

# **1 Systematics of ‘lithistid’ tetractinellid 2 demosponges from the Tropical Western 3 Atlantic – implications for phylodiversity 4 and bathymetric distribution**

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## **27 ABSTRACT**

28 **Background** Among all present demosponges, lithistids represent a polyphyletic group with  
29 exceptionally well preserved fossils dating back to the Cambrian. Knowledge of their recent  
30 diversity, particularly in the Tropical Western Atlantic Ocean (TWA) where they are common  
31 in deep waters, is scarce making any comparison between present and past major 'lithistid'  
32 faunas difficult. In addition, the lack of sufficient molecular and morphological data hamper any  
33 predictions on phylogenetic relationships or phylodiversity from this region. The Harbor Branch  
34 Oceanographic Institute (HBOI, Fort Pierce, Florida) holds the largest collection of TWA lithistid  
35 sponges worldwide, however, the majority remain to be taxonomically identified and revised.

36 **Methods/Principal Findings** In this study we provide sequences of 249 lithistid demo-  
37 sponges using two independent molecular markers (28S rDNA (C1-D2) and *cox1* mtDNA). In  
38 addition, a morphological documentation of 70 lithistid specimens is provided in the database  
39 of the Sponge Barcoding Project (SBP). This integrated dataset represents the largest and  
40 most comprehensive of the TWA lithistids to date. The phylogenetic diversity of 'lithistid'  
41 demosponges in the Bahamas and Jamaica are high in comparison to other TWA regions;  
42 Theonellidae and Corallistidae dominate the fauna, while Neopeltidae and Macandrewiidae are  
43 rare. A new tetractinellid suborder, one new genus and several new species are recognized  
44 and the Pacific 'lithistid' genera, *Herengeria* and *Awhiowhio*, are reported from the TWA for the  
45 first time. The higher-taxa relationships of desma-bearing tetractinellids are discussed and  
46 topics for revision suggested.

47 **Conclusion** This first integrative approach of TWA 'lithistid' demosponges contributes to a  
48 better understanding of their phylogenetic affinities, diversity and bathymetric distribution pat-  
49 terns within the TWA. As in the Pacific, the TWA 'lithistid' demosponges dominate deep-water  
50 habitats. Deeper taxonomic investigations will undoubtedly contribute to a better comparison  
51 between present major 'lithistid' faunas and their fossil record in the Mesozoic.

## 52 INTRODUCTION

53 Among all present demosponges, lithistids represent a palaeontologically important polyphyletic  
54 group, with exceptionally well preserved fossils dating back to the Cambrian (e.g. Pisera, 2002;  
55 2006), and several relict genera represented in living faunas today (e.g. Lévi, 1991; Pisera, 2002;  
56 Kelly, 2007; Kelly et al., 2003). Several key 'lithistid' demosponge faunas are relatively well  
57 known: 1) 'lithistid' demosponges are dominant components of seamount communities on the  
58 Norfolk Ridge and in the South-West Pacific (e.g. Lévi, 1991; Kelly, 2000, 2007; Schlacher-  
59 Hoenlinger, Pisera and Hooper, 2005; Kelly et al., 2007), and their inventory, morphological  
60 identification and molecular systematics has been the focus of several studies (e.g. Schlacher-  
61 Hoenlinger, Pisera and Hooper, 2005; Schuster et al., 2015); 2) large 'lithistid' assemblages are  
62 reported from continental shelves and caves of the North-East Atlantic (e.g. Carvalho, Pomponi  
63 and Xavier, 2015), and from seamounts in the Mediterranean (e.g. Maldonado et al., 2015).

64 However, the present-day lithistid species and their phylogenetic diversity in several marine  
65 bioregions including the Western Indian Ocean, Subantarctic regions including South Africa,  
66 Northern Pacific and Tropical Western Atlantic (TWA) are incompletely understood. While  
67 'lithistid' demosponges in the TWA are reported from continental shelves, caves and slopes by  
68 Van Soest and Stentoft (1988), Reed and Pomponi (1997), and Pomponi et al., (2001), and many  
69 earlier reports of individual species (e.g. Sollas, 1888), the fauna is still poorly known with few  
70 descriptions and no molecular data. This greatly limits the understanding of their phylogenetic  
71 relationships, diversity and evolution.

72 Desma-bearing demosponges, historically referred to as 'lithistid' demosponges, form a  
73 polyphyletic group. Molecular systematics now group the majority of 'lithistid' demosponges  
74 (11 out of 13 families) to the order Tetractinellida Marshall, 1876. Eight of these families are

75 assigned to the suborder Astrophorina Sollas, 1887 and three to the suborder Spirophorina *sensu*  
76 Morrow and Cárdenas 2015 (Cárdenas et al., 2011; Morrow and Cárdenas, 2015; Schuster et al.,  
77 2015). Schuster et al. (2015) showed several ‘lithistid’ families such as Pleromidae Sollas, 1888,  
78 Desmantidae Topsent, 1894 and Scleritodermidae Sollas, 1888 to be polyphyletic, and Corallis-  
79 tidae Sollas, 1888, Theonellidae von Lendenfeld, 1903 and Phymatellidae Schrammen, 1910 to  
80 be monophyletic. However, the systematic affinities for families such as e.g. Siphonidiidae von  
81 Lendenfeld, 1903, Azoricidae Sollas, 1888 and Neopeltidae Sollas, 1888, remain obscure due to  
82 few molecular data available, and hence, only 21 out of 40 ‘lithistid’ genera were evaluated in  
83 Schuster et al. (2015). The same study indicated that several spicule types convergently evolved  
84 within this sponge group. The families Scleritodermidae and Siphonidiidae were suggested to  
85 form a separate clade within Tetractinellida, but outside the two suborders Astrophorina and  
86 Spirophorina (Kelly Borges and Pomponi, 1994; Schuster et al., 2015). With the discovery and  
87 description of a new tetractinellid family Stupendidae Kelly and Cárdenas, 2016, a sister group  
88 relationship of Stupendidae to a clade consisting of rhizomarine-desma-bearing Scleritodermidae,  
89 Siphonidiidae and Azoricidae Sollas, 1888 was recently indicated (Kelly and Cárdenas, 2016).  
90 However, understanding the higher taxonomic relationships within Tetractinellida including its  
91 lithistid lineages is still hindered by incomplete taxon sampling and sequencing of key taxa such  
92 as Thrombidae Sollas 1888 or *Gastrophanella* Schmidt, 1879 (e.g. Kelly Borges and Pomponi,  
93 1994; Cárdenas et al., 2011).

94 Aside from the report of ‘lithistids’ in some specific island regions of the TWA, such as  
95 Barbados (Van Soest and Stentoft, 1988), the Bahamas (Maldonado and Young, 1996; Reed  
96 and Pomponi, 1997), Cuba (Pisera, 1999) the deep Florida shelf (Pisera and Pomponi, 2015),  
97 and chemotaxonomic studies (Kelly-Borges et al. 1994) the most comprehensive taxonomy  
98 based survey comprising nearly all island groups in the TWA was conducted by Pomponi  
99 et al. (2001). The main focus of a study of Pomponi et al. (2001) was the documentation  
100 of biodiversity and bathymetric distributions of ‘lithistids’, thus no morphological species  
101 descriptions, sequences or phylogenetic affinities of these specimens were included. Although  
102 Pomponi et al. (2001) concluded that ‘lithistids’ are an important and dominant group of deep,  
103 hard-bottom habitats in the TWA, no comprehensive integrative taxonomic approach using  
104 molecular and morphological data has yet been made to evaluate this large and unique collection  
105 of TWA ‘lithistid’ demosponges, which is to a large extent unidentified and awaits taxonomic  
106 revision. Their study was based on 36 expeditions and 450 submersible transects led by the  
107 Harbor Branch Oceanographic Institute (HBOI) from 1984 to 2000, and aimed to provide an  
108 inventory of the biodiversity and bathymetric distribution of TWA ‘lithistids’. As a result, 28  
109 ‘lithistid’ species representing 18 genera and 9 families were reported from the TWA. However,  
110 knowledge of the TWA ‘lithistid’ fauna still remains comparatively poorly known, but crucial  
111 for a better knowledge of their global diversity and their comparison to the Mesozoic ‘lithistids’.

112 The present study presents the first molecular systematic attempt to evaluate a large part of  
113 the extensive HBOI ‘lithistid’ collection ( $\approx$  250 specimens) by means of generating independent  
114 molecular markers (*cox1* and 28S, C1-D2 region) from material collected between 1985 and  
115 2011. Complementary to this we included *in situ* and SEM pictures of 71 taxa into the SBP. This  
116 study includes samples from almost all island groups in the TWA (Fig. 1) from depths ranging  
117 between 2 and 950 m, covering different geomorphological zonations as described in Reed and  
118 Pomponi (1997). The phylogenetic affinities of 31 out of the 35 ‘lithistid’ Tetractinellida genera  
119 are reconstructed. Furthermore, our results reveal a new clade including all rhizoclone desma  
120 bearing lithistids plus Stupendidae and Thrombidae, and document potential new genera/species  
121 and occurrences for the TWA. With this systematic groundwork the molecular phyldiversity of  
122 eight island regions in the TWA and the relative abundance and bathymetric distribution patterns  
123 of 218 samples representing nine desma-bearing families are analysed and discussed suggesting

124 that the present-day ‘lithistid’ fauna is as diverse as the fauna from the Mesozoic.

## 125 MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 126 Specimen collection and identification

127 Between 1995 and 2011, sponge samples were collected from the Tropical Western Atlantic  
128 (TWA) by the *Johnson-Sea-Link (JSL) I* and *II* submersibles operated by the HBOI, Fort Pierce,  
129 Florida and by scuba diving during several expeditions to the Bahamas, Cuba, Florida Keys,  
130 Curaçao, Turks and Caicos, Puerto Rico, Honduras, Jamaica, Guadeloupe, Gulf of Mexico  
131 and Bonaire (Fig. 1). These expeditions aimed to conduct a biodiversity inventory and collect  
132 samples for biomedical research focused particularly on sponges, octocorals and algae. Various  
133 habitats from the fore reef slopes and escarpments to the deep shelf slopes were sampled using  
134 either a claw, suction tube or scoop in depths from 0–1000 m. Sponge samples from this  
135 collection, were pre-identified by S.P. and M.K., and frozen and/or stored in 70% ethanol. For  
136 comparison, additional material from the Southwest Pacific (New Caledonia and New Zealand),  
137 and Indo-Pacific region, in the National Institute of Water and Atmospheric Research (NIWA)  
138 collection in Auckland and its invertebrate collection (NIC) in Wellington, New Zealand, were  
139 subsampled for molecular investigations. This material included subsamples of tetractinellids,  
140 which were collected by scuba diving during several expeditions across the Indo-Pacific and New  
141 Zealand, led by the Coral Reef Research Foundation (CRRF) in Republic of Palau, identified  
142 by M.K. Six specimens (three *Geodia* spp. and three *Cinachyrella* spp.) from Jamaica and  
143 Norway were added from the Bavarian State Collection of Zoology (ZSM) in Munich, Germany  
144 (identification by Helmut Lehnert). Detailed information for all novel samples sequenced is  
145 provided in the Supplementary Material.

146 Undetermined samples from the TWA (all HBOI subsamples) were identified to the genus  
147 level according to their phylogenetic position relative to known species. Based on this, we  
148 selected 71 samples with distinct genotypes for a deeper morphological investigation. For  
149 those taxa we examined deck pictures, and prepared thick sections as well as spicule and  
150 skeleton stubs for scanning electron microscopy (SEM). We used the methodology outlined  
151 in Pisera and Pomponi (2015) to illustrate and evaluate morphological characters. Based on  
152 this, 249 specimens could be identified to genus and/or species level. Morphological docu-  
153 mentation for the 71 representative specimens are provided in the Sponge Barcoding Project  
154 (SBP) (<http://www.spongebarcoding.org/>). SEM stubs and spicule slides including thick sections  
155 are deposited at the Bavarian State Collection for Paleontology and Geology (BSPG) Munich,  
156 Germany under accession numbers XXXX.

### 157 Molecular investigations

158 Genomic DNA was isolated from small pieces of sponge tissue preserved in 70% ethanol  
159 using a modified protocol of the DNeasy (Qiagen) Blood and Tissue Kit, which included an  
160 additional centrifugation step just before transferring the lysate to the spin column. A Nano-Drop  
161 1000 Spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific) was used to quantify the isolated genomic DNA.  
162 Amplification of a fragment of the mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase subunit 1 (*cox1*, partial  
163 ≈ 659 bp) was performed using the primers dgLCO1490 and dgHCO2198 (Meyer, Geller and  
164 Paulay, 2005). Additionally, a fragment of an unlinked nuclear ribosomal gene (28S; partition  
165 C1-D2, 768-832 bp) was amplified using the forward C1'ASTR (Cárdenas et al., 2010) and  
166 the reverse universal D2 (Lê, Lecointre and Perasso, 1993) primers. Both amplifications follow  
167 the PCR protocol and settings outlined in Schuster et al. (2015). Amplification success was  
168 checked on a 1.5% agarose gel. For the majority of the 28S fragments we observed an additional  
169 non-specific shorter band at ≈ 650 bp, which was subsequently identified as originating from  
170 a bacterial template. Therefore, separation of double bands and PCR clean-up was performed

171 using a modified freeze-squeeze method (Tautz and Renz, 1983), as described in Schuster et al.  
172 (2015). For sequencing of the 28S fragment, 6 µl of the remaining supernatant from the clean-up  
173 was used with the PCR primers and BigDye Terminator v3.1 (Applied Biosystems, Forster City,  
174 CA, USA) chemicals. For sequencing of *cox1* we used a 1:10 dilution of the PCR products  
175 together with the PCR primers and BigDye Terminator v3.1 chemicals. Sequencing was carried  
176 out on an ABI 3730 Genetic Analyzer at the Sequencing Service of the Department of Biology  
177 (LMU München). Sponge origin of novel sequences were tested by BLAST searches against  
178 NCBI GenBank (<https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>). Raw trace files were post- processed  
179 by base-calling using CodonCode Aligner v.3.7.1.1 (CodonCode Corporation). Geneious®  
180 v.8.1.8 (<http://www.geneious.com>, Kearse et al., 2012) was used for the assembly of forward and  
181 reverse reads. Sequences will be deposited at the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA) and the  
182 SBP under accession numbers #1794 to #2108.

