- ¹ Biogeography and community structure of abyssal
- scavenging Amphipoda (Crustacea) in the Pacific
- 3 Ocean.

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21	Abstract
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29	In 2015, we have collected more than 60000 scavenging amphipod specimens during two
30	expeditions to the Clarion-Clipperton fracture Zone (CCZ), in the Northeast (NE) Pacific and
31	to the DISturbance and re-COLonisation (DisCOL) Experimental Area (DEA), a simulated
32	mining impact disturbance proxy in the Peru basin, Southeast (SE) Pacific. Here, we compare
33	biodiversity patterns of the larger specimens (> 15 mm) within and between these two
34	oceanic basins. Eight scavenging amphipod species are shared between these two areas, thus
35	indicating connectivity. Overall diversity was lower in the DEA (Simpson Index $(D) = 0.62$),
36	when compared to the CCZ ($D = 0.73$) and particularly low, at the disturbance site in the
37	DEA and the site geographically closest to it. Local differences within each basin were
38	observed too. The community compositions of the two basins differ, as evidenced by a Non-
39	Metric Dimensional Scaling (NMDS) analysis of beta biodiversity. Finally, a single species,
40	Abyssorchomene gerulicorbis (Shulenberger & Barnard, 1976), dominates the DEA with
41	60% of all individuals.
42	Keywords
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44	JPIO Ecological Aspects of Deep-sea mining, Clarion Clipperton Fracture Zone, CCZ, DisCOL
45	Experimental Area (DEA), Amphipoda.
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Introduction

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The abyssal deep sea (3000 - 6000 m) represents the largest ecosystem on the planet, with 58 the abyssal seafloor covering approximately 54% of the Earth's solid surface (Rex et al. 59 1993; Gage & Tyler, 1991). Since it is one of the least investigated ecosystems, there are still 60 61 extensive gaps in our knowledge of deep-sea fauna (German et al. 2011). Marine research has thus far focused on coastal areas, hydrothermal vents or chemosynthetic habitats, whereas 62 63 open-ocean abyssal plains have been less extensively investigated (Ramirez-Llodra et al. 64 2010). This is unsurprising given the challenges of sampling this remote environment, which is impeded by several confounding factors. For example, deep-sea sampling is both 65 financially expensive and labour intensive, and furthermore, constrained by the challenge of 66 deploying equipment at low temperatures (0.01 - 4.0°C) and at high hydrostatic pressures 67 (Sweetman et al. 2017). Therefore, to date very little of the deep sea has been sampled, and 68 69 the oversampling in the North Atlantic basin has created a biased knowledge base (McClain 70 & Hardy, 2010). Consequently, and owing to the low availability of data on deep-sea 71 biodiversity, and with the inherent risk of under-sampling, it is difficult to estimate species richness in the deep sea. 72 73 In the traditional view of the deep sea, the abyss was considered to be homogeneous and 74 75 many species were thought to have large biogeographical ranges, their dispersal aided by an 76 apparent lack of barriers (Sanders, 1968). This hypothesis was challenged by the discovery of 77 chemosynthetic habitats e.g. hydrothermal vents (Lonsdale, 1977), cold seeps (Paull et al. 1984), seasonal fluctuations in primary productivity (Billett et al. 1983) and erratic whale-78 79 falls (Smith et al. 1989). All of this research has demonstrated that the deep sea is an heterogeneous environment and is controlled by many factors, including: Particulate Organic 80 81 Carbon (POC) flux, water depth, flow regime, current circulation, seafloor topography (Laver 82 et al. 1985) and also historical factors e.g. the opening of ocean basins (i.e. rifting), sea-level 83 rise and fall, and periods of deep-sea anoxia (Smith et al. 2006). All of these can result in a mosaic of different communities (Levin et al. 2001), many of which do not follow a 84 85 latitudinal gradient (Brandt et al. 2007). 86 It has also been established that dispersal ability of species on the one hand, and their actual 87 geographic and bathymetric distribution range on the other, are not always linked, and are 88 89 often dependent on habitat suitability, fragmentation, and ecological flexibility (Lester et al.

2007; Liow 2007). Therefore, although the deep seafloor includes some of the largest 90 contiguous features on the planet, the populations of many deep-sea species are spatially 91 fragmented, and may become increasingly so with continued human disturbance (Hilario et 92 al. 2015). 93 94 95 In the last decade, there has been a bigger demand for exploitation of deep-sea resources e.g. rare earth element (REE) extraction (such as those concentrated in manganese nodule 96 97 provinces) (Ramirez-Llodra et al. 2011). As a result, ecologists are increasingly asked to 98 assess the ecological risks of these mining activities and to provide sustainable solutions for 99 its mitigation, in order to prevent adverse changes to the deep-sea ecosystem (ISA, 2017). 100 101 Glover et al. (2001) showed that abyssal sediments can contain high biodiversity with more 102 than 100 species of meiofaunal invertebrates (e.g. nematodes, copepods) and protists (e.g. foraminifers) found every square meter. Despite this, our knowledge on the deep-sea 103 ecosystem structure and functioning is still limited, and there is a paucity of data on the 104 105 distribution, drivers and origins of deep-sea communities at global scales. This is especially true for deep-sea invertebrates, including Amphipoda (Barnard 1961; Thurston 1990). 106 107 108 Although recent morphological and molecular studies have shed new light on the distribution 109 and habitat niches of certain bentho-pelagic amphipods (e.g. Eurythenes) (Havermans, 2016; Narahara-Nakano et al. 2017), there is little published so far on how widespread other 110 amphipod species may be. This lack of information on species richness and ecological 111 uniqueness hampers the answering of crucial questions on recoverability of anthropogenic 112 impacts. Ultimately this impedes ecologists from providing advice on sustainable deep-sea 113 mining practices, thus, underpinning the need for this dedicated deep-sea ecosystem research. 114 115 Here, we present distribution patterns of scavenging deep-sea amphipod communities, with 116 117 the first comparisons of their biogeography and community structures in two oceanic basins. These two basins are the research areas for simulating/studying the anthropogenic impacts of 118 119 deep-sea nodule mining. 120 We are investigating whether there are differences and similarities in the species 121 compositions of the two basins (e.g. richness, abundances), and further exploit a disturbance 122 123 experiment to compare the biodiversity of this mining impact proxy to the undisturbed

