

1 **Impact of small-scale disturbances on geochemical conditions, biogeochemical processes**
2 **and element fluxes in surface sediments of the eastern Clarion-Clipperton Zone, Pacific**
3 **Ocean**

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20

21 **Abstract**

22 The thriving interest in harvesting deep-sea mineral resources, such as polymetallic nodules,
23 calls for environmental impact studies, and ultimately, for regulations for environmental
24 protection. Industrial-scale deep-sea mining of polymetallic nodules most likely has severe
25 consequences for the natural environment. However, the effects of mining activities on deep-
26 sea ecosystems, sediment geochemistry and element fluxes are still poorly understood.
27 Predicting the environmental impact is challenging due to the scarcity of environmental
28 baseline studies as well as the lack of mining trials with industrial mining equipment in the deep
29 sea. Thus, currently we have to rely on small-scale disturbances simulating deep-sea mining
30 activities as a first-order approximation to study the expected impacts on the abyssal
31 environment.

32 Here, we investigate surface sediments in disturbance tracks of seven small-scale benthic
33 impact experiments, which have been performed in four European contract areas for the
34 exploration of polymetallic nodules in the Clarion-Clipperton Zone (CCZ). These small-scale
35 disturbance experiments were performed 1 day to 37 years prior to our sampling program in the
36 German, Polish, Belgian and French contract areas using different disturbance devices. We
37 show that the depth distribution of solid-phase Mn in the upper 20 cm of the sediments in the
38 CCZ provides a reliable tool for the determination of the disturbance depth, which has been
39 proposed in a previous study (Paul et al., 2018). We found that the upper 5–15 cm of the
40 sediments were removed during various small-scale disturbance experiments in the different
41 exploration contract areas. Transient transport-reaction modelling for the Polish and German
42 contract areas reveals that the removal of the surface sediments is associated with the loss of
43 reactive labile organic carbon. As a result, oxygen consumption rates decrease significantly
44 after the removal of the surface sediments, and consequently, oxygen penetrates up to tenfold
45 deeper into the sediments inhibiting denitrification and Mn(IV) reduction. Our model results
46 show that the return to steady state geochemical conditions after the disturbance is controlled
47 by diffusion until the reactive labile TOC fraction in the surface sediments is partly re-
48 established and the biogeochemical processes commence. While the re-establishment of
49 bioturbation is essential, steady state geochemical conditions are ultimately controlled by the
50 delivery rate of organic matter to the seafloor. Hence, under current depositional conditions,
51 new steady state geochemical conditions in the sediments of the CCZ is reached only on a
52 millennium-scale even for these small-scale disturbances simulating deep-sea mining activities.

53 **1. Introduction**

54 The accelerating global demand for metals and rare-earth elements are driving the economic
55 interest in deep-sea mining (e.g., Glasby, 2000; Hoagland et al., 2010; Wedding et al., 2015).
56 Seafloor minerals of interest include (1) polymetallic nodules (e.g., Mero, 1965), (2) massive
57 sulfide deposits (e.g., Scott, 1987) and (3) cobalt-rich crusts (e.g., Halkyard, 1985). As the
58 seafloor within the Clarion-Clipperton Zone (CCZ) in the NE Pacific holds one of the most
59 extensive deposits of polymetallic nodules with considerable base metal quantities, commercial
60 exploitation of seafloor mineral deposits may focus on the CCZ (e.g., Mero, 1965; Halbach et
61 al., 1988; Rühlemann et al., 2011; Hein et al., 2013; Kuhn et al., 2017a). The exploration, and
62 ultimately, industrial exploitation of polymetallic nodules demands for international regulations
63 for the protection of the environment (e.g., Halfar and Fujita, 2002; Glover and Smith, 2003;
64 Davies et al., 2007; van Dover, 2011; Ramirez-Llodra et al., 2011; Boetius and Haeckel, 2018).
65 The International Seabed Authority (ISA) is responsible for regulating the exploration and
66 exploitation of marine mineral resources as well as for protecting and conserving the marine
67 environment beyond the exclusive economic zones of littoral states from harmful effects (ISA,
68 2010). The ISA has granted temporal contracts for the exploration of polymetallic nodules in
69 the CCZ, engaging all contract holders to explore resources, test mining equipment and assess
70 the environmental impacts of deep-sea mining activities (ISA 2010; Lodge et al., 2014;
71 Madureira et al., 2016).

72 Although a considerable number of environmental impact studies have been conducted in
73 different nodule fields, the prediction of environmental consequences of potential future deep-
74 sea mining is still difficult (e.g., Ramirez-Llodra et al., 2011; Jones et al., 2017; Gollner et al.,
75 2017; Cuvelier et al., 2018). In case of the CCZ, the evaluation of the environmental impact of
76 deep-sea mining activities is challenging due to the fact that baseline data on the natural spatial
77 heterogeneity and temporal variability of depositional conditions, benthic communities and the
78 biogeochemical processes in the sediments are scarce (e.g., Mewes et al., 2014; 2016; Vanreusel
79 et al., 2016; Mogollón et al., 2016; Juan et al., 2018; Volz et al., 2018; Menendez et al., 2018;
80 Hauquier et al., 2019). In addition, there is no clear consensus on the most appropriate mining
81 techniques for the commercial exploitation of nodules, and technical challenges due to the
82 inaccessibility of nodules at great water depths between 4000–5000 m have limited the
83 deployment of deep-sea mining systems until today (e.g., Chung, 2010; Jones et al., 2017).

84 The physical removal of nodules as hard-substrate habitats has severe consequences for the
85 nodule-associated sessile fauna as well as the mobile fauna (Bluhm, 2001; Smith et al., 2008;

86 Purser et al., 2016; Vanreusel et al., 2016). With slow nodule growth rates of a few
87 millimeters per million years (e.g., Halbach et al., 1988; Kuhn et al., 2017a), the deep-sea fauna
88 may not recover for millions of years (Vanreusel et al., 2016; Jones et al., 2017; Gollner et al.,
89 2017; Stratmann et al., 2018). In addition to the removal of deep-sea fauna as well as seafloor
90 habitats, the exploitation of nodules is associated with (1) the removal, mixing and re-
91 suspension of the upper 4 cm to more than several tens of centimeters of the sediments, (2) the
92 re-deposition of material from the suspended sediment plume, and (3) potentially also the
93 compaction of the surface sediments due to weight of the nodule collector (Thiel, 2001; Oebius
94 et al., 2001; König et al., 2001; Grupe et al., 2001; Radziejewska, 2002; Khripounoff et al.,
95 2006; Cronan et al., 2010; Paul et al., 2018; Gillard et al., 2019). The wide range of estimates
96 for the disturbance depth may be associated with (1) various devices used for the deep-sea
97 disturbance experiments (Brockett and Richards, 1994; Oebius et al., 2001; Jones et al., 2017),
98 (2) distinct sediment properties in different nodule fields of the Pacific Ocean (e.g., Cronan et
99 al., 2010; Hauquier et al., 2019) as well as (3) different approaches for the determination of the
100 disturbance depth (e.g., Oebius et al., 2001; Grupe et al., 2001; Khripounoff et al., 2006). Based
101 on the observation that bulk solid-phase Mn contents decrease over depth in the surface
102 sediments of the DISCOL area, Paul et al. (2018) have suggested that the depth distribution of
103 solid-phase Mn and associated metals (e.g., Mo, Ni, Co, Cu) could be used to trace the sediment
104 removal by disturbances. In addition, other solid-phase properties such as organic carbon
105 contents (TOC), porosity and radioisotopes may be suitable for the determination of the
106 disturbance depth.

107 The most reactive TOC compounds, found in the bioturbated uppermost sediment layer, are the
108 main drivers for early diagenetic processes (e.g., Froelich et al., 1979; Berner, 1981) and are
109 expected to be removed during mining activities (König et al., 2001). Thus, strong
110 biogeochemical implications can be expected in the sediments after deep-sea mining activities.
111 König et al. (2001) have applied numerical modelling to study the consequences of the removal
112 of the upper 10 cm of the sediments in the DISCOL area in the Peru Basin. They showed that
113 the degradation of TOC during aerobic respiration, denitrification and Mn(IV) reduction may
114 be decreased for centuries increasing the oxygen penetration depth (OPD).

115 Here, we investigate the impact of various small-scale disturbances on geochemical conditions,
116 biogeochemical processes and element fluxes in surface sediments of the CCZ. These small-
117 scale disturbance tracks were created up to 37 years ago in four different European contract
118 areas for the exploration of polymetallic nodules, including the German BGR (Bundesanstalt

119 für Geowissenschaften und Rohstoffe) area, the Belgian GSR (Global Sea Mineral Resources
120 NV) area, the French IFREMER (Institut Français de Recherche pour l'Exploitation de la Mer)
121 area and the Polish IOM (InterOceanMetal) area. In order to determine the disturbance depths
122 of the different small-scale disturbances in the different European contract areas, we correlate
123 the depth distributions of solid-phase Mn and total organic carbon (TOC) between disturbed
124 sites and undisturbed reference sites using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.
125 On this basis, we (1) assess the short- and long-term consequences of small-scale disturbances
126 on redox zonation and element fluxes and (2) determine how much time is needed for the re-
127 establishment of a new steady state geochemical system in the sediments after the disturbances.
128 Our work includes pore-water and solid-phase analyses as well as the application of a transient
129 one-dimensional transport-reaction model.

130 **2. Material and methods**

131 As part of the European JPI Oceans pilot action “Ecological Aspects of Deep-Sea Mining
132 (MiningImpact)”, multiple corer (MUC) and gravity corer (GC) sediment cores were taken
133 during RV SONNE cruise SO239 in March/April 2015 from undisturbed sites in various
134 European contract areas for the exploration of polymetallic nodules (Fig. 1; Table 1; Martínez
135 Arbizu and Haeckel, 2015). These undisturbed reference sites were chosen in close proximity
136 (< 5 km) to small-scale disturbance experiments for the simulation of deep-sea mining, which
137 were created up to 37 yr ago and re-visited during cruise SO239 (Table 1; see Sect. 2.1.1.;
138 Martínez Arbizu and Haeckel, 2015). The sampling of sediments in the disturbance tracks of
139 these experiments were conducted by video-guided push-coring (PC) between 1 day and 37 yr
140 after the initial disturbances using the ROV Kiel 6000 (Table 1; Fig. 2; Martínez Arbizu and
141 Haeckel, 2015).

