++Moriochele olgae++Moriochele olgae++Moriochele olgae++Nephtys paradoxa++Nephtys paradoxa++Notomastus latericaus++Notomastus latericaus++Nucula tumidula++Oligochaeta++Onchnesoma steenstrupii++Ophelina abranchiata++Ophelina abranchiata++Ophiura asrsii++Ophiura sersii++Ophiura sersii++Ophiura sersii++Ophiura sersii++Mothura sersii++Mothur	Tycfior					
Microclymene acirrata + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +	Saltfjord Sørfolda (Yuur) Deep	d Tysfjord Middle	Skjerstadfjord	Nordfjord	Mistfjord	Tysfjord Inner
Microclymene tricitrata++Myriochele olgaeMyriochele olgae++Myriotrochus vitreus+++Myriotrochus vitreus+++Nemertea++++Nenertea++++Nenertea++++Neoleanira tetragona++++Nephasoma sp.++++Nephys hystricis++++Nephys hystricis++++Notomactus latericeusNotomactus latericeus+++Nucula tumidulaNucula tumidula+++Onchnesoma steenstrupii++++Ophelina minima++++Ophelina minima++++Ophelina minima++++Ophelina minima+ <td< td=""><td>+</td><td></td><td>+</td><td>+</td><td>+</td><td>+</td></td<>	+		+	+	+	+
Myriochele olgaeMyriochele olgae++Myrioglobula islandica+++Myriotrochus vitreus+++Nemertea++++Neoleanira tetragona+++Nephtys hystricis+++Nephtys hystricis+++Nephtys paradoxa+++Nephtys paradoxa+++Neteimyra punctata+++Nicomache lumbricalis+++Notonactus latericeus+++Notonastus latericeus+++Notonastus latericeus+++Nucula tumidula+++Oligochaeta+++Onchnesoma squamatum+++Ophelina anorvegica+++Ophelina minima+++Ophelina minima+++Ophelina anorvegica+++Ophelina anorvegica+++Ophelina anorvegica+++Ophelina anorvegica+++Ophelina anorvegica+++Ophelina anorvegica+++Ophelina anorvegica+++Ophelina anorvegica+++Ophelina anorvegica+++Ophelina anorvegica+++Ophiura assii+ <td>+</td> <td>+</td> <td>+</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>+</td>	+	+	+			+
Myrioglobula islandica+Myriotrochus vitreus+++Nemertea++++Neoleanira tetragona++++Nephtys hystricis++++Nephtys hystricis++++Nephtys paradoxa++++Nephtys paradoxa++++Nephtys paradoxa++++Neteimyra punctata++++Notomache lumbricalis++++Notomache lumbricalis++++Notomache lumbricalis++++Notomacula tumidula++++Oligochaeta-++++Ondernesoma steenstrupii++++Ophelina anorvegica++++Ophelina anorvegica++++Ophelina anorvegica++++Ophelina anorvegica++++Ophelina anorvegica++++Ophelina anorvegica++++Ophelina anorvegica++++Ophelina anorvegica+++Ophelina anorvegica+++Ophelina anorvegica+++Ophiura assii+++Ophiura sop. juv.++ </td <td></td> <td></td> <td>+</td> <td>+</td> <td></td> <td></td>			+	+		
Myriotrochus vitreus+++Nemertea+++++Neoleanira tetragona+++++Nephasoma sp.+++++Nephtys hystricis+++++Nephtys paradoxa+++++Nephtys paradoxa+++++Nephtys paradoxa+++++Netniwra punctataNotomastus latericalis+++Notomastus latericaus+++++Notoproctus oculatus+++++Notoproctus oculatus+++++Onchnesoma steanstrupii+++++Onchnesoma steanstrupii+++++Ophelina abranchiata+++++Ophelina abranchiata+++++Ophelina abranchiata+++++Ophelina abranchiata+++++Ophelina abranchiata+++++Ophelina abranchiata+++++Ophelina abranchiata+++++Ophelina abranchiata+++++Ophelina abranchiata+++++Ophelina abranchiata++	+	+				
Nemertea++++Neoleanira tetragona+++++Nephtys hystricis+++++Nephtys paradoxa+++++Nereimyra punctata+++++Nereimyra punctata+++++Netnia conchylega+++++Notomastus latericeus+++++Notoproctus oculatus+++++Ondonastus latericeus+++++Nucula tumidula+++++Ondonestus latericeus+++++Onchnesoma steenstrupii+++++Ophelina abranchiata+++++Ophelina abranchiata++<	+	+	+			
Neoleanira tetragona++Nephtys hystricis+++Nephtys hystricis+++Nephtys paradoxa+++Nereimyra punctata+++Nicomache lumbricalis+++Nicomache lumbricalis+++Nothria conchylega+++Notoproctus oculatus+++Notoproctus oculatus+++Ondonestus latericeus+++Ondonestus latericeus+++Ondonestus latericeus+++Ondonestus latericeus+++Ondonestus latericeus+++Ondonestus latericeus+++Ondonestus latericeus+++Ondonestus sulatum+++Onchnesoma steenstrupii+++Ophelina abranchiata+++Ophelina abranchiata+++Ophi	+ +	+	+	+		
Nephasoma sp.++++Nephtys hystricis++++Nereimyra punctata++++Nereimyra punctata++++Nicomache lumbricalis++++Nicomache lumbricalis++++Notomastus latericeus++++Notoproctus oculatus++++Nucula tumidula++++Oligochaeta-+++Onchnesoma steenstrupii++++Ophelina abranchiata++++Ophelina abranchiata++++Ophelina abranchiata-+++Ophelina abranchiata-+++Ophelina abranchiata++++Ophelina abranchiata++++Ophiura asosii+	+		+			
Nephtys hystricis+++Nephtys paradoxa++++Nereimyra punctataNereimyra punctata+++Nicomache lumbricalisNothria conchylega+++Notomastus latericeus++++Notoproctus oculatus++++Notoproctus oculatus++++Notoproctus oculatus++++Notoproctus oculatus++++Onchaeta++++Onchnesoma squamatum++++Onchnesoma steenstrupii+++Ophelina abranchiata+++Ophelina abranchiata+++Ophilura sorii+++Ophilura sorii	+++	+	+		+	+
Nephtys paradoxa++++Nereimyra punctataNicomache lumbricalis+++Nicomache lumbricalisNothria conchylega+++Notomastus latericeus++++Notoproctus oculatus++++Notoproctus oculatus++++Notoproctus oculatus++++Notoproctus oculatus++++OligochaetaOnchnesoma squamatum+++Onchnesoma steenstrupii++++Ophelina abranchiataOphelina abranchiata+++Ophelina minima++++Ophelina abranchiata++++Ophelina abranchiata++++Ophiura asii++++Ophiura sorii++++Ophiura sorii++ </td <td>+</td> <td>+</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td>	+	+				
Nereimyra punctata+Nicomache lumbricalis+Notomache lumbricalis+Notomactus latericeus+Notoproctus oculatus+Notoproctus oculatus+Nucula tumidula+Oligochaeta+Onchnesoma squamatum+Onchnesoma steenstrupii+Ophelina abranchiata+Ophelina minima+Ophiotcen gracilis+Ophiotra albida+Ophiura assii+Ophiura souleata+Ophiura sop.juv.+	++++			+		
Nicomache lumbricalis Nothria conchylega + + + Notoproctus oculatus + + + + + Nucula tumidula + + + + + + Oligochaeta + + + + + + Onchnesoma steenstrupii + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +	+					
Nothria conchylega+Notomastus latericeus++Notoproctus oculatus++Nucula tumidula++Nucula tumidula++Oligochaeta++Onchnesoma squamatum++Onchnesoma steenstrupii++Ophelina abranchiata++Ophelina minima++Ophioten gracilis++Ophioten gracilis++Ophiura albidaOphiura assii+Ophiura sp. juv.++			+			
Notomastus latericeus+Notoproctus oculatus++Nucula tumidula++Nucula tumidula++Oligochaeta++Onchnesoma squamatum++Onchnesoma steenstrupii++Ophelina abranchiata++Ophelina minima++Ophelina norvegica++Ophiopholis aculeata++Ophiura albidaOphiura assii+Ophiura sorii++Ophiura sorii+	+					
Notoproctus oculatus+++Nucula tumidula++++OligochaetaOnchnesoma squamatum+++Onchnesoma steenstrupii++++Onchnesoma steenstrupii++++Onchnesoma steenstrupii++++Ophelina abranchiata++++Ophelina minimaOphelina norvegica+++Ophioten gracilis++++Ophiopholis aculeataOphiura albida+++Ophiura sarsii++++Ophiura sp. juv++	+	+	+			
Nucula tumidula+++OligochaetaOligochaeta+++Onchnesoma squamatum++++Onchnesoma steenstrupii++++Ophelina abranchiata++++Ophelina minima++++Ophelina norvegica++++Ophioten gracilis++++Ophiopholis aculeataOphiura albida++Ophiura sarsii+++Ophiura sp. juv+	+	+	+			
Oligochaeta Onchnesoma squamatum + + + Onchnesoma steenstrupii + + + Ophelina abranchiata + + Ophelina minima Ophelina norvegica + + + + Ophiocten gracilis + + Ophiopholis aculeata Ophiura albida + +	++++	+	+	+		+
Onchnesoma squamatum+++Onchnesoma steenstrupii+++Ophelina abranchiata+++Ophelina minima+++Ophelina norvegica+++Ophioten gracilis+++Ophiopholis aculeata+++Ophiura albidaOphiura sarsii++Ophiura spi juv+					+	
Onchnesoma steenstrupii + + + + Ophelina abranchiata + + + Ophelina minima + + + + Ophioten gracilis + + + + Ophiocten gracilis + + + + Ophiorata Ophiura albida + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +	++++	+				
Ophelina abranchiata+Ophelina minima+Ophelina norvegica+Ophiocten gracilis+Ophiopholis aculeata+Ophiura albida+Ophiura sarsii+Ophiura sp. juv.+	++++	+	+	+		
Ophelina minima Ophelina norvegica + + + Ophiocten gracilis + Ophiopholis aculeata Ophiura albida + Ophiura sarsii + Ophiura sp. juv.	+					
Ophelina norvegica+++Ophiocten gracilis++Ophiopholis aculeata+Ophiura albida+Ophiura sarsii+Ophiura sp. juv.			+			
Ophiocten gracilis + Ophiopholis aculeata Ophiura albida + Ophiura sarsii +	++++					
Ophiopholis aculeata Ophiura albida Ophiura sarsii + Ophiura sp. juv.	+					
Ophiura albida Ophiura sarsii Ophiura sp. juv.			+			
Ophiura sarsii + Ophiura sp. juv.		+				
Ophiura sp. juv.	+	+		+		
		+				
Ophiuroidea indet.				+		
Owenia gr. fusiformis			+			