reference areas. We discuss the possible implications of our findings; aiming to use them to 124 formulate recommendations regarding the pending deep-sea mining of manganese nodule 125 activities in the NE Pacific ecosystem. 126 127 **Material and Methods** 128 129 Study area 130 131 We investigated the amphipod communities of two oceanic basins (Figure 1); (i) the Clarion-Clipperton Fracture Zone (CCZ, six million km², 7000 km wide), an economically important 132 133 manganese nodule field in the NE Pacific, comprising several different contractor license areas, (who to date, have exploration licences only), and nine designated Areas of Particular 134 Ecological Interest (APEIs) as designated by the International Seabed Authority (ISA) 135 (Lodge et al, 2014) and (ii) the DISturbance and re-COLonisation (DisCOL) Experimental 136

nodules) in the Peru Basin in the SE Pacific. In 1989, the DEA sediment bed was artificially disturbed using a plough-harrow to create 78 track marks (Appendix 1) (Thiel, 1992). These are supposed to simulate the type of disruption which would be caused by a commercial mining operation This baseline study was a new approach in deep-sea risk assessment and is

still ongoing today, providing us with crucial data from this long-term ecological experiment.

Area (DEA, 11 km², 4 km wide), a mining disturbance proxy (also containing manganese

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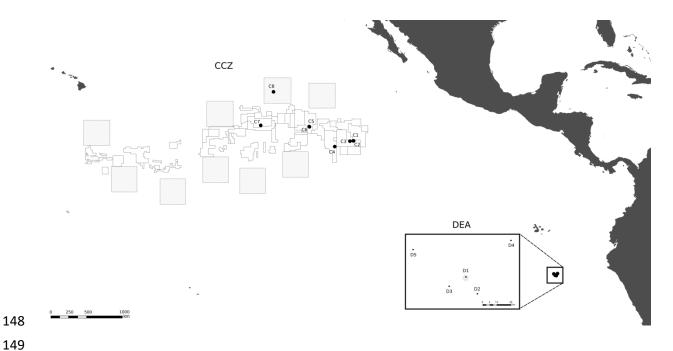


Figure 1: Geographic locations of the two study areas, the Clarion-Clipperton fracture Zone (CCZ) (Northeast Pacific) and the DISturbance and re-COLonisation (DisCOL) Experimental Area (DEA) (Peru Basin, Southeast Pacific). There are nine Areas of Particular Ecological Interest (APEIs) in the CCZ region, which are illustrated by 400 x 400 km² grey boxes. White boxes indicate the various contractor license areas in the CCZ. We deployed eight amphipod traps across the CCZ, which is 16000 km² and 7000 km wide, and five in the DEA, which encompasses 11 km² with a width of 4 km.

174	Sampling
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176	In 2015 (26 years after the first impact in the DEA in 1989), two research expeditions with
177	the "RV Sonne" visited the CCZ (cruise SO239) and revisited the DEA (cruise SO242-1 &
178	SO242-2), to assess if and how the deep-sea faunal communities had recovered within the
179	DEA, and to attempt to quantify their recolonisation potential.
180	
181	Amphipod samples were taken from the CCZ and DEA using a free-fall lander (120 x 120 x
182	120 cm), to which four plastic traps were attached (two 20 x 25 x 40 cm traps with four cm
183	openings and two 25 x 40 x 60 cm traps with eight cm openings), baited for each station with
184	an 800 g mixture of mackerel, squid and shrimp. Using this specially designed deep-sea
185	sampling equipment, more than 60000 specimens of scavenging amphipods were collected
186	from the CCZ and the DEA sites.
187	
188	The baited trap was deployed eight times across the CCZ at a depth range of 4116 - 4932 m
189	(samples C1 - C8), and five times in the DEA at a depth range of 4078 - 4307 m (samples D1
190	- D5; Figure 1, Table 1). In the CCZ, we sampled within four different contractor license
191	areas (Table 1) to obtain a pre-disturbance baseline, and to then compare it with one of the
192	nine protected APEIs around the CCZ. In contrast, in the DEA, sampling was conducted once
193	within the disturbed area (D1), twice 10 km away (D2, D3) and twice 40 km away (D4, D5)
194	from D1 in four surrounding reference areas (see Figure 1).
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Table 1: Station overview.

Codes refer to the codes used in this paper in figures 1, 3, 4, 6 and Table 3. The original station code represents the cruise codes from (SO239 and SO242-1). Depth refers to water depth (m) on deployment.

Deployment Code	Station Code	Depth (m)	Known geological features	Remarks	Residence Time (h:m:s)	Lat	Lon	Nodule Presence
C1	SO239-33	4122	Plains	German license area	100:20:00	11° 51' 29" N	117° 3' 38" W	Yes
C2	SO239-37	4116	Plains	German license area	125:49:00	11° 48' 63" N	117° 0' 96" W	Yes
C3	SO239-63	4354	Plains	German license area	66:07:00	11° 48' 64" N	117° 32' 05" W	Yes
C4	SO239-96	4388	Seamount	Inter Ocean Metals (IOM) license area	63:02:00	11° 2' 98" N	119° 41' 16" W	Yes
C5	SO239- 123	4529	Plains	Belgian license area	26:12:00	13° 51' 22" N	123° 15' 30" W	Yes
C6	SO239- 139	4516	Plains North/South + seamount to west	Belgian license area	56:33:00	13° 52' 41" N	123° 16' 46" W	Yes
C7	SO239- 173	4934	Plains	French license area	79:40:00	14° 3' 20" N	130° 4' 61" W	Yes
C8	SO239- 205	4855	Plains	Area of Particular Ecological Interest (APEI)	55:59:00	18° 46' 40" N	128° 20' 17" W	No
D1	SO242/1-8	4146	Plains	Disturbed	44:26:33	7° 2' 26" S	88° 16' 30" W	Yes (disturbed)
D2	SO242/1- 30	4307	Plains	Undisturbed Reference	51:11:18	7° 5' 45" S	88° 14' 15" W	Not Known
D3	SO242/1- 55	4043	Seamount	Undisturbed Reference	25:09:09	7° 4' 17" S	88° 19' 47" W	No
D4	SO242/1- 68	4078	Seamount	Undisturbed Reference	65:20:46	6° 31' 17" S	88° 7' 38" W	No
D5	SO242/1- 106	4269	Plains	Undisturbed Reference	47:00:50	6° 33' 4" S	88° 26' 52" W	Not Known

