



32 differences in overall total fish densities between reference and experimental areas, but the
33 dominant fish, *I. meadi*, still exhibited much lower densities in ploughed habitat suggesting only
34 partial fish community recovery. The scavenging community was dominated by eelpouts
35 (*Pachycara* spp), hermit crabs (*Probeebei mirabilis*) and shrimp. The large contribution of
36 hermit crabs appears unique amongst abyssal scavenger studies worldwide. The abyssal fish
37 community at DISCOL was similar to that in the more northerly Clarion Clipperton Zone,
38 though some species have only been observed at DISCOL thus far. Also, further species level
39 identifications are required to refine this assessment. Additional studies across the polymetallic
40 nodule provinces of the Pacific are required to further evaluate the environmental drivers of fish
41 density and diversity and species biogeographies, which will be important for the development of
42 appropriate management plans aimed at minimizing human impact from deep-sea mining.
43



44 1. Introduction

45 The world's oceans are becoming increasingly exploited for their resources, and
46 anthropogenic effects now reach the farthest corners and depths of ocean ecosystems (Ramirez-
47 Llodra et al., 2011). New uses of our oceans are emerging. Industrial interest in deep-sea
48 mineral extraction is at an all-time high, accelerated by global demand for minerals such as
49 cobalt, zinc, copper, nickel, and rare-earth elements, which are enriched in seamount crusts as
50 well as manganese nodules and deposited at hydrothermal vents. Currently, the International
51 Seabed Authority has granted 29 exploration contracts to companies to explore for metals and
52 rare-earth minerals in areas totaling $>1,200,000$ km² of seafloor in the Pacific, Atlantic, and
53 Indian Oceans (www.isa.org.jm). Though the current intensity of commercial interest combined
54 with technological innovations will soon lead to exploitation, this idea has a long history. Thus
55 several seafloor ecosystem disturbance experiments were performed beginning in the 1970's
56 (reviewed in Jones et al., 2017).

57 One of these, the DISturbance and reCOLonization experiment (DISCOL) was conducted
58 in the Peru Basin in 1989. A large experimental seafloor disturbance was created by repeatedly
59 plowing the seafloor. Biological surveys were conducted prior to the disturbance and several
60 times thereafter to monitor seafloor ecosystem recovery (Thiel et al., 2001). Studies of the site
61 seven years after disturbance showed only partial recovery (Thiel et al., 2001;Bluhm, 2001).
62 Similar studies carried out in the north Pacific have also given indications that seafloor
63 communities have not recovered or only partially recovered in periods of 26-37 years following
64 disturbance (Miljutin et al., 2011;Jones et al., 2017;Gollner et al., 2017). This is not surprising
65 given low rates of recruitment and growth common in these ecosystems, and the removal of the
66 hard substrate upon which a large portion of the fauna depends (Amon et al., 2016;Vanreusel et
67 al., 2016;Purser et al., 2017).

68 Though a number of studies in abyssal mining regions have evaluated megafaunal
69 biodiversity and ecosystem responses, few have included quantitative and detailed data on fishes
70 or scavengers (Leitner et al., 2017). However, many fishes are top predators that can have
71 important influences on communities and ecosystems (Estes et al., 2011;Drazen and Sutton,
72 2017). Though fishes are mobile and may not suffer immediate mortality from mining, they will
73 be affected by the large sediment plumes created (Oebius et al., 2001) and by the loss of foraging
74 habitat, so they may suffer regionally from local mining activities. Also, top predators can



75 bioaccumulate metals and other contaminants (Chouvelon et al., 2012;Choy et al., 2009;Bonito
76 et al., 2016) that may be released from the activities of mining. Thus, it is important to
77 characterize the fish community in regions that will likely experience mining in the near future
78 and to begin constructing a biogeography, so that scientists and managers can evaluate potential
79 mining impacts and appropriately locate protected no-mining zones (Wedding et al., 2013).

80 In 2015 a survey was performed of the DISCOL area using photo and video transecting
81 techniques in a similar manner to the historical surveys of the area conducted into the late 1990s.
82 In addition, archived analogue baited camera images collected shortly after the 1989 disturbance
83 (1989-1992) were digitized and analyzed for fishes and other mobile scavengers, some of which
84 may avoid transecting vehicles (Trenkel et al., 2004;Colton and Swearer, 2010). Our goal was to
85 a) describe the fish and scavenger community in detail for the first time, b) evaluate the fish
86 community response to disturbance and potential recovery, and c) compare the fish and
87 scavenger community to that observed to the north of the equator in the Clarion Clipperton Zone
88 (CCZ) where the majority of abyssal mining exploration licenses have been thus far granted, and
89 where initial pilot mining activities are likely to commence.

90

91 **2. Methods**

92 In 1989 a ~10.8 km² circular region of the Peru basin in the Pacific, the DISCOL
93 experimental area (the DEA), was artificially ploughed, in an effort to simulate the effects of
94 deep-sea mining (Thiel et al., 2001). The study site (7° 04.4' S, 88° 27.60' W) ranges in depth
95 from 4120-4200 m. Sediments are fine grained clays overlain with heterogeneous cover of
96 manganese nodules, sometimes in high density. The plough-harrow device was 8 m wide and
97 when deployed, overturned the first 10-15cm of seafloor sediment, ploughing the nodules into
98 the seafloor and removing this hard substrate from the sediment / water interface. The plough
99 was towed in 78 radial transects through the disturbance area with ~20% of the seafloor directly
100 disturbed by the plough. The most central region of the DEA was the most highly disturbed area
101 crosscut by the majority of plough tows (Fig. 1; Foell et al., 1992).

102 In 2015 the DISCOL site was revisited and sampled twice (cruises SO242-1 and 2). The
103 initial cruise was conducted in the summer and primarily conducted detailed acoustic and image-
104 based mapping of the plough tracks using Autonomous Underwater Vehicles and ship based
105 sensors. This initial cruise also towed an epibenthic sled (EBS) several times across the seafloor,



106 removing the top 20 cm of seafloor in trenches of ~2m x 500 m. These sled deployments were
107 conducted to more accurately simulate the upper sediment removal envisioned as a likely
108 consequence of mining. The second of these cruises focused on the detailed photographic study
109 of the historic and recent disturbances mapped during the first cruise.

110 For investigation of megafauna, including fishes, the Alfred Wegner Institute (AWI)
111 OFOS LAUNCHER towed camera system was used to conduct photographic transects of the
112 seafloor. The OFOS LAUNCHER is identical to the OFOBS system described in Purser et al.
113 (2018), with the exceptions that the OFOS was not equipped with INS, side scan or forward
114 facing sonar systems. OFOS was flown at a height of ~1.7m above the seafloor and used a 23
115 megapixel downward looking still camera to take images every 15 seconds, each of which also
116 captured the laser points projected by a tri-laser (50 cm spacing) sizing device. Ship speed was
117 maintained at 0.2-0.4 knots.

118 Given the high heterogeneity of the seafloor area studied, each image was manually
119 assessed to represent one of a range of disturbance categories. These were 1) 'Reference' areas,
120 not directly within the target circle of seafloor ploughed in 1989 (DEA), 2) 'Undisturbed' areas
121 within the central DEA circle, but not actually impacted by the plough harrow directly, 3)
122 'Transition' images, within which both the edge of a plough track was visible as well as
123 surrounding seafloor, 4) 'Ploughed' images within which only ploughed seafloor was visible and
124 5) 'EBS' areas, disturbed a month prior to SO242-2 by the towed epibenthic sled deployed by
125 SO242-1. These five disturbance categories represent increasing levels of physical disturbance.

