



**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 Harouin[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

**License information:** This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (CC BY) 4.0 <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>, which permits unrestricted use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

**Preprint statement:** This article is a preprint and has not been peer-reviewed, under consideration and submitted to UCL Open: Environment Preprint for open peer review.

**DOI:** 10.14324/111.444/000044.v1

**Preprint first posted online:** 22 June 2020

**Keywords:** Seamounts, Bathymetry, Knolls, Environmental science

Dear editor,

This is a follow up manuscript to the highly cited “The global distribution of seamounts based on 30 arc seconds bathymetry data” (<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dsr.2011.02.004> – currently 125 citations). This manuscript provides an update of the seamount predictions, along with a valuable observation on the reliability of bathymetry grids.

Kind regards

Chris Yesson & co-authors

# 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 barely 10000 to more than 60000), because locating and identifying them remotely can be  
14 difficult. Seamount locations can be estimated by extracting conical shaped features from bathymetry grids. These predicted  
15 seamounts are a useful reference for marine researchers and can help direct exploratory surveys. However, these predictions  
16 are dependent on the quality of the surveys underpinning the bathymetry. Historically, quality has been patchy, but is  
17 improving as mapping efforts step up towards the target of complete seabed coverage by 2030.

18 This study presents an update of seamount predictions based on the most recent SRTM30 global bathymetry. This update  
19 was prompted by a seamount survey in the British Indian Ocean Territory, where locations of two putative seamounts, based  
20 on several previous global seamount predictions, were visited, but no such features were detected during echosounder  
21 surveys. An examination of Admiralty charts for the area showed that the summits of these putative features had soundings  
22 reporting “no bottom detected at this depth” where “this depth” was similar to the seabed reported from the bathymetry  
23 grids: we suspect that these features likely resulted from an initial misreading of the charts. We show that perhaps 15  
24 phantom seamount features, derived from a misinterpretation of no-bottom sounding data, persist in current global  
25 bathymetry grids and updated seamount predictions. Overall, we predict 37,889 seamounts, an increase of 4,437 from the  
26 previous prediction derived from an older global bathymetry grid. This increase is due to greater detail in newer bathymetry  
27 grids as acoustic mapping of the seabed expands.

## 28 **Keywords**

29 Seamounts; Knolls; Bathymetry

## 30 **Introduction**

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

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

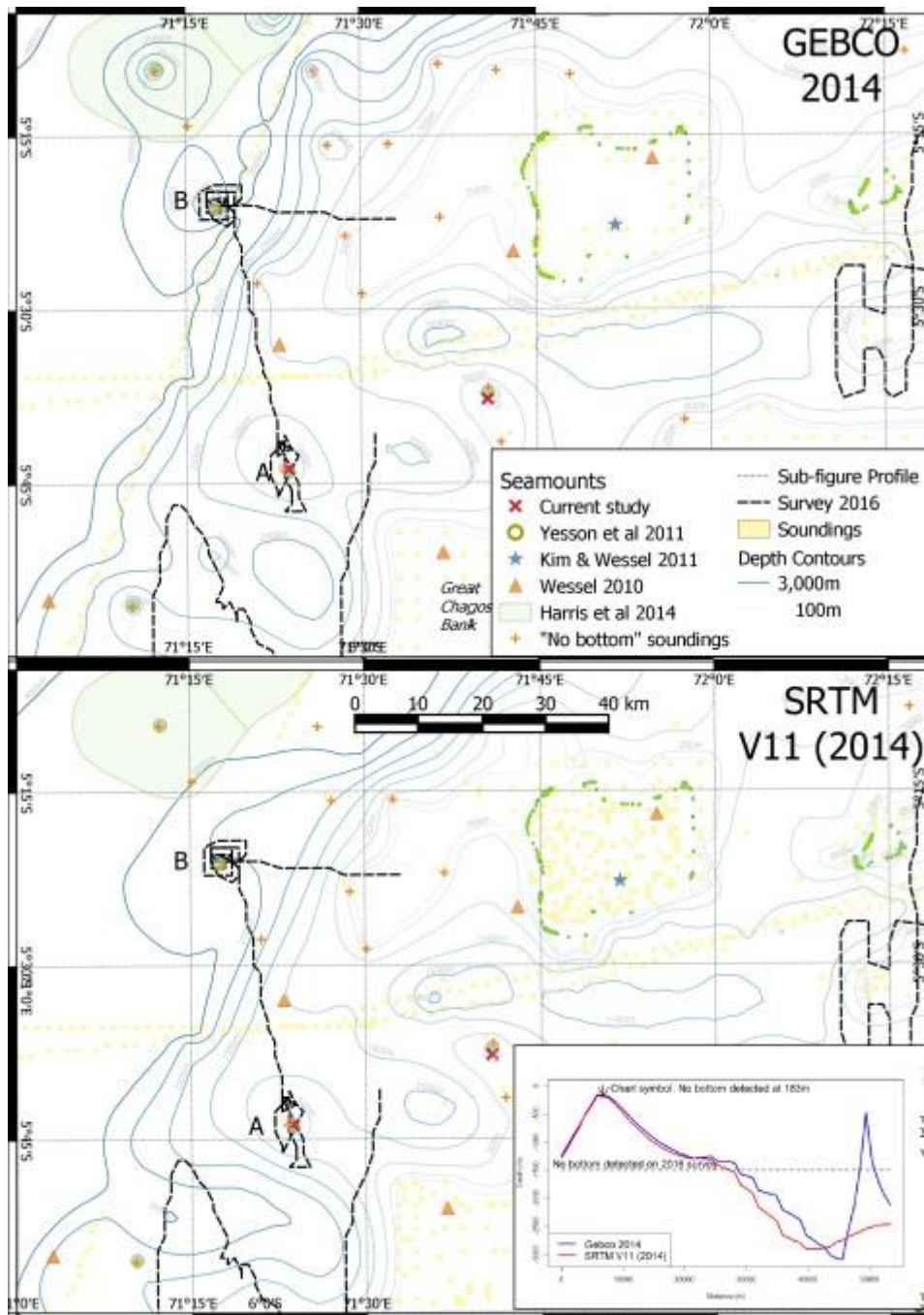
43 Direct surveys require significant investment of resources and planning, and fundamental to this is identification of locations  
44 of interest for the survey. However, we do not yet know how many seamounts there are, with estimates ranging from the tens  
45 to hundreds of thousands (Yesson et al.,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

