



**Article title:** Improved bathymetry leads to 4000 new seamount predictions in the global ocean

**Authors:** Chris Yesson[1], Tom Letessier[2], Alex Nimmo-Smith[3], Phil Hosegood[4], Andrew Brierley[5], Marie Hardouin[6], Roland Proud[7]

**Affiliations:** Zoological Society of London & University College London[1], Zoological Society of London[2], University of Plymouth[3], University of St Andrews[4]

**Orcid ids:** 0000-0002-6731-4229[1], 0000-0003-4011-0207[2], 0000-0003-3108-9231[3], 0000-0002-4415-7152[4], 0000-0002-6438-6892[5], 0000-0002-8647-5562[7]

**Contact e-mail:** [ucbtcy@ucl.ac.uk](mailto:ucbtcy@ucl.ac.uk)

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# 1 Improved bathymetry leads to 4000 new seamount predictions in the 2 global ocean

3 Chris Yesson<sup>1</sup>, Tom B Letessier<sup>1</sup>, Alex Nimmo-Smith<sup>3</sup>, Phil Hosegood<sup>3</sup>, Andrew S. Brierley<sup>2</sup>, Marie  
4 Hardouin<sup>1,4</sup>, & Roland Proud<sup>2</sup>

5 <sup>1</sup> Institute of Zoology, Zoological Society of London, Regent's Park, London, NW1 4RY, UK

6 <sup>2</sup> Pelagic Ecology Research Group, Scottish Oceans Institute, School of Biology, University of St Andrews, St Andrews,  
7 Fife, KY16 9TS, UK

8 <sup>3</sup> School of Biological & Marine Science, University of Plymouth, Plymouth, Devon, PL4 8AA, UK

9 <sup>4</sup> Imperial College London, Silwood Park, Ascot, Berkshire, SL5 7PY

10 *Correspondence to:* Chris Yesson ([chris.yesson@ioz.ac.uk](mailto:chris.yesson@ioz.ac.uk))

11 **Abstract.** Seamounts are important marine habitats that are hotspots of species diversity. Relatively shallow peaks, increased  
12 productivity and offshore locations make seamounts vulnerable to human impact and difficult to protect. Present estimates of  
13 seamount numbers vary from anywhere between 10000 to more than 60000. Seamount locations can be estimated by  
14 extracting conical shaped features from bathymetry grids. These predicted seamounts are a useful reference for marine  
15 researchers and can help direct exploratory surveys. However, these predictions are dependent on the quality of the surveys  
16 underpinning the bathymetry. Historically, quality has been patchy, but is improving as mapping efforts step up towards the  
17 target of complete seabed coverage by 2030.

18 This study presents an update of seamount predictions based on SRTM30 global bathymetry version 11. This update was  
19 prompted by a seamount survey in the British Indian Ocean Territory in 2016, where locations of two putative seamounts  
20 were visited. These ‘seamounts’ were targeted based on previous predictions, but these features were not detected during  
21 echosounder surveys. An examination of UK hydrographic office navigational (Admiralty) charts for the area showed that  
22 the summits of these putative features had soundings reporting “no bottom detected at this depth” where “this depth” was  
23 similar to the seabed reported from the bathymetry grids: we suspect that these features likely resulted from an initial  
24 misreading of the charts. We show that 15 phantom seamount features, derived from a misinterpretation of no-bottom  
25 sounding data, persist in current global bathymetry grids and updated seamount predictions. Overall, we predict 37,889  
26 seamounts, an increase of 4,437 from the previous predictions derived from an older global bathymetry grid (SRTM30 v. 6).  
27 This increase is due to greater detail in newer bathymetry grids as acoustic mapping of the seabed expands.

28 The new seamount predictions are available at <https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.921688>.

## 29 **Keywords**

30 Seamounts; Knolls; Bathymetry

## 31 **Introduction**

32 Seamounts are 'undersea mountains', and although many definitions of this term have been used, they are commonly  
33 described as conical features that rise more than 1000m above the surrounding seabed (IHO 2008). Seamounts are important  
34 marine habitats, they provide a pathway for localized production (Hosegood et al., 2019), often increasing surrounding  
35 biomass and species diversity (Letessier et al., 2017), they can be hotspots of predator biodiversity in the open ocean  
36 (Morato et al., 2010), home to habitat-engineering species such as cold water corals (Tracey et al., 2011), important  
37 spawning grounds (Tsukamoto, 2006), and even act as refugia from ocean acidification for carbon-calcifying species  
38 (Tittensor et al., 2010).