126 Image area captured within each image was determined by measuring the spacing of the
127 laser points in a subset of 3663 images using the PAPPARA(ZZ)I software application (Marcon
128 and Purser, 2017). The image area of all remaining images was calculated from the camera
129 altitude (distance to seafloor) using a second order polynomial regression of the laser-based
130 measurements. The average seafloor image area was 5.71 m². In some instances, the camera was
131 manually triggered to capture images of fishes that would have been missed in between timed
132 images, or to capture a fish at a more suitable angle for identification. Images were manually
133 annotated for fishes (for octopi see Purser et al., (2017) and for all invertebrates and benthic
134 fauna see Marcon et al. submitted) using a variety of published keys. Fish density was estimated
135 by dividing the number of fish viewed in regular timed images by the area photographed.
136 Manually triggered images were not included in density estimates as these would present a



137 positive bias towards images with fish in them. Diversity was evaluated using rarefaction curves
138 (on all images, timed and manually triggered, because this approach only requires positive
139 occurrences) to enable comparisons between habitat types that were not sampled at the same
140 intensity.

141 OFOS transects often crossed several habitat types, so for fish density estimates, the
142 images from each transect were divided into habitat type subsets. Fish density was estimated for
143 each of these by dividing the number of fish viewed in the regularly timed images by the area
144 photographed. For some habitat categories, there were very few images collected during a
145 transect. In this case, we eliminated all the subsets/samples that were unlikely to have seen at
146 least one fish based on the mean density of both large and small samples of $30.6 \text{ fish ha}^{-1}$,
147 translating to a threshold sample area of 330 m^2 . If used in the analysis, these small image sets
148 would either bias the results towards zero estimates if no fish present in the small image set, or
149 towards incorrectly high estimates if a few fish happened to be in the small set of collected
150 images. Fish density was compared between habitat types using a permutational ANOVA on a
151 Euclidean distance matrix to account for uneven sample sizes and non-normal data distribution.

152 Baited cameras are now a widely used tool to census marine fishes (Bailey et al., 2007)
153 because they can attract often sparsely distributed animals to within the census view, including
154 some that might avoid active camera survey tools. Thus, for fully describing diversity and
155 species abundances within a regional fish assemblage, they are indispensable. However, in
156 contrast to transect methods, they are more difficult to use for estimations of accurate animal
157 densities (Priede and Merrett, 1998; Yeh and Drazen, 2011).

158 During the first post disturbance cruise in 1989 and three years later in 1992 (Sonne
159 cruises 61 and 77), free fall baited cameras (freefall baited observing systems - FBOS) were
160 deployed (Brandt et al., 2004). These utilized a Benthos 35mm survey camera and strobe. Bait
161 was attached to a rod or placed in a small clear plastic tube $\sim 1\text{m}$ from the camera, resting on the
162 seafloor. Oblique images of $\sim 1.7\text{m}^2$ of the seafloor were taken every 2 to 5.5 min for ~ 24 to 55
163 hours, averaging 725 images per deployment. Animals were counted in each image. Metrics
164 extracted from the imagery include the maximum number of each taxa visible in any one image
165 over the camera deployment (MaxN), the time of first arrival for each taxa (T_{arr}), and the
166 proportion of images in which a taxa was present for a camera deployment (Yeh and Drazen,
167 2011; Linley et al., 2017; Leitner et al., 2017). Only species that were clearly attracted to the bait



168 were enumerated. This eliminated species that were photographed as they were simply drifting
169 or crawling through the field of view. Further, many small amphipods were often present at the
170 bait but could not be reliably counted and so are not included. Deployments in 1989 were made
171 within both the reference and disturbance areas, and an analysis of similarity test (ANOSIM) was
172 used to compare community compositions.

173

174 **3. Results**

175 3.1 Photographic transects

176 20 OFOS transects samples were performed resulting in 46 habitat samples (Fig. 1).
177 From these a total of 16733 images were examined with 306 fishes observed in 300 images
178 (Table 1). Fishes were represented by 14 taxa (not including the category “unidentified fishes”;
179 Fig. 2). Several groups were distinct but could not be identified to species whereas others were
180 only identifiable to genus or family. The most common species observed was the benthic *Ipnops*
181 cf *meadi* representing 61% of the fish observations. The Ophidiids were the most speciose family
182 observed with 6 operational taxonomic units (OTU), some of which were distinct but could not
183 be identified conclusively.

184 Across the five different habitat types, sampling effort was very uneven. Within the full
185 data set, images taken of reference area and in unploughed habitat within the experimental area
186 were most abundant (Table 1). Seafloor images showing the disturbed habitat types (transient,
187 ploughed and epibenthic sled (EBS) tracks) were less numerous. For all the data combined, as
188 well as for the unploughed habitat type alone, rarefaction curves suggested adequate sampling as
189 an asymptote was beginning to be reached in both cases (Fig. 3). However, within the other
190 habitat types, rarefaction curves suggested more sampling was required to fully capture the fish
191 diversity. Thus, the use of estimated species richness was needed for diversity comparisons.
192 Interestingly, the disturbed habitat types had higher rarified diversity (ES 26) than the reference
193 area or neighboring unploughed habitat (Fig. 3).

194 Fish densities were highly variable. Across all sample areas surveyed, seafloor areas
195 imaged ranged from 355 to 7798 m² and fish density ranged from 0 to 71.4 fish ha⁻¹. Across all
196 samples average fish density was 30.2 ± 18.2 fish ha⁻¹ (Fig. 4). Across the habitat types, density
197 did not vary significantly (PERMANOVA, p>0.05). The density of the most common fish, *I.*
198 *meadi*, could also be estimated and ranged from 0 to 68 fish ha⁻¹, averaging 18.4 ± 17.5 fish ha⁻¹



199 across all samples (Fig. 4). Its density was significantly lower in the ploughed habitat type
200 compared to undisturbed and reference habitats. Only a single *I. meadi* was found in the EBS
201 habitat type (Table 1), but this individual did not occur in a habitat sample of sufficient length for
202 density estimation. *Ipnops meadi* density in the two samples available for analysis was zero.

203 Our fish density estimates can be compared to those published in Bluhm (2001).
204 Bluhm's time series of densities suggests that there were no fish observed 6 months post
205 disturbance, then fish density increased at year 3 and had returned to pre-disturbance density
206 levels after 7 years (Fig. 5). At this time, ophiuroids, holothurians, fish and hermit crabs were
207 observed in the plough tracks. We examined this data and the 2015 data for the reference,
208 ploughed and unploughed habitat types, in addition to those presented in Bluhm's original work
209 using a two factor PERMANOVA. Habitat type and time were significant predictors of fish
210 density with lower fish densities in the ploughed habitat ($p < 0.01$). Also, the densities of fish
211 across the three habitat types changed significantly with time since the disturbance (habitat x
212 time, $p < 0.05$). Fish density was significantly ($p < 0.05$) lower than the other habitat types right
213 after the disturbance, at 3 years post disturbance, and marginally lower at 6 months post
214 disturbance ($p = 0.057$). At 7 years the undisturbed habitat type in the DEA had higher fish
215 density than the reference area. At 26 years, as already mentioned, there was no difference
216 between habitats. Fish densities were similar to levels found in the undisturbed habitats and the
217 reference area at 3 years post disturbance but higher than other times (Fig. 5). It was not possible
218 to evaluate the times series data for *I. meadi* as Bluhm (2001) did not publish species specific
219 results.

