- 1 Title: On the surprising lack of differences between two congeneric calanoid copepod
- 2 species, Calanus finmarchicus and C. helgolandicus

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#### 12 Abstract:

- 13 The important calanoid copepod species Calanus finmarchicus and C. helgolandicus have
- 14 distinct geographic ranges which are changing under the influence of climate change.
- 15 Understanding the mechanisms underlying their distributions is becoming increasingly
- important as a result of the possible ecological impacts of these range shifts. Here we review
- inter-species differences in key life cycle traits that influence each species' geographic
- distribution, in particular development and growth, fecundity, feeding behaviour, vertical
- 19 migration and overwintering behaviour. The distinct temperature niche of each species leads
- 20 to an a priori assumption that the response of life cycle traits to temperature is a key
- 21 determinant of their contrasting geographic distributions. A new development model was
- 22 created to reconcile published experimental development times for each species. Model

23 output indicates that at temperatures below approximately 12-13 °C, C. finmarchicus is the faster developing species, but above these temperatures C. helgolandicus develops more 24 quickly. Conventionally *Calanus* development time is assumed to decrease monotonically 25 26 with temperature; however our model indicates that the response of development time to 27 temperature is instead U-shaped. Differences in life cycle aspects such as seasonality and vertical structuring are interpreted in light of this development model. Body size and lipid 28 accumulation abilities could be significant influences on each species' geographic 29 distribution; however evidence is consistent with inter-species differences not existing for 30 31 these traits. Published evidence shows that inter-species differences in egg production may exist, but do not follow a clear pattern. Diapause is an important and well studied life cycle 32 adaptation of C. finmarchicus, but has received little attention in C. helgolandicus. We 33 34 synthesised knowledge of diapause and suggest the hypothesis that C. helgolandicus is 35 restricted to continental shelf regions as a result of an inability to diapause for significant periods. This synthesised view of each species' respective life cycle traits is that response of 36 37 growth and development to temperature is the only known difference between each species, 38 which indicates a promising direction for the extension of population models of C. 39 finmarchicus to C. helgolandicus.

- 40 **Keywords:** Calanus finmarchicus; Calanus helgolandicus; copepod, diapause; distribution;
- 41 niche

- 43 **Acknowledgements:** This work was undertaken as part of PhD research, gratefully funded
- 44 by Marine Alliance for Science and Technology Scotland.

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**Abstract**: The important calanoid copepod species *Calanus finmarchicus* and *C*. helgolandicus have distinct geographic ranges which are changing under the influence of climate change. Understanding the mechanisms underlying their distributions is becoming increasingly important as a result of the possible ecological impacts of these range shifts. Here we review inter-species differences in key life cycle traits that influence each species' geographic distribution, in particular development and growth, fecundity, feeding behaviour, vertical migration and overwintering behaviour. The distinct temperature niche of each species leads to an a priori assumption that the response of life cycle traits to temperature is a key determinant of their contrasting geographic distributions. A new development model was created to reconcile published experimental development times for each species. Model output indicates that at temperatures below approximately 12-13 °C, C. finmarchicus is the faster developing species, but above these temperatures C. helgolandicus develops more quickly. Conventionally Calanus development time is assumed to decrease monotonically with temperature; however our model indicates that the response of development time to temperature is instead U-shaped. Differences in life cycle aspects such as seasonality and vertical structuring are interpreted in light of this development model. Body size and lipid accumulation abilities could be significant influences on each species' geographic distribution; however evidence is consistent with inter-species differences not existing for these traits. Published evidence shows that inter-species differences in egg production may exist, but do not follow a clear pattern. Diapause is an important and well studied life cycle adaptation of C. finmarchicus, but has received little attention in C. helgolandicus. We

- synthesised knowledge of diapause and suggest the hypothesis that *C. helgolandicus* is restricted to continental shelf regions as a result of an inability to diapause for significant periods. This synthesised view of each species' respective life cycle traits is that response of growth and development to temperature is the only known difference between each species,
- 73 which indicates a promising direction for the extension of population models of C.
- 74 *finmarchicus* to *C. helgolandicus*.