	Deep-sille	d basins			Shallow silled b	asins		
	Saltfjord	Sørfolda	Tysfjord Deep	Tysfjord Middle	Skjerstadfjord	Nordfjord	Mistfjord	Tysfjord Inner
aradiopatra fiordica		+	+	+				
aradiopatra quadricuspis	+	+	+	+				
aradoneis eliasoni		+						+
araedwardsia arenaria		+	+	+	+			
araedwardsia sarsii		+			+			
aramphinome jeffreysii	+	+		+	+			+
araonides nordica			+	+				
araphoxus oculatus					+	+		
arathyasira dunbari			+	+	+	+		
arathyasira equalis	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
arexogone longicirris				+				+
arvicardium minimum				+				
ectinaria belgica	+	+		+		+		
hascolion strombus		+						
hilinidae indet.	+							
holoe indet.		+						
holoe longa					+			
holoe pallida	+							
hylo norvegicus	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
ista bansei	+	+		+				
olycirrus latidens		+						
olycirrus medusa		+		+	+			
olyphysia crassa					+			
raxillella gracilis					+	+	+	
raxillura longissima		+		+				
rionospio cirrifera		+		+	+	+	+	+
rionospio dubia	+	+						
rotodorvillea atlantica		+	+	+				
seridamiissiiim nechitrae		4	+	+				

	Deep-sille	d basins			Shallow silled b	asins		
	Saltfjord	Sørfolda	Tysfjord Deep	Tysfjord Middle	Skjerstadfjord	Nordfjord	Mistfjord	Tysfjord Inner
Psilaster andromeda	+	+						
Psolus phantapus			+					
Retusa umbilicata			+	+				
Rhachotropis macropus		+						
Rhodine loveni	+	+		+				
Sabellidae gen. sp. A		+						
Scalibregma inflatum		+			+			+
Scaphander punctostriatus	+	+	+					
Scolelepis korsuni				+				
Scoloplos/Leitoscoloplos indet.					+			
Scutopus ventrolineatus	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Siboglinum ekmani		+	+	+		+		+
Siphonodentalium lobatum					+	+		
Sipunculus norvegicus		+		+				
Sosane bathyalis		+						
Spatangus raschi				+				+
Spiochaetopterus typicus	+	+	+	+	+	+		
Spiophanes kroyeri	+	+		+		+	+	+
Synchelidium intermedium			+					
Tanaidacea indet. (male)		+						
Taranis moerchii			+	+				
Tellimya tenella	+			+				
Terebellidae indet.								+
Terebellides stroemii agg.	+	+	+	+	+	+		+
Therochaeta flabellata				+				
Thyasira obsoleta		+	+	+		+		+
Thyasira sarsii					+	+		
Thyasiridae indet.	+	+			+	+		
Trichobranchidae gen. sp. A								+
				:				

	Deep-sille	d basins			Shallow silled b	asins		
	Saltfjord	Sørfolda	Tysfjord Deep	Tysfjord Middle	Skjerstadfjord	Nordfjord	Mistfjord	Tysfjord Inner
Trichobranchus roseus				+				
Tropidomya abbreviata		+	+	+		+		
Typhlotanais aequiremis		+	+					
Westwoodilla caecula		+		+				
Yoldiella lenticula						+		
Yoldiella lucida	+	+	+	+	+	+		
Yoldiella nana		+		+	+	+		
Yoldiella philippiana								+

	Deep-silled basins			
	Saltfjord	Sørfolda	Tysfjord Deep	Tysfjord Middle
	Onchnesoma steenstrupii (50.00)	Spiochaetopterus typicus (23.63)	Kelliella miliaris (45.33)	Kelliella miliaris (10.07)
Abundance (% of total	Spiochaetopterus typicus (15.26)	Heteromastus filiformis (16.20)	Genaxinus eumyarius (6.69)	Heteromastus filiformis (7.92)
abundance)	Parathyasira equalis (4.87)	Parathyasira equalis (4.80)	Mendicula ferruginosa (6.18)	Mendicula ferruginosa (7.67)
	Falcidens crossotus (3.80)	Kelliella miliaris (4.67)	Paradiopatra fiordica (6.01)	Thyasira obsoleta (6.65)
	Heteromastus filiformis (3.80)	Thyasira obsoleta (4.66)	Spiochaetopterus typicus (6.01	) Abra nitida (6.03)
	Brissopsis lyrifera (81.17)	Brisaster fragilis (20.87)	Limopsis tenella (16.13)	Brisaster fragilis (60.20)
	Psilaster andromeda (2.82)	Sipunculus norvegicus (19.05)	Kelliella miliaris (13.70)	Spatangus raschi (11.26)
Biomass (% of total biomass)	Onchnesoma steenstrupii (2.50)	Terebellides stroemii agg. (7.79)	Scaphander punctostriatus (12.50)	Sipunculus norvegicus (4.91)
	Nemertea (1.68)	Ophiura sarsii (7.33)	Delectopecten vitreus (10.45)	Abra nitida (3.03)
	Parathyasira equalis (1.59)	Parathyasira equalis (6.13)	Parathysira dunbari (6.00)	Ophiura albida (2.40)
	Shallow-silled basins			
	Skjerstadfjord	Nordfjord	Mistfjord	Tysfjord Inner
	Heteromastus filiformis (40.23)	Parathyasira equalis (13.23)	Spiophanes kroyeri (38.20)	Parathyasira equalis (26.56)
	Parathyasira equalis (11.19)	Yoldiella nana (12.06)	Parathyasira equalis (23.60)	Heteromastus filiformis (13.54)
Abundance 1% of total ahundance)	Paramphinome jeffreysii (8.96)	Myriochele olgae (11.89)	Heteromastus filiformis (7.30)	Terebellides stroemii agg. (10.07)
	Ceratocephale loveni (7.58)	Abra nitida (11.72)	Ceratocephale loveni (5.62)	Lumbrineris near cingulata (7.47)
	Galathowenia oculata (5.21)	Kelliella miliaris (10.55)	Maldane sarsi (5.62)	Prionospio cirrifera (7.47)
	Brisaster fragilis (42.48)		Parathyasira equalis (47.01)	Parathyasira equalis (45.75)
Diamacc	Ctenodiscus crispatus (25.78)		Praxillella gracilis (17.07)	Terebellides stroemii agg. (16.86)
/0/ of total hiomace/	Polyphysia crassa (10.82)	no data	Phylo norvegicus (11.24)	Nucula tumidula (5.85)

Supplementary table 3. Dominant species in each basin.

43

Heteromastus filiformis (5.13)

Spatangus raschi (4.56)

Ceratocephale loveni (8.12) Spiophanes kroyeri (10.87)

Ceratocephale loveni (2.16)

Astarte crenata (5.21)

(% of total biomass)

	Adı	ılt lif	e hat	Ĭ			Σ	obilit	t	Bo	dy de	ssign					Fe	edin	g hab	Ĭ			Lar	val	Nor	mal	adult		Pos	ition	.⊑ <u>;</u>
	AH1	AH2	2 AH3	AH <sup>2</sup>	4 AH	5 AH	16 M.	1 M2	E N	BD:	1 BD	2 BD5	3 BD	4 BD!	5 BD6	5 BD	7 FH1	1 FH	2 FHS	3 FH4	EH3	FH6		LT2	NS1	NS2	NS3	NS4	PS1	PS2	PS3
Abra nitida	0	0	0	m	0	0	0	с	0	ო	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	m	0	0	0	0	m	0	0	2	-	0	0	ო	0
Abyssoninoe sp.	0	0	0	m	0	0	c	0	0	0	m	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	m	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	e	0
Actinaraea indet.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Aglaophamus pulcher	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	с	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	1	2	0	З	0
Alvania testae	0	0	0	0	m	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	e	0	0
Amaeana trilobata	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	З	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	ო	0
Ampelisca cf. amblyops	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0
Ampharete gr. lindstoemi	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	З	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	2	1	0	0	с	0
Ampharete octocirrata	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	с	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	2	1	0	0	ი	0
Ampharetidae indet.	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	З	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ო	0
Amphicteis gunneri	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	З	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	с	0	0
Amphictene auricoma	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	З	0	0	c	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	с	0	ŝ	0	0	2	1	0	2	2
Amphilepis norvegica	0	0	0	m	0	0	0	З	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	2	~	0	0	0	с	0
Amythasides macroglossus	0	m	0	0	0	0	0	с	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	7	0	0	с	0
Anatoma crispata	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0
Anobothrus gracilis	0	m	0	0	0	0	0	с	0	0	m	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	з	0

Supplementary table 4. Species traits.