220

221 3.2 Baited camera observations

222 Six baited camera deployments were conducted, 5 in 1989 and 1 in 1992 (Table 2). Six
223 taxa of fishes were identified (Fig. 6). The most abundant (MaxN) in the deployments was the
224 eelpout *Pachycara nazca*. This species occurred in all 6 deployments, reached a MaxN of 9 in
225 two of the deployments and on average was present in 55% of the images. Individuals of the
226 rattail *Coryphaenoides* sp. were either *C. armatus* or *C. yaquinae*, or both were present but, we
227 could not differentiate them in the photographs. This taxa was present in all of the deployments
228 but was observed on average in only 2.1% of images, and MaxN was never more than 2. Several
229 ophiidiids and a synbranchid eel were also observed.



230 The baited camera also attracted 9 taxa of invertebrates (Table 2). The small shrimp
231 *Hymenopeneus nereus* was present in all of the deployments in relatively large numbers (average
232 MaxN = 9), with up to 15 visible at one time and was present on average in 63% of the images.
233 The hermit crab *Probeebei mirabilis*, was also observed in every deployment but in varying
234 numbers (from 1 to 9) and in 29% of the images. Penaeid shrimp were also observed in every
235 deployment and were the third most abundant and common scavenging species. Two species
236 were identified, *Cerataspis monstrosus* (identified as *Plesiopeneus armatus* in earlier papers;
237 Leitner et al 2017) and *Benthiscymus* sp. Frequently, these could not be distinguished as they
238 differ in the shape of the antennal scale and rostrum which were not always clearly visible.
239 Large Munnopsid isopods were seen in all but one deployment but did not remain in the field of
240 view for long. Ophiuroids were not abundant or common, being observed in three deployments
241 as single individuals, but they stayed in the field of view for a long time (high persistence
242 values).

243 Two of the camera deployments in 1989 were made in the disturbance area 6 months post
244 event. In one of these deployments there was no obvious sign of disturbance in the limited field
245 of view. In the other, a plough harrow track was clearly visible (FBOS006; Table 2). Low
246 numbers of the benthic eelpout, *P. nazca*, were observed during this deployment. This
247 deployment also had the lowest numbers of the benthic shrimp, *H. nereus*. However, the
248 community composition did not vary significantly between the 1989 deployments in disturbed
249 and reference areas (ANOSIM, $p > 0.05$).

250 Overall, the diversity observed with the small number of camera deployments was fairly
251 uniform, as evident from the plateau reached in both rarefaction and species accumulation curves
252 (Fig. 7). This was the case for all scavengers and for the fishes alone. The baited cameras
253 observed fewer taxa of fishes compared to the photo transects (Table 1, 2). Many of the fishes
254 observed in the photo transects included less mobile benthic species such as members of the
255 Ipnopidae, Bathysauridae and numerous unidentified ophidiids. However, the baited camera
256 deployments identified two fish species that were not observed in the photo transects, *Barathrites*
257 *iris* and a Synaphobranchid eel, both mobile scavengers.

258

259 4. Discussion

260 4.1 A description of the fish and scavenging community and relationship to past DISCOL studies



261 We present some of the first detailed fish assemblage information for the abyssal eastern
262 Pacific where seafloor mining will likely occur. Earlier studies at the DISCOL site presented
263 limited fish assemblage results from the first few years of the experiment and report finding 8
264 fish taxa with *Ipnops* sp. being the most abundant (Bluhm, 1994). All of the taxa that were
265 observed in these initial investigations were also present in our 2015 survey results, with the
266 exception of *Halosaurus* sp. Moreover, we observed 6 additional taxa in 2015, and together with
267 analysis of the 1989-1992 baited camera deployments, we have observed a total of 16 taxa.
268 Interestingly the earlier camera transect surveys flew the camera system higher off the bottom (3-
269 3.5m vs 1.7m) which is perhaps more appropriate for the survey of larger, mobile fishes.
270 Advances in photographic identification of abyssal fishes across the Pacific and improvements in
271 photographic quality have resulted in the greater detail in the present analysis.

272 The baited camera deployments provided additional information on the DISCOL fish
273 community and also provided data on scavenging invertebrate fauna. Past taxonomic works
274 have used trapped specimens to document the presence of the eelpouts *P. nasca* and *P. bulbiceps*
275 (Anderson and Bluhm, 1997) and the ophiidiid *B. iris* (specimen deposited at the Senckenberg
276 Museum). The physical specimens provide some vouchers for taxa that were identified from
277 photographs. Two taxonomic studies used the baited camera imagery to tentatively identify the
278 ophiidiid *Bassozetus nasus* (Nielsen and Merrett, 2000) and large Munnopsid isopods which were
279 thought to belong to the genus *Paropsurus* (Brandt et al., 2004). Bluhm et al (1995) briefly states
280 that *P. mirabilis* and ophiuroids were commonly seen in the baited camera photos, but these
281 results were not given in any detail. We show the eelpouts, the shrimp *H. nereus*, and hermit
282 crabs are indeed common and regular bait attending fauna at this site (see below for comparisons
283 to other abyssal regions).

284

285 *4.2 Evaluation of the fish community response to disturbance and potential recovery*

286 Our results 26 years post disturbance, when compared to earlier sampling, provide some
287 insight into the recovery potential of the fish fauna. The striking result found by Bluhm (2001)
288 was that no fishes were observed in the disturbance area within 6 months of the disturbance;
289 however, we show the presence of fish and scavenging invertebrates at this time from baited
290 camera deployments. Samples sizes were low, but the community seems comparable to that in
291 the reference areas at the same time. It seems likely that the scavengers were attracted from the



292 larger neighborhood, some possibly from proximate reference or undisturbed areas. This could
293 occur even if these animals were not commonly residing in the disturbance area due to habitat or
294 prey community alteration.

295 Only partial recovery of the fish community has occurred 26 years post disturbance. Total
296 fish density in the ploughed habitat of the DEA increased over time and in relation to the
297 reference and undisturbed habitat suggesting recovery. It should be noted that large interannual
298 changes were evident at the reference site with fish densities peaking 3 years post disturbance
299 and at high levels again at 26 years (Fig. 5). An increase in megafaunal density over the first 7
300 years of the experiment was already documented and hypothesized to be the result of increased
301 phytodetrital food flux and growing populations regionally (Bluhm, 2001). Such variation in
302 megafaunal abundance is a regular feature of abyssal communities (Kuhnz et al., 2014; Ruhl and
303 Smith, 2004). Comparisons between habitats at a point in time can provide a more robust means
304 to assess recovery after plough disturbance (Miljutin et al., 2011). We found no differences in
305 total fish density between the disturbed and undisturbed habitats at 26 years. Further, diversity
306 (ES 26) was slightly higher in the disturbed habitat areas, although with relatively small sample
307 sizes. However, the most common fish *I. meadi*, that makes up more than half of all the fish
308 observations, had only a third of the density in 26-year-old plough tracks compared to
309 undisturbed and reference areas, and only one individual was seen in the fresh EBS tracks (Fig.
310 4). The avoidance of *I. meadi* over plough tracks, shows that even the mobile fish community
311 has not fully recovered from the disturbance after more than two decades. This species' response
312 likely relates to its biology as a rather sedentary, small benthic fish that, based on limited data,
313 feeds on polychaetes, small bivalves, and crustaceans (Nielsen, 1966; Crabtree et al., 1991). Its
314 prey may not have recovered in the tracks (Jones et al., 2017; Borowski, 2001). Most of the other
315 fishes observed are benthopelagic and when swimming across a habitat mosaic might as easily
316 be seen over an old plough track as over other habitat. Even if benthopelagic species tend to
317 favor undisturbed habitat, this would be difficult to see in the data. Our other benthic species
318 include the lizardfish *B. mollis* which preys on mobile fishes and shrimps and *B. sewelli*, which
319 is a larger member of the Ipnopidae, but was too infrequently observed to assess habitat
320 preferences (Table 1).