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

## 61 **BIOT Seamount Survey**

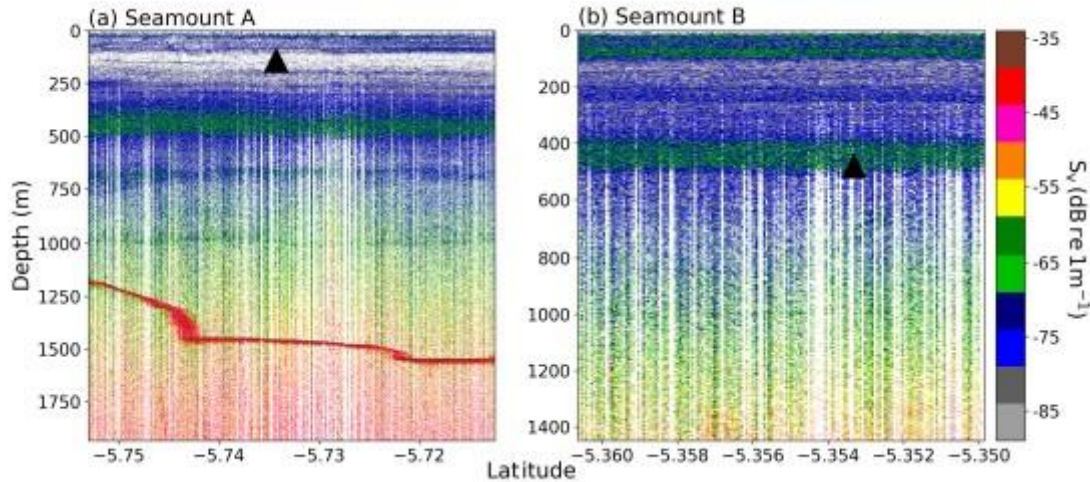
62 The British Indian Ocean Territory (BIOT) is a region of the Indian Ocean encompassing a variety of undersea features,  
63 including the flat shallow banks of the Chagos Archipelago, and the high slopes of the Chagos-Laccadives ridge, and depths  
64 beyond 5000m (Sheppard et al., 2012). The area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

77



78

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



84

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

88 An examination of the admiralty chart for the region provided some insight. Soundings on charts are recorded by displaying  
 89 the depth reading over the location. A different class of sounding is also recorded. Soundings where no bottom was recorded  
 90 are annotated with  $\frac{\cdot}{Depth}$  at the location of the sounding. These soundings are typically old, prior to the nineteenth century,

91 dating from when soundings were conducted using handheld, weighted, lead lines, before the widespread use of sounding  
 92 machines. It is easy to mistake these as bottom soundings, and this appears to be the root cause of the 'phantom seamounts'.  
 93 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  
 94 shows no bottom recorded at 183m, while the GEBCO depth at this cell is 179m and SRTM depth is 183m.