142 The different investigated European contract areas within the CCZ include the BGR, IOM, GSR
143 and IFREMER areas. Comprehensive pore-water and solid-phase analyses on the MUC and
144 GC sediment cores from undisturbed sites have been conducted in previous baseline studies
145 and are presented elsewhere (Volz et al., 2018; Volz et al., 2020). These analyses include the
146 determination of pore-water oxygen, NO_3^- , Mn^{2+} and NH_4^+ concentrations and contents of total
147 organic carbon (TOC) for MUC and GC sediment cores (Volz et al., 2018) as well as solid-
148 phase bulk Mn contents for the MUC sediment cores (Volz et al., 2020). In the framework of
149 this study, we have used these previously published pore-water and solid-phase data as
150 undisturbed reference data for geochemical conditions and sediment composition (Table 1). On

151 this basis, here, we investigate seven small-scale disturbances for the simulation of deep-sea
152 mining (Table 1; see Sect. 2.1.1.; Martínez Arbizu and Haeckel, 2015).

153 **2.1. Site Description**

154 The CCZ is defined by two transform faults, the Clarion Fracture Zone in the north and the
155 Clipperton Fracture Zone in the south and covers an area of about 6 million km² (Fig. 1; e.g.,
156 Halbach et al., 1988). The sediments at the investigated sites (Table 1) are dominated by clayey
157 siliceous oozes with Mn nodules varying in size (1–10 cm) and spatial density (0–30 kg m⁻²) at
158 the sediment surface (Berger, 1974; Kuhn et al., 2012; Mewes et al., 2014; Volz et al., 2018).
159 In order to characterize the investigated sediments with respect to redox zonation,
160 sedimentation rates, fluxes of particulate organic carbon (POC) to the seafloor and bioturbation
161 depths, we have summarized these key parameters, which are originally presented elsewhere,
162 in Table 2 (Volz et al., 2018). Steady state transport-reaction models have shown that aerobic
163 respiration is the dominant biogeochemical process at all investigated sites, consuming more
164 than 90 % of the organic matter delivered to the seafloor (Mogollón et al., 2016; Volz et al.,
165 2018). Below the OPD at more than 0.5 m depth, Mn(IV) and nitrate reduction succeeds in the
166 suboxic zone, where oxygen and sulfide are absent (e.g., Mewes et al., 2014; Mogollón et al.,
167 2016; Kuhn et al., 2017b; Volz et al., 2018). At several sites investigated in this study, including
168 the BGR “reference area” (BGR-RA) and IOM sites, decreasing Mn²⁺ concentrations at depth
169 are probably associated with the oxidation of Mn²⁺ by upward diffusing oxygen circulating
170 through the underlying basaltic crust (Volz et al., 2018; Mewes et al., 2016; Kuhn et al., 2017b).

171 **2.1.1. Small-scale disturbances**

172 Since the 1970s, several comprehensive environmental impact studies of deep-sea mining
173 simulations have been carried out in the CCZ, including the Benthic Impact Experiment (BIE;
174 e.g., Trueblood and Ozturgut, 1997; Radziejewska, 2002) and the Japan Deep Sea Impact
175 Experiment (JET; Fukushima, 1995). In addition, numerous small-scale seafloor disturbances
176 have been carried out in the CCZ in the past 40 yr using various tools such as epibenthic sleds
177 (EBS) and dredges (e.g., Vanreusel et al., 2016; Jones et al., 2017). The EBS is towed along the
178 seabed for the collection of benthic organisms (and nodules) thereby also removing the upper
179 few centimeters of the sediments (e.g., Brenke, 2005). In 2015, some of these up to 37 yr old
180 disturbances were re-visited as part of the BMBF-EU JPI Oceans pilot action “Ecological
181 Aspects of Deep-Sea Mining (MiningImpact)” project in order to evaluate the long-term
182 consequences of such small-scale disturbances on the abyssal benthic ecosystem (Table 1;
183 Fig. 2; Martínez Arbizu and Haeckel, 2015). For comparison, the Disturbance and

184 Recolonization Experiment (DISCOL), which was conducted in a nodule field in the Peru Basin
 185 (PB) in 1989 was re-visited as part of MiningImpact (Boetius, 2015; Greinert, 2015). In the
 186 framework of DISCOL, a seafloor area of $\sim 11 \text{ km}^2$ was disturbed with a plough harrow. The
 187 impact of the DISCOL experiment was studied 0.5, 3 and 7 yr after the disturbance had been
 188 set (e.g., Thiel, 2001). Furthermore, new small-scale disturbance tracks were created during
 189 SO239 in the BGR-RA and in the GSR area “B6” using an EBS in order to add also initial
 190 temporal datasets (Table 1; Fig. 2; Martínez Arbizu and Haeckel, 2015). The EBS weighed
 191 about 400 kg and created a disturbance track of about 1.5 m width (Brenke, 2005). The fresh
 192 EBS disturbance tracks in the BGR-RA and GSR areas were re-visited 1 day after their creation.
 193 Eight months prior to the cruise SO239, towed dredge sampling was performed in the GSR area
 194 by the Belgian contractor (Martínez Arbizu and Haeckel, 2015; Jones et al., 2017). During the
 195 BIONOD cruises onboard RV L’Atalante in 2012, the same EBS setup as used during cruise
 196 SO239 was deployed in the BGR “prospective area” (BGR-PA) and in the IFREMER area
 197 (Table 1; Rühlemann and Menot, 2012; Menot and Rühlemann, 2013; Martínez Arbizu and
 198 Haeckel, 2015). In 1995, the Deep-Sea Sediment Re-suspension System (DSSRS) was used
 199 during the IOM-BIE (Benthic Impact Experiment) disturbance in the IOM area (Table 1; e.g.,
 200 Kotlinski and Stoyanova, 1998). The DSSRS weighed 3.2 tons under normal atmospheric
 201 pressure and was designed to dredge the seafloor while producing a re-suspended particle plume
 202 about 5 m above the seafloor (Brockett and Richards, 1994; Sharma, 2001). Based on the
 203 dimensions of the DSSRS device, the disturbance track created during the IOM-BIE
 204 disturbance experiment is about 2.5 m wide (Fig. 2; Brockett and Richards, 1994). In 1978, the
 205 Ocean Mineral Company (OMCO) created disturbance tracks in the French IFREMER area by
 206 towed dredge sampling (Table 1; e.g., Spickermann, 2012).

207 2.2. Sediment sampling and solid-phase analyses

208 ROV-operated push cores were sampled at intervals of 1 cm for solid-phase analyses. Bulk
 209 sediment data and TOC contents have been corrected after Kuhn (2013) for the interference of
 210 the pore-water salt matrix with the sediment composition (Volz et al., 2018). The mass
 211 percentage of the pore water was determined gravimetrically before and after freeze drying of
 212 the wet sediment samples. The salt-corrected sediment composition c' was calculated from the
 213 measured solid-phase composition c using the mass percentage of H_2O of the wet sediment (w),
 214 which contains 96.5 % H_2O (Eq. (1)).

$$215 \quad c' = c * \frac{100}{100 - (100 * \frac{(w * \frac{100}{96.5}) - w}{100 - w})} \quad (1)$$

2.2.1. Total acid digestions

Total acid digestions were performed in the microwave system MARS Xpress (CEM) after the protocols by Kretschmer et al. (2010) and Nöthen and Kasten (2011). Approximately 50 mg of freeze-dried, homogenized bulk sediment were digested in an acid mixture of 65 % sub-boiling distilled HNO₃ (3 mL), 30 % sub-boiling distilled HCl (2 mL) and 40 % suprapur® HF (0.5 mL) at ~ 230 °C. Digested solutions were fumed off to dryness, the residue was re-dissolved under pressure in 1 M HNO₃ (5 mL) at ~ 200 °C and then filled up to 50 mL with 1 M HNO₃. Total bulk Mn and Al contents were determined using inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES; IRIS Intrepid ICP-OES Spectrometer, Thermo Elemental). Based on the standard reference material NIST 2702 accuracy and precision of the analysis was 3.7 % and 3.5 % for Mn, respectively (n=67).

2.2.2. Total organic carbon

Total organic carbon (TOC) contents were determined using an Eltra CS2000 element analyzer. Approximately 100 mg of freeze-dried, homogenized sediment were transferred into a ceramic cup and decalcified with 0.5 mL of 10 % HCl at 250 °C for 2 h before analysis. Based on an in-house reference material, precision of the analysis was better than 3.7 % (n=83).

2.3. Pearson correlation coefficient

In order to determine the disturbance depths, solid-phase bulk Mn contents were correlated between disturbed sediments and undisturbed reference sediments using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient r (Eq. (2); Table 1; Pearson, 1895). The Pearson correlation coefficient is a statistical measure of the linear relationship between two arrays of variables with:

$$r_{xy} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2}} \quad (2)$$

where n is the sample size, x and y are individual sample points and \bar{x} and \bar{y} are the sample means $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$ and $\bar{y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i$.

While the solid-phase bulk Mn contents of the disturbed sediments were determined in the framework of this study, solid-phase bulk Mn contents from undisturbed reference sediments were taken from Volz et al. (2020). The highest positive linear correlations of solid-phase Mn contents ($r_{Mn} \sim 1$) between the disturbed sites and the respective undisturbed reference sites (Table 1) were used to determine the depths of the disturbances. In a second step, the same

246 correlation was applied to the TOC contents (r_{TOC}) in order to verify the depth of disturbance.
 247 While the TOC contents in the disturbed sediments were determined in the framework of this
 248 study, TOC contents from undisturbed reference sediments were taken from Volz et al. (2018).

249 **2.4. Geochemical model setup and reaction network**

250 A transient one-dimensional transport-reaction model (Eq. (3); e.g., Boudreau, 1997; Haeckel
 251 et al., 2001) was used (1) to assess the impact of small-scale disturbances on biogeochemical
 252 processes, geochemical conditions and element fluxes in sediments of the CCZ and (2) to
 253 estimate the time required to establish a new steady state geochemical system after a small-scale
 254 disturbance. We have applied a transient transport-reaction model for the sites in the BGR-RA
 255 and IOM areas (Table 1). These sites were chosen due to distinctively different sedimentation
 256 rates and OPD (Table 2). We have adapted the code of the steady state transport-reaction model,
 257 which was originally presented by Volz et al. (2018) and used pore-water oxygen, NO_3^- , Mn^{2+}
 258 and NH_4^+ data as well as TOC contents of GC sediment cores from the same study as
 259 undisturbed reference data (Table 1; Table 2). Thus, the model parameters and baseline input
 260 data used for the transient transport-reaction model are the same as presented in the study by
 261 Volz et al. (2018). The transient transport-reaction model consists of four aqueous (O_2 , NO_3^- ,
 262 Mn^{2+} , NH_4^+), four solid species (TOC_{1-3} , MnO_2) and six reactions (R_1 - R_6 ; Supplementary Table
 263 1) with:

$$264 \frac{\partial(\vartheta_i c_{i,j})}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial D_{i,j} \vartheta_i \left(\frac{\partial c_{i,j}}{\partial z} \right)}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial \omega_i \vartheta_i c_{i,j}}{\partial z} + \alpha_i \vartheta_i (C_{i,j} - C_{0,j}) + \vartheta_i \sum R_{i,j} \quad (3)$$

265 where z is sediment depth, and subscripts i, j represent depth and species-dependence,
 266 respectively; aqueous or solid species concentration are denoted by C (Supplementary Table
 267 2); D is in case of solutes the effective diffusive mixing coefficient, which has been corrected
 268 for tortuosity ($D_{m,i,j}$; Boudreau, 1997). In the case of solids, D represents the bioturbation
 269 coefficient (B_i ; Eq. (4)); ϑ is the volume fraction representing the porosity φ for the aqueous
 270 phase and $1 - \varphi$ for the solid phase; the velocity of either the aqueous (v) or the solid phase
 271 (w) is denoted by the symbol ω ; α_i is the bioirrigation coefficient (0 for solid species; Eq. (5));
 272 and $\sum R_{i,j}$ is the sum of the reactions affecting the given species.

