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A Dark Hole in our Understanding of Marine Ecosystems and their Services: Perspectives from the mesopelagic community.

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Provisional

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2 **from the mesopelagic community.**

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12 **Abstract:**

13 In the face of increasing anthropogenic pressures acting on the Earth system, urgent actions are needed to
14 guarantee efficient resource management and sustainable development for our growing human
15 population. Our oceans - the largest underexplored component of the Earth system - are potentially home
16 for a large number of new resources, which can directly impact upon food security and the wellbeing of
17 humanity. However, the extraction of these resources has repercussions for biodiversity and the oceans
18 ability to sequester green house gases and thereby climate. In the search for “new resources” to unlock
19 the economic potential of the global oceans, recent observations have identified a large unexploited
20 biomass of mesopelagic fish living in the deep ocean. This biomass has recently been estimated to be 10
21 billion metric tonnes, 10 times larger than previous estimates however the real biomass is still in
22 question. If we are able to exploit this community at sustainable levels without impacting upon
23 biodiversity and compromising the oceans’ ability to sequester carbon, we can produce more food and
24 potentially many new nutraceutical products. However, to meet the needs of present generations without
25 compromising the needs of future generations, we need to guarantee a sustainable exploitation of these
26 resources. To do so requires a holistic assessment of the community and an understanding of the
27 mechanisms controlling this biomass, its role in the preservation of biodiversity and its influence on
28 climate as well as management tools able to weigh the costs and benefits of exploitation of this
29 community.

30

31 **Introduction:**

32 One of the most understudied regions in the world oceans is the twilight zone (200-100 m depth) which
33 is the domain of the mesopelagic community. Lanternfishes (Myctophiids), which dominate the fish
34 community, are a diverse group comprising around 245 species in 33 genera, distributed globally from
35 polar to equatorial waters, with a maximum body size of 10-15 cm (Paxton 1979). Along with an
36 associated community of mainly mesopelagic crustaceans and cephalopods Figure 1 (Feagans-Bartow &
37 Sutton, 2014), the community forms distinct acoustic scattering layers at around 500 m over large
38 expanses of the ocean during day-time, ascending to the upper 150 m and dispersing at night (Figure 2).
39 This diel migration has been referred to as the “largest daily migration of animals on earth” (Hays 2003,
40 van Haren and Compton 2013). The discovery of new species from viruses to large vertebrates is regular
41 in this oceanic zone, supporting estimates of a million undescribed species living in the deep pelagic
42 (Robinson 2004).

43 Resource strategists have identified the mesopelagic fish and plankton community, living in this twilight
44 zone of the ocean (200-1000 m, depth), as a potential unexploited resource potentially contributing to the
45 long term *Blue Growth* strategy set by the European Union, i.e., “*smart, sustainable and inclusive*
46 *economic and employment and growth from the oceans, seas and coasts*”, (e.g. FAO 1997, 1998, 2001,
47 Gjosaeter 1980, Valinassab et al, 2007). Central to following a *Blue Growth* strategy for unlocking the
48 potential of seas and oceans is the sustainable exploitation of the new resources provided by marine
49 ecosystems tempered with the preservation of the existing services that the seas and oceans provide.

50 Despite the potential benefits, harvesting from this community (e.g. mesopelagic fish biomass recent
51 estimates of 10 billion tonnes although still in question) is problematic and comes with a number of risks.
52 For example, the community plays an integral role in carbon sequestration and thus climate regulation
53 (e.g. Hidaka et al. 2001; Hudson et al. 2014) and is a key resource for higher trophic levels, serving as
54 prey for marine mammals and key fisheries stocks such as tunas, billfish and sharks (e.g. Potier et al.
55 2007; Brophy et al. 2009) thereby influencing and maintaining biodiversity. Hence, the mesopelagic
56 community potentially impacts upon traditional fisheries and ecotourism as well as climate via the
57 biological carbon pump (Davison et al 2013). By exploiting this community, we can potentially
58 produce more food for human consumption and nutraceutical products but there are potentially
59 significant trade-offs related to climate regulation and conservation of biodiversity. Knowledge to assess
60 these trade-offs is presently lacking and it is necessary to develop and apply an ecosystem based
61 management framework for balancing the benefits, risks and trade-offs and to ensure sustainable
62 management of the services that may be provided by the mesopelagic community. With this as the
63 background, here we review some of the potential services, which the mesopelagic community can
64 provide and the implications of exploitation.