### 183 Phylogenetic reconstructions

184 Alignments were generated separately for *cox1* and 28S using MAFFT v.7 under the L-INS-I  
185 algorithm (Katoh and Standley, 2013) because of heterogeneous taxon sampling and moderate  
186 sequencing success of *cox1*. Saturation of both markers was evaluated using Xia's test (Xia et al.,  
187 2013) as implemented in DAMBE v5.1.5 (Xia, 2013) which compares an estimated substitution  
188 saturation index (Iss) to a critical substitution saturation index (Iss.c). For the *cox1* dataset,  
189 sequences of *Halichondria panicea* (Pallas, 1766) (subclass: Heteroscleromorpha Cárdenas,  
190 Pérez and Boury-Esnault, 2012, order Suberitida Schmidt, 1870) and *Aplysina aerophoba* (Nardo,  
191 1833) (subclass Verongimorpha Erpenbeck et al., 2012, order Verongiida Bergquist, 1978) were  
192 chosen as outgroups. For the 28S dataset sequences of the order Sphaerocladina were chosen as  
193 outgroup. All outgroups have been used in earlier phylogenetic studies on tetractinellids (see  
194 e.g. Schuster et al., 2015; Kelly and Cárdenas, 2016). The final *cox1* alignment comprised 307  
195 sequences of which 122 are newly generated sequences for this study. The alignment was 635  
196 bp long, of which 295 bp were constant, 40 bp were parsimony uninformative and 300 bp were  
197 parsimony informative. The final 28S alignment comprised 474 sequences of which 305 are  
198 newly generated sequences for this study. In total this alignment was 905 bp long, of which  
199 325 bp were constant, 66 bp parsimony uninformative and 514 bp parsimony informative. Both  
200 alignments from this study are freely available at OpenDataLMU doi.:XXXXXX. Phylogenetic  
201 tree reconstructions for both datasets were performed on a parallel version of MrBayes v3.2.4  
202 (Ronquist et al., 2012) on a Linux cluster. The most generalized GTR+G+I evolutionary model,  
203 indicated as the most suitable by jModelTest v.2.1.7 (Darriba et al., 2012), was used. Analyses  
204 were run in two concurrent runs of four Metropolis-coupled Markov-chains (MCMCMC) for  
205 100,000,000 generations and stopped when the average standard deviation of split frequencies  
206 dropped below 0.01. The first 20% of the sampled trees were removed as Burn-in from further  
207 analyses.

### 208 Inclusive molecular phylodiversity and abundance analyses

209 The Inclusive Phylogenetic Diversity (PDI) is the sum of all branch lengths of a gene tree  
210 connecting a set of taxa from the root of the tree to the tips of all phylogenetic branches spanned  
211 by this set of taxa (see e.g. Lewis and Lewis, 2005). To evaluate the PDI, a Maximum Likelihood  
212 (ML) tree was first calculated from the most comprehensive dataset (28S, C1-D2 partition) using  
213 RAxML 7.2.8 (Stamatakis, 2014). The GTRGAMMA nucleotide evolutionary model selected by  
214 jModelTest v.2.1.7 (Darriba et al., 2012) was taken with 1000 fast pseudo-replicated bootstraps.  
215 The resulting tree topology was used to calculate the PDI for several areas in the TWA using  
216 a modified python script from Vargas et al. (2015). All non-TWA genera and all TWA genera  
217 less than five were excluded from this analysis. In total, the PDI of Bonaire, Curaçao, Florida,

218 Honduras, Jamaica, Puerto Rico and Turks and Caicos was calculated. In order to compensate  
219 for different sampling efforts across the seven regions, rarefaction curves (Sanders, 1968) were  
220 used for each location. The rarefaction curves were generated in RStudio (RStudio Team, 2014).  
221 Both scripts are available at <https://bitbucket.org/molpalmuc/>.

222 The relative abundance of eight ‘lithistid’ families from five depth zones (0–60 m; 61–150  
223 m; 151–300 m; 301–600 m; 601–914 m) from the TWA was plotted and illustrated using ggplot2  
224 (Wickham, 2009) as implemented in RStudio. These depth zonations follow Reed and Pomponi  
225 (1997) and Pomponi et al. (2001), which are based on the geomorphological observations of the  
226 sites sampled.

## 227 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 228 Integrative morphological and molecular systematics of ‘lithistid’ demosponges 229 with focus on TWA species

#### 230 *Higher-taxa relationships of desma-bearing tetractinellids*

231 The 296 lithistid sequences of at least 88 species from 27 genera (35 known) constitute the largest  
232 and most comprehensive taxon set on desma-bearing tetractinellids to date. Our phylogenies (Fig.  
233 2) corroborate the monophyly of Tetractinellida, currently including the suborders Astrophorina  
234 and Spirophorina (Morrow and Cárdenas, 2015) (Fig. 2C). In addition, the affinity of eight  
235 desma-bearing families to the suborder Astrophorina (Cárdenas et al., 2011; Morrow and  
236 Cárdenas, 2015; Schuster et al., 2015) is confirmed (Fig. 2A-C). The 28S phylogeny (Fig. 2A)  
237 indicates a sister relationship of Astrophorina and Spirophorina. In both gene trees (Fig. 2A,  
238 B) desma-bearing tetractinellids do not group with the Spirophorina (only represented by the  
239 Tetillidae in our sampling). In both gene trees the rhizomarine-bearing families Scleritodermidae,  
240 Siphonidiidae and Azoricidae form a clade (Fig. 2). However, *Gastrophanella* (Siphonidiidae) is  
241 distinct and sister (1.0 Posterior Probability (PP)) to Scleritodermidae/Siphonidiidae/Azoricidae  
242 in the 28S phylogeny (Fig. 2A). This sister-group relationship could not be corroborated by *cox1*  
243 analysis as no sequence of *Gastrophanella* could be generated. We suspected an intron insertion  
244 within *cox1* due to the discovery of these in closely related rhizomarine-bearing genera (*Setidium*  
245 Schmidt, 1879, *Microscleroderma* Kirkpatrick, 1903, *Aciculites* Schmidt, 1879, *Scleritoderma*  
246 Sollas, 1888) (Schuster et al., 2017). Based on this, various primer sets suggested by Schuster  
247 et al. (2017) were tested, however, without success. We suspect that *Gastrophanella* has one  
248 or several intron insertions in the *cox1* gene in a yet unknown position. By including several  
249 additional rhizomarine-bearing genera such as *Gastrophanella*, *Leiodermatium*, *Siphonidium* and  
250 *Amphibleptula* in our datasets, the family Thrombidae could not be recovered within Astrophorina  
251 as hypothesized by the Systema Porifera (Hooper and Van Soest, 2002). The 28S gene tree  
252 recovers Thrombidae as sister to all rhizomarine-bearing tetractinellids, but this relationship is  
253 not supported (0.72 PP) (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3) and needs further investigation, including also 28S for  
254 Stupendidae Kelly and Cárdenas 2016, a recently established new family (Kelly and Cárdenas,  
255 2016). In the *cox1* phylogeny (Fig. 2B) Stupendidae is included and a highly supported sister  
256 taxon to Scleritodermidae/Siphonidiidae/Azoricidae. It should be noted that Thrombidae and  
257 *Gastrophanella* are missing in the *cox1* phylogeny (Fig. 2B).

#### 258 *Intra-subordinal relationships of astrophorine ‘lithistids’*

259 The majority (15 out of 23) of the currently known tetractinellid families are located within the  
260 Astrophorina (Morrow and Cárdenas, 2015). This includes eight desma-bearing families (Coral-  
261 listidae, Isoraphiniidae Schrammen, 1924, Macandrewiidae Schrammen, 1924, Neopeltidae,  
262 Pleromidae, Phymaraphiniidae Schrammen, 1924, Phymatellidae and Theonellidae) and seven  
263 non-desma bearing families (Cárdenas et al., 2011; Morrow and Cárdenas, 2015; Schuster et  
264 al., 2015) (see also Fig. 2A-C). Thus, the present study supports earlier findings, which were

265 based on lower taxon sampling and additionally provides deeper insights into the intraspecific  
266 relationship of desma-bearing astrophorids.

267 The family **Theonellidae** consists of the genera *Discodermia* du Bocage, 1869, *Manihinea*  
268 Pulitzer, Finali, 1993, *Racodiscula* Zittel, 1878, *Siliquariaspongia* Hoshino, 1981 and *Theonella*  
269 Gray, 1868. Theonellidae possesses tetracrone desmas and phyllotriaenes to discotriaenes as  
270 characteristic megascleres. Typical microscleres are acanthorhabds, spirasters and amphiasters  
271 (Pisera and Lévi, 2002a). Until now, only *Theonella* and *Discodermia* species as well as one  
272 *Manihinea* sp. were sequenced in different phylogenetic studies using 18S, 28S and *cox1*  
273 (see e.g. Redmond et al., 2013; Hall, Ekins and Hooper, 2014; Schuster et al., 2015). By  
274 providing sequences for all known genera, our 28S phylogeny (Fig. 3) recovers Theonellidae  
275 as monophyletic (PP=1.0), thus conclusively support earlier findings of Schuster et al. (2015),  
276 while the *cox1* phylogeny (Fig. 4) lacks support in this respect. The 28S phylogeny indicates  
277 the monophyly of the genera *Discodermia*, *Manihinea*, *Racodiscula* and a potential new taxon,  
278 here denoted as Theonellidae sp., a potential new genus mainly distinct by the layered network  
279 of tetracone desma with smooth rays and strongly tuberculated tips and the less abundant  
280 microscleres on the ectosome (SBD2102–2106). The sister relationship of *Manihinea* conferta  
281 to *Theonella* sp. 1 is highly supported (PP=0.99) by 28S (Fig. 3), whereas it is not supported by  
282 *cox1* (Fig. 4). A close relationship of *Theonella* and *Manihinea* was observed in an earlier study  
283 by Redmond et al. (2013) using a nearly complete 18S gene fragment, but unsupported. The  
284 genus *Discodermia* is sister to a clade consisting of *Manihinea+Theonella+Siliquariaspongia*,  
285 which is sister to *Racodiscula+Theonellidae* sp.

286 The genus *Racodiscula* is highly supported (PP=1.0) as sister to Theonellidae sp. Although  
287 the outer morphology of Theonellidae sp. (SBD2106 A–D) is very similar to that of *Racodiscula*,  
288 it differs in spicule composition, desma and skeleton structure: the usually abundant spinose  
289 microacanthorhabds, covering the surface of *Racodiscula* species (SBD2065) building a dense  
290 crust on the surface, are rarer or even absent in Theonellidae sp. Instead of microacanthorhabds,  
291 phyllo- to discotriaenes are the main components of the dense surface crust. In addition,  
292 Theonellidae sp. possesses desmas with smooth rays and strongly tuberculated tips (SBD2105  
293 and SBD2106) building a layered network (SBD2102), which clearly differs from *Racodiscula*  
294 (Schuster et al. 2018).

295 *Theonella mirabilis* (de Laubenfels, 1954) was first named within the homoscleromorphid  
296 genus *Placinalopha* (Class Homoscleromorpha, Order Homosclerophorida, Family Plakinidae)  
297 on the possession of what de Laubenfels described as 'lophotractines'. The key size and shape  
298 differences between the 'tetalophs' of *T. mirabilis* and other *Placinalopha* species were noted by  
299 Muricy and Díaz (2002), who suggested that the species *mirabilis* had a more likely affinity with  
300 species in family Theonellidae. 28S sequences (Fig. 3) unite specimens identified as *Theonella*  
301 *mirabilis* in a single clade with a specimen identified as *T. conica* (Kieschnick, 1896) which  
302 also has tetraloph-like desmas, suggesting that species with non-articulated 'tetraloph' desmas  
303 may be monophyletic and separate from other *Theonella* spp. However, *cox1* sequences (Fig. 4)  
304 separate *T. mirabilis* into two groups, nesting them within diverse species of *Theonella*. *Theonella*  
305 *mirabilis* is very similar in spicule complement to the type species of the genus *Siliquariaspongia*,  
306 *S. japonica* Hoshino, 1981 (family Theonellidae), although the latter lacks the strongyles and  
307 possesses frilly discotrienes, the latter occasionally recorded in *T. mirabilis*. Our phylogenies  
308 clearly place all of the sequenced *Theonella mirabilis* species within the *Theonella+Manihinea*  
309 clade (Fig. 3), confirming that this species belongs to the family Theonellidae. This result is  
310 supported by the discovery of potent new depsipeptides mirabamides A–D, that inhibit HIV-1  
311 infection, adding to a small class first exemplified by the papuamides from various *Theonella*  
312 spp. (Plaza et al. 2007).

313 The family **Macandrewiidae** is monogeneric with currently seven valid species (Van Soest et

al. 2018a). Until now, only *Macandrewia rigida* Lévi, 1989 from the Solomon Islands has been sequenced (28S C1-D2 region, LN624160, G317931) (Schuster et al., 2015). The present study includes a further sequence of an undescribed *Macandrewia* sp. from the Bahamas (909 m depth), which clearly differs from *M. rigida* (Fig. 3). Morphological differences in desmas (SBD2004) corroborate the genetic difference to *M. rigida* and provide further evidence of a possible new species, which would be the first record in the TWA. Nevertheless, further morphological observations and comparison with the type material of *M. rigida* as well as its sequences are needed to conclusively describe and distinguish this potential new species. Both *Macandrewia* species group within the Geodiidae, close to the Erylinae Sollas, 1888, within a clade of non-desma bearing astrophorins (*Calthropella* Sollas, 1888, *Caminella* Lendenfeld, 1894) (Fig. 3). This relationship is currently not supported by morphology (Cárdenas et al., 2018) and in any case suggests a distinct evolutionary history of *Macandrewia* to other 'lithistid' families Corallistidae and Neopeltidae (Schuster et al., 2015), where *Macandrewia* was previously allocated (Kelly, 2000; Pomponi et al., 2001).

The family **Phymatellidae** currently includes three genera: *Neoaulaxinia*, *Neosiphonia* and *Reidispongia*. The present comprehensive study does not recover Phymatellidae as monophyletic and is therefore in contrast to Schuster et al. (2015). Instead, a highly supported sister group relationship of *Neoaulaxinia* Pisera and Lévi, 2002 to the neopeltid genus *Daedalopelta* Sollas, 1888 is observed and *Reidispongia coerulea* Lévi and Lévi, 1988 is sister to this clade (Fig. 3). This relationship is in conflict with morphological hypotheses as Phymatellidae is characterized by ectosomal dichotriaenes, while Neopeltidae has ectosomal pseudophyllotriaenes or pseudodiscotriaenes (Pisera, 2002). Until now only one species of *Daedalopelta* is known (*D. nodosa* Sollas, 1888 from Florida, Gulf of Mexico and Southern Caribbean), which clearly differs from our *Daedalopelta* specimens. Therefore, morphological characters of both sequenced *Daedalopelta* species were further investigated and illustrated (SBD1894). Both species are potentially new to science. *Daedalopelta* sp. 1 (SBD1894) possesses the characteristic pseudophyllotriaenes (SBD1894) known from the Neopeltidae, while *Daedalopelta* sp. 2 (SBD1895) possesses dichotriaenes characteristic for the Phymatellidae. These dichotriaenes, however, have a unique shape with indented cladomes (SBD1895). A spicule drawing of *Corallistes tubulatus* Van Soest and Stentoft, 1988 from Barbados, now *Neophrissospongia tubulata*, resembles those unique dichotriaenes implying that *N. tubulata* may need to be reallocated to *Daedalopelta*. Interestingly, dichotriaenes of *Daedalopelta* sp. 2 resemble those of the fossil *Gignouxia niciensis* Moret, 1926 (Corallistidae) from the Late Cretaceous (Pl. XVIII, Fig. 2, 2' fig-txt 37). We suggest to allocate *Gignouxia* Moret, 1926 to the family Phymatellidae. *Gignouxia* will include *Daedalopelta* sp. 2 as well as *Daedalopelta tubulata* comb. nov.