273 The bioturbation and bioirrigation profiles, i.e. biologically induced mixing of sediment and
 274 pore water, respectively, are represented by a modified logistic function:

$$275 B_i = B_0 \exp\left(\frac{z_{\text{mix}} - z_i}{z_{\text{att}}}\right) / \left(1 + \exp\left(\frac{z_{\text{mix}} - z_i}{z_{\text{att}}}\right)\right) \quad (4)$$

276 $\alpha_i = \alpha_0 \exp\left(\frac{z_{mix}-z_i}{z_{att}}\right) / \left(1 + \exp\left(\frac{z_{mix}-z_i}{z_{att}}\right)\right)$ (5)

277 where α_0 and B_0 are constants indicating the maximum biorrigation and bioturbation intensity
 278 at the sediment-water interface; the depth where the bioturbation and bioirrigation intensity is
 279 halved is denoted by z_{mix} ; and the attenuation of the biogenically induced mixing with depth
 280 is controlled by z_{att} .

281 Assuming steady state compaction, the model applies an exponential function that is
 282 parameterized according to the available porosity data at each station (e.g., Berner, 1980;
 283 Supplementary Fig. 1):

284 $\varphi_i = \varphi_\infty (\varphi_0 - \varphi_\infty) \exp(-\beta z)$ (6)

285 where φ_∞ is the porosity at the ‘infinite depth’, at which point compaction is completed; φ_0 is
 286 the porosity at the sediment water interface ($z = 0$); and β is the porosity-attenuation
 287 coefficient.

288 Organic matter was treated in three reactive fractions (3G-model) with first order kinetics. The
 289 rate expressions for the reactions (R₁-R₆) include inhibition terms, which are listed together
 290 with the rate constants (Supplementary Table 3).

291 Based on the Pearson correlation coefficient r_{Mn} , we have removed the upper 7 cm of sediments
 292 in the transport-reaction model for the IOM-BIE site and the upper 10 cm of sediments in the
 293 transport-reaction model for the BGR-RA site. Due to the lack of data on the re-establishment
 294 of bioturbation, i.e. the recovery of the bioturbation ‘pump’ after small-scale disturbance
 295 experiments, we have tested the effect of different bioturbation scenarios in the transport-
 296 reaction model. For the different post-disturbance bioturbation scenarios, we have assumed that
 297 bioturbation is inhibited immediately after the disturbance with a linear increase to undisturbed
 298 reference bioturbation coefficients (Volz et al., 2018). Based on the work by Miljutin et al.
 299 (2011) and Vanreusel et al. (2016), we have assumed that bioturbation should be fully re-
 300 established after 100, 200, and 500 yr. As the modelling results for the different time spans
 301 were almost identical, we only present here the model that assumes bioturbation is at pre-
 302 disturbance intensity 100 yr after the impact (Volz et al., 2018; Supplementary Table 2). We
 303 have applied the transient transport-reaction model under the assumption that the sedimentation
 304 rates as well as the POC fluxes to the seafloor remain constant over time (Table 2). The model
 305 was coded in MATLAB with a discretization and reaction set-up closely following the steady
 306 state model (Volz et al., 2018).

307 **3. Results**

308 **3.1. Characterization of disturbed sites**

309 Most of the small-scale disturbances investigated in the framework of this study were created
310 with an EBS (Table 1; Fig. 2). Based on the visual impact inspection of the EBS disturbance
311 tracks in the CCZ, the sediments were mostly pushed aside by the EBS and piled up next to the
312 left and right of the tracks (Fig. 2). In particular, the freshly created 1-day old EBS tracks in the
313 BGR-RA and GSR areas indicate that the sediments were mostly scraped off and accumulated
314 next to the freshly exposed sediment surfaces (Fig. 2). Small sediment lumps occur on top of
315 the exposed sediment surfaces on the EBS tracks, which indicates that some sediment has slid
316 off from the adjacent flanks of the sediment accumulation after the disturbances (Fig. 2).
317 However, the mostly smooth sediment surfaces of the EBS tracks suggest that sediment mixing
318 during the EBS disturbance experiments may be mostly negligible (Fig. 2; Table 1). In the 8-
319 months old dredge track in the GSR area, small furrows occur at the disturbed sediment surface
320 most likely caused by the shape of the dredge (Fig. 2).

321 **3.2. Sediment porosity and solid-phase composition**

322 The sediment porosity shows little lateral variability and ranges between 0.65 and 0.8
323 throughout the upper 25 cm of the sediments at all investigated disturbed sites (Fig. 3). At the
324 disturbed IOM-BIE site, sediment porosity is about 5 % higher in the upper 4 cm of the
325 sediments than below. Bulk Mn contents in the upper 25 cm of the sediments at the disturbed
326 sites are between 0.1 and 0.9 wt% (Fig. 3). Solid-phase Mn contents decrease with depth at all
327 investigated sites. Total organic carbon (TOC) contents in the upper 25 cm of the sediments at
328 the disturbed sites are within 0.2 and 0.5 wt% (Fig. 3). The TOC contents slightly decrease with
329 depth at all investigated sites.

330 **3.3. Pearson correlation coefficient and disturbance depths**

331 The Pearson correlation coefficient r_{Mn} for the correlation of solid-phase Mn contents between
332 the disturbed sites and the respective reference sites ranges between 0.72 and 0.97 (Table 3).
333 Based on r_{Mn} , 5-15 cm of sediment has been removed by various disturbance experiments in
334 the different contract areas (Fig. 4). Applying these r_{Mn} -derived disturbance depths for the
335 correlation of the TOC depth distributions between disturbed sites and respective adjacent
336 reference sites gives Pearson correlation coefficients r_{TOC} within 0.73 and 0.91 (Table 3;
337 Fig. 4), which may support the estimates for the disturbance depth based on r_{Mn} . At the BGR-
338 RA site, the correlation of TOC contents between the disturbed site and the reference site shows
339 negative values. As the sediment porosity in the disturbed sediments correlates well with the

340 porosity in the respective undisturbed reference sediments (Fig. 4), sediment compaction due
341 to the weight of the disturbance device may be negligible during the small-scale disturbances
342 investigated in the framework of this study.

343 **3.4. Transport-reaction modelling**

344 The removal of the surface sediments in the transient transport-reaction model for the BGR-RA
345 and IOM-BIE sites is associated with the loss of the reactive labile organic matter (Fig. 5 and 6).
346 About 10 kyr after the removal of the upper 10 cm of the sediments in the model for the BGR-
347 RA site, oxygen penetrates about tenfold deeper into the disturbed sediments than in
348 undisturbed sediments (Table 2; Fig. 5; Volz et al., 2018). At the IOM-BIE site, oxygen reaches
349 the maximum OPD at about 100 yr after the removal of the upper 7 cm of the sediments. At
350 this site, the oxygen front migrates only ~ 1 m deeper than the corresponding OPD in
351 undisturbed sediments (Table 2; Fig. 5; Volz et al., 2018). As a consequence of deeper OPDs
352 at both sites, the oxic-suboxic redox boundary is located at greater depth, with a significant
353 consumption of pore-water Mn^{2+} in the path of the oxygen front. The NH_4^+ concentrations are
354 also being diminished, reaching minima within 100-1000 yr and 1-10 yr after the disturbance
355 experiments in the BGR-RA and IOM areas, respectively. The trend for the NO_3^- is more
356 complicated with lower concentrations during the downward migration of the OPD and
357 augmented concentrations once oxygen concentrations reach their maximum (Figs. 5 and 6).

358 Naturally, the solute fluxes across the sediment-water interface (SWI) are strongly affected after
359 the surface sediment removal (Fig. 7). The transient transport-reaction model suggests that the
360 oxygen fluxes into the sediments are lowered by a factor of three to six after 10-100 yr at the
361 IOM-BIE and BGR-RA sites, respectively. This trend is mirrored by the decreased release of
362 NH_4^+ and NO_3^- into the bottom water.

363 **4. Discussion**

364 **4.1. Depths of small-scale disturbance experiments**

365 Our work demonstrates that the depth distribution of solid-phase Mn provides a reliable tool
366 for the determination of the disturbance depths in the sediments of the CCZ (Fig. 4; Table 3).
367 The success of the correlation of solid-phase Mn contents between disturbed and undisturbed
368 reference sediments benefits from several factors:

369 (1) Sediment mixing during the small-scale disturbance experiments is negligible: The visual
370 impact assessment of the investigated disturbance tracks in the CCZ suggests that sediment
371 mixing during the small-scale disturbance experiments was insignificant (Fig. 2). This

372 observation is in agreement with a recent EBS disturbance experiment, which has been
373 conducted in the DISCOL area in 2015 (Greinert, 2015). The freshly created EBS track in the
374 DISCOL area was re-visited 5 weeks after the disturbance experiment, where the surface
375 sediment was mostly removed and deeper sediment layers were exposed without visible
376 sediment mixing (Boetius, 2015; Paul et al., 2018). In a study on the geochemical regeneration
377 in disturbed sediments of the DISCOL area in the Peru Basin, Paul et al. (2018) have shown
378 that the bulk Mn-rich top sediment layer, which has been observed in undisturbed sediments, is
379 removed in the 5-week old EBS disturbance track. Thus, an important pre-requisite for this
380 method is met and the authors have proposed that the depth distribution of solid-phase Mn may
381 be suitable for the evaluation of the impact as well as for the monitoring of the recovery of
382 small-scale disturbance experiments.