321 Conclusions about fish community recovery over time must be taken with caution. With a
322 sparsely distributed fauna and the high variability in density, there are limits on statistical power



323 and thus our confidence. The earlier DISCOL surveys differed in methodology to the current
324 surveys including average altitude of the camera above bottom, image quality, and attention to
325 the fishes. Our diversity estimates may well be higher as a result. Density estimates could also
326 be affected by these same factors. The most common fish in the surveys, *I. meadi*, is relatively
327 small and despite reflective eyes (Fig. 2) may have been more visible in our 2015 surveys in
328 closer proximity to the seafloor. The influence many of these parameters have had on abundance
329 estimations of fauna in the DISCOL region has been investigated in detail for a region of the
330 DEA which was surveyed several times during the initial 7-year period and again in 2015. In
331 2015, the OFOS was deployed at 1.7 and 4 m in this region, and additionally an AUV was flown
332 at 5 m to image the same region of seafloor. The results from these comparative studies (Purser
333 et al. submitted for this special issue) show the sensitivity of density and diversity indices in the
334 DISCOL area to changes in flight height, illumination, and camera type. Larger megafauna, such
335 as fish, were clearly visible in images collected from higher altitudes, therefore resulting in both
336 higher diversity and abundance estimates for a given transect length than achieved with lower
337 flying camera systems. Certainly, methodology plays a very important role in determining the
338 accuracy of sampling strategies in this ecosystem for determination of these parameters.

339 Our results add to a growing body of literature that generally finds little or partial
340 recovery of faunal communities, even decades after simulated mining disturbances. Epifaunal
341 megafauna density was considerably lower in disturbance tracks made 20 and 37 years prior to
342 re-survey during the OMCO experiment in the CCZ (Vanreusel et al., 2016). Meta-analyses of
343 abyssal disturbance experiments in the CCZ suggest that recovery of density and diversity is
344 faster in mobile than sedentary fauna (Gollner et al., 2017; Jones et al., 2017). For instance, the
345 mobile holothurian community appears to have recovered from disturbance in terms of density
346 and community composition at the DISCOL site after 26 years (Stratmann et al., 2018). Most
347 holothurians are detrital deposit feeders and their food source settling from above may not be
348 greatly affected by the plough disturbance, whereas some fishes, such as *I. meadi*, likely rely
349 upon epifaunal and infaunal macrofauna for food. The meiofauna and macrofauna have not
350 recovered completely after 26 years in the CCZ (Miljutin et al., 2011), or after 7 years at the
351 DISCOL site (Borowski, 2001). Some of the variation in the recovery potential observed
352 between studies is undoubtedly derived from the variation in disturbance type and intensity. The
353 direct benthic scale of actual nodule mining activities is suggested to be from 300-600 km² y⁻¹



354 for a single mining license (Oebius et al., 2001; Levin et al., 2016). Plumes of sediment from
355 collectors or from discharge of the ore dewatering plume (Rolinski et al., 2001) will greatly
356 expand this area of effect. Therefore, it seems unlikely that the small-scale disturbance
357 experiments, such as DISCOL (~10.8 km²), will be adequate for evaluating the potential effects
358 of full scale nodule mining. Further, the physical disturbance made in all experimental studies to
359 date have not been directly reminiscent of the impacts actual mining will make in terms of
360 volumes of surface sediment removed or displaced, subsequent sediment compaction, or
361 generation of the high resolution topographical changes associated with the ridges and troughs
362 likely to result from tracked mining vehicle movement (Jones et al., 2017; Doya et al., 2017; Jones
363 et al., 2018).

364

365 *4.3 Comparison of the DISCOL fish and scavenger communities to those within the CCZ*

366 Nodule mining is likely to affect very large areas of the seafloor over decades (Wedding
367 et al., 2015). Mobile fishes and other scavengers likely have the greatest ability to migrate away
368 from mining disturbances, but they may be affected regionally through the redistribution of prey
369 resources and sublethal effects from toxic metals or sediment plumes. Consequently, the
370 biogeographies of taxa, even mobile species, are an important input to spatial management
371 approaches (Watling et al., 2013). The scale of species distributions will help determine where
372 and how large reserve areas should be in order to protect species. Comparison of the present
373 findings in the south Pacific to those in the CCZ polymetallic nodule province to the north,
374 across the equatorial upwelling, provide some insight into the ranges of abyssal fishes and
375 scavengers in this mining relevant region. Past studies frequently combined fish and scavenger
376 taxa into larger functional groups such as megafauna (Jones et al., 2017), but some studies have
377 presented lists of species, which are the focus of the comparison here.

378 A number of the fish taxa observed with camera transects in the CCZ have also been
379 identified in the DISCOL area suggesting large species distributions (Table 3). 10 of the 14 taxa
380 in the DISCOL region are shared with the CCZ. Four taxa were identified from DISCOL that
381 were not previously identified from the CCZ region, none of which were abundant. Four fishes
382 were observed in the various CCZ studies but not at the DISCOL site. A number of abyssal
383 species have pan-Pacific and even global distributions (Priede, 2017). However, we are not
384 suggesting that there is only a single community of fishes and scavengers integrated over 1000's



385 of kilometers. The overlap between the two areas may be artificially high due to the difficulty in
386 identifying species from photographs, particularly those taken from high altitudes, and hence the
387 use of genera and higher taxonomic categories. Further there are some taxa which can easily be
388 confused depending upon image quality. For instance in the DISCOL site we identified the
389 ophidiid, *Porogadus* sp. which has a long whip like tail and narrow body similar to Halosaurs
390 which have been observed in the CCZ (Amon et al., 2017) and in an earlier study at the DISCOL
391 site (Bluhm, 1994). We suspect that with increasing camera resolution and better taxonomic
392 experience, photographic data and its analysis will improve greatly. Also, taxa are much more
393 easily identified in oblique imagery. For instance, Halosaurs have prominent high pectoral fins
394 and a single short dorsal whereas *Porogadus* has a long low dorsal fin all of which are seen in
395 oblique imagery. We suggest the use of both oblique and vertical cameras on the same platforms
396 in future studies. There has been some suggestion that oblique imagery would also alleviate
397 avoidance issues with mobile taxa, but in the one abyssal study that used both oblique and
398 vertical cameras, greater fish density was found in the vertical imagery (Milligan et al., 2016).
399 Finally, collecting physical specimens and genetic data would be a great complement to the
400 camera-based approach. Trawling for fish samples in mining claim areas will be challenging due
401 to the great depth and the abundance of nodules, which can break nets and greatly damage
402 specimens. Baited traps are effective for some of the fauna (Leitner et al., 2017; Linley et al.,
403 2016).

