

# Meiofaunal distribution patterns and trophic structure in response to abiotic conditions in Coringa mangroves on the east coast of India

R S Pandiya rajan<sup>1\*</sup>, Uma Sankar Panda<sup>1\*</sup>, P Ezhilarasan<sup>1</sup>, MV Ramanamurthy<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Ecosystem Services & Modeling, National Centre for Coastal Research, Chennai 600100, India

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## Abstract

Meiofauna play essential roles in matter cycling and energy transmission, making them vital to the mangrove environment. In September 2022, sediment and water samples were collected from the bay and creek zones of the Coringa mangroves. We investigated the benthic meiofaunal assemblages and diversity concerning the environmental variables from mangroves. Seven meiofaunal groups including free-living nematodes, benthic harpacticoid copepods, polychaetes, ostracods, kinorhyncha, foraminifera, and amphipods were reported. The meiofauna abundance ranged between  $734 \pm 75$  and  $5\,741 \pm 224$  individuals per  $10\text{ cm}^2$  [ind./( $10\text{ cm}^2$ )]. Although, nematodes are indicators that measure the ecological state of mangroves on the basis of a range of pressures. Nematoda dominated the creek zone of the mangrove, whereas harpacticoids dominated the bay zone. Eighteen genera from 12 families, including the most prevalent Xyalidae, Desmodoridae, and Linhomoeidae, represented nematodes. The taxa *Monhystera paludicola*, *Daptonema orientale*, and *Terschellingia longicaudata* were prevalent in the silt-dominated zones of mangroves. Several pollution indicator nematode species, including *M. paludicola*, *Sabatieria punctata*, and *D. orientale*, have also been found in the bay zone. In terms of the nematode feeding guilds, epigrowth feeders were dominant, followed by nonselective deposit feeders. Variations in salinity, organic carbon, and sediment texture have a direct impact on the distribution and abundance of meiobenthic organisms, indicating a strong ecological link between habitat conditions and organismal responses. The results highlight the need for more studies on the distribution of meiofauna and their contributions to ecosystem services while offering insights into the dynamics of meiofauna in the Coringa mangrove.

**Key words** meiofauna, nematode, copepods, mangrove, ecosystem services

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## 1 Introduction

Mangroves are unique maritime wetland ecosystems in tropical and subtropical parts of the world (Kathiresan and Bingham, 2001). Owing to natural and population stresses, they are among the world's most productive and threatened ecosystems (Kathiresan, 2002; Roy and Krishnan, 2005; Friess et al., 2023). These ecosystems provide habitats for various species, including algae and migratory birds. Mangrove environments support a wide variety of biodiversity and functions. The key biological processes of mangrove ecosystems, including feeding areas, nurseries, blue carbon, sediment, and pollution retention, are

significantly damaged (Lee et al., 2015; Duke et al., 1997). Mangrove environments are productive and support a diverse range of faunal species. Benthic organisms, such as bacteria from sediment, microbenthos, and macro- and meiofauna, are essential for the movement of nutrients and energy (Snelgrove, 1999; Austen et al., 2002; Schratzberger et al., 2023).

Benthic organisms are excellent indicators of habitat health because they are exposed to various environmental stresses. In freshwater and marine environments, meiofauna are small metazoans that exhibit significant diversity (Danovaro et al., 2008; Giere, 2009; Zhou et al., 2023; Schratzberger et al., 2023). These organisms improve

\*Corresponding author, E-mail: rspraja@gmail.com; uspanda@nccr.gov.in

coastal waters and increase marine benthic productivity by recycling nutrients and forming detrital organic matter. Systems for monitoring marine environments and evaluating ecosystems have made considerable use of meiofauna (Zhang et al., 2017; Majdi et al., 2020; Zhao and Liu, 2021). According to Zeppilli et al. (2015), studying the physiological activity and behavior of several meiofauna species may help us understand how these animals adjust to changes in their natural environments and offer early warning signs for human disturbance.

The Coringa mangrove, with a depth of 3–8 m at high tide, has become a significant economic resource for the nation. Coringa mangrove's dense mangroves and vast mud flats, which are interrupted by several estuary gullies and streams that emerge from the Godavari River, one of India's best river systems, are significant features. Bioindicators are among the best methods for monitoring mangrove ecological conditions on the basis of pressure types and levels of degradation, although they differ depending on the environment (Thornton and Johnstone, 2015; Al-lard et al., 2020). To effectively manage mangrove ecosystems, the bioindicator process has recently highlighted the need for integrated evaluations (Romañach et al., 2018; Cuny et al., 2020; Dirberg et al., 2020). The most important environmental factors affecting meiofauna zonation patterns in mangroves and other ecosystems are salinity, sediment texture, temperature, and tidal incursion (Ansari and Parulekar, 1993; Moens et al., 2000; Alves et al., 2009; Thilagavathi et al., 2011; Pandiya Rajan et al., 2022).

Meiofaunal organisms are widely distributed within sediment and provides the significant food sources for fish, prawns, and shellfish larvae (Moens and Vincx, 1997). Among them free-living marine nematodes constitute the most dominant and ecologically important meiofaunal group. These nematodes were widely distributed, high adaptability to varying environmental conditions, and morphological diversity underscores the significant role in benthic ecosystem functioning (Leduc et al., 2015; Maria et al., 2023). Several earlier studies have reported the spatio-temporal distribution of meiofauna in relation with environmental variables (Alongi, 1987; Gwyther, 2000; Armenteros et al., 2006; Mokievsky et al., 2011; Abdullah and Lee, 2017). However, relatively few studies were reported from the Indian mangroves patches in relation with meiofaunal community structure (Ansari and Parulekar, 1993; Sarma and Wilsanand, 1994; Goldin et al., 1996; Chinnadurai and Fernando, 2003; Sahoo et al., 2013). Ghosh and Mandal (2019) described the relationship between the meiofaunal distribution and environmental parameters along the east coast of India highlights the vertical distribution of meiofauna in largest mangrove regions. Other than these studies, there is a lack of detailed investigations of meiofaunal community structure in relation with nematode assemblages and their environmental relationships in other mangrove regions of India which results in further research in the present study. The objec-

tives of this study are (1) to describe the meiobenthic community assemblages in relation to the abiotic environment, including different habitat zones (bay and creek) of the Coringa mangrove; (2) to focus on diversity patterns at the genus level (richness, composition, dominance); and (3) to examine the distributional patterns of the meiobenthic community in response to specific environmental conditions.