	Adu	ılt life	e hab	it			δ	bility		Body	y des	ign					feed	ng h	abit			4	arval /pe	Siz	o rma ze	l adu	Ŧ	Po se	sitio dime	n in ents
	AH1	AH2	AH3	AH4	AH5	AH6	M1	M2	M3	BD1	BD2	BD3	BD4	BD5	BD6 I	BD7 F	H1 F	H2 F	H3 F	H4 F	H5 F	Не г.	1	L2 NS	1 NS	2 NS	3 NS	4 PS:	1 PS	2 PS3
Antalis entalis	0	0	0	m	0	0	0	ო	0	0	0	с	0	0	0	0				_	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	m	0	m	0
Aphelochaeta sp.	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	с	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	~	0	ŝ	0	0	2	2	0	ŝ	0
Aphrodita aculeata	0	0	0	2	7	0	с	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		~	0	0	ŝ	0	0	Ч	2	7	2	0
Aphroditidae indet.	0	0	0	2	7	0	ŝ	0	0	0	e	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		~	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	2	0
Apodida indet.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	~	~	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Aricidea catherinae	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	с	0	0	0	e	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	~	0	S	1	2	0	0	0	2	7
Arrhinopsis Iongicornis	0	0	0	1	1	1	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	e	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	З	0	0	0	2	2	0
Arrhis phyllonyx	0	0	0	1	Ч	Ч	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	e	0	0	~	~	0	~	0	0	ŝ	0	e	0	0	Ν	2	0
Astarte crenata	0	0	0	c	0	0	0	e	0	e	0	0	0	0	0	0	~	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	с	0
Augeneria sp.	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	e	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	~	~	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	ი	0
Bathyarca pectunculoides	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	m	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	~	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0
Bivalvia indet.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	~	~	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Bradabyssa villosa	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ю	0	0	e	0	0	0	0	0	0	~	0	0	0	0	С	0	0	2	1	0	С	0
Brisaster fragilis	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	о С	0	0	0	0	2	0	с	0	0	0	С	0	ი	0
Brissopsis lyrifera	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ю	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	с Ю	0	0	0	0	- 2	ŝ	0	0	0	0	С	0	С	0
Bruzelia typica	0	0	0	0	2	2	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	~	~	0	0	ŝ	2	Ч	0	0	ŝ	0	0
Bylgides groenlandicus	0	0	0	0	2	2	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	~	0	ŝ	0	0	0	2	2	ŝ	0	0
Calocaris macandreae	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ო	0	0	0	0	0	e	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	ŝ	0	0	0	с	0	2	2
Campylaspis costata	0	0	0	2	0	7	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	с	0	0		~			0	0	ŝ	2	-	0	0	~	2	0

MetricipMetrici		Adı	ılt lif∈	e hat	bit			Mo	bility		Body	, desi	gu				-	eedi	ing hi	abit			`ئ	arval ype	Siz	orma. .e	ladu	Ľ	Sec Po:	sitioi dime	nts nts
pitelepitel		AH1	AH2	AH3	AH4	AH5	AH6	М1	M2	M3 E	3D1	BD2 E	3D3 E	3D4	BD5 F	3D6 F	3D7 F	H1 F	H2 F	H3 FI	H4 F	H5 FI	He L	T1 L1	-2 NS	1 NS	2 NS.	3 NS4	F PS1	PS2	P S
undeforeatia action00 <t< th=""><th>ipitella pitata</th><th>0</th><th>0</th><th>7</th><th>2</th><th>0</th><th>0</th><th>ю</th><th>0</th><th>0</th><th></th><th>3</th><th></th><th>0</th><th>0</th><th>C</th><th></th><th></th><th>0</th><th>0</th><th>0</th><th>ŝ</th><th>0</th><th>ŝ</th><th>0</th><th>-</th><th>2</th><th>-</th><th>0</th><th>З</th><th>0</th></t<>	ipitella pitata	0	0	7	2	0	0	ю	0	0		3		0	0	C			0	0	0	ŝ	0	ŝ	0	-	2	-	0	З	0
ratioacephale ratioacephale000	iudofoveata det.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
intertharia03000300300300300300300	ratocephale /eni	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	с	0	0	0	с Э	0	0	0	C	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	e	0	0	ŝ	0	0	З	0
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spidarial indet.00300300030030030030003000300030030030030030003000000000000 <td>macea indet.</td> <td>0</td>	macea indet.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
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lectopectenvi 3 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 3 3 0 0 0 0 0 3 3 0 0 0 0 3 0 3 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 3 0 3 0 3 0 4 us us astylis cornuta 0 0 0 2 0 1 0 3 0 0 0 0 0 3 0 0 0 3 0 0 0 0 3 0 0 0 3 0 1 2 0 3 0 1 2 0 3 0 1 2 0 0 0 0	crydium kelmanni	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	с. С	~	0	) (	-	0	0	0	<u> </u>	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0
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	astylis lucifera	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	3	) 0	) C	0	) (	C	3	0	0		3 0	0	0	0	0	3	1	2	0	0	٢	2	0

	Adı	ult life	e hab	it			δ	bility		Bod	y des	ign					-eed	ing he	abit			t La	pe	No size	rmal	aduli		Posi	ition imen	in ts
	AH1	. AH2	AH3	AH4	I AH5	AH6	М1	M2	M3	BD1	BD2	BD3	BD4	BD5	BD6	BD7 F	H1 F	H2 FI	H3 FI	44 FF	45 FF	16 LT:	1 LT.	2 NS1	NS2	NS3	NS4	PS1	PS2	PS3
Diastylis rathkei	0	0	0	2	0	-	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	с	0	0		0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	m	0		2	0
Diplocirrus glaucus	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	с	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	,	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	с	0
Dipolydora coeca	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ი	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	-	2	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ი	0
Drilonereis brattstroemi	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	ი	0
Eclysippe vanelli	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	З	0	0	З	0	0	0	0	0	 C	3	0	0	0	0	e	0	2	1	0	0	З	0
Edwardsiidae gen. sp. B	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	e	0
Ennucula corticata	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	 C	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	ŝ	0	0	0	0	С	0
Ennucula tenuis	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	2	7	0	0	З	0
Entalina tetragona	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	с	0	0	0	С	0	0	0	0	C	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	с	0
Eriopisa elongata	0	0	0	1	1	1	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	 C	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	ŝ	0	0	2	2	0
Eteone flava	0	0	0	2	1	0	ი	0	0	0	e	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	e	0	0	с	0	0	0	2	2	1	2	0
Eteone longa	0	0	0	2	1	0	ი	0	0	0	e	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	e	0	0	e	0	0	0	2	2	1	2	0
Euchone arenae	0	e	0	0	0	0	0	0	e	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	~	0	0	0	0	0	0	c	0	0	0	0	с	0
Euchone incolor	0	e	0	0	0	0	0	0	ю	0	e	0	0	0	0	0	) ~	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	1	2	0	0	с	0
Euchone pseudolimnicola	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	ი	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	~	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ი	0
Euclymene lindr othi	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ
Euclymeninae indet.	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ
Eucranta villosa	0	0	0	0	2	2	ŝ	0	0	0	e	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	e	0	0	0	ŝ	0	e	0	0
Eudorella emarginata	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0		0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	2	7	0	-	2	0
Eudorella indet.	0	0	0	2	0	Ч	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0		0	0	0	0	0	m	0	2	Ч	0	-	2	0
													4	5																

	Ad	ult li	fe hai	bit			Σ	obili	ť	Bo	dy d€	sign					Fee	ding	habi				Larv type	al r	Vorm size	ial ad	lult	ν	ositi edim	on in ents	_
	AH	1 AH	2 AH	3 AH.	4 AH	5 AH	16 M.	1	2	3 BD1	1 BD2	BD3	BD4	BD5	BD6	BD7	FH1	FH2	FH3	FH4	FH5	FH6	LT1	LT2 N	VS1 N	JS2 N	US3 N	S4 P	S1 P	SZ PS	33
Eulalia tjalfiensis	0	0	0	2	Ч	0	m	0	0	0	m	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	m	0	0	m	0			2	-	2	0	I
Eulimidae	c	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	e	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Eunice dubitata	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Euspira montagui	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	с С	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	
Euspira pallida	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	с С	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	
Exogone verugera	0	0	0	2	2	0	З	0	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	с С	0	0	0	2	2	0	
Falcidens crossotus	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	ŝ	0	
Flabelligeridae indet.	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	З	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	С	0	
Galathowenia oculata	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	З	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	S	0	
Gastropoda indet.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Genaxinus eumyarius	0	0	0	S	0	0	0	c	0	З	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	ŝ	۰ ۳	0	0	0	с	0	
Glycera lapidum	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	З	0	0	С	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	-	2	0	С	0	
Goniada maculata	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	с С	0	0	2	0	З	0	
Harpinia crenulata	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	~	0	0	0	со	0	
Harpinia propinqua	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ю	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	e	0	0	0	ŝ	۰ ۳	0	0	0	ŝ	0	
Heteranomia squamula	n	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	ŝ	0	0	
Heteromastus filiformis	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	с	0	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	e	0	0	0	5	0	0	ŝ	
Idas lamellosus	ю	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	m	0	0	0	0	0	0	e	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			0	ŝ	0	0	1