39 The increased productivity associated with seamounts makes them attractive targets for fishing, and hence vulnerable to  
40 human impacts, particularly those with accessible summits near the surface. Fishing gear can cause long-lasting damage to  
41 habitat forming organisms associated with some seamounts (Althaus et al., 2009). Protection of seamount habitats is a  
42 priority for marine conservation (Morato et al., 2010), but our knowledge on these habitats remains limited, with estimates of  
43 only 0.4-4% of seamounts having been directly surveyed (Kvile et al., 2014).

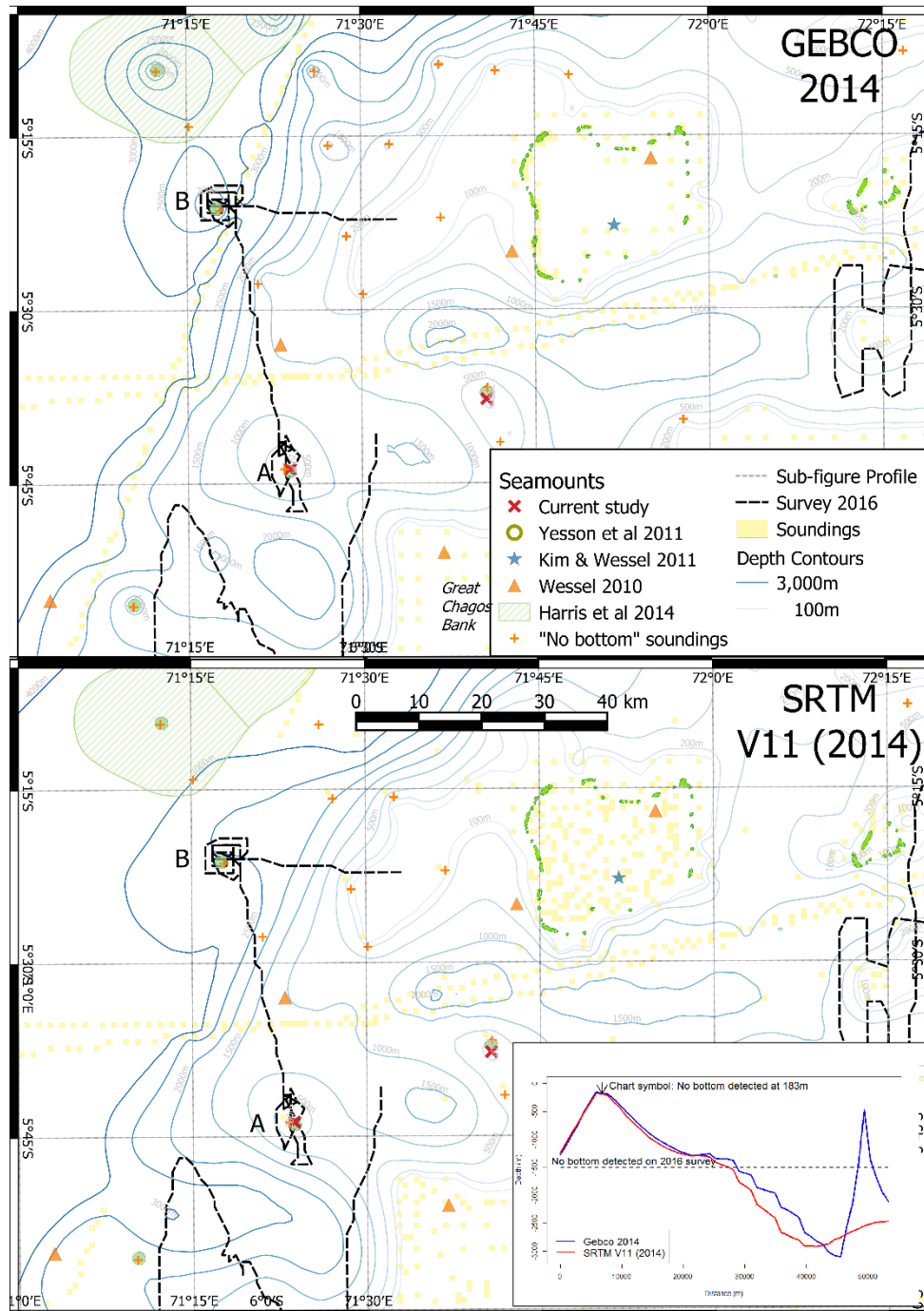
44 Direct surveys require significant investment of resources and planning, and fundamental to this is identification of locations  
45 of interest for the survey. However, we do not yet know how exactly many seamounts there are, with estimates ranging from  
46 the tens to hundreds of thousands (Yesson et al., 2011). This has led to the publication of many predictive maps and  
47 databases of potential seamount locations, commonly based on pattern recognition of underlying bathymetry data (Yesson et  
48 al., 2011; Harris et al., 2014), but also using satellite altimetry to detect larger features (Wessel, Sandwell, and Kim 2010;  
49 Kim and Wessel, 2011).

