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1 **The epitome of data paucity: deep-sea habitats of the Southern Indian Ocean**

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29
30 **Conflict of interest**

31 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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33
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44 **Abstract**

45

46 Vulnerable marine ecosystems (VMEs) are protected from bottom-fishing impacts in
47 international waters by UN resolutions through Regional Fishery Management Organizations.
48 VMEs include deep-sea benthic taxa whose life-history traits make them vulnerable to
49 disturbance. Conservation measures for VMEs require regulatory frameworks informed by
50 biodiversity maps. Here we evaluate biogeographic patterns of deep-sea benthic biodiversity
51 of the Southern Indian Ocean to understand conservation avenues for the Southern Indian
52 Ocean Fisheries Agreement (SIOFA) management organization. We synthesised knowledge
53 on the distribution of benthic deep-sea taxa and explored the quality and quantity of available
54 data. Next, we explored how taxa are structured into bioregions using biogeographical
55 networks. We found astounding Wallacean and Linnaean shortfalls within SIOFA's
56 management area, which is virtually devoid of distributional data. Across the entire area,
57 results suggest that only 73% of the expected deep-sea taxa has been sampled, and most
58 sampled cells appeared to be inadequately sampled. Yet, our bioregionalization analysis
59 identified multiple bioregions, some only observed within SIOFA's area. The Wallacean and
60 Linnaean shortfalls are so important for VMEs that they severely impede to make adequate
61 maps for conservation planning. Bioregionalization results suggest that SIOFA hosts a unique
62 faunal composition that must be safeguarded. Predictive approaches to compensate for these
63 shortfalls exist but will likely be insufficient and uncertain. Within SIOFA's area, there is no
64 satisfying solution to cope with the data shortfalls. Yet, biodiversity maps are a global
65 responsibility. This study makes a call to invest in biodiversity inventories in this world's
66 region to promote informed policy-making decisions.

67

68 **Keywords**

69 Deep-sea habitats; Bioregionalization; Indian Ocean; Conservation; Fisheries; ABNJs

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72 **Highlights**

- 73
- 74 • Bioregionalization of the Southern Indian Ocean using bipartite networks
 - 75 • Major Linnaean and Wallacean shortfalls
 - 76 • Unknown extent of unique bioregions in offshore areas
 - 77 • Southern Indian Ocean systematically data-poor for benthic studies

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90 **Introduction**

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92 The increasing appropriation of marine resources by human societies, termed “the blue
93 acceleration”, is multiplying and intensifying pressures on the ocean (Jouffray et al., 2020).
94 This holds especially true for the deep sea where cumulative impacts from fishing, potentially
95 deep-sea mining, and climate change (Sweetman et al., 2017), will increase and new
96 dynamics and threats will emerge (Halpern et al., 2019; O’Hara et al., 2021). In the deep sea,
97 we find species such as cold-water corals and sponges with life-history traits (slow-growth,
98 late-maturing and long-lived) that make them highly vulnerable against disturbance. These
99 species, collectively known as indicator taxa of Vulnerable Marine Ecosystems (VMEs),
100 have ecological and functional importance by enhancing biodiversity and providing habitat to
101 other rare, threatened, or endangered species (FAO, 2009). Such roles confer VME taxa with
102 conservation significance, and the United Nations require management measures that can
103 include closing areas to fishing (UNGA, 2007). As a result, there is an increasing need to
104 enforce conservation measures for deep-sea regions on a global scale, which in turn requires
105 understanding species distributions across temporal and spatial scales (Lourie & Vincent,
106 2004; Rice et al., 2011).

107

108 To support conservation and spatial management objectives for VMEs, it is fundamental to
109 define the boundaries, extent, and connections of deep-sea regions with ecological,
110 environmental, and biogeographic characteristics (Danovaro et al., 2009). However, this
111 fundamental definition of deep-sea regions is compromised by the critical under-sampling of
112 deep waters (Hughes et al., 2021; Menegotto & Rangel, 2018) that prevents resolving
113 biogeographic patterns for deep-sea taxa, although there are efforts at regional (e.g., Summers
114 & Watling, 2021) and global (e.g., Watling et al., 2013; Watling & Lapointe, 2022) scale for
115 certain groups. The vastness, remoteness, and required technological complexities render
116 deep-sea scientific exploration patchy, punctual, and rather costly. At a spatial resolution of 5
117 km, Hughes et al. (2021) estimate the area of ocean sampled at 0.6% for all taxonomic groups
118 between 1,000 and 1,800 m water depth and at less than 0.02 % for deeper waters. At depths
119 between 1,000 and 1,800 m, certain groups like Cnidaria dominate the percentage of global
120 records. Further to this sampling imbalance across depths, sampling bias prevails in the
121 southern hemisphere (Menegotto & Rangel, 2018), underlining the inequity in scientific
122 technological capacity needed for this realm. Accordingly, the deep sea is an environment
123 that suffers systematically from taxonomic and geographical knowledge biases, also known
124 as the Linnean (Brown & Lomolino, 1998) and Wallacean (Lomolino, 2004) shortfalls,
125 respectively.

126

127 Linnean and Wallacean shortfalls for deep-sea vulnerable taxa are greatest in waters beyond
128 national jurisdiction (hereafter, high seas), which cover 61% of ocean area and 73% of ocean
129 volume (Costello et al., 2010). There, these taxa of groups of mainly suspension feeders, tend
130 to occur on locations where currents are accelerated by kilometre-scale topographic features,
131 such as the crest or rims of seamount summits and ridges (Rogers, 2018). However, although
132 Linnean (i.e., most species remain undescribed; Cardoso et al., 2011) and Wallacean (i.e.,
133 knowledge on species’ distribution is inadequate; Cardoso et al., 2011) are the most
134 prominent knowledge gaps, in reality most deep-sea taxa endure other renowned shortfalls:
135 Darwinian (phylogenetic relationships), Hutchinsonian (environmental tolerance), Prestonian
136 (population in time and space), Raunkerian (species traits), and Eltonian (species
137 interactions) (see Hortal et al., 2015 for a review on biodiversity shortfalls). For example, for

138 deep-sea octocorals of the Order Alcyonacea (Phylum Cnidaria), which can create single or
139 multi-species aggregations known as coral gardens (Freiwald & Roberts, 2005; Rossi et al.,
140 2017), the phylogeny has just become resolved and well supported to proceed with taxonomic
141 revisions (McFadden et al., 2022). In addition, few studies have assessed the interaction
142 behind octocoral species co-occurrence (e.g., Rakka et al., 2021), and baseline studies
143 continue to shed light on life-history traits (e.g., Baillon et al., 2016; Rakka, Godinho, et al.,
144 2021) and environmental tolerances (e.g., Rakka, Godinho, et al., 2021; Scanes et al., 2018)
145 for a handful of species. Whilst we are steadily advancing our understanding of deep-sea
146 species, habitats, and more generally VMEs, knowledge shortfalls on the high seas may
147 hinder the application of conservation measures by managerial regulatory bodies, such as
148 regional fisheries management organizations (RFMOs).