	Adı	ult life	e hat	Dit			Ĕ	bilit	>	Bod	y de	ign					Feed	ing h	labit				arva. ype	I si N	orma ze	al adı	ılt	Pc	ositio	on in ents
	AH1	AH2	AH3	AH4	1 AH5	AHE	5 M1	M2	M3	BD1	BD2	BD3	BD4	BD5	BD6	BD7	FH1	FH2	FH3	FH4	FH5	T 9H∶	T1 L	T2 N	S1 NS	52 N	53 N.S	54 PS	1 PS	2 PS3
Kefersteinia cirrata	0	0	0	2	7	0	ო	0	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	m	0		~	1	2	0	0	0	с	0
Kelliella miliaris	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	ი	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	~	3	0	0	0	2	~	0
Labidoplax buskii	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	с	0	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	~	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	с	0
Lanassa venusta	0	e	0	0	0	0	0	ო	0	0	ო	0	0	0	0	0	0	- m	0	0	0	0	~	0	0	2	2	0	ი	0
Laona quadrata	0	0	0	e	0	0	e	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	e	0	0	0	0	m	0	0	0	33	0	0	0	0	С	0
Laonice sarsi	0	0	0	ო	0	0	0	ო	0	0	ი	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	~	0	0	1	2	0	с	0
Leuconidae indet.	0	0	0	2	0	Ч	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0		ŝ	0	0	0	1	2	0
Levinsenia																														
flava/gracilis	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ი	0	0	0	ო	0	0	0	0	0	0	н Г	0	0	0	0	~	0	0	ŝ	0	0	2	2
spp.	(	c	c		¢	(	(	c	(	(	c				c	(					č			(	(	(	(	0	0	(
Limatula gwyni	m	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	m	m	0	0	0	0	0	0	m	0	0	0	0	0	_	0	0	ŝ	0	m	0	0
Limnactinia laevis	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Limopsis tenella	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	ю	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	ŝ	0	ŝ	0	0
Lumbriclymene cylindricauda	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	<u> </u>	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ
Lumbriclymene minor	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	~	0	0	0	ĉ	0	0	0	ŝ
Lumbrineris near cingulata	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	m	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	ŝ	0
Lysianassidae gen. sp.	0	0	0	0	2	2	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	m	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0
Makrokylindrus sp.	0	0	0	2	0	Ч	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	- M	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	~	2	0
Maldane sarsi	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ი	0	0	ი	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	~	~	0	0	2	2	0	0	ი
Malletia obtusa	0	0	0	ĉ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	e	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	m	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0
Melinna cristata	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	ი	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0		m	0	0	0			0	0	1	2	0	с	0

	Adı	ult lif	e hat	ij			Σ	obilit	Ę	Bo(	dy de	sign					Fee	ding	habi	L.			Larv type	a	Norn size	al ac	dult		ositi edin	ion ii Jent:	6
	AH1	. AH2	AH3	AH4	4 AH5	AH 3	6 M1	l M2	M3	BD1	BD2	BD3	BD4	BD5	BD6	BD7	FH1	FH2	FH3	FH4	FH5	FH6	LT1	LT2	NS1 I	VS2 I	NS3 N	NS4 F	S1 F	S2 F	S3
Mendicula ferruginosa	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	с	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	m	e m	0	0	0		~	
Mendicula pygmaea	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	З	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	m	0	m	e m	0	0	0	0	~	-
Microclymene acirrata	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ი	0	0	ი	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ი	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	
Microclymene tricirrata	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	З	0	0	ი	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ი	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	
Myriochele olgae	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	с	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	~	0	0	0	~	-
Myrioglobula islandica	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	с	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	~	0	0		~	-
Myriotrochus vitreus	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	С	0	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0		0	0	~	-
Nemertea	0	0	0	2	2	0	З	0	0	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0		0	_
Neoleanira tetragona	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ი	0	0	0	c	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0		0	0	~	_
Nephasoma sp.	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ი	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0		~	_
Nephtys hystricis	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	З	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	сч сч	0	0	~	-
Nephtys paradoxa	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	З	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	E E	0	0	~	-
Nereimyra punctata	0	0	0	2	1	0	З	0	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	е е	0		0	-
Nicomache lumbricalis	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	m	0	0	0	0	0	(1) (1)	~	0	-
Nothria conchylega	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	З	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	~	~	0	-
Notomastus latericeus	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ი	0	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	ε	0		Ő				

	Adi	ult lii	fe ha	bit			2	lobil	ity	Bc	dy d	esign	_				Fe	edinį	g hab	it			Lan type	val 5	Norr size	nal a	dult	_ •	Posit	ion i nent	L S
	AH1	1 AH	2 AH	3 AH	4 AH	15 AF	H6 M	11 M	12 M	3 BD	1 BD	2 BD	3 BD.	4 BD:	5 BD	6 BD	7 FH	L FH.	2 FH5	3 FH4	FH5	FH6	LT1	LT2	NS1	NS2	NS3	NS4 I	PS1	52 I	5S3
Notoproctus oculatus	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	33	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	2	5	0		
Nucula tumidula	0	0	0	c	0	0	c	0	0	С	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	co	0	0	0	0	0	e	0	ŝ	0	0	0	~	0
Oligochaeta	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	e	0	ŝ	ŝ	0	0	0	0	~	0
Onchnesoma squamatum Onchnesoma	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	с	0	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	2	5	0	0	с м	0
steenstrupii	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	С	0	0	0	С	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	e	0	2	2	0	0	- -	0
steenstrupii																															
oprienna abranchiata	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	с	0	0	0	ი	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	с	0	ŝ	0	0	0	с м	0
Ophelina minima	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	З	0	0	0	З	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	<u>د</u>	0
Ophelina norvegica	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ი	0	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	ŝ	0	0	2	Ч Т	0		
Ophiocten gracilis	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	С	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	- 	0	с м	0	0
Ophiopholis aculeata	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	- 	0	с м	0	0
Ophiura albida	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	ß	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	- 	0	~	0	0
Ophiura sarsii	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	c	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	5	2	m	0	0
Ophiura sp. juv.	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	e	0	0	0	0	e	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0			0
Ophiuroidea indet.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Owenia gr. fusiformis	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	З	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	1	2	0	0	~	0
Paradiopatra fiordica	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	с	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	e m	0	<u>س</u>	0
Paradiopatra quadricuspis	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	с	0	0	ę	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ε	0	0	0	e	0	0	0	с м	0	~ ~	

	Adı	ult lif	fe hat	it			Σ	obili	Ę	Boi	dy de	sign					Fee	ding	habi	ч.			Lar. type	/al	Norr size	nal a	dult		<sup>o</sup> osit sedir	ion i nent	د م
	AH1	I AH	2 AH3	AH <sup>2</sup>	4 AH	5 AH	6 M	1 M	M3	BD1	BD2	BD3	BD4	BD5	BD6	BD7	FH1	FH2	FH3	FH4	FH5	FH6	LT1	LT2	NS1	NS2	NS3 I	NS4	S1 F	S2 I	533
Paradoneis eliasoni	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	с	0	0	0	ო	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	0	2	0	с	0	ŝ	0	0		0	
Paraedwardsia arenaria	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	co	0	0	0	З	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	-	0	~	~
Paraedwardsia sarsii	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	С	0	0	0	З	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	-	0	~	0
Paramphinome jeffreysii	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	с	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	<del>.                                    </del>	ŝ	0	0	7	5	0	0		_
Paraonides nordica	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	З	0	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	7	0	ŝ	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	
Paraphoxus oculatus	0	0	0	m	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	ŝ	0	0	0	0	~	0
Parathyasira dunbari	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	ŝ	2	ст Т	0	0	0	~	0
Parathyasira equalis	0	0	0	ო	0	0	0	с	0	ო	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	ŝ	2	ст Г	0	0	0	~	0
Parexogone longicirris	0	0	0	2	2	0	З	0	0	0	ი	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	5	0	0	~	0	0
Parvicardium minimum	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	2	н Г	0	0	~	~
Pectinaria belgica	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	с	0	0	ი	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ო	ŝ	0	0	0	ст Т	2	0		
Phascolion strombus	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	с	0	0	0	ო	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ი	0	ŝ	0	0	2	-	0	~	0
Philinidae indet.	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	S	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	ю	0	0	0	0	~	~
Pholoe indet.	0	0	0	2	1	0	ი	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-	0	~
Pholoe longa	0	0	0	2	1	0	ი	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	2	— т	0	-	~	~
Pholoe pallida	0	0	0	2	1	0	ო	0	0	0	m	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	2	с Н	0	_	~	~
Phylo norvegicus	0	0	0	m	0	0	ო	0	0	0	ო	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	~	~
Pista bansei	0	m	0	0	0	0	0	m	0	0	m	0	0	0	0	0	0	m	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	m		_	