**Neopeltidae** polyphyly is given by the highly supported (PP=1.0) sister relationship of the newly sequenced species *Neopelta* sp. to the non-desma bearing astrophorid *Neamphius huxleyi* de Laubenfels, 1953 (Fig. 3). Morphologically, these two species only share choanosomal amphiasters with spiny rays and microxeas. Thus, monocrepid desmas and pseudodiscotriaenes characterizing *Neopelta* were lost in *Neamphius*. Spicule losses and gains are not uncommon within tetractinellids and have frequently been shown (Chombard, Boury-Esnault and Tillier, 1998; Cárdenas et al., 2011; Schuster et al., 2015). Nevertheless, these two genera form a robust sister clade to a non-desma bearing Ancorinidae clade consisting of *Stellella* Schmidt, 1862, *Ancorina* Schmidt, 1862, *Asteropus* Sollas, 1888 and *Stryphnus* Sollas, 1886.

**Corallistidae** is another major family dominating the HBOI collection and subsequently our phylogenies (Fig. 3 and 4). These taxa were the focus of biomedical investigations (e.g. Haar et al., 1996; Wright, 2010), thus targeted during the HBOI expeditions. Therefore, whether the genera *Discoderma* and *Corallistes* Schmidt, 1870 are over-represented in this study due to their increased sampling, or whether they actually dominate the sponge fauna in the TWA regions

remain obscure and awaits further investigations. Even though *Corallistes* were frequently sampled in the past and 15 species are described to date (Van Soest et al. 2018b), only five sequences are published (Kelly Borges and Pomponi, 1994; Chombard, Boury-Esnault and Tillier, 1998; McInerney, Adams and Kelly, 1999). With 52 *Corallistes* specimens sequenced, this study presents the largest data set to date and reveals the monophyly of this genus (28S, PP= 1.0, Fig. 3). *Corallistes typus* Schmidt, 1870 specimens, type species of the genus, were examined (SBD1888, 1889, 1892) and sequenced (Fig. 3 and 4). In addition, a *Corallistes isabela* Desqueyroux-Faúndez and Van Soest, 1997 sample from Honduras was sequenced. Until this study *Corallistes isabela* was only known from the Eastern Pacific (Galápagos) and discussed as endemic to the Galápagos (Desqueyroux-Faúndez and Van Soest, 1997 and Schuster et al., 2018). In addition, six *Corallistes* (C. sp. 2 to C. sp. 7, see Fig. 3) differ by 1-3 bp in the 28S fragment, while no differences were found in *cox1*. Morphological differences are observed between C. sp. 2 (SBD1872) and C. sp. 4 (SBD1879). For example, C. sp. 2 has long (700 µm) thin ectosomal oxeas (SBD1872 A), while C. sp. 4 has ectosomal styles (SBD1879 D) and subectosomal microxea with spined surfaces (SBD1879 C). Morphological identifications are in progress and necessary to discriminate the remaining *Corallistes* species.

The polyphyletic corallistid genus *Herengeria* Lévi and Lévi, 1983, only known from the Pacific Norfolk Ridge, New Caledonia, and New Zealand (Schlacher-Hoenlinger, Pisera and Hooper, 2005; Kelly et al., 2009), was sequenced (Fig. 3) and morphologically illustrated (SBD1949) in the present study for the first time from the Bahamas and Honduras, representing a new genus for the Atlantic. Only two species of *Herengeria* are described (*H. auriculata* Lévi and Lévi 1988 and *H. vasiformis* Schlacher-Hoenlinger, Pisera and Hooper, 2005). The morphological observations delimit the new TWA species from *H. auriculata* (Schlacher-Hoenlinger and Hooper, 2005) due to a lack of subectosomal rhabd-like spirasters. With respect to molecular markers, *Herengeria* spp. from the TWA are distinct from *H. vasiformis*/*Herengeria* sp. from the Pacific (Fig. 3). Our 28S (Fig. 3) and *cox1* (Fig. 4) phylogenies strongly support *Neoschrammeniella* Pisera and Lévi, 2002 as sister to the *Herengeria*/*Isabella* clade. Currently, seven valid species of *Neophrissospongia* Pisera and Lévi, 2002 are described (Van Soest et al. 2018c). Only a few *Neophrissospongia* sequences (two 28S and one 18S) from the Pacific Ocean are currently published. However, in order to gain a better understanding of their geographical distribution and genetic differences, additional material from the Caribbean were sequenced in this study: Their resulting 28S phylogeny clearly separates *Neophrissospongia* from the Pacific and the Caribbean Islands. *Neophrissospongia* sp. 1 from different Caribbean Islands is sister (PP=1.0) to *N. microstylifera* and *Neophrissospongia* sp. 3, from the Pacific (Fig. 3). A further Caribbean *Neophrissospongia* species (sp. 2) forms a robust sister clade to *Neophrissospongia* from the Eastern Pacific (Galápagos, Panama) (Fig. 3).

A clade of six as yet unidentified specimens from the HBOI collection (SBD1814) is sister to the monophyletic *Neophrissospongia* (PP=1.0, Fig. 3). We assume that this clade consists of species from the as yet unsequenced genus *Awhiowhio* Kelly, 2007 from the Pacific based on morphological evidence. These show similar mega- and microscle types to *Awhiowhio* such as dicranoclone desmas and smooth dichotriaenes in *Awhiowhio* sp. 1 (SBD1815), most similar to the *Awhiowhio osheai* from New Zealand (Kelly, 2007), but slightly different in terms of desma ornamentation. Streptaster microscleres and acanthose microrhabds in *Awhiowhio* sp. 1 (SBD1814, 1815) differ from those in *Awhiowhio osheai* in sizes and shapes (SBD1814). The *cox1* phylogeny (Fig. 4) indicates the sister group relationship of *Awhiowhio osheai* Kelly, 2007 to *Neophrissospongia*. A close relationship of *Awhiowhio* to *Herengeria* as suggested by Kelly (2007) based on morphological features is not supported by any of our phylogenies. Instead, both markers independently suggest a close relationship (strongly supported by PP=1.0) to *Neophrissospongia*. The genus *Pleroma* Sollas, 1888 (family Pleromidae) is recovered as

412 paraphyletic in both phylogenies (Fig. 3 and 4). *Pleroma menoui* Sollas, 1888 is distant to other  
413 *Pleroma* spp. (including the type species *P. turbinatum*) in a close relationship to Corallistidae  
414 (Fig. 3 and 4).

415 **Intra-subordinal relationships of spirophorine 'lithistids'**

416 The suborder Spirophorina is characterized by sigmaspire microscleres and its members share  
417 triaene spicules with Astrophorina. Currently, three families are known: Samidae Sollas, 1888,  
418 Spirasmidae Hallmann, 1912 and Tetillidae Sollas, 1886, whereas the latter is the largest in  
419 terms of genera and species (e.g. Van Soest and Hooper, 2002). The relationships of major  
420 clades within our *cox1* and 28S phylogenies (Fig. 3 and 4) were in concordance with the findings  
421 of Carella et al. (2016) and Schuster et al. (2017). The latest revised classification of Morrow  
422 and Cárdenas (2015) included the desma-bearing families Azoricidae, Scleritodermidae and  
423 Siphonidiidae within Spirophorina. Since then, several studies (Schuster et al., 2015, 2017; Kelly  
424 and Cárdenas, 2016) using *cox1*, 18S and 28S markers showed the separation of all rhizomorine-  
425 bearing sponges from Spirophorina (=Tetillidae). The present enlarged dataset corroborates again  
426 the absence of desma-bearing sponges in Spirophorina and their grouping in a well supported  
427 clade along with the Stupendidae and the Thrombidae (Fig. 2). In order to establish this clade as  
428 a new taxa, we await further molecular data from the latter two families (work in progress, MK  
429 and PC).

430 **Subordinal structure of Tetractinellida**

431 Kelly and Cárdenas (2016) provided strong support for families Azoricidae, Scleritodermidae  
432 and Siphonidiidae within a new suborder, supported in part by the common possession of  
433 rhizomorine desmas.

434 Regarding **Azoricidae**, Maldonado et al. (2015) discovered a dense and large aggrega-  
435 tion of *Leiodermatium pfeifferae* Carter, 1873 on seamounts in the Mediterranean building  
436 complex reef-forming structures. Even though *Leiodermatium* Schmidt, 1870 has very few  
437 diagnostic characters (no microscleres) to discriminate between species (Pisera, 2002; Pis-  
438 era and Lévi, 2002b), 11 species are valid to date (WPD access Aug. 2017). In the present  
439 study we sequenced the 28S C1-D2 fragment for 52 *Leiodermatium* specimens from several  
440 regions in the TWA (Fig. 3) representing at least 8 species and the largest sequenced dataset  
441 for this genus to date. The monophyly of *Leiodermatium* is highly supported by our 28S  
442 phylogeny (PP=1.0; Fig. 3). The amplification of *cox1* unfortunately failed, most likely due  
443 to the presence of introns similar to other rhizomorine-bearing genera like e.g. *Microsclero-*  
444 *derma* and *Scleritoderma* (Schuster et al., 2017). Preliminary morphological investiga-  
445 tions (SBD1966, 1967, 1959, 1965, 1956, 1955, 1975, 1977, 1976, 1994, 2000, 2001, 2003) adumbrate de-  
446 tailed differences of *Leiodermatium* spp., in particular their surfaces (oscules and ostia sizes),  
447 diactines and desma morphology. For instance *Leiodermatium* sp. 1 (SBD1955) has large and  
448 marginate oscules, while *Leiodermatium* sp. 6 (SBD1994) and *Leiodermatium* sp. 8 (SBD2003)  
449 have large but elevated oscules on exterior margins, in contrast to *Leiodermatium* sp. 7, whose  
450 oscules are small and closely distributed. Based on molecular and morphological data we propose  
451 eight different species of *Leiodermatium* (Fig. 3) in the TWA, however further morphological in-  
452 vestigations are needed to corroborate this assumption. *Leiodermatium* is unsupported (PP=0.65)  
453 sister to a clade of *Siphonidium* spp. (Siphonidiidae); the same relationship was revealed with  
454 small fragment of the 18S gene (482 bp) for *Leiodermatium* sp. (Kelly-Borges and Pomponi,  
455 1994, Kelly and Cárdenas, 2016). Further investigation and a review of all extant and fossil  
456 *Leiodermatium* species is suggested to better understand the geographical distribution and recent  
457 diversification of this paleontologically important group.

458 Within the polyphyletic rhizomorine family **Scleritodermidae**, its genera *Aciculites* is poly-  
459 and *Scleritoderma* is paraphyletic, while *Microscleroderma*, *Amphibleptula* Schmidt, 1879 and

460 *Setidium* Schmidt, 1879 are monophyletic (Fig. 3). The genus *Amphibleptula* is currently  
461 monospecific with *A. madrepore* Schmidt, 1879 from the Caribbean (Pisera and Lévi, 2002c).  
462 Morphologically, *A. madrepore* is very similar and easy to confuse with *Microscleroderma*  
463 *spirophora* Lévi, 1960 as discussed in Van Soest and Stentoft (1988). *Amphibleptula* is here  
464 sequenced for the first time and our 28S phylogeny shows *Microscleroderma* and *Amphibleptula*  
465 sp.1 as sister groups, although unsupported in the 28S phylogeny (PP=0.63). Morphological  
466 observations (SBD1802,1803) provide conclusive evidence that our three samples are *Amphiblep-*  
467 *tula* species, due to their dense tuberculated/blunt spinose rhizoclones, the protruding bundles of  
468 oxeas in the oscula area (SBD1802,1803) as well as the presence of sigmaspires (SBD1802).  
469 Differences to *A. madrepore* are the diactine spicules present in all three *Amphibleptula* sp.1. In  
470 addition, fusiform spined microxeas and acanthorhabds are found in the specimen from Jamaica  
471 (HBOI 1-IX-93-1-006, SBD1802). To conclude, we sequenced two potential new species of  
472 *Amphibleptula* with clear unique morphological characters, different from *A. madrepore*.

473 During this study a new suborder Thoosina was suggested by Carballo et al. 2018 including  
474 the genera *Thoosa* and *Alectona* so far. However, since no desma-bearing tetractinellids are  
475 grouping within this suborder, we decided to not further discuss Thoosina in the scope of this  
476 study.

#### 477 **Molecular phylodiversity of TWA desma-bearing demosponges**

478 In the present study the inclusive phylodiversity was calculated for Bonaire, Curaçao, Florida,  
479 Honduras, Jamaica, Puerto Rico, Turks and Caicos and the Bahamas (Fig. 5). The PD<sub>I</sub>  
480 analyses disclosed a high variation within the TWA locations (Fig. 5). At comparable sampling  
481 efforts, the highest PD<sub>I</sub> was observed in Jamaica (Fig. 5A) indicating a high biodiversity in  
482 this region, closely followed by the Bahamas (Fig. 5B). At sample size of 20, Curaçao and  
483 Florida showed the lowest PD<sub>I</sub>, followed by Turks and Caicos and Honduras. The high PD<sub>I</sub>  
484 of ‘lithistid’ demosponges calculated for the Bahamas is in agreement with the findings of  
485 Reed and Pomponi (1997), and may be explained by the high habitat diversity observed in this  
486 region (Reed and Pomponi, 1997) and their close proximity to the species-rich Atlantic (see e.g.  
487 Carvalho, Pomponi and Xavier, 2015). Even though Turks and Caicos are close to the Bahamas  
488 and the Atlantic, a much lower PD<sub>I</sub> was calculated, maybe due to less habitat diversity.