383 (2) The fact that the solid-phase Mn maxima in the surface sediments appear to be a regional
384 phenomenon across the CCZ area as it has been observed throughout the different exploration
385 areas studied in the framework of this study (Volz et al., 2020): The investigated disturbed
386 sediments as well as the undisturbed reference sediments in the CCZ show decreasing
387 solid-phase Mn contents with depth in the upper 20-30 cm of the sediments (Fig. 3; Fig. 4; Volz
388 et al., 2020). In the undisturbed reference sediments, solid-phase Mn contents show maxima of
389 up to 1 wt% in the upper 10 cm of the sediments with distinctly decreasing contents below
390 (Fig. 4; Volz et al., 2020). Similar bulk solid-phase Mn distribution patterns have been reported
391 for other sites within the CCZ (e.g., Khripounoff et al., 2006; Mewes et al., 2014; Widmann et
392 al., 2014). Volz et al. (2020) have suggested that the widely observed solid-phase Mn
393 enrichments in CCZ surface sediments formed in association with a more compressed oxic
394 zone, which may have prevailed as a result of lower bottom-water oxygen concentrations during
395 the last glacial period than today. Strong indication for lower glacial bottom-water oxygen
396 concentrations throughout the eastern Pacific Ocean have been provided by a number of
397 independent proxies (e.g., Anderson et al., 2019 and references therein). As a consequence of
398 the condensed oxic zone, upward diffusing pore-water Mn^{2+} may have precipitated as
399 authigenic Mn(IV) at a shallow oxic-suboxic redox boundary in the upper few centimeters of
400 the sediments. After the last glacial period, the authigenic Mn(IV) peak was continuously mixed
401 into subsequently deposited sediments by bioturbation causing the observed broad solid-phase
402 Mn(IV) enrichment in the surface sediments (Fig. 4; Volz et al., 2020).

403 (3) Lastly, the OPD at all sites is located at sediment depths greater than 0.5 m, and thus,
404 diagenetic precipitation of Mn(IV) in the surface sediments (e.g. Gingele and Kasten, 1994)
405 since the last glacial period can be ruled out (Table 2; Mewes et al., 2014; Volz et al., 2020).

406 Based on the depth distribution of solid-phase Mn, our work suggests that between 5 and 15 cm
407 of the surface sediments were removed and pushed aside by the different small-scale
408 disturbance experiments in the CCZ (Table 3; Fig. 4). This range of disturbance depths is in
409 good agreement with other estimates for small-scale disturbances by similar gear in the CCZ
410 and in the DISCOL area, which suggest that the upper 4-20 cm of the sediments were removed
411 (e.g., Thiel, 2001; Oebius et al., 2001; König et al., 2001; Grupe et al., 2001; Radziejewska,
412 2002; Khripounoff et al., 2006; Paul et al., 2018). However, as the disturbed sites investigated
413 in this study and the respective undisturbed reference sites are located up to 5 km apart from
414 each other, the correlation of solid-phase Mn may be influenced by some spatial heterogeneities
415 in solid-phase Mn contents (Table 1; Mewes et al., 2014). Furthermore, it should be noted, that
416 for the correlation of solid-phase Mn contents between the disturbed and undisturbed reference
417 sites, we have not considered that (1) particles may have re-settled on the freshly exposed
418 sediment surfaces from re-suspended particle plumes (e.g., Jankowski and Zielke, 2001; Thiel,
419 2001; Radziejewska, 2002; Gillard et al., 2019), (2) sediment has slid off from adjacent flanks
420 of the sediment accumulation after the disturbances (Fig. 2) and (3) sediments have been
421 deposited after the small-scale disturbances at sedimentation rates between 0.2 and 1.2 cm kyr⁻¹
422 (Table 2; Volz et al., 2018). However, only in the case of the IOM-BIE disturbance, the visual
423 impact assessment suggested that the disturbance surface was concealed, here by re-settling
424 sediments (Fig. 2). The development of a re-suspended particle plume during the disturbance
425 experiments highly depends on various factors, such as sediment properties, seafloor
426 topography, bottom-water currents and the disturbance device (e.g., Gillard et al., 2019).
427 Although local and regional variations in these factors have been reported for the CCZ, they
428 are not well constrained (e.g., Mewes et al., 2014; Aleynik et al., 2017; Volz et al., 2018; Gillard
429 et al., 2019; Hauquier et al., 2019). As the disturbance tracks investigated in the framework of
430 this study are relatively small with a maximum width of 2.5 m (Fig. 2; Brockett and Richards,
431 1994; Brenke 2005), re-suspended particles may (1) only partly deposit on the disturbance track
432 and (2) mostly be transported laterally by currents and deposit on top of undisturbed sediments
433 in the proximity of the disturbance tracks (e.g., Fukushima, 1995; Aleynik et al., 2017; Gillard
434 et al., 2019). This is in accordance with the close correlation of the sediment porosity between
435 the disturbed and undisturbed reference sites, which indicates that the deposition of re-settling
436 particles with higher porosity at the sediment surface in the disturbance tracks is insignificant

437 at all sites, except for the IOM-BIE site (Fig. 4). The porosity data further shows that sediment
438 compaction, potentially caused by the weight of the disturbance device (Cuvelier et al., 2018;
439 Hauquier et al., 2019) is insignificant at all disturbed sites.

440 **4.2. Impact of small-scale disturbances on the geochemical system**

441 The geochemical conditions found at the study sites in the CCZ are the result of a balanced
442 interplay of key factors, such as the input of fresh, labile TOC, sedimentation rate and
443 bioturbation intensity (e.g., Froelich et al., 1979; Berner, 1981; Zonneveld et al., 2010;
444 Mogollón et al., 2016; Volz et al., 2018). Together they characterize the upper reactive layer,
445 which in turn plays a crucial role for the location of the OPD in the sediments of the CCZ (e.g.,
446 Mewes et al., 2014; Mogollón et al., 2016; Volz et al., 2018). Oxygen is consumed via aerobic
447 respiration during the degradation of organic matter while bioturbation transports fresh, labile
448 TOC into deeper sediments (e.g., Haeckel et al., 2001; König et al., 2001). The presence of
449 labile TOC throughout the bioturbated zone significantly enhances the consumption of oxygen
450 with depth, where oxygen is not as easily replenished by seawater oxygen. Thus, the availability
451 of labile TOC in the bioturbated layer controls the amount of oxygen that passes through the
452 reactive layer into deeper sediments (e.g., König et al., 2001). Below the highly reactive layer,
453 refractory organic matter degradation and secondary redox reactions – such as oxidation of
454 Mn^{2+} – control the consumption of oxygen (Supplementary Table 1; Mogollón et al., 2016;
455 Volz et al., 2018). The oxygen profile, more precisely the position of the OPD, in turn, strongly
456 influences the distribution of other solutes. Below the OPD, denitrification and Mn(IV)
457 reduction commence, albeit at much lower rates, consuming pore-water NO_3^- and releasing
458 Mn^{2+} (Mogollón et al., 2016; Volz et al., 2018). The study sites in the CCZ provide an excellent
459 example for how slight differences in key environmental factors can profoundly change the
460 overall solute profiles with OPDs ranging between 0.5 m (BGR-RA) and > 7.4 m (GSR) as
461 outlined by Volz et al. (2018).

462 The removal of the upper 5-15 cm of the sediment results, on one hand, in an almost complete
463 loss of the labile TOC fraction (Fig. 4) as this fraction is restricted to the upper 20 cm of the
464 sediment in the CCZ (e.g., Müller and Mangini, 1980; Emerson, 1985; Müller et al., 1988;
465 Mewes et al., 2014; Mogollón et al., 2016; Volz et al., 2018). On the other hand, studies on
466 faunal diversity and density in small-scale disturbances in the sediments of the CCZ and in the
467 DISCOL area show that most of the biota is lost immediately after the disturbance experiment
468 (Borowski et al., 1998; 2001; Bluhm et al., 2001; Thiel et al., 2001; Vanreusel et al., 2016;

469 Jones et al., 2017; Gollner et al., 2017). Thus, a drastic decline or stand-still of bioturbation can
470 be expected in the surface sediments.

471 Based on the results of the transient transport-reaction model, geochemical recovery after small-
472 scale sediment disturbances can be divided into two main phases (Fig. 8):

473 (1) Since the labile TOC fraction and bioturbating fauna is mostly removed, downward
474 diffusion of oxygen is the main driver shaping solute profiles towards a new geochemical steady
475 state system in the absence of the reactive layer (Figs. 5 and 6). This entails the downward
476 migration of the OPD, as oxygen is no longer effectively consumed in the upper sediment layer.
477 The presence of oxygen outcompetes denitrification and Mn(IV) reduction and induces NH_4^+
478 and Mn^{2+} oxidation instead, thus, minimizing pore-water NH_4^+ and Mn^{2+} concentrations
479 (Figs. 5 and 6). At the same time, NO_3^- , produced during nitrification in the presence of oxygen
480 (e.g., Froelich et al., 1979; Berner, 1981; Haeckel et al., 2001; Mogollón et al., 2016; Volz et
481 al., 2018), is accordingly reduced during denitrification and NO_3^- concentrations are lowered
482 during this first phase.

483 (2) The second phase is characterized by the increasing influence of reactive fluxes across the
484 seafloor. It takes approximately 1000 yr before any significant build-up of an upper labile TOC
485 layer is re-established (Fig. 6), at which point solute profiles slowly shift towards their pre-
486 disturbance shape (Fig. 7). Interestingly, during the transition time when oxygen is still present
487 at depth but aerobic respiration in the upper sediments has already begun to pick up, NO_3^-
488 concentrations are strongly elevated in the BGR sediments (Figs. 5 and 6). This is due to the
489 fact that NO_3^- is not consumed during denitrification or the Mn-annamox reaction in the
490 presence of oxygen (Mogollón et al., 2016; Volz et al., 2018).

491 With the importance of bioturbation and the mining-related removal of associated fauna in
492 mind, solute and in particular nutrient fluxes across the seafloor should also be considered. The
493 release of nutrients complements the close link between sediment geochemistry and the food
494 web structure (e.g., Smith et al., 1979; Dunlop et al., 2016; Stratmann et al., 2018) and further
495 emphasizes their interdependencies. Figure 7 depicts fluxes of oxygen, NO_3^- and NH_4^+ across
496 the seafloor. As expected, with the reactive layer being mostly absent, fluxes across the seafloor
497 are severely reduced, which particularly affects the oxygen uptake of the sediments as well as
498 the release of NO_3^- and NH_4^+ into the bottom water. At about 100 to 1000 yr after the
499 disturbance, concurrent with the build-up of an upper sediment layer containing significant
500 amounts of labile organic matter, fluxes begin to increase again, albeit much slower than the

501 rate of the decrease in fluxes subsequently after the disturbances (Fig. 7, note the logarithmic
502 scale).

503 It should be noted that while bioturbation has a pivotal influence on the undisturbed steady-
504 state profile, it only plays a secondary role in re-establishing the steady state geochemical
505 system at the disturbed sites in the CCZ. Studies suggest that faunal abundances fully recover
506 within centuries after the disturbance even though the benthic community may be different than
507 prior to the disturbance (e.g., Miljutin et al., 2011; Vanreusel et al., 2016). Due to the extremely
508 slow build-up of the reactive layer with labile TOC, the bioturbation ‘pump’ is active again
509 before any significant amount of labile TOC is present about 1-100 kyr after the disturbance.
510 Thus, full recovery is mainly controlled by the re-establishment of the upper reactive layer, i.e.
511 the delivery rate of labile TOC to the seafloor.

