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Chapter 36F. Open Ocean Deep Sea

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Introduction to the open ocean deep sea

The deep sea comprises the seafloor, water column and biota therein below a specified depth contour. There are differences in views among experts and agencies regarding the appropriate depth to delineate the “deep sea”. This chapter uses a 200 metre depth contour as a starting point, so that the “deep sea” represents 63 per cent of the Earth’s surface area and about 98.5 per cent of Earth’s habitat volume (96.5 per cent of which is pelagic). However, much of the information presented in this chapter focuses on biodiversity of waters substantially deeper than 200 m. Many of the other regional divisions of Chapter 36 include treatments of shelf and slope biodiversity in continental-shelf and slope areas deeper than 200 m. Moreover Chapters 42 and 45 on cold water corals and vents and seeps, respectively, and 51 on canyons, seamounts and other specialized morphological habitat types address aspects of areas in greater detail. The estimates of global biodiversity of the deep sea in this chapter do include all biodiversity in waters and the seafloor below 200 m. However, in the other sections of this chapter redundancy with the other regional chapters is avoided, so that biodiversity of shelf, slope, reef, vents, and specialized habitats is assessed in the respective regional or thematic chapters.

This truly vast deep-sea realm constitutes the largest source of species and ecosystem diversity on Earth, with great potential for mineral, energy, and living resources (e.g., Koslow, 2007). Despite major technological advances and increased deep-sea exploration in the past few decades (Danovaro et al., 2014), a remarkably small portion of the deep sea has been investigated in detail (Ramirez-Llodra et al., 2010), particularly in terms of time-series research (Glover et al., 2010). For the pelagic areas much less than 0.0001 per cent of the over 1.3 billion km³ of deep water has been studied. The inevitable result is weaker characterization of deep-sea biodiversity compared to the shelf, slope and terrestrial realms. Correspondingly this also means that continued scientific and surveying efforts may potentially change our current understanding of deep-sea biodiversity. There is strong evidence that the richness and diversity of organisms in the deep sea exceeds all other known biomes from the metazoan to the microbial realms (Rex and Etter, 2010; Zinger et al., 2011) and supports the diverse ecosystem processes and functions necessary for the Earth’s natural systems to function (Thurber et al., 2014). Moreover, the extensive species, genetic, enzymatic, metabolic, and biogeochemical diversity

hosted by the deep ocean also holds the potential for new pharmaceutical and industrial applications. With up to millions of estimated deep-sea species (cf. Chapter 34; CoML, 2010; Grassle and Maciolek, 1992), although the true number of species may be less, (Appeltans et al., 2012, Costello et al., 2013; Mora et al., 2013a), it would take many generations to document deep-sea diversity in its entirety. In fact, this may not even be possible given the huge taxonomic effort required (Mora et al., 2013a) and the rate of species extinctions (Pimm et al., 1995). Nor is it necessary to have fully quantified deep-sea biodiversity to commence identification of risks and opportunities, and design of programmes for its conservation and sustainable use, even if new knowledge is later acquired that enables such programmes to be improved.

Over the years, deep-sea ecologists have posited several theories to explain high deep-sea biodiversity; many highlight aspects of habitat heterogeneity and the extended time scales at which the deep sea is thought to operate (e.g. Levin and Dayton, 2009; Rex and Etter, 2010; Snelgrove and Smith, 2002). Most experts agree that the presence of different habitats, along with temporal variation, critically support deep-sea diversity; for instance, geomorphological structures such as canyons, seamounts (Figure 36F.1; cf. Chapter 51), hydrothermal vents and methane seeps (cf. Chapter 45), as well as biotic structures, such as cold-water coral reefs (Figure 36F.1; Chapter 42), and whale falls sustain unique assemblages of organisms, diversifying the deep-sea species pool (Reed et al., 2013). At the same time, however, many deep-sea species are widely distributed (e.g., Havermans et al., 2013; Ingels et al., 2006; Pawlowski et al., 2007), although new genetic tools already suggest many species are less cosmopolitan than was previously thought. Small-scale heterogeneity further enhances diversity, through the provision of phytodetrital patches, biogenic structures such as sponges and xenophyophores, organic food falls, pits, and hillocks, (Buhl-Mortensen et al., 2010). Anthropogenic structures such as deep-water oil rigs and shipwrecks harbouring highly diverse faunal assemblages reflect deep-sea faunal responses to smaller-scale habitat heterogeneity (Church et al., 2009; Taylor et al., 2014; Friedlander et al., 2014).

Deep-sea ecosystems are crucial for global functioning; e.g., remineralization of organic matter in the deep sea regenerates nutrients that help fuel the oceanic primary production that accounts for about half of atmospheric oxygen production. Whilst coastal and shallow-water processes and functions produce services within tangible time scales and local and regional spatial scales, the deep-sea processes and ecosystem functions that occur on the scale of microns to meters and time scales up to years often translate to useful services only after centuries of integrated activity (Thurber et al., 2014). Evidence demonstrates, however, that interannual changes in climate can influence deep-sea systems over time scales not fundamentally different from terrestrial habitats. Climatically driven changes in sinking particulate organic matter can alter deep-sea abundance, community structure, diversity and functioning within days to months, depending in part on body size (Ruhl et al., 2008; Ruhl and Smith, 2004) along with temperature-driven interannual diversity changes (Danovaro et al., 2014).

Numerous human activities affect deep-sea ecosystems, goods, and services directly and indirectly now and will do so increasingly in the future (Glover and Smith, 2003;

Mengerink et al., 2014; Ramirez-Llodra et al., 2011). These are addressed in various chapters of Parts IV and V of this Assessment, with Chapters 11 (Capture Fisheries), 21 (Offshore Hydrocarbon Industries), 20 (Land-based Inputs), 23 (Other Mining Industries), 25 (Marine debris) and 27 (Tourism) of particular relevance.

Benthic realm

2.1 Deep-sea margins

The global continental margins extend for ~150,000 km (Jahnke, 2010) and encompass estuarine, open coast, shelf, canyon, slope, and enclosed-sea ecosystems (Levin and Sibuet, 2012). Deep-sea margins are those areas that lie beyond the shelf break, where the seafloor slopes down to the continental rise at abyssal depths, and encompasses bathyal depths. Numerous canyons and channels incise the continental slope (see Chapter 51), often featuring cold-water coral reefs (Chapter 42) or oxygen minimum zones (OMZs) as distinct habitats along the deep margin. Sediment covers much of the deep continental margin, but with exposed bedrock in areas where topography is too steep for sediment accumulation (e.g., steep canyon walls) or where sediment is washed away (e.g., parts of seamounts). Different faunas inhabit soft- and hard-bottom substrates.