## 2 Materials and methods

### 2.1 Study area

The Coringa mangroves, India's second largest mangrove ecosystem after the Sundarbans, provide a significant organic load, resulting in high output (Satyanarayana and Krishna, 2017; Raut et al., 2005). The bay is surrounded to the south by dense mangrove forest and vast mudflats, which are punctuated by a network of tidal creeks, estuary gullies, and swamps fed by one of India's largest river systems, the Godavari River. Geographically, the central area is Coringa, after the Corangi River, one of the Gautami Godavari's distributaries, further south. During the southwest monsoon season, plenty of fresh water flows into the Bay zone, along with Gaderu, another Gautami Godavari tributary. At Bhiravapalem, Gautami Godavari enters the sea. The bay zone is bounded east by the mainland and separated from the sea east by a 16-km long sand spit. There are obvious ecological, hydrodynamic, geomorphological, and biological distinctions between the bay (subtidal) and creek (intertidal) zones in the research region, which support the separation of these two ecosystems.

The subtidal (bay) zones of the Coringa mangrove ecosystem are constantly submerged, usually at depths of 1–5 m. These areas experience dynamic hydrological conditions as a result of high tidal currents, river flow, and sporadic wave activity. Plankton and benthic fauna, including fish, bivalves, and polychaetes, are abundant on the typically sandy to silty bottom, which has little vegetation (Rao et al., 2004). The intertidal (creek) zones, on the other hand, are shallower, typically less than 1-m deep, and are frequently exposed by tides. Mangrove species such as *Avicennia marina* and *Rhizophora mucronata* predominate in these zones and are distinguished by fine, organic-rich mud substrates (Satyanarayana and Krishna, 2017; Rao et al., 2004). The vegetation, sediment properties, water dynamics, and biological functions of the two zones are very different. By separating them, we can gain better knowledge of ecosystem services, carbon sequestration mechanisms, and patterns of biodiversity. To manage ecosystem services and develop research on hydrology, carbon stocks, or biodiversity, it is essential to comprehend these distinctions.

### 2.2 Sampling and sample processing

Water and sediment samples were collected from the

Coringa mangrove and bay zones (Fig.1) in September 2022 to analyse the various physicochemical including salinity, dissolved oxygen (DO), sedimentary organic carbon (SOC), sediment texture (sand; silt; clay composition). A Van Veen grab sampler (surface area: 0.01 m<sup>2</sup>; penetration depth: about 10 cm) was used for collecting the bottom sediment samples. Surficial layer of sediment (about 5–7 cm) were mostly biologically active where majority of meiofaunal organism were reported from the earlier study (De Troch et al., 2013; Ghosh and Mandal, 2019). To collect triplicate samples at each sampling site, the grab was deployed three times. Subsamples in triplicate were taken with an acrylic cylindrical core (10 cm<sup>2</sup>) from the upper 3 cm of the sediment. A conventional density-gradient centrifugation technique, often employed in meiofaunal research, was utilized to recover meiofaunal species from mangrove soil samples (Giere, 2009). A colloidal silica solution (LUDOX HS-40) with a specific gravity was used to perform density separation on the retained sediment. The sediment-LUDOX mixture was centrifuged at 3 000 r/min for 10 min. This procedure was repeated 3–4 times (Burgess, 2001). The supernatant, which included the separated meiofauna, was decanted through a 0.045 µm filter following centrifugation. After that, the extracted organisms were kept and fixed in 70% ethanol and stained with Rose Bengal (0.5 g/L), which improved the visibility of soft-bodied species, including copepods and nematodes. A stereomicroscope was then used to examine the preserved samples to identify and count the

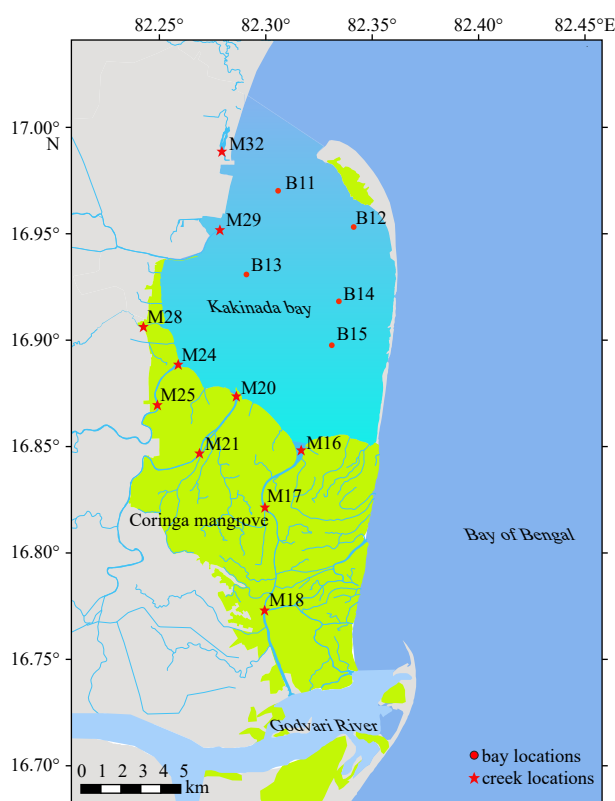
meiofaunal species. According to Zeppilli et al. (2015), this technique is thought to be successful in distinguishing living and preserved meiofauna from mangrove sediments that have a high organic content and fine-grained textures. The sediments were collected separately for sediment grain size analysis via a sieve shaker and laser diffraction particle size analyzer (McCave and Syvitski, 1991). SOC was estimated via the Walkley and Black (1934) method.

### 2.3 Meiofaunal analysis

Preserved meiofaunal samples were examined in the laboratory to identify nematodes. Using a stereomicroscope, meiofaunal organisms were picked, identified and classified into major taxa. The abundance per 10 cm<sup>2</sup> was used to recalculate all of the obtained values. For taxonomical and functional identification, nematodes were collected, preserved in a 10% formaldehyde solution, and then placed on temporary mounted slides (Seinhorst, 1959; Danovaro et al., 2008). Using the taxonomical guidelines of Platt et al. (1985), Warwick et al. (2002a, 2002b), Warwick et al. (1998), and Zullini et al. (2001), as well as the original species descriptions found on the Nemys website (Nemys, 2025), genus-level identification was completed via light optical microscopy (nikon). Other meiobenthic taxa were identified via keys (Conway et al., 2003; Higgins and Theil, 1988; Fauchald and Jumars, 1979; Day, 1968; Kasturirangan, 1963; Fauvel, 1953). The taxonomic status of the genera was checked and updated from the World Register of Marine Species (WoRMS) website. Nematodes were classified into feeding group, according to Wieser (1953), as selective (1A) and nonselective (1B) deposit feeders, epi-growth (diatoms) feeders (2A), and predators/omnivores (2B).