227	Processing
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229	On recovery of the lander, all traps were disconnected and placed in pre-cooled (4 °C)
230	buckets of filtered seawater. All specimens were washed on board in a dedicated cool-climate
231	laboratory (4 °C), morphologically pre-sorted and fixed in molecular grade (95%) ethanol,
232	before being stored at -20 °C.
233	
234	Detailed sorting and identifications were performed using the morphological species concept
235	(Futuyama, 1998) and the keys of Schulenberger & Barnard (1976) and Barnard & Karaman
236	(1991), to separate the samples into taxonomic "morphotypes". The larger fraction (> 15 mm
237	length) has been identified to the lowest possible taxonomic resolution. Species not assigned
238	with certainty are denoted here by as affiliated species (e.g. genus aff. species) or conferred
239	species (e.g. genus cf. species).
240	
241	Of the 60,000 specimens, those with a size of less than 15 mm length were excluded from the
242	analysis because these were mostly juveniles and their morphological differences were not
243	sufficiently pronounced to allow an accurate identification to the species or even genus level.
244	Some pelagic amphipods were collected accidentally and omitted. Finally, genera containing
245	multiple (and as yet) unidentified species have been summarised as "spp."
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247	Statistical analyses
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249	Our null hypothesis (H_0) here is that there are no differences in the amphipod biodiversity of
250	the two basins. To test this hypothesis, we firstly calculated the alpha biodiversity of the two
251	basins using the Simpson Index (D) (Simpson, 1949) (Appendix 4). Rarefaction was run on
252	the longer than 15 mm fraction using default parameters. Individual-based curves were
253	generated using the rarefy function of the vegan package in R 2.3.0 (R Core Team, 2013;
254	Gotelli, 2001) to compare species richness across all thirteen sampling stations and to test for
255	the completeness of sampling.
256	
257	Secondly, to compare the beta biodiversity, we estimated the variability of the community
258	compositions between sites. The Bray-Curtis dissimilarity metric (Bray & Curtis, 1957), was
259	used to calculate differences between community compositions based on species densities,
260	and the results were then visualised in 2D using a Non-Metric Dimensional Scaling (NMDS)

plot. The ANOSIM function in the vegan package of R (R Core Team, 2013; Taguchi & Ono,
2005) was used to test the statistical significance of the differences in species compositions
between the two study areas.

266	Results
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268	Basin biodiversity
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270	In total, 6916 scavenging amphipods (> 15 mm) were collected from the thirteen trap
271	deployments in the two study areas, representing a total of seventeen morphotypes (Figure 2).
272	In the CCZ, we collected 3932 individuals, which represent ten morphotypes. Five of these
273	have been identified to the species level: Abyssorchomene distinctus (Birstein & Vinogradov,
274	1960), Abyssorchomene gerulicorbis (Shulenberger & Barnard, 1976), Eurythenes sigmiferus
275	(d'Udekem d'Acoz & Havermans, 2015), Paralicella caperesca (Shulenberger & Barnard,
276	1976) and Paralicella tenuipes Chevreux, 1908. Two are affiliated to a species
277	(Paracallisoma aff. alberti and Valettietta cf. gracilis) and the remaining three are at least
278	affiliated to a genus (Table 2). The 2984 individuals from the DEA represent fifteen
279	morphotypes. Six of these have been identified to the species level: Abyssorchomene
280	distinctus (Birstein & Vinogradov, 1960), Abyssorchomene gerulicorbis (Shulenberger &
281	Barnard, 1976), Eurythenes sigmiferus (d'Udekem d'Acoz & Havermans, 2015), Paralicella
282	caperesca (Shulenberger & Barnard, 1976), Parandaniexis mirabilis Schellenberg, 1929 and
283	Tectovalopsis regelatus Barnard & Ingram, 1990. A further five which have been affiliated to
284	a species: Eurythenes aff. gryllus, Eurythenes aff. magellanicus, Paracallisoma aff. alberti,
285	Stephonyx sp. nov. aff. arabiensis and Valettietta cf. gracilis and the remaining four
286	identified to at least an affiliated genus (Table 2).
287	
288	There are eight morphotypes shared between the basins: Abyssorchomene distinctus (Birstein
289	& Vinogradov, 1960), Abyssorchomene gerulicorbis (Shulenberger & Barnard, 1976),
290	Abyssorchomene spp., Eurythenes sigmiferus (d'Udekem d'Acoz & Havermans, 2015),
291	Eurythenes spp., Paracallisoma aff. alberti, Paralicella caperesca (Shulenberger & Barnard,
292	1976) and Valettietta cf. gracilis (Figure 2).
293	
294	Two morphotypes were found only in the CCZ (Hirondellea sp. & Paralicella tenuipes
295	Chevreux, 1908, and seven morphotypes were found only in the DEA (Eurythenes aff.
296	gryllus, Eurythenes aff, magellanicus, gen, aff, Cleonardo, Parandania sp., Parandaniexis

296 gryllus, Eurythenes aff. magellanicus, gen. aff. Cleonardo, Parandania sp., Parandaniexis
297 mirabilis Schellenberg, 1929, Stephonyx sp. nov. aff. arabiensis, and Tectovalopsis regelatus
298 Barnard & Ingram, 1990 (Table 2).