149
150 In the Indian Ocean, the Southern Indian Ocean Fisheries Agreement (SIOFA) is the entity in
151 charge of managing deep-sea fisheries on the high seas. As other RFMOs in other world's
152 oceans, SIOFA must comply with international obligations towards the conservation of
153 VMEs against potential impacts from deep-sea bottom fishing. In this regard, since its
154 relatively recent establishment in 2012, SIOFA has initiated management efforts to protect
155 VMEs by identifying a list of VME indicator taxa for Indian Ocean waters (CMM 2018/01).
156 In addition, SIOFA has designated five interim benthic protected areas where bottom-fishing
157 trawling is not permitted (CMM 2019/01) and is currently undertaking work to establish new
158 interim protected areas. Situated over seamounts and ridges, the relevance of the existing
159 protected areas for preserving VMEs is however unknown because it has not been studied:
160 they were areas where only exploratory or no fishing had occurred. Considering that half of
161 the estimated number of seamounts of the Indian Ocean fall in the high seas and about a
162 quarter are deemed to be at fishable depths (i.e., with summit depths less than 1,500 m)
163 (Yesson et al., 2011), further conservation measures will likely also focus on seamounts and
164 ridges, where deep-sea fisheries develop around aggregations of resident fish (Clark et al.,
165 2007; Kerry et al., 2022). To crown it all, the Southern Indian Ocean remains one of the least
166 explored oceans in the world (Ingole & Koslow, 2005; Rogers & Taylor, 2012; Saraswat et
167 al., 2022; Wafar et al., 2011).

168
169 For SIOFA to develop a conservation plan, it requires to map biogeographical regions of
170 VMEs in order to scientifically inform decision making. Biogeographical classifications, or
171 bioregionalizations (Woolley et al., 2020), are the building blocks for the planning and
172 implementation process of management measures and are highly connected to the
173 development of marine protected areas (Rice et al., 2011). This is because bioregionalizations
174 enable the identification of units that should be represented in a network, ensuring the
175 protection of biogeographically unique areas and the development of a network that considers
176 representativity, connectivity and replication of sites (Rice et al., 2011). Here, we compiled
177 all the available distribution data on VME indicator taxa to map such regions and report on
178 how problematic Linnean and Wallacean shortfalls are for VMEs on the high seas of the
179 Southern Indian Ocean. We develop a bioregionalization, explore these knowledge shortfalls,
180 and speculate on what are their impact and the possible avenues for VME conservation so
181 that SIOFA meets their international management obligations.

182 **Materials and methods**

183

184 *Study area*

185

186 The Southern Indian Ocean Fisheries Agreement (SIOFA) covers the high seas (i.e., waters
187 beyond national jurisdiction) of the Indian Ocean between the parallels 10° N and 45° S, and
188 the meridians 30° E to 80° E, with the area east of 65° E to the equator outside their
189 jurisdiction (Figure 1A). We extended the study area to encompass latitudes 13° N – 65° S
190 and longitudes 20° E – 147° E.

191

192 The seabed of the Indian Ocean is geomorphologically complex. The Indian Ocean includes
193 numerous mid-ocean ridges (some not active sites of seafloor spreading such as the Ninety-
194 East Ridge, the Mascarene Ridge and the Chagos-Laccadive Ridge), seamounts, plateaus and
195 rises, abyssal plains and trenches. Most of the geomorphological features fall within areas
196 beyond national jurisdiction and are therefore within SIOFA's management area. Within
197 SIOFA, the seafloor bathymetry ranges from as shallow as 1 m at Saya de Malha Bank to
198 approximately 8,000 m in the abyssal plains, wherein the Southwest Indian Ocean Ridge and
199 Broken Ridge summit between 1,000 m and 2,000 m, and the Central Indian Ridge, Southeast
200 Indian Ridge and Ninety-East Ridge have generally deeper summits. With a mean peak
201 summit at 2,250 m, there are 1,746 estimated seamounts in SIOFA (Yesson et al., 2011).

202

203 *Biological data*

204

205 The VME indicators list adopted by SIOFA (CMM 2018/01) at order, class, and phylum
206 levels, includes the following categories of deep-sea (generally > 200 m) benthic taxa:
207 Cnidaria (Gorgonacea, Anthoathecatae, Stylasteridae, Scleractinia, Antipatharia, Zoantharia,
208 Actiniaria, Alcyonacea, Pennatulacea), Porifera (Hexactinellida, Demospongiae), Ascidiacea,
209 Bryozoans, Brachiopoda, Pterobranchia, Serpulidae, Xenophyophora, Bathylasmatidae,
210 Crinoidea (stalked species only), Euryalida, Cidaroida. We downloaded all occurrence
211 records under these categories from the public databases the Ocean Biodiversity Information
212 System (OBIS, <https://obis.org/>) (accessed on 10/11/2020 and 02/04/2021), the Global
213 Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF; <https://www.gbif.org/>) (accessed on 09/11/2020 and
214 14/04/2021), NOAA's Deep-sea Corals Data Portal (<https://deepseacoraldata.noaa.gov/>)
215 (accessed on 16/11/2020 and 09/04/2021), and Smithsonian Natural History Museum
216 (<https://collections.nmnh.si.edu/>) (accessed on 16/11/2020). We also obtained occurrence
217 records from SIOFA's observer programme, research campaigns led by the Muséum National
218 d'Histoire Naturelle, and the published literature (Taylor & Rogers, 2017). We obtained
219 records for the whole Southern Indian Ocean to account for ecological continuity, that is,
220 SIOFA's management area and all exclusive economic zones bordering it (latitudes 13° N –
221 65° S and longitudes 20° E – 147° E).