404 The scavenging communities exhibit some interesting differences to those described from
405 the eastern CCZ region and other abyssal Pacific locations. The dominant DISCOL scavengers
406 were the shrimp *H. nereus*, eelpouts *Pachycara* spp., and the hermit crab *P. mirabilis*. The
407 presence of large numbers of hermit crabs at the DISCOL site has been noted in earlier transect
408 studies (Bluhm, 2001), and their large contribution to the scavenging community seems unique
409 amongst abyssal scavenger studies. The most similar finding was a few hermit crabs
410 (*Sympagurus birkenroadi*, MaxN= 2) attending bait from 2000 – 3000m depths off Hawaii (Yeh
411 and Drazen, 2009). The large numbers of *H. nereus* is similar to the community in the eastern
412 CCZ (Leitner et al., 2017). However, the eastern CCZ fishes were dominated by
413 *Coryphaenoides* spp., which were not abundant at the DISCOL site. Overall the DISCOL
414 scavenging community appears more similar to that observed in the western CCZ, which hosted
415 lower numbers of *Coryphaenoides* spp. and greater numbers of ophidiids and shrimp (Leitner et



416 al., 2017). The differences from east to west in the CCZ have been postulated to be related to the
417 lower surface productivity in the west. Indeed, more oligotrophic regions have been shown to
418 shift the dominance of the scavenging fishes from Macrourids to Ophidiids (Linley et al.,
419 2017; Fleury and Drazen, 2013). However, the average long term chlorophyll concentration at
420 the DISCOL site estimated from the MODIS satellite (30x30km box from 2006-2016) is about
421 1.5 times higher ($0.22 \text{ mg chl-a m}^{-3}$) than that reported by Leitner et al (2017) in the eastern
422 CCZ. Whether the community differences observed between the DISCOL and CCZ regions are
423 the result of variations in overlying productivity, species distributions, or other habitat factors
424 cannot be discerned until a greater number of baited camera studies are conducted across the
425 region.

426

427 In conclusion, the DISCOL site has a relatively diverse abyssal fish community
428 dominated by *Ipnops meadi*. Fish density increased in the ploughed habitat type over time and
429 became similar to undisturbed habitat types at 26 years post disturbance, but the density of *I.*
430 *meadi* is still only a third of the undisturbed habitat types indicating only partial recovery of the
431 fish fauna. The abyssal fish communities observed in the central eastern Pacific at DISCOL and
432 the more northerly CCZ are similar with many shared taxa. However, further species level
433 identifications are required which requires the collection of physical specimens through trawling
434 or baited traps. The scavenging community in the DISCOL site is unique in the prevalence of
435 the hermit crab, *P. mirabilis*, which does not appear in the CCZ in either camera transects or
436 baited camera deployments. Not surprisingly, fishes and mobile scavengers appear generally to
437 have large ranges but also large shifts in community composition across the CCZ (Leitner et al.,
438 2017) and across the equator. As commercial mining of polymetallic nodule provinces rapidly
439 progresses, with commercial field trials commencing in the Belgian and German claim areas of
440 the CCZ in the first months of 2019, gaining a better understanding of these remote ecosystems
441 is of paramount importance. Until key fauna, such as the various benthic fish species utilizing
442 these habitats are better known, ensuring that appropriate management plans are developed to
443 best minimize human impact during mining will be extremely problematic.

444

445 5. Author Contributions



446 JCD and ABL analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript. SM annotated the baited camera
447 images and assembled the data. AP and YM designed and conducted the camera transect
448 experiments, quantified image coverage, helped write the manuscript, and generated the map
449 figure. JG digitized and archived the original baited camera images. All authors read and
450 commented on the manuscript.

451

452 **6. Competing interests**

453 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

454

455 **7. Acknowledgements**

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461 (JPIO).



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620 **Table 1.** Numbers of photo transect observations (all images/ timed images only) for fishes in
 621 the DISCOL area by habitat type. The percent of images with fishes are calculated from the
 622 timed images only.

OTU	Family	total	reference	Habitat type			ebs
				undisturbed	transition	ploughed	
<i>Bathysaurus mollis</i>	Bathysauridae	13/11	2/1	5/4	2	2	2
<i>Bathytyphlops cf sewelli</i>	Ipnopidae	5		3/3		2	
<i>Ipnops cf meadi</i>	Ipnopidae	188/178	68/64	97/91	11	11	1
Liparidae	Liparidae	4/3	1	3/2			
<i>Coryphaenoides armatus/yaquinae</i>	Macrouridae	6/5		3/3	3/2		
<i>Coryphaenoides leptolepis?</i>	Macrouridae	1/0		1/0			
<i>Bassozetus cf nasus</i>	Ophidiidae	6	2	1	2	1	
<i>Bassozetus sp. B</i>	Ophidiidae	2		1	1		
<i>Bathyonus caudalis</i>	Ophidiidae	30/26	8	15/12	2	3/2	2
<i>Leucicorus sp.</i>	Ophidiidae	3/2	3/2				
Ophidiid sp. 3	Ophidiidae	6	1	2	1	2	
Ophidiidae unided	Ophidiidae	16/14	2	8/6	1	5	
<i>Porogadus sp.</i>	Ophidiidae	11	4	3	3	1	
<i>Pachycara spp.</i>	Zoarcidae	4/2	2/1	2/1			
unided fish		11/10	4/3	4		2	1
	#fish	306/281	97/89	148/133	26/25	29/28	6
	# OTUs	14	10	13/12	9	8	3
	# images	16733	5964	7155	1209	2055	350
	# images with fish	300/275	97/89	145/130	23/22	29/28	6
	% images with fish	1.6%	1.5%	1.8%	1.8%	1.4%	1.7%

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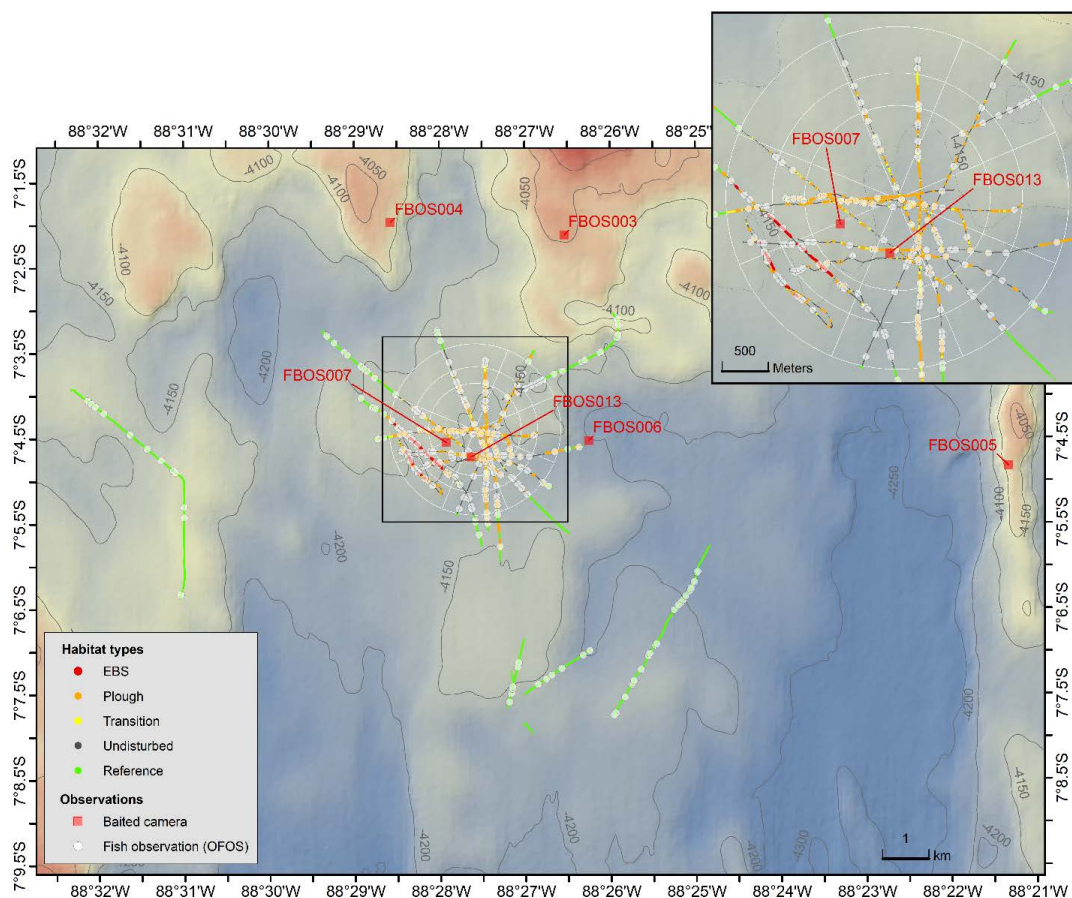
626 **Table 3.** Fish taxa occurrences from DISCOL and abyssal sites of the CCZ. * listed in Bluhm
 627 (1994), bc – observed by baited camera only, #only these taxa out of 17 are given in the original
 628 reference