#### 489 **Bathymetric distribution and relative abundance of TWA desma-bearing families**

490 The evaluation of the relative abundance of eight ‘lithistid’ families within each depth zone is  
491 based upon 234 specimens collected from eight localities in the TWA (Fig. 6). Theonellidae  
492 and Corallistidae are the two dominant families in the present dataset, and assumed to be the  
493 dominant families in the TWA (Pomponi et al., 2001). While Theonellidae dominate depth zones  
494 of 0–151 m, Corallistidae are more abundant in depth zones of 151–600 m. This corroborates  
495 the result of Pomponi et al. (2001) showing that *Discodermia* (Theonellidae) is the dominant  
496 genus from 0–151 m, while *Corallistes* (Corallistidae) dominates the zone of 151–914 m. An  
497 explanation for this might be that Corallistidae have a dense rigid skeleton of dicranoclone  
498 desmas, while Theonellidae possess a less articulated skeleton of tetracclone desmas. Thus, it can  
499 be hypothesized, that ‘lithistids’ with a hyper-silicified dense desma skeleton like Corallistidae  
500 occur in deeper zones  $\geq 300$  m, while those with a less dense desma skeleton like most of  
501 the Theonella species (Theonellidae) moved into more shallow water habitats, as less silica  
502 is required for their skeleton construction. This trend was also observed in the South West  
503 Pacific (Kelly et al., 2007; Hall, Ekins and Hooper, 2014). As Corallistidae and Theonellidae are  
504 considered to be polymorphic (Pisera and Lévi, 2002a,d), it is difficult, to draw any conclusion  
505 of different depth zones or habitats influencing growth form patterns in these two families.

506 However, further ‘lithistid’ families with a similar bathymetric trend are observed and growth

507 forms are suggested to play a role in the bathymetric distributions of ‘lithistids’. For instance  
508 *Leiodermatium* spp. (Azoricidae) are abundant (27 specimens) in depth zones 301–1000 m.  
509 Similar to Corallistidae *Leiodermatium* possess a dense heavily articulated skeleton, but of  
510 strongly spinose rhizoclone desmas. The growth form of *Leiodermatium* species are described as  
511 being foliated or vase to ear-shaped (Pisera and Lévi, 2002b). Such growth forms are suggested  
512 to improve the water circulation in sponges, in particular of those in the deep-sea habitats, and to  
513 be more resistant to higher water viscosity and scarcity of particles (Levinton, 1982; Gage and  
514 Tyler, 1991). Many vase to cup or ear-shaped sponges have their inhalant pores facing the outer  
515 side and exhalant openings on the upper side separating incoming and processed water (Sará and  
516 Vacelet, 1973), which may reduce any negative effect on filtering due to a sedimentation. This is  
517 in contrast to Siphoniidae, a family represented in this analysis by the genera *Gastrophanella*  
518 and *Siphonidium*, which are rather encrusting or irregular cylindrical, thus more abundant in the  
519 depth zone of 61–150 m.

520 **Scleritodermidae** occurred more often on vertical walls in depth 301–600 m, but was also  
521 not observed to be a major component of the ‘lithistid’ fauna in the TWA. The greatest number  
522 of desma-bearing demosponges were found in depth zone 301–600 m (87 specimens), with  
523 Corallistidae as the dominant family (34 specimens) followed by Azoricidae with 27 specimens.  
524 Diverse habitats from fine mud and sand slopes to rock pinnacles, boulders and vertical walls  
525 in this depth zone (Fig. 6) could be a possible explanation. The families Neopeltidae and  
526 Macandrewiidae are rare in our study with only one species discovered at 909 m depth on a  
527 vertical wall in the Bahamas (*Macandrewia* sp.), and two *Daedalopelta* sp. species collected  
528 from the Bahamas at 301–600 m. This corroborates the findings of Pomponi et al. (2001),  
529 because they found one species of *Daedalopelta nodosa* at 452 m in the Bahamas, one *Neopelta*  
530 *perfecta* in 116 m depth from Grenada and one *Macandrewia clavatella* in the southwest coast of  
531 Florida. These families and species are also found to be rare in the Southwest Pacific (Lévi, 1991;  
532 Kelly, 2000). Besides the tetractinellid ‘lithistid’ sponges, we noted that other desma-bearing  
533 sponge lineages, such as family Vetulinidae (Order Sphaerocladina) constitute only a minor  
534 component in any depth-zone in the TWA.

535 Further testing is required to assess whether geomorphological conditions resulting of a  
536 variety of complex tectonic interactions (e.g., strike-slip faults, thrust fault, subduction and  
537 seafloor spreading in Cayman Trough, see Fig. 1), directly affect diversity and bathymetric  
538 distribution of ‘lithistids’ in the TWA (Fig. 6).

## 539 CONCLUSION

540 In summary, this is the first integrative approach using molecular and morphological data on TWA  
541 ‘lithistid’ demosponges, thus contributing to a better understanding of their phylogenetic affinities,  
542 diversity and bathymetric distribution patterns. The present study points to specimens/groups  
543 in need of deeper taxonomic investigations and revision, however, additional morphological  
544 as well as other independent markers are needed. With recent evidence (Pomponi et al. 2001)  
545 that ‘lithistids’ are dominant components among all investigated TWA regions, we suggest a  
546 comparable diversity to the Pacific ‘lithistids’ as well as to the Mesozoic fauna. Furthermore,  
547 there is a clear shift of lithistids with a rigid and heavily articulated desma towards deeper  
548 habitats (Corallistidae and Azoricidae), whereas ‘lithistids’ with a less articulated skeleton tend  
549 to occur in more shallow habitats (Theonellidae and Siphoniidae). A major effect causing this  
550 shift is the availability of silica in the ocean throughout time. Our robust phylogeny enables  
551 relaxed molecular clock analyses in conjunction with the rich fossil record of lithistids to better  
552 correlate such shifts to geological/geochemical events in the past.

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**568 ADDITIONAL INFORMATION AND DECLARATIONS**

569 This document reflects only the authors' view and the Executive Agency for Small and Medium-  
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**583 COMPETING INTERESTS**

584 The authors declare there are no competing interests.

**585 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

586 Astrid Schuster and Dirk Erpenbeck conceived and designed the study. Dirk Erpenbeck and Gert  
587 Wörheide acquired funding, contributed reagents, materials and analysis tools. Astrid Schuster,  
588 Andrzej Pisera, Paco Cárdenas, Shirley A. Pomponi and Michelle Kelly identified genera/species.  
589 Shirley A. Pomponi (HBOI), Michelle Kelly (NIWA) contributed to the sampling. Astrid Schuster  
590 performed the laboratory experiments, did the phylogenetic analyses, bathymetric distribution  
591 plot, phylodiversity analysis and SEM. Astrid Schuster wrote the manuscript, prepared figures  
592 and tables. Paco Cárdenas, Dirk Erpenbeck, Michelle Kelly, Andrzej Pisera and Gert Wörheide  
593 edited versions of the manuscript. All authors reviewed drafts of the paper.

594 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

595 The following information was supplied regarding data availability:

596 Novel sequences will be archived at the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA) under the  
597 accession numbers: XXXX-XXXXXX.

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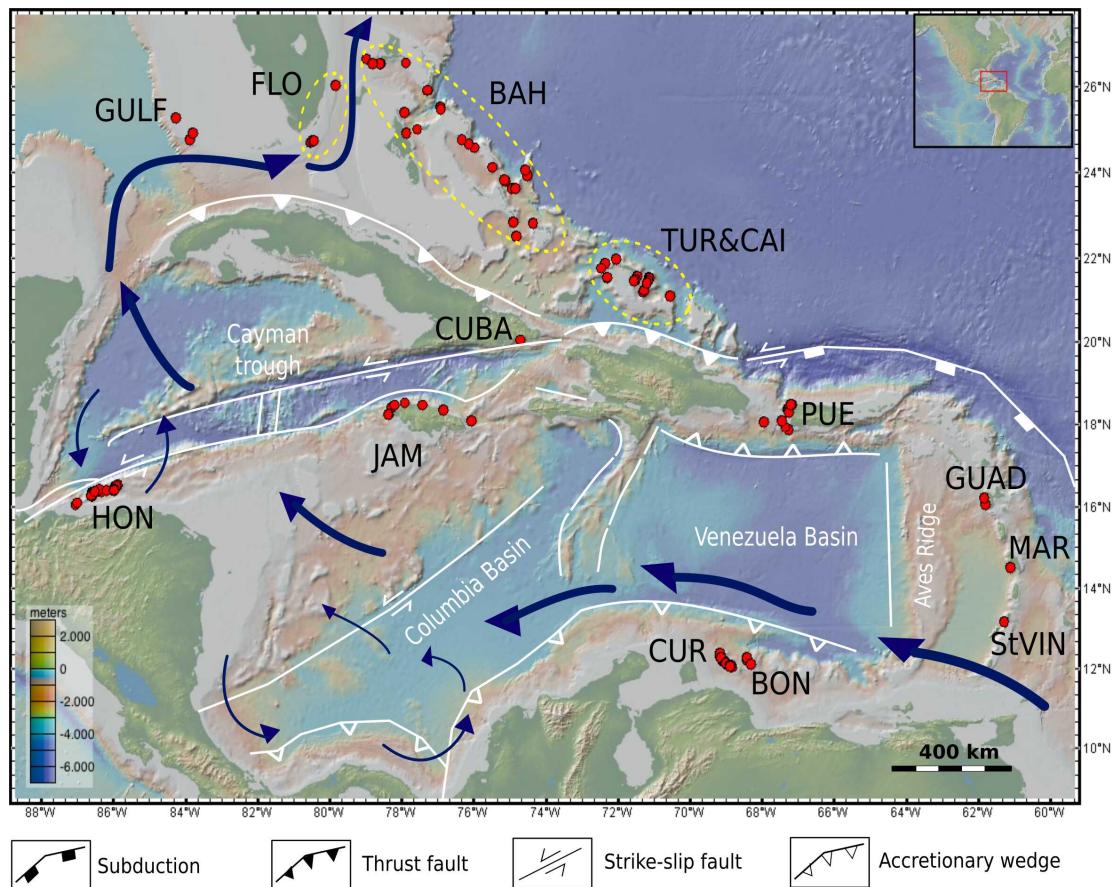
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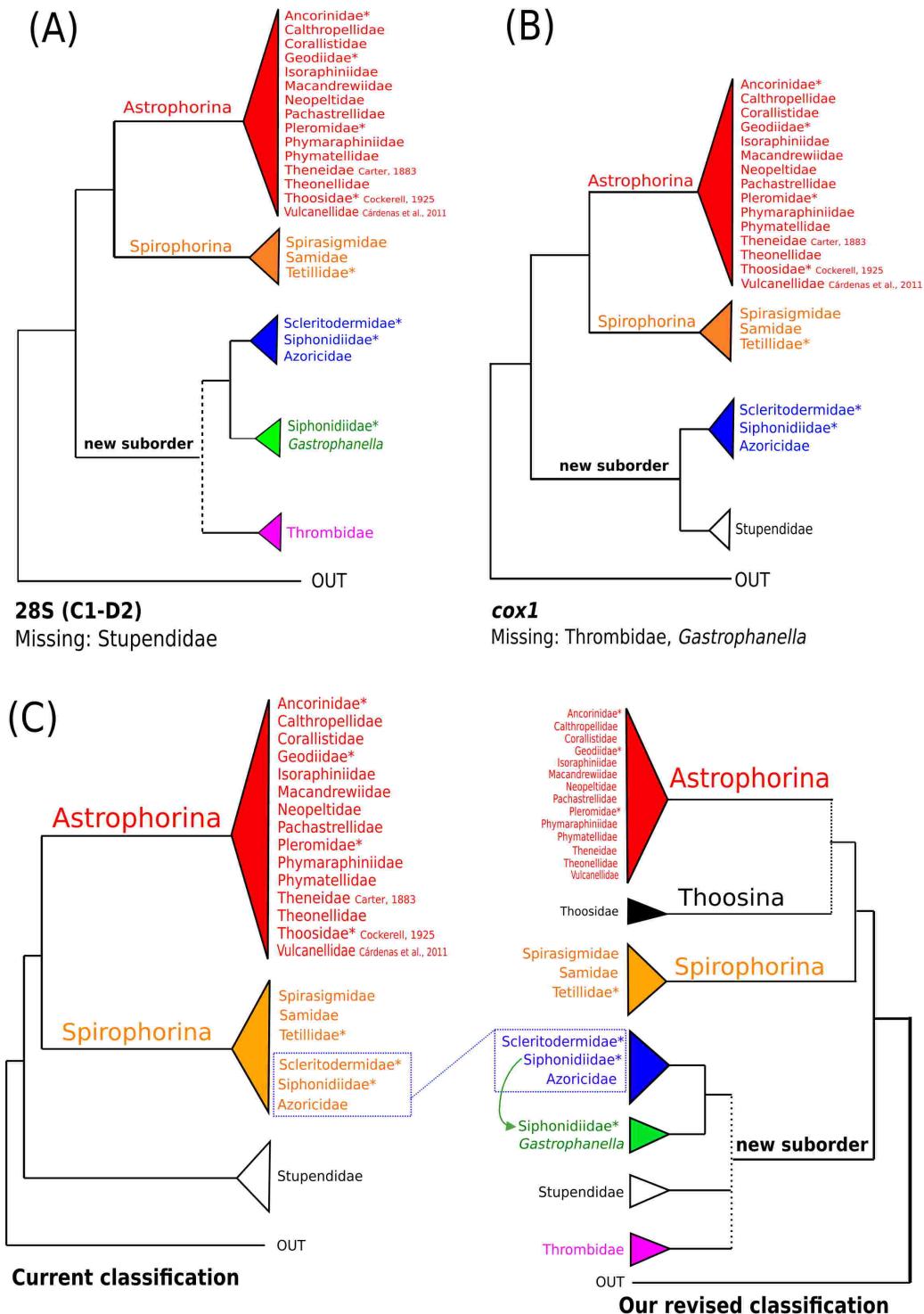
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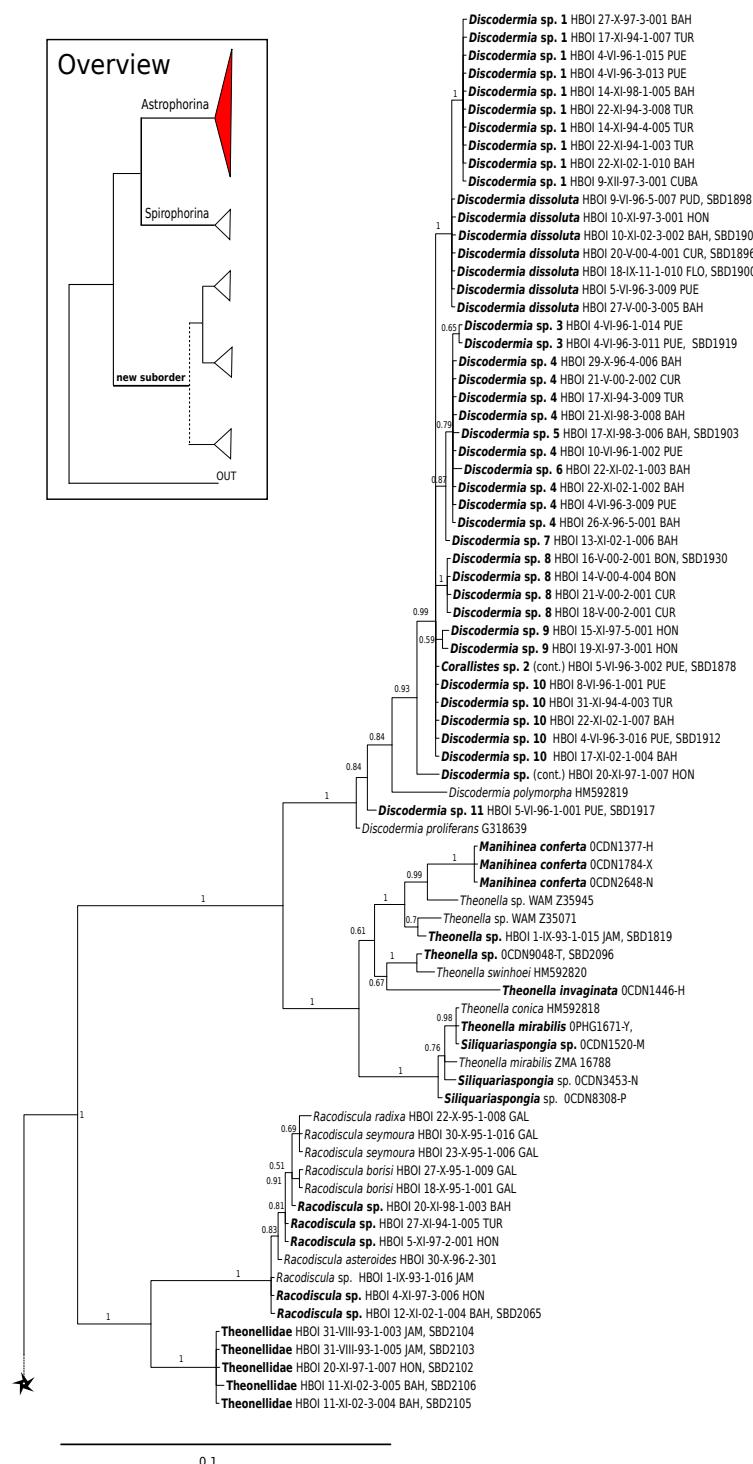
## 819 FIGURES