222 We applied verification procedures for taxonomic consistency, error detection, as well as
223 evaluation of records in the environmental space. Specifically, we first checked species
224 names against the most updated authority, the World Register of Marine Species (WoRMS,
225 2021) for synonyms and fossil records. Secondly, we applied automatic error and outlier
226 detection using the function clean-coordinates from the R package CoordinateCleaner version
227 2.0-18 (Zizka et al., 2019). We tested for equal coordinates, coordinates over land using the
228 Natural Earth data ocean shapefile version 4.1.0 (www.naturalearthdata.com, accessed
229 November 2020), and zero coordinates. Finally, we used the catalogue number and
230 geographical coordinates to filter out potential duplicates across GBIF and OBIS.

231 Our download strategy incorporated numerous shallow water species in the dataset,
232 particularly zooxanthellate corals (i.e., corals with photosynthetic algae) – however, only
233 deep-sea species fall under the definition of VME indicator taxa. Although very few

234 zooxanthellate corals occur below 50 m (Cairns, 2007), using the typical definition of deep
235 sea as waters below 200 m would exclude deep-water species that expand into shallower
236 depths. Consequently, we aimed to integrate the ecology of taxa and the general definition of
237 deep sea by applying several filters to exclude zooxanthellate corals and other strictly
238 shallow-water taxa. First, we individually assessed the depth distribution of each species, and
239 we kept a species if 90% of its records were below 200 m water depth. To assess the depth
240 range of records, we relied on their original recorded depth as indicated in the sample record.
241 In the cases where this information was not available, we used the General Bathymetric Chart
242 of the Oceans (GEBCO, 2021) to assign depths. Second, we further filtered species known to
243 be shallow water as we worked through with peer-reviewed deep-sea taxa lists (Cairns, 2017;
244 Kocsis et al., 2018). Our filtered dataset of deep-sea VME indicator taxa comprised 1,997
245 species (of which 1,312 had an observation date).

246

247 *Completeness of the inventory*

248 We investigated the accuracy and uncertainty of our consolidated occurrence dataset by
249 calculating the completeness of our inventory based on a class of diversity measures known
250 as Hill numbers (Hill, 1973). Hill numbers are defined as the effective number of equally
251 abundant species and are parameterized by a diversity order “ q ”. Hill numbers for order
252 $q \geq 0$ include the species diversity measures species richness, Shannon diversity, and
253 Simpson diversity as special cases of order $q = 0$, $q = 1$, and $q = 2$, respectively. For
254 incidence-based data, as here, this class of measures quantifies the effective number of
255 equally frequent species. For $q = 0$, this measure reduces to species richness, and the
256 measures of $q = 1$ and $q = 2$ can be interpreted respectively as the effective number of
257 frequent and highly frequent species in an assemblage (Chao et al., 2014). As our objective is
258 to detect biogeographical regions, completeness at orders $q = 1$ and $q = 2$ are particularly
259 important. Biogeographical regions are based on the overlapping distribution of species, and
260 therefore it is a requirement for bioregionalization methods to detect the majority of frequent
261 and highly frequent species across a large number of sites throughout the study area.

262 We used the estimated sample completeness profile, which depicts completeness as a
263 function of a diversity order q in a four-step integrated approach developed by Chao et al.
264 (2020) that links the concepts of sample completeness and diversity. In practice, a
265 completeness profile is plotted for all values of q from $q=0$ to $q=2$, beyond which the profile
266 generally stabilizes (Chao et al., 2020). A bootstrap method permits to obtain 95% confidence
267 intervals. We computed the completeness estimators at $q = 0$, $q = 1$, and $q = 2$, as described
268 in Chao et al. (2020) (iNEXT.4steps R package; Chao & Hu, 2023). We estimated the sample
269 completeness on a per-grid cell basis at resolutions ranging from 1° to 5° , because the quality
270 of estimates of taxonomic richness is dependent on the spatial scale (extent and resolution) of
271 the study (Soberón et al., 2007). We did not compute completeness indices for insufficiently
272 sampled cells, which include cells that had less than 10 species, only singletons, or less than 3
273 sampled sub-cells, but instead these were manually set to have zero completeness. Our
274 evaluation of different resolutions revealed an equal completeness at orders $q = 1$, and $q =$
275 2 . However, coarser resolutions also aggregated species from different regions within a grid
276 cell, ultimately blurring boundaries between regions (Lobo et al., 2018; Menegotto & Rangel,
277 2018; Mora et al., 2008). We decided to work at a resolution of 1° , which was a compromise
278 between completeness and the identification of boundaries between bioregions. Further
279 details on the computation of the sample completeness profiles can be found in the
280 Supplemental Material (section “1. Inventory completeness”).

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Bioregionalization

We delineated biogeographical regions for VME taxa using bipartite biogeographical networks (Vilhena & Antonelli, 2015) with the hierarchical clustering algorithm Map Equation (Rosvall & Bergstrom, 2008). Bipartite biogeographical networks have been recommended to map biogeographical regions (Bloomfield et al., 2018; Edler et al., 2017; Rojas et al., 2017) and perform better in data-poor situations than similarity-based approaches (see Leroy et al., 2019, Appendix S2). A bipartite network represents the distribution of species across sites as a network of nodes, where each node is a species or a site. A network comprises nodes that can be connected to each other by links (or edges). Here, nodes represent grid cells and, separately, the species that occur in them, while edges link grid cell and species nodes indicating whether a species is present in a grid cell. The network is bipartite because each type of node, grid cell and species, cannot connect to another node of the same type; that is, species nodes can only connect to grid cell nodes and grid cell nodes can only connect to species nodes. Thus, a species can be found in several sites and a site can host several species. In this study, we divided the Southern Indian Ocean into a 1° latitude-longitude grid, created a species/grid cell contingency table of presence-absence and transformed it into a bipartite occurrence network (Vilhena & Antonelli, 2015).