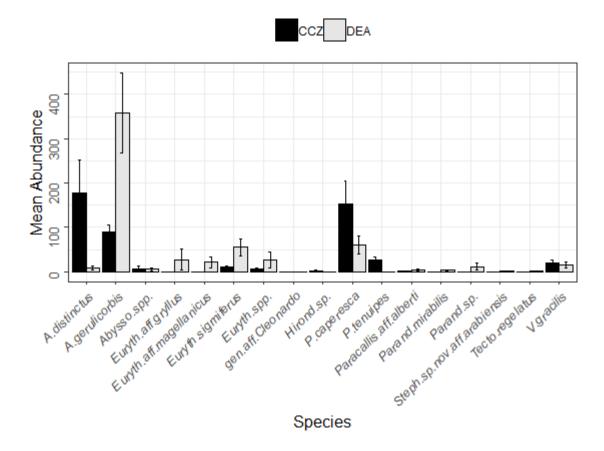


Figure 2: Histogram showing the species assemblage for the scavenging community in the Clarion-Clipperton fracture Zone (CCZ) (black) and the DisCOL Experimental Area (DEA) (grey). The abundances of 17 morphotypes are shown.

Table 2: Distribution and abundances of morphotypes across the Clarion-Clipperton fracture Zone (CCZ) and DisCOL Experimental Area (DEA). Green = shared, Orange = DEA only, Blue = CCZ only.

Taxa	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5
Abyssorchomene distinctus	629	312	180	170	64	47	2	25	9	3	25	0	5
Abyssorchomene gerulicorbis	73	47	48	107	71	65	184	121	351	143	522	178	595
Abyssorchomene spp.	0	0	50	0	0	3	0	0	5	20	0	0	0
Eurythenes aff. gryllus									119	0	9	0	9
Eurythenes aff. magellanicus									0	0	59	0	47
Eurythenes sigmiferus	9	3	35	11	12	5	0	6	30	61	127	36	22
Eurythenes spp.	6	3	2	0	0	20	1	12	0	91	3	39	1
gen. aff. Cleonardo									1	0	0	0	0
Hirondellea .sp.	0	2	0	0	0	0	5	10					
Paracallisoma aff. alberti	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	6	10	4	0	1	1
Paralicella caperesca	104	4	114	152	255	75	63	460	86	108	80	21	7
Paralicella tenuipes	22	0	14	42	43	9	19	58					
Parandania sp.									5	2	42	5	1
Parandaniexis mirabilis									11	0	3	0	0
Stephonyx sp. nov. aff. arabiensis									0	4	0	0	0
Tectovalopsis regelatus									5	0	0	0	0
Valettietta cf. gracilis	75	11	29	3	2	5	1	23	2	29	17	1	29

Sampling completeness

Due to differences in allocated ship-times (CCZ cruise being 52 days and the DEA cruise being 29 days), the trap deployments were not identical, making it necessary to check the effect of the different deployment times. The resulting Catch Per Unit Effort (CPUE) plot (Figure 3,) shows that there is no statistically significant correlation between the length of time the trap was at the seafloor and total number of amphipods caught (p = 0.551).

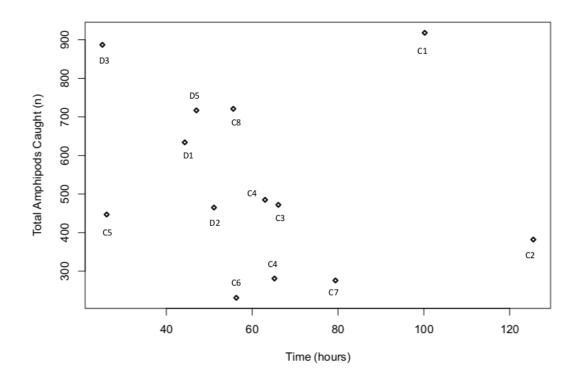


Figure 3: Catch Per Unit Effort (CPUE) illustrating the correlation between sampling time and number of individuals collected. Only the longer than 15mm fraction was included here.

The rarefaction results (Figure 4) show that the curves for nine stations reach a plateau, indicating that sampling effort was sufficient to assess diversity levels. These include all CCZ stations except C7. In contrast, four of the five curves for the DEA (stations D1, D2, D4 and D5) are unsaturated. A higher number of different species were collected at D1 and D2, however many of these were singletons or doubletons, with A. gerulicorbis dominating at both disturbed stations.

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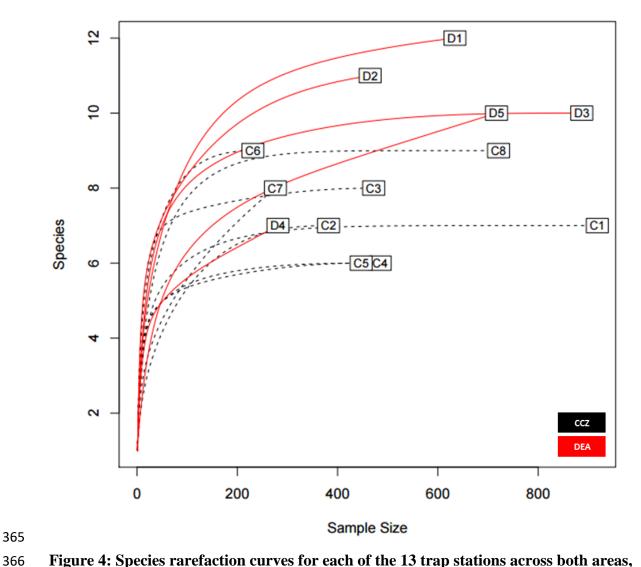
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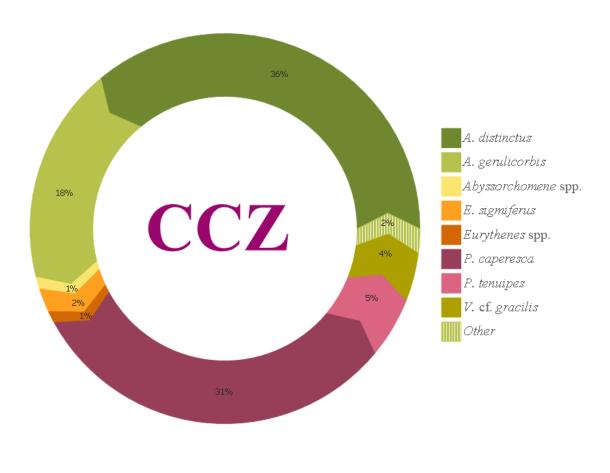
Figure 4: Species rarefaction curves for each of the 13 trap stations across both areas, the Clarion-Clipperton fracture Zone and the DisCOL Experimental Area. Only individuals longer than 15 mm were considered here.