Relative to their area, the margins account for a disproportionately large fraction of global primary production (10-15 per cent), nutrient recycling, carbon burial (>60 per cent of total settling organic carbon), and fisheries production (Muller-Karger et al., 2005). They are also exceptionally dynamic systems with ecosystem structures that can oscillate slowly or shift abruptly, but rarely remain static (Levin et al., 2014).

1.1.1 Status of and trends for biodiversity

In the well-studied North Atlantic, local macrofaunal (300 µm-3 cm) species diversity on the continental slope exceeds that of the adjacent continental shelf, and estimates of bathyal diversity in other parts of the world ocean are comparably high (Rex and Etter, 2010), but local environmental conditions drive regional differences: e.g., the Gulf of Mexico, the Norwegian and Mediterranean Seas (Narayanaswamy et al., 2013), the Eastern Pacific and the Arabian Sea (Levin et al., 2001). Most researchers agree that habitat heterogeneity on different spatial scales drives high diversity along the margins (Narayanaswamy et al., 2013) and that margins often exhibit upwelling and increased production that enhances biodiversity. Nonetheless, excess food availability can reduce diversity.

Depth-related species diversity gradients in macrofauna often peak unimodally at mid-bathyal depths of about 1500-2000 m (Rex and Etter, 2010), although shallower peaks in diversity have been observed in Arctic waters (Narayanaswamy et al., 2005; 2010; Svavarsson, 1997; Yasuhara et al., 2012b) for bivalves, polychaetes, gastropods and cumaceans (Rex, 1981), as well as for the entire macrofauna (Etter and Mullineaux, 2000; Levin et al., 2001) and some meiofauna (Yasuhara et al., 2012b) (32 µm-1000 µm). Even regions with very low diversity can host highly specialized species (e.g., OMZs) and contribute to overall margin diversity (Gooday et al., 2010).

Thus, throughout their depth gradient, continental margin slope areas exhibit the highest macrofaunal diversity and offer a potentially important refuge against future climate change, as mobile organisms could migrate upslope or downslope in search of suitable conditions (Rodriguez-Lazaro and Cronin, 1999; Yasuhara et al., 2008; 2009).

The diversity of meiofauna (32 μm -1,000 μm) exceeds that of the macrofauna and their diversity generally increases with depth; however, groups such as foraminifera and ostracods exhibit unimodal peaks in diversity (Yasuhara et al., 2012b). Meiofaunal diversity may decline or increase with increasing bathyal depths (Narayanaswamy et al., 2013), generally driven by food availability and intensity and regularity of disturbance regimes, as well as by temperature and local environmental conditions (Corliss et al., 2009; Yasuhara et al., 2012a; 2009; 2012b; 2014).

Russian and Scandinavian deep-sea expeditions described peak benthic megafaunal (>3 cm) diversity at mid-bathyal depths as early as the 1950s and 1960s, despite observing much lower megafaunal than meio- and macrofaunal diversity (Vinogradova, 1959). Sponges, cnidarians, crustaceans (decapods and isopods) and echinoderms (echinoids, asteroids, crinoids, holothurians) all display this pattern; however later studies confirmed the pattern for some megafaunal invertebrates, but showed a decline or even increase in diversity with increasing depth for some taxa. Evidence to date suggests lower species richness in deep-sea bacterial communities than in coastal benthic environments, with the caveat that deep-sea environments remain underexplored (Zinger et al., 2011). However, the presence of extreme environments in the deep sea which have high phylogenetic diversity promises a rich source of bacterial diversity and genetic innovation (Sogin et al., 2006).

Several faunal groups also exhibit latitudinal gradients in species diversity (Narayanaswamy et al., 2010; Rex and Etter, 2010; Yasuhara et al., 2009): diversity of crustaceans, molluscs and foraminifera declines poleward (Gage et al., 2004; Rex et al., 2000), whilst others such as nematodes respond to phytodetrital input (Lambshhead et al., 2000). Latitudinal gradients have also been identified in bacteria (Fuhrman et al., 2008; Sul et al., 2013) but recent modelling indicates peak bacterial richness in temperate areas in winter (Ladau et al., 2013). The effect of seasons on macro-ecological patterns in the microbial ocean warrants continued investigation to test the mechanisms that underlie latitudinal patterns in different fauna.

Broad-scale depth and latitudinal patterns in benthic diversity are modified regionally by a variety of environmental factors operating at different scales. For example, OMZs strongly affect diversity where they impinge on the seafloor. OMZs typically occur between 200 m and 1000 m, often at major carbon burial sites along the continental margins where high productivity results in high carbon fluxes to the seafloor and low oxygen. The organic-rich sediments of these regions often support mats of large sulphide-oxidizing bacteria (*Thioploca*, *Beggiatoa*, *Thiomargarita*), and high-density, low-diversity metazoan assemblages. Protists are also well represented in OMZs such as the Cariaco Basin, where representatives of all major protistan clades occur (Edgcomb et al., 2011). Depressed diversity near OMZs centres favours taxa that can tolerate hypoxia, such as nematodes (Cook et al., 2000; Levin, 2003) and certain annelids and foraminifera (Levin, 2003). Other taxa that cannot tolerate

low-oxygen conditions may aggregate at the OMZs fringes where food is often abundant.

1.1.2 Major pressures

Multiple anthropogenic influences affect deep-sea habitats located close to land (e.g., canyons, fjords, upper slopes when continental shelves are very narrow), including organic matter loading (see Chapter 20), mine tailings disposal (Kvassnes and Iversen, 2013; Kvassnes et al., 2009), litter (Pham et al., 2014), bottom trawling (Pusceddu et al., 2014) and overfishing (Clark et al., 2007), enhanced or decreased terrestrial input, oil and gas exploitation (Ramirez-Llodra et al., 2011) and, potentially in future, deep-sea mining (see Chapter 23). Fishing on margins can also have indirect ecological effects at deeper depths (Bailey et al., 2009). These anthropogenic influences can modify deep-margin habitats through physical smothering and disturbance, sediment resuspension, organic loading, and toxic contamination and plume formation, with concomitant losses in biodiversity, declining energy flow back to higher trophic levels, and impacts on physiology from exposure to toxic compounds (e.g., hydrocarbons, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), heavy metals) (see Ramirez-Llodra et al., 2011 for review).

2.2 Abyss

2.2.1 Status and trends for biodiversity

The abyss (~3-6 km water depth) encompasses the largest area on Earth. Its vast areas of seafloor plains and rolling hills are generally covered in fine sediments with hard substrates associated with manganese nodules, rock outcrops and topographic highs (e.g. seamounts). The absence of *in situ* primary production in this comparatively stable habitat (apart from scant occurrence of chemosynthesis at hydrothermal vents and cold seeps; cf. Chapter 45) characterize an ecosystem adapted to a limiting and variable rain of particulate detrital material that sinks from euphotic zones. Nonetheless, the abyss supports higher levels of alpha and beta diversity of meiofauna, macrofauna and megafauna than was recognized only decades ago (Rex and Etter, 2010). The prevalence of environmental DNA preserved in the deep sea biases estimates of richness, at least in the microbial domain, adding a challenge to biodiversity study in the abyss using molecular methods (Pawlowski et al., 2011).