95 However, the SRTM grid at the site of seamount B does not show a seamount-like feature, in contrast to GEBCO, which  
 96 shows an isolated point of markedly higher elevation, which is interpreted as a conical seamount-like peak by seamount  
 97 detection algorithms. It is noted that previous versions of the SRTM grid showed a seamount-like feature at this location.  
 98 The version history reports the removal of isolated and outlier "bad pings" prior to the construction of version 11. The  
 99 revision of SRTM has removed other seamount-like features from the revised bathymetry grid (i.e. NW corner of Fig. 1). It  
 100 is apparent that bathymetry grids such as GEBCO and SRTM have mistakenly used these "no seabed detected" observations  
 101 as soundings indicating seabed depth, and in regions with sparse sounding data, these spatially isolated erroneously  
 102 interpreted records are sufficient to create a local maxima that creates the appearance of a seamount in the final bathymetry  
 103 grid.

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

106

107 **Methods**

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

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

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

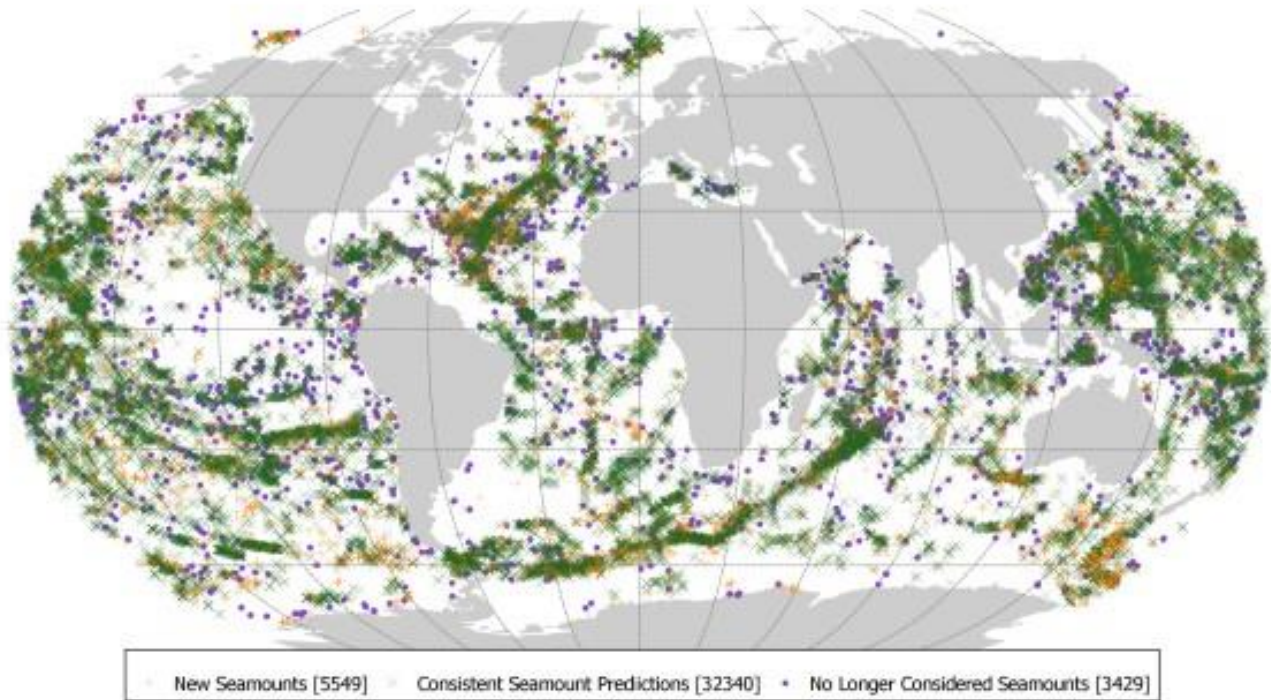
120 **Results**

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

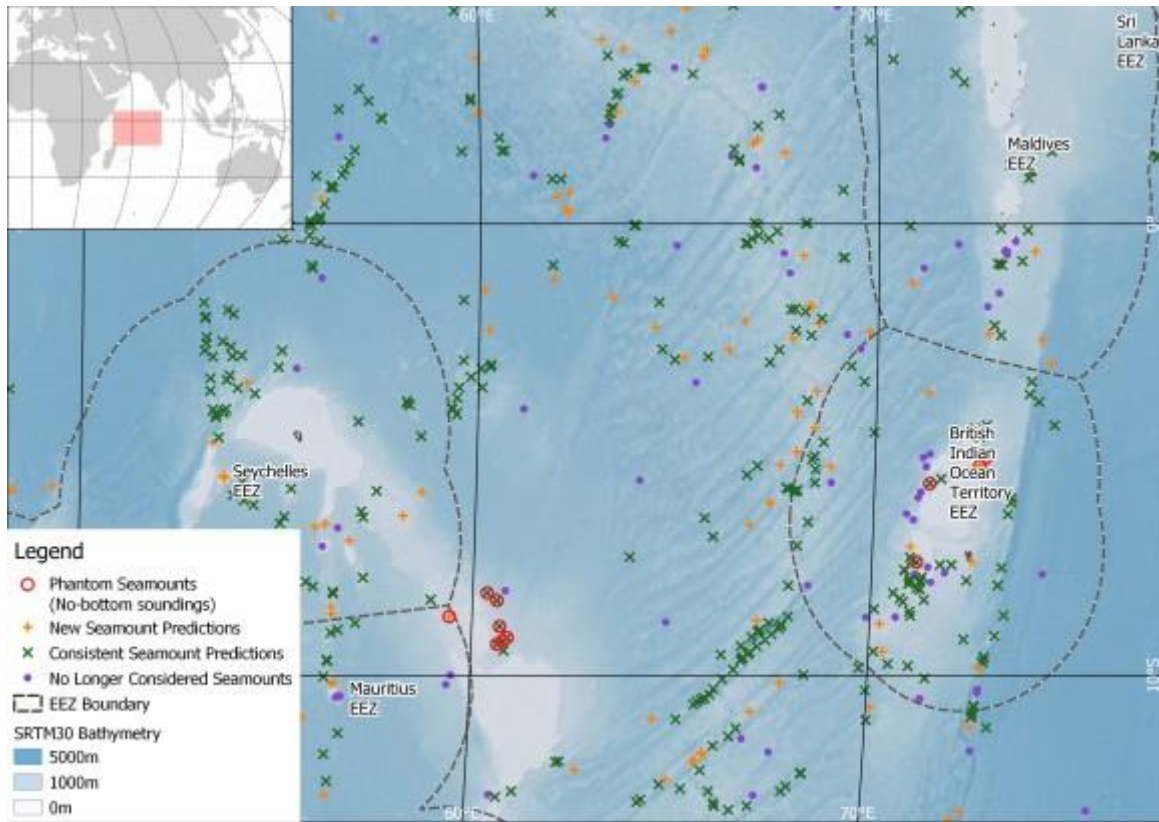
125 Of the 1009 ‘no bottom sounding’ records, only 15 overlap with seamounts that are similar in depth (+/-50m) to the peak of  