In order to detect biogeographical regions, we applied a community-detection algorithm to the network. Community-detection algorithms aim at grouping together nodes that have high intra- group but low inter- group connectivity, which correspond to the definition of biogeographical regions as regions of assemblages with distinct endemic taxa. This is achieved based on flows of information (Rosvall & Bergstrom, 2008). As a community detection algorithm, we chose “Map Equation” (Rosvall & Bergstrom, 2008), as it has been recommended in previous biogeographical works (Bloomfield et al., 2018; Edler et al., 2017; Rojas et al., 2017; Vilhena & Antonelli, 2015) and it features hierarchical clustering. We ran Map Equation with 1,000 trials to find the optimal clustering and we ran it with hierarchical clustering to test whether larger regions showed a nested hierarchy of subregions. We explored bioregions that had strictly more than ten occurrences as our focus was to detect the main biogeographical regions in SIOFA. We explored the biological significance of each bioregion by calculating metrics to characterise the bioregions in terms of endemism, the affinity (A_i , i.e., range in their region / total range of the region; the higher the value, the more widespread the species is in the region) and fidelity of a species to its bioregion (F_i , i.e., range in their bioregion / total range across all regions; the higher the value, the more exclusive the distribution range of the species is located in its associated region – a fidelity of 1 means that the species is endemic to its region) (Leroy, 2021). Fidelity, in particular, is useful to detect transition bioregions. Transition bioregions are located at the interface between multiple bioregions and are thus classified as distinct bioregions by Map Equation (Vilhena & Antonelli, 2015). A transition bioregion will not have high-fidelity species, as all species occurring therein will have their distribution spread over multiple bioregions. We also calculated the indicator value (*IndVal*) for each species in each region as $A_i * F_i$ – the *IndVal* will have a high value for species that occupy most of their associated cluster (high affinity) and are not present in any other cluster (high fidelity). We created and analysed the networks using the R package “*biogeonetworks*” (Leroy, 2021).

All analyses were conducted in R (R Core Team, 2021). The R code and data are available online in Zenodo (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7704934>).

330 **Results**

331

332 *Linnean and Wallacean shortfalls*

333

334 Our compilation of VME occurrences showed that most of the Indian Ocean was unsampled
335 and that the bulk of available records was distributed in coastal waters, i.e., outside SIOFA's
336 management area (Figure 1A). At 1° spatial resolution, the observed richness per grid cell
337 was very low with a median at 5 species approximately (Figure 1B) and sample completeness
338 was nearly 0% for all diversity orders (Figure 1C). For adequately sampled cells (i.e., those
339 that have more than two sample sub-cells of 0.01° spatial resolution, not only singletons, and
340 strictly more than ten species), the sample completeness increased with diversity order
341 (Figure 1D), suggesting that we had at least sampled most of the highly frequent species
342 (q=2) in the inventory.

343

344 We highlighted this issue at all resolutions (Figure S1). The sample and diversity profiles
345 revealed that, at all spatial resolutions, the inventory was incomplete for infrequent species
346 (q=0), frequent species (q=1) and for highly frequent species (q=2) (Figure S1). The
347 estimated sample completeness profiles increased with diversity order (q), implying that there
348 was undetected diversity (Figure S1, panel (a)). Diversity as a function of sample size (Figure
349 S1, panel (b)) and sample coverage (Figure S1, panel (d)) indicated that at increasing
350 resolutions we would expect higher estimates and that any diversity estimates would be lower
351 bounds given that the asymptotic estimator does not level off (Figure S1, panel (c)). Evenness
352 among species was similar regardless of the resolution (Figure S1, panel (e)).

353

354 *Bioregions in the high seas of the Southern Indian Ocean*

355

356 We detected multiple bioregions structured in two hierarchical levels for VME indicator
357 species in the Southern Indian Ocean. At the first level (i.e., largest regions with highest
358 degree of endemism) there were four biogeographical regions (Figure 2A): an inshore and an
359 offshore bioregion, and two bioregions representing the Southern Ocean at latitudes south of
360 40°S mostly. The four bioregions are present within SIOFA's management area, where the
361 offshore bioregion has most of its distribution. The four bioregions have distinct faunas, and a
362 very high degree of endemism with bioregion 1 having the largest endemism (95.01%),
363 followed by bioregion 2 (75.94%), 3 (64.60%) and 4 (64.15%) (Table 2). In addition, we
364 found that all four bioregions had high fidelity species (Figure 3). The top indicator species
365 for bioregion 1 were all corals from the order Scleractinia; for bioregion 2, indicators were
366 mostly sponges; for bioregion 3, mostly tunicates; and for bioregion 4, mostly sponges (Table
367 S1). We provide the full list of indicator species for bioregions in Supplemental File 1.

368

369 At the second level of hierarchy (i.e., subregions nested within the level 1 regions, with a
370 lower degree of endemism), we found nine subregions with distinct geographic
371 characteristics (Figure 2B). The large inshore bioregion differentiated into six subregions:
372 one covering eastern South Africa; one subregion mostly north of 20°S, and four bioregions
373 along the western coasts of Australia. The offshore bioregion revealed only one subregion
374 and the Southern Ocean displayed two subregions. At this level, the lack of sufficient
375 available data was reflected by sparse subregions occurrences in the SIOFA's management
376 area. The endemism patterns varied by subregion, wherein subregion 1.1 (29.05%), 1.3
377 (41.34%) and 2.1 (43.16%) have the largest endemism, followed by subregion 1.12
378 (21.62%) and subregion 1.5 (17.65%) (Table 2). The fidelity of species to their subregion is
379 less marked than at the first level, where in some cases there is a wide bimodal distribution,

380 reflecting species with distribution spreading across multiple subregions (Figure 3). Yet, all
381 subregions had species with a high fidelity, suggesting that none of the subregions was a
382 transition zone. The top indicator species for subregion 1.1 were all scleractinian corals; for
383 subregion 1.2, mostly scleractinians too; subregion 1.3 was mostly characterised by bryozoa;
384 subregion 1.5 by tunicates; subregion 1.12 by a mix of scleractinian, alcyonacean, and
385 antipatharian corals, and actinians; subregion 1.23 by an equal mix of corals (alcyonacean,
386 antipatharian, scleractinian and pennatulaceans) and sponges; subregion 2.1 in its majority by
387 sponges of several orders; subregion 2.3 by basket stars and brachiopods; and subregion 3.1
388 by a mix of tunicates, sponges and antipatharian corals (Table S2). We provide the full list of
389 indicator species for subregions in Supplemental File 2.