Despite poorly known biodiversity patterns at regional to global scales (especially regarding species ranges and connectivity), some regions, such as the abyssal Southern Ocean (Brandt et al., 2007; Griffiths, 2010) and the Pacific equatorial abyss, are likely to represent major reservoirs of biodiversity (Smith et al., 2008).

2.2.2 Major pressures

The food-limited nature of abyssal ecosystems, and reliance on particulate organic carbon (POC) flux from above, suggest that all groups, from microbes to megafauna, will be highly sensitive to changes in phytoplankton productivity and community structure, and especially to changes in the quantity and quality of the export flux (Billett et al., 2010; Ruhl et al., 2008; Ruhl and Smith, 2004; Smith et al., 2008; Smith

et al.,2013). Climate warming in some broad areas may increase ocean stratification, reduce primary production, and shift the dominant phytoplankton community structure from diatoms to picoplankton, and reduce export efficiency, driving biotic changes over major regions of the abyss, such as the equatorial Pacific (Smith et al., 2008). However the effects of climate change, including ocean warming, on biodiversity are likely to vary regionally and among species groups in ways that are poorly resolved with current models and knowledge of ecosystem dynamics in the deep sea. In the future, deep sea mining may also become a pressure on abyssal areas of the deep sea, and potential effects are addressed in Chapter 21.

2.3 *Hadal*

2.3.1 *The Hadal zone*

The Hadal zone, comprising ocean floor deeper than 6000 m, encompasses 3,437,930 km², or less than 1 per cent of total ocean area (Harris et al., 2014) and represents 45 per cent of its depth and related gradients. Over 80 separate basins or depressions in the sea floor comprise the hadal zone, dominated by 7 great trenches (>6500 m) around the margins of the Pacific Ocean, five of which extend to over 10 km depth: the Japan-Kuril-Kamchatka, Kermadec, Tonga, Mariana, and Philippine trenches. The Arctic Ocean and Mediterranean Sea lack hadal depths. These trenches are often at the intersection of tectonic plates, exposing them as potential epicentres of severe earthquakes which can directly cause local and catastrophic disturbance to the trench fauna.

2.3.2 *Status and trends for biodiversity*

Although the hadal zone contains a wide range of macro- and megafaunal taxa (cnidarians, polychaetes, bivalves, gastropods, amphipods, decapods, echinurids, holothurians, asteroids, echinoids, sipunculids, ophiuroids and fishes (Beliaev, 1989; Wolff, 1970), all trenches occur below the Carbonate Compensation Depth (CCD), reducing the numbers of calcified protozoan and metazoan species found there (Jamieson, 2011). Chemosynthetic seep biota, including vesicomid and thyasirid clams, occur in hadal depths in the Japan Trench; the deepest known methane seeps and associated communities are found at 7,434 m in this area (Fujikura et al., 1999; Watanabe et al., 2010). Cold seep communities also commonly occur in trench areas, such as the Aleutian and Kuril Trenches (Juniper and Sibuet, 1987; Ogawa et al., 1996; Suess et al., 1998). Benthic foraminifera are among the most widespread taxa at hadal depths and include calcareous, large agglutinated, and organic walled species (Beliaev, 1989; Gooday et al., 2008). Abundant metazoan meiofaunal taxa, such as nematodes, at hadal depths (Gambi et al., 2003; Itoh et al., 2011; Kitahashi et al., 2013; Tietjen, 1989; Vanhove et al., 2004) may exceed those found at bathyal depths by 10-fold (Danovaro et al., 2002); small numbers of ostracods, halacarids, cumaceans, kinorhynchs, and meiofaunal-sized bivalves are also found there (Vanhove et al., 2004). Nematode and copepod communities in trenches differ greatly from those found at bathyal and abyssal depths (Gambi et al., 2003; Kitahashi et al., 2013), driven by opportunistic taxa and meiofaunal dwarfism in trench systems (Danovaro et al., 2002; Gambi et al., 2003).

Although not yet well quantified, and the mechanisms remain to be discerned, higher densities of fauna (Jamieson et al., 2009) and respiration have been found at trench axis points than would be expected from a purely vertical rain of POC flux (Glud et al., 2013). The exact number of species in trenches is not known, but the few quantitative studies made so far suggest that diversity is lower compared to diversity at abyssal depths (Grassle, 1989). Reasons for the lower diversity levels are not well understood but the high pressure, relatively high food supply and organic matter accumulation, relatively elevated temperature (due to adiabatic heating), or a combination thereof may attenuate trench diversity.

Sampling to date suggests that hadal basins are populated by a higher proportion of endemic species compared to much shallower waters, species that can survive the extreme hydrostatic pressure and, in some instances, remoteness from surface food supply (Wolff, 1970). Physiological and other evidence suggests that fishes cannot survive at depths greater than 8000 m (Yancey et al., 2014); the deepest hadal fish, the liparids (snail-fish), are unique to each trench system. Decapod crustaceans have been observed only to 8200 m (Gallo et al., in revision).

At depths over 8000 m, scavenging amphipod crustaceans dominate the mobile megafauna, along with potential predators, including penaeid shrimp, princaxelid amphipods and ulmarid jellyfish, as observed in the New Britain Trench and the Sirena Deep (Mariana Trench). Comparison of scavenging and epibenthic/demersal biota suggests that density, diversity, and incidence of demersal (near bottom) lifestyles all increase with greater food supply (Blankenship and Levin, 2007; Blankenship et al., 2006).

Wide separation between trenches in the northern and southern hemispheres and between the different oceans has likely facilitated speciation to result in distinct assemblages of fauna in each hadal basin (Fujii et al., 2013). Some 75 per cent of the species in Pacific Ocean trenches may be endemic to each trench. Despite their remoteness from the surface, many hadal trenches are close to land and receive organic inputs from terrestrial and coastal sources, yielding higher mega-, macro- and meio-faunal densities than expected for greater depths (Danovaro et al., 2003; Danovaro et al., 2002; Jamieson, 2011; Jumars and Hessler, 1976; Vanhove et al., 2004).