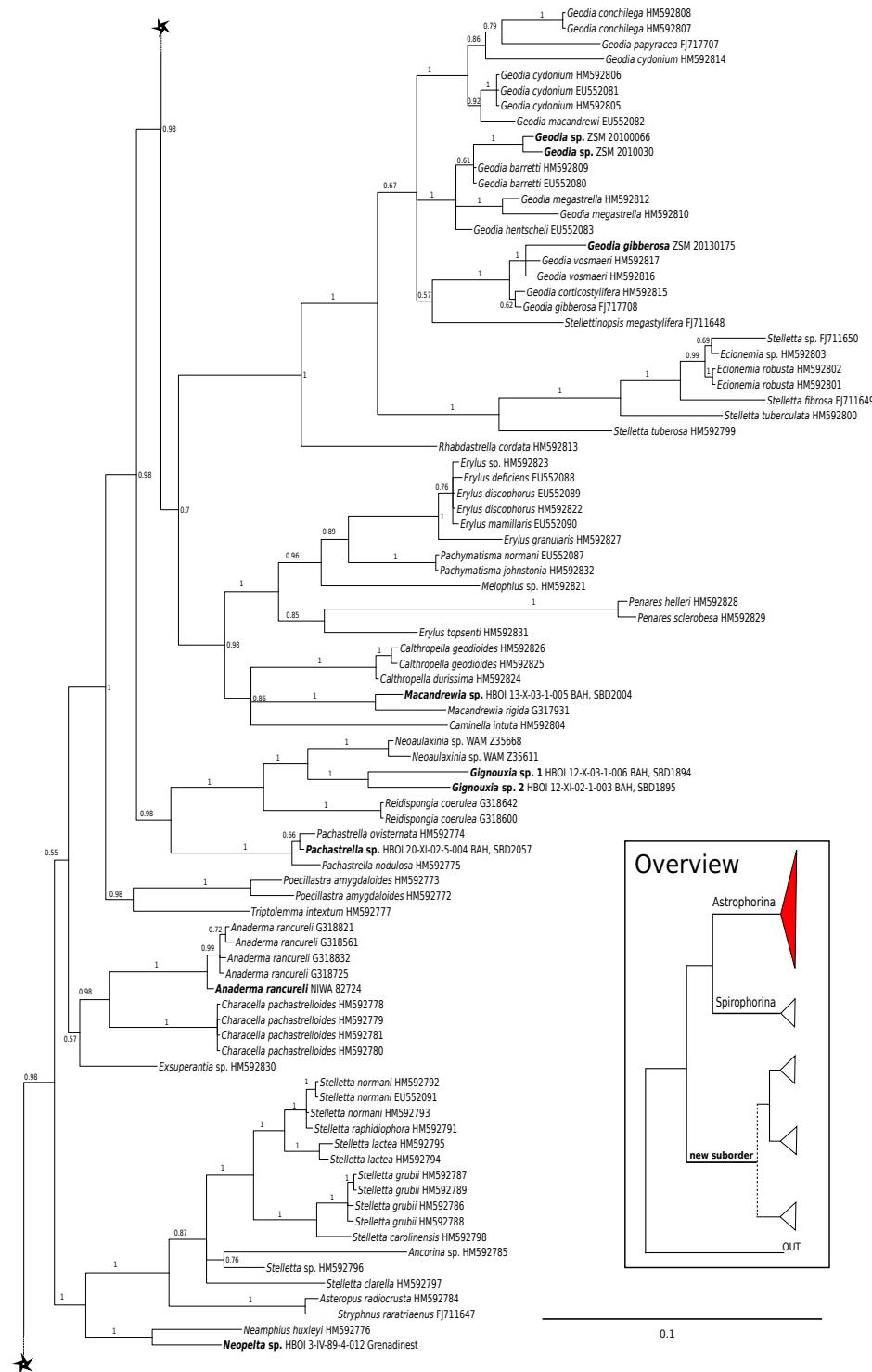


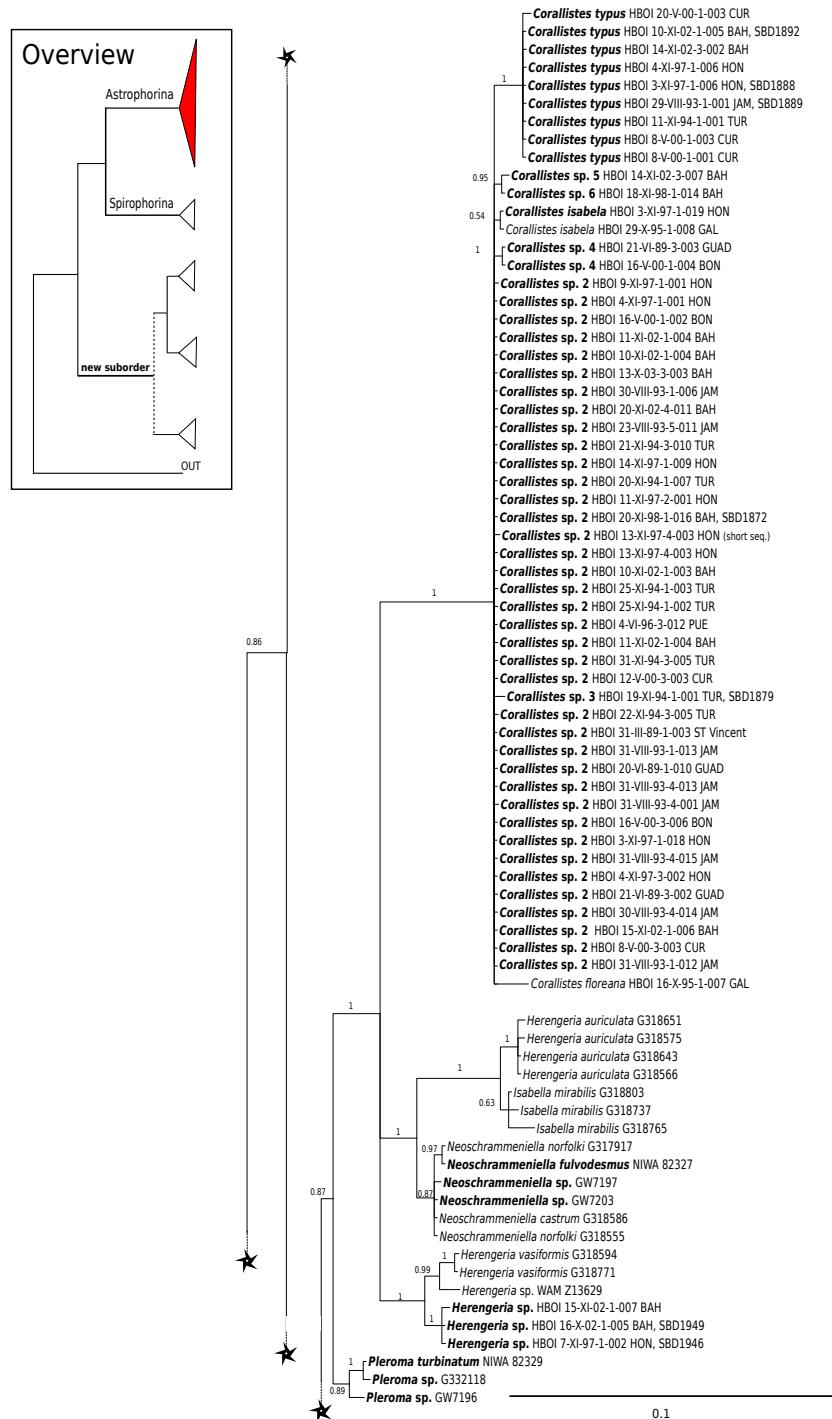
**Figure 1.** Distribution map of investigated HBOI and other desma-bearing tetractinellids and Vetulinidae from the TWA. Abbreviations correspond to the different locations (CUR=Curaçao, BON=Bonaire, StVIN=St. Vincent, MAR=Martinique, GUAD=Guadalupe, PUE=Puerto Rico, JAM=Jamaica, HON=Honduras, TUR and CAI=Turks and Caicos, BAH=Bahamas, FLO=Florida). Tectonic settings are schematically indicated (white lines) (Giunta 2011). Main water currents (dark blue arrows) follow Miloslavich et al. (2010). Map generated with GeoMapApp 3.6.3 (<http://www.geomapapp.org>, Ryan et al., 2009).

