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A Global Plankton Diversity Monitoring Program

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26 **Abstract**

27 Plankton are the base of marine food webs, essential to sustaining fisheries and other marine life. Continuous Plankton Recorders
28 (CPRs) have sampled plankton for decades in both hemispheres and several regional seas. CPR research has been integral to
29 advancing understanding of plankton dynamics and informing policy and management decisions. We describe how the CPR can
30 contribute to global plankton diversity monitoring, being cost-effective over large scales and providing taxonomically-resolved data.
31 At OceanObs09 an integrated network of regional CPR surveys was envisaged and in 2011 the existing surveys formed the Global
32 Alliance of CPR Surveys (GACS). GACS first focused on strengthening the dataset by identifying and documenting CPR best
33 practices, delivering training workshops, and developing an integrated database. This resulted in the initiation of new surveys and
34 manuals that enable regional surveys to be standardized and integrated. GACS is not yet global, but it could be expanded into the
35 remaining oceans; tropical and Arctic regions are a priority for survey expansion. The capacity building groundwork is done, but
36 funding is required to implement the GACS vision of a global plankton sampling program that supports decision-making for the
37 scientific and policy communities. A key step is an analysis to optimize the global sampling design. Further developments include
38 expanding the CPR for multidisciplinary measurements via additional sensors, thus maximising the ship-of-opportunity platform. For
39 example, defining pelagic ecoregions based on plankton and ancillary data could support high seas Marine Protected Area design.
40 Fulfilment of Aichi Target 15, the United Nation’s Sustainable Development Goals, and delivering the Essential Ocean Variables and
41 Essential Biodiversity Variables that the Global Ocean Observing System and Group on Earth Observation’s Biodiversity Observation
42 Network have respectively defined requires the taxonomic resolution, spatial scale and time-series data that the CPR approach
43 provides. Synergies with global networks exploiting satellite data and other plankton sensors could be explored, realizing the Survey’s
44 capacity to validate earth observation data and to ground-truth emerging plankton observing platforms. This is required for a fully
45 integrated ocean observing system that can understand global ocean dynamics to inform sustainable marine decision-making.

46

47 **Key Words**

48 Continuous Plankton Recorder, zooplankton, phytoplankton, global monitoring, biodiversity, ocean observing, essential ocean
49 variables

50

51 **1. The need for global plankton observations**

52 The pelagic zone is the largest biome on Earth. Plankton are found throughout the ~1 billion km³ of living space in the pelagic zone,
53 and are extremely abundant; one group, the copepods, could be three orders of magnitude more abundant than insects (Schminke,
54 1998). Plankton underpin almost all marine food webs and provide the link between the physical environment and the fish, marine
55 birds and mammals that society values and which forms the basis of much of the blue economy. Furthermore, plankton are responsible
56 for ~46% of the planetary photosynthesis, the first step in a series of complex biogeochemical processes in the ocean that make up the
57 biological pump, which involves the export of carbon and other elements from the atmosphere via surface waters into the ocean's
58 interior. The many and varied roles of plankton make them essential candidates for measuring the health of our oceans in the
59 Anthropocene.

60 There is an increasing emphasis on globally coordinated marine science strategies towards “conserving and sustainably using the
61 oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development” as laid out in the United Nation’s sustainable development goal 14
62 (SDG14). Plankton are an ideal indicator for sustainably managing our oceans, as they are sensitive to the environment and they are
63 not yet fished to any great extent, meaning that measured changes in plankton communities unambiguously reflect environmental
64 changes and not the amount of harvesting, which complicates analyses of fish stock data.

65

66 **1.1 Plankton: an essential ocean and biodiversity variable**

67 The Global Ocean Observing System (GOOS) advocates for sustained observations that describe the current ocean state. The initial
68 focus on physical oceanography now informs weather and climate forecasts through a suite of observing platforms (e.g., moorings,
69 voluntary observing ships, satellites, Argo) to measure the temperature and salinity of the oceans. A more recent focus has been on the
70 biological properties of the ocean, developed from the Framework for Ocean Observation (Lindstrom et al, 2012), with GOOS
71 establishing a Biology and Ecosystems Panel in 2015. Its remit is to promote a global, sustained, and targeted ecosystem observing
72 program based on essential ocean variables (EOVs). Plankton (abundance and diversity) were identified as EOVs with moderate to
73 high relative impact for addressing societal drivers and pressures (Miloslavich et al., 2018).

74

75 The Group on Earth Observations Biodiversity Observation Network (GEO BON) has developed Essential Biodiversity Variables
76 (EBVs) to “play the role of brokers between monitoring initiatives and decision makers” with a focus on the status and trend in

77 biodiversity. EBVs include taxonomic diversity to inform policy makers on community composition and secondary productivity as
78 well as plankton functional type variables to inform on ecosystem structure and function.
79

80 A key challenge in observing plankton in the pelagic zone over the vast expanses of the ocean is to estimate the zooplankton
81 component. For nearly four decades, phytoplankton have been observed from space. Satellites not only provide estimates of
82 phytoplankton biomass (chlorophyll-a), but also of some phytoplankton functional types (Brewin et al., 2010), although phytoplankton
83 species composition remains elusive. However, zooplankton, the intermediate trophic link between phytoplankton and fish, cannot be
84 observed from satellites. Zooplankton can readily be monitored over local scales using nets and modern imaging and laser systems,
85 but sampling zooplankton over large spatial scales – both abundance and species composition – remains challenging.
86

87 **1.2 Continuous Plankton Recorder Surveys**

88 First routinely deployed in 1931 the Continuous Plankton Recorder (CPR) survey is the longest running, most extensive, marine
89 biological sampling program (Richardson et al, 2006). Uniquely, the CPR collects *in situ* samples over large spatial scales, allowing
90 species-level identification of plankton composition and abundance. This is possible because the CPR is sufficiently robust to be
91 deployed from commercial ships (ships of opportunity), unaccompanied by researchers, making sample collection cost-efficient over
92 large ocean tracts, although the species-level identification currently necessitates relatively high processing costs per sample. Full
93 technical details of the CPR can be found in Batten et al. (2003a).
94

95 The first CPR sampling took place in the North Sea in 1931, followed by a network of transects around the UK which extended over
96 the European shelf by the late 1940s. Further expansion to the western North Atlantic occurred next, followed by the first independent
97 regional survey in 1961 off the east coast of the USA. Over time, additional regional surveys have extended CPR operations to
98 northern and southern hemispheres, the North Atlantic and Pacific Oceans as well as smaller regional seas (Fig 1).
99

100 Strengths and limitations of CPR sampling are well documented in the CPR literature (e.g. Richardson et al. 2006) and will not be
101 repeated here but its specifications mean that only a portion of the entire plankton community is sampled, a fact that is common to all
102 plankton sampling strategies (Wiebe & Benfield, 2003). The CPR filters plankton from the seawater using a mesh with a nominal size
103 of 270 μ m (although because of the silk weave it commonly captures phytoplankton down to ~10 μ m {Richardson et al. 2006}). The
104 seawater entrance aperture has sides of 1.2 cm. There are, therefore, upper and lower size limits of organisms that can be effectively
105 captured and retained. The preservative used is formaldehyde which works well for some species, but not for others. The high speed of
106 sampling (up to 25 knots) means that fragile and gelatinous groups are often damaged or destroyed. The CPR is towed at a fixed near-
107 surface depth (5-10m) meaning it only captures those taxa that spend some of their time in the mixed layer. Despite these limitations

108 the sampler has changed relatively little since its inception and is internally consistent. Many hundreds of taxa are routinely identified
109 from CPR samples, resulting in a rich ecological dataset of unparalleled spatial extent allowing the identification of changes in
110 plankton communities over large space and time scales, such as multi-decadal and ocean basin. There is a diverse scientific literature
111 based on these data of over 1000 peer-reviewed publications (a selection is presented in Table 1). It should also be noted that the CPR
112 is not an appropriate sampler for very shallow, near-shore regions, where transect lengths are less than about 100km or for station-
113 based sampling. However, through collaborative approaches suggested in section 3, CPR data could provide larger scale context or
114 link distant sampling locations where other samplers are used.