50 Seamount predictive maps are dependent on the underlying data to extract features. Global bathymetry grids such as GEBCO  
51 (General Bathymetric Chart of the Oceans - Weatherall et al., 2015) and SRTM (Shuttle Radar Topography Mission - Becker  
52 et al., 2009) are models based on a combination of soundings (i.e. high resolution acoustic surveys) and satellite altimetry  
53 (lower resolution data from satellite sensors). Satellite altimetry provides global coverage and is the foundation of  
54 bathymetry models, but these sensors cannot determine small features (i.e. seamounts under 1.5km, Wessel et al., 2010).  
55 Acoustic surveys generate data best suited for determining seabed depth and these are utilised to constrain models used to  
56 create bathymetry grids (Becker et al., 2009). Despite global efforts to improve coverage, such as the Nippon Foundation-  
57 GEBCO challenge to survey the ocean floor across the globe by 2030 (Wöflfl et al., 2019), soundings in the latest bathymetry  
58 grids are limited to a small proportion of the ocean, and the majority of bathymetry grid data is derived from the underlying  
59 model rather than acoustically surveyed. For example, only 18% of current GEBCO grid cells (each 30x30 arc seconds  $\approx$   
60 1x1km at the equator) are directly supported by acoustic surveys (Weatherall et al., 2015). Since sounding data is limited, it  
61 is valuable to make use of all available data. Historical soundings based on weighted lines have been extracted from nautical  
62 charts to expand the data available (Becker et al., 2009).