512 The transport-reaction model reveals that under current depositional conditions, the new steady
513 state geochemical system is established after 1-10 kyr at the IOM-BIE site, while the
514 re-establishment of steady state geochemical conditions at the BGR-RA site takes 10-100 kyr
515 (Figs. 5 and 6). Shorter recovery times at the IOM site compared to the BGR-RA site are related
516 to higher sedimentation rates (1.15 instead of 0.65 cm kyr⁻¹) and shallower impact on the
517 sediment (7 cm instead of 10 cm sediment removal). Accordingly, the maximum OPD is
518 reached after 100 yr and 10 kyr at the IOM and BGR-RA site, respectively (Figs. 5 and 6) while
519 the reactive layer is clearly established sooner at the IOM site compared to the BGR-RA site
520 (Fig. 7). Thus, the disturbance depth clearly has a strong influence on the recovery process of
521 the geochemical system of the sediments, highlighting the importance of low-impact mining
522 equipment. Considering that in the CCZ areas of about 8500 km² could be commercially mined
523 in 20 yr per individual mining operation (Madureira et al., 2016), this impact assessment of
524 small-scale disturbance experiments may only represent a first approach for the prediction of
525 the environmental impact of large-scale deep-sea mining activities.

526 **5. Conclusion**

527 We have studied surface sediments from seven small-scale disturbance experiments for the
528 simulation of deep-sea mining, which were performed between 1 day and 37 years prior to our
529 sampling in the NE Pacific Ocean. These small-scale disturbance tracks were created using
530 various disturbance devices in different European contract areas for the exploration of
531 polymetallic nodules within the eastern part of the Clarion-Clipperton Zone (CCZ). Through
532 correlation of solid-phase Mn contents of disturbed and undisturbed reference sediments, we
533 (1) propose that the depth distribution of solid-phase Mn in the sediments of the CCZ provides

534 a reliable tool for the estimation of the disturbance depth and (2) show that 5-15 cm of the
535 sediments were removed during the small-scale disturbance experiments investigated in this
536 study. As the small-scale disturbances are associated with the removal of the surface sediments
537 characterized by reactive labile organic matter, the disturbance depth ultimately determines the
538 impact on the geochemical system in the sediments. The application of a transient transport-
539 reaction model reveals that the removal of the upper 7-10 cm of the surface sediments is
540 associated with a meter-scale downward extension of the oxic zone and the shutdown of
541 denitrification and Mn(IV) reduction. As a consequence of lower respiration rates after the
542 disturbance experiments, the geochemical system in the sediments is controlled by downward
543 oxygen diffusion. While the re-establishment of bioturbation within centuries after the
544 disturbance is important for the development of steady state geochemical conditions in the
545 disturbed sediments, the rate at which geochemical steady state conditions are reached
546 ultimately depends on the delivery rate of organic matter to the seafloor. Assuming the
547 accumulation of labile organic matter to proceed at current Holocene sedimentation rates in the
548 disturbed sediments, biogeochemical reactions resume in the reactive surface sediment layer,
549 and thus, the new steady state geochemical system in the disturbed sediments in the CCZ is
550 reached on a millennial time scale after the disturbance of the surface sediments.

551 Our study represents the first study on the impact of small-scale disturbance experiments on the
552 sedimentary geochemical system in the prospective areas for polymetallic nodule mining in the
553 CCZ. Our findings on the evaluation of the disturbance depths using solid-phase Mn contents
554 as well as the quantification of the development of a new geochemical steady state system in
555 the sediments advances our knowledge about the potential long-term consequences of deep-sea
556 mining activities. We propose that mining techniques potentially used for the potential
557 commercial exploitation of nodules in the CCZ may remove less than 10 cm of the surface
558 sediments in order to minimize the impact on the geochemical system in the sediments. The
559 depth distribution of solid-phase Mn may be used for environmental monitoring purposes
560 during future mining activities in the CCZ. However, based on our current knowledge and in
561 combination with ongoing natural environmental changes (e.g., bottom water warming,
562 acidification, changes in the POC flux to the seafloor), it is difficult to assess whether the
563 surface sediment removal may trigger a tipping point for deep-sea ecosystems. This study also
564 provides valuable data for further investigations on the environmental impact of deep-sea
565 mining, such as during the launched JPI Oceans follow-up project MiningImpact 2.

566 **Data availability**

567 The data are available via the data management portal OSIS-Kiel and the WDC database
568 PANGAEA, including the solid-phase bulk sediment Mn and TOC contents
569 (<https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.904560>) as well as the porosity data
570 (<https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.904578>).

571 **Author contribution**

572 The study was conceived by all co-authors. JBV carried out the sampling and analyses on board
573 during RV SONNE cruise SO239 and the analytical work in the laboratories at AWI in
574 Bremerhaven. LH and MH modified the numerical transport-reaction model presented in Volz
575 et al. (2018) and provided model results for the long-term effects of small-scale disturbances
576 on geochemical conditions and biogeochemical processes. JBV prepared the manuscript with
577 substantial contributions from all co-authors.

578 **Competing interest**

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

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870 **Figure captions**

871 Figure 1: Sampling sites (black circles, black star) in various European contract areas for the
872 exploration of manganese nodules within the Clarion-Clipperton Fracture Zone (CCZ).
873 Investigated stations are located in the German BGR area (blue), eastern European IOM area
874 (yellow), Belgian GSR area (green) and French IFREMER area (red). The two stations within
875 the German BGR area are located in the “prospective area” (BGR-PA, black star) and in the
876 “reference area” (BGR-RA, black circle). The contract areas granted/governed by the
877 International Seabed Authority (ISA; white areas) are surrounded by nine Areas of Particular
878 Environmental Interest (APEI), which are excluded from any mining activities (green shaded
879 squares). Geographical data provided by the ISA.

880 Figure 2: Examples of undisturbed reference sediments in the German BGR-PA area and the
881 French IFREMER area and pictures of small-scale disturbances for the simulation of deep-sea
882 mining within the CCZ, which are investigated in the framework of this study (years: yr;
883 months: mth; days: d). Copyright: ROV KIEL 6000 Team, GEOMAR Helmholtz Centre for
884 Ocean Research Kiel, Germany.

885 Figure 3: Solid-phase Mn and TOC contents for all disturbed sites investigated in the framework
886 of this study.

887 Figure 4: Correlation of solid-phase Mn and TOC contents between the disturbed sites and the
888 respective undisturbed reference sediments (grey shaded profiles) using the disturbance depths
889 determined with the Pearson correlation coefficient (compare Table 3). For the undisturbed
890 reference sediments, solid-phase Mn contents are taken from Volz et al. (2020) and TOC
891 contents are taken from Volz et al. (2018).

892 Figure 5: Model results of the transient transport-reaction model for (a) the EBS disturbance in
893 the German BGR-RA area and (b) the IOM-BIE disturbance in the eastern European IOM area.
894 The model is adapted after the steady state transport-reaction model presented in Volz et al.
895 (2018) and shows the response of the geochemical system in the sediments if steady state
896 conditions are disturbed by the removal of the upper 10 cm (BGR-RA, average disturbance
897 depth of BGR-PA and BGR-RA; cf. Table 3) and 7 cm (IOM; Table 3) of the sediments while
898 maintaining the same boundary conditions but with reduced bioturbation over the first 100 years
899 after the disturbance.

900 Figure 6: Detailed model results of the transient transport-reaction model (Figure 5) for the
901 upper 1 m of the sediments with the fit of the simulated profiles with the analytical data for
902 undisturbed sediments at current steady state geochemical conditions and for the new steady
903 state geochemical system after the disturbance (dark blue profiles) for (a) EBS disturbance in
904 the German BGR-RA area and (b) the IOM-BIE disturbance in the eastern European IOM area.

905 Figure 7: Pore-water fluxes of oxygen (O_2), nitrate (NO_3^{2-}) and ammonia (NH_4^+) at the
906 sediment-water interface obtained by the application of the transient transport-reaction model.
907 Oxygen fluxes into the sediment and fluxes of nitrate and ammonia towards the sediment
908 surface are shown as a function of time after the EBS and IOM-BIE disturbances in the German
909 BGR-RA area (blue) and in the eastern European IOM area (black), respectively.

910 Figure 8: Conceptual model for time-dependent pore-water fluxes of oxygen (O_2), nitrate
911 (NO_3^{2-}) and ammonia (NH_4^+) at the sediment-water interface after the removal of the upper 7-
912 10 cm of the sediments. The re-establishment of bioturbation, the maximum oxygen penetration
913 depth (OPD) as well as the re-establishment of the surface sediment layer dominated by the
914 reactive labile organic matter fraction are indicated as a function of time after the sediment
915 removal.

916 **Table captions**

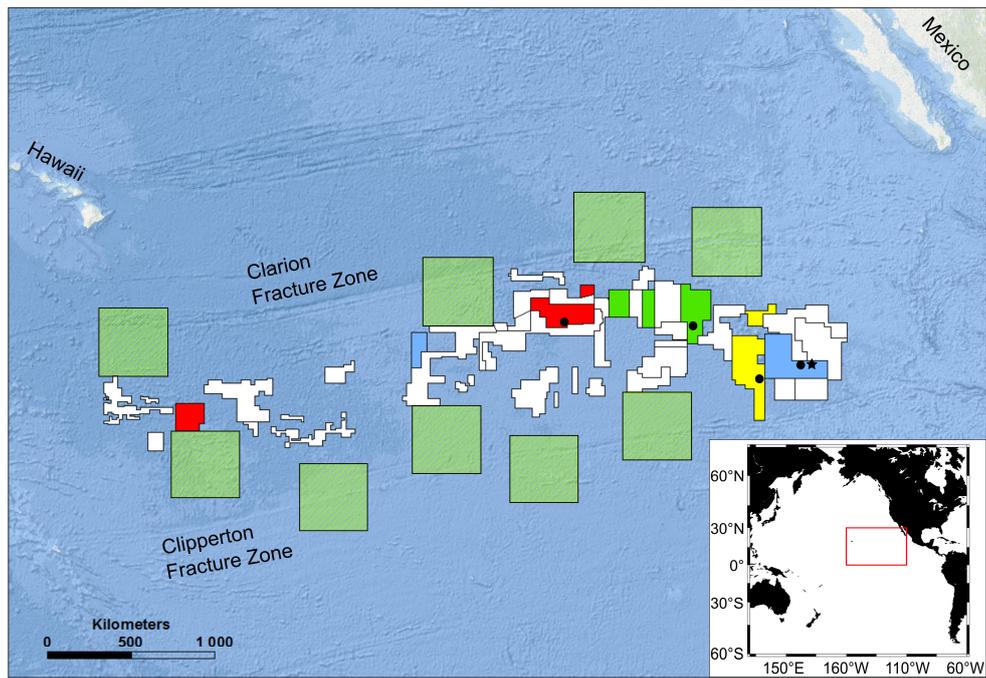
917 Table 1: MUC and PC cores investigated in this study including information on geographic
918 position, water depth, type and age of the disturbances (years: yr; months: mth; days: d).