### 2.4 Statistical analysis

Both univariate and multivariate approaches were used to analyze the meiofaunal community assemblages to assess diversity, distribution, and ecological interactions. Univariate analysis to assess the abundance ind./10 cm<sup>2</sup>, number of taxa, and diversity indices (Shannon-Wiener index and Pielou's evenness). The PRIMER v7.1 software package was used for all the univariate and multivariate procedures and diversity calculations (Clarke and Gorley, 2015). A similarity profile (SIMPROF) permutation test (999 permutations) was also performed to identify significant assemblages of stations ( $P < 0.05$ ) (Clarke and Gorley, 2015). One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed on the environmental parameters to test for significant differences between the habitats (bay and creek) (Zar, 2010). The interrelationship between the biological and environmental variables was evaluated via redundancy analysis (RDA) (CANOCO 4.5). The biological variables were centered and log-transformed before analysis. The ordination significance was tested with a Monte Carlo (499 unrestricted permutations) test ( $P <$



**Fig. 1.** Map showing the sampling locations in the Coringa mangrove ecosystem.

0.05). The results of the RDA are presented as Triplots with stations as points and the species and environmental parameters are represented by arrows (Lepš and Šmilauer, 2003).

### 3 Results

#### 3.1 Environmental parameters

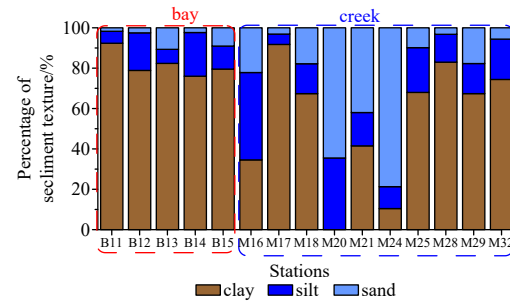
The environmental characteristics of the creek and bay zones are presented in Table 1. Salinity ranged from 0–30, whereas the creek zone were dominated by oligohaline/mesohaline conditions (0–18), and the bay was dominated by conditions ranging from 14–30, whereas upper mesohaline (14–18) and polyhaline (18–30) conditions had maximum limits barely above the euhaline threshold (30). DO in the bottom waters ranged between 1.96 mg/L and 5.64 mg/L. In contrast, the DO was lower in the creek zone than in the bay zones. The nutrient level in the water column was greater in the creek zone than in the Coringa mangrove bay zone. The sediment texture at the bay zone of the Coringa mangrove was dominated by silty sand. In contrast, the creek zones was dominated by the higher proportions of silt and clay compared to the bay zones (Fig. 2).

One-way ANOVA indicated that several environmental parameters differed significantly between bay and creek zones of Coringa mangroves (Table 2). Salinity ( $P = 0.001$ ) and SOC ( $P = 0.000$ ) showed highly significant differences, while DO ( $P = 0.029$ ) exhibited a significant variation between zones. Clay particles ( $P = 0.056$ ) showed a marginal difference, whereas silt ( $P = 0.367$ ) and sand ( $P = 0.090$ ) did not show the varied significantly among zones. These results indicate that variations in salinity, organic carbon, and DO levels play a major role

**Table 1.** Environmental and sediment characteristics of Coringa mangrove and bay regions during September 2022

| Stations | Salinity | DO/<br>(mg·L <sup>-1</sup> ) | Clay/<br>% | Silt/<br>% | Sand/<br>% | SOC/<br>% |
|----------|----------|------------------------------|------------|------------|------------|-----------|
| B11      | 30       | 4.75                         | 92.35      | 5.93       | 1.72       | 1.1       |
| B12      | 23       | 5.11                         | 78.88      | 18.62      | 2.5        | 1.04      |
| B13      | 18       | 5.06                         | 82.37      | 6.96       | 10.67      | 1.01      |
| B14      | 20       | 5.65                         | 76.02      | 21.64      | 2.34       | 0.98      |
| B15      | 14       | 2.38                         | 79.54      | 11.41      | 9.05       | 1.5       |
| M16      | 2        | 4.50                         | 34.56      | 43.28      | 22.16      | 2.07      |
| M17      | 0        | 3.41                         | 91.76      | 5.13       | 3.11       | 2.21      |
| M18      | 0        | 2.79                         | 67.39      | 14.80      | 17.81      | 2.10      |
| M20      | 6        | 1.97                         | 0          | 35.51      | 64.49      | 2.11      |
| M21      | 0        | 2.77                         | 41.51      | 16.51      | 41.99      | 2.13      |
| M24      | 0        | 2.07                         | 10.45      | 0.85       | 88.70      | 2.18      |
| M25      | 15       | 3.68                         | 67.99      | 22.17      | 9.84       | 2.37      |
| M28      | 7        | 3.93                         | 82.97      | 13.81      | 3.22       | 2.1       |
| M29      | 1        | 2.22                         | 67.39      | 14.90      | 17.71      | 2.1       |
| M32      | 18       | 4.39                         | 74.41      | 19.99      | 5.60       | 1.98      |

Note: DO represents dissolved oxygen; SOC represents sedimentary organic carbon.



**Fig. 2.** Percentage of sediment texture (%) in the creek and bay zones of the Coringa mangrove ecosystem.

**Table 2.** Significant one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) results of spatial patterns in environmental data

| One way ANOVA |          |                |          |
|---------------|----------|----------------|----------|
| Parameters    | <i>F</i> | <i>P-value</i> | <i>S</i> |
| Salinity      | 20.690   | 0.001          | ***      |
| DO            | 5.987    | 0.029          | *        |
| Clay          | 4.413    | 0.056          | †        |
| Silt          | 0.875    | 0.367          | ns       |
| Sand          | 3.358    | 0.090          | ns       |
| SOC           | 158.597  | 0.000          | ***      |

Note: Significance levels denoted as *P* value, \*\*\* represents  $P < 0.001$ ; \* represents  $P < 0.05$ ; † represents  $P < 0.10$ ; ns represents not significant.

in distinguishing the environmental characteristics of the bay and creek zones.

#### 3.2 Meiobenthic community

Meiofaunal organisms belonging to seven meiofaunal groups, which include nematodes, copepods, polychaetes, ostracods, Kinorhyncha, Foraminifera, and amphipods, were recorded in the present study. Meiofaunal abundance and diversity, indices are presented in Table 3. Forty-four species of meiofaunal organisms dominated, with nematode assemblages represented by 32 species.