### 63 **BIOT Seamount Survey**

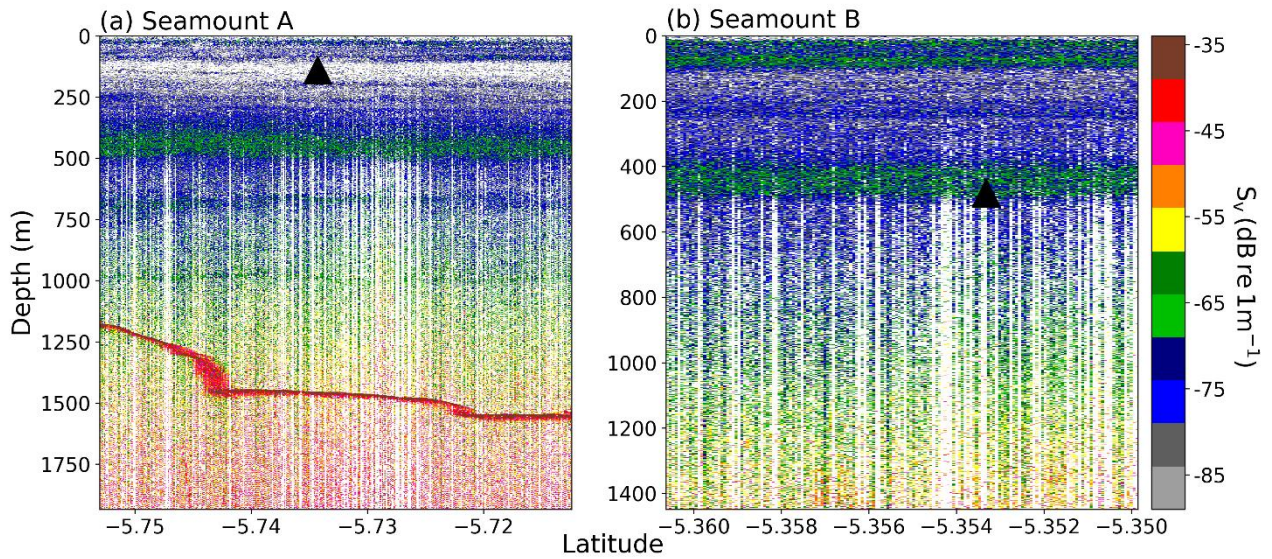
64 The British Indian Ocean Territory (BIOT) is a region of the Indian Ocean encompassing a variety of undersea features,  
65 including the flat shallow banks of the Chagos Archipelago, and the high slopes of the Chagos-Laccadives ridge, and depths  
66 beyond 5000m (Sheppard et al., 2012). The area could be home to as many as 86 seamounts, based on estimates from an  
67 automated seamount-recognition algorithm applied to version 6 of the SRTM global bathymetry grid (Yesson et al., 2011).  
68 Two of these predicted seamounts, clearly discernible on the latest bathymetry grids, were targeted during a 2016 survey  
69 around the Chagos Archipelago (Letessier et al., 2016), between 5-24th February. These were seamounts ID 4050548  
70 (latitude -5.354, longitude 71.292, summit depth 481m) and ID 4060551 (lat. -5.733, long. 71.396, depth 141m) from  
71 Yesson et al., (2011). The survey sought to visit these features for the purpose of establishing baseline monitoring sites for  
72 mobile oceanic predators (Letessier, Bouchet, and Meeuwig 2017). Seamounts in BIOT have previously been shown to be  
73 important location of bio-physical coupling between reef and pelagic ecosystems, and may therefore support elevated  
74 numbers of predators (Hosegood et al., 2019; Letessier et al., 2016; Letessier et al., 2019). Acoustic data were collected  
75 using a Simrad (Bergen, Norway) EK60 echosounder operating at 38 kHz with a pulse length of 1.024ms and ping rate of 2s.  
76 At these settings, the seabed was detectable up to 1,500m below the surface. Seabed was detected at around this depth for  
77 seamount A (predicted depth 183m), but no seabed was detected around the area of seamount B (predicted depth 491m)  
78 despite circling around the supposed summits up to 5km (Fig. 1 & 2). We note that the source of the reading that accounts  
79 for seamount B was a digital nautical chart from the National Geospatial Agency and this erroneous point is removed from  
80 construction of more recent bathymetry grids (D. Sandwell pers. comm.).

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83 **Figure 1: Location of survey conducted in 2016. Top shows depth contours based on the 2014 GEBCO bathymetry grid, bottom**  
 84 **shows depth contours derived from SRTM v11. Both grids indicate the presence of a conical seamount c.20km NW of the Great**  
 85 **Chagos Bank. No feature was detected by the 2016 survey (ship's track shown with black dashed line). Around 40km north of this,**  
 86 **is another predicted seamount, again not detected on the 2016 survey. This feature is predicted by the GEBCO grid, but is not**  
 87 **shown in the SRTM grid (although present in previous versions). Map projection UTM zone 43 south (epsg:32743).**



88

89 **Figure 2: Latitudinal transects across apparent positions of the two phantom seamounts. Black triangles indicate the position and**  
 90 **summit depth of the predicted seamounts. Colormap is Volume Backscattering Strength ( $S_v$ ). A deep scattering layer was**  
 91 **observed at c.450m for both sites. Seabed was observed at site A c.1500m. No seabed was detected for site B.**