Taxa	Family	This study	(Amon et al., 2017; Amon et al., 2016)	(Pawson and Foell, 1983)	(Radziejewska and Stoyanova, 2000)	(Tilot, 2006) [#]
<i>Bathysaurus mollis</i>	Bathysauridae	x	x	x		x
Halosauridae	Halosauridae	*	x			
<i>Bathytyphlops sewelli</i>	Ipnopidae	x				
<i>Iplops meadi</i>	Ipnopidae	x	x	x	x	x
Liparidae	Liparidae	x				x
<i>Coryphaenoides armatus/yaquinae</i>	Macrouridae	x	x	x	x	x
<i>Coryphaenoides leptolepis?</i>	Macrouridae	x				
<i>Barathrites iris</i>	Ophidiidae	bc	bc			x
<i>Bassozetus</i> sp.	Ophidiidae	x	x	x		
<i>Bassozetus</i> sp. B (sp 4 in Amon et al 2017)	Ophidiidae	x	x			
<i>Bathyonus caudalis</i> (sp 5 in Amon et al 2017)	Ophidiidae	x	x			
<i>Leucicorus</i> sp.	Ophidiidae	x				
Ophidiid sp. 1	Ophidiidae		x			
Ophidiid sp. 2	Ophidiidae		bc			
Ophidiid sp. 3	Ophidiidae	x	x			
Ophidiidae	Ophidiidae	x		x		x
<i>Porogadus</i> sp.	Ophidiidae	x				
<i>Typhlonus nasus</i>	Ophidiidae			x		x
<i>Histiobranchus bathybius</i>	Synaphobranchidae		x			
Synaphobranchidae	Synaphobranchidae	bc				x
<i>Pachycara</i> spp.	Zoarcidae	x	x			
Zoarcidae	Zoarcidae		x	x		

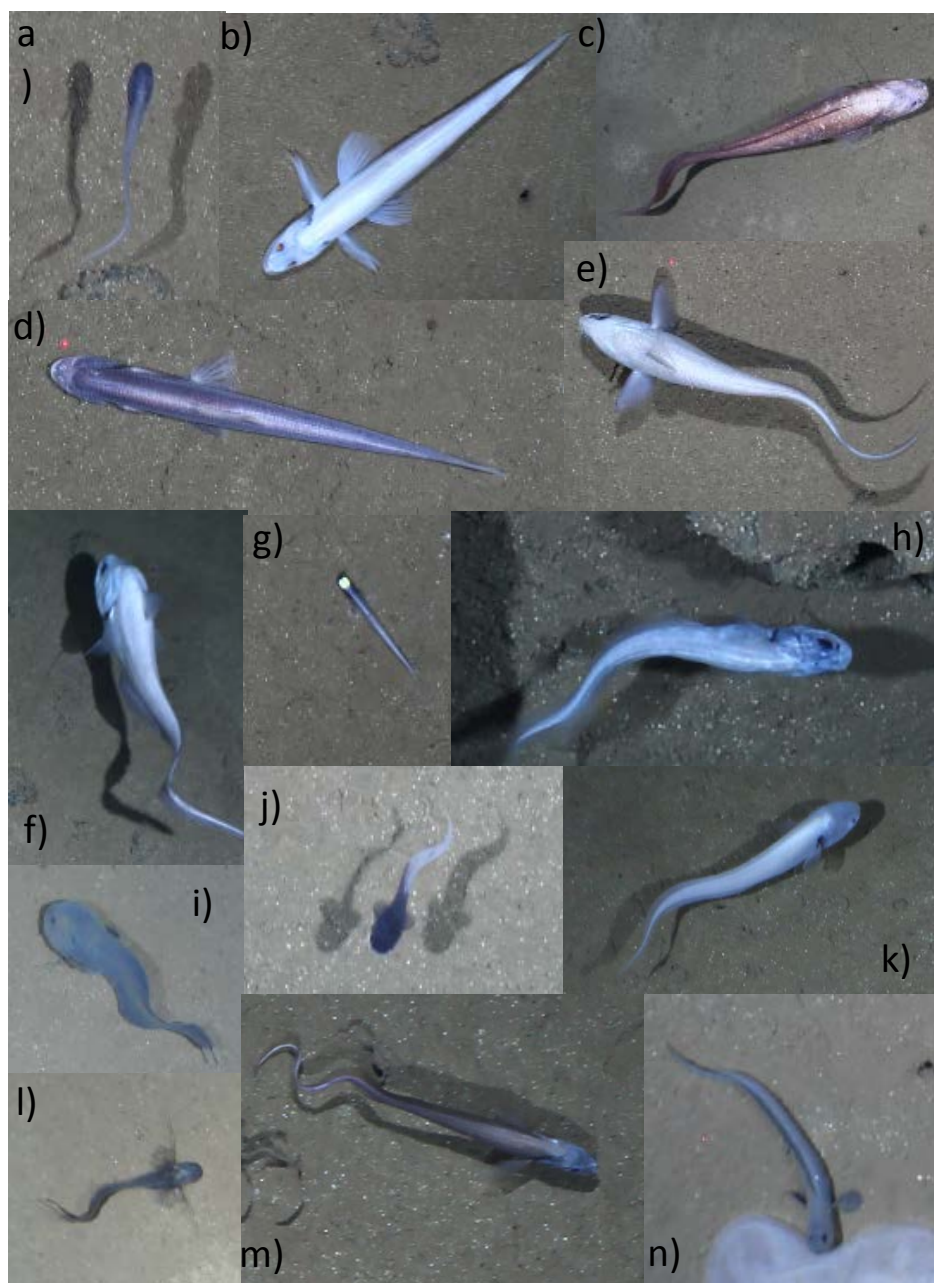
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631 **Figure Captions**
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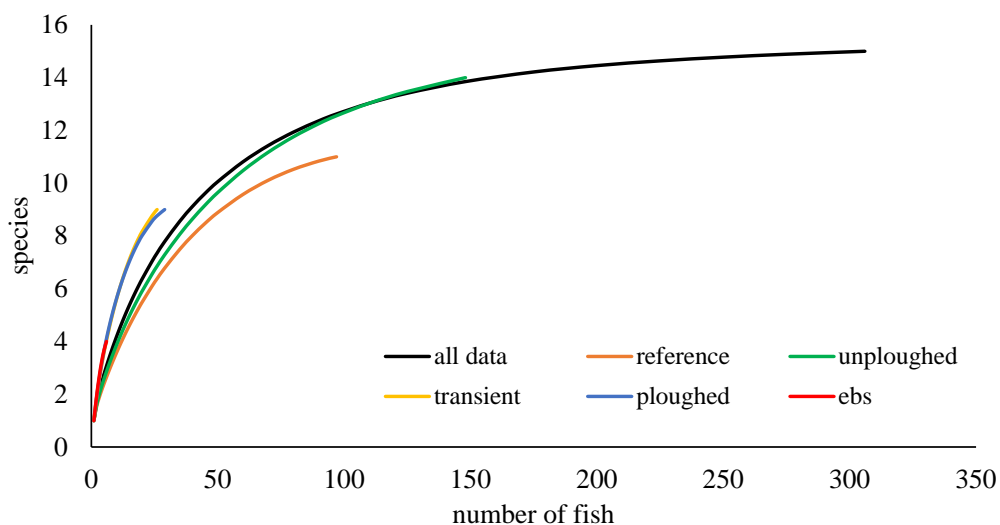
633 **Figure 1.** Map of the DISCOL study site showing the distribution of OFOS camera transects
634 (colors indicate the 5 habitat types), the OFOS-based fish observations (white circles), and the
635 location of the baited camera deployments (red squares). The white circular pattern and spokes
636 shows the location and extent of the DEA.
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638