65

66 **Food Provision**

67 Food insecurity is a major global issue, with human populations across much of central Africa and
68 southeast Asia facing significant hunger today. Presentations at the COP21 2015 Climate Summit
69 indicate that human adaptation of agricultural production systems and supply chains is unlikely to
70 overcome this problem in the face of increasing global population and changing climate, even with the
71 most optimistic emissions scenarios. Lanternfishes which dominate the fish community, have attracted
72 attention as a potentially harvestable resource since the 1970's (FAO 1997, 1998, 2001, Gjosaeter and
73 Kawaguchi 1980). Some species are considered suitable for human consumption, but mostly the aim has
74 been to supply the fishmeal market. The global biomass of this resource is very large, but just how large
75 is uncertain, due in part to the poor sampling efficiencies of survey gears and partly to the low acoustic
76 target strengths at the sonar frequencies needed to penetrate deep into the ocean interior (Koslow et al.
77 1997, Heino et al. 2011, Kaartvedt et al. 2008, 2012, Davison et al. 2015). Hence, past and current
78 estimates of the biomass of mesopelagic fish could be assumed to be an underestimate of that available.
79 Early estimates of mesopelagic fish biomass were around 1 billion tonnes (Gjøsæter & Kawaguchi 1980),
80 with one species *Benthoosema pterotum* suggested to be one of the most dominant vertebrate species on
81 earth (Karuppasamy et al 2007). Recent acoustic observations have suggested that this is a gross
82 underestimate and that the true figure may be 10 billion tonnes (Irigoien et al. 2014). Furthermore, at
83 present there are no global estimates of the mesopelagic invertebrate community biomass (also suitable
84 for meal production) though certain fractions have been intensively surveyed and assessed, in particular
85 the Southern Ocean krill for which there is a well established fishery (Constable et al. 2000). Although
86 there is an increase in the economic interest around mesopelagic resources, the biomass and yield
87 potential and feasibility of exploitation has yet to be assessed.

88 What is the potential for contributing to human nutrition? Considering a human population on the order
89 of 7.5 billion people this equates to 1.3 metric tonnes of mesopelagic fish biomass per human on the
90 planet. Putting the estimate of Irigoien et al. (2014) into a food provision context, first we assume that
91 harvested mesopelagic fish biomass is converted to food for human consumption via fish meal.
92 Assuming that fish meal was the only source of raw material for aquaculture feed, and employing the
93 conversion factors of Naylor et al (2009) (i.e. raw material input : aquaculture output of circa 4.0),
94 global aquaculture production in 2014 of 67 million tonnes (FAO 2014) would require a harvested
95 mesopelagic fish biomass of 268 million tonnes. This estimate represents circa 2.7 percent of the most
96 recent global estimate of mesopelagic fish. In reality, vegetable protein is contributing an increasing
97 fraction of aquaculture feed material, though there remains a need for wild-harvesting of essential fatty
98 acids. As an academic exercise if we assume that 50% of the existing biomass (5 billion tonnes) could be
99 sustainably extracted and converted to food for human consumption via use in the aquaculture industry

100 without overfishing the community then, following Naylor et al (2009), 5 billion tonnes of mesopelagic
101 biomass could result in the production of circa 1.25 billion tonnes of food for human consumption. Given
102 a human population approaching 7.5 billion this represents circa 4.6 kg of fish biomass per person per
103 day at the present population level.