115

116 **1.3 Initiating the Global Alliance of CPR Surveys**

117 At the 2009 Global Ocean Ecosystem Dynamics (GLOBEC) Open Science Meeting in Victoria, Canada, CPR users from regional
118 surveys met to examine new results and to begin discussions on stronger links between surveys and how it may be possible to
119 integrate their products (Batten and Burkill, 2010). Two years later, in September 2011, the Global Alliance of CPR surveys (GACS)
120 had its first meeting and signed a Memorandum of Understanding to work towards providing an integrated data set derived from the
121 several national CPR Surveys that currently operated or were planned in the near future. It was anticipated that each of these surveys
122 would continue to operate independently but with increasing emphasis for their contribution to the global perspective. There were 6
123 objectives that were laid out as targets;

124 1) A common aim “to understand changes in plankton biodiversity at ocean basin scales through a global alliance of CPR
125 Surveys”.

126 2) Adoption of common standards and procedures wherever possible.

127 3) The generation of a plankton biodiversity database that would ultimately be made freely available to the science community.

128 4) The setting up of a website for publicity and data access.

129 5) The production of a regular Ecological Status Report on Global Plankton Biodiversity.

130 6) An interface between plankton biodiversity and other global ocean observation programmes.

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133 **2. Current status: Successes and stumbling blocks**

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135 Nine independent regional CPR surveys currently exist which are members of GACS (Figure 1, upper panel). One survey has ceased
136 operation since GACS was formed (the east coast of the USA) but some sampling has been maintained there by the UK CPR survey.
137 The proportion of collected samples that are analysed for taxonomic abundance differs between surveys but the lower panel of Fig 1
138 shows the annual total of analysed samples, globally, to the year when all surveys have reported data. Samples that are collected but
139 not analysed are for the most part archived and can be used for additional studies. The total of collected and archived samples is about
140 twice the number shown in Figure 1.

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142 Many of the surveys have started relatively recently; however, there are now almost two decades with more than 5,000 analysed
143 samples per year that are spread over at least 3 regions (regional seas or ocean basins) and both hemispheres. Funding is the largest
144 limitation to further expansion of CPR surveys; there is strong competition for available funds and there is a (false) perception that it
145 takes many years to realise the benefits of a new CPR survey. There are many issues apart from long-term changes that can be
146 addressed by young CPR surveys (see Section 2.2 for examples). CPR surveys that have ceased operation have done so not because of
147 lack of scientific merit, but because of a paucity of funding.

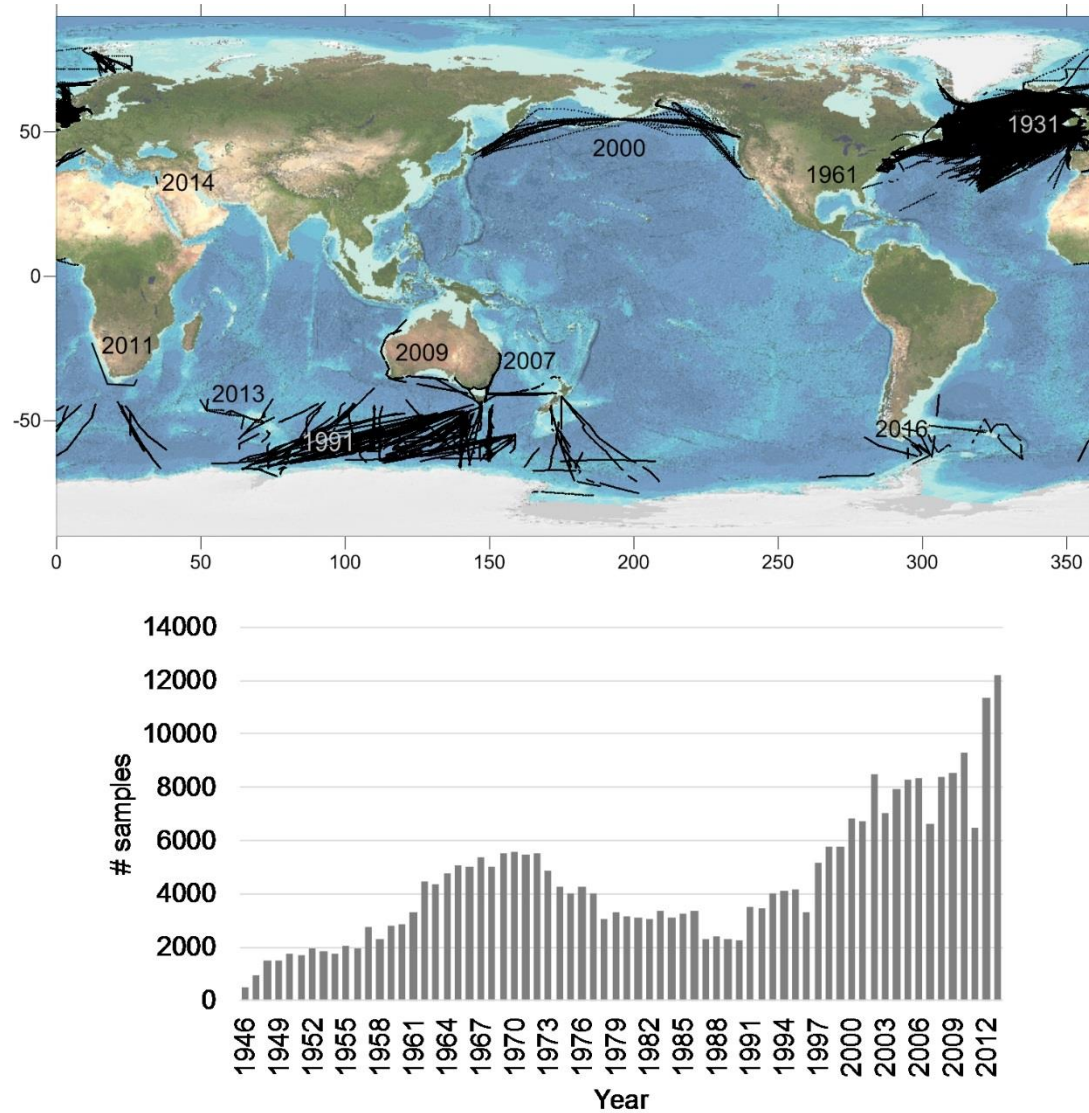
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149 Resources have also limited the speed at which the global CPR database has been developed. Building the infrastructure to link the
150 regional surveys relies not just on physical hardware and person-time in the GACS host institution but also person-time and expertise
151 at each regional survey to format and deliver the data, some of which consist of only one Principal Investigator with many competing
152 requirements for their time. While the benefits to participating in GACS and contributing to a global system are clear to all the
153 scientists involved it is nonetheless not a small task for most to isolate resources for this process when the funding source may have an
154 entirely national or regional focus. Creation of the CPR global database is a significant step for marine ecology as the only other
155 plankton data at a similar spatial scale is currently from remote sensing. Although satellite data have global ocean coverage, they can
156 only provide information on phytoplankton biomass and a few key functional groups, and cannot be used to examine oceanic or trans-
157 oceanic changes in species and, therefore, biodiversity. Once the global CPR database is fully developed it can be interrogated to
158 support integrated global analyses of CPR data, furthering understanding of near-global scale plankton dynamics and of inter-regional
159 connectivity of pelagic habitats.