**Table 3.** Biological variables in the Coringa mangrove during September 2022

| Biological Meiofaunal abundance/<br>variables | [ind.·(10 cm <sup>2</sup> ) <sup>-1</sup> ] | Pielou<br>evenness ( <i>J'</i> ) | Shannon-Wiener<br>diversity ( <i>H</i> ) |
|-----------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|----------------------------------|------------------------------------------|
| B11                                           | 749 ± 80                                    | 0.959                            | 3.006                                    |
| B12                                           | 836 ± 117                                   | 0.961                            | 3.235                                    |
| B13                                           | 1 000 ± 67                                  | 0.898                            | 2.777                                    |
| B14                                           | 734 ± 76                                    | 0.960                            | 2.826                                    |
| B15                                           | 1 753 ± 125                                 | 0.837                            | 2.694                                    |
| M16                                           | 1 002 ± 143                                 | 0.882                            | 2.327                                    |
| M17                                           | 5 234 ± 398                                 | 0.842                            | 2.919                                    |
| M18                                           | 2 944 ± 167                                 | 0.796                            | 2.461                                    |
| M20                                           | 4 174 ± 190                                 | 0.880                            | 2.592                                    |
| M21                                           | 3 128 ± 241                                 | 0.838                            | 2.422                                    |
| M24                                           | 2 501 ± 167                                 | 0.850                            | 2.408                                    |
| M25                                           | 1 449 ± 79                                  | 0.880                            | 2.592                                    |
| M28                                           | 1 843 ± 95                                  | 0.832                            | 2.306                                    |
| M29                                           | 3 669 ± 211                                 | 0.864                            | 2.670                                    |
| M32                                           | 5 741 ± 224                                 | 0.758                            | 2.497                                    |

The meiofaunal abundance ranged between  $(734 \pm 76)$  ind./( $10 \text{ cm}^2$ ) and  $(5\,741 \pm 224)$  ind./( $10 \text{ cm}^2$ ). In contrast, the abundance was greater in the creek zone than in the bay zone (Fig. 3). *Oithona* sp., *Arenosetella* sp., *Stenohelia* sp., *Pontella* sp., and *Calanus* sp. are among the copepods reported from the bay. *Ammonia* sp., *Elphidium* sp., and *Bolivina* sp., which are foraminifera, were also reported in this study. Some of the larvae belong to the polychaete, bivalve, and gastropod groups, which were also observed in the creek zone of the mangroves. The Shannon diversity index was greater at the bay zone station (B12) than at creek, and a low diversity index was observed at creek (M28). Pielou's evenness was greater in the bay zone location (B12) than in creek, and there was low evenness in creek (M32).

Cluster analysis revealed dominant meiobenthic assemblages in two zones of Coringa mangroves on the basis of Bray-Curtis similarity (Fig. 4). Table 4 describes the assemblages of the dominant meiobenthic taxa in the bay and creek zones of Coringa mangroves. The important representatives and common taxa formed two zones: the bay zone, with an average abundance of 324 ind./( $10 \text{ cm}^2$ ), and the creek zone, with an average abundance of 479 ind./( $10 \text{ cm}^2$ ). The average similarity in the bay zone was 47.92%. The dominant meiofauna in the bay zone are *Thalassolaimus* sp., *Desmoscolex* sp., *Sabatieria punctata*, *Halalaimus longicaudatus*, and *Chromadorita* sp., accounts for 71% of the cumulative similarity. The average similarity in the creek zone was

40.92%. The dominant meiofauna in the creek zone are *Ammonia tepida*, *Oncholaimus siddiqii*, *Thalassolaimus* sp., *S. punctata*, *Arenosetella* sp., and *Desmoscolex* sp. *Thalassolaimus* sp. shows 50% cumulative similarity.

### 3.2.1 Nematode community and feeding guilds

Overall, 32 species of free-living nematodes belonging to 12 families were recorded in the present study. Free-living nematodes were present in both zones of mangroves. The most spatially widespread species were *Anoplostoma macrospiculum*, *Quadricoma* sp., *Ascolaimus* sp., *Piranchulus* sp., *Oncholaimus siddiqii*, *Daptonema orientale*, *S. punctata*, *Thalassolaimus* sp., *Diplolaimella* sp., *H. longicaudatus*, *Dorylaimopsis* sp., *Mononchus bastian*, *Tricoma* sp., and *Mesorhabditis capitata*. This species was the dominant nematode recorded in the present study. Diversity indices and evenness are greater along creek than in the bay zone. Some pollution-indicating nematodes, such as *Monhystera paludicola*, *S. punctata*, and *D. orientale*, have also been recorded from the bay zones of Coringa mangroves.

The proportion of nematodes gathered per trophic guild is presented in Fig. 5. At bay zone of coringa mangrove, selective feeders (1A) was dominant feeding type followed by the non selective deposit feeders (1B) represented average proportions of 53% and 29%, respectively. Epi-growth feeder (2A) guild and omnivorous carnivores (2B), accounted for smaller proportions was about 9% each. In contrast, creek zones was dominated by epi-growth feeders (2A) and omnivorous carnivores feeders (2B) with mean proportions of 44% and 40.5%, respectively, which were inversely proportional to 1A and 1B about proportions 7% and 8.5% in the creek zones. The variations between the bay and creek zone of coringa mangrove statistically significant ( $P < 0.05$ ) feeding behaviour of the nematodes.

### 3.3 Redundancy analysis

The interrelationships between the environmental parameters (salinity, temperature, SOC, and sediment grain size) and the biological parameters (meiobenthic group abundance) are presented in Fig. 6. Arrows in the same direction indicate a high positive correlation between those variables. In contrast, variables with negative correlations are represented by arrows oriented in opposite directions. Copepods, nematodes, and foraminifera have different ecological affinities. Nematodes and foraminifera are associated with greater SOC and clay contents, indicating a preference for organically enriched, fine-textured sediments found in creek zones. Polychaetes and other groups are closely related to sandy sands and increased silt content, and they predominate in the bay zone. Copepods are negatively related to salinity and are found in low-salinity settings (Locations-B14, B12). Locations such as M27 and M28 are heavily influenced by sand and silt, separating them from the main cluster, implying localized envi-

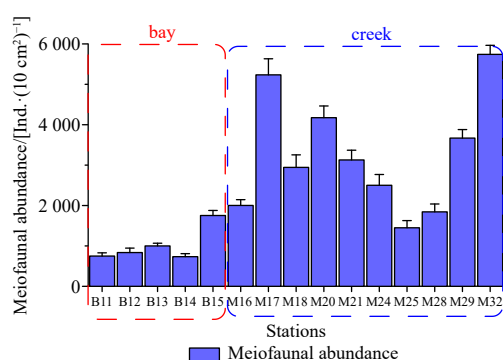


Fig. 3. Meiobenthic abundances in the Coringa mangrove ecosystem.