92 An examination of the admiralty chart for the region provided some insight. Soundings on charts are recorded by displaying  
 93 the depth reading over the location. A different class of sounding is also recorded. Soundings where no bottom was recorded  
 94 are annotated with  $\frac{\text{---}}{\text{Depth}}$  at the location of the sounding. These soundings are typically old, prior to the nineteenth century,  
 95 dating from when soundings were conducted using handheld, weighted, lead lines, before the widespread use of sounding  
 96 machines. It is easy to mistake these as bottom soundings, and this appears to be the root cause of the 'phantom seamounts'.  
 97 For seamount A (Fig. 1) there is a sounding in the chart at the summit of the mound seen on the bathymetry grids. The chart  
 98 shows no bottom recorded at 183m, while the GEBCO depth at this cell is 179m and SRTM depth is 183m.  
 99 However, the SRTM grid at the site of seamount B does not show a seamount-like feature, in contrast to GEBCO, which  
 100 shows an isolated point of markedly higher elevation, which is interpreted as a conical seamount-like peak by seamount  
 101 detection algorithms. It is noted that previous versions of the SRTM grid showed a seamount-like feature at this location.  
 102 The version history reports the removal of isolated and outlier "bad pings" prior to the construction of version 11. The  
 103 revision of SRTM has removed other seamount-like features from the revised bathymetry grid (i.e. NW corner of Fig. 1). It  
 104 is apparent that bathymetry grids such as GEBCO and SRTM have mistakenly used these "no seabed detected" observations  
 105 as soundings indicating seabed depth, and in regions with sparse sounding data, these spatially isolated erroneously  
 106 interpreted records are sufficient to create a local maxima that creates the appearance of a seamount in the final bathymetry  
 107 grid.

108 This study aims to update the Yesson et al., (2011) seamount predictions using the latest available bathymetry and assess the  
109 impact of no bottom sounding data on the prediction of seamounts.

110

## 111 **Methods**

112 Version 11 of the Shuttle Radar Topography Mission global bathymetry (Becker et al., 2009 – version 11 released 2014) was  
113 used to update the seamount prediction estimates of Yesson et al., (2011), using the same methodology previously reported  
114 based on the local radial inspection of the surrounding area of local summits (Yesson et al., 2011).

115 New seamount predictions were compared with the previous dataset (Yesson et al., 2011 – henceforward the ‘old’ dataset).  
116 Seamounts were defined as in the old dataset if the seamount bases of the latest predictions encompassed the summit of old  
117 seamount predictions. Seamount bases are defined by 8 radii  $45^\circ$  apart that terminate at the point the descent from the  
118 seamount summit levels off up to a maximum of 20km from the summit (thus the maximum base area is  $\sim 1,131$  km<sup>2</sup>). The  
119 seamount bases can, and often do, encompass multiple peaks in the old dataset.