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Figure 1. Upper panel shows the CPR transect locations together with the year of inception of that local survey. Lower panel shows the combined total number of CPR samples that have had plankton counts determined.

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167 **2.1 Defining best practices, capacity building and new surveys**

168 CPR surveys share many methodological similarities. These include the CPR device itself (the same design is used by all surveys
169 except the Southern Ocean (SO) surveys, which use a slightly modified version for deployment in sea ice), the silk mesh for capturing
170 plankton (all sourced from the parent organisation), and methods for phytoplankton counting (see Richardson et al. (2006) for details).
171 New surveys, however, are not constrained by maintaining the consistency of a time series and can modify the methods to better
172 address their primary research questions. For example, surveys have different frequencies of deployment and this is not only related to
173 cost: some surveys (e.g., in the North Atlantic) tow monthly to address questions concerning phenology and succession in
174 temperate/polar regions, while other surveys (e.g., Australian CPR survey (AusCPR) tow every 3 months in (less seasonal) tropical
175 regions to address inter-annual variation. Another difference among surveys is the method of zooplankton counting: some surveys in
176 (diverse) tropical regions wash the plankton off the mesh for identification of taxa to a higher taxonomic level because the focus is on
177 changes in diversity with climate change (e.g., AusCPR) or to avoid the need for a purpose-built microscope (e.g. New Zealand CPR
178 and SO-CPR), while other surveys complete on-mesh analysis (which is more challenging for species-level identification of smaller
179 species) that is well-suited to the larger organisms and lower diversity of temperate regions (e.g., the North Atlantic). Therefore,
180 surveys in different regions have bespoke research questions, and thus some of the detailed methodology has been modified
181 accordingly, precluding the use of identical methods across all surveys. However, these methodological differences can be viewed as
182 being akin to measuring temperature in the ocean on different platforms (e.g., satellites, moorings, XBTs or Argo floats) at different
183 spatial and temporal resolutions – each platform by itself is useful for answering specific questions, but their data can be successfully
184 integrated into global temperature products. The similarity of the same sampling device – the CPR – and the species-level plankton
185 identification – are key to the comparability of the data. This comes with some caveats though, as abundances from the CPR are semi-
186 quantitative, providing consistent information on spatial and temporal variation, but not on absolute abundance, which is usually better
187 measured with other sampling techniques (Batten et al. 2003, Clark et al. 2001, Richardson et al. 2004, 2006, John et al. 2001, Lewis
188 et al. 2006).

189

190 An early focus of GACS has been to prepare manuals and materials to document the standard procedures used in all aspects of CPR
191 deployment, maintenance and sample processing and archiving by the North Atlantic survey at the Marine Biological Association, UK
192 (now home to the former Sir Alister Hardy Foundation for Ocean Science (SAHFOS) that also hosts GACS). Technicians from
193 several nations that have subsequently initiated new surveys have attended training courses held by the North Atlantic survey. A short-
194 term goal is to make those documents accessible to all through the Ocean Best Practices Repository.

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197 **2.2 The diversity of applications of CPR data**

198 Continuous Plankton Recorder data have been used to study a multitude of scientific and societal questions (Table 1). The assessment
199 of global issues such as climate change (e.g. Hinder *et al.*, 2014) and fisheries (e.g. Batten et al, 2018) provide the means to recognize
200 similar trends in different areas. The survey has also been successful in evaluating regional stressors (e.g. Vezzulli *et al.*, 2016) or
201 distinct events with globally applicable results or methodologies (Hallegraeff *et al.*, 2014). Here (Table 1) we do not aim to provide an
202 exhaustive list of the CPR bibliography but rather a sample of the breadth and depth of knowledge produced through the various
203 surveys.

204

205 Table 1. A selection of publications using CPR data to demonstrate the breadth of applications.

Subject	Area/Timeframe	Main results	Reference
Pollution	Irish Sea 1996 vs long-term	After the Sea Empress oil spill, a shift in zooplankton community composition and a decrease in population spawning was observed when comparing long term to post spill data.	(Batten <i>et al.</i> , 1998)
Pollution	North Sea, North Atlantic 1960s- 1990s	An increase of microplastics towards the end of the previous century was recorded from CPR samples, with oceanic areas having less microplastics than closed systems.	Thompson <i>et al.</i> , 2004
Bio-accumulation/Pollution	Northwest Atlantic	Methylmercury (MeHg), a harmful neurotoxin, concentrations as modeled from CPR phytoplankton data, predict that climate change forcing will have a profound effect in methylmercury concentrations and linear increases across trophic groups.	Schartup <i>et al.</i> , 2018
Alien species dispersal	English Channel to North-East Atlantic	<i>Coscinodiscus wailesii</i> , is a non-indigenous diatom, with detrimental effects to fish populations around the UK ¹ . The survey tracks its appearance, dispersal, subsequent establishment as well as assesses and defines its interaction within the communities ² .	¹ Boalch and Harbour, 1977 ² Edwards <i>et al.</i> , 2001
Fisheries	Bering Sea 2000-2014	A fifteen year CPR dataset revealed alternating patterns of zooplankton and phytoplankton abundances to be linked to the biennial Pink Salmon class strength. The evidence of a trophic cascade may be used as a predictor for future population trends.	(Batten <i>et al.</i> , 2018)
Fisheries	North Sea 1948-1997	Unsustainable fishing practices and the subsequent 1977-1982 ban on herring fishing ³ is reflected in changes within the planktonic community. The findings support the importance of top down regulation effect to ecosystem changes in complex ecosystems ⁴ .	³ Koslow, 1983 ⁴ Reid <i>et al.</i> , 2000
Fisheries	1951-2005	Blue-whiting spawning seems to be induced by a narrow window of conditions	Miesner and