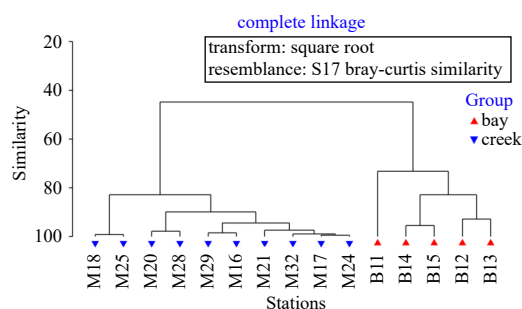
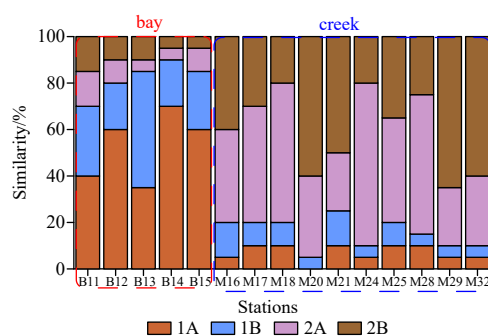


Fig. 4. Cluster analysis represents the variations of the meiofauna group at the creek and bay zones of the Coringa mangrove ecosystem.

**Table 4.** Characterization of the two species assemblages defined by cluster analysis, showing average “within group” similarity based on one way SIMPER analysis of fourth-root transformed abundance data. Species accounting for 90% cumulative contributing of the “within group” similarity are listed along with their contribution (Contrib%)

| Bay region                      |          |         |        |          |        | Creek region                   |          |         |        |          |        |
|---------------------------------|----------|---------|--------|----------|--------|--------------------------------|----------|---------|--------|----------|--------|
| Average similarity: 47.92       |          |         |        |          |        | Average similarity: 40.92      |          |         |        |          |        |
| Species                         | Av. Abun | Av. Sim | Sim/SD | Contr./% | Cum./% | Species                        | Av. Abun | Av. Sim | Sim/SD | Contr./% | Cum./% |
| <i>Thalassolaimus</i> sp.       | 46.68    | 4.12    | 9.38   | 8.6      | 8.6    | <i>Ammonia tepida</i> sp.      | 83.39    | 2.71    | 1.2    | 6.62     | 6.62   |
| <i>Desmoscolex</i> sp.          | 38.32    | 3.08    | 1.16   | 6.42     | 22.66  | <i>Enoplolaimus</i> sp.        | 73.71    | 2.6     | 1.2    | 6.36     | 12.98  |
| <i>Sabatieria punctata</i>      | 33.20    | 2.6     | 1.15   | 5.42     | 28.08  | <i>Viscosia</i> sp.            | 67.32    | 2.29    | 1.23   | 5.6      | 18.58  |
| <i>Halalaimus longicaudatus</i> | 32.72    | 2.35    | 1.15   | 4.9      | 32.98  | <i>Bolivina</i> sp.            | 58.64    | 2.2     | 0.86   | 5.38     | 23.96  |
| <i>Acartia tonsa</i>            | 32.83    | 2.3     | 1.16   | 4.8      | 37.78  | <i>Microalaimus</i> sp.        | 43.41    | 2       | 0.91   | 4.9      | 28.86  |
| <i>Eucalanus</i> sp.            | 29.06    | 2.26    | 1.15   | 4.71     | 42.49  | <i>Sabatieria punctata</i>     | 32.37    | 1.95    | 1.19   | 4.76     | 33.62  |
| <i>Calanus</i> sp.              | 28.99    | 2.17    | 1.15   | 4.53     | 47.01  | <i>Acartia</i> sp.             | 28.04    | 1.93    | 0.89   | 4.71     | 38.33  |
| <i>Elphidium</i> sp.            | 21.50    | 2.07    | 1.13   | 4.32     | 51.34  | <i>Desmoscolex</i> sp.         | 22.89    | 1.68    | 0.88   | 4.1      | 42.43  |
| <i>Daptonema</i> sp.            | 20.49    | 2.02    | 1.13   | 4.21     | 55.55  | <i>Arenosetella</i> sp.        | 22.7     | 1.55    | 0.68   | 3.8      | 46.23  |
| <i>Chromadorita</i> sp.         | 20.02    | 1.27    | 0.62   | 2.64     | 67.05  | <i>Monhysterida paludicola</i> | 22.58    | 1.41    | 0.67   | 3.45     | 48.68  |
| <i>Axonolaimus</i> sp.          | 19.87    | 1.12    | 0.61   | 2.33     | 71.41  | <i>Thalassolaimus</i> sp.      | 22.41    | 1.36    | 0.68   | 3.33     | 50.01  |

Note: Av. Abun -average abundance; Av. Sim - average similarity; Sim/SD - similarity to standard deviation ratio; Contr./% - percentage contribution (%); Cum./% - cumulative percentage (%).



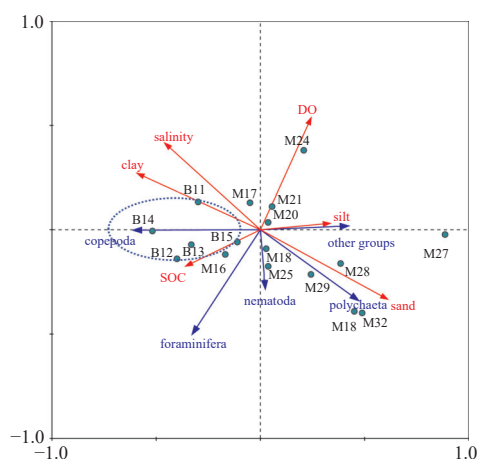
**Fig. 5.** Trophic structure of nematode assemblages at the Coringa mangrove region. 1A (selective deposit feeders); 1B (non selective deposit feeders); 2A (epi-growth feeders); 2B (predators/omnivores).

ronmental variability and its impact on community composition. The RDA triplot revealed that nematode was always high in the bay and creek zone at the mesohaline salinity level.