639
640 **Figure 2.** Representative images of OTUs identified in the DISCOL region during the 2015
641 survey. A) *Bassozetus* cf. *nasus* b) *Bathysaurus mollis* c) *Bathyonus* cf. *caudalis* d)
642 *Bathytyphlops* cf. *sewelli* e) *Coryphaenoides armatus/yaquinae* f) *Coryphaenoides leptolepis* g)

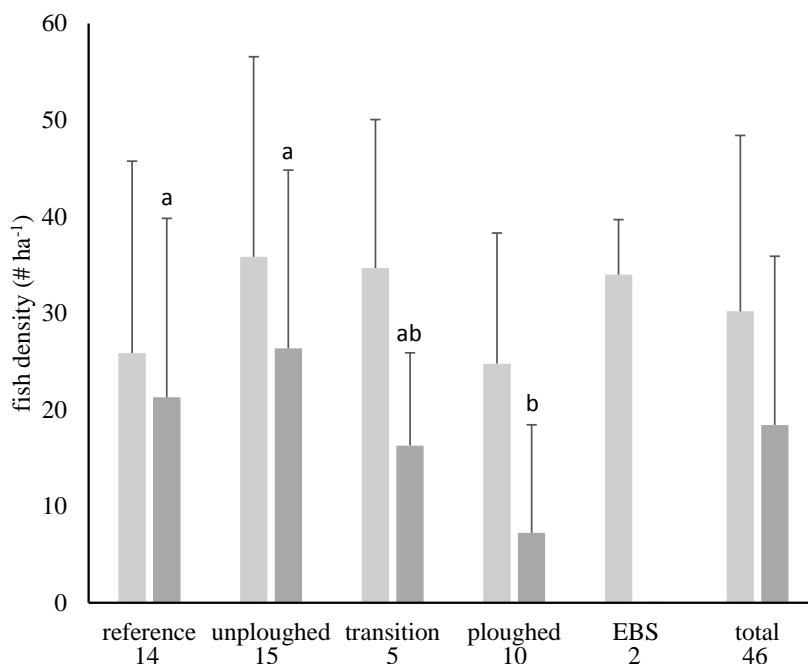


643 *Ipnops* cf. *meadi* h) *Leucicorus* sp. i) Liparidae grey morphotype h) Liparidae bicolor
644 morphotype k) *Bassozetus* sp. B l) Ophidiid sp. 3 m) *Porogadus* sp. n) *Pachycara* cf. *nazca*.
645



646
 647 **Figure 3.** Rarefaction curves, estimated species richness as a function of the number of fish
 648 observations, for OFOS transects across habitat types.

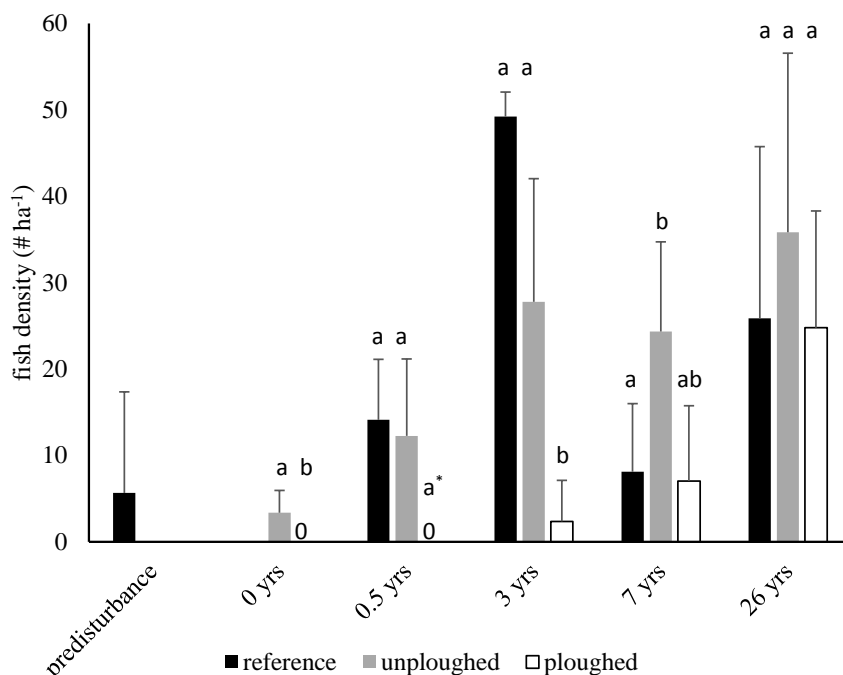
649



650
 651 **Figure 4.** Total fish (light grey) and *I. meadi* (dark grey) density (mean and standard deviation)
 652 from the 2015 OFOS transects by habitat type (timed images only) and for the entire dataset.