	North Atlantic, North Sea	suggested to be optimal for the survival of the larvae (mainly salinity between 35.3 and 35.5psu). Predictive tools and CPR data could be used to map spawning distribution.	Payne, 2018
Fisheries	North Sea 1958-1999	Plankton composition changes in 1980's induced a decrease in cod populations. More importantly, abundance and diversity of the plankton community in any given year was found to be linked to next year's cod stock.	Beaugrand <i>et al.</i> , 2003
Harmful Algal Blooms	North Atlantic, North Sea 1958-2004	Increasing temperatures are contributing to the increased frequency of the harmful algal blooms according to this study. A stepwise regime shift in the appearance and composition was also noted late 1988 with a high intensity of increasing HABs.	Edwards <i>et al.</i> , 2006
Climate Change	¹ North Atlantic 1960-2010 ² North Sea, North Atlantic 1962-1992	The study of cold-water <i>Calanus finmarchicus</i> and warm water <i>C. helgolandicus</i> indicates ecological adaptations to climate change with implications to fisheries catches. The species have adjusted their geographical distribution towards respective optimal temperatures ⁵ , while temporal investigation, shows <i>C. finmarchicus</i> peaks in May, and <i>C. helgolandicus</i> peaks twice with the highest peak being in September ⁶ .	⁵ Hinder, <i>et al.</i> , 2014 ⁶ Planque and Fromentin, 1996
Climate Change	North Sea, North Atlantic 1960–1999	Community composition reflects plankton responses to the NAO and the increasing temperature regime, with associations of warm-water copepods expanding to the north.	Beaugrand <i>et al.</i> , 2002
Climate Change	North Sea North Atlantic 1958-2002	The study shows severe warming of 0.5°C in southern regions. Warming of waters coincides with phytoplankton abundance decreases which in turn create a cascading effect to zooplankton grazers and higher trophic groups.	Richardson and Schoeman, 2004
Pathogens/ Human health	North Atlantic and North Sea 1958–2011	The increase of environmentally transmitted <i>Vibrio</i> infections is linked to blooms of marine <i>Vibrio</i> , whose presence was genetically determined on CPR samples. The study stipulates rising temperatures could also increase <i>Vibrio</i> outbreak frequency.	Vezzulli <i>et al.</i> , 2016
Human Health	Labrador Sea,	Genetic evaluation of archived CPR samples identified the long-term presence	Cesare <i>et al.</i> , 2018

	North Atlantic, North Sea 1970-2011	of antibiotic resistance genes in marine plankton.	
Pathogens	Tasman Sea 2009	The pathogen, <i>Aspergillus sydowii</i> , was genetically identified from CPR samples after a dust storm event, Fungal cultures and field data of <i>A. sydowii</i> had adverse effects on mobility of the coral symbiont, Symbiodinium.	Hallegraeff <i>et al.</i> , 2014
Policy and management	Northeast Atlantic 1958-2017	Policy indicators at multiple taxonomic scales were developed to formally assess pelagic habitat biodiversity under the EU Marine Strategy Framework Directive. As a suite, the indicators inform on anthropogenically-driven change as well as changes caused by prevailing environmental conditions.	McQuatters- Gollop et al 2015 McQuatters- Gollop et al 2017 Bedford et al 2018
Eutrophication	North Sea 1958-2004	A new quantitative dataset created by integrating CPR and remotely-sensed chlorophyll data suggested that eutrophication is a local, coastal issue in the North Sea and climate change is the primary driver of increased productivity. Increasing water clarity and higher sea surface temperature has resulted in a longer growing season in coastal waters which are consequently now more sensitive to nutrient input.	McQuatters- Gollop et al 2007
Model assessment	North Atlantic, Australia	As biogeochemical and ecosystem models are increasingly used in marine management, CPR data are being used for model assessment. This is particularly true of zooplankton data, which are not available from satellites.	Lewis et al. 2006; Skerratt et al. in press
Ecosystem assessments		Plankton indicators from the CPR are used in regional, national and international ecosystem assessments to describe the state and trends of marine systems.	Evans et al., 2016

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2.3 Review of the different funding models

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Historically, the major challenge facing sustained ocean observing programs is to attract long-term funding (Duarte et al, 2009; Koslow and Couture, 2013). Physical oceanographic components of GOOS have been funded by national governments rather than by international organizations such as the UN or World Bank, and this has also been the case for CPR surveys. CPR surveys have a range of successful funding models, but the most common is some type of funding by national governments through a dedicated program, supplemented by competitive grants and industry collaboration. One successful funding model within Australia has been for the small biological observing community to team up with the physical oceanographic observing community to push for a large and integrated observing system. Thus the Integrated Marine Observing System (IMOS) was born, with ~\$US 11 million per year from the Australian Government and \$US14 million per year in matching co-investment (Hill et al., 2010; Moltmann, 2011). All platforms, from physical to biological, have benefitted from being part of a larger integrated and coordinated system, allowing more direct lines of communication and influence with government. The disadvantage is that this single funding source means the program is vulnerable to fluctuating Government budgets.

Another successful model has been industry collaboration. Individual routes in some surveys are supported by the oil and gas industry, in proactive collaborations. For example, British Petroleum has funded an AusCPR route across the Great Australian Bight in southern Australia – a region of developing oil and gas interests – to establish environmental baselines and understand ecosystem connectivity. In the North Atlantic, the CPR route from Aberdeen to the Shetland Islands is funded by the oil and gas exploration company Nexen because it passes close to their drilling platform. Arguably the most challenging pot of money to access is that of national competitive grants, but this has provided additional funding for specific hypothesis-driven research such as work on marine fungal blooms (Australian Research Council funding) and viruses in CPR samples (UK Natural Environmental Research Council). The North Pacific CPR Survey has been partially funded by the Exxon Valdez Oil Spill (EVOS) program for the past 16 years. This has provided sustained funding towards a North-South route along the US and Canadian west coasts. Although large-scale environmental disasters are thankfully rare, they do sometimes provide the opportunity for initiating long-term ocean observation. Supplemented by funding from the North Pacific Research Board and the Canadian Government’s Department of Fisheries and Oceans through a consortium the North Pacific Survey has maintained two lengthy transects (including a trans-Pacific route) for 19 years.

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It is clear there is no single best way to fund CPR surveys, but having close links with the national research community involved in ocean observation, being responsive to short-term local funding priorities, and partnering with industry have all been fruitful approaches for long-term sustained funding.

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2.4 The first CPR-based Ecological Status Reports