390

391 **Discussion**

392

393 *Major Wallacean and Linnean shortfalls in the Southern Indian Ocean*

394

395 We found that VME taxa of the Southern Indian Ocean and, more specifically, within
396 SIOFA's management area, are subject to an extreme version of the Wallacean and Linnean
397 shortfalls (Cardoso et al., 2011). First, there was very little distributional data for VME
398 indicator taxa (Wallacean shortfall), and the bulk of records was distributed in coastal waters
399 within national jurisdiction, where survey effort is typically concentrated (Hughes et al.,
400 2021). This first result is particularly worrisome as it suggests that SIOFA's management
401 area has virtually no data at species level, making it extremely challenging to resolve the
402 biogeographic patterns of VME indicator species.

403

404 Second, considering the large spatial scale over which we calculated the completeness of our
405 inventory, this incompleteness constitutes a major Linnean shortfall (Cardoso et al., 2011).
406 Our analysis on a per-grid cell basis revealed that the top 20% most adequately sampled cells
407 had a median completeness of 55% at 1° spatial resolution, but this was repeatedly observed
408 at all resolutions (Figure S2), which is an alarming insight into the incompleteness of our
409 data. For comparison, marine fish inventories with a level of completeness above 80% are
410 considered as good quality (Mora et al., 2008); freshwater fish inventories with a
411 completeness above 78% are fair quality and those with > 90% completeness are good
412 quality (Pelayo-Villamil et al., 2018). However, Fautin et al. (2013) propose that inventories
413 70% complete are not well inventoried, after they examined the global distribution of the
414 Order Actiniaria (Phylum Cnidaria) and statistically compared observed with theoretical
415 completeness values. More recently, global marine benthic inventories have been quantified
416 to be less than 80% complete in general, particularly in southern hemispheres and subtropical
417 regions (Menegotto & Rangel, 2018). The fact that the percentage of undetected diversity for
418 adequately sampled cells is 50% for all q diversity orders (i.e., for infrequent, frequent, and
419 very highly frequent species) at all spatial resolutions (Figure S3) and that these cells were all
420 in territorial waters (Figure S4) corroborate these geographic and taxonomic biases for VME
421 taxa of the Southern Indian Ocean.

422

423 *Unique yet unknown bioregions*

424

425 Our bioregionalization analysis has two main implications. First, SIOFA's management area
426 hosts several biogeographical regions both at the first and second level of the hierarchy. Such
427 diversity suggests a decisive responsibility for this regional fisheries management
428 organization to preserve deep-sea biodiversity. On one hand, the percentage of endemism is
429 high for all regions (10% is proposed as the threshold to define a biogeographic region;

430 Briggs & Bowen, 2012) and comparable to the endemism of the Indian Ocean marine realms
431 (Costello et al., 2017), which provides robustness to our findings. On the other hand, the
432 completeness analyses suggest that, in grid cells that are not undersampled, the majority of
433 frequent species have been recorded (Figure 1D) additionally suggesting that the
434 biogeographical regions based on these cells are robust. Nonetheless, the bioregions will
435 likely become better defined as new taxa are identified or existing data are added to
436 biodiversity inventories. For now, the first-level bioregions appear to reveal differences in the
437 species composition across different depth environments, observed in the distribution across
438 the continental shelves and slopes and the deeper offshore areas (Figure 2A). The subregions,
439 in contrast, have a marked geographic distribution (Figure 2B). The complex seafloor
440 topography and oceanography of the Indian Ocean are likely to be playing a central role in
441 structuring these subregions, such as for octocorals in the North Pacific (Summers &
442 Watling, 2021) and anthozoans globally (Watling & Lapointe, 2022), but future research will
443 need to adequately address the environmental drivers behind these biogeographic patterns.
444 Deep-sea biodiversity provides a central role in provisioning services such as fisheries and
445 biochemical compounds (Armstrong et al., 2012; Thurber et al., 2014), and biodiversity
446 maintenance increases resilience after a disturbance (Danovaro et al., 2008); thus,
447 maintaining such biodiversity should be a key management objective in the pursuit of
448 sustainable use of resources by SIOFA.

449
450 Second, data shortfalls, however, make it impossible to: (1) identify comprehensively the
451 nested biogeographical regions within their management area, and (2) map them at a higher
452 spatial resolution relevant for conservation decisions. In other words, neither we can resolve
453 spatially finer biogeographic clusters at a scale that matches habitat complexity and fishing
454 operating distances, nor understand the extent of clusters, or identify new ones, because most
455 of the area lacks distributional data, especially in the easternmost side. Presently, there are
456 only detailed descriptions of the habitats, biological communities, and oceanography for a
457 few seamounts in the Southwest Indian Ocean Ridge (Hestetun et al., 2017; Pollard & Read,
458 2017; Pratt et al., 2019; Read & Pollard, 2017; Rogers et al., 2017; Taylor & Rogers, 2017)
459 as part of the IUCN Seamount Project (Rogers, 2012; Rogers et al., 2017) and MADRidge
460 Project (Roberts et al., 2020). With such few information we are not able to make informative
461 maps, nor make robust predictions that translate into fine-scale characterisation of habitats
462 across SIOFA's management area. Therefore the only solution is to resort to using this
463 information at a coarse spatial scale (1° spatial resolution) so that analyses can only provide a
464 first signal (reflected in the lower endemism of some subregions) that multiple bioregions
465 are expected to be found in the Southern Indian Ocean, but not useful for the finer grain
466 resolution needed for conservation measures. Future work might include the exploration of
467 predictive modelling as a first solution to tackle the lack of data.

468
469 In light of the many unknowns, the precautionary approach will be instrumental for the
470 designation of conservation management measures to meet UN Resolutions towards
471 protection of deep-sea habitats in the SIOFA area. Yet, negotiations to reach an agreement in
472 the implementation of conservation measures may result in internal divisions in RFMOs due
473 to limited cooperation and coordination among their members. This has been previously
474 observed for seamounts, for instance, where those falling in the areas of competence of
475 RFMOs eventually are more heavily fished than seamounts outside areas of competence in
476 the same ocean basin (Kerry et al., 2022).