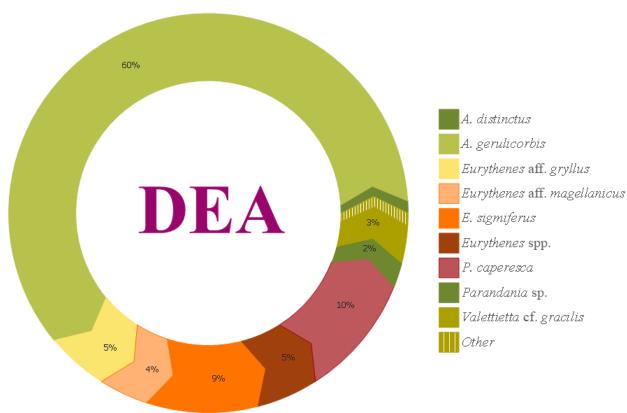
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Figures 5a and b show that the scavenging community in the CCZ is dominated by three species, A. distinctus (Birstein & Vinogradov, 1960) (36%), A. gerulicorbis (Shulenberger & Barnard, 1976) (18%) and Paralicella caperesca (Shulenberger & Barnard, 1976) (31%), whereas, in contrast, the DEA scavenging community is dominated by a single species, A. gerulicorbis (Shulenberger & Barnard, 1976), accounting for almost 60% of all specimens. The Simpson Index (D) for the entire CCZ area is (with 0.73), higher than the 0.62 that was calculated for the whole of the DEA area (Table 3). The biodiversity of each individual station was further explored (Table 3). In the CCZ, the lowest biodiversity was found at C3 and C6 (D = 0.23) and the highest at C2 (D = 0.67), respectively. In the DEA, the lowest biodiversity of D = 0.36 was found at station D1 (the site of the actual disturbance) and just south of the disturbance site at D2 (0.21), while the highest biodiversity was observed at D5 (D = 0.61) (Table 3).

Biodiversity





Figures 5a and b: Relative species abundances in the Clarion-Clipperton fracture Zone and the DisCOL Experimental Area. These abundances represent the longer than 15mm subsample of the scavenging amphipod community.

Table 3: Comparison of biodiversity calculated using the Simpson Index (D), for the Clarion-Clipperton fracture Zone and DisCOL Experimental Area, and D for each station is shown for further comparisons within these areas.

Site	Simpson Index (D)
Clarion-Clipperton fracture Zone	0.73
DisCOL Experimental Area	0.62
C1	0.41
C2	0.68
C3	0.23
C4	0.27
C5	0.38
C6	0.23
C7	0.45
C8 (APEI)	0.44
D1 (disturbed)	0.36
D2 (ref 1, close to disturbed)	0.21
D3 ref 2	0.38
D4 ref 3	0.44
D5 ref 4	0.61

Species composition

The NMDS shows that the communities of the two basins are dissimilar (ANOSIM: p = 0.002); Figure 6). The disturbed area in the DEA (D1) is showing a clear difference to the four reference areas (D2 - 5). When the communities between the two basins are compared, D2 appears to be most similar to the CCZ community, and more specifically to C6, C7 and C8. The reliability of the data ranking is supported by a low stress value of 0.01.

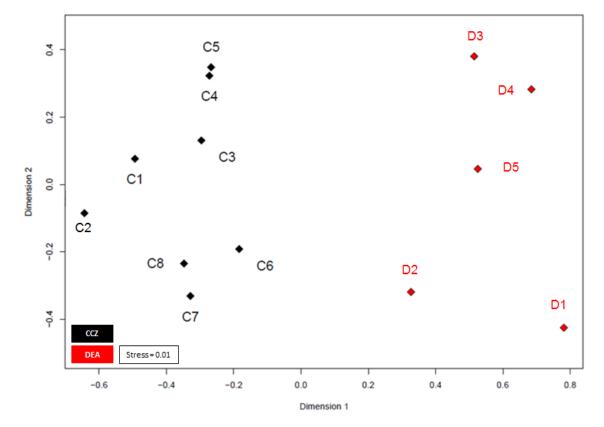


Figure 6: NMDS plot showing the beta biodiversity (dis/similarities) for each of the thirteen amphipod trap sampling stations associated with the two basins, Clarion-Clipperton fracture Zone (CCZ) (black) and the DisCOL Experimental Area (DEA) (red). Data are supported by a low stress value of 0.01.

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Disci	ussion

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Although the most recent and comprehensive analysis of the Animal diversity of the World's oceans estimates a total of less than a million species over all depths (Appeltans et al. 2012), it is not currently known how many species inhabit the deep sea. Over 7000 marine amphipod species have been found below 2000 m. These numbers are reduced to 173 known species, 87 genera and 37 families at depths below 3000 m, and 100 known species, 66 genera and 31 families are known to occur below 4000 m (Vader 2005; Brandt et al, 2012).

Lysianassoidea and their biogeography

The superfamily Lysianassoidea constitutes an important part of the abyssal amphipod fauna. Also, in our sampling, lysianassoid amphipods were collected in large numbers (99% of the samples taken in both basins). As a superfamily, they comprise 23% of all the species found below 2000 m, 35% of the species found below 3000 m and 31% of the species found below 4000 m (Brandt et al. 2012).

- Many species in the Lysianassoidea occur in multiple abyssal basins, and some even have worldwide distributions (Thurston 1990). Despite the Ocean Biogeographic Information System (OBIS) database containing 615,650 records of Amphipoda, many of these are shelf or pelagic species, with very few records from the CCZ and DEA (OBIS, 2017). Here, we provide additional data for the known bathymetric range of the seven amphipods which we have identified to species level (*Abyssorchomene distinctus* (Birstein & Vinogradov, 1960), *Abyssorchomene gerulicorbis* (Shulenberger & Barnard, 1976), *Eurythenes sigmiferus* (d'Udekem d'Acoz & Havermans, 2015), *Paralicella caperesca* (Shulenberger & Barnard, 1976), *Paralicella tenuipes* Chevreux, 1908, *Parandaniexis mirabilis* Schellenberg, 1929 and *Tectovalopsis regelatus* Barnard & Ingram, 1990 (Table 2). In addition, we have found two possibly new species of *Eurythenes*, previously not known from these basins which we plan to analyse further in the future.
- While we only sampled *Hirondellea* sp. and *Paralicella tenuipes* Chevreux, 1908 in the CCZ,
- 474 Eurythenes aff. gryllus, Eurythenes aff. magellanicus, gen. aff. Cleonardo, Parandania sp.,