2.3.3 Major pressures

The proximity of some trenches to land also increases their vulnerability to human activity in terms of dumping of materials and effluents, as well as from disaster debris, run off from land and pollution from ships. Some of these items, including anthropogenic litter, have been observed down to 7,200 m depth (George and Higgins, 1979). Evidence for the vulnerability of trench fauna is also provided by the levels of the radioisotope ^{134}Cs detected in sediments in the Japan Trench, four months after the Fukushima Dai-ichi nuclear disaster (Oguri et al., 2013).

2.3.4 Knowledge gaps

Trenches are arguably the most difficult deep-sea environments to access and current facilities are very limited worldwide, and consequently knowledge of their biodiversity is particularly incomplete.

In general, biodiversity patterns of non-nematode meiofauna and non-foraminiferal protists are especially poorly known in the deep sea.

Most information about biodiversity in the deep sea is for the predominant soft-substrate habitats. However, hard substrates abound in the deep sea in nearly all settings, and organisms that cannot be seen in a photograph or video image are hard to sample and study quantitatively. Thus knowledge of small-taxon biodiversity is best developed for deep-sea sediments.

Beyond cataloguing diversity, even in those systems we have characterized, almost nothing is known about the ranges of species, connectivity patterns or resilience of assemblages and their sensitivity to climate stressors or direct human disturbance. There is also currently a lack of appropriate tools to adequately evaluate human benefits that are derived from the deep sea (Jobstvogt et al., 2014a; 2014b; Thurber et al., 2014).

Pelagic realm

3.1 Status and trends for biodiversity

Between the deep-sea bottom and the sunlit surface waters are the open waters of the deep pelagic or “midwater” environment. This huge volume of water is the least explored environment on our planet (Webb et al., 2010). The deep pelagic realm is very diffuse, with generally low apparent abundances of inhabitants, although recent observations from submersibles indicate that some species may concentrate into narrow depth bands (Herring, 2002).

The major physical characteristics structuring the pelagic ecosystems are depth and pressure, temperature, and the penetration of sunlight. Below the surface zone (or epipelagic, down to about 200 m), the deep layer where sunlight penetrates with insufficient intensity to support primary production, is called the mesopelagic zone. In some geographic areas, microbial degradation of organic matter sinking from the surface zone results in low oxygen concentrations in the mesopelagic, called OMZs (Robinson et al., 2010). This mesopelagic zone is a particularly important habitat for fauna controlling the depth of CO₂ sequestration (Giering et al., 2014).

Below the depth to which sunlight can penetrate (about 1,000 m) is the largest layer of the deep pelagic realm and by far the largest ecosystem on our planet, the bathypelagic region. This comprises almost 75 per cent of the volume of the ocean and is mostly remote from the influence of the bottom and its communities. Temperatures there are usually just a few degrees Celsius above zero. The boundary layer where both physical and biological interactions with the bottom occur is called ‘benthopelagic’.

The transitions between the various vertical layers are gradients, not fixed surfaces; hence ecological distinctions among the zones are somewhat blurred across the transitions. Recent surveys have shown a great deal of connectivity between the major pelagic depth zones (Sutton, 2013). The abundance and biomass of organisms generally varies among these layers from a maximum near the surface, decreasing

through the mesopelagic, to very low levels in the bathypelagic, increasing somewhat in the benthopelagic (Angel, 1997; Haedrich, 1996). Although abundances are low, because such a huge volume of the ocean is bathypelagic, even species that are rarely encountered may have very large total population numbers (Herring, 2002).

The life cycles of deep-sea animals often involve shifts in vertical distribution among developmental stages. Even more spectacular are the daily vertical migrations of many mesopelagic species (Benoit-Bird and Au, 2006; Hays, 2003). This vertical migration may increase physical mixing of the ocean water and also contributes to a "biological pump" that drives the movement of carbon compounds and nutrients from the surface waters into the deep ocean (Robinson et al., 2010).

Sampling the deep pelagic biome shares the logistical difficulties of other deep-sea sampling, compounded by the extremely large volume and temporal variability of the environment and the widely dispersed populations of its inhabitants. New species continue to be discovered regularly. Whereas scientific information on the composition of mesopelagic assemblages is rapidly improving, very little is known of the structure of the deeper lower bathyal and abyssal pelagic zones.

Possibly because of high mobility and transport by ocean current, the overall diversity of species seems to be less than that found in other ecosystems (Angel, 1997). However, the number of distinct major evolutionary groups (i.e., phyla, classes, etc.) found in the deep pelagic is high.

Studies of microbes and their roles in the deep pelagic ecosystems are just beginning to reveal the great diversity of such organisms. The species richness of deep ocean bacteria surpasses that of the surface open ocean (Zinger et al., 2011).

As is true in other pelagic systems, crustaceans make up a large percentage of the deep zooplankton in both abundance and numbers of species. These crustaceans include numerous and diverse copepods, amphipods, ostracods and other major groups. Some groups, like arrow worms, are almost all pelagic and are important in deep waters. Large gelatinous animals, including comb jellies, jellyfishes, colonial siphonophores, salps and pyrosomes, are extremely important in deep pelagic ecosystems (Robison, 2004).

The strong swimmers of the deep pelagic, the "nekton", include many species of fishes and some sharks, crustaceans (shrimps, krill, and other shrimplike animals), and cephalopods (including squids, "dumbo" and other octopods, and "vampire squids") (Hoving et al., 2014). In terms of global fish abundance, deep pelagic fishes are by far the numerically dominant constituents; the genus *Cyclothone* alone outnumbers all coastal fishes combined and is likely to be the most abundant vertebrate on earth. Furthermore, at an estimated ~1,000 million tons, mesopelagic fishes dominate the world's total fish biomass and constitute a major component of the global carbon cycle. Acoustic surveys now suggest that an accurate figure of mesopelagic fish biomass may be an order of magnitude higher (10,000 - 15,000 million tons; Irigoien et al., 2014; Kaartvedt et al., 2012; Koslow, 2009). When bathypelagic fish biomass is included, deep pelagic fish biomass is likely to be the overwhelming majority of fish biomass on Earth (Sutton, 2013). The deep pelagic fauna is also important prey for mammals (toothed whales and elephant seals) and

even birds (emperor penguins) and reptiles (leatherback sea turtles). The amount of deep-sea squids consumed by sperm whales alone annually has been estimated to exceed the total landings of fisheries worldwide (Rodhouse and Nigmatullin, 1996).

Horizontal patterns exist in the global distribution of deep pelagic organisms. However, the faunal boundaries of deep pelagic assemblages are less distinct than those of near-surface or benthic assemblages (Pierrot-Bults and Angel, 2012). Generally, the low-latitude oligotrophic regimes that make up the majority of the global ocean house more species than higher-latitude regimes (Hopkins et al., 1996). Some major oceanic frontal boundaries, such as the polar and subpolar fronts, extend down into deep waters and appear to form biogeographic boundaries, although the distinctness of those boundaries may decrease with increasing depth.