477
478 ***The absolute necessity of deep-sea biodiversity inventories***

479

480 The shortfalls we identified here corroborate previous global data-driven biogeographic
481 analyses (Watling & Lapointe, 2022) and global habitat suitability maps of different groups
482 of deep-sea habitat-forming taxa (stony corals, Tittensor et al., 2009; octocorals, Yesson et al.
483 2012; black corals, Yesson et al. 2017; framework cold-water corals, Davies and Guinotte
484 2011). These knowledge shortfalls imply that global biogeographic analyses and conservation
485 of marine biodiversity are not truly global, a fact increasingly recognized in the literature
486 (Lenoir et al., 2020). Given the unique composition and endemism of deep-sea ecosystems,
487 and the increasing pressures on them due to the blue acceleration (Jouffray et al., 2020), we
488 strongly urge the absolute necessity of investing in biodiversity inventories to start filling out
489 these knowledge gaps. Although we advocate for this solution, we foresee that it will not
490 change in the near future; hence, conservation decisions will have to rely on predictive
491 modelling approaches in the short-term, which in turn will create an uncertain decision
492 context.

493
494 Predictive approaches are useful for marine ecosystem management in data-poor situations,
495 but are not the panacea (Reiss et al., 2015; Ross & Howell, 2013). Indeed, predictive
496 approaches require complex models whose adequacy for the implementation of management
497 measures needs to be well-understood by model-builders and users (Guillera-Arroita et al.,
498 2015). More importantly, they cannot address the fundamental and underlying key issue of
499 missing data: models cannot predict incompletely sampled biodiversity or habitats, let alone
500 unsampled biodiversity and habitats. For example, Stephenson et al. (2021) demonstrated the
501 shortcomings of predictive models for informing the design of spatial management measures
502 for VME taxa in the South Pacific, and urged for the need for better quality data, such as
503 presence-absence and abundance. In addition, the applicability of predictive approaches for
504 the management of these taxa is further challenged by disagreements specific to the definition
505 of VMEs (Gros et al., 2022). Thus, despite the development of state-of-the-art predictive
506 approaches for VME taxa designed to cope with their typical presence-only nature (Ardron et
507 al., 2014), the high seas of the Southern Indian Ocean will still necessitate of exploration
508 efforts and release of data to overcome the alarming observed data deficiency.

509
510 Yet, detailed knowledge on the bathymetry and biodiversity of the Southern Indian Ocean
511 exists for some areas on the high seas, through the fishing industry (e.g., Shotton, 2006;
512 SIODFA, 2022). It will be critical that regional fisheries management organizations make
513 information readily available just as international negotiations have agreed to a United
514 Nations treaty on the conservation and sustainable use of biodiversity beyond national
515 jurisdiction (the “BBNJ Treaty” or “UN High Seas Treaty”; UNGA, 2023). However, data
516 mobilisation and digitisation of museum collections also constitute an important step in
517 closing the gap of biodiversity synthesis to underpin conservation measures, more so in the
518 realization of the post-2020 Global Biodiversity Framework (Orr et al., 2022). For now,
519 conservation and management measures can be implemented in areas that benefit from
520 existing data, building on a combination of key knowledge from RFMOs, bioregionalization
521 schemes based on informed predictive approaches, and the precautionary approach. However,
522 these areas are but snapshots of the deep-sea ecosystems and therefore it is unquestionable
523 that much research exploration remains to be conducted to build comprehensive biodiversity
524 inventories that serve to equip conservation managers with appropriate tools. In this respect,
525 the recently proclaimed United Nations Decade of Ocean Science for Sustainable
526 Development (2021 – 2030) might serve as a platform to catalyse opportunities and develop
527 projects in the Southern Indian Ocean to ensure achieving sustainable management in line
528 with international commitments (Sustainable Development Goals; UNGA, 2015).

529

530 The deep-sea community has paved the way with the development of a blueprint for a global
531 deep-sea field programme that identifies and maps the needs and actions to achieve the
532 objectives of the “Ocean Decade” (Howell et al., 2020). Similar as to the progress of the
533 basin-wide Indian Ocean Observing System programme (IndOOS; Beal et al., 2020; Hermes
534 et al., 2019), among them are identified the development of effective strategies that merge
535 regional and basin-scale objectives, international coordination, capacity building, data sharing
536 and, importantly, data release. These will be critical to finally put an end to the artificial
537 empty maps that are systematically observed throughout the literature for this world’s ocean
538 region.