### 1. Introduction

- 76 Calanoid copepod species play critical roles in marine food webs throughout the North
- 77 Atlantic, and often dominate the mesozooplankton biomass (Head et al., 2003). Congeneric
- 78 species typically have largely non-overlapping environmental niches (Helaouët and
- 79 Beaugrand, 2007) and geographic ranges. Existing literature has therefore largely focused on
- 80 congeneric species in isolation. However, many ecosystems are now seeing ongoing, and
- often poorly understood, changes in calanoid copepod regimes (Beaugrand, 2012), with
- 82 congeneric species replacing each other. Inter-species differences may profoundly influence
- both the extent and the consequences of these changes. Therefore a fuller understanding of
- 84 inter-species differences appears necessary. Here we consider the species *Calanus*
- 85 *finmarchicus* and *C. helgolandicus*, which have partially overlapping geographic
- 86 distributions.
- 87 *C. finmarchicus* dominates the mesozooplankton biomass in much of the North Atlantic. Its
- 88 range covers a large part of the sub-polar North Atlantic, from eastern Canada to the North
- 89 Sea (Melle et al., 2014). The North Sea marks the northern extent of the range of C.
- 90 *helgolandicus*, which extends as far south as the Mediterranean Sea (Bonnet et al., 2005).
- 91 Historically, research has focused on *C. finmarchicus*, with less attention on *C.*
- 92 helgolandicus. This is largely a result of the vital role C. finmarchicus plays in the sub-polar

- 93 North Atlantic ecosystem (Heath et al., 2000; Aksnes and Blindheim, 1996), with it being a
- 94 key prey species for many commercially important fish (Lynch et al., 2001). This focus is
- 95 reflected by the number of papers published with titles including the words "C. finmarchicus"
- 96 (582) and "C. helgolandicus" (192) that were published until 2013 (Web of Science).
- 97 However, significant changes in both species' geographic distribution in recent decades, and
- 98 the potential impacts of these changes, have resulted in an increased interest in both species'
- 99 comparative ecology and biology.
- During recent decades the geographic range of *C. finmarchicus* has shifted northwards
- 101 (Barnard et al., 2004), while a recent analysis of Continuous Plankton Recorder data
- concluded that *C. helgolandicus* is possibly expanding in every direction (Chust et al., 2014).
- These range shifts are understood to have largely been driven by increased oceanic
- temperatures (Reygondeau and Beaugrand, 2011), and are likely to continue as a result of
- future climate change (IPCC, 2007). Evidence also indicates that neither species has
- undergone significant thermal adaptation to changing temperature regimes (Hinder et al.,
- 107 2014).
- 108 Recent decades have seen a significant regime shift in the North Sea. C. helgolandicus
- abundance now exceeds that of *C. finmarchicus*, a reversal of the situation in the 1960s (Reid
- et al., 2003). Debate remains over the causes of this regime shift (Reid et al., 2003;
- Beaugrand, 2004), however the change in temperature regime appears to be the most
- influential factor (Beaugrand, 2012).
- These regime shifts may have significant ecosystem impacts. The suitability of C.
- 114 finmarchicus to act as prey for fish species is strongly influenced by its size, lipid stores and
- seasonality (Frederiksen et al., 2013; van Deurs et al., 2009; van Deurs et al., 2014). Inter-

116 species differences in these traits may determine the suitability of C. helgolandicus to replace C. finmarchicus in terms of ecosystem function. 117 Due to their morphological similarities, C. finmarchicus and C. helgolandicus were originally 118 thought to be the same species, until Sars distinguished them in 1901 (Sars, 1903). This was 119 disputed for many decades (Frost, 1974), but was resolved in the 1990s when molecular 120 studies confirmed them as distinct species (e.g. Bucklin et al., 1995). They are generally 121 122 thought to be morphologically indistinguishable, except for the fifth copepodite and adult stages (Fleminger and Hulsemann, 1977). Long term time series, such as the Continuous 123 Plankton Recorder, reflect this, with only species specific abundance for CV and adult stages 124 125 being reported. 126 The biology and ecology of C. finmarchicus (Melle et al., 2014) and C. helgolandicus (Bonnet et al., 2005) have been separately reviewed in recent studies. The review of Bonnet 127 et al. (2005) carried out a short comparison of the differences between each species. 128 129 However, the statistics reported were arguably not very comparable and, in particular, may 130 provide an incomplete reflection of the relative growth rates and development times for both species when they co-occur. Our review is the first extensive comparative analysis of the key 131 differences between C. finmarchicus and C. helgolandicus. 132 Geographic distributions of populations are largely driven by the response of species to 133 temperature, food and ocean circulation (Speirs et al., 2006). Our a priori assumption is that 134 135 biogeographic differences between each species are a result of different quantitative responses of life cycle traits to environmental conditions. Some researchers (e.g. Møller et al., 136 2012) suggest that inter-species differences in the response of growth to temperature explain 137 138 these large scale differences. Here we provide a critical quantitative comparative review of