## 4 Discussion

### 4.1 Meiobenthic community composition

Chinnadurai and Fernando (2007) reported that 234–890 ind./( $10\text{ cm}^2$ ) was slightly greater than that reported in earlier studies on the southeastern coast of India. In the early 1980s, meiofaunal densities were approximately 2 130 ind./( $10\text{ cm}^2$ ) in the Gautami-Godavari estuarine system (Kondalarao, 1984). In the present study, the meiofaunal abundance of the Coringa mangroves was relatively high compared with that reported in earlier studies (Kondalarao, 1984). In numerous studies of various geographical locations worldwide, temporal changes linked to



**Fig. 6.** RDA triplots showing the distribution of environmental (salinity, turbidity, DO, sediment texture) and biological parameters (meiobenthic group abundance & total abundance) and their interrelation at Coringa mangrove & Bay region. Red arrows indicate the environmental variables, and blue colored arrows represent the biological variables.

nematode dominance in meiobenthic communities have been noted (Semprucci et al., 2016; Landers et al., 2012; Harguinteguy et al., 2012; Hongayo et al., 2013). Nematodes are the most prevalent meiofauna species in Indian mangroves (Sultan-Ali et al., 1983; Krishnamurthy et al., 1984; Kondalarao and Ramanamurty, 1988; Ansari and Parulekar, 1993; Sarma and Wilsanand, 1994). Similar results are observed in the present study. In contrast, nematodes were more abundant in the creek zone of coringa mangroves. According to the present study, nematodes are more abundant and exhibit extraordinary richness and variety in the creek zone of mangroves. Nematodes domi-

nate surface sediment, which has the most extensive variety of meiofauna (Schmidt and Arbizu, 2015). Free-living nematodes represents the one of the dominant and ecologically significant groups of the meiobenthic organisms. These organisms are found between sediment particles in interstitial spaces, mainly in aquatic ecosystems (Heip et al., 1985).

Nematode communities include many genera but few dominant genera, as observed in other estuaries (Steyaert et al., 2003; Ferrero et al., 2008). Seasonally, the density and diversity of nematodes fluctuate substantially. Nematode diversity was greater in the creek compared to bay zone. In contrast, the creek zone was deposited with more organic matter due to anthropogenic inputs and various sources of pollutants. Nematodes are possible biomarkers of anthropogenic disturbance in aquatic environments (Coull and Chandler, 1992; Moreno et al., 2008). Because they are less harmed and recover faster, meiofauna, particularly nematodes, are thought to be more resistant to physical disturbance than are more significant organisms (Leduc and Pilditch, 2013). The low meiofaunal abundance in the mangroves adjacent to the Bay of Bengal, 35–280 ind./10 cm<sup>2</sup>, subsequently occurred (Sultan-Ali et al., 1983). Harpacticoid copepods are among the most common meiofaunal taxa in terms of occurrence. Nevertheless, they are present at much lower abundances than are nematodes in the mangrove bay zone. Copepods are more related to coarse or sandy sediments in tropical areas (Semprucci et al., 2016), mangrove ecosystems (Chinnadurai and Fernando, 2007) or many European mudflats (Rzeznik-Orignac et al., 2003). In this study, copepods was more abundant in the bay zone because of seawater intrusion into the Bay zone of Coringa mangroves. Benthic foraminifera are sensitive to slight environmental changes in an ecosystem and serve as indicators of its health. *Ammonia tepida*, a foraminifera species, is a bioindicator of contaminants because of its high contamination tolerance (Samir, 2000). *Ammonia tepida*, *Elphidium* sp., *Rosalina* sp., and other foraminifera species have been described from Sundarbans mangroves (Ghosh et al., 2018). The present investigation revealed *A. tepida* and *Elphidium* sp. in the bay sections of Coringa mangroves.

#### 4.1.1 Nematode assemblages

According to earlier studies, nematode diversity is greater in mangrove regions worldwide. Nevertheless, the current study revealed fewer nematode species, which could have various anthropogenic impacts (Pinto et al., 2013). *Anoplostoma macrospiculum*, *Quadricoma* sp., *Ascolaimus* sp., *Piranchulus* sp., *Oncholaimus siddiquii*, *D. orientale*, *S. punctata*, *Thalassolaimus* sp., *Diplolaimella* sp., and *H. longicaudatus* are some of the dominant nematode species reported from our study, and a very low number of nematode species (32) were reported from our study. Some of the dominant nematode genera in various mangrove forests around the world were compared with our results. The common genera include *Terschellingia*

*longicaudata* (Netto and Gallucci, 2003; Moreno et al., 2008; Sawangraruks et al., 2011). *Sabatieria punctata* (Moreno et al., 2008; Sawangraruks et al., 2011) and other genera, such as *Anoplostoma* sp., were also found to be dominant in tropical mangrove areas (Netto and Gallucci, 2003). These common genera were also present at relatively high abundances in our study area. *Hopperia* sp. is predominant in mangrove forests in Thailand (Sawangraruks et al., 2011). *Haliplectus* sp. is abundant in mangroves in southern Brazil (Netto and Gallucci, 2003). Furthermore, *Haliplectus* sp. and *Dichromadora* sp. are abundant nematode in the leaves of the red mangrove *Rhizophora mangle* (Torres-Pratts and Schizas, 2007), which indicates that the dominant genera in Xiatanwei and Zhanjiang mangrove region (Fu et al., 2021). *Monhystera paludicola*, *S. punctata*, and *D. orientale* are some the indicator species shows their high tolerance to organic enrichment conditions in polluted or disturbed environments (Essink and Keidel, 1998; Alves et al., 2013).

The dominance of nematodes in both the bay and creek zone corresponds to earlier research on their ecological resilience and adaptability in estuarine sediments (Bhadury et al., 2015; Semprucci et al., 2019). Increased food availability and niche stability are suggested by the greater number of species in creek, which is linked with higher sediment organic carbon and finer sediments (Santos et al., 2019). In contrast, the high diversity and evenness of the bay zone may be related to broader salinity ranges and improved oxygenation, which promote a more balanced faunal assemblage (Somerfield et al., 2005). The variations in meiofaunal density across mangroves are similar to those reported in previous studies conducted globally. The results of this preliminary investigation of mangrove–meiofauna interactions revealed typical aspects of the mangrove–meiofaunal distribution, as described elsewhere. As previously mentioned, nematodes were the most prevalent and species-rich group during the study (Netto and Gallucci, 2003; Abdullah and Lee, 2017).