	Adı	ult lif	e hat	Ĭ			Σ	obili	Ę	Bo(	dy de	sign					Fee	ding	hab	it			typ	e e	Nor size	nal a	adult		Posi sedi	tion men	in ts
	AH1	. AH2	: AH3	AH	4 AH5	5 AHt	6 M1	L M2	. M3	BD1	BD2	BD3	BD4	1 BD5	BD6	BD7	FH1	FH2	FH3	FH4	FH5	FH6	LT1	LT2	NS1	NS2	NS3	NS4	PS1	PS2	PS3
Polycirrus latidens	0	0	-	2	0	0	0	с	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	e	0
Polycirrus medusa	0	0	7	2	0	0	0	с	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	ŝ	0
Polyphysia crassa	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	З	0	0	0	ი	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ი
Praxillella gracilis	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	ŝ
Praxillura longissima	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	З	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	б	0	0	0	0	0	0	m	0	0	0	m	0	0	ŝ
Prionospio cirrifera	0	0	З	0	0	0	0	S	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	Ч	2	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	1	2	0	0	e	0
Prionospio dubia	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ო	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	2	7	0	с	0
Protodorvillea atlantica	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	с	0
Pseudamussium peslutrae	0	0	0	1	2	0	З	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	с	с	0	0
Psilaster andromeda	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	ŝ	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	с	0
Psolus phantapus	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	с	0
Retusa umbilicata	0	0	0	m	0	0	m	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	с	0
Rhachotropis macropus	0	0	0	0	2	2	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	e	0	e	0	0
Rhodine loveni	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	З	0	0	С	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	с	0	ŝ	0	0	0	e	0	0	с
Sabellidae gen. sp. A	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0
Scalibregma inflatum	0	0	0	ε	0	0	с	0	0	0	ε	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ε	0	ε	0	0	2	2	0	0	e

	Adu	ılt lifi	e hab	ĿĿ			Σ	obilit	>	Boc	ly de	sign					Fee	ding	habi	L.			Larv type	a	Norn size	al ac	dult		ositi edin	ion ii Jent:	د م
	AH1	AH2	AH3	AH4	AH5	AH6	5 M1	. M2	M3	BD1	BD2	BD3	BD4	BD5	BD6	BD7	FH1	FH2	FH3	FH4	FH5	FH6	LT1	LT2	NS1	VS2 I	NS3 P	VS4 F	S1 F	S2 F	S3
Scaphander punctostriatus	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	2			~	
Scolelepis korsuni	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	Ч	2	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0		0	0	~	0
Scoloplos/Leitos coloplos indet.	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	ŝ	0	0		0	0		0
Scutopus ventrolineatus	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	с	0	0	0	ი	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	-	5	0	0	~	0
Siboglinum ekmani	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	~
Siphonodentaliu m lobatum	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	~	0
Sipunculus norvegicus	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	~	0	~	0
Sosane bathyalis	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ი	0	0	e	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	ო	0	0	0	0	~	~
Spatangus raschi	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	~		~	~
Spiochaetopteru s typicus	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	c	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	e	0	0	0	0	~	0	~	~
Spiophanes kroyeri	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	с	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0		0	0	~	0
Synchelidium intermedium	0	0	0	1	1	1	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	с	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	ŝ	e e	0	0	0	~	0	0
Tanaidacea indet. (male)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Taranis moerchii	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	c	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	e	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	~	0	~
Tellimya tenella	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	e	0	e	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	e	0	ŝ	0	2	-	0	0		~	_
Terebellidae indet.	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		~	~
Terebellides stroemii agg.	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	с	0	0	с	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0		E1			~	

Position in sediments	34 PS1 PS2 PS3	0 3 0	0 3 0	0 2 1	0 3 0	030	030	030	030	3 0 0	030	0 3 0	030	
lult	IS3 NG	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
nal ac	NS2 N	0	0	2	1	0	0		0			0 m	0	
Norn size	NS1 I	0	e m	0	2	0	0	0	e m	0	0	0	с м	
e /al	LT2	0	ŝ	ŝ	ŝ	0	0	0	ŝ	ŝ	ŝ	e	e	
Lar	LT1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	FH6	0	ŝ	2	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	FH5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	FH4	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	0	2	0	0	0	
habit	FH3	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
ding	FH2	m	0	0	0	ŝ	ŝ	0	ŝ	2	ŝ	ი	ო	
Fee	FH1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	BD7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	BD6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	BD5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	e	0	0	0	
	BD4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
ign	BD3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
y des	BD2	m	0	0	0	ŝ	ŝ	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Bod	BD1	0	c	ŝ	ŝ	0	0	e	0	0	e	ი	ი	
	M3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
bility	M2	с	c	ŝ	с	ŝ	c	с	co	0	0	0	0	
Мо	М1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ŝ	ŝ	ი	ო	
	AH6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	Ч	0	0	0	
	AH5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	0	
ij	AH4	m	ŝ	e	ŝ	0	0	ŝ	0	Ч	e	e	m	
e hab	AH3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
lt lif€	AH2	0	0	0	0	ŝ	ŝ	0	ŝ	0	0	0	0	
Adu	AH1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
		Therochaeta flabellata	Thyasira obsoleta	Thyasira sarsii	Thyasiridae indet.	Trichobranchida e gen. sp. A	Trichobranchus roseus	Tropidomya abbreviata	Typhlotanais aequiremis	Westwoodilla caecula	Yoldiella lenticula	Yoldiella lucida	Yoldiella nana	
Paper IV

- **1** Combining stable isotope and fatty acid analyses to assess
- 2 trophic niches of macrofauna in an anthropogenically influenced
- **3 deep fjord basin**
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# 7 Abstract

The link between biodiversity and ecosystem functioning is mediated by the 8 functions that species perform in a community. The ecological role of a species largely 9 depends on its trophic niche. However, little is known about trophic niches of benthic 10 fauna and whether resource partitioning occurs at the interspecific level. In the 11 present study, we investigated trophic niches of macrobenthic invertebrates in a deep 12 (380 m) sub-Arctic fjord. We hypothesized that possible food resource partitioning 13 14 among species with similar feeding habits can be influenced by the input of qualitatively different organic from an Atlantic salmon fish farm located in the fjord. 15 Combination of stable isotope and fatty acid analyses revealed that biomass-16 dominant species were characterized by a distinct trophic niche, but the effects of fish 17 farm waste sedimentation could not be traced in our study. Results of our study 18 indicate that food resource partitioning might be more important for macrobenthic 19 communities located in isolated habitats with weaker bentho-pelagic coupling. 20

# 21 **1 Introduction**

A widely accepted assumption in community ecology postulates, that two species 22 can co-exist in a given locality if they differ in some aspect of their ecological niche 23 ("limiting similarity"), which can be achieved through resource partitioning (Schoener, 24 1974; Abrams, 1983). Thus, the trophic niche of a species would define which food 25 resources it utilises, and, to some extent, which interspecific competition interactions 26 it would be involved in. In marine benthic food webs, macrobenthic primary 27 consumers, which feed directly on suspended and sediment particulate organic 28 matter, are the most species-rich group (Sokołowski et al., 2012). However, little is 29 known about the mechanisms of coexistence of ecologically similar macrobenthic 30 consumers. Macrobenthic feeding habits are diverse, including microphages 31 (suspension, surface deposit, and subsurface deposit feeders) and macrophages 32 (carnivores, herbivores, and omnivores) (Jumars et al., 2015). Competition can be 33 expected the highest among species with the same feeding habit, yet often studies 34 find little or no evidence for food resource partitioning among ecologically similar 35 macrobenthic species (e.g. Godbold et al., 2006; Karlson et al. 2015; Oxtoby et al., 36 2016), although feeding selectivity was also documented (e.g. Hudson et al., 2003; 37 Richoux et al., 2014). Deposit feeders, common for depositional environments such 38 as deep basins, may differ in their vertical position within sediments (Josefson, 1981; 39 Dauwe et al., 1998), which might also correspond with their different trophic 40 strategies and partitioning of food resources. Partitioning of food resources might be 41 more important for small and isolated habitats such as basins with restricted water 42 exchange where effects of dispersal from nearby communities on coexistence of 43 species are limited (Leibold et al., 2004; Hart et al., 2017). Macrobenthic communities 44 of sub-Arctic fjords differ in their structure approximately on a basin scale (Jordà 45 Molina et al., 2019; Kokarev et al., 2021), which might result in different resource 46 partitioning within macrobenthic consumers, and differences in organic matter 47 remineralization among basins (Witte et al., 2003; Sweetman and Witte, 2008). Thus, 48 understanding the trophic niches of macrobenthos might help to also better 49 50 understand the processes shaping its community structure and functioning.

<sup>51</sup> Trophic niches can be assessed using indirect methods such as stable isotope and <sup>52</sup> fatty acid analyses as these methods provide long-term dietary information (Kelly and <sup>53</sup> Scheibling, 2012). Stable isotopic signatures of carbon and nitrogen,  $\delta^{15}N$  and  $\delta^{13}C$ , <sup>54</sup> are routinely used in trophic ecology due to the predictable behaviour in food webs: <sup>55</sup>  $\delta^{15}N$  and  $\delta^{13}C$  are enriched by 2.5-5‰ and approximately 1‰ at each trophic level, <sup>56</sup> respectively (Bearhop et al., 2004). Stable isotopes provide easily obtainable and

comparable information about trophic niches but information about food sources is 57 limited, particularly if they are not known or have similar isotopic signatures. Fatty 58 acids can provide more qualitative information on diets and are widely used as 59 markers to study trophic relationships, particularly between primary producers, such 60 as microalgae, and primary consumers, although with some limitations as the 61 majority of fatty acid markers cannot be assigned to a single source (Dalsgaard et al., 62 2003; Kelly and Scheibling, 2012). For instance, polyunsaturated fatty acids, such as 63 20:5n-3 and 22:6n-3, that for a long time have been considered specific markers of 64 diatoms and dinoflagellates, can be also synthetised by marine bacteria (Jøstensen 65 and Landfald, 1997; Nichols, 2003). Both methods can be i.a. used to track terrestrial 66 organic matter in transitional environments such as estuaries, as terrestrial inputs to 67 marine ecosystem are characterised by lighter  $\delta^{13}$ C, as well as presence of 18:2n-6 68 and 18:3n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids, which are not very common in marine 69 environment (Dalsgaard et al., 2003; Dunton et al., 2012). 70