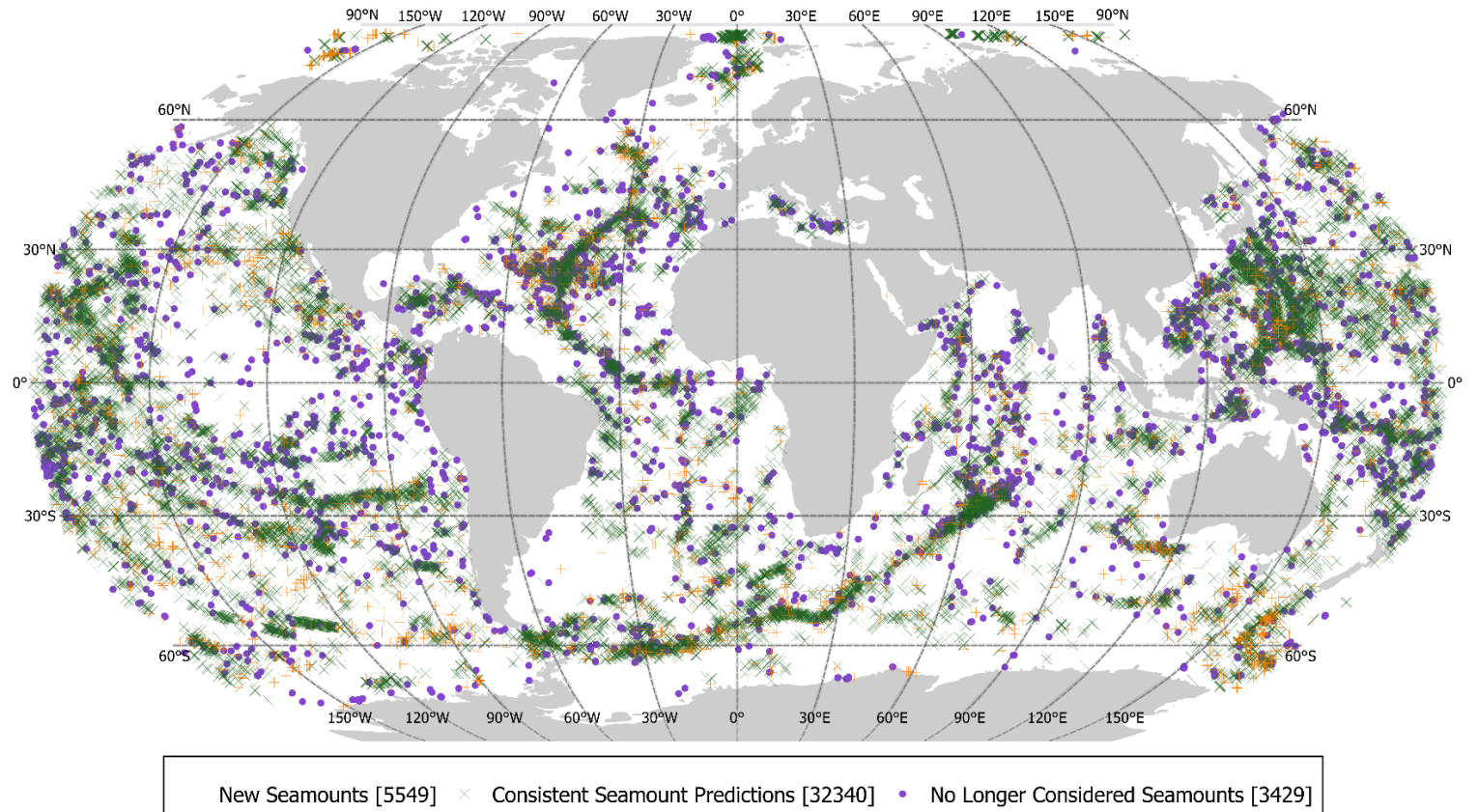
120 A dataset of ‘no bottom sounding’ observations was provided by Oceanwise Ltd, from a dataset of depth readings from  
121 digitised admiralty charts. These data include 1009 observations from charts covering the majority of the Atlantic and East  
122 Pacific, but with little data from the Southwest Indian Ocean and West Pacific. The depth readings of no-bottom soundings  
123 that were spatially located within seamount bases were compared with the summit depths.

## 124 **Results**

125 The total number of seamounts predicted based on the SRTM v11 bathymetry is 37,889. A map of these is presented in Fig.  
126 3. There are 32,340 seamounts in the new dataset that overlap with predictions from Yesson et al., (2011) and 5,549 (15%)  
127 that do not. Conversely, of the Yesson et al., (2011) seamount predictions there are 3,429 / 33,452 (10%) that do not overlap  
128 with the seamount bases of the new dataset.

129 Of the 1009 ‘no bottom sounding’ records, only 15 overlap with seamounts that are similar in depth ( $\pm 50$ m) to the peak of  
130 the predicted seamount. In contrast there are 14 seamounts that fit this pattern from the 2011 dataset. These “phantom  
131 seamounts” are focused in the Indian Ocean (12/14 from 2011 data and 12/15 from the updated dataset), with 4 potential  
132 phantom seamounts around Chagos Bank and 6 from the southern Mascarene Plateau (Fig. 4).