919 Table 2: Information of sedimentation rate (Sed. rate), flux of particulate organic carbon (POC)
920 to the seafloor, bioturbation depth (Bioturb. depth), oxygen penetration depth (OPD) based on
921 GC cores from the investigated sites and determined in the study by Volz et al. (2018).
922 Information for the BGR-PA area is taken from an adjacent site (A5-2-SN; 11°57.22'N,
923 117°0.42'W) studied by Mewes et al. (2014) and Mogollón et al. (2016).

924 Table 3: Calculated Pearson correlation coefficients r_{Mn} and r_{TOC} for the determination of the
925 disturbance depth of various small-scale disturbances investigated in the framework of this
926 study (compare Table 1). For both correlations, the highest positive linear Pearson coefficient
927 for solid-phase Mn contents ($r_{Mn} \sim 1$) between the disturbed sites and the respective undisturbed
928 reference sites was used.

929

930 **Figure 1:**

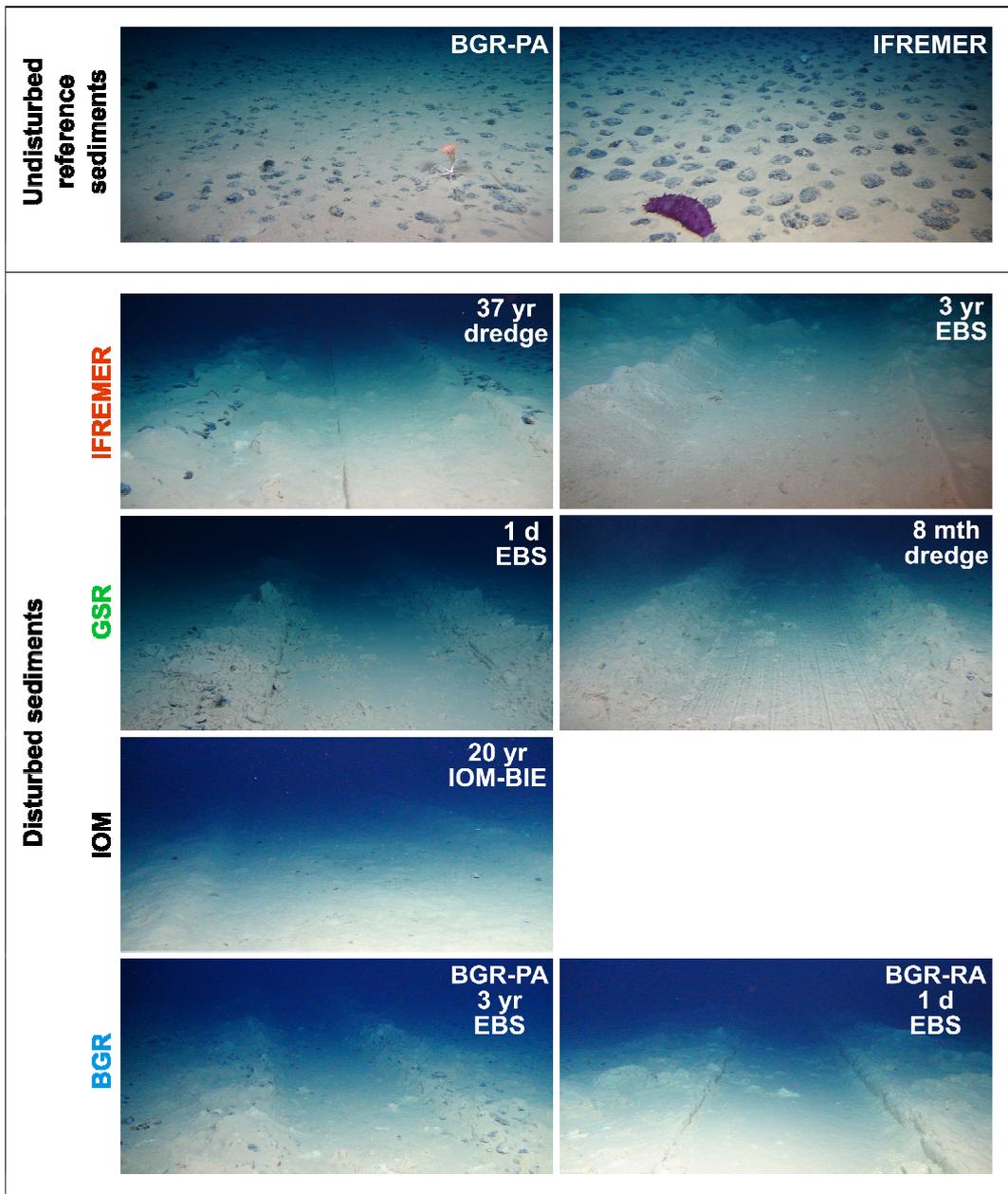


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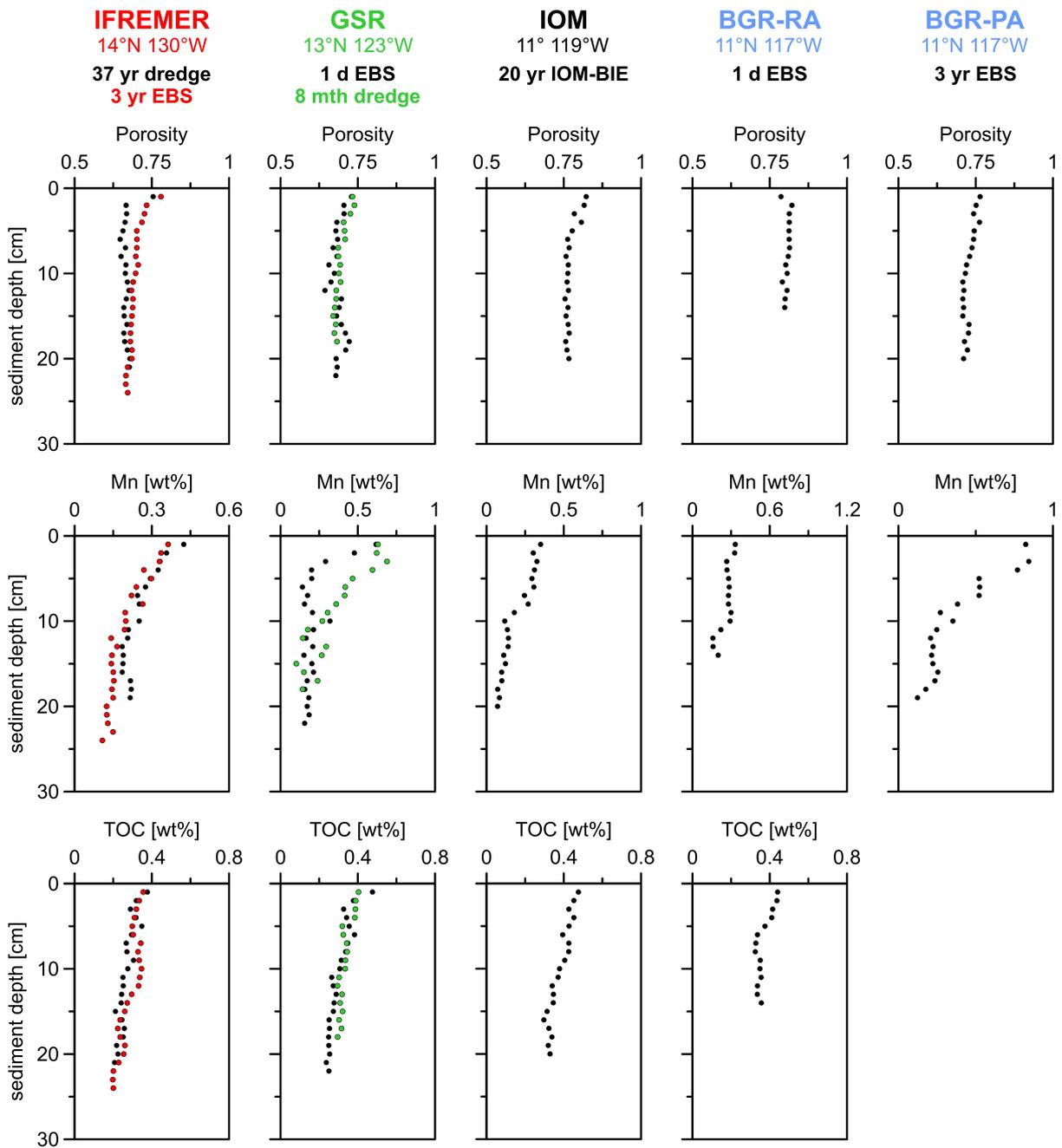
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934 **Figure 2:**