Numerous fish farms located in the fjords along the Norwegian coast can potentially 71 act as additional carbon sources to the basins. The particulate organic matter 72 sedimentation in the vicinity of a fish farm can be several times higher than in the 73 reference conditions during production (Kutti et al., 2007a). Unconsumed fish feed 74 and faecal pellets are dispersed mainly near a fish farm location (<500m) (Bannister 75 et al., 2016), but changes in sediment biogeochemistry, such as an increase in organic 76 77 matter content, can be expected up to 1 km from a fish farm (Yakushev et al., 2020). 78 While considerable excess of organic matter triggers shifts in community structure in the direct vicinity of a fish farm (e.g. Kutti et al., 2007b), little is known how smaller 79 amounts of fish farm waste that can be dispersed further can affect benthic 80 communities. Benthic consumers may switch their diet to fish farm waste, which is 81 confirmed by elevated levels of 18:2n-6 and 18:3n-3 in their fatty acid composition 82 (Olsen et al., 2012; White et al., 2017; Woodcock et al., 2019). These fatty acids can 83 be used as markers of aquaculture waste as terrestrial crops are a major component 84 of fish food (White et al., 2019). Qualitatively different food sources from fish farm 85 waste can affect resource partitioning among macrobenthic invertebrates and, 86 consequently, community structure in areas with a significant impact of fish farm 87 production. Fjords are estuarine environments, however, the contribution of 88 89 terrestrial inputs to their organic matter pools differs greatly, particularly, sub-Arctic fjords in the Vestfjord region have the lowest values of terrestrial organic matter 90 fraction in their surface sediments in the North Atlantic (Faust and Knies, 2019). 91 Consequently, low levels of fatty acids characteristic of terrestrial vegetation, such as 92

18:2n-6 and 18:3n-3, not associated with the fish farm input, can be expected, which
can facilitate the detection of fish farm footprints on the benthic community.

In the present study, we investigated the trophic niches of macrofauna and 95 sediment organic matter in a deep (380 m) sub-Arctic fjord basin at different distances 96 from a fish farm using a combination of stable isotope and fatty acid analyses. 97 Particularly, we aimed to answer the following questions: 1) what are the trophic 98 niches of the most common macrofaunal species in the basin and to what extent they 99 overlap and 2) do their trophic niches differ in the direct vicinity of the fish farm? Such 100 data would contribute to the understanding of macrobenthic community organization 101 in the deep fjord basins. 102

### 104 **2. Material and methods**

### 105 **2.1 Study area**

Nordfjord, a small fjord in the Vestjord region (67.12° N, 14.28° E), is about 7.5 km 106 long and 2.5 km wide, with a maximum depth of 390 m and a 120 m deep sill (Figure 107 1). During the sampling in July, the bottom water masses had a salinity of 34.3-34.4 108 and a temperature of 6.1-6.2° C with oxygen saturation of over 90% (CTD 109 measurements). Similar to other fjords with relatively shallow sills in the study area, 110 the bottom water masses indicated that more saline and dense Atlantic water masses 111 do not or do rarely enter the fjord, suggesting restricted water exchange (Jordà 112 Molina et al., 2019; Skreslet et al., 2020; Kokarev et al., 2021). There are several 113 salmon farm localities in the fjord, but we focused our sampling campaign on the 114 largest one in the fjord, with total fish biomass of 2711 tonnes and feed consumption 115 of 2900 tonnes. The fish was removed from the farm on the 10<sup>th</sup> of June 2019, a month 116 before the sampling campaign for this study took place. 117

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### 119 **2.2 Sampling and collection of the fauna and sediments**

The sampling campaign took place in the period 08.07.2019-10.07.2019. The 120 sampling campaign focused on the deep basin (> 350 m), where the bottom 121 topography is relatively homogeneous. The closest station located at 500 m from the 122 fish farm (V3) and the furthest location at 2.2 km from the fish farm (V5 Ref). Sampling 123 closer to the farm was not possible because of the position of anchor lines and fjord 124 morphology. On each station four Van Veen grab samples (0.1 m<sup>2</sup>) were taken. From 125 one of the grabs at each station, where the sediment surface was visually 126 undisturbed, three syringes from different spots were taken for the sediment 127 analyses. The sediment from each of syringes was cut in three intervals 0-2 cm, 2-5 128 cm and 5-10 cm, pooled for each station and frozen at -24°C. The sediment from the 129 grabs was sieved on 1 mm mesh sieve and subsequently invertebrates were sorted 130 alive from the remaining fraction. Animals were identified to species level and frozen 131 in liquid nitrogen (fatty acids and stable isotopes analyses) or frozen at -24 °C (stable 132 isotopes). Due to low abundance and limited processing time, three replicates from 133 the same station were pooled during sample sorting and individuals were pooled in 134 order to obtain enough biomass for the analyses in case of smaller species. For the 135 larger specimens of Ctenosdicus crispatus and Ophioscolex glacialis only arms were 136 used for the analyses. For the large individual of *Thyasira sarsii* one gill and the foot 137

were used for the separate stable isotope analyses and the remaining viscera, gill and mantle were used for fatty acids analysis. For the rest of the bivalves, shells were removed upon collection and all the soft tissues were used for the analyses. From the fourth grab replicate, which was sorted separately, animals were taken for trophic analyses and the remaining animals were fixed in 4% buffered formaldehyde and subsequently counted to obtain quantitative data on species composition per sample.

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# 145 **2.3 Stable isotope analysis**

146 Prior to analysis, the samples of sediments and invertebrates were freeze-dried. 147 Freeze-dried samples were sent to Iso-Analytical (UK), where they were processed using Elemental Analysis - Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometry (EA-IRMS). Samples that 148 contained inorganic carbon were acidified to remove inorganic carbon, but 149 acidification can alter  $\delta^{15}$ N (Silberberger et al., 2021). Therefore, the sediments and 150 echinoderm taxa were processed twice, raw (for nitrogen analysis) and acid-washed 151 with 1M hydrochloric acid (for carbon analysis), all the other samples were processed 152 untreated. The layers 2-5cm and 5-10 cm were analyzed only for stations V3 and V5. 153 Stable isotope ratios are expressed in the conventional delta notation ( $\delta^{13}C / \delta^{15}N$ ) 154 relative to VPDB (Vienna PeeDee Belemnite standard) and atmospheric nitrogen. 20% 155 of the samples were analysed twice for quality check. 156

157

# 158 2.4 Fatty acid analysis

After snap freezing in liquid nitrogen, invertebrate samples for fatty acid analysis 159 were freeze-dried and stored at -80°C under nitrogen until further processing. The 160 total lipids were extracted using Bligh and Dyer method modified for small samples 161 162 (Bligh and Dyer, 1959). The total lipid content was estimated by weighing an aliquot of lipid samples and expressed relative to dry weight. The chloroform phase was then 163 dried under nitrogen at 40 °C. The lipids were saponified with 0.5M NaOH in methanol 164 under  $N_2$  at 100°C for 15 min. After cooling fatty acid methyl esters were obtained 165 through methylation using 12% BF<sub>3</sub> solution in methanol under N<sub>2</sub> at 100°C for 5 min, 166 the tubes were cooled again and the FAMEs were extracted with 1 ml hexane for 1 167 min at 100°C. The hexane phase containing methyl esters was washed with 3 ml 168 saturated NaCl solution, transferred to glass vials, dried under nitrogen, and sent to 169 The Station Biologique de Roscoff (France) for GC-MS analysis The obtained 170 chromatograms were processed with Chrombox Q (www.chrombox.org). The 171

identification of fatty acid methyl esters was based on the retention time of standard 172 mixture containing 37 compounds as well as mass spectrum data compared to the 173 reference database (www.chrombox.org). The similarity of species fatty acid profiles 174 was assessed using Bray-Curtis similarity index based on square-root transformed 175 percentage composition (Legeżyńska et al., 2014). Fatty acids were clustered together 176 using index of association: a similarity index, that is calculated as a Bray-Curtis index 177 based on variable abundances standardized across samples with values ranging from 178 0 (perfect "negative" association) to 100 (perfect "positive" association") (Clarke et 179 al., 2014). 180

### 182 **3. Results and discussion**

### 183 **3.1 Trophic niches of the macrofauna**

Overall, 20 taxa were sampled for stable isotope analysis, most of the taxa studied belong to deposit feeders, with a few being carnivore species (Table 1). While many taxa showed overlap in their isotopic niche (Figure 2), fatty acid profiles were highly species-specific (over 80% similarity) (Figure 3).