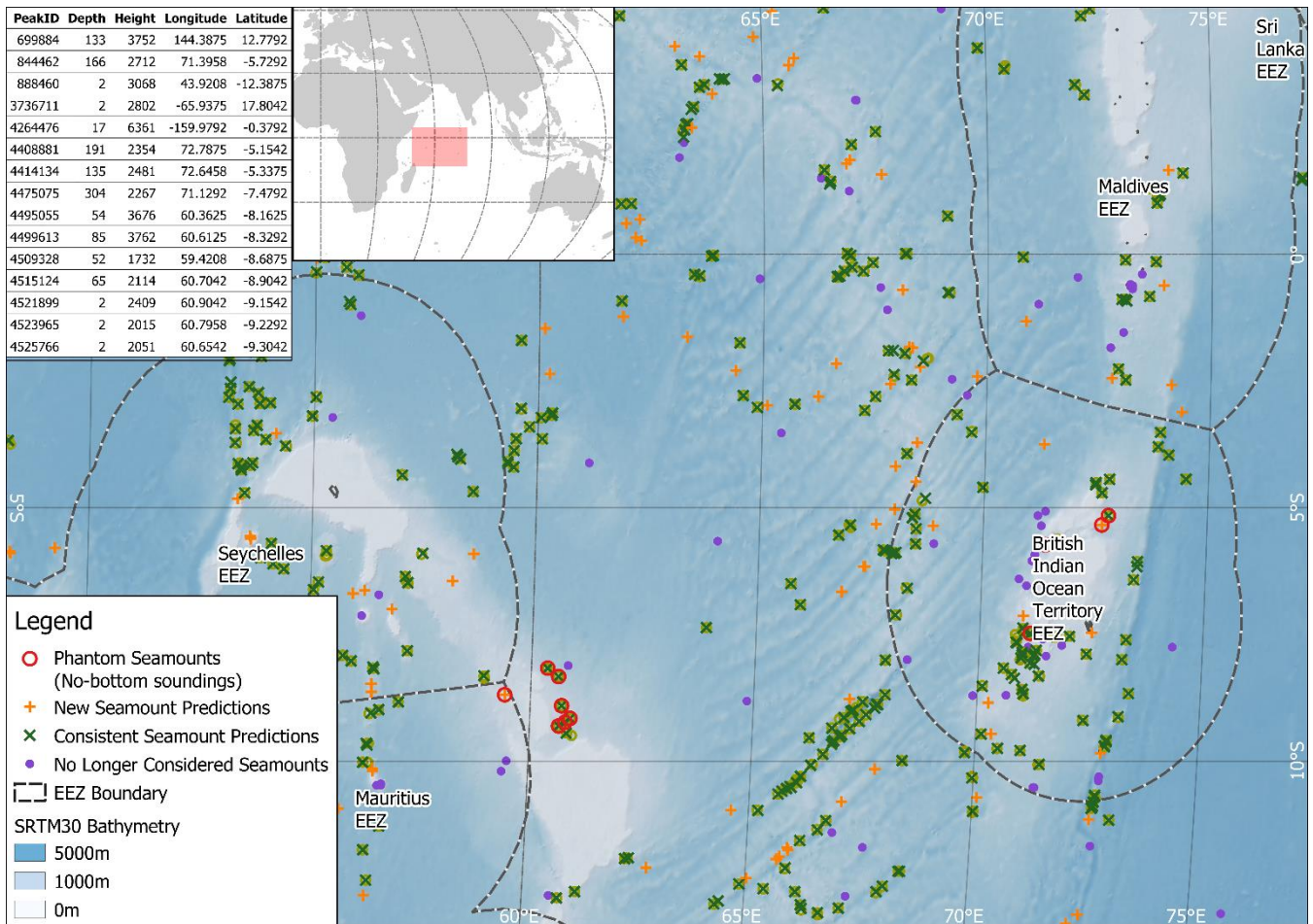
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**Figure 3: Map of predicted seamounts. New Seamounts are those in the new prediction that are not found in the Yesson et al., (2011) dataset. “Consistent predictions” are new predictions that are spatially consistent with Yesson et al., (2011), while those no longer considered seamounts are present in Yesson et al., (2011) but not in the updated dataset. Robinson map projection (EPSG:54030). Lat/Long grid lines at 30° intervals.**