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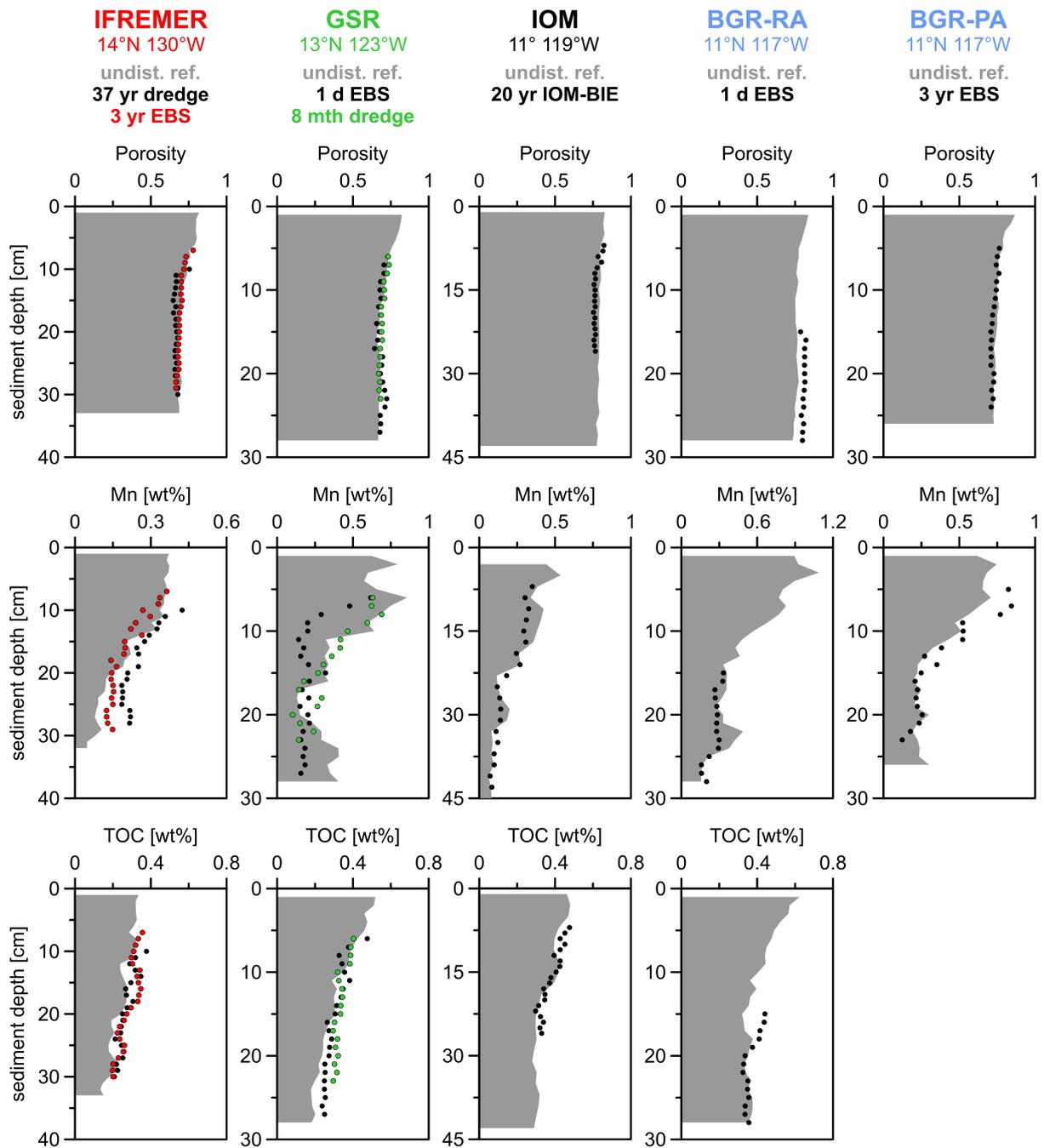
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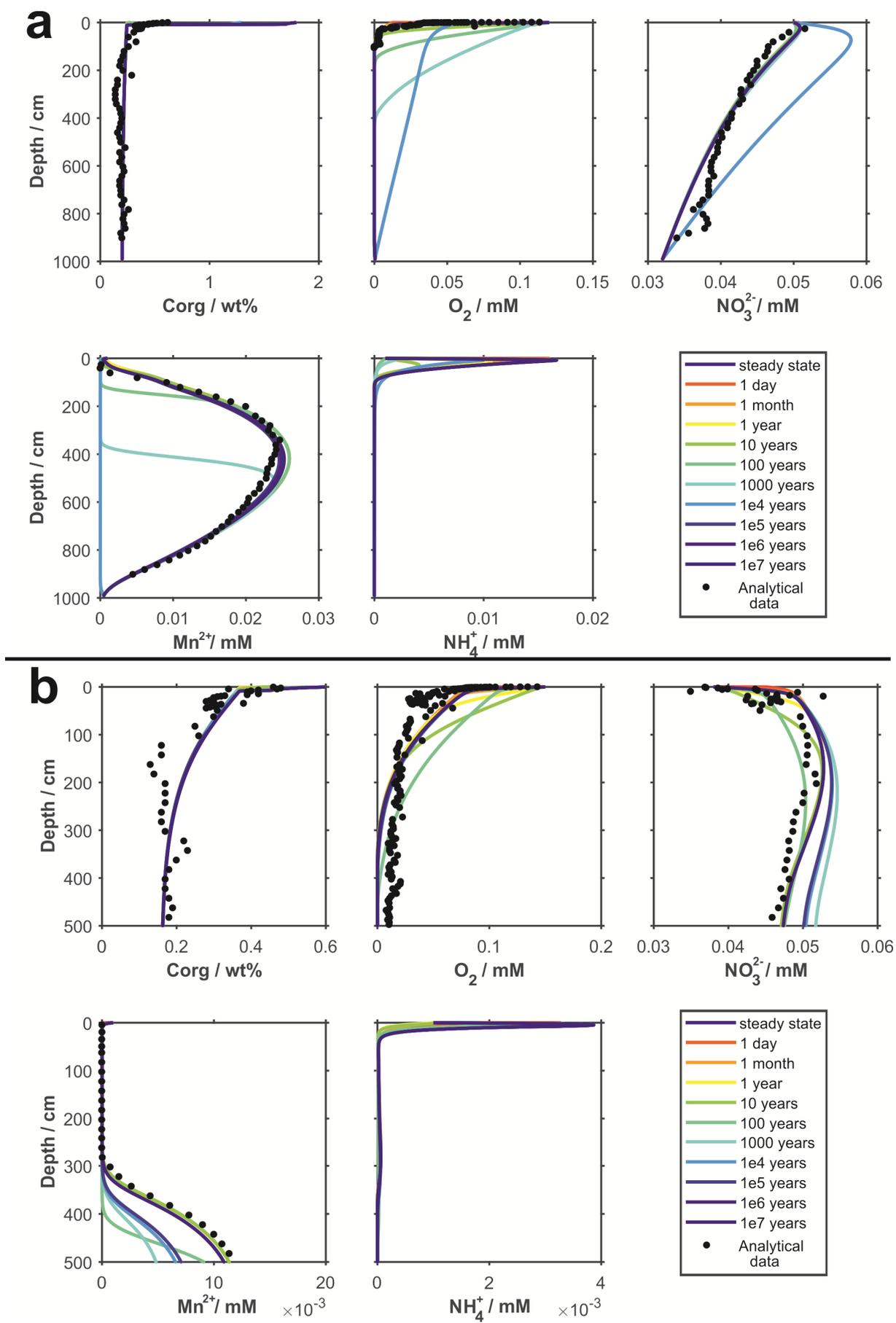
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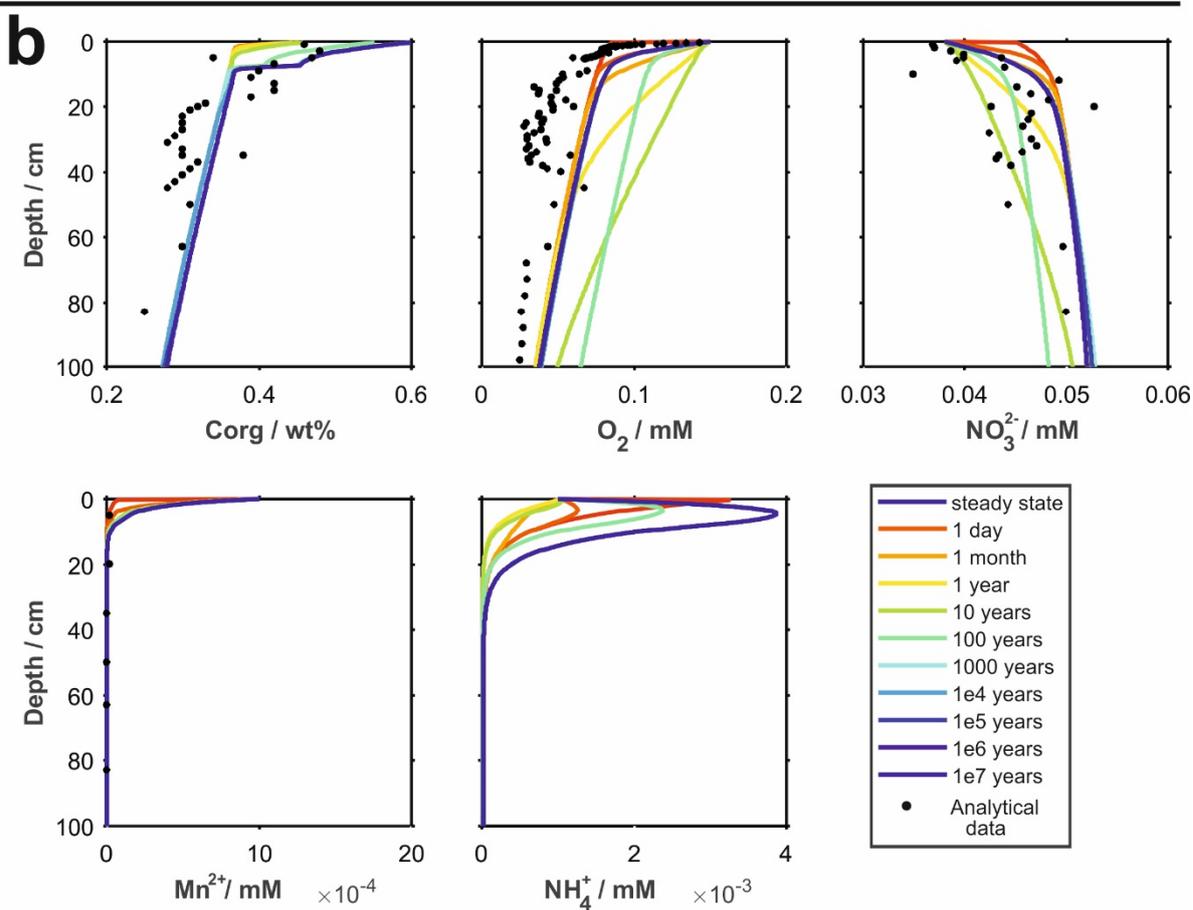
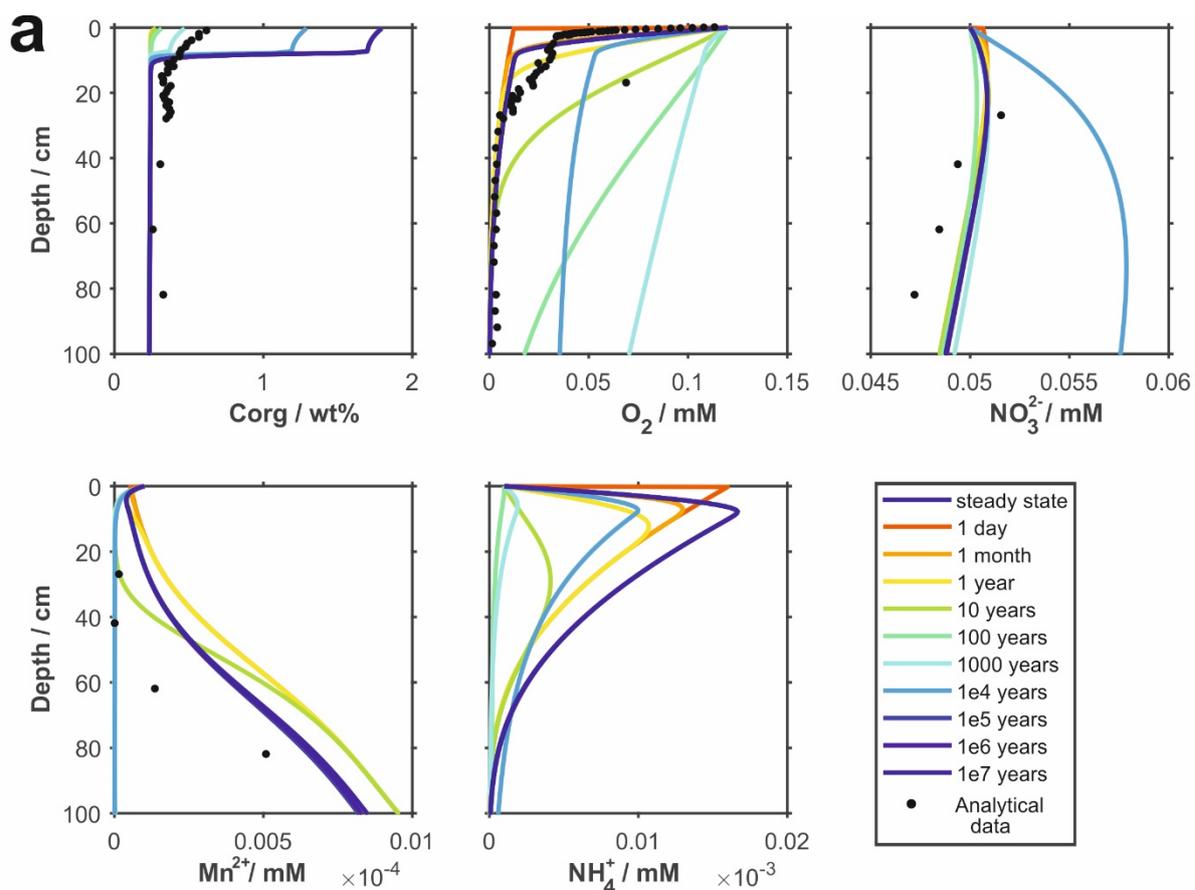
941 **Figure 4:**