104 There are some caveats however. From an industry perspective, the Director General of IFFO (the Fish
105 Meal and Fish Oil producers and consumer's organization), Andrew Mallison, has stated "*The industry is
106 certainly in need of more raw material – demand exceeds supply and demand is forecasted to continue
107 growing as global aquaculture (and feed) increases. However, these deeper water fish will be more
108 costly to harvest, and there would have to be a good set of science based harvest control rules to satisfy
109 any environmental or ecosystem impact concerns. If the science indicates a potential sustainable fishery
110 with a reasonable yield, there are several IFFO member companies who could look at the economics of
111 fishing effort and return*".

112 **Nutraceuticals**

113 Another key issue in human nutrition and aquaculture is the availability of nutraceuticals. The growth of
114 nutraceutical products is partly based on a demand for 'Omega-3' oils as human dietary supplements, and
115 partly on the expanding aquaculture industry which has a requirement for n-3 LC-PUFA in feed material
116 which can currently only be met from natural marine oils. Mesopelagic fisheries targeting nutraceutical-
117 rich species to meet these demands are a new and emerging concept, convergent with the theme of *Blue
118 Growth*. In the North Atlantic the prime example of an already operational commercial marine
119 nutraceutical venture is 'Calanus Oil', which is extracted from the copepod *Calanus finmarchicus*,
120 harvested in the coastal waters of the Norwegian Sea (<http://calanus.no/en/products/>), and marketed in
121 various forms as being rich in omega-3 fatty acids. Lanternfishes are recognised as being high in fatty
122 acids (e.g. Lea et al 2002). For example, recently, three species (*Diaphus watasei*, *Diaphus suborbitalis*
123 and *Benthosema pterotum*) from the NW Pacific haven been analysed and found to have high levels of
124 20:5n-3 and 22:6n-3 fatty acids (icosapentanoic acid (EPA) and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA)). Thus
125 Lanternfishes are a highly attractive source of raw material to support the manufacture of nutraceutical
126 products (Kiozumi et al. 2014).

127 On the Blue Growth nutraceutical potential of mesopelagic fishes, the Director General of IFFO said
128 "*The nutraceuticals market does offer better returns for oil than animal feed – it would be interesting to
129 know what loading of PCB's and Dioxin-like PCB's are present as some other North Atlantic fish oil
130 sources require filtering. This incurs a greater cost than South American oils which are "cleaner" but
131 have to be shipped further to reach EU markets*".

132 Hence, it seems that the *Blue Growth* potential of Lanternfishes exploitation may be at a cusp between an
133 existing market (for bulk fishmeal) that seems to be barely profitable using exiting harvesting and

134 processing approaches under existing demand conditions and an early-stage emerging market (for
135 nutraceuticals) that could be profitable in the future (Kiozumi et al. 2014).