188 The results of stable isotope analysis revealed that most of the benthic taxa studied were more enriched in carbon and nitrogen than sediment organic matter, except the 189 ophiuroid Amphilepis norvegica, bivalves Ennucula tenuis, and Thyasira sarsii (Figure 190 2).  $\delta^{13}$ C of sediment organic matter was close to the marine end-member defined for 191 the region ( $\delta^{13}$ C = -19.3‰; Faust and Knies, 2019), indicating that most of the organic 192 matter in sediments is of phytoplankton origin. Marine polyunsaturated fatty acids 193 20:5n-3 and 22:6n-3, typical markers for diatoms and dinoflagellates, respectively 194 (Dalsgaard et al., 2003), were present in all taxa present (Figure 4), but higher 195 percentages are reported for 20:5n-3. This reflects the phytoplankton composition in 196 the area, where diatoms are present from May to August, while dinoflagellates are 197 found occasionally in smaller numbers (Skreslet et al., 2000). Another common 198 199 polyunsaturated fatty acid was 20:4n-6, particularly abundant in the echinoderm 200 Ctenodiscus crispatus, the sipunculid Golfingia margaritacea, and the polychaete Phylo norvegicus, all of which can be considered as subsurface deposit feeders. 201 Although 20:4n-6 is often used as a marker for macroalgal consumption, in other 202 habitats, where macroalgal vegetation is absent, e.g. deep sea, it is believed to be of 203 sediment origin, where it might be synthesized by bacteria and protists, particularly 204 by foraminifera, and therefore is characteristic of subsurface deposit feeders (Howell 205 et al., 2003; Legeżyńska et al., 2014; Kharlamenko et al., 2018). Iso and anteiso fatty 206 acids, commonly used as bacterial markers of heterotrophic bacteria in marine food 207 webs (Dalsgaard et al., 2003) were present in all taxa, except Thyasira sarsii. Bacterial 208 fatty acids, together with common polyunsaturated fatty acids suggest that 209 210 bacterially reworked marine organic matter is the primary source for the macrobenthic community in the fjord basin. However, the relative proportion of these 211 fatty acids differed among the taxa studied even with the same feeding habit. 212

Surface deposit feeding bivalves, *Nucula tumidula* and *Abra nitida*, differed both in their stable isotopic niche and fatty acid composition. *Abra nitida* had the lowest trophic level of all the deposit feeding taxa (excluding *Ennucula tenuis*), while fatty acid composition was characterised by the highest abundance of 20:5n-3 fatty acid

and low proportion of bacterial fatty acids, indicating that this species prefers less 217 degraded organic matter of phytoplankton origin. Nucula tumidula had a high niche 218 overlap with the polychaete *Melinna cristata*, but the latter showed a wider isotopic 219 niche. The fatty acid analysis revealed that N. tumidula had a higher proportion of 220 20:4n-6, while *M. cristata* was characterised by the presence of 16:1n-10, 7 Me fatty 221 acid. The latter fatty acid is considered to be of bacterial origin (Imbs et al., 2007) and 222 might indicate a preference towards feeding on detritus associated with different 223 bacterial groups. The three surface deposit feeders were all characterised by the 224 presence of 4,8,12-Me 13:0 fatty acid, which is a degradation product of phytol, the 225 ester-linked side-chain of chlorophyll-a (Rontani and Valkman, 2003). The surface 226 deposit feeding polychaetes Chaetozone setosa and Terebellides stroemii, had stable 227 isotope values in the range of *M. cristata*, but occurred much rarer at the stations. 228 Compared to M. cristata, T. stroemii had a higher concentration of 20:5n-3 and lower 229 concentrations of 22:6n-3 as well as n-6 polyunsaturated fatty acids, indicating more 230 selective feeding on diatom-derived phytodetritus. Among the surface deposit 231 feeding taxa, the bivalve *Ennucula tenuis* had the lowest  $\delta^{15}$ N values, almost the same 232 as sediment organic matter. Generally, E. tenuis has a shallower distribution 233 compared to the bathyal N. tumidula (Josefson, 1985), so the only individual that was 234 recovered during our sampling campaign might be a migrant from shallower depths, 235 where the bentho-pelagic coupling is stronger, which could explain the lower  $\delta^{15}$ N as 236 a result of feeding on fresher phytoplankton material. 237

Among the subsurface deposit feeders, the polychaete families Maldanidae 238 (Clymenura borealis and Praxillella gracilis) and Pectinaridae (Amphictene auricoma 239 and Pectinaria belgica) also showed differentiation in their trophic niches indicated 240 by both stable isotope and fatty acid analysis. Specifically, the maldanid polychaetes 241 showed a high proportion of 12:0 fatty acid along with higher abundance of 16:1n-7 242 and 18:1n-7, which are characteristic of facultative anaerobic bacteria (Parkes and 243 Taylor, 1983), while higher concentrations of iso and anteiso fatty acids were found 244 in pectinarids. This, again, can indicate the species' affinities to different detritus 245 patches and microbial communities within the sediment or feeding at different 246 sediment depths. Compared to other subsurface deposit feeding polychaetes, Phylo 247 norvegicus had high amounts of n-3 (20:5n-3 and 22:5n-3) and n-6 (20:4n-6 and 248 22:4n6) polyunsaturated fatty acids, as well as lower amounts of iso and anteiso fatty 249 acids. The high amount of polyunsaturated fatty acids is similar to a related species of 250 the same family, Scoloplos armiger, in Kongsfjord, Svalbard (Legeżyńska et al., 2014). 251 Phylo norvegicus can borrow quite deep in the sediment (Josefson, 1981), which 252 together with a quite narrow isotopic niche and high values of  $\delta^{15}$ N, suggests more 253

selective feeding behaviour, possibly ingesting meiobenthic prey, compared topectinarid and maldanid polychaetes.

The polychaete Aphelochaeta sp. had an isotopic niche between M. cristata and 256 pectinarid polychaetes, which is consistent with its feeding habit as it is both surface 257 and subsurface deposit feeder. However, compared to other polychaete species, it 258 had an unusual fatty acid profile with a high contribution of non-methylene 259 interrupted fatty acids, particularly 22:2. These fatty acids are not of phytoplankton 260 or bacterial origin but rather synthetised by marine invertebrates, although the 261 importance of non-methylene interrupted fatty acids is not completely understood 262 (Barnathan, 2009). The high content of non-methylene interrupted fatty acids was 263 also characteristic for the sipunculid *Golfingia margaritacea*, which is consistent with 264 previous data on this species (Kharlamenko et al., 2018). Kharlamenko et al. (2018) 265 classified G. margaritacea as a subsurface deposit feeder but found that its fatty acid 266 composition is more similar to other surface deposit feeders in their study. In our 267 study.  $\delta^{15}N$  of this species indicated subsurface deposit feeding as it was similar to 268 maldanid polychaetes. 269

The echinoderm *Ctenodiscus crispatus* had a very distinct isotopic niche as well as 270 fatty acid profile. It non-selectively ingests mud and various prey items were 271 identified in its stomach content, including nematodes and foraminifera (Shick et al., 272 1981; Gale et al., 2013). During field sampling, we also observed individuals of C. 273 274 crispatus with stomachs filled with mud. In general, the fatty acid composition of this species was similar to previously described compositions (Sargent et al., 1983; Bell 275 and Sargent, 1985; Kharlamenko et al., 2013). Also, the isotopic profile with enriched 276  $\delta^{15}$ N and  $\delta^{13}$ C values was similar to findings along the Norwegian coast, the Sea of 277 Japan, and eastern Canada (Nilsen et al., 2008; Gale et al., 2013; Kharlamenko et al., 278 2013; Silberberger et al., 2018). The major polyunsaturated fatty acid in this species 279 is 20:4n-6, which origin remains unknown, but might be linked to the benthic 280 microbial food web (Kharlamenko et al., 2013). We found two isoprenoid fatty acids 281 previously not reported for *C. crispatus*, phytanic and pristanic, which are products of 282 phytol degradation (Rontani and Valkman, 2003). Unlike the other phytol degradation 283 product 4,8,12-Me 13:0, which was observed in several other taxa, these two 284 285 compounds were not observed in any other taxon suggesting that C. crispatus has a metabolic pathway to utilise phytol in sediments converting it to phytanic, and, 286 consequently, to pristanic acid (Rontani and Valkman, 2003). This highlights the wide 287 trophic niche of this species, which might utilise very different food sources from 288 sediments. 289

Species recognized as carnivore in the study included polychaetes *Neoleanira tetargona*, *Lumbrineris near cingulata*, *Drilonereis brattsroemi* and the echinoderm *Ophioscolex glacialis*. These species showed very different stable isotopic signatures, suggesting different prey animals for these species. Moreover, two individuals of *N*. *tetragona* differed greatly in their isotopic signatures, differing greatly in  $\delta^{15}N$ , indicating that this species might have a more omnivorous feeding strategy, possibly relying in part on surface deposit feeding or ingestion of phytodetritus.