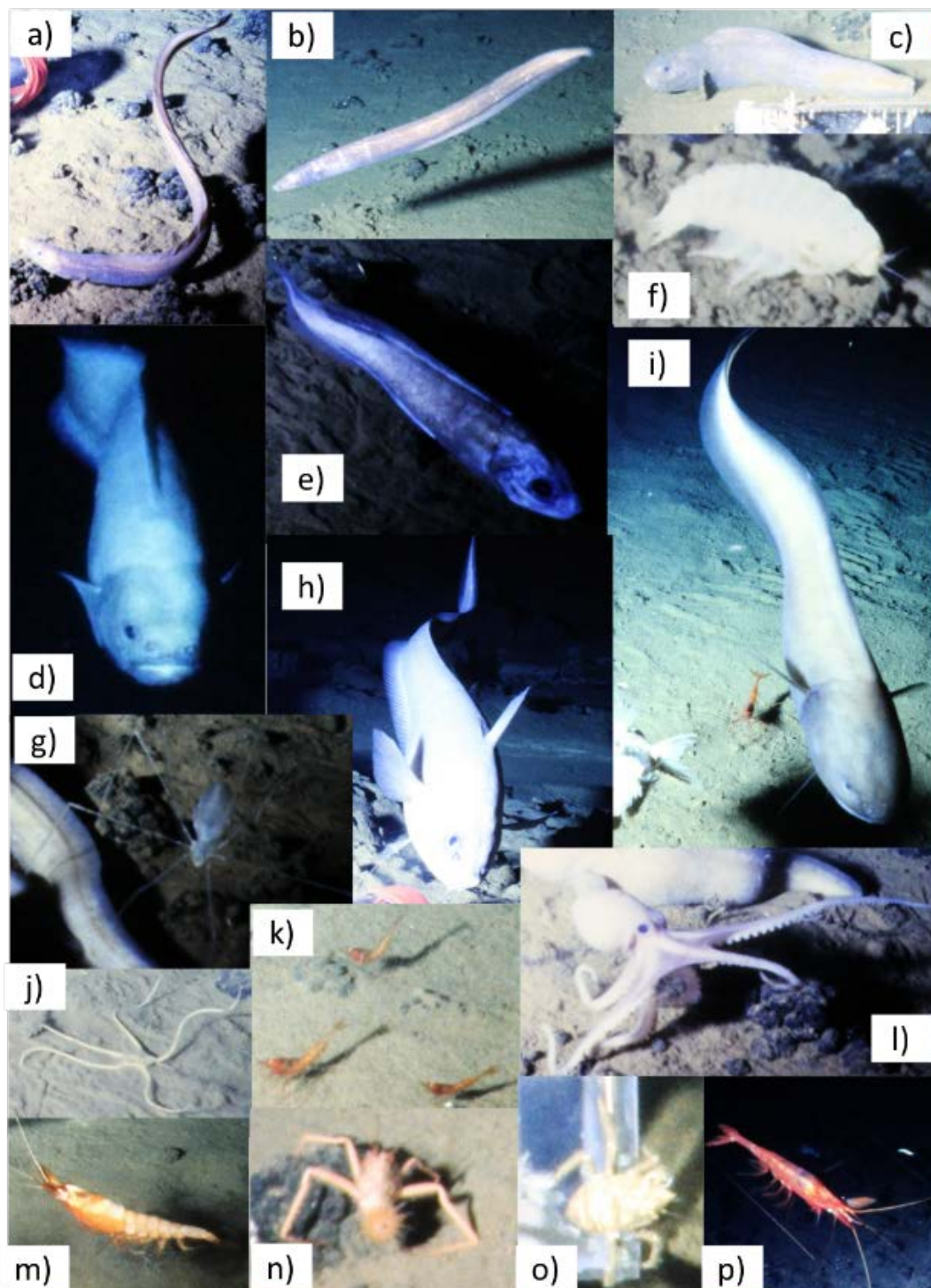


653 The number of separate transects for each habitat type is given under its name. Letter symbols
 654 for each habitat indicate significant differences in *I. meadi* density ($p < 0.05$).
 655



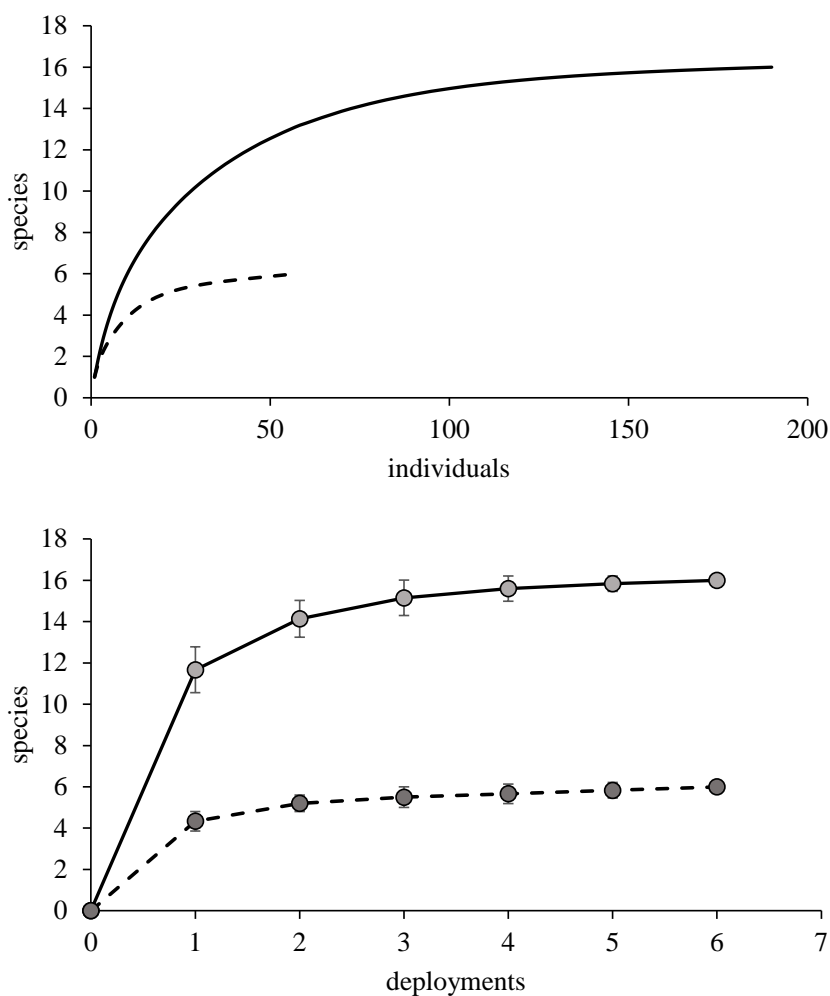
656
 657 **Figure 5.** Fish density (mean and standard deviation) from predisturbance (1989) to 26 years
 658 post disturbance (2015) in the reference area and in the ploughed and unploughed habitats of the
 659 DEA. Data from predisturbance to 7 years post disturbance are from Bluhm (2001). Letter
 660 symbols for each time indicate significant differences between habitat types ($p < 0.05$). At 0.5 yrs
 661 the asterisk indicates a marginal significant difference ($p = 0.057$).

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666 **Figure 6.** Representative images of OTUs identified using baited cameras in the DISCOL
 667 region. A) *Illypohis* sp. B) Synaphobranchidae C) *Pachycara nazca* D) *Barathrites iris* E)
 668 *Leucicorus* sp. F) Large amphipod likely *Eurythenes* sp. G) Munnopsidae H) *Coryphaenoides* sp.
 669 I) *Bassozetus* c.f. *nasus* J) Ophiuroidea K) *Hymenopeneus nereus* L) Octopoda (*Vulcanoctopus*
 670 sp.) M) *Benthiscymus* sp. N) *Probeebei mirabilis* O) *Munnidopsis* sp P) *Cerataspis monstrosus*
 671
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 674



675 **Figure 7.** a) Rarefaction and b) species accumulation curves for baited camera observations.
 676 Solid lines represent all data and dashed lines are fishes only (both based on MaxN data).
 677