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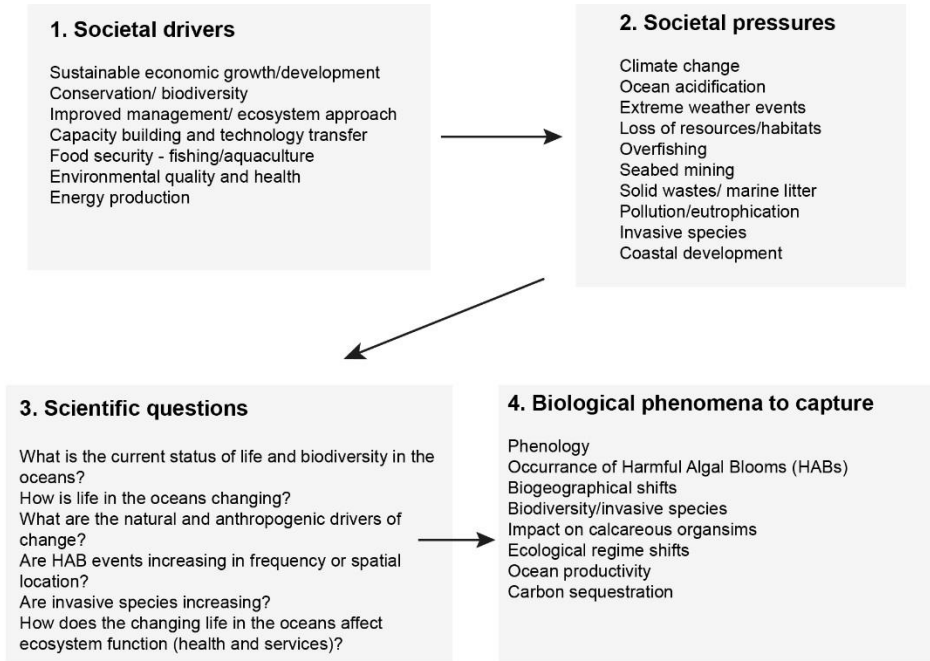
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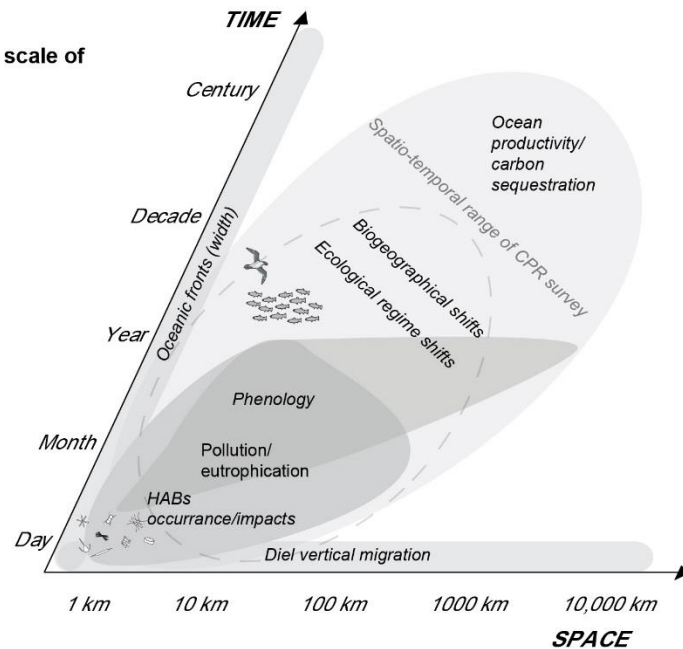
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The translation of scientific jargon into non-technical language is an important challenge in disseminating scientific results to policy makers. An important driver behind the North Atlantic survey's strategy was to transfer scientific information revealed by CPR data to decision makers in an accessible and useful format. To address this challenge, in the early 2000's the CPR program (Sir Alister Hardy Foundation for Ocean Science Annual Report, 2002) published its first annual Ecological Status Report. The Ecological Status Reports apply an indicator approach to summarize the status of North Atlantic plankton using data and research from the CPR survey. The indicators were initially developed to monitor annual changes in key attributes of planktonic systems with a particular emphasis on indicators that were relevant to evolving UK policy and marine ecosystem management. This strategy of using indicators to clearly communicate the relevance of the CPR was particularly important to the funders of the North Atlantic CPR Survey such as the UK's Department of Environment, Food, and Rural Affairs (Defra). Defra continue to be the major funder of the North Atlantic CPR survey, with CPR data and science integral to informing UK and EU policy (see also policy section, 2.5).

Marine management drivers continue to influence research using CPR Survey data. Management and policy drivers have co-evolved with the survey, from purely a fisheries perspective in the 1940s to a whole ecosystem approach to management in the 21st century (Edwards et al. 2010). This close alignment with management and policy needs and the continued relevance of the CPR survey in providing large-scale evidence of marine ecosystem and anthropogenic changes (Figure 2) is one of the reasons why the North Atlantic CPR Survey has survived for 80 years, when many time-series have not lasted more than a decade (Koslow and Couture, 2013). CPR data (as summary metrics) from several regional surveys have also contributed to the International Group for Marine Ecological Time Series (IGMETS) report. An ongoing effort, this presents an analysis and overview of oceanic trends based on a collection of over 340 in situ marine ecological time series (see <https://igmets.net/report>), and supplemented with satellite-based spatio-temporal SST and chlorophyll background fields (UNESCO, 2017).



5. Spatial and temporal scale of biological phenomena



262 Figure 2: Key societal drivers and pressures on the marine environment and the aspects of plankton dynamics used to capture
263 their impacts on the oceans. The aspects of plankton dynamics addressed occur at multiple spatial and temporal scales and
264 therefore require monitoring by a system, such as the CPR survey network, which operates at similar scales. Based on Edwards
265 et al (2010).
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267 Since the formation of GACS in 2011 the CPR Ecological Status Reports have been used to report on changes by all the CPR regional
268 surveys and give the international community a global perspective on plankton community change (Edwards et al. 2016). These
269 Global Ecological Status Reports maintain the indicator approach, quantifying marine climate change impacts (biogeographical shifts,
270 phenology), changes in ecosystem health (water quality, marine pathogens), changes in ecosystem state (biodiversity, invasive
271 species). They continue to evolve and adopt new indicators, such as ocean acidification and marine microplastics, as new
272 anthropogenic issues emerge (Edwards et al. 2016). Looking to the future, the Global Ecological Status Reports will be used to report
273 metrics to global initiatives such as the EOVs and EBVs for GOOS, the marine component of GEO BON (MBON, Marine
274 Biodiversity Observation Network) and the IPCC. They also support the recent recommendations made by G7 Ministers of Science
275 which include to “Support an enhanced system of ocean assessment through the UN Regular Process for Global Reporting and
276 Assessment of the State of the Marine Environment that would help develop a consensus view on the state of the oceans on a regular
277 timescale. This would in turn enable sustainable management strategies to be developed and implemented across the G7 group and
278 beyond.
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2.5 CPR-derived metrics in marine policy

282 The CPR Survey has co-evolved with policy drivers and through the Survey's development of policy-relevant applied indicators, the
283 CPR has played an integral part in providing relevant, targeted evidence for UK, European and international decision-makers
284 (Edwards et.al. 2010). While CPR data and science have contributed to national ecosystem state assessments in the UK (UKMMAS
285 2010), USA (e.g. Zador and Yasumiishi, 2017), Canada (Chandler et al, 2017), and Australia (Evans et al. 2016; Richardson et al.
286 2015), the survey's transboundary nature has enabled it to play a key role in supporting regional policy and management initiatives.
287 The European Union's Marine Strategy Framework Directive (MSFD) takes an ecosystem approach to achieving Good Environmental
288 Status in Europe's regional seas. Uniquely, the CPR survey's pan-European nature supports collection of plankton data at this regional
289 scale. CPR data were, therefore, fundamental to the conception, development, and delivery of two Northeast Atlantic-wide pelagic
290 habitats indicators for the EU's Marine Strategy Framework Directive (OSPAR 2017). The first indicator uses plankton functional
291 groups, or lifeforms, to reveal change in plankton communities while the second uses the Phytoplankton Colour Index and total
292 copepod abundance to assess changes in plankton biomass and abundance (McQuatters-Gollop et al 2015). Both indicators are

293 dependent on the taxonomic data collected by the CPR, with the underlying genus- and species-level information integral to
294 interpreting indicator change to inform a program of management measures in the UK and the OSPAR (Northeast Atlantic Regional
295 Seas Commission) region (McQuatters-Gollop et al 2017).