The dark environment also means that production of light by bioluminescence is almost universal among deep pelagic organisms. Some animals produce the light independently, whereas others are symbiotic with luminescent bacteria.

3.2 *Major pressures*

A fundamental biological characteristic throughout the deep pelagic biome is that little or no primary production occurs and deep pelagic organisms are dependent on food produced elsewhere. Therefore, changes in surface productivity will be reflected in changes in the deep midwater. When midwater animals migrate into the surface waters at night, they are subjected to predation by near-surface species. Shifts in the abundance of those predators will affect the populations of the migrators and, indirectly, the deeper species that interact with the vertical migrators at their deeper daytime depths. Either or both of these effects may be caused by global climate change, fishing pressure and the impact of pollutants in surface waters (Robinson et al., 2010; Robison, 2009).

Climate change will likely increase stratification caused by warming of surface waters and expanded OMZs resulting from the interaction of shifts in productivity with increased stratification. If the so-called conveyor-belt of global circulation weakens, transport of oxygen by the production of deep water will affect the entire deep sea. The biomass of mesopelagic fishes in the California Current, for instance, has declined dramatically during recent decades of reduced midwater oxygen concentrations (Koslow et al., 2011). Furthermore, increases in carbon dioxide resulting in acidification may affect diverse deep pelagic animals, including pteropods (swimming snails) and crustaceans which use calcium carbonate to build their exoskeletons, fishes that need it for internal skeletons, and cephalopods for their balance organs. Acidification also changes how oxygen is transported in the blood of animals and those living in areas of low oxygen concentration may therefore be less capable of survival and reproduction (Rosa and Seibel, 2008).

Few fisheries currently target deep pelagic species, but fisheries do affect the ecosystem. Whaling reduced worldwide populations of sperm whales and pilot whales to a small fraction of historical levels (Roman et al., 2014). Similarly, fisheries for surface predators such as sharks, tunas and billfishes, and on seamounts, reduce

predation pressure, particularly on vertical migrators like squids and lantern fishes (Zeidberg and Robison, 2007).

Increasing extraction of deep-sea hydrocarbon resources increases the likelihood of accidental deep release of oil and methane (Mengerink et al., 2014), as well as the deep use of dispersants to minimize apparent effects of such spills at the surface (See Chapter 21).

Deep sea mining and some forms of renewable energy production may also affect the pelagic realm of the deep ocean (Ramirez-Llodra et al., 2011), and potential effects are addressed in Chapters 23 and 22 respectively.

3.3 *Knowledge gaps*

Any summary of deep pelagic ecosystems emphasizes how little is known, especially relative to coastal systems. Sampling has been intensively conducted in only a few geographic areas, using selective methods, each of which illuminates only a fraction of the biodiversity. Sampling at lower bathyal or abyssal depths has been limited, and virtually nothing is known about pelagic fauna associated with deep trenches. There is also limited knowledge of the performance of conservation and management measures developed for coastal and shelf marine ecosystems when applied in deep ocean systems characterized by large spatial scales and variable but sometimes vertically and/or horizontally high-mobility organisms, and incomplete knowledge of ecosystem structure and processes.

Special areas typical for the open ocean deep sea

4.1 *Ocean ridges*

The Mid-Ocean Ridge system is a continuous single feature on the earth's surface extending ca. 50,000 km around the planet; it defines the axis along which new oceanic crust is generated at tectonic plate boundaries (Heezen, 1969). The ridge sea floor is elevated above the surrounding abyssal plains, reaching the sea surface at mid-ocean islands, such as Iceland, the Azores and Ascension Island in the Atlantic Ocean, Easter Island and Galapagos in the Pacific Ocean. Typically there is a central axial rift valley bounded by ridges on both sides. A series of sediment-covered terraces slope down on the two sides of the ridge axis to the abyssal plains. The global ridge system, including associated island slopes, seamounts and knolls, represents a vast area of mid-ocean habitat at bathyal depths, accessible to fauna normally associated with narrow strips of suitable habitat on the continental slopes. The ocean ridges sub-divide the major ocean basins, but fracture zones at intervals permit movement of deep water and abyssal organisms between the two sides of the ridge.

Much attention has been directed to the importance of Mid-Ocean Ridges as sites of the hydrothermal vents and their unique fauna found close to the geothermally active ridge axis (German et al., 2011). However, the total area of hydrothermal vents is small and the dominant fauna on the mid-ocean ridges is made up of typical

bathyal species known from adjacent continental margins (See Chapter 45). The biomass of benthic fauna and demersal fishes on the ridges is generally similar to that found at corresponding depths on the nearest continental slopes (Priede et al., 2013). New species, potentially endemic to mid-ocean ridges, have been discovered (Priede et al., 2012). But these are likely to be found elsewhere as exploration of the deep sea progresses. The island slopes and summits of seamounts associated with ocean ridges are important areas for fisheries; evidence suggests that biodiversity, including large pelagic predators, is enhanced around such features (Morato et al., 2010; Morato et al., 2008). Chapter 51 considers the biodiversity of these mid-ocean ridges, and its threats, in greater detail.

4.2 *Polar deep sea*

Polar marine ecosystems differ in many ways from other marine ecosystems on the planet (see Chapters 36G and 36H).

4.3 *Arctic*

Arctic deep-sea areas have generally been poorly studied; although several studies over the past two decades have greatly advanced our knowledge of its marine diversity and deep-sea processes. They indicate that the Arctic deep sea is an oligotrophic area, featuring steep gradients in benthic biomass with increasing depth that are primarily driven by food availability (Bluhm et al., 2005, 2011).

The Arctic deep basins comprise ~50 per cent of the Arctic Ocean seafloor and differ from those of the North Atlantic, as the Arctic Sea is relatively young in age, semi-isolated from the world's oceans, and largely ice-covered. Moreover, the high Arctic experiences more pronounced seasonality in light, and hence in primary production, than lower latitudes.

The history and semi-isolation of the Arctic basin play a major role in its biodiversity patterns (Golikov and Scarlato, 1990). Originally an embayment of the North Pacific, the Arctic deep sea was influenced by Pacific fauna until ~80 million years ago, when the deep-water connection closed (Marincovich Jr. et al., 1990). Exchange with the deep Atlantic began ~40 Ma ago, coinciding with a strong cooling period (Savin et al., 1975). Although some Arctic shelf and deep-sea fauna were removed by Pleistocene glaciations, other shelf fauna in the Atlantic sector of the Arctic found refuge in the deep sea and are considered the ancestral fauna at least for some of the recent Arctic deep-sea fauna (Nesis, 1984). The bottom of the Arctic basin is filled with water originating from the North Atlantic (Rudels et al., 1994); the sediments are primarily silt and clay whilst the ridges and plateaus have a higher sand fraction (Stein et al., 1994). Exceptions include ice-rafted dropstones, enhancing diversity by providing isolated hard substrata and enhanced habitat heterogeneity for benthic fauna (Hasemann et al., 2013; Oschmann, 1990). Considerable inputs of refractory terrestrial organic matter from the large Russian and North American rivers characterize the organic component of sediments along the slopes, and in the basins (Stein and Macdonald, 2004). The only present-day deep-water connection to the Arctic is via the Fram Strait (~2,500m), providing immigrating species access via the

high water flux through this gateway. Submarine ridges within the Arctic form physical barriers, but current evidence suggests that these do not form biogeographic barriers (Deubel, 2000; Kosobokova et al., 2011; Vinogradova, 1997).