126 the predicted seamount. In contrast there are 14 seamounts that fit this pattern from the 2011 dataset. These “phantom  
127 seamounts” are focused in the Indian Ocean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

129





131 **Figure 3: Map of predicted seamounts. New Seamounts are those in the new prediction that are not found in the Yesson et al.,**  
 132 **(2011) dataset. “Consistent predictions” are new predictions that are spatially consistent with Yesson et al., (2011), while those no**  
 133 **longer considered seamounts are present in Yesson et al., (2011) but not in the updated dataset. Robinson map projection**  
 134 **(EPSG:54030). Grid lines at 30° intervals.**



136 **Figure 4: Focus on Seamounts of NW Indian Ocean. Robinson map projection (EPSG:54030).**

## 137 Discussion

138 The 37,889 seamounts predicted from the latest SRTM bathymetry represents an increase in number (4,437=13%) of  
 139 seamounts predicted from the previous study (N=33,452). The revised predictions are higher than other predictions that post-  
 140 date Yesson et al., (2011) such as 24,643 seamounts in the Kim & Wessel (2011) dataset and 10,234 of Harris et al (2014),  
 141 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  
 142 studies uses different ways of detecting seamounts, for example Harris et al., (2014) have a stricter definition of seamount  
 143 that excludes features along ridges.