296
297 Another example of a CPR survey's contribution to regional decision-making is through the SCAR Southern Ocean CPR survey (SO-
298 CPR), which is the major zooplankton monitoring program in the Antarctic region and supports the management of Antarctic
299 biodiversity and resources. The SO-CPR survey includes members from Australia, Japan, Germany, New Zealand, France, South
300 Africa, Brazil, Chile, UK, USA and Russia and, as of 2018, has collected over 250,000 nautical miles of zooplankton samples (see
301 Hosie et al. 2014, and the SO-CPR Database metadata record at Australian Antarctic Data Center:
302 <https://data.aad.gov.au/metadata/records/AADC-00099>). The Survey provides data and advice for use by the general Antarctic
303 research community, notably via the Scientific Committee on Antarctic Research (SCAR) as well as to national and
304 intergovernmental organisations within the Antarctic Treaty System such as the Commission for the Conservation of Antarctic Marine
305 Living Resources (CCAMLR), the Committee on Environmental Protection (CEP), the Southern Ocean Observing System (SOOS),
306 the Monitoring program of the Japanese Antarctic Research Expedition (JARE); and the Ministry for Primary Industries project of
307 New Zealand (Robinson et al. 2014).

308
309 The extensive spatial scale, multi-decadal time-series, and taxonomic richness of the CPR survey have placed CPR science at the
310 forefront of evidence provision for high-level policy and management advice. Data and research from the survey have informed high
311 profile and strategic global marine assessments such as the IPCC status reports (Pörtner et al 2014) and the United Nations World
312 Ocean Assessment (Innes et al 2016). These international assessments are key to raising the profile of marine ecosystem change and
313 are widely read by those on both sides of the science-policy interface. Integrating and analysing data holistically across the GACS
314 network through a global database with open access to data products would further increase the global impact of CPR data and
315 research.

316 317 **2.6 Instrumenting the CPR**

318 The CPR surveys are best known for taxonomic plankton data based on microscopy including many phytoplankton, hard-shelled
319 microzooplankton and meso-zooplankton. With the developments in technology that have occurred during its history, most notably in
320 the most recent two decades, there has been a push to add supplemental instrumentation which can also collect oceanographic data.
321 Using the CPR itself as a platform takes full advantage of the sampling infrastructure already in place and can extend the types of data
322 collected, both enhancing the understanding of *in situ* conditions for the plankton communities sampled and maximizing the
323 information that can be gained from having the instrument in the water.

324 The North Atlantic CPR survey has developed and used a water sampler installed on the CPR body, so far the only automated water
325 sampler that can be deployed on a vessel, external to the ship, whilst still moving. The water samples thus obtained from the English
326 Channel were used to successfully identify planktonic organisms using metagenetic approaches (Stern et al. 2015), revealing a range
327 of unseen diversity not detected by microscopic methods. Additionally, abundance of different size-classes of plankton from flow
328 cytometry analysis of the water samples has been shown to be robust and has revealed new patterns of abundance. Genetic and size-
329 classified biomass data can enhance existing CPR datasets to better model biotic responses to the environment. Alongside a range of
330 “PlankTags” (self-powered instruments that can telemeter data in real-time) and off-the-shelf CTD instruments that measure
331 temperature, salinity and fluorescence, there are a number of biogeochemical sensors that are being tested on the CPR, which can, for
332 example, measure the concentration of carbon dioxide in the seawater.

333

334

335 **3. The future**

336

337 **3.1 Synergies with satellite observations**

338 CPR surveys are the program that can provide basin-scale data similar to satellites, but although the temporal scale is far less frequent,
339 CPRs have the advantage of providing species-level taxonomic data. Studies have been carried out that combine CPR and satellite
340 data. Batten et al. (2003b) and Raitzos et al. (2013) used satellite fluorescence data to positively validate the CPR’s Phytoplankton
341 Colour Index, showing that although a simple index, it reveals seasonal and long-term trends in phytoplankton communities. Reve-
342 Lamarche et al (2017) used CPR diatom taxonomic data to associate diatom assemblages with specific spectral anomalies (from
343 PHYSAT) for regions of the English Channel and North Sea. The ability to ground-truth satellite-derived phytoplankton functional
344 groups from different regions around the world sampled with CPRs is an attractive idea. Through collaboration with groups such as
345 the International Ocean-Colour Coordinating Group (IOCCG) this is an area that should be further exploited as a short-term goal.

346

347

348 **3.2 Adding value to development of new sensors and platforms**

349 There are other simultaneous efforts to improve and extend the measurement of global plankton. The Scientific Committee on Oceanic
350 Research (SCOR) Working Group 154 “Integration of Plankton-Observing Sensor Systems to Existing Global Sampling
351 Programs”, for example, is reviewing the current inventory of state-of-the-art, validated, plankton-related measurements and off-the-
352 shelf sensors. This review will identify those that could be implemented/installed on board research vessels that are operating on other
353 globally coordinated ocean monitoring networks (Boss et al., 2018) such as the Global Ocean Shipped-Based Hydrographic

354 Investigations Program (GO-SHIP), <http://www.go-ship.org/> and OceanSITES, <http://www.oceansites.org/>. GOSHIP co-ordinates
355 trans-basin ship surveys that are repeated at least once every 10 years per transect (frequency of sampling varies). OceanSITES co-
356 ordinates full ocean depth time series observations from moorings and repeat ship visits. The WG will also identify the required
357 resources to support those measurements, as well as the data-dissemination infrastructure, and make recommendations. The WGs
358 approach is to minimize the impact on these existing sampling programs that do not yet record plankton by using self-contained
359 instrumentation. GACS data will be invaluable in providing links between such new measurements that may be temporally sparse
360 (GO-SHIP) or spatially restricted (OceanSITES) with nearby well-established CPR time series as well as provide an historical context.
361 CPR data also provide the species-level information that is often missing with more automated approaches. Many of the developing
362 autonomous systems (boats, gliders, subs, underway systems etc.) still require a significant amount of person time to set-up, supervise
363 and recover. Emerging plankton observing technologies are quickly developing but are often not (yet) robust enough to operate at
364 vessel speeds of more than a few knots, or be deployed unattended for thousands of kilometers. The time will come when they are
365 ready to complement traditional observation systems, but collaboration between networks is essential if we are to link existing and
366 new time series to fully recognize the magnitude of pelagic ecosystem changes.

367

368 **3.3 Instrumentation and analyses achievable in the next decade**

369 The CPR Survey has already developed qualitative and quantitative assays for microbial pathogens, harmful algae and overall
370 plankton diversity that can be used for indicator development of water quality and ecosystem health. Additionally, assays have been
371 developed to genetically capture plankton diversity from CPR samples, despite their preservation in formaldehyde, allowing for
372 greater scope to fully detect pelagic biodiversity (e.g. Vezzulli et al, 2016). Using an improved filter-based capture method will allow
373 the sampling of greater water volumes which will improve detection rates of species, together with metagenetic detection methods,
374 would provide a new automated method for rapidly monitoring diversity.