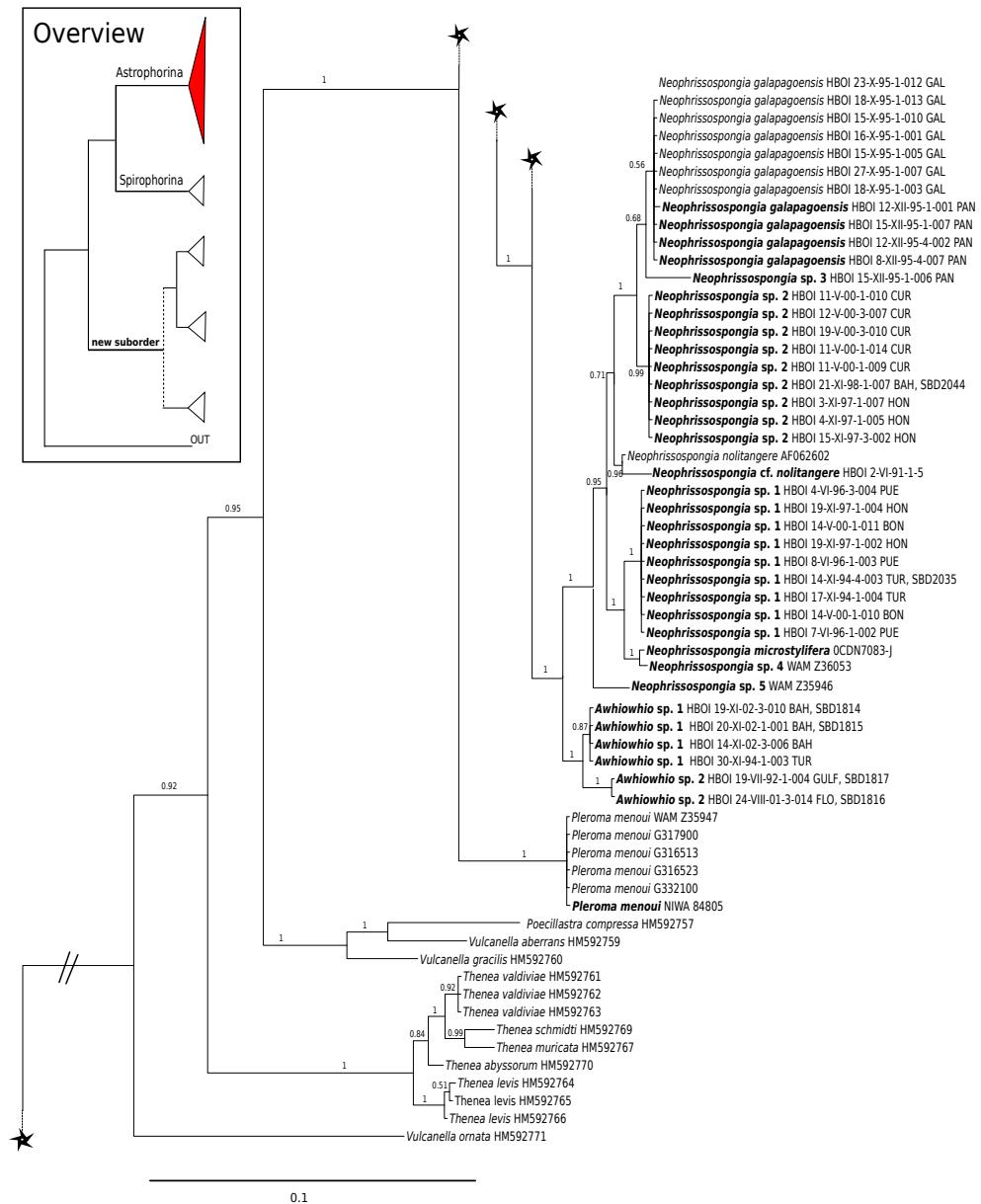


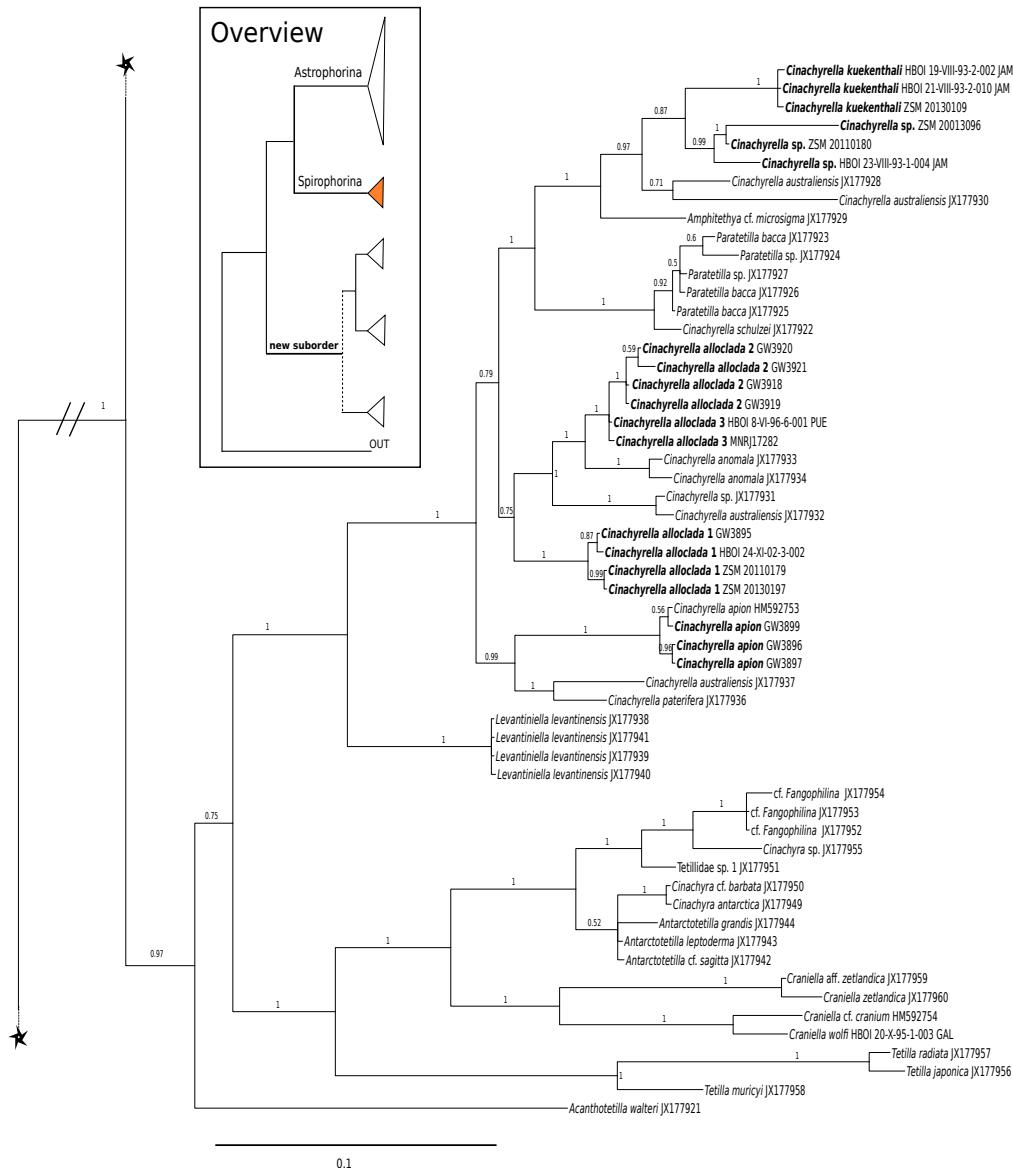
**Figure 2.** Schematic summary cladograms obtained from the 28S and *cox1* phylogenies indicating the higher-taxa relationships within the order Tetractinellida. (A) 28S (B) *cox1* summary tree with the suborders Astrophorina (red), Spirophorina (orange) and a new suborder (blue, green, pink and light gray) including all rhizoclone desma-bearing families and the family Thrombidae and Stupendidae. Stars behind family names indicate their proposed polyphyly. Dashed lines indicate the uncertainties of not supported topologies. (C) Comparison of current and revised classification including the proposed new suborder Thoosina from Carballo et al.