#### 4.1.2 Trophic guilds and environmental drivers

Trophic guild analysis revealed that epigrowth feeders (2A) dominated, indicating the presence of diatom-rich biofilms on fine sediments, whereas nonselective deposit feeders (1B) predominated in coarser, more disturbed habitats. RDA analysis revealed that sediment texture and SOC were the key drivers of community patterns, which was similar to previous findings in mangrove and estuarine ecosystems (Zeppilli et al., 2015). These results provide important baseline data for long-term monitoring of Indian mangrove ecosystems and support the ecological significance of meiofauna as sensitive markers of environmental fluctuations. According to Pusceddu et al. (2014), the diversity and abundance of taxa are generally reduced in contaminated and pushed environments due to the disappearance of other delicate groups (such as ostracods, gastrottrichs, hydrozoans, and tardigrades), leaving an array that is overpowered by nematodes and other or-

ganic organisms with a broad mindset. The “FORAM” (Foraminifera in Reef Assessment and Monitoring) index (FI) evaluates the need for coral reefs and the suitability of benthic circumstances for networks overrun by peaceful algae organisms (Hallock et al., 2003). Ostracods respond to natural changes caused by pollution by exhibiting a strong aversion to heavy metal contamination, oil spills, and anoxic conditions (Ruiz et al., 2005). Certain ostracod species might overpopulate in polluted environments because they are acclimated to hypoxic environments (Yasuhara et al., 2003). Nematoda and copepods are more abundant than other meiofaunal groups; hence, future studies will help us identify the anthropogenic impacts with their ratios.

The meiofaunal assemblage patterns found in the current research on the Coringa mangrove ecosystem are consistent with findings from other tropical mangrove ecosystems across the world (Table 5). Nematodes are the dominant group in all situations and frequently exhibit the highest diversity, highlighting their ecological ubiquity in mangrove sediments. These worldwide comparisons confirm that mangrove systems continuously sustain high nematode diversity characterized by sediment texture, organic matter, and salinity regimes, even while site-specific environmental factors influence meiofaunal assemblages. As a result, the Coringa mangrove reflects the functional patterns of benthic ecosystems worldwide and substantially contributes to regional biodiversity.

#### 4.2 Meiobenthic organism and environmental interactions

The present study emphasizes how abiotic variables such as salinity, sediment grain size, and organic content affect the meiofaunal community composition and trophic structure in the Coringa mangrove environment, resulting in significant geographic variation. In a marine envi-

ronment, changes in hydrographical characteristics can impact benthic biota and degrade water quality (Shao et al., 2023). A significant amount of freshwater is released into the Bay of Bengal annually by the Godavari River (Ranga Rao et al., 2003; Satyanarayana and Krishna 2017). This enormous volume of silt- and sediment-filled freshwater enters the Godavari delta through several distributaries (Narasimha Rao and Rangaiah, 2010). The diurnal fluctuations in physical-chemical properties and primary production in connected marine, mangrove, and freshwater biotopes along the Kakinada coast in Andhra Pradesh were examined by Selvam et al. (1992). Freshwater from the Godavari River and Gautami River flows through the mangrove regions.

These findings reveal unique meiofaunal community structures in bay and creek habitats, which are most likely influenced by differences in environmental factors such as sediment type and organic content. Meiofaunal abundance was high in the creek zones, mainly because the high SOC results in the bottom substratum, which is related to food availability. However, diversity and evenness were higher in the bay zones, primarily associated with variations in salinity distribution and high bottom DO levels. In contrast, the bay zone experiences polyhaline conditions due to regular seawater intrusion from the Bay of Bengal. The water quality of the Gautami Godavari mangrove estuary ecosystem in Andhra Pradesh was evaluated by Tripathy et al. (2005). The environmental characteristics, such as salinity, were oligohaline across the mangrove sections. However, the average salinity of the estuarine and mangrove systems (3.28–3.86) was relatively lower than the high value (21.1) in bay zone, which is adjacent to the coastal environment. Similar results were observed in our study, which indicates that the creek zone experienced oligohaline conditions.

Tidal wash-out, which releases interstitial fluids from

**Table 5.** Comparison of the meiofauna diversity, abundance, and key environmental factors in different mangrove ecosystems across the globe

| Serial No. | Location                               | Meiobenthic groups | Species richness (Taxa)           | Dominant group                   | Abundance/ [ind.·(10 cm <sup>2</sup> ) <sup>-1</sup> ] | Key environmental factors                          | References                 |
|------------|----------------------------------------|--------------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1          | Sundarbans, India                      | 11                 | about 79 species nematodes        | nematoda                         | 405–2 978                                              | sediment organic matter & DO                       | Ghosh and Mandal, 2021     |
| 2          | Pichavaram, India                      | 4                  | 62 species (12 species nematodes) | foraminifera                     | 270–434                                                | sediment texture & organic matter                  | Punniyamorthy et al., 2021 |
| 3          | Island of Santa Catarina, South Brazil | 9                  | (94 species nematodes)            | nematoda                         | 77–1 589                                               | high organic matter (OM), sediment texture         | Netto & Gallucci, 2003     |
| 4          | Charao Island, Goa                     | 12                 | —                                 | nematoda                         | 166–520                                                | sediment texture                                   | Sahoo et al., 2013         |
| 5          | Can Gio Mangrove, Vietnam              | 18                 | 80 nematodes                      | nematoda                         | 1 156–2 082                                            | silt–clay substrate                                | Xuan et al., 2007          |
| 6          | Longhai Mangrove, Xiamen, China        | 7                  | about 35 species                  | nematoda                         | 735–5 831                                              | seasonal variations, Sediment texture              | Hultman., 2017             |
| 7          | Coringa, India                         | 7                  | 44 species (32 nematodes)         | nematoda, copepoda, foraminifera | 734–5 174                                              | high SOC in creek, clayey silt, salinity variation | present study              |

Note: — represents no data.