375

376 The CPR Survey currently deploys PlankTags on nine routes within the North Sea, English Channel and in the N.E. Atlantic. The next
377 generation PlankTags will be able to measure a greater suite of biogeochemical proxies (Conductivity, Temperature, Depth, Chl-a
378 fluorescence) and are designed for trans-oceanic deployment. A methodology for “Macro” FlowCam processing is also being
379 developed in order to explore the size and abundance spectra of zooplankton and plastics from CPR samples (or discrete water
380 samples).

381 Quantifying the distribution and abundance of plastics within the world ocean has become a necessary demand due to increased
382 concern over potential marine and human health impacts. GACS provides a promising platform to achieve the global coverage
383 required and to develop the CPR protocol further for monitoring large and small plastics that get caught within the CPR. As new

384 technologies capable of identifying the composition of microplastics continue to develop (such as the use of hyper-spectral cameras),
385 these may be able to provide a method to retrospectively analyse historic CPR samples and create a more complete picture and
386 consistent monitoring of the global plastics problem.

387

388 **3.4 Becoming truly global**

389 3.4.1 New surveys to fill gaps

390 A frequently asked question of members of existing CPR surveys is why you would choose to use a CPR when there are many newer
391 plankton samplers in use and under development? The CPR is the method-of-choice for large-scale plankton surveys, which is what is
392 needed for a global program, and no other device currently available delivers similar information at a similar cost. There are four main
393 reasons:

- 394 a. **Cost:** Research vessel costs for large-scale surveys, (e.g. fisheries surveys) are tens of thousands of dollars a day in most
395 countries. Other than a small gratuity to the crew of the merchant ships, CPR sampling is essentially free. Most current plankton
396 samplers are far too fragile for Ships of Opportunity (SOOP) and require dedicated research ship time, making them far too
397 expensive for long-term, large-scale surveys. While autonomous samplers that can cover reasonably large distances are in the
398 pilot phase (e.g. Ohman et al., 2019) there are still significant start-up, maintenance, and data processing costs. The expense of
399 microscopy required to process CPR samples is offset by the longevity of the instrument. With servicing, the CPR can last
400 decades even when it is deployed monthly on SOOPs and it is highly reliable with a success rate of over 90%. It can also easily be
401 moved between vessels since only a towing point needs to be added, there is no alteration of a ship's water intake system. Many
402 modern instruments require regular calibration and technician time. Longevity, reliability and low-cost sampling make the CPR
403 particularly good value-for-money.
- 404 b. **Species-level taxonomy:** Most other modern instruments for zooplankton or phytoplankton do not collect species-level
405 taxonomy. No autonomous vehicle can currently identify phytoplankton or zooplankton to species level. Molecular approaches
406 can identify species, but cannot estimate abundance very well, which is relatively easy with microscopy. Molecular approaches
407 also do not distinguish juveniles from adults, and females from males, which is relatively straightforward with microscopy. So,
408 whilst somewhat labour-intensive, the CPR approach provides highly-resolved taxonomic data together with abundances. This is
409 essential for effective biodiversity monitoring.
- 410 c. **A physical sample:** Many other plankton sampling techniques, such as the Video Plankton Recorder, Optical Plankton Counter,
411 autonomous vehicles, and Imaging Flow Cytobot, extract a measure of the plankton community, but do not collect a sample.
412 Having a physical sample, especially when archived and curated, allows for many additional analyses such as molecular studies,
413 other biochemical assays (stable isotope measurement for example), as well as analyses of taxa that were not able to be counted at

414 the time of sample processing. There are very likely new techniques in the future that are not currently imagined that can also be
415 applied to an archive of physical samples.
416 d. **Comparative analyses:** There is an archive of standardized samples and data from other CPR surveys around the globe for
417 comparison with new results. Wiebe and Benfield (2003) reported that there were then over 150 different zooplankton samplers,
418 with no acknowledged global standard other than the CPR. The ability to place a new regions' results into a global context will
419 increase the ability to understand a local system.

420

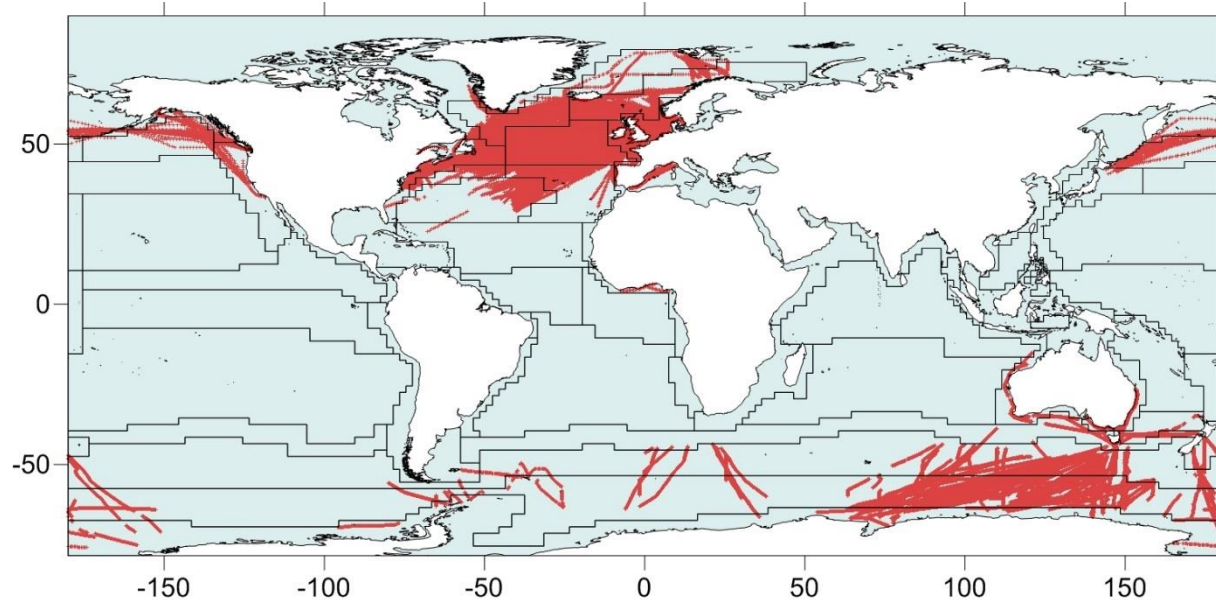
421 For all of these reasons, the CPR is the only reliable, robust sampler that can be used over large space and long-time scales – and
422 remains the method-of-choice for new plankton surveys.

423

424 3.4.2 Designing the sampling.