Bluhm et al. (2011) conservatively estimated the number of benthic invertebrate taxa in the Arctic deep sea to be ~1,125. As in other soft-sediment habitats, foraminiferans and nematodes generally dominate the meiofauna, whereas annelids, crustaceans and bivalves dominate the macrofauna, and echinoderms dominate the megafauna. The degree of endemism at the level of both genera and species is far lower than in the Antarctic, which has a similarly harsh environment. Just over 700 benthic species were catalogued from the central basin a decade ago (Sirenko, 2001). The latitudinal species-diversity gradient has been observed in the Arctic Ocean (Yasuhara et al., 2012b) and the peak of the unimodal species-diversity depth gradient occurs at much shallower depths compared to other oceans (Clarke, 2003; Svavarsson, 1997; Yasuhara et al., 2012b).

The Arctic, is populated by species that have experienced selection pressure for generalism and high vagility (Jansson and Dynesius, 2002), and should have inherent resilience in the face of climate change.

In a warmer future Arctic with less sea ice altered algal abundance and composition will affect zooplankton community structure (Caron and Hutchins, 2012) and subsequently the flux of particulate organic matter to the seafloor (Wohlers et al., 2009), where the changing quantity and quality of this matter will impact benthic communities (Jones et al., 2014; Kortsch et al., 2012).

4.4 *Antarctic*

The Southern Ocean comprises three major deep ocean basins, i.e., the Pacific, Indian and Atlantic Basins, separated by submarine ridges and the Scotia Arc island chain. Oceanographically, the Southern Ocean is a major driver of global ocean circulation and plays a vital role in interacting with the deep water circulation in each of the major oceans.

Chapter 36H describes the general dynamics of the Southern Ocean, including seasonal changes. The winter sea-ice formation creates cold, dense, salty water that sinks to the seafloor and forms very dense Antarctic Bottom Water (Bullister et al., 2013). This in turn pushes the ocean's nutrient-rich, deep water closer to the surface, generating areas of high primary productivity in Antarctic waters, similar to areas of upwelling elsewhere in the world.

The remote Southern Ocean is home to a diverse and rich community of life that thrives in an environment dominated by glaciations and strong currents (Griffiths, 2010). However, although relatively little is known about the deep-sea fauna, or about the complex interactions between the highly seasonally variable physical environment and the species that inhabit the Southern Ocean, but our knowledge of Southern Ocean deep-sea fauna and biogeography is increasing rapidly (Griffiths, 2010; Kaiser et al., 2013). The range of ecosystems found in each of the marine realms can vary greatly within a small geographic area (e.g. Grange and Smith, 2013), or in other cases remain relatively constant across vast areas of the Southern Ocean.

The region also contains many completely un-sampled areas for which nothing is known (e.g., Amundsen Sea, Western Weddell Sea, Eastern Ross Sea). These areas include the majority of the intertidal zone, areas under the floating ice shelves, and the greater benthic part of the deep sea. However, several characteristic features of Southern Ocean ecosystems include circumpolar distributions and eurybathy of many species (Kaiser et al., 2013).

Both pelagic and benthic communities tend to show a high degree of patchiness in both diversity and abundance. The benthic populations show a decrease in biomass with increasing depth (Arntz et al., 1994), with notable differences in areas of disturbance due to anchor ice and icebergs in the shallows (Smale et al., 2008) and in highly productive deep fjord ecosystems (Grange and Smith, 2013). Hard and soft sediments from the region are known to be capable of supporting both extremes of diversity and biomass. In some cases, levels of biomass are far higher than those in equivalent habitats in temperate or tropical regions. A major international study led by Brandt revealed comparably high levels of biodiversity (higher than in the Arctic), thereby challenging suggestions that deep-sea diversity is depressed in the Southern Ocean (Brandt et al., 2007). Understanding of large-scale diversity distributions is improving (Brandt and Ebbe, 2009; Kaiser et al., 2013). For example, depth-diversity gradients of several taxa are known to be unimodal with a shallow peak comparable to those of the Arctic Ocean (Brandt et al., 2007; Brandt and Ebbe, 2009).

Longline fishing continues in the Southern Ocean, where the Commission for the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources (CCAMLR) has been implementing conservation measures for toothfish, icefish and krill fisheries, and has closed almost all of the regulatory area to bottom trawling since the 1980s (Reid et al., 2010; Hanchet et al., 2015). Climate change, is also a significant potential threat to the Antarctic marine communities (Griffiths, 2010; Smith et al., 2012), for reasons similar to those presented for the Arctic.

4.5 *Seamounts*

Seamounts are important topographic features of the open ocean. Although they are small in area relative to the vast expanse of the abyssal plains, accounting for <5 per cent of the seafloor (Yesson et al., 2011), three important characteristics distinguish them from the surrounding deep-sea habitat (Figure 36F.1; see Chapter 34). First, they are “islands” of shallow sea floor, and provide a range of depths for different communities. Second, bare rock surfaces can be common, enabling sessile organisms to attach to the rock, in contrast to the majority of the ocean sea floor, which is covered with fine unconsolidated sediments. Third, the physical structure of some seamounts drives the formation of localised hydrographic features and current flows that can keep species and production processes concentrated over the seamount, even increasing the local deep pelagic biomass. They are a sufficiently important part of marine deep-sea biodiversity that seamounts are fully treated in Chapter 51 of this Assessment.