Parandaniexis mirabilis Schellenberg, 1929, Stephonyx sp. nov. aff. arabiensis, and 475 Tectovalopsis regelatus Barnard & Ingram, 1990 only in the DEA, we cannot conclude based 476 on the current data only if these species are unique to their respective basins without 477 478 confirming these distribution patterns with additional sampling campaigns. 479 Despite the sampling campaign in the CCZ being twice as long as the DEA, the number of 480 individuals/species collected does not correlate positively with deployment effort. We posit 481 that this is rather an effect of abiotic and organic factors, such as the productivity-driven 482 483 gradients in the CCZ, which decrease from East-West and from North-South (Hannides & Smith, 2003), and also the productivity differences between the both basins. 484 485 Biodiversity within basins 486 487 488 Figures 5a & b show clearly that the DEA scavenging community has reduced abundances of all species including A. distinctus (Birstein & Vinogradov, 1960) (1%) and P. caperesca 489 490 (Shulenberger & Barnard, 1976) (7%), and is now dominated by a single species, A. gerulicorbis (Shulenberger & Barnard, 1976), accounting for 60% of the DEA community. 491 492 This indicates an interesting resilience and flexibility in the latter species. Similar patterns 493 have been observed in Potter Cove (Seefeldt et al. 2017), where following glacial retreat, a change in sedimentation rates led to the dominance of a single amphipod scavenging species, 494 Cheirimedon femoratus (Pfeffer, 1888). 495 496 497 The assemblages of the two basins have some overlap in their biodiversity (as is exemplified 498 by the eight shared morphotypes). However, the sampling stations and the two basins as a 499 whole are heterogeneous in their species compositions. 500 Thus, we can observe some negative influence (possibly attributed to the disturbance in the 501 502 DEA) on the scavenging amphipod community. This reduced biodiversity is reflected in the higher Simpson Index (D) for the CCZ (0.73) as compared to the DEA (D = 0.62; Table 3). 503 504 To explore whether this reduced diversity in the DEA was truly a result of the simulated 505 disturbance, D was also calculated for each sampling station within each basin (Table 3). 506 In the CCZ, the APEI (C8) shows a moderate level of biodiversity (D = 0.44), indicating that 507 508 it is not optimally placed for representing the biodiversity of the scavenging amphipod

community of the CCZ. Additionally, this pre-existing lower biodiversity (in comparison to 509 the contractor license areas), indicates that the APEI may not serve well as a refugium for 510 amphipods post-disturbance. However, due to the fact that only one of the eight APEIs have 511 been investigated thus far, this APEI along with the remaining eight APEIs would need to be 512 513 (re-) sampled. 514 Within the DEA, the lowest biodiversities are observed at the site of the disturbance (D1) and 515 south of it (D2; Table 3), indicating that the reduced biodiversity in the DEA could indeed be 516 517 caused by the simulated disturbance in 1989 (Thiel, 1992). 518 The highest abundances in the DEA were collected from station D5 (n = 717); this station 519 also has the highest Simpson Index within the DEA (D = 0.61) (Table 3). Side-scan sonar 520 imaging shows a seamount range to the North West (NW) of the disturbed area (D1) 521 522 (Appendix 3). Although the relief change is only 150m, the range extends laterally for several kilometres hampering dispersal across barriers such as sills, canyons and ridges (Smith, et al. 523 524 2006; Blankenship et al. 2006; Etter et al. 2011). However, recent studies have shown that due to their mobile nature, geographic isolation alone would not pose a true barrier to bentho-525 526 pelagic amphipod species (Havermans, 2016; Ritchie et al. 2017), and thus, cannot explain 527 why such a high number of large scavenging individuals was collected at station D5. 528 Community similarities 529 530 Scavenging amphipods are resilient and dispersive, but most importantly, they are highly 531 mobile (Ingram and Hessler 1983; Lörz et al. 2018). Often driven by their search for erratic 532 deposited feeding opportunities (Smith et al. 1989), they are probably less constrained by 533 local environmental abiotic conditions and seafloor topography. 534 535 Beta diversity can be regarded as the dissimilarities in species composition between spatially 536 537 different communities. As an indication for beta biodiversity, the NMDS (Figure 6) shows a 538 significant separation in the similarity index between the two basins (ANOSIM p = 0.002). However, despite the dispersive and resilient nature of scavenging amphipods, their 539 biodiversity could have been affected by the disturbance experiment as evidenced by the 540 NMDS (Figure 6), where the disturbed area (D1) and the area closest to it (D2) show a 541 542 different Bray-Curtis Index to the remaining three reference sites (D3, D4 and D5).

In the CCZ, stations C1, C2, C3, C4 and C5 show a different Bray-Curtis Index in comparison to stations C6, C7 and C8 (Figure 6). The CCZ is a geomorphologically very heterogeneous region, with seamounts of 200 m altitude running from North to South. A barrier of this height would be expected to affect sedimentation rates, nodule presence and currents. Furthermore, the difference in depth from the eastern edge (3950 m) and the western edge (5150 m) is more than 1200 m. These combined factors very likely give rise to different trends in species composition (Glover, et al. 2016). However, since it has been established that bentho-pelagic amphipods are less sensitive to such barriers (Havermans, 2016), at this stage, other biotic (e.g. the productivity gradient) and abiotic factors causing this separation cannot be excluded as alternative explanations.

Dispersal and connectivity

Whilst the NMDS (Figure 6) illustrates a visual separation of the two basins, there is also some similarity in the amphipod fauna between the two areas, (as is obvious by the eight shared species), indicating that the dispersal extent for these eight species might range up to at least 3000 km. However, this hypothesis will need to be confirmed with subsequent molecular analyses.