425 An important current gap in the GACS vision of having a global CPR survey is the sampling design. One way to envision such a
426 design is to consider the different bioregions of the ocean. There are several classification systems in use that define marine
427 biogeochemical provinces for the pelagic realm in terms of major oceanographic and ecological patterns: (a) the Longhurst
428 Biogeochemical Provinces (BGCP; Longhurst, 2007), (b) the Marine Ecoregions of the World (MEOW; Spalding et al., 2007), (c) the
429 Large Marine Ecosystems (LME for coastal systems; Sherman, 2005) which also includes socio-economic factors in the delineations.
430 Adding ecological complexity and dynamics to such essentially static systems by combining satellite data and in situ observations has
431 been proposed by Kavanaugh et al (2016). However, probably the most currently accepted global bio-regionalisation for the open
432 ocean sampled by the CPR is the “Longhurst Provinces” (first presented in Longhurst, 1998), which are 56 ecoregions based primarily
433 on the major oceanographic regimes (Fig 3). For a global plankton survey, we might aim for a network that covers all of these
434 provinces. Currently, CPRs sample provinces in the North Atlantic (e.g., NECS, NADR, SARC, NASE), the Southern Ocean (SANT,
435 ANTA, NEWZ), around Australia (AUSE, AUSW, TASM), and the North Pacific (CCAL, PSAE, NPPF). These are relatively well
436 sampled, but most of the biogeographical provinces are not sampled (Fig 3), including whole parts of the ocean including the South
437 Pacific (SPSG) and the southern Indian Ocean north of the Southern Ocean (ISSG). Coverage of CPR sampling will continue to grow,
438 but we can stimulate its development by learning from the approach of the physical oceanographic research community to building the
439 global observing system for climate. Beginning in 1997, the community released a blueprint for what the global observing system for
440 ocean climate would look like, detailing the needed temporal and spatial coverage of its major platforms (National Research Council,
441 1997). Not only was this global system designed through community discussion, but by simulated sampling of temperature and
442 salinity by different platforms from output of hydrographic models. This enabled an objective design of the system, based on the
443 needed precision of the data products. It also provided a target that could be tracked through time – motivating the research

444 community and focusing the attention of funding bodies. For example, the ARGO network, which had only 544 floats in 2002,
445 reached its design specification of 3,000 floats globally in 2007, and has maintained this coverage ever since.
446



447
448 Figure 3. Longhurst Provinces (Flanders Marine Institute, 2009) overlaying CPR sample locations (red). Names of provinces
449 are not shown to avoid clutter but can be found at http://www.marineregions.org/images/boundaries/Longhurst_crop.png
450

451 As the physical oceanographic research community used hydrodynamic models that capture the time and space scales of variation in
452 temperature and salinity to design the physical components of GOOS, so the biological oceanographic research community can use
453 global biogeochemical and ecosystem models that incorporate plankton functional types to inform the design of a global plankton
454 observing system. There might be different designs for different objectives. For example, a key objective might be to measure the
455 planktonic component of the carbon cycle, and we could use biogeochemical models to estimate the global coverage and frequency of
456 observations of the critical zooplankton functional groups. Another key objective might be to measure zooplankton productivity
457 supporting fisheries and we could use ecosystem models that include plankton and fish for this purpose. In this way, we could develop
458 a design – or an amalgamation of a few designs – for a global plankton observing system. Different plankton sampling methods (say
459 time series from nets or zooplankton size spectra from LOPC) can be integrated into a global observing program, although they each

460 measure different yet complementary aspects of the zooplankton community, as do the different oceanographic platforms that
461 currently measure temperature and salinity in GOOS. The key might not be the design itself, but that there is a coherent, defensible
462 vision that the international community could own and promote. Such a design would also provide target against which progress could
463 be measured.

464
465

466 **3.5 Delivering indicators for global marine policy**

467 The CPR survey's scale is approaching global coverage and so the survey is uniquely placed to inform transboundary, basin-scale,
468 ocean-scale, and even global-scale management efforts. Besides climate change impacts, which are indeed global, many human
469 induced pressures on the marine environment and biodiversity are transboundary across the EEZs of multiple-countries and from
470 EEZs to the high seas as well, e.g. chemical and debris pollution, fisheries, maritime operations and offshore industries. International
471 policy mechanisms should be established to ensure effective conservation and management planning of global marine ecosystems.
472 The need for such a globally integrated mechanism has been further recognized since the Ocean Summit in 2017 where the UN agreed
473 their commitment to maintain and achieve a "healthy ocean". The spatial extent of the Global Alliance of CPR Surveys enables
474 coherence between different projects for assessments contributing to international high-level policy and management initiatives.

475
476 Several opportunities for contributions of the CPR to global policy mechanisms exist in UN led agendas such as the 2030 Agenda on
477 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs; <https://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/sustainable-development-goals/>), Convention of
478 Biological Diversity (CBD) post-2020 global biodiversity framework (Convention on Biological Diversity, 2017), and the
479 conservation and sustainable use of marine biological diversity Beyond Boundaries of National Jurisdiction (BBNJ;
480 <https://www.un.org/bbnj/>). For SDG14: Life Below Water, CPR data can provide scientific evidence useful in development of global
481 indicators to report the achievement for the Goal 14.1 on pollution, 14.2 on ecosystem-based approaches, 14.3 on ocean acidification,
482 and 14.5 on marine protected areas. Such indicators could be developed and assessed at the regional or basin scale and reported
483 through national mechanisms, enabling direct comparability between seas and national waters and allowing examination of change in
484 a global context. Plankton information including the CPR data are currently not used in the global indicator suites of the current CBD
485 framework or Aichi Targets despite the fact that the CPR's scientific quality and data coverage could exceed the requirement of these
486 indicators (Chiba et al, 2018). This issue may be solved in the post-2020 framework in which a more harmonized collaboration of
487 different UN organizations, such as IOC-GOOS and UNEP, will be expected.

488

489 It is worth noting that both in the SDGs and CBD many of the established or proposed global indicators are to indicate the “response”
490 of society, while the development of robust “state” indicators to indicate the status of the ecosystem and biodiversity, and which are
491 needed to fill the gap of the indicator suites particularly in the marine realm, have not yet been specified. One way to promote this will
492 be by establishing protocols that streamline GOOS EOVs to global indicators. Robust indicators will be developed by coupling
493 plankton EOVs and physical and biogeochemical EOVs (part of the GOOS 2030 strategy, in prep.). This will also strengthen the
494 current Framework for Ocean Observing scheme of global ocean observation (Lindstrom, 2012), which has not yet identified the
495 explicit methodology/strategy in feedback of the observation outcome (data) to policy.

496
497 Finally, global CPR data can provide scientific evidence useful for negotiating BBNJ where a lack of biodiversity data in the High
498 Seas makes assessment of ecosystems in the High Seas difficult (United Nations, 2017), and has been one of the obstacles for
499 establishment of the internationally agreed (Wright et al, 2016), effective conservation and management policy of BBNJ.

500 501 **Conclusion**

502 “Locally Strong, Globally Connected” is the rationale that underpins GACS and it remains the best way to develop a global plankton
503 diversity monitoring network. The decade since OceanObs 2009 has seen dramatic changes in the coverage of CPR surveys,
504 collaborative studies and in the degree to which the data are applied to marine resource management policies. As the biological focus
505 of the GOOS matures during the next decade, and with the UN Decade of Ocean Science for Sustainable Development (2021-2030)
506 about to start, the importance of extending GACS and realising its full potential could not be greater, nor more timely. A global
507 network of CPR surveys has been initiated. What is needed now is a coordinated approach; to fill gaps in current coverage of large
508 ocean tracts, integrate with other plankton sampling programs that operate in regions not appropriate for CPRs, ground-truth emerging
509 technologies and satellite observations, and integrate with other Essential Ocean Variables to build an efficient global observing
510 program for the open ocean.

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515

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517 Significant pieces of text were contributed by: SB (throughout) AMcG, and SC for the policy sections, ME for the ESR section, RA
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520 **Conflict of Interest Statement**

521 There are no personal, professional or financial relationships for any authors that could result in any conflict of interest.

522

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