539
540

541

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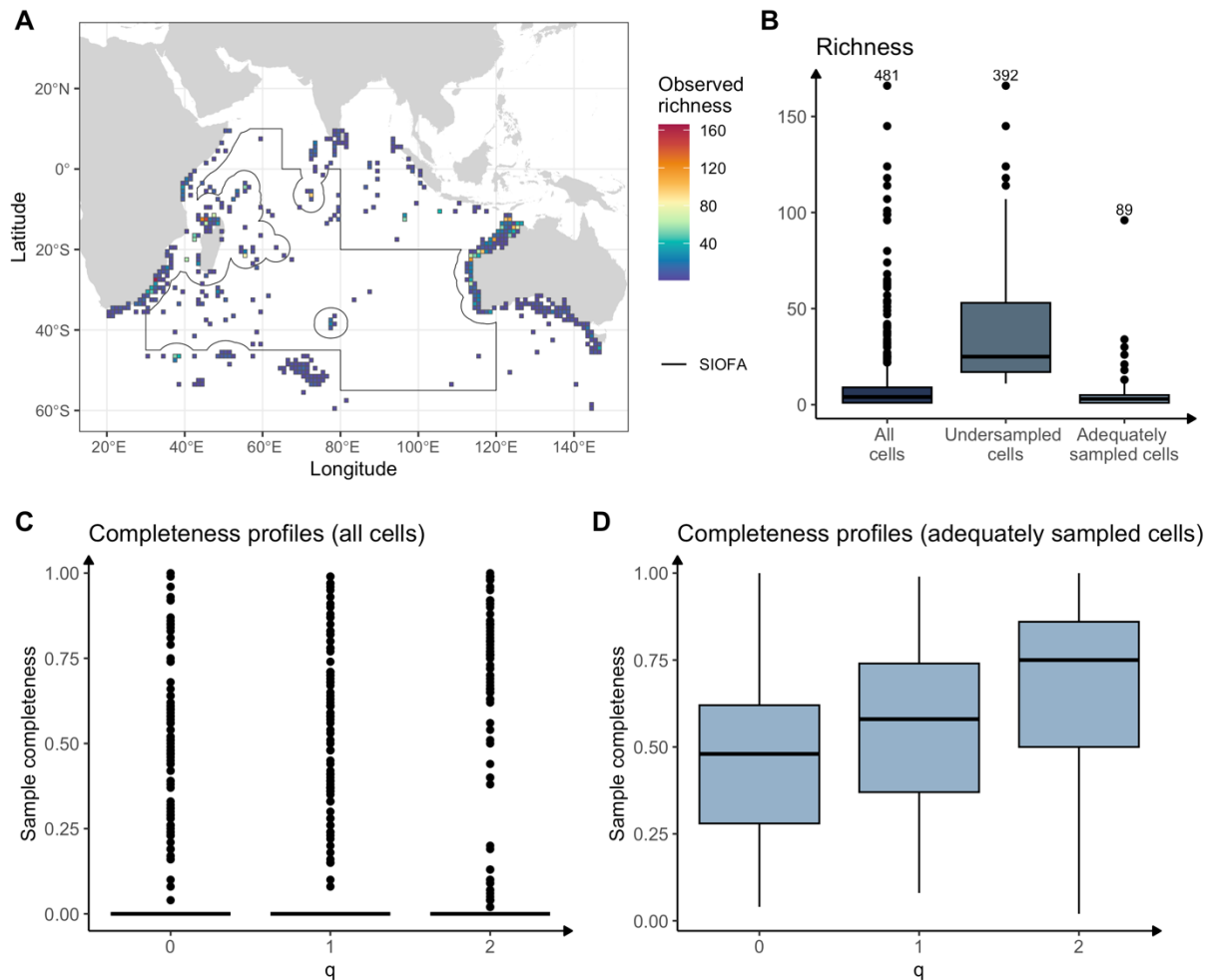
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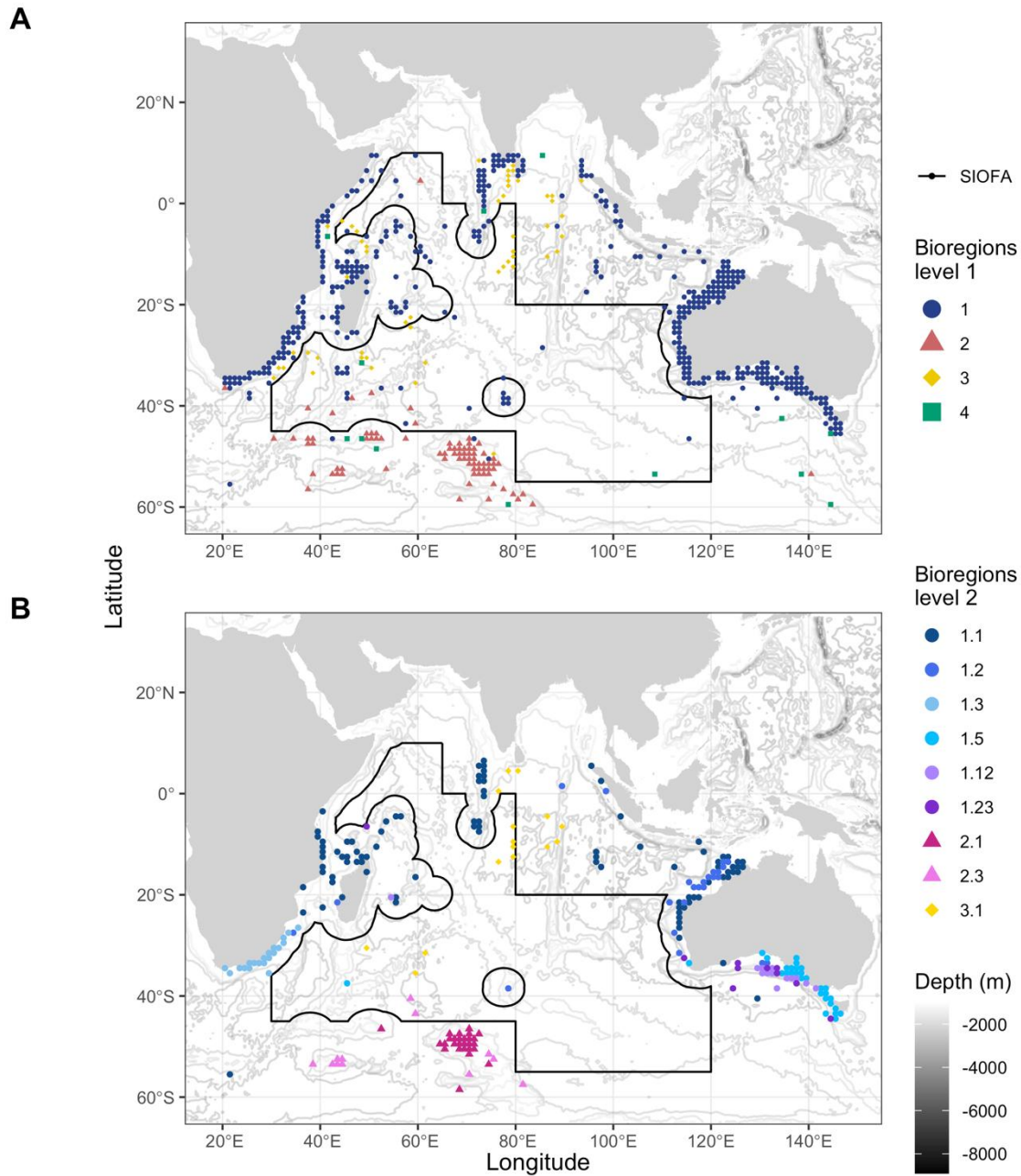
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884 Figure 1. (A) Distribution of observed richness in the study area at 1° latitude-longitude
 885 spatial resolution. The black polygon represents SIOFA's management area. (B) Observed
 886 richness calculated over different subsets of our data at 1° spatial resolution. (C) Sample
 887 completeness profiles calculated for all cells, and (D) Sample completeness profiles
 888 calculated for adequately sampled cells only, for all q diversity orders at 1° spatial resolution.
 889 Undersampled cells are cells that had less than 10 species, only singletons, or less than 3
 890 sampled sub-cells. Numbers over the boxplots indicate sample size (i.e., number of cells).
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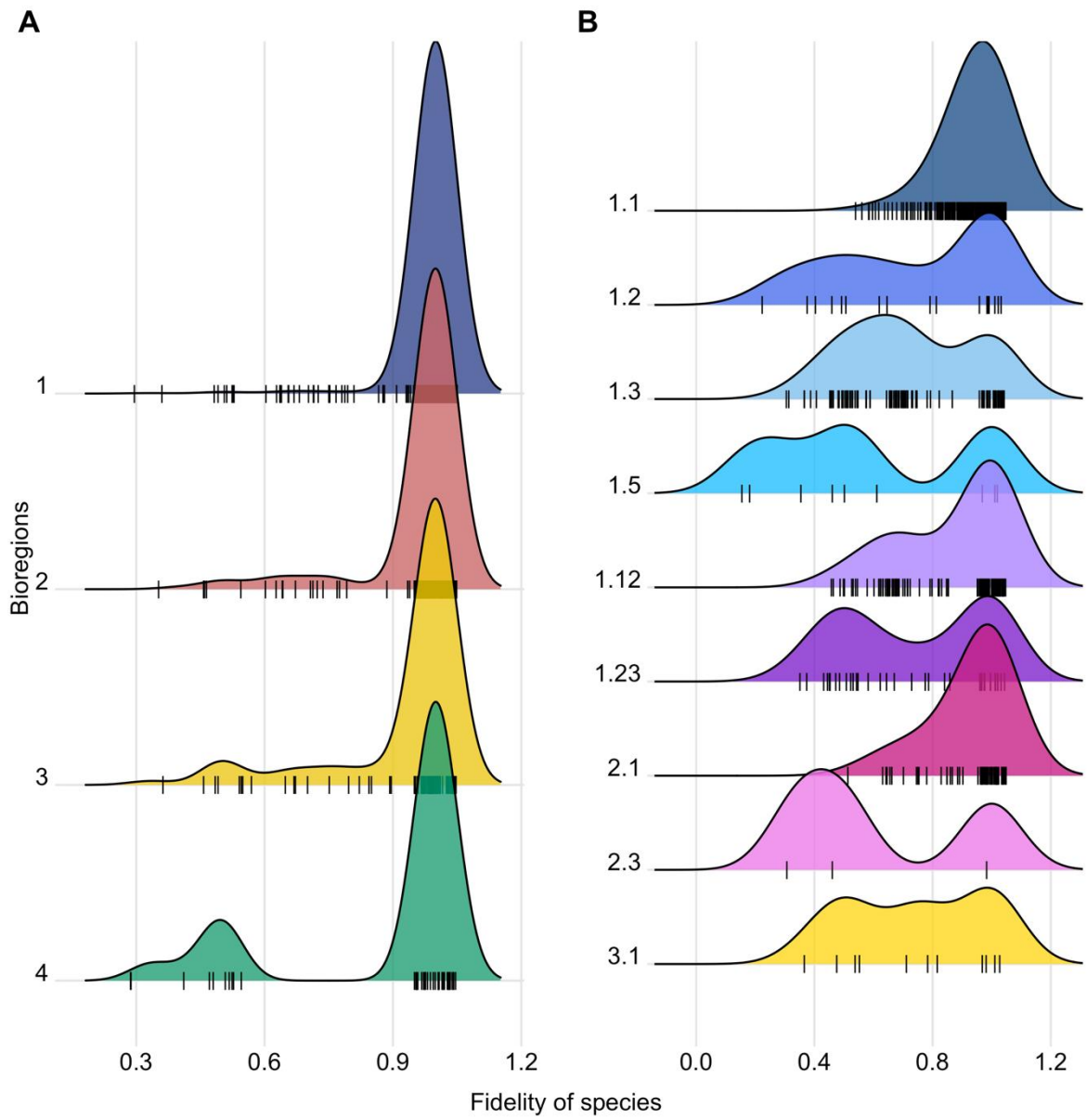
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894 Figure 2. Distribution of bioregions (A) and subregions (B) at 1° spatial resolution. There are
 895 four bioregions at the first level: an inshore (1), an offshore (3), a Southern Ocean (2) and a
 896 sparse (4) bioregion. At the second level, there were six subregions nested within bioregion 1
 897 (prefix 1), two subregions in the Southern Ocean bioregion (prefix 2) and one in the offshore
 898 bioregion (prefix 3). The black polygon denotes SIOFA's management area. Bathymetric
 899 contours (every 1000 m) are shown for reference.
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902 Figure 3. Distribution of fidelity values of species to their assigned first-level (A) and second-
903 level (B) bioregions.