Abyssal amphipods have been shown to be able to travel actively at speeds of almost 4 cm/sec (Laver, 1985), even at temperatures as low as 3°C (Kankaanpää et al. 1995). It is obvious that they are sufficiently strong to swim up weak currents since they can be found several hundred meters above the seafloor searching pelagically for mates (e.g. *Eurythenes gryllus* occurring up to 1800 m above the seafloor) (Thurston 1990; Havermans et al. 2013) or following food-falls (Baldwin and Smith 1987).

However, it is apparent that the dispersal of abyssal amphipods is not always contingent on current direction, but also on passive dispersal. Amphipods can also be carried passively over long distances by stronger currents e.g. (the circumpolar current of the Southern Ocean) (Laver et al. 1985), but even weaker deep-sea currents have been suggested as a mechanism for deep-sea dispersal of amphipods (e.g. *Eurythenes gryllus* (Schüller and Ebbe 2007)). This coupled with their ability to follow odour-plumes (Ide et al. 2006; Premke, 2003), significantly increases the probability and extent of their dispersal (Conlan 1991; Highsmith, 1985). Specialist feeding adaptations for several species in our assemblages have been

reported in Havermans & Smetacek, 2018). For example, the semi-tubular flap-like molars of the genera Hirondellea and Eurythenes, and the distendable foregut (Abyssorchomene) and midgut (Paralicella). It is not clear from our study in the absence of Particulate Organic Carbon (POC) data for the areas of the trap deployments whether the biogeography of these specialised feeders is linked to the productivity gradients in these two basins. The lack of a clear dispersal pattern is obvious from Figure 6, where station D2 is the station plotted closest with the CCZ basin in terms of species composition despite station D5 being geographically the shortest distance away from the CCZ. Recent research on Eurythenes gryllus has demonstrated that it thrives in every ocean with a wide (pelagic – hadal) depth range. However, assumptions that individual morphotypes of this species belong to the same genetic lineage have been challenged (Havermans et al. 2013 & Havermans, 2016). Ritchie et al. (2016) demonstrated with microsatellite markers heterozygote deficiency in *Paralicella tenuipes* Chevreux, 1908, which they attributed to cryptic diversity. It is likely that some of the eight shared species between the two basins are cryptic species, which will be tested by ongoing molecular research. Unfortunately, in the absence of data on deep-sea currents in the study area, especially between the CCZ and DEA, it is not yet possible to fully explain the drivers and mechanisms of amphipod dispersal between these particular basins.

The DisCOL Experimental Area as a proxy

Higher abundances of scavenging amphipods were collected from the CCZ (3932 individuals) as opposed to the DEA (2984 individuals). Yet, we have identified more morphotypes in the DEA (18) than in the CCZ (10), indicating that the DEA is more speciose, and thus, more biodiverse.

However, although the DEA is more speciose many of its morphotypes were collected in low abundances, with several of these being singletons or doubletons (collected from one or two sampling stations only). This is reflected in the rarefaction curves (Figure 4), which indicate thorough sampling in the CCZ with all but station C7 reaching asymptotes. In contrast, four stations in the DEA (D1, D2, D4 and D5) are unsaturated. This pattern suggests firstly, that the less abundant species which are present at fewer stations may not necessarily be rare species and secondly, that there could be as yet undetected biodiversity in the DEA.

Our preliminary (basin-scale) comparison of the scavenging communities of the two study areas shows that even if the DEA is a small-scale disturbance experiment, it is a very diverse area. Thus, the DEA is a well-chosen site for monitoring the impacts of disturbance and instrumental in its role as a proxy to assess impending mining activities in the CCZ.

Future research

At several stations in both basins, we collected amphipods in very high abundances (C1, C8, D3 & D5) (Table 2). Since biotic production is contingent on the sinking flux of particles from the euphotic zone (Sweetman, 2017), the biodiversity differences at each of the thirteen stations could be driven by POC or erratic whale-falls (Smith et al. 1989). However, not all feeding behaviour of scavenging amphipods is based on opportunistic or erratic availability of nutrients (Havermans & Smetacek, 2018). During future sampling campaigns, the POC of these amphipod sampling areas should be monitored, along with experiments on different types of food-fall in addition to obtaining side-scan sonar and abiotic data. This will provide a more comprehensive view of the food types required for these species to thrive in the deep sea.

It is not clear from our results whether substrate type (i.e. nodule/non-nodule) has any effect 644 on the amphipod communities (Smith and Demopoulos, 2003) since these kinds of data are 645 only available for stations D3 and D4. To answer this question, resampling of the study areas 646 in combination with an Ocean Floor Observation System (OFOBS) (video/camera) is 647 required. 648 649 Although our study only addresses the scavenging amphipod species longer than 15 mm, we 650 651 already find indications for a possible disturbance effect in the DEA. It is obvious that 652 scavenging amphipods are only one of several bentho-pelagic indicator groups. Other truly benthic groups such as sponges or less dispersive amphipods (e.g. collected by the 653 EpiBenthic Sledge (EBS)) may demonstrate an even more pronounced impact of mining 654 activities and should be investigated in future studies. 655 656 657 With the application of molecular techniques to identify cryptic species (Delić et al, 2017), more realistic estimates of biodiversity can be obtained (Schön et al. 2012), improving our 658 659 current knowledge of the biodiversity of this area. If these improved estimates of biodiversity also include cryptic species, it is possible that the biological impact of manganese nodule 660 661 mining on amphipod and other deep-sea faunal communities may turn out to be even higher. **Conclusions** 662 663 In summary, this study on the scavenging amphipod community of two abyssal oceanic 664 basins has demonstrated that amphipods are present in high abundances across the CCZ and 665 666 DEA, with eight shared species and some morphotypes possibly being unique to their 667 respective basin. Our results have indicated that the simulated mining experiment may have had an impact on 668 the biodiversity of these scavenging amphipods, as demonstrated by the low alpha 669 biodiversity of the DEA overall, at the disturbance site itself (D1), and the 60% dominance of 670 A. gerulicorbis (Shulenberger & Barnard, 1976) in this region. 671 Given the scarcity of sampling and industry experience of marine habitats at these depths, the 672 673 formulation of effective regulations is challenging (International Seabed Authority, 2017). Nonetheless, our study provides the first results on possible effects of disturbance activities 674 on the abyssal amphipod biodiversity of deep-sea basins. 675

Sample and data availability Biological samples pertaining to this manuscript are stored at the Royal Belgian Institute of Natural Sciences, and the data discussed in the manuscript are submitted to PANGEA. Acknowledgements The authors would like to acknowledge the Belgian Science and Policy Office (BELSPO) and the German Federal Ministry of Research and Education for funding. We would also like to thank the crew of the Research Vessel "Sonne", the University of Ghent (Ghent, Belgium) and Mr. Tim Plevoets. This research paper would not have been possible without their support.