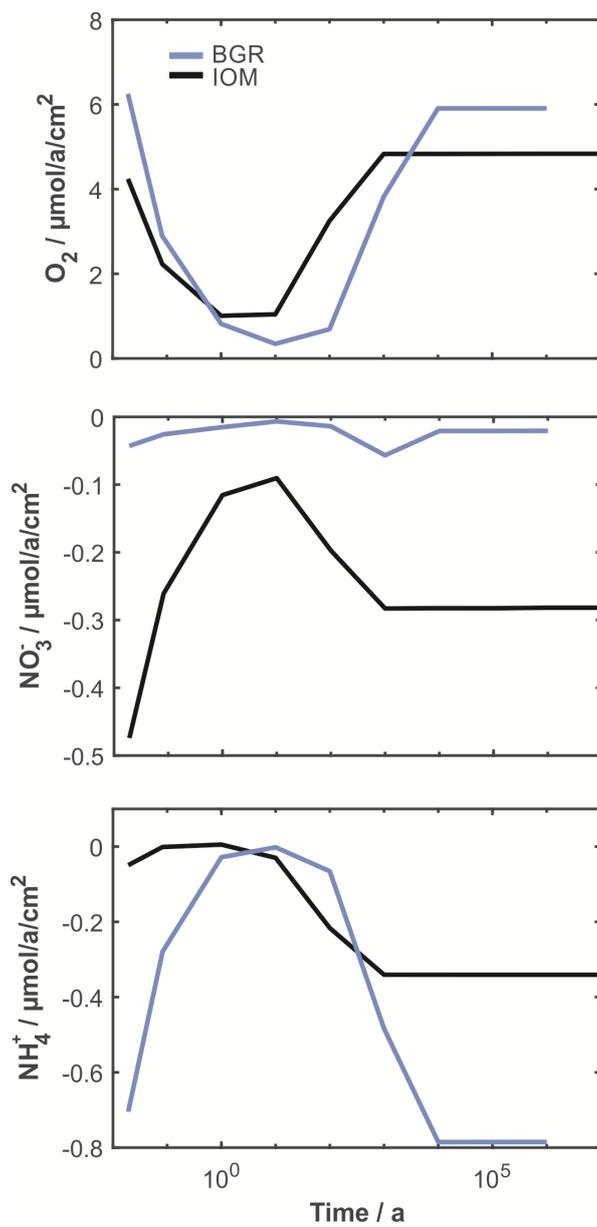
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948 **Figure 7:**

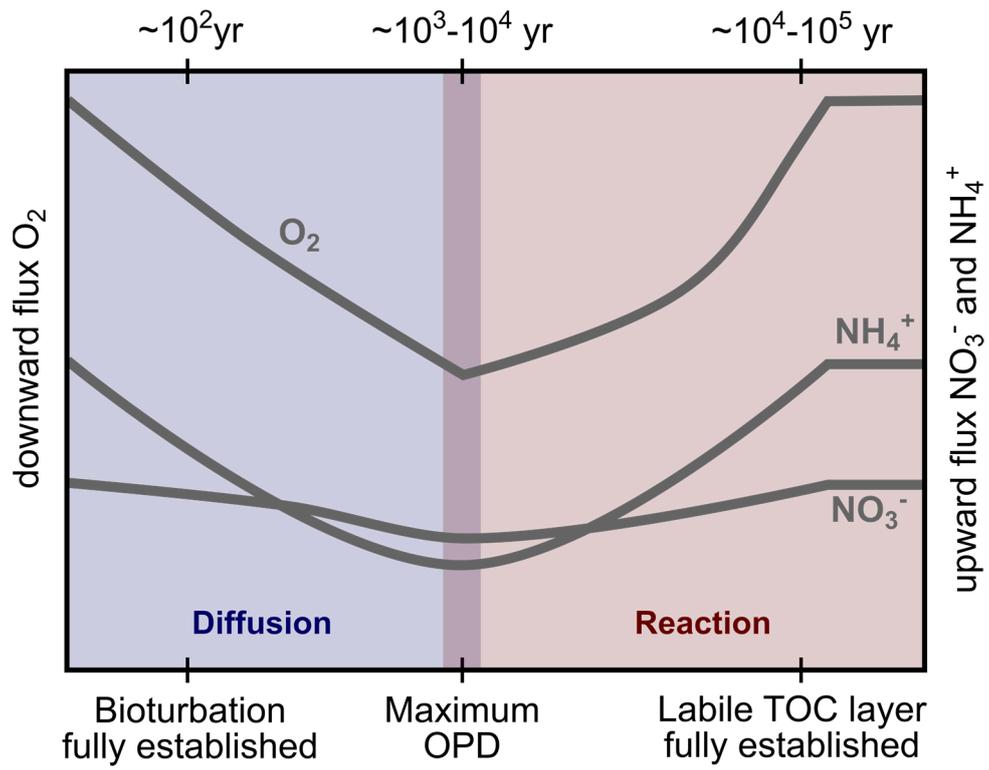


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951

952 **Figure 8:**



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954

955 **Table 1:**

Area	Site	Coring device	Disturbance device/type	Disturbance age	Latitude [N]	Longitude [W]	Water depth [m]
BGR-PA	39	MUC	-	-	11°50.64'	117°03.44'	4132.0
BGR-PA	41	PC	EBS ¹	3 yr	11°50.92'	117°03.77'	4099.2
BGR-RA	62	GC	-	-	11°49.12'	117°33.22'	4312.2
BGR-RA	64	PC	EBS ²	1 d	11°48.27'	117°30.18'	4332
BGR-RA	66	MUC	-	-	11°49.13'	117°33.13'	4314.8
IOM	84	MUC	-	-	11°04.73'	119°39.48'	4430.8
IOM	87	GC	-	-	11°04.54'	119°39.83'	4436
IOM	101	PC	IOM-BIE ³	20 yr	11°04.38'	119°39.38'	4387.4
GSR	121	MUC	-	-	13°51.25'	123°15.3'	4517.7
GSR	131	PC	EBS ²	1 d	13°52.38'	123°15.1'	4477.6
GSR	141	PC	dredge ⁴	8 mth	13°51.95'	123°15.33'	4477
IFREMER	157	PC	dredge ⁵	37 yr	14°02.06'	130°07.23'	4944.5
IFREMER	161	PC	EBS ¹	3 yr	14°02.20'	130°05.87'	4999.1
IFREMER	175	MUC	-	-	14°02.45'	130°05.11'	5005.5

956 ¹Epibenthic sledge (EBS) during BIONOD cruises in 2012 onboard L'Atalante (Brenke, 2005; Rühlemann and
957 Menot, 2012; Menot and Rühlemann, 2013)

958 ²Epibenthic sledge (EBS) during RV SONNE cruise SO239 in 2015 (Brenke, 2005; Martínez Arbizu and
959 Haeckel, 2015)

960 ³Benthic impact experiment (BIE); disturbance created with the Deep-Sea Sediment Re-suspension System
961 (DSSRS; e.g., Brocket and Richards, 1994; Kotlinski et al., 1998)

962 ⁴Towed dredge sampling during GSR cruise in 2014 onboard M.V. Mt Mitchell (Jones et al., 2017)

963 ⁵Towed dredge sampling by the Ocean Minerals Company (OMCO) in 1978 onboard Hughes Glomar Explorer
964 (Morgan et al., 1993; Spickermann, 2012)

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966 **Table 2:**

Area	Sed. rate [cm kyr⁻¹]	POC flux [mg C_{org} m⁻² d⁻¹]	Bioturb. depth [cm]	OPD [m]
BGR-PA	~0.53 ^a	~6.9 ^a	~5 ^a	~2 ^{a,b}
BGR-RA	0.65	1.99	7	0.5
IOM	1.15	1.54	13	3
GSR	0.21	1.51	8	>7.4
IFRE-1	0.64	1.47	7	4.5
IFRE-2	0.48	1.5	8	3.8
APEI3	0.2	1.07	6	>5.7

967 ^aMogollón et al. (2016)968 ^bMewes et al. (2014)

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971 **Table 3:**

Exploration area	Disturbance device/type	Disturbed Site	Reference Site	r_{Mn}	Disturbance depth [cm]	r_{TOC}
BGR-PA	EBS	41	39	0.86	5	-
BGR-RA	EBS	64	66	0.82	15	-0.4
IOM	IOM-BIE	101	87	0.97	7	0.77
GSR	EBS	131	121	0.72	6	0.88
GSR	dredge	141	121	0.88	6	0.91
IFREMER	dredge	157	175	0.74	10	0.73
IFREMER	EBS	161	175	0.93	7	0.74

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