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918 Table 1. Number of species and endemism of each biogeographical region for the species-
 919 based bioregionalization. Total richness refers to the total number of species found in a
 920 bioregion. Assigned richness refers to taxa that the Map Equation algorithm has grouped into
 921 the same bioregion (even if a species is assigned to a bioregion, its distribution can expand
 922 into other bioregions). Endemic richness refers to taxa exclusively found in a bioregion.
 923 Percentage of endemism refers to the endemic richness in a bioregion divided by the total
 924 number of species in that bioregion. Percentage of species in the study area refers to the
 925 number of assigned species to a bioregion divided by the total richness in the database.

Bioregion	Total richness	Assigned richness	Endemic richness	Percentage of endemism	Percentage of species in study area
Level 1					
1	1664	1621	1581	95.01	83.32
2	212	183	161	75.94	10.62
3	113	93	73	64.60	5.66
4	53	44	34	64.15	2.65
Level 2					
1.1	754	416	219	29.05	37.75
1.2	206	90	27	6.89	10.32
1.3	179	119	74	41.34	8.96
1.5	95	38	15	17.65	4.76
1.12	48	18	8	21.62	3.00
1.23	22	9	3	6.00	1.10
2.1	96	60	41	43.16	4.81
2.3	8	3	1	10.00	0.40
3.1	22	11	4	9.09	1.10

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