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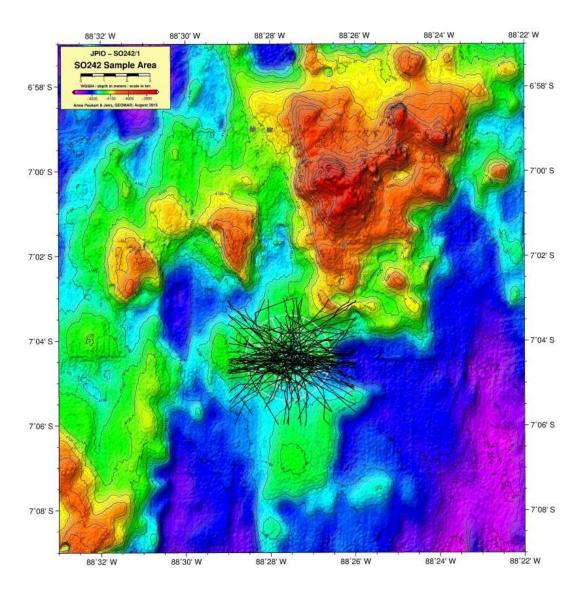
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958	Figure captions
959	
960	Figure 1: Geographic locations of the two study areas, the Clarion-Clipperton
961	fracture Zone (CCZ) (Northeast Pacific) and the DISturbance and re-COLonisation
962	(DisCOL) Experimental Area (DEA) (Peru Basin, Southeast Pacific). There are nine
963	Areas of Particular Ecological Interest (APEIs) in the CCZ region, which are illustrated
964	by 400 x 400 km ² white boxes. Grey boxes indicate the various contractor license areas in
965	the CCZ. We deployed eight amphipod traps across the CCZ, which is 16,000 km² and
966	7000 km wide, and five in the DEA, which encompasses 11 km ² with a width of 4 km.
967	
968	Figure 2: Histogram showing the species assemblage for the scavenging community
969	in the Clarion-Clipperton fracture Zone (CCZ) (black) and the DisCOL
970	Experimental Area (DEA) (grey). The abundances of 17 morphotypes are shown.
971	
972	Figure 3: Catch Per Unit Effort (CPUE) illustrating the correlation between
973	sampling time and number of individuals collected.
974	
975	Figure 4: Species rarefaction curves for each of the 13 trap stations across both
976	areas, the Clarion-Clipperton fracture Zone and the DisCOL Experimental Area.
977	Only individuals longer than 15 mm were considered here.
978	
979	Figures 5a and b: Relative species abundances in the Clarion-Clipperton fracture
980	Zone and the DisCOL Experimental Area. These abundances represent the longer than
981	15mm fraction of the scavenging amphipod community only.
982	
983	Figure 6: NMDS plot showing the beta biodiversity (dis/similarities) for each of the
984	thirteen amphipod trap sampling stations associated with the two basins, Clarion-
985	Clipperton fracture Zone (CCZ) (black) and the DisCOL Experimental Area (DEA) (red).
986	Data are supported by a low stress value of 0.01.
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989	Table captions
991	Table 1: Station overview. Codes refer to the codes used in this paper in figures 1, 3, 4, 6
992	and Table 3. The original station code represents the cruise codes from (SO239 and SO232-
993	1). Depth refers to water depth (m) on deployment. Nodule presence/absence information is
994	known only for stations D3 and D4.
995	Table 2: Overview of morphotypes across the Clarion-Clipperton fracture Zone (CCZ) and
996	DisCOL Experimental Area (DEA).
997	
998	Table 3: Comparison of biodiversity calculated using the Simpson Index (D), for the Clarion
999	Clipperton fracture Zone and DisCOL Experimental Area, and D for each station is shown
1000	for further comparisons within these areas.
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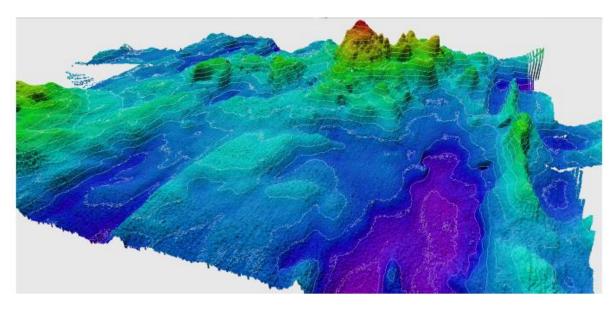
1011 1012	Appendix/Electronic Supplementary Information (ESM) captions
1013 1014 1015	Appendix 1: Multibeam scan - Showing the location of the 78 track marks created by the plough harrow in the DisCOL Experimental Area to simulate manganese nodule extraction activity (D1)
1016 1017	Appendix 2 – Photograph showing the baited free-fall lander trap designed and deployed by RBINS.
1018 1019	Appendix 3 - Side-scan sonar image of site D5 showing possible seamount barriers. View from NW (top) to SE (bottom). Contours are every 25 m. (Source: GEOMAR, 2015).
1020	Appendix 4 – Calculation of alpha biodiversity used in this manuscript.
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Appendix 2 – Photograph showing the baited free-fall lander trap designed and deployed by RBINS.



Appendix 3 - Side-scan sonar image of site D5 showing possible seamount barriers. View from NW (top) to SE (bottom). Contours are every 25 m. (Source: GEOMAR, 2015).



Appendix 4 - Calculation of alpha biodiversity used in this manuscript. Simpson Index Simpson Diversity Index (D) = $1 - \frac{\sum n(n-1)}{N(N-1)}$ D = Diversity Index n = number of individuals in each particular speciesN = Total number in communityA high value of D indicates a high species diversity.