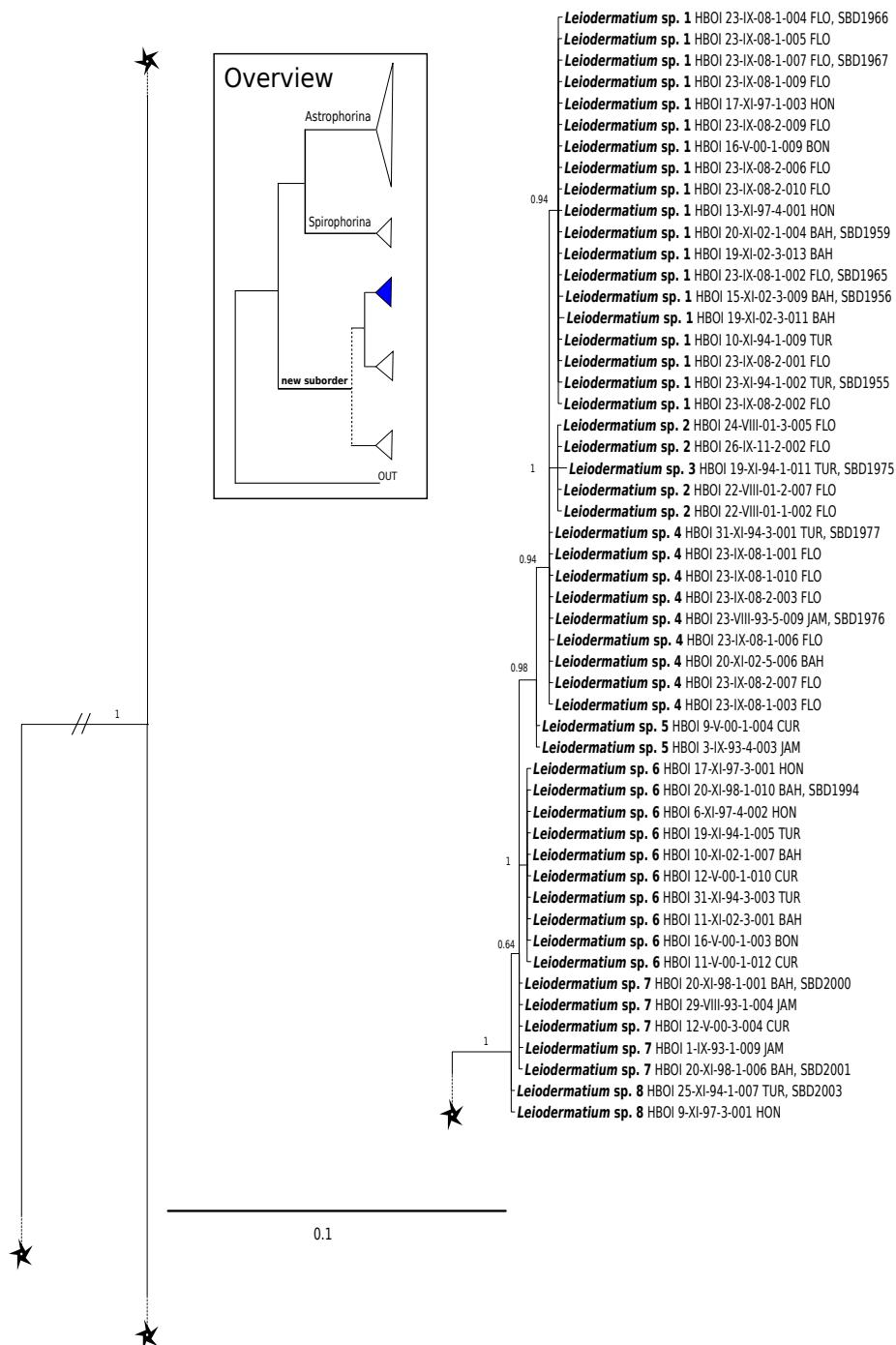


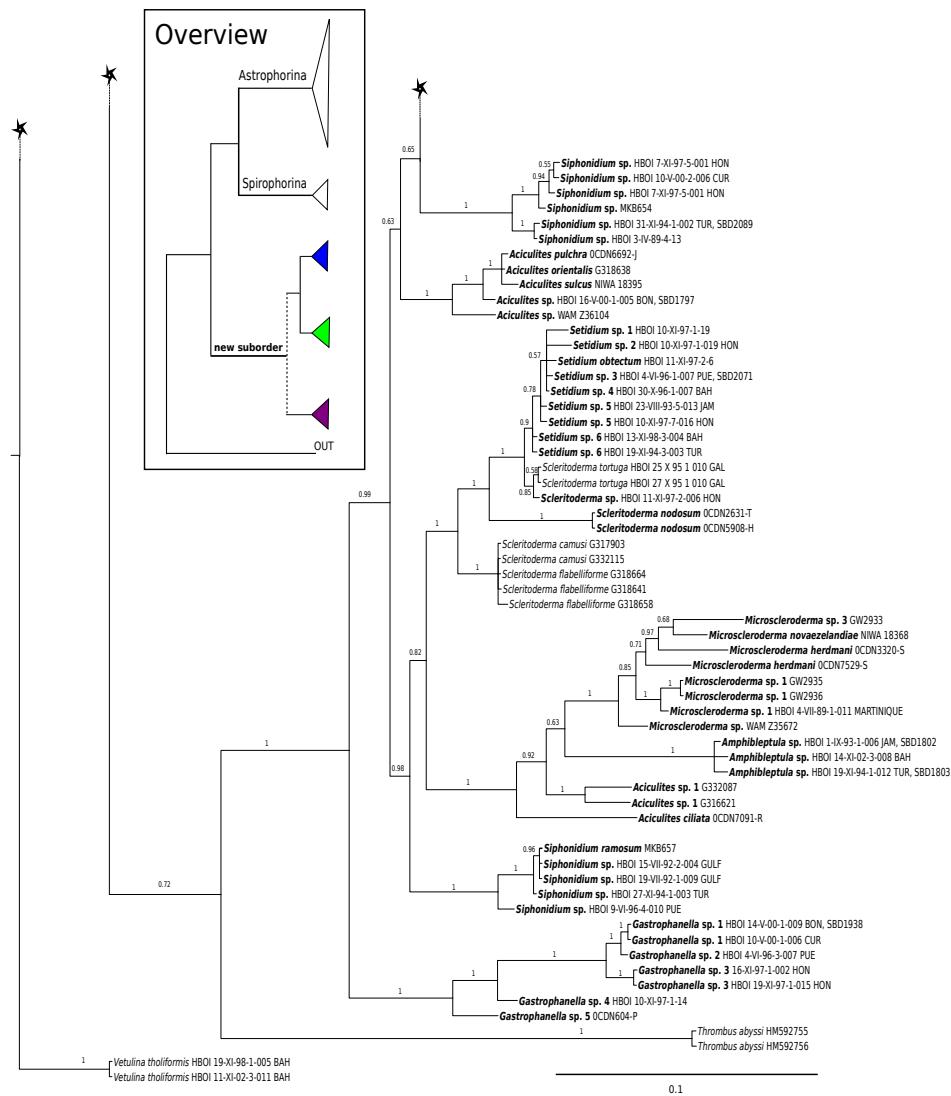




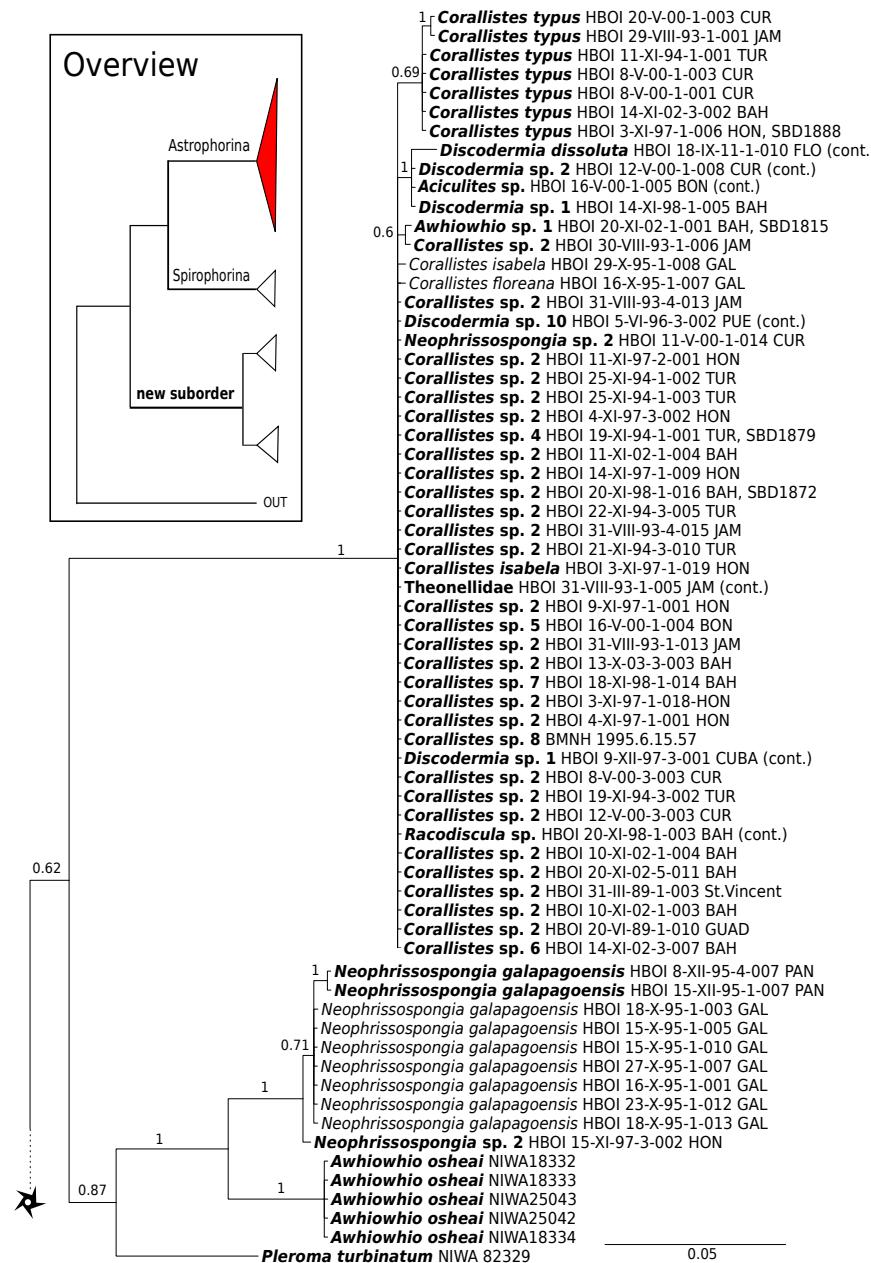


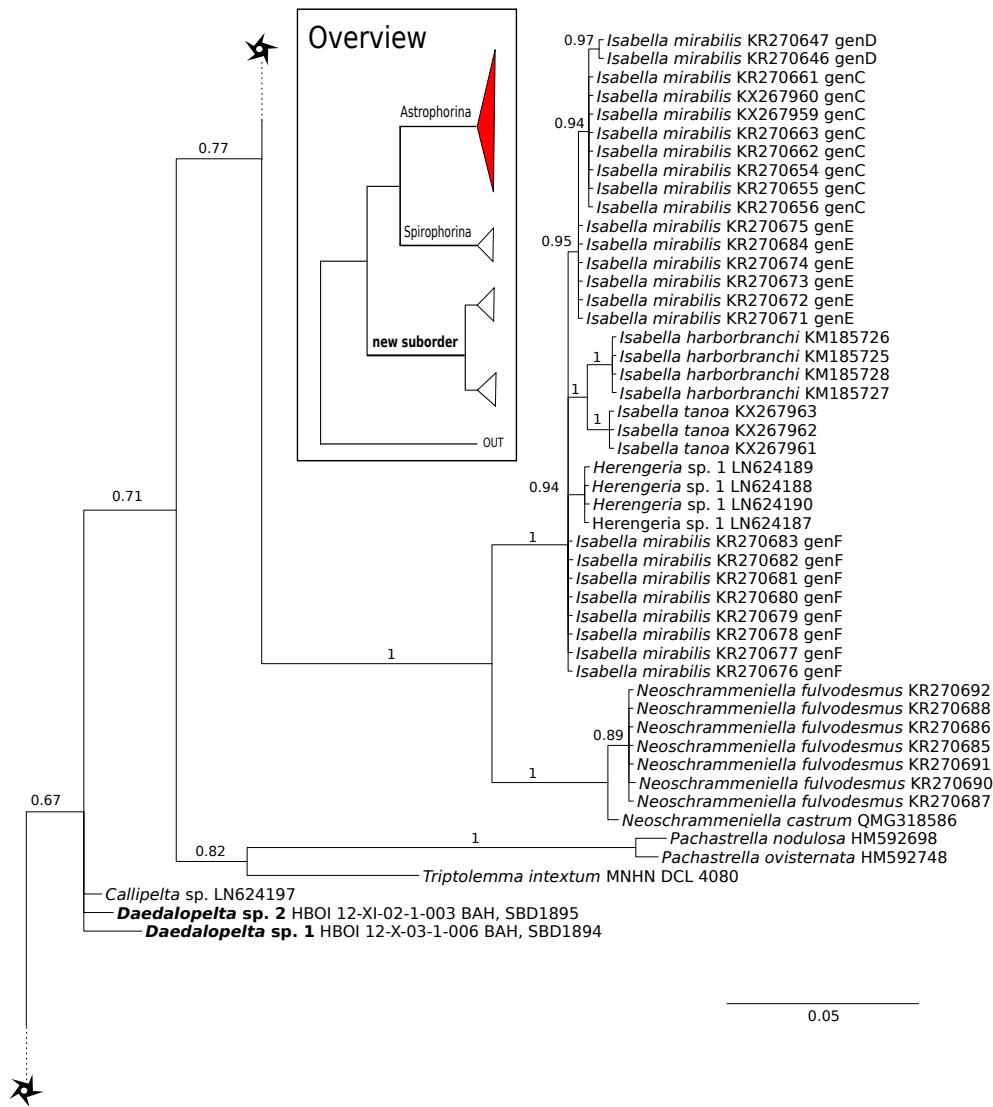


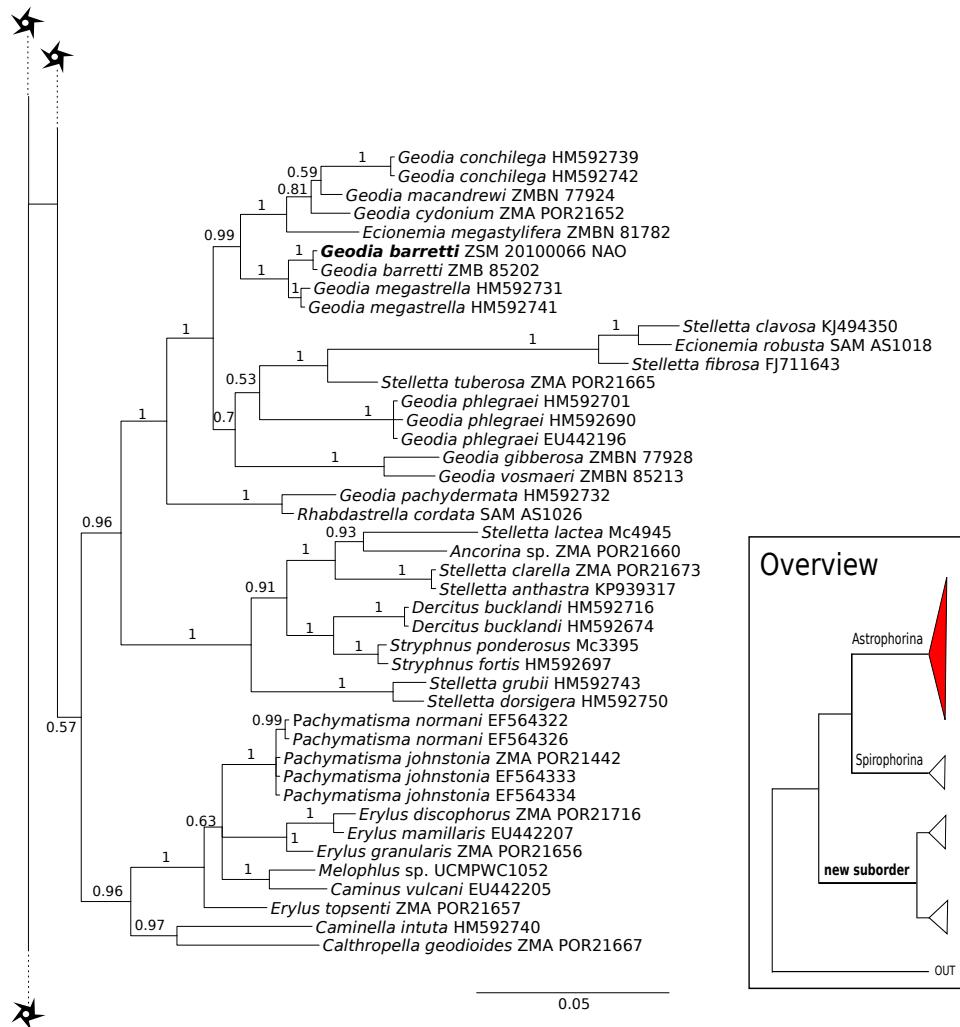


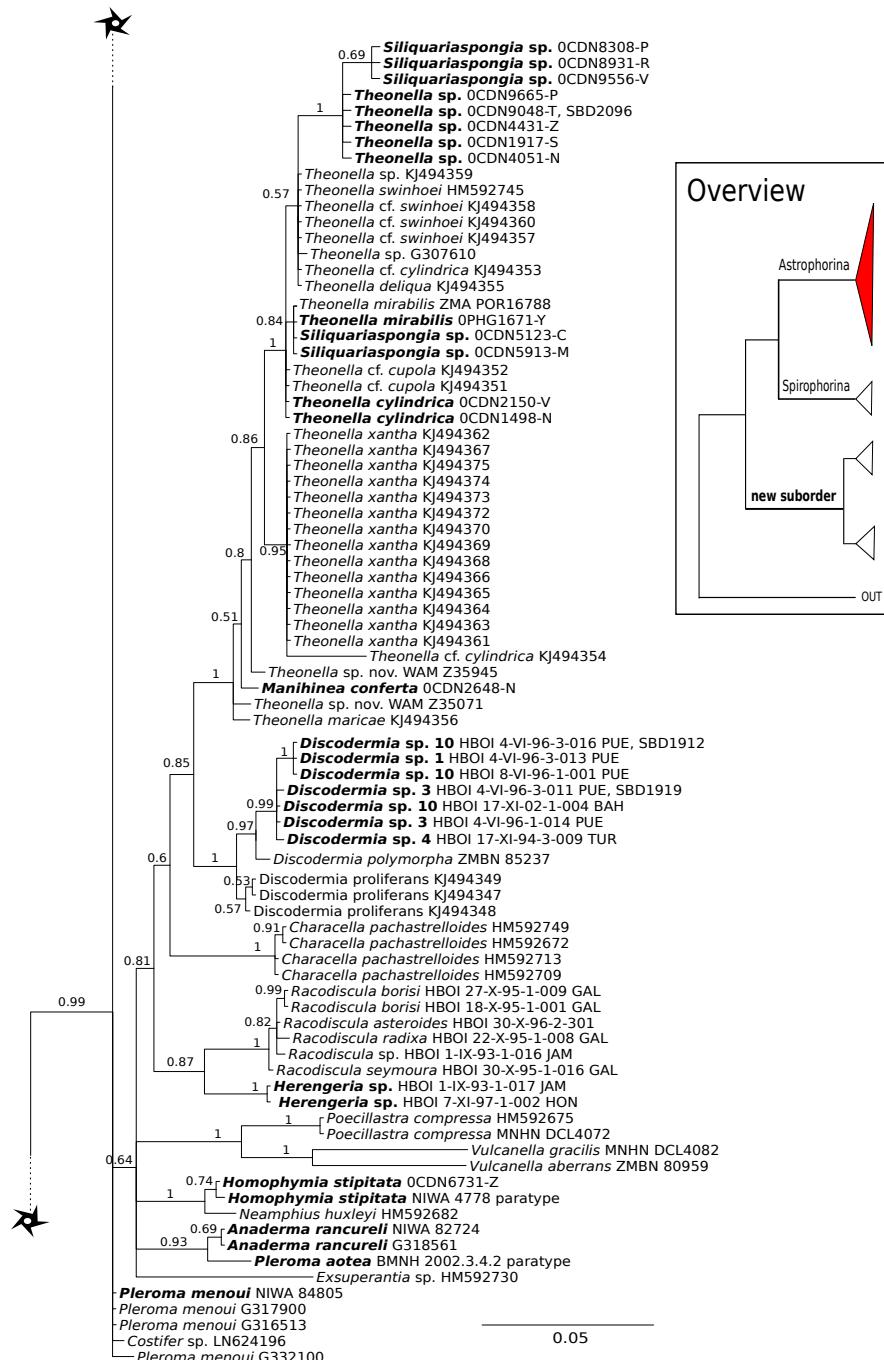
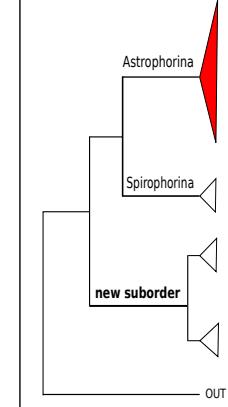


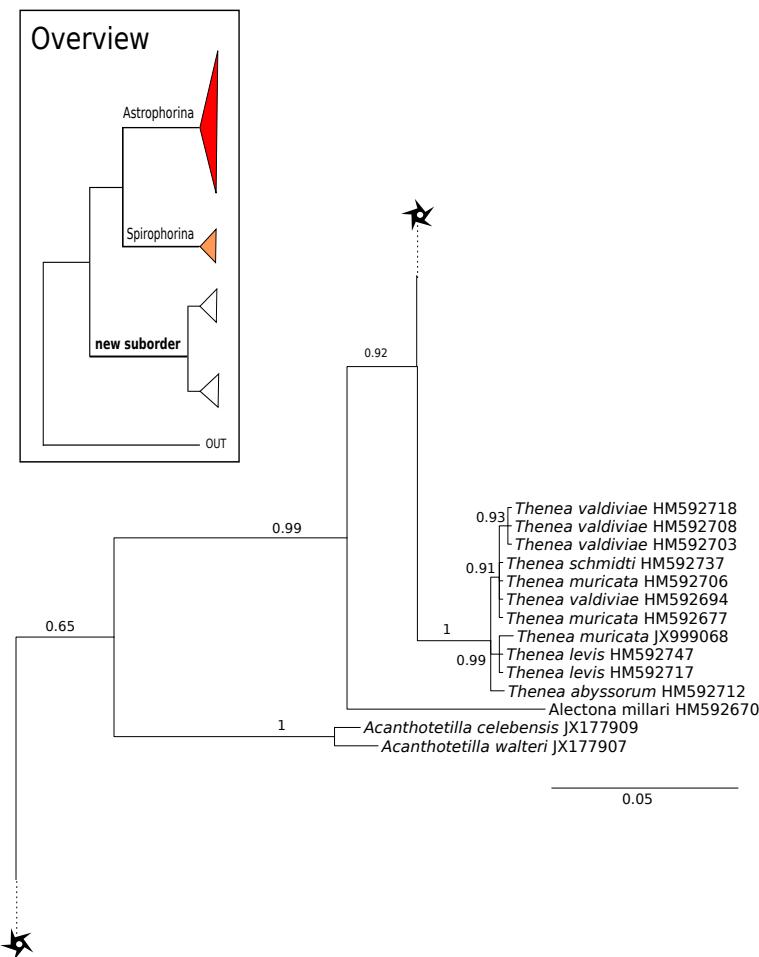
**Figure 3.** Bayesian Inference phylogeny of Tetractinellida based on 28S (C1-D2). Posterior probability (PP) values are provided above or below branches. Self-generated sequences are in bold. Numbers behind taxon names are either voucher numbers or GenBank/ENA accession numbers. Three letter code behind voucher numbers corresponds to the different locations (CUR=Curaçao, BON=Bonaire, StVIN=St. Vincent, MAR=Martinique, GUAD=Guadalupe, PUE=Puerto Rico, JAM=Jamaica, HON=Honduras, TUR & CAI=Turks & Caicos, BAH=Bahamas, FLO=Florida). Taxa where the morphology was investigated are indicated with