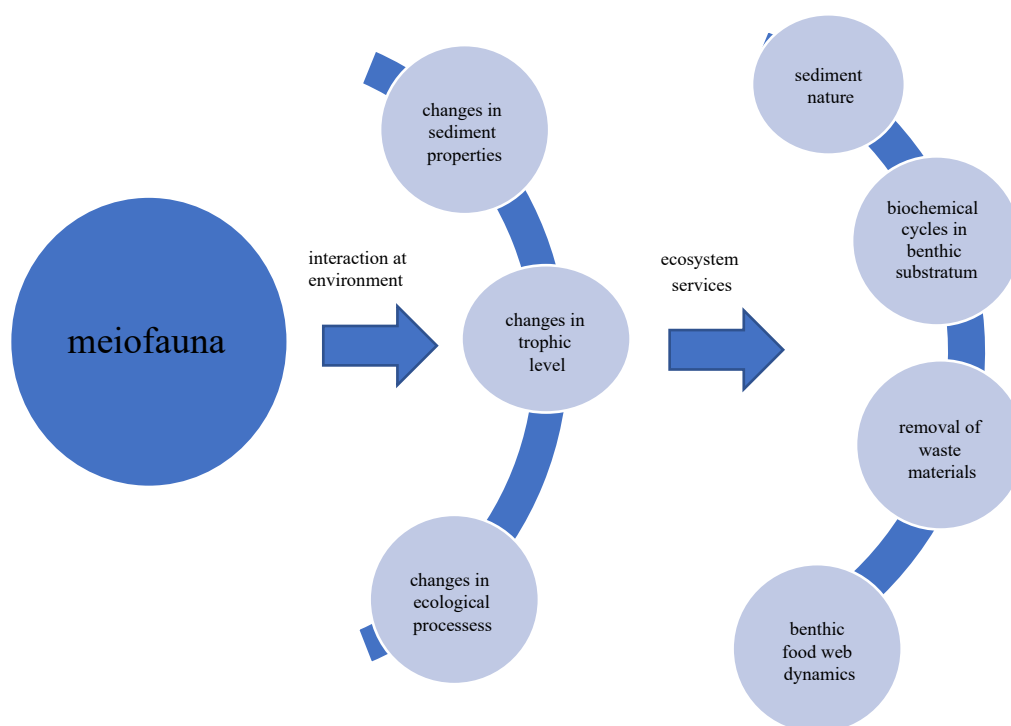
surficial mangrove sediments, is the leading cause of nutrient concentrations in the water column. This suggests that tidal mixing and flooding remove these nutrients from the mangrove area. The mangrove ecology and sediment properties in the Godavari estuary on the east coast of India were studied by [Bhaskara Rao et al. \(1992\)](#). Organic carbon input into estuary sediments is influenced by primary production, sediment structure, and the amount of terrestrial material available ([Nair and Ramachandran, 2002](#)). High meiofaunal densities are generally supported by mangrove sediment, which overpowers detritus ([Heip et al., 1985](#); [Coull, 1988](#)). The surface sediments were more diverse and plentiful in meiofauna than were the subterranean communities. Because surface sediments are more exposed to disturbance, physical disturbance significantly impacts these populations. Because of their remarkable resilience, meiobenthic organisms recover quickly from disturbances ([Alongi, 1990](#)). Meiofauna diversity decreases, but its abundance increases in sediments when detritus and clay concentrations increase ([Heip et al., 1985](#)).

The sediment organic carbon content was relatively high in the creek zone of the mangrove area because of the high organic load from mangrove litter and limited sea water intrusion and relatively low organic carbon content in the bay zone may be attributed to seawater intrusion and dilution effects. Sediment particle size was positively correlated with meiofaunal species and diversity. Our study revealed similar results, whereas the Nematode prefers clayey sediments for their proliferation. Organic matter flux from the soil surface is one of the main fac-

tors influencing meiofauna abundance ([Lambshhead et al., 2002](#); [Soltwedel, 2000](#)). According to [Kennish \(1994\)](#), suspended silts, clays, and organic particles sink to the bottom substratum in estuaries. Meiofaunal abundance and food availability in sediment are mostly correlated, with high food concentrations connected to large numbers of individuals ([Ingels et al., 2009](#); [Leduc et al., 2014](#)). The concentration of SOC also affects the spatial variation of meiofauna ([Dal Zotto et al., 2016](#)). The study area concentration of SOC was greater at creek than at bay since the creek zone receives a massive amount of nutrient load from Kakinada town and the freshwater flow from numerous tributaries of the Godavari River. In connection with this, nematodes also prefer the higher SOC zone in creek than in bay.

#### 4.2.1 Role of meiobenthic organism in ecosystem services

In terms of ecosystem services, these tiny metazoans play essential roles in changes in sediment properties (physical/biogeochemical), changes in trophic levels (energy flow), and changes in ecological processes (intra/interspecific relationships), which affect subsequent ecosystem services (sediment stability, biochemical cycling, waste removal, and food web dynamics). Meiofauna-mediated effects on marine sediments, which can be direct or indirect, positive or negative, and at various spatial and temporal scales, can modulate the delivery of some ecosystem services ([Fig. 7](#)). The present study provides initial assessment of meiofaunal diversity as proxy for study the ecosystem services. The future research mainly



**Fig. 7.** Schematic diagram representing meiofauna role in the ecosystem processes and ecosystem services in the mangrove-associated ecosystem.

based on the meiofaunal community structure with the experimental and biogeochemical measurements to their role in nutrient cycling and other ecosystem services. In the present study, meiofauna play a vital role, as they act as nutrient sources for higher organisms in mangrove habitats, and disturbances in their abundance affect some of the monetary value of ecosystem services for Coringa mangroves. Research on meiofauna in the Coringa mangrove is essential for identifying and quantifying the ecosystem services associated with sediment distribution and energy flow from lower trophic levels to higher levels. It also plays a vital role in ecological processes.

The resulting surge of anthropogenic inputs, such as heavy metals and nutrient pollutants, indicates the growth of fallow land, agricultural and aquaculture activities, and industrial pollution. Especially with respect to coastal mangrove ecosystem degradation, various case studies highlight past changes and present trends in human activities through industrialization and urbanization. In physically harsh environments, the abundance and species diversity of benthic organisms are significantly reduced, and this group sometimes disappears. Integrated management planning should also ensure that all products, services, and values are addressed. The planning process should thus incorporate periodic environmental impact assessments, and actual management should be checked regularly through environmental auditing. We have periodically evaluated the impact of anthropogenic inputs on mangrove ecosystems with an approach to emphasize the crucial role of mangroves, both in terms of quality and quantity and the absolute need to conserve their future. These results are consistent with earlier research highlighting the susceptibility of meiofaunal communities to modest changes in sedimentary and physicochemical conditions (dos Santos et al., 2023). Overall, the findings illustrate how local abiotic factors influence meiofaunal structure and function, emphasizing their importance as ecosystem health indicators in mangrove ecosystems.

## 5 Conclusions

The present study on the meiofaunal distribution at the Coringa mangroves was detailed study along the south-east coast of India which revealed the nematodes as the dominant at creek and copepods at bay region of the mangrove. The study mainly focused towards the meiofaunal interaction with environmental variables. The linkages between community composition and environmental variables are one of the first kind in the Coringa mangrove. It is necessary to improve our scientific focus to understand how this meiofaunal organism responds towards the heavy metals concentrations and other pollutants disbursed from rivers which results in anthropogenic impacts. The physiological limitations of species and altered biological interactions are frequently cited as the primary reasons for changes in meiofauna distribution patterns under various

human disturbance regimes, although they are seldom examined directly. The present study is baseline for the ecosystem-based management and conservation strategies and future research should focus on meiofauna distributions and ecosystem services. The future research mainly focused on the vertical distribution of meiofauna community assemblages and their contributions the ecosystem services.

## Data availability statement

The datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request through the Director, National Centre for Coastal Research, Chennai.

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