136 **Climate Regulation**

137 As is clearly outlined at the COP 21 meeting in Paris in 2015, “Parties should take action to conserve and
138 enhance, as appropriate, sinks and reservoirs of greenhouse gases in order to do so an improved
139 knowledge base for the assessment, monitoring and evaluation of the dynamics of carbon sequestration
140 and thus climate regulation is necessary. The mesopelagic region of the ocean, and the community that
141 inhabits it, plays a significant role in the global carbon cycle. The concentration of atmospheric carbon
142 dioxide would be ~50% higher without the biological carbon pump (BCP) fixing inorganic carbon
143 through photosynthesis by phytoplankton in the surface waters and 'exporting' it to depth in the ocean
144 (Parekh et al., 2006). In the North Atlantic alone the BCP exports 0.5-2.7 GtC/yr from the surface to
145 depth (Sanders et al., 2014). Models show that atmospheric CO₂ concentrations can vary by ~100ppm
146 just by using the range of current observations for how deep the organic carbon penetrates before it is
147 remineralised (Kwon et al., 2009). The mesopelagic (100m-1000m) is the region directly below the sunlit
148 waters where photosynthesis can occur and the first region to be traversed by any ‘exported’ organic
149 material. The majority of organic carbon is respired in this region (Giering et al., 2014). Its fate is
150 controlled by interactions of the mesopelagic community. Only recently has it proved possible to balance
151 the carbon budget in this region, by taking into account the trophic interactions of the organisms within it
152 (Giering et al. 2014). Our relative lack of understanding of this key region for climate regulation is
153 further highlighted by other recent work (e.g. Jónasdóttir et al 2015) showing that direct transport of
154 organic carbon by higher trophic level organisms may be a substantial, but hitherto overlooked, pathway
155 for the BCP. The seasonal migration to depth by copepods may result in a downward transport of organic
156 carbon equivalent to that resulting from gravitational sinking in the sub-polar North Atlantic (Jónasdóttir
157 et al., 2015). Vertical migration and excretion/respiration by mesopelagic fish may also be significant.
158 Regional studies have shown that such ‘active flux’ can account for ~10-20% at depths near the top of
159 the mesopelagic (Davison et al., 2014) but may be as much as 70% near the bottom (Hudson et al.,
160 2014). Modelling predicts a decrease of ~40% in downward flux of organic carbon at 1000m (the base of
161 the mesopelagic) in the North Atlantic up to 2100 (Yool et al., 2013). However, current global
162 biogeochemical models, such as the one used for that study, do not include the active flux. The role of
163 the mesopelagic community, particularly the higher trophic levels, in exporting carbon to depth in the
164 ocean away from the atmosphere therefore potentially constitutes an order one uncertainty in how the
165 BCP will respond to regulate climate over the coming century. Climate prediction models provide our
166 primary tool for assessing potential risks posed by future change, the likelihood of such events happening
167 and a testing way of mitigating against them. Modelled scenarios should also investigate the feedback
168 from related pressures on the mesopelagic community: how will the mesopelagic community and the

169 manner in which it processes organic carbon respond to projected changes in temperature, stratification,
170 pH and oxygen? may there be impacts on climate if we over-exploit the mesopelagic fish stocks? The
171 function of the mesopelagic community in the BCP is therefore a priority for biogeochemical research.
172 Given that the service it provides is global with its activity predominantly carried out in the international
173 waters of the deep ocean, research into and maintenance of the BCP is an international responsibility. For
174 this reason, initiatives like the Galway Statement on Atlantic Ocean Co-operation (2014) and activities
175 that it has already generated, such as the International Planning Workshop for a North Atlantic-Arctic
176 Science Cooperation (Benway et al., 2015), will be key in delivering the thorough investigation of the
177 mesopelagic community's role in regulating climate that is needed.

178 **Biodiversity**

179 The participating Nations at COP 21 noted the “importance of ensuring the integrity of all ecosystems,
180 including oceans, and the protection of biodiversity”. Thus Nations at COP 21 highlighted the need for
181 improving our knowledge of the drivers of biodiversity and ecosystems, conservation restoration and
182 sustainable management of the ecosystems, species and genetic diversity.

183 There is, however, a major lack of knowledge of the global composition and distribution of mesopelagic
184 diversity, which is under-sampled and sparse in data (Figure 1). An additional problem is that we know
185 very little about the function of mesopelagic biodiversity in the oceanic ecosystems and as providers of
186 critical ecosystem services (Robinson, 2009). Potentially important ecosystem services are supported by
187 a largely unknown deep pelagic biodiversity and interactions within the system (Webb et al., 2010;
188 Tittensor et al., 2010), which includes multiple components from microbes to marine megafauna
189 interacting with mesopelagic fish and invertebrates. The ocean's deep interior remains an unexplored
190 frontier. The regular discovery of new clades in this deep pelagic zone, which is estimated to hold a
191 million of undescribed species, is subjected to the development of undersea technology providing
192 unprecedented access, new capabilities, and new perspectives (Robinson, 2004). Present research on
193 mesopelagic biodiversity is scarce thus a large gap in our understanding of the global distribution of
194 overall mesopelagic diversity exists. Moreover, the biological adaptations of the organisms to the high
195 stability of the mesopelagic environment make this ecosystem very vulnerable to pressures such as global
196 fisheries and climate change.