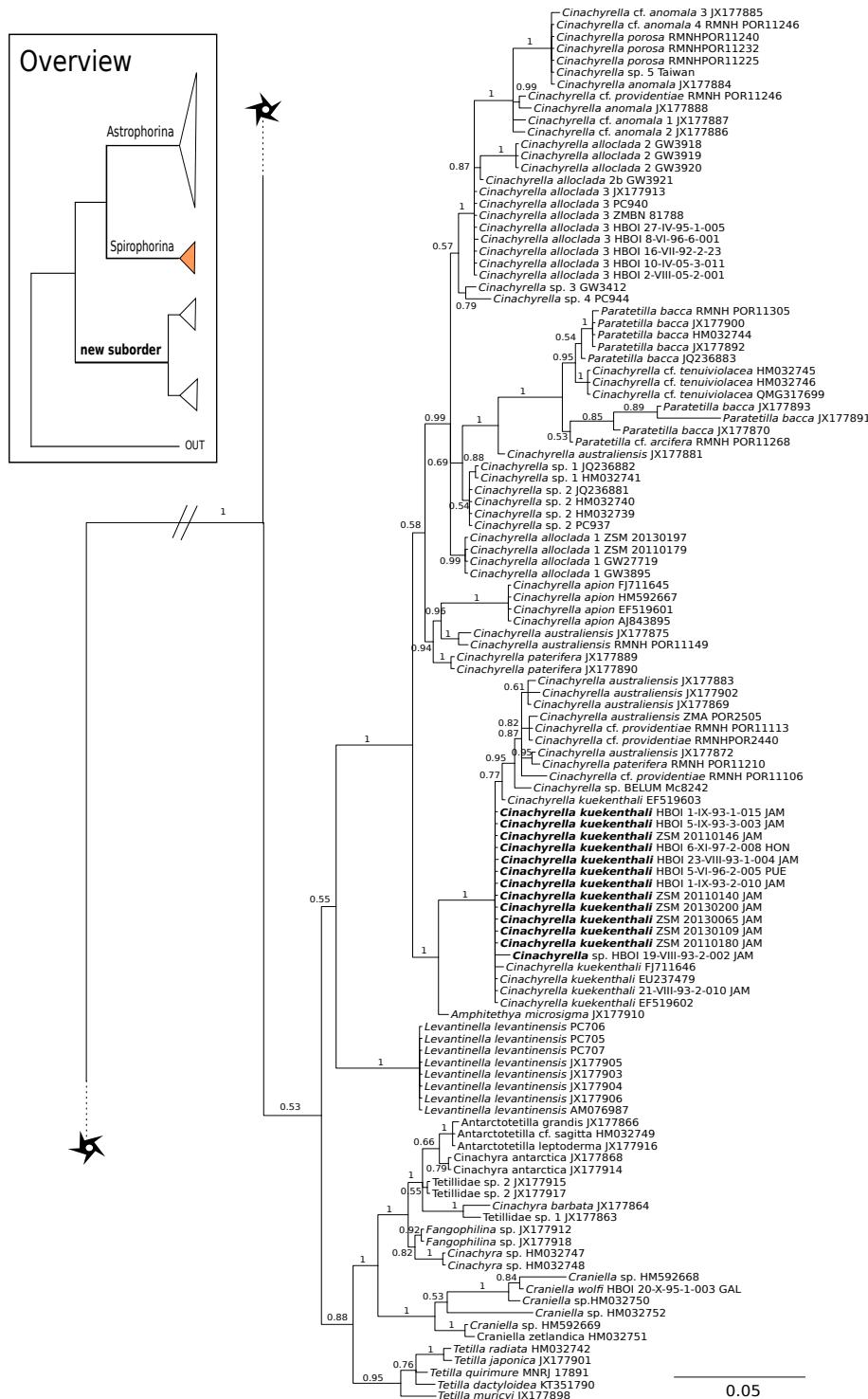


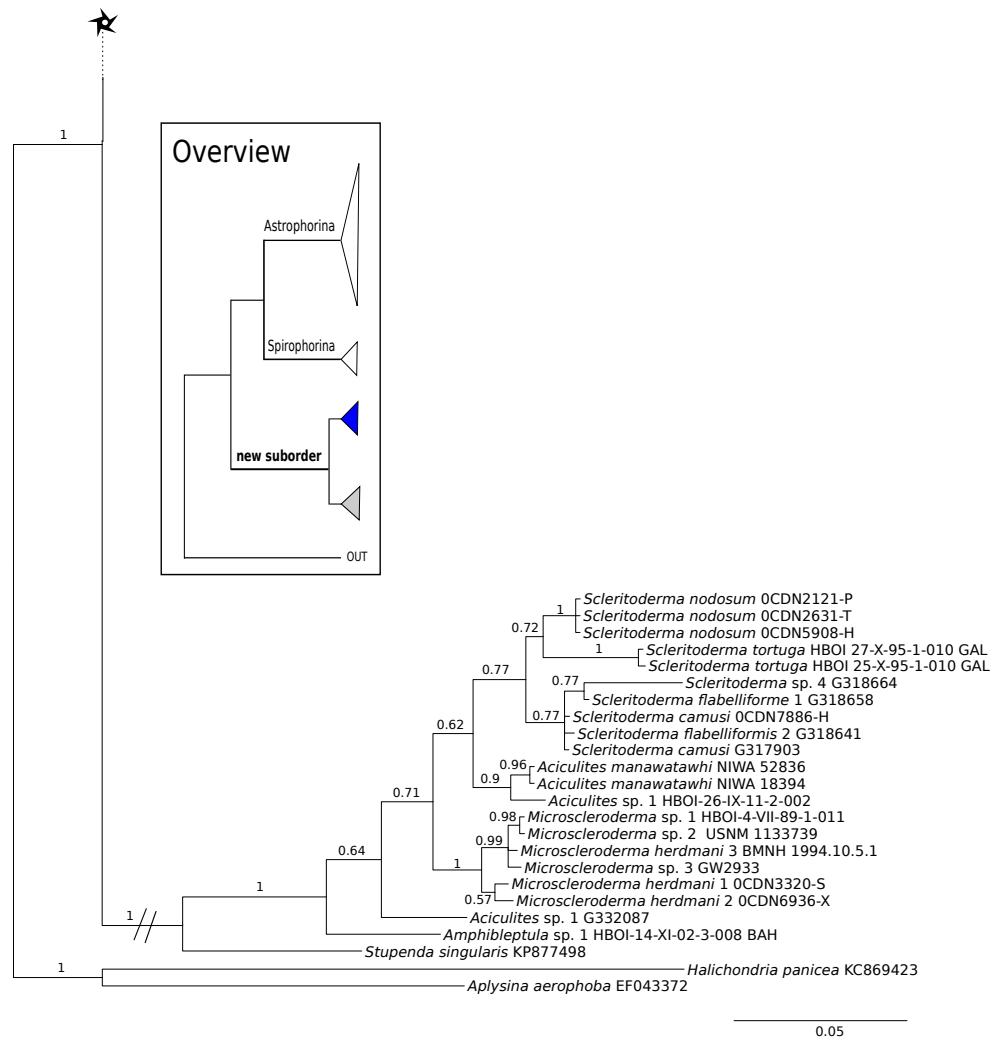




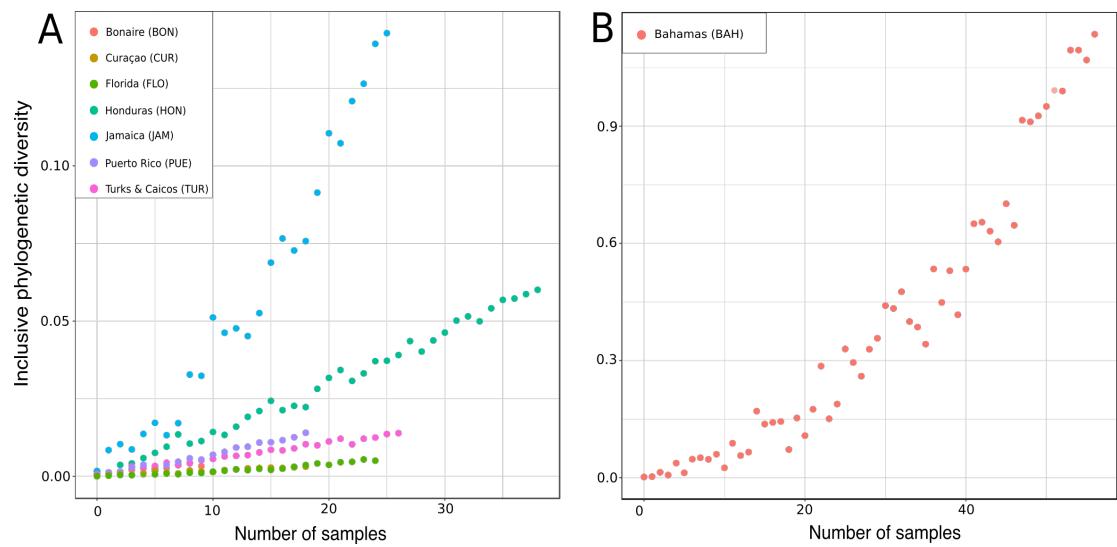
**Overview**



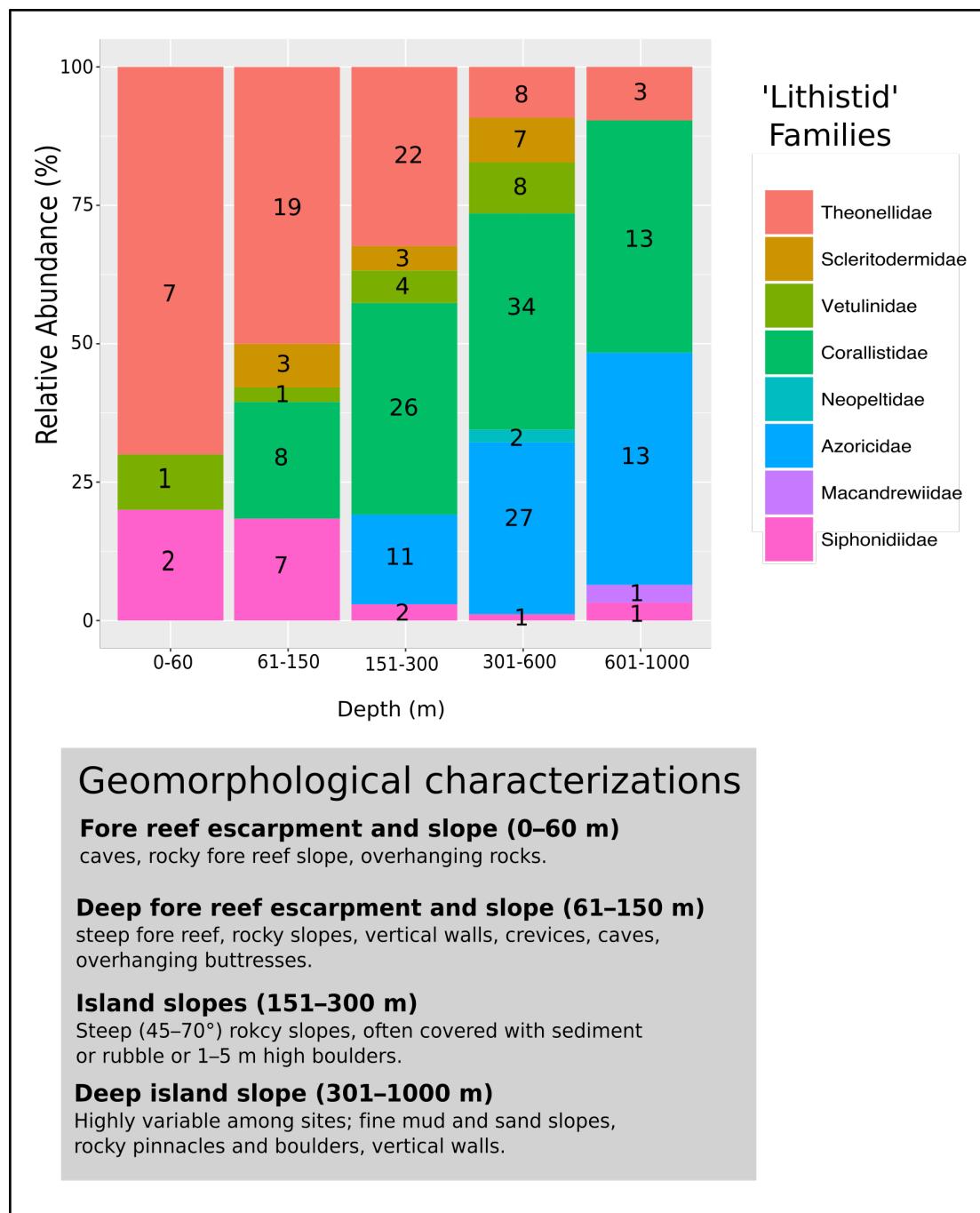




**Figure 4.** Bayesian Inference phylogeny of Tetractinellida based on *cox1*. Posterior probability (PP) values are provided above or below branches. Self-generated sequences are in bold. Numbers behind taxon names are either voucher numbers or GenBank/ENA accession numbers. Three letter code behind voucher numbers corresponds to the different locations (CUR=Curaçao, BON=Bonaire, StVIN=St. Vincent, MAR=Martinique, GUAD=Guadeloupe, PUE=Puerto Rico, JAM=Jamaica, HON=Honduras, TUR & CAI=Turks & Caicos, BAH=Bahamas, FLO=Florida). Taxa where the morphology was investigated are indicated with their corresponding SBD.



**Figure 5.** Rarified inclusive phylogenetic diversity ( $PD_I$ ) curves per marine regions analyzed. For a better visualization the  $PD_I$  for the Bahamas are illustrated separately (B) due to their larger number of samples.



**Figure 6.** Bathymetric distribution and relative abundance of TWA desma-bearing demosponges based on 234 samples of eight families. Numbers in each bar represent the number of samples investigated. The following genera for each family were included: *Leiodermatium* (Azoricidae); *Corallistes*, *Herengeria*, *Neophrissospongia* and *Awhiowhio* (Corallistidae); *Macandrewia* (Macandrewiidae); *Daedalopelta* and *Neopelta* (Neopeltidae); *Aciculites*, *Amphibleptula*, *Microscleroderma*, *Scleritoderma* and *Setidium* (Scleritodermidae); *Gastrophanella* and *Siphonidium* (Siphonidiidae); *Discodermia*, *Racodiscula* and *Theonella* (Theonellidae); *Vetulina* (Vetulinidae). Geomorphological characterizations of depth zones are given below the graph and follows Pomponi et al. 2001 and Reed and Pomponi (1997; 2001).