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**Figure 4: Focus on Seamounts of NW Indian Ocean. Most of the 15 predicted seamounts based on no-bottom soundings are in the Indian Ocean. Inset table (top left) shows the full list of 15 “phantoms.” Robinson map projection (EPSG:54030). Lat/long lines shown for reference.**

143 **Discussion**

144 The 37,889 seamounts predicted from the latest SRTM bathymetry represents an increase in number (4,437=13%) of  
 145 seamounts predicted from the previous study (N=33,452). The revised predictions are higher than other predictions that post-  
 146 date Yesson et al., (2011) such as 24,643 seamounts in the Kim & Wessel (2011) dataset and 10,234 of Harris et al (2014),  
 147 but it is still lower than some other predictions, e.g. 68,669 of Costello et al., (2010). It is worth noting that each of these  
 148 studies uses different ways of detecting seamounts, for example Harris et al., (2014) have a stricter definition of seamount  
 149 that excludes features along ridges, while the methodology used in this study (from Yesson et al., 2011) employs a distance-  
 150 based filtering of adjacent features.

151 Regardless of the methodology used, it is important to keep prediction datasets up-to-date with the latest bathymetry grids.  
152 We note that a global 15 second bathymetry grid is available (SRTM 15 v2.1, Tozer et al., 2019), and that this greater detail  
153 may assist with seamount identification, although may require adjustment of the current methodology to fully utilise (Yesson  
154 et al., 2011). We expect the expansion of multibeam echosounder data (Wöflfl et al., 2019) to allow the detection of smaller  
155 (<1.5km) features in regions where previously bathymetry grids relied on only coarse resolution satellite-derived data, which  
156 is why authors have extrapolated their ‘detected’ seamount numbers to higher global estimates (e.g. Kim & Wessel, 2011  
157 detect 24,643 seamounts, but extrapolate this to a global total of 40,000-55,000). This pattern of increased seamount  
158 detection as more acoustic data becomes available fits our observation.

159 However, there is a competing pressure that may lead to a reduction of seamount numbers, as isolated ‘bad pings’ or  
160 erroneous readings are removed from bathymetry grid construction, so features defined by these mistakes will be removed  
161 (Becker et al., 2009; Weatherall et al., 2015). Although the scale of this error appears to be small, and the bathymetry grids  
162 are improving their products, all of these issues have not yet been removed.

163 Finally, although these predictions are based on a global bathymetry grid, we note that seamount predictions based on the  
164 lat-long bathymetry grid perform poorly at high latitudes where there is a large spatial distortion. Seamount predictions for  
165 Arctic and Antarctic regions should be remade based on polar specific grids such as the International Bathymetric Chart of  
166 the Arctic Ocean (IBCAO - Jakobsson et al., 2012).

## 167 **Conclusion**

168 Bathymetry grids are continually improving (Wöflfl et al., 2019), whether that be from new multibeam acquisition, such as  
169 that collected during the search for Malaysian Airlines flight MH370 (Smith and Marks 2014), or improved satellite gravity  
170 data (Sandwell et al., 2014). However, these bathymetry grids still rely on sparse sounding data for many regions, and thus  
171 have the capacity to mislead if invalid historical weighted line measurements are used in the construction of bathymetric  
172 models as isolated falsely interpreted records can lead to the appearance of “phantom seamounts.” Therefore, it is important  
173 that we use all the information available, including multiple seamount predictions, multiple bathymetry models and printed  
174 charts to assess potential seamount distributions, particularly when planning surveys to unsampled seamounts, or in the arena

175 of conservation planning, where seamount distributions can be used as proxies for endangered predator distributions  
176 (Bouchet et al., 2014).

#### 177 **Data availability**

178 Updated seamount predictions are available to download at (<https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.921688>).

#### 179 **Author contribution**

180 CY & TL conceived the work. TL, ANS, PH, AB & RP planned and conducted fieldwork. CY, TL & MH assembled the  
181 data. CY performed analysis. All contributed to writing.

#### 182 **Competing interests**

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

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