4.6 *Organic falls*

The decay of large sources of organic matter (e.g., whales, wood, jellyfish) that ‘fall’ from surface or midwater provide a concentrated source of food on the deep sea floor directly, and indirectly through the decay of the organic matter, can yield hydrogen sulphide and methane. An array of scavenging species (hagfish, amphipods, ophiuroids, and crabs) is adapted to rapidly finding and consuming organic matter on the deep seabed. In addition, lipid-rich whale bones and wood support specialized taxa that have evolutionarily adapted to consume the substrate via symbionts (Smith and Baco, 2003; Smith et al., 2015). At least 30 species of polychaetes in the genus *Osedax* colonize and degrade whale bones, with the aid of heterotrophic symbionts in the group Oceanspirales (Goffredi et al., 2005; Rouse et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2015). *Osedax* and other taxa colonizing whale falls exhibit biogeographic separation, succession during the life of the whale fall (Smith and Baco, 2003; Braby et al., 2007; Glover et al., 2005; Smith et al., 2015), *Adipicola* and other deep-sea mussels also harbour chemoautotrophic endosymbionts and colonize sulphide-rich whale remains (Fujiwara et al., 2007; Thubaut et al., 2013). Similarly, members of the bivalve genus *Xylophaga* colonize and consume wood in the deep sea, with symbionts that aid cellulose degradation and nitrogen fixation. The activities of these ‘keystone’ species, in conjunction with microbial decay, transform the environment and facilitate colonization by a high diversity of other taxa, for example >100 species thus far found only on deep-sea whale falls (Smith et al., 2015). Human impacts have likely already affected these organic-fall ecosystems. For example, 20th century whaling drastically reduced the flux of whale carcasses to the deep seafloor (Roman et al., 2014; Smith, 2006; Smith et al., 2015).

Numerous areas throughout the world’s oceans have experienced large jellyfish population expansions. Although numerous studies have sought to identify the driving forces behind and the impacts of live jellyfish on marine ecosystems (Purcell, 2012; Purcell et al., 2007), very few have focused on the environmental consequences from the deposition of jellyfish carcasses (from natural die-off events). Recently it has become apparent that jellyfish carcasses have very high sinking speeds (1,500 m d⁻¹, Lebrato et al., 2013a; 2013b). Thus, jellyfish blooms may affect seafloor habitats through the sedimentation of jellyfish carcasses (but also of macrozooplankton, see Smith et al. (2014)), the smothering of extensive areas of seafloor and reducing oxygen flux into seafloor sediments leading to hypoxic/anoxic conditions. Jelly falls may also be actively consumed by typical deep-sea scavengers, enhancing food-flux into deep-sea food webs (Sweetman et al., 2014). Jellyfish falls have so far been observed in the Atlantic, Indian and Pacific oceans (Billett et al., 2006; Lebrato and Jones, 2009; Yamamoto et al., 2008; Lebrato et al., 2013a; 2013b; Sweetman and Chapman, (2011), and are reviewed in Lebrato et al. (2012).

4.7 *Methane seeps*

Continental margins host a vast array of geomorphic environments associated with methane seepage and other types of seeps. Many support assemblages reliant on chemosynthesis fuelled by methane and sulphide oxidation (Levin and Sibuet, 2012;

Sibuet and Olu, 1998). Their specialized biodiversity features are assessed in Chapter 45.

Major ecosystem services being affected by the pressures

Despite its apparent remoteness and inhospitability, the deep ocean and seafloor play a crucial role in human social and economic wellbeing through the ecosystem goods and services they provide (Armstrong et al., 2012; Thurber et al., 2014; van den Hove and Moreau, 2007) (Table 1). Whilst some services, such as deep-sea fisheries, oil and gas energy resources, potential CO₂ storage, and mineral resources directly benefit humans, other services support the processes that drive deep-sea and global ecosystem functioning. Despite its inaccessibility to most people, the deep sea nonetheless supports important cultural and existence values. The deep sea acts as a sink for anthropogenic CO₂, provides habitat, regenerates nutrients, is a site of primary (including chemosynthetic) and secondary biomass production, as well as providing other biodiversity-related functions and services, including those the deep water and benthic assemblages provide (Irigoien et al., 2014).

Ocean warming and acidification associated with climate change already affect the deep sea, reaching abyssal depths in some areas (Østerhus and Gammelsrød, 1999). Ongoing global climatic changes driven by increasing anthropogenic emissions and subsequent biogeochemical changes portend further impacts for all ocean areas, including the deep-sea and open ocean (Mora et al., 2013b). Data from pre-anthropocene times indicates millennial-scale climate variability on deep-sea biodiversity (Cronin and Raymo, 1997; Cronin et al., 1999; Hunt et al., 2005; Wollenburg et al., 2007; Yasuhara and Cronin, 2008; Yasuhara et al., 2012a; 2009), as well as decadal-centennial climate events (Yasuhara et al., 2008; 2014). The potential impacts of climate change on the ocean are addressed in Part II of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) 5th Assessment Report, Working Group II Chapters 6 and 30. Consistent with the mandate of this Assessment, they are only briefly summarized here.

Some impacts of climate change will be direct. For example, altered distributions and health of open-ocean and deep-sea fisheries are expected to result from warming-induced latitudinal or depth shifts (Brander, 2010); deoxygenation will induce habitat compression (Prince and Goodyear, 2006; Stramma et al., 2012; Koslow et al., 2011); and acidification will stress organismal function and thus organismal distribution. Climate change-related stressors are also likely to act in concert, and effects could be cumulative (Rosa and Seibel, 2008). Shifts in bottom-up, competitive, or top-down forcing will produce complex and indirect effects on the services described above. Acidification-slowed growth of carbonate skeletons, delayed development under hypoxic conditions, and increased respiratory demands with declining food availability illustrate how climate change could exacerbate anthropogenic impacts and compromise deep-sea ecosystem structure and function and ultimately benefits to human welfare.

The most important ecosystem service of the deep pelagic region is arguably the “biological pump”, in which biological processes, such as the daily vertical migration, package and accelerate the transport of carbon compounds, nutrients, and other materials out of surface waters and into the deep sea. However, the microbial diversity and processes of the deep-pelagic realm are not sufficiently known to predict confidently how the biological pump ecosystem service will respond to perturbations.

Deep-sea exploitation

6.1 Deep-sea fisheries

Deep-sea fishing has a long history, but it did not become an important activity until the mid-twentieth century, when technological advancement allowed the construction of large and powerful vessels, and the development of line and trawl gear that could be deployed to continental slope depths. FAO (2009) acknowledges that deep-sea fisheries often exploit species which have relatively slower growth rates, reach sexual maturity later and reproduce at lower rates than shelf and coastal species.

Deep-sea fish species were the basis of major commercial fisheries in the 1970s to early 2000s (Japp and Wilkinson, 2007) but started to decline as aggregations were fished out, and realisation grew about the low productivity, and hence low yields, of these species (Clark, 2001; Sissenwine and Mace, 2007) and impacts of some of these fisheries on seafloor structure and benthos (Clark and Dunn 2012). Globally the main commercial deep-sea fish species at present number about 20, comprising alfonsino, toothfish, redfish, slickheads, cardinalfish, scabbardfish, armourhead, orange roughy, oreos, roundnose and rough-headed grenadiers, blue ling and moras. The current commercial catch of these main deep-sea species is about 150,000 tons, and has been similar over the last five years, although the proportional species mix has changed. The ecosystem effects of these fisheries are discussed in Chapter 11 of this Assessment and in Chapter 51 relative to the seamounts which are centres for many of these fisheries.

