

Chapter 51 Biological Communities on Seamounts and Other Submarine Features Potentially Threatened by Disturbance

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1. Physical, chemical, and ecological characteristics

1.1 Seamounts

Seamounts are predominantly submerged volcanoes, mostly extinct, rising hundreds to thousands of metres above the surrounding seafloor. Some also arise through tectonic uplift. The conventional geological definition includes only features greater than 1000 m in height, with the term “knoll” often used to refer to features 100–1000 m in height (Yesson et al. 2011). However, seamounts and knolls do not appear to differ much ecologically, and human activity, such as fishing, occurs on both. We therefore include here all such features with heights > 100 m.

Only 6.5 per cent of the deep sea (2011) has been explored and guyot features > 1000 m in height and 138,412 identified (Harris et al. 2014). A stricter definition that restricted seamounts to conical forms (Smith 1991; Wesselet al., 2010). At least half are in the Pacific, with fewer in the Atlantic, Indian, Southern, and Arctic Oceans. They cover approximately 4.7 per cent of the ocean floor, with an additional 16.6 per cent in total an area approximately the combined about threefold larger than all continental shelf areas (Boyer et al. 2010; Yesson et al., 2011).

Local ocean circulation, amplifying and rectifying flows particularly near seamount summits, enhancing vertical mixing, cells known as Taylor columns or cones. Some seamounts have many factors, including the size (height and diameter) of the

Where flows are sufficiently vigorous, they provide sufficient flow of organic matter to support suspension feeding organisms, such as corals and sponges. Such currents also winnow away the sediment, providing hard substrate necessary for most

such as Antarctic Intermediate Water and North Atlantic Deep Water (Koslow et al., 1994; Clark et al., 2010a and b). Whereas the dominant genera and families of deep demersal and midwater fishes tend to have global distribution, the dominant fish species on seamounts in different ocean basins are often from entirely different genera, families, and even orders. This indicates that seamount-associated fishes in different ocean basins were reproductively isolated and evolved independently. Their similar morphologies and adaptation to the seamount environment is a striking example of convergent evolution (Koslow, 1996).

Seamounts are the source of significant ecosystem services. In addition to their biodiversity, seamounts often host substantial aggregations of fishes, which have been subject to commercial fisheries. These include species for which seamounts are their primary environment as well as a larger number for which seamounts account for a smaller proportion of their global catch. Annual landings of primary seamount species

Ridges typically contain seamounts and sedimented slopes. Not surprisingly, similarities in the abundance, diversity, and species composition of ridge habitats are found

Monterey Bay Aquarium Research Institute (MBARI) Monterey Canyon have led to a renaissance in canyon studies (e.g. Huvenne and Davy, 2013). Whereas most canyons globally have received little or no scientific attention from any discipline, some individual canyons (e.g., Monterey – western North America, “The Gully” eastern North America, Kaikura New Zealand,

1.4 Trenches

Trenches are defined as “long, narrow, characteristically very deep and asymmetrical depressions of the seafloor, with relatively steep sides” (IHO

anemones and their mobile benthic associates (e.g., amphipods); communities near hydrothermal vents and cold seeps are dominated by metazoans dependent on

and the Chilean Rise. Catches were low nor were they sustainable (Clark et al. 2007).

In the Southern Ocean, seamounts were fished for nototheniids between 1974 and 1991. In the 1990s, the ridges, plateaus, and seamounts around remote Antarctic islands came to be heavily fished for Patagonian toothfish with trawls and longlines. Initially much illegal, unreported and unregulated (IUU) fishing occurred but has declined significantly since 1996 (Agnew et al. 2009).

Large scale industrial deepwater fisheries in the North Atlantic date to the development of redfish fisheries in the 1950s using both midwater and demersal trawls over the mid Atlantic Ridge and on some plateaus. Redfish catches peaked at almost 400,000 tons in the 1950s and have declined considerably but several continue to support some harvest (Koslow et al. 2000; ICES 2013). Fisheries for roundnose grenadier and Greenland halibut first developed on the upper continental slopes of the Northwest Atlantic in the late 1960s, peaking at over 80,000 tons in 1971 and then rapidly declined and moved to the mid Atlantic Ridge and Rockall Bank (1970s) (Clark et al. 2007).

Exploratory trawl fishing on seamounts in the Indian Ocean began in the 1970s targeting shallowwater redbait and rubyfish on the Southwest Indian Ocean Ridge, the Mozambique Ridge and the Madagascar Ridge (Rov, 2003; Clark et al 2007) and continued into the mid-1980s. In the late 1990s trawlers working on the Southwest Indian Ocean Ridge targeted deepwater species such as orange roughy, black cardinalfish, pelagic armorhead, oreosomatids and *Squalius* (Clark et al 2007) but the fishery rapidly collapsed (Gianni 2004). Fishing has shifted to the many ridges, seamounts and plateaus targeting a variety of species of deepfish and crustaceans (Clark et al. 2007; Bensch et al 2009; SWIOFC 2009).

Overall, deepwater demersal fisheries over the continental shelves, ridges, seamounts, and plateaus have landed between 800,000 and 1,000,000 t per annum from the mid-1960s to 1990s (Koslow et al, 2000) and annual landings on the order of 100,000 t since about 1990 (Clark et al 2007; Watson et al, 2007). The vast majority of seamount associated demersal fisheries have proven unsustainable, undergoing a boom-

- 4 Both the North Atlantic Fisheries Organization (NAFO) and North East Atlantic Fisheries Commission (NEAFC) in the North Atlantic set quotas for deep-sea stocks based on scientific assessments and have identified and closed to fishing areas that meet the Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations (FAO) criteria for vulnerable marine ecosystems
 - 4 The Southeast Atlantic Fisheries Organization (SEAFO) closed selected ridge sections and seamounts to fishing, restricted fisheries to certain subareas, and introduced catch quotas (TACs) for the fishes and deep-water crab targeted on seamounts.
 - 4 States which participated in the negotiations for the establishment of the North
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concern, including mercury and many halogenated hydrocarbons (e.g., DDT, PCBs, and many other pesticides, herbicides, and industrial chemicals) are volatile and enter the ocean predominantly through the atmosphere. These are discussed in Chapter 20. As noted there, concentrations of persistent organic pollutants in deep-dwelling fish

loss and declining food availability. Midwater fishes, the primary food of many deepwater squid and fish species, including orange roughy, declined 60% during recent periods of low oxygen availability in the California Current (Koslow et al. 2011). Palaeoceanographic studies have pointed to the significance of perturbations in oxygen concentration in controlling deep coral occurrence in the Eastern Mediterranean (Fink

services are provided b

These characteristics lead to low productivity

5. Integrated assessment of the status of the habitat. Crossing and emergent conclusions

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diversity and ecological connectivity. The synergistic influence of these factors is unknown at present.

Although it is heartening that some seamounts, ridges and other sensitive marine habitats are being protected by fishing closures, Marine Protected Areas and other actions, little scientific understanding of the efficacy of actions implemented to date and few studies to assess their impact exist. The connectivity between these habitats remains largely unknown, as are the factors that influence colonization, species succession, resilience and variability. Comparative studies of seamount, canyon, and continental margin habitats seem to indicate that many species are shared (but see Richer de Forges et al., 2000); however, community structure differs markedly and the factors influencing such differences remain unknown (McClain et al., 2009). Our starting point in attempting to understand a few of the factors influencing these differences is to assess the connectivity between these habitats and the factors that influence colonization, species succession, resilience and variability.

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