197 This lack of knowledge impedes implementation of international agreements such as: (i) UN Resolution
198 61/1054 to conserve Vulnerable Marine Ecosystems; (ii) Aichi targets, related to the sustainable
199 management of marine exploitation (applying ecosystem based approaches, avoiding adverse impacts on
200 threatened species and vulnerable ecosystems and ensuring that the impacts of fisheries on stocks,
201 species and ecosystems are within safe ecological limits); (iii) the Convention on Biological Diversity
202 (2009), to identify ecologically or biologically sensitive areas; and (iv) the development of indicators

203 required to assess the environmental status of marine ecosystems under different national and
204 international legislation (i.e. Oceans Act, in US and Canada; Marine Strategy Framework Directive, in
205 Europe; Regional Seas Conventions, worldwide; etc.).

206 **Conclusions and Suggestions**

207 The potential negative impacts of anthropogenic activities and climate change on marine ecosystems and
208 human health must be addressed in a full realisation of Blue Growth strategy of the mesopelagic.
209 Exploitation of this community is a delicate problem in terms of the consequences for the ecosystem and
210 its services. To tackle the global challenge of securing access to strategic but vulnerable food resources
211 while coping with climate change risks, we need targeted innovation and sustainable development
212 strategies that aim at preserving critical ecosystem services. This includes our oceans as providers, as
213 claimed by the Intergovernmental Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES
214 <http://www.ipbes.net>). Hence, there is a need to improve resource management (through an ecosystem
215 approach) and governance, to preserve them and to unlock their potential for the sustainable production
216 of new products and industrial applications. To achieve this in relation to the mesopelagic community
217 and its services we need knowledge on

218 (i) Population vital rates (e.g. recruitment, natural mortality and the effects of abiotic and biotic
219 stressors on growth and survival) with respect to latitude and environmental conditions as the
220 basis for stock assessments and population dynamics modelling to predict the sustainability
221 of harvest rates

222 (ii) Stock assessments to address fisheries policy. In the absence of a fishery, there are no existing
223 data on which to base a conventional stock assessment, so we must use other methods
224 relying on survey data and measurements of growth, maturity and natural mortality rates to
225 generate assessments and forecasts of yields under different harvesting rates.

226 (iii) The links between oceanographic regimes and mesopelagic biomass and biodiversity (species,
227 traits, population genetics and habitats) thus enabling the prediction of species dynamics
228 relative to oceanographic regimes which will be impacted as their environment alters under
229 climate change

230 (iv) The role of the community in the food web, in particular the dependence of top predators on
231 mesopelagic prey and thus their influence on fisheries and ecotourism.

232 (v) The role of individual species and the community in the sequestration of green house gases.

233

234 Clearly the potential benefits of harvesting the mesopelagic community is immense, however the

235 consequences of mismanagement, unlike for most fish stocks, have global ramifications. Prior to
236 exploitation a scientifically based ecosystem approach to exploitation is needed in particular focusing on
237 the ecosystem and climate controls on the populations in order to avoid an overexploited state as is
238 observed in many marine fish stocks (e.g. Worm et al 2009; Branch et al 2011). In this article, we have
239 outlined the issues that need to be considered and the research that needs to be attended to prior to
240 embarking on a Blue growth exploitation strategy in the mesopelagic zone of the oceans.