6.2 Deep gas and oil reserves

The oil and gas industry has been active in the open ocean since the 1970s. Over 10,000 hydrocarbon wells have been drilled globally; at least 1,000 are routinely drilled in water depths >200 m, and as deep as 2,896 m in the Gulf of Mexico. The scale of the exploration and development of hydrocarbon reserves and then ecosystem effects are discussed in Chapter 21.

6.3 Minerals

Great interest exists in exploiting the deep sea for its various reserves of minerals, which include polymetallic nodules, seafloor massive sulphide (SMS) deposits,

mineral-rich sediments and cobalt-rich crusts. Currently no commercial mining projects have started, although several projects are in the exploratory or permitting phase. From those exploratory studies and related research some knowledge of potential ecosystem effects is accumulating.

Experimental studies to assess the potential impact of mining polymetallic nodules in the abyss have indicated that seafloor communities may take many decades before showing signs of recovery from disturbance (Bluhm, 2001; Miljutin et al., 2011), and may never recover if they rely directly on the nodules for habitat.

The recovery of communities at active hydrothermal vents where SMS deposits may be exploited may be relatively rapid, because vent sites undergo natural disturbances which have seen some communities appear to recover from catastrophic volcanic activity within a few years (Tunnicliffe et al., 1997). However, the rates of recovery of benthic communities are likely to vary among sites.

Other potential mining activities include exploiting mineral-rich sediments. For example in some deep marine sediments, phosphorite occurs as “nodules” (2 to >150 mm in diameter), in a mud or sand matrix, which can extend beneath the seafloor sediment surface to tens of centimetres depth.

No mining has yet been authorized for such deposits but could result in the removal of large volumes of both the phosphorite nodules and the surrounding soft sediments, together with associated faunal communities and generate large sediment plumes. In addition, cobalt-rich ferromanganese crusts are promising sources of cobalt and rare minerals required to sustain growing human population demands and emerging high and green technologies (Hein et al., 2013). Conditions favouring their formation are found in abrupt topography, especially on the flanks and summits of oceanic seamounts and ridges at depths of 800-2500 m, where the most Cobalt-rich deposits are known to concentrate, in habitats dominated by suspension-feeding sessile organisms (mostly cold-water corals and sponges) and comparatively rich biological communities (Clark, 2013; Clark et al., 2011; Fukushima, 2007; Schlacher et al. 2013). Interest in cobalt-rich crust resources is growing, although mining for cobalt-rich crusts has not yet started, and technological challenges mean it may develop later than for polymetallic nodule or SMS resources. Further information on these mining activities is found in Chapter 23, and the seamount and seep/vent habitats in Chapters 51 and 45, respectively.

Special conservation/management issues and sustainability for the future

7.1 Special habitats (VMEs, EBSAs, MPAs) and conservation measures

The United Nations General Assembly has adopted a number of resolutions that called for the identification and protection of vulnerable marine ecosystems (VMEs) from significant adverse impacts of bottom fishing (for example 61/105 of 2006), which has facilitated the development of the 2008 International Guidelines for the Management of Deep-Sea Fisheries in the High Seas (FAO, 2009). The concept and developments of VMEs and their protection is addressed in Chapter 11. Also in the

2000s, in response to the call in the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) for greater protection of the open ocean, the Conference of Parties to the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) developed and adopted criteria for the description of ecologically or biologically significant areas (EBSAs) in open-ocean waters and deep-sea habitats. The application of the EBSA criteria is a scientific and technical exercise, and areas that are described as meeting the criteria may receive protection through a variety of means, according to the choices of States and competent intergovernmental organizations (decision X/29 of the CBD COP10). Expert reviews have concluded that both approaches can be complementary in achieving effective sustainable management in the deep sea (Rice et al., 2014; Dunn et al., 2014).

7.2 Protection of the marine environment in the Area

With regard to deep-sea mining the International Seabed Authority (ISA), established in 1994, is required to take the necessary measures ensure that the marine environment is protected from harmful effects from activities in the Area under its jurisdiction. Such measures may include assessing potential environmental impacts of deep-sea activities (exploration and possible mining) and setting standards for environmental data collection, establishment of environmental baselines, and monitoring programmes (ISA, 2000, 2007 2013).

7.3 Deep-ocean observatories-ocean networks

Deep-sea observatories are becoming increasingly important in monitoring deep-sea ecosystems and the environmental changes that will affect them. The first long-term and real-time deep-sea observatory was deployed in 1993 at a methane seep site at 1,174 m depth in Sagami Bay, Japan (JAMSTEC, Japan), and is still operating. Several internationally organized projects have been initiated to achieve global integration of deep-sea observatories (e.g., Global Ocean Observing System (GOOS, NSF); FixO3 (Fixed Point Open Ocean Observatories, European Union Framework Programme 7), largely based on existing observing networks (e.g., Porcupine Abyssal Plain in the North Atlantic, (NOC, UK), Hausgarten Site in the transition between the North Atlantic and the Arctic (AWI, Germany), Ocean Network Canada with the Neptune Observatory on Canada's west coast) and aiming at achieving multidisciplinary integration, including physics, climate, biogeochemistry, biodiversity and ecosystems, geophysics with integration across sectors, and economics and sociology. Whilst moving towards a global strategy to obtain maximum efficiency, one of the major goals of deep-sea observatory initiatives is to better understand and predict the effects of climate change on the linked ocean-atmosphere system, and on marine ecosystems, biodiversity and community structure, In terms of biodiversity and ecosystems, several objectives need addressing: exploration and observation; prediction of future biological resources; understanding the functioning of deep-sea ecosystems; and understanding the roles of relationships between ecosystems and the services they provide.



Figure 1. Deep-sea habitats. Top left: coral garden in the Whittard Canyon, NE Atlantic at approx. 500 metres depth (2010; image courtesy of Jeroen Ingels); top right: A sea anemone, *Boloceroides daphneae*, on cobalt crust covering a seamount off Hawaii, 1000 metres depth (image courtesy of Chris Kelly, HURL); bottom left: An orange roughy (*Hoplostethus atlanticus*) aggregation at 890 metres depth near the summit of a small seamount (termed "Morgue") off the east coast of New Zealand (image courtesy of Malcolm Clark); bottom right: A reef-like coverage by stony corals (*Solenosmilia variabilis*) together with prominent orange brisingid seastars on the summit of a small seamount (termed "Ghoul") feature at 950 metres off the east coast of New Zealand (image courtesy of Malcolm Clark).

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