144 Regardless of the methodology used, it is important to keep prediction datasets up-to-date with the latest bathymetry grids.

145 We expect the expansion of multibeam echosounder data (Wöfl et al., 2019) to allow the detection of smaller (<1.5km)

146 features in regions where previously bathymetry grids relied on only coarse resolution satellite-derived data, which is why  
147 authors have extrapolated their ‘detected’ seamount numbers to higher global estimates (e.g. Kim & Wessel, 2011 detect  
148 24,643 seamounts, but extrapolate this to a global total of 40,000-55,000). This pattern of increased seamount detection as  
149 more acoustic data becomes available fits our observation.

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

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

## 158 **Conclusion**

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

## 168 **Data availability**

169 Updated seamount predictions are available to download at (tbc).

170 **Author contribution**

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

173 **Competing interests**

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

175 **Acknowledgements**

176 We are grateful to the Bertarelli Foundation for supporting this research. Field activities were conducted under permit and  
177 with support from the Foreign and Commonwealth Office and the BIOT administration. We thank the Pacific Marlin, its  
178 Master, Chief, and crew for excellent assistance. We are grateful to Oceanwise Ltd for sharing the dataset of ‘no bottom  
179 sounding’ observations from the digitised admiralty charts. We thank Andrew Roy for helpful suggestions during this MSc  
180 thesis project.

181 **References**

- 182 Althaus, F, Williams A, Schlacher TA, Kloser RJ, Green MA, Barker BA, Bax NJ, Brodie P, Hoenlinger-Schlacher MA  
183 (2009) Impacts of Bottom Trawling on Deep-Coral Ecosystems of Seamounts Are Long-Lasting. *Mar Ecol Prog Ser* 397:  
184 279–294. <https://doi.org/10.3354/meps08248>.
- 185 Becker JJ, Sandwell DT, Smith WHF, Braud J, Binder B, Depner J, Fabre D, et al., (2009) Global Bathymetry and Elevation  
186 Data at 30 Arc Seconds Resolution: SRTM30\_PLUS. *Mar Geodesy* 32: 355–71.  
187 <https://doi.org/10.1080/01490410903297766>.
- 188 Bouchet PJ, Meeuwig JJ, Salgado Kent CP, Letessier TB Jenner CK (2014) Topographic Determinants of Mobile Vertebrate  
189 Predator Hotspots: Current Knowledge and Future Directions. *Biol Rev* 90: 699–728. <https://doi.org/10.1111/brv.12130>.
- 190 Harris PT, Macmillan-Lawler M, Rupp J, Baker EK. (2014) Geomorphology of the Oceans. *Mar Geol* 352: 4–24.  
191 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.margeo.2014.01.011>.
- 192 Hosegood PJ, Nimmo-Smith WAM, Proud R, Adams K, Brierley AS (2019) Internal lee waves and baroclinic bores over a  
193 tropical seamount shark “hot-spot.” *Prog Oceanog* 172: 34–50. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.pocan.2019.01.010>.
- 194 International Hydrographic Organization (2008) Standardization of undersea feature names: Guidelines proposal form  
195 terminology, 4th edition. International Hydrographic Organization and International Oceanographic Commission,  
196 International Hydrographic Bureau, Monaco, 32 pp.

197 Jakobsson M, Mayer L, Coakley B, Dowdeswell JA, Forbes S, Fridman B, Hodnesdal H, Noormets R, Pedersen R, Rebesco  
198 M, Schenke HW (2012) The international bathymetric chart of the Arctic Ocean (IBCAO) version 3.0. *Geophys Res Lett*  
199 28:12. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2012GL052219>.

200 Kim SS, Wessel P (2011) New Global Seamount Census from Altimetry-Derived Gravity Data. *Geophys J Int* 186: 615–631.  
201 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-246x.2011.05076.x>.

202 Kvile KØ, Taranto GH, Pitcher TJ, Morato T (2014) A Global Assessment of Seamount Ecosystems Knowledge Using an  
203 Ecosystem Evaluation Framework. *Biol Cons* 173: 108–20. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2013.10.002>.

204 Letessier TB, Cox MJ, Meeuwig JJ, Boersch-Supan PH, Brierley AS. (2016) Enhanced Pelagic Biomass around Coral  
205 Atolls. *Mar Ecol Prog Ser* 546: 271–76. <https://doi.org/10.3354/meps11675>.