241

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246

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370

371 **Figure Captions**

372

373 Figure 1. Representative sample of mesopelagic fish including *Maurolicus muelleri*, *Sergestes arcticus*
374 and *Benthoosema glaciale* and plankton e.g. *Meganctiphanes norvegica* in the deep scatter layers of the
375 Irminger Sea in November 2013.

376

377 Figure 2. Echograms from the Norwegian Euro-Basin cruise in May 2013, characterizing the distribution
378 of the total backscatter, S_a values; see annotations (MacLennan et al.2002) , (upper panel) and the

379 backscatter attributed to mesopelagic organisms (lower panel) at 38 kHz in the Irminger Sea, from Melle
380 et al. 2013. The diel vertical migration pattern of the community is clearly visible. The data has been
381 processed according to standard IMR procedures using LSSS (Korneliussen et al. 2006).

382

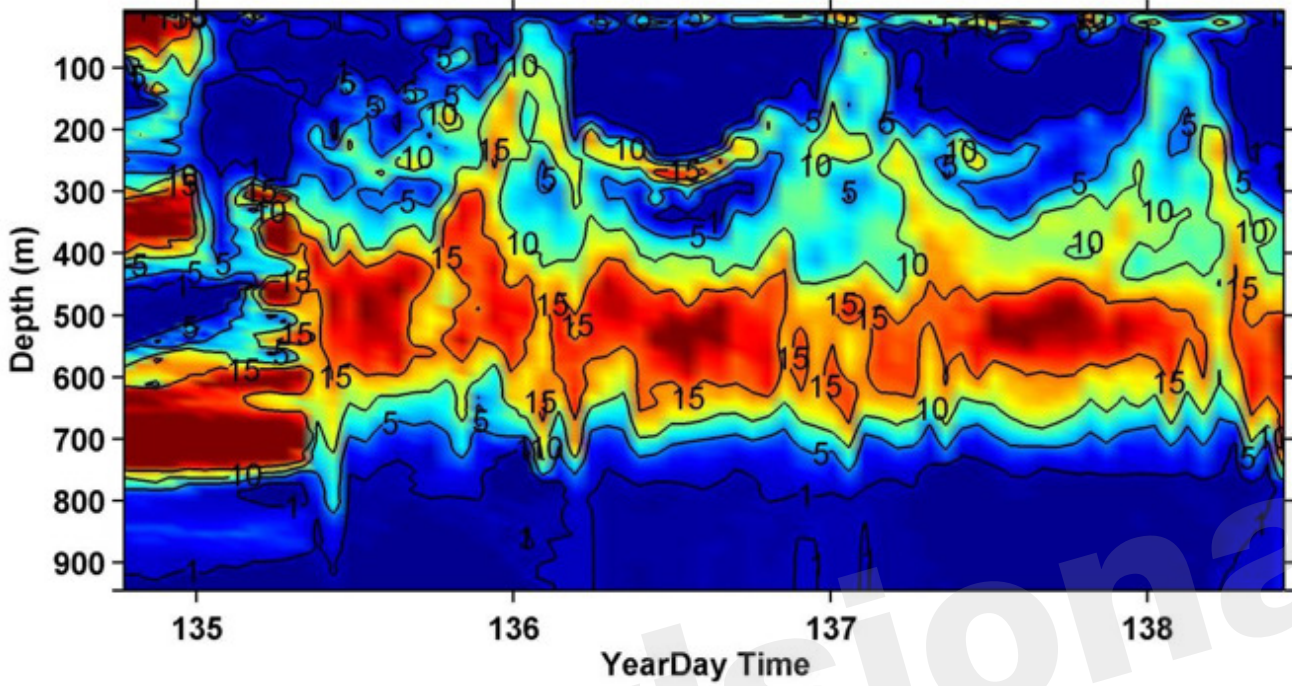
Provisional

Figure 1.TIFF



Irminger Sea

SARS Total SA 38 kHz Leg 2 May 2013



SARS Me-PI SA 38 kHz Leg 2 May 2013