The bivalve *Thyasira sarsii* was the species that differed most from the other species 297 in the basin, both in the stable isotopic signature as well as fatty acid composition. 298 The values of the stable carbon isotopes in the gill and the foot are consistent with 299 measurements performed on T. sarsii collected in deep Skagerrak and suggest high 300 301 dependence on the sulphur-oxidizing bacteria in the gills (Schmaljohann et al., 1990; Dando and Spiro, 1993). The high abundance of 16:1n-7 and 18:1n-7 fatty acids as 302 well as absence of branched iso and anteiso fatty acids is similar to T. flexuosa 303 (Fullarton et al., 1995) and highly contrasts with the fatty acid composition of other 304 macrofaunal taxa that rely on sediment organic matter. The difference in isotopic 305 signature between foot and gill tissue suggests that symbiotic bacteria are the main 306 source of carbon for T. sarsii, which is different from symbiotic T. cf. gouldi, which 307 relies in part on deposit feeding (Zanzerl et al., 2019). Interestingly, in Malnesfjord, 308 northern Norway, a Thyasira sp., with a similar isotopic signature was suggested as 309 310 possible prey for carnivore polychaete Nephtys sp., which had also a very depleted  $\delta^{13}$ C (Silberberger et al., 2018). This indicates that carbon of chemosynthetic origin 311 can be occasionally transferred to higher trophic levels, although it was not observed 312 in our study. Another species, an ophiuroid Amphilepis norvegica, was also more 313 depleted in  $\delta^{13}$ C than organic matter of sediments, indicating that it is not the only 314 source of carbon for the species. Most probably this species, originally described as 315 Amphiura and phylogenetically related to Amphiuridae (Hunter et al., 2016), is also 316 able to suspension feed similar to some species of Amphiura ophiuroids (Ockelmann 317 and Muus, 1978), as pelagic carbon might have lower values of  $\delta^{13}$ C compared to 318 sediment organic matter (Nilsen et al., 2008; Sokołowski et al., 2014). 319

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### 321 **3.2 Effects of fish farming**

Overall, the sediment characteristics showed variation in a narrow range among the stations (Figure 5). A small increase in TOC was observed at stations closer to the fish farm compared to the reference station, especially on the stations V2 and V3, which

was accompanied by slightly more depleted values of  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{15}$ N. The difference 325 among sediment layers in sediment characteristics was much more pronounced for 326 the station closest to the fish farm (V3) compared to the reference station (V5). 327 However, the observed values (up to 2.08 %) are in the range of the TOC values 328 recorded in other fjords in the region (Faust and Knies, 2019; Kokarev et al., 2021). In 329 a study from a deep fjord (Uggdalsfjord) in western Norway high sedimentation rates 330 and shift in macrobenthic community structure was observed only within 250 meters 331 of the fish farm, while TOC and TON in the sediment were not elevated (Kutti et al., 332 2007a; Kutti et al., 2007b). Our closest station was located approximately 500 meters 333 from the fish farm. Therefore, it is not clear, if the elevated TOC in our study is a 334 consequence of sedimentation from the fish farm or natural variation. Two fatty 335 acids, 18:2n-6 and 18:3n-3, are commonly associated with consumption of feed farm 336 waste in benthic invertebrates (White et al., 2019). 18:2n-6 was common for many 337 species in the basin (Figure 4) independent of their distance to the farm. The 338 concentration of 18:2n-6 fatty acid showed an increase near the fish farm only for 339 Aphelochaeta sp. but was insignificant in this species from other locations (Figure 6). 340 341 We did not observe 18:3n-3 in our samples at all, and no particular relationship was observed between  $\delta^{13}$ C values of the most common surface deposit feeding fauna 342 and distance from the fish farm (Figure 6). This suggests that 18:2n-6 in our study 343 might come from an alternative source, most probably microalgae (White et al., 344 2019). Therefore, sedimentation from the fish farm could not be traced as a source 345 for macrobenthic consumers in our study. 346

# 348 **4 Conclusion**

Although some macrobenthic species studied show trophic niche overlap indicated 349 by stable isotope and fatty acid analyses, the most common species (with a higher 350 number of samples) have distinct trophic niches, which indicates that niche 351 partitioning processes are important for the coexistence of species in habitats such as 352 deep fjord basins, particularly with restricted water exchange. Restricted water 353 exchange with surrounding waters limits dispersal of individuals from neighbouring 354 communities increasing the role of competition. Moreover, as suggested by our data, 355 the community relies on bacterially reworked organic matter of phytoplankton origin, 356 which makes the basin a more food-limited environment for macrobenthos compared 357 to shallower habitats, where the bentho-pelagic coupling is stronger and more fresh 358 organic matter of phytoplankton reaches the seafloor. Indeed, evidence of resource 359 partitioning was documented for bathyal holothurians in the Northeast Atlantic 360 (Hudson et al., 2003). In other studies, no evidence of food partitioning was observed 361 among co-occurring echinoderm species in a shallow fjord (Godbold et al., 2009), but 362 also in a deep area of the Antarctic shelf with high food supply from overlying waters 363 (Wigham et al., 2008). No food partitioning was observed for three deposit feeding 364 bivalves on the Bering sea shelf (Oxtoby et al., 2016) and among native species of 365 deposit feeders in the Baltic sea (Karlson et al., 2015). In our study, small-scale 366 heterogeneity in the distribution of detritus patches and associated 367 bacteria/meiofauna on and within the sediment possibly might create small-scale 368 heterogeneity that sustains the diversity of niches available for macrofauna. 369 However, we did not observe the effects of fish farm waste on the basin community, 370 but aquaculture impact might be basin specific and dependent on fjord 371 geomorphology and hydrology. In this study, we mainly focused on biomass-372 dominant species, which are easier to collect for stable isotope and, particularly, fatty 373 acid analyses, as sufficient biomasses are required. Some of the smaller common 374 species in the basin (bivalves Kelliella miliaris, Parathyasira equalis, Yoldiella nana and 375 the polychaete Myriochele olgae) were not collected for such analyses, and their 376 377 trophic niches remain unknown and require further investigation.

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subsurface d	leposit feeders,	, C—carnivore, SY—syr	mbiont ba	cteria.*F	Reference	ce for	feeding	g habit.	For polychaetes feeding
habit was as:	signed accordin	g to Jumars et al., 2015							
			Feeding		δ <sup>13</sup> C		$\delta^{15}N$		******
Higher taxon	Family	Species	habit	z	(%0)	SD	(%o)	SD	kerence."
Bivalvia	Semelidae	Abra nitida	SDF	∞	-18.88	0.29	7.76	0.29	Wikander, 1980
Bivalvia	Nuculidae	Ennucula tenuis	SDF	H	-19.26	ΝA	5.76	ΝA	Oxtoby et al., 2016
Bivalvia	Nuculidae	Nucula tumidula	SDF	ß	-19.68	0.15	8.79	0.32	
				1 (gill)	-38.50	ΝA	-8.89	NA	
				Ч					
Bivalvia	Thyasiridae	Thyasira sarsii	SSDF/ SY	(foot)	-35.93	NA	-4.14	NA	Dando and Spiro, 1993
Echinoderma									
ta	Amphilepididae	Amphilepis norvegica	No data	H	-22.11	ΝA	11.33	ΝA	
Echinoderma									Shick et al., 1981; Gale et al.,
ta	Ctenodiscidae	Ctenodiscus crispatus	SSDF	10	-16.62	1.08	13.10	0.67	2013
Echinoderma	Ophioscolecida								
ta	в	Ophioscolex glacialis	C	ŝ	-20.13	0.48	11.31	0.34	Warner, 1982
Polychaeta	Ampharetidae	Melinna cristata	SDF	6	-20.13	0.33	9.60	0.69	
Polychaeta	Cirratulidae	Aphelochaeta sp.	SDF/SSDF	ß	-19.93	0.27	10.51	0.52	
Polychaeta	Cirratulidae	Chaetozone setosa agg.	SDF	H	-20.69	ΝA	8.99	ΝA	
		Lumbrineris near			-19.93	ΝA	12.87	ΝA	
Polychaeta	Lumbrineridae	cingulata	U	2	-21.01	ΝA	12.18	ΝA	
Polychaeta	Maldanidae	Clymenura borealis	SSDF	Ч	-17.94	ΝA	11.17	NA	
					-18.91	ΝA	11.60	NA	
Polychaeta	Maldanidae	Praxillella gracilis	SSDF	2	-19.05	ΝA	11.77	ΝA	
Polychaeta	Oenonidae	Drilonereis brattstroemi	U	1	-18.48	ΝA	13.17	NA	
Polychaeta	Orbiniidae	Phylo norvegicus	SSDF	4	-19.77	0.08	12.34	0.14	

Table 1. Taxa sampled and number of samples (N) for stable isotope analysis. SDF – surface deposit feeders, SSDF – 

Tables

						Kharlamenko et al., 2018
ΝA	0.48	ΝA	ΝA		ΝA	NA
10.89	10.82	11.18	9.40		8.85	11.27
ΝA	0.64	ΝA	ΝA		ΝA	NA
-19.79	-20.10	-18.48	-19.20		-20.10	-18.13
4	ŝ		2		1	1
SSDF	SSDF		J		SDF	SSDF
Amphictene auricoma	Pectinaria belgica		Neoleanira tetragona	Terebellides stroemii	agg.	Golfingia maragritacea
Pectinariidae	Pectinariidae		Sigalionidae	Trichobranchida	в	Golfingiidae
Polychaeta	Polychaeta		Polychaeta		Polychaeta	Sipuncula

# 526 Figure legends

Figure 1. Map of the study area. Blues circles indicate grab sampling locations
 and CTD measurements, green square indicates a fish farm, a dashed line – 350
 meters isobath

**Figure 2**. Biplot of stable isotope data. Species with three or more measurements are represented as mean and 95% confidence interval (error bars). *T. sarsii* was identified as an outlier and not shown on the plot

- **Figure 3**. UPGMA clustering of species Bray-Curtis similarities based on squareroot transformed percent fatty acid composition.
- **Figure 4**. Shade plot of square root transformed percent fatty acid composition.

536 Scale is square root transformed percent contribution of a fatty acid to the total

- fatty acid composition. Fatty acids clustered using UPGMA algorithm based onindex of association.
- **Figure 5.** Characteristics of the sediment samples: total organic carbon (TOC), carbon stable isotope ratio ( $\delta^{13}$ C), total nitrogen content (TN), nitrogen stable isotope ratio ( $\delta^{15}$ N). Note: stations V2 and V4 have the same distance to the fish farm. Only closest (V3) and reference station (V5) were analysed for different sediment layers. In case of the same value for different sediment layers, only lower value is shown.
- **Figure 6**. Relationship between distance from the fish farm and A) content of 18:2n-6 fatty acid in the most common surface deposit feeders, B)stable isotope
- ratio of most common surface-deposit feeders.



550 Figure 2















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