206 Letessier TB, Bouchet PJ, Meeuwig JJ (2017) Sampling Mobile Oceanic Fishes and Sharks: Implications for Fisheries and  
207 Conservation Planning. *Biol Rev* 91: 627–646. <https://doi.org/10.1111/brv.12246>.

208 Letessier TB, De Grave S, Boersch-Supan PH, Kemp K, Brierley AS, Rogers A. (2017) Seamount influences on mid-water  
209 shrimps (Decapoda) and gnathophausiids (Lophogastridea) of the South-West Indian Ridge. *Deep Sea Res Part II: Topical*  
210 *Stud Oceanogr* 136: 85-97. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dsr2.2015.05.009>.

211 Letessier TB, Hosegood P, Nimmo-Smith A, Fernandes MC, Proud R, Lieber L, et al., (2016). Chagos Archipelago  
212 Consortium Pelagic Science Expedition. Scientific Report to the Bertarelli Foundation and the Foreign and Commonwealth  
213 Office. 1–55.

214 Letessier TB, Mouillot D, Bouchet PJ, Vigliola L, Fernandes MC, Thompson C, et al., (2019). Remote reefs and seamounts  
215 are the last refuges for marine predators across the Indo-Pacific. *PLoS Biology*, 17(8), e3000366.  
216 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.3000366>.

217 Morato T, Hoyle SD, Allain V, Nicol SJ. (2010). Seamounts Are Hotspots of Pelagic Biodiversity in the Open Ocean. *Proc*  
218 *Nat Acad Sci* 107: 9707–11. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0910290107>.

219 Morato T, Pitcher T, Clark M, Menezes G, Tempera F, Porteiro F, Giacomello E, Santos R (2010) Can We Protect  
220 Seamounts for Research? A Call for Conservation. *Oceanog.* 23: 190–99. <https://doi.org/10.5670/oceanog.2010.71>.

221 Sandwell DT, Muller RD, Smith WHF, Garcia E, Francis R. (2014). New Global Marine Gravity Model from CryoSat-2 and  
222 Jason-1 Reveals Buried Tectonic Structure. *Science* 346: 65–67. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1258213>.

223 Smith WHF, Marks KM. (2014) Seafloor in the Malaysia Airlines Flight MH370 Search Area. *Eos Trans. AGU* 95: 173–74.  
224 <https://doi.org/10.1002/2014eo210001>.

225 Tittensor DP, Baco AR, Hall-Spencer JM, Orr JC, Rogers AD (2010). Seamounts as Refugia from Ocean Acidification for  
226 Cold-Water Stony Corals. *Mar Ecol* 31: 212–225. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1439-0485.2010.00393.x>.

227 Tracey DM, Rowden AA, Mackay KA, Compton T (2011) Habitat-Forming Cold-Water Corals Show Affinity for  
228 Seamounts in the New Zealand Region. *Mar Ecol Prog Ser* 430: 1–22. <https://doi.org/10.3354/meps09164>.

229 Tsukamoto K (2006) Oceanic biology: spawning of eels near a seamount. *Nature* 439.7079: 929-929.  
230 <https://doi.org/10.1038/439929a>.

- 231 Weatherall P, Marks KM, Jakobsson M, Schmitt T, Tani S, Arndt JE, Rovere M, Chayes D, Ferrini V, Wigley R (2015) A  
232 New Digital Bathymetric Model of the Worlds Oceans. *Earth Space Sci* 2: 331–45. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2015ea000107>.
- 233 Wessel P, Sandwell D, Kim SS (2010) The Global Seamount Census. *Oceanogr* 23: 24–33.  
234 <https://doi.org/10.5670/oceanog.2010.60>.
- 235 Wöfl AC, Snaith H, Amirebrahimi S, Devey CW, Dorschel B, Ferrini V, Huvenne VA, Jakobsson M, Jencks J, Johnston G,  
236 Lamarche G (2019) Seafloor Mapping—the challenge of a truly global ocean bathymetry. *Front Mar Sci* 6:283.  
237 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2019.00283>.
- 238 Yesson C, Clark MR, Taylor ML, Rogers AD (2011) The Global Distribution of Seamounts Based on 30 Arc Seconds  
239 Bathymetry Data. *Deep Sea Res Part I: Oceanogr Res Papers* 58: 442–53. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dsr.2011.02.004>.