139 the relationship between temperature and the following key life cycle traits: growth, development and egg production rates. 140 A key aspect of the life cycle of C. finmarchicus is that it undergoes a period of 141 142 overwintering at depth, commonly referred to as diapause (Hirche, 1996). However, the overwintering behaviour of C. helgolandicus has been poorly studied; and the extent of the 143 ability of C. helgolandicus to diapause is not clear. We suggest that differences in 144 145 overwintering behaviour are an important determinant of the two species' geographic distributions. In particular, the potential inability to diapause for significant periods of time 146 147 may limit *C. helgolandicus* largely to continental shelf regions. The motivation of this study is to inform possible future modelling studies of both species. 148 149 Process-based models have shed important light on a range of aspects of C. finmarchicus' life 150 cycle. A stage-structured population model has aided understanding of its large-scale biogeography (Speirs et al., 2006). An understanding of the importance of advection for some 151 152 populations has also been strengthened by process-based models (Heath et al., 1999). At the 153 smaller scale, this class of model has enhanced our understanding of the relationship between C. finmarchicus and phytoplankton (Carlotti and Radach, 1996), the role of diel vertical 154 migration (Fiksen and Carlotti, 1998) and diapause behaviour (Maps et al., 2012). In contrast, 155 156 with the exception of a recently published stage structured model of populations of both species in the North Sea (Maar et al., 2013), to date process-based modelling studies have not 157 been carried out on C. helgolandicus. 158 159 The probable biogeographic shifts of both species due to climate change raises a need for predictive process-based modelling of these species. A key question is the rate at which each 160 161 species will shift northwards, and the extent to which community composition will change. A

more complete understanding of the differences and similarities between each species will

indicate which elements of existing *C. finmarchicus* models can be transferred over to new models of *C. helgolandicus* and potentially to multi-species models (Ji et al., 2012) including *C. finmarchicus* and *C. helgolandicus*.

## The Life Cycle of Calanus finmarchicus and C. helgolandicus

Both species develop through thirteen development stages: egg, six naupliar (NI-NVI), five copepodite (CI-CV), and a male or female adult stage (CVIm/CVIf). CV of *C. finmarchicus* are known to diapause during winter, and sometimes this is viewed as a separate sub-stage (CVd). Laboratory experiments demonstrate that feeding does not occur until stage NIII in both species (e.g. Cook et al., 2007). Lipids play an important role in the life cycle of *C. finmarchicus* (Hirche, 1996), with lipid accumulation mostly beginning in stage CIII (Hygum et al., 2000b). *C. helgolandicus* accumulates lipids, however their importance in its life cycle are less clear.

Throughout most of its geographic range, *C. finmarchicus* has an annual life cycle (e.g. Heath et al., 2000). However, in colder extremes generation time can exceed one year (Heath et al., 2008), whereas in warmer environments there can be multiple generations each year (Hirche et al., 2001). Reflecting its warmer temperature regime *C. helgolandicus* typically has

# 2 Development in surface waters

multiple generations each year (Bonnet et al., 2005).

# 2.1 Body Size

Quantitative aspects of key traits such as ingestion (Wirtz, 2013), metabolism (Saiz and Calbet, 2007) and egg production rate (Campbell and Head, 2000) are strongly influenced by body size. Inter-species differences in body size are therefore expected to influence the

respective population dynamics of both species. Size differences may also result in different ecosystem function, with a recent paper (Frederiksen et al., 2013) invoking lower body size of *C. helgolandicus* as a reason it cannot be a full replacement for *C. finmarchicus* as prey for some fish.

Growth experiments show a negative relationship between body size and temperature (e.g.

Campbell et al., 2001a). This should be reflected by geographic patterns of body size. This was analysed by considering the geographic pattern in female body size. Published female prosome lengths for each species were compared with mean annual sea surface temperature (SST) in the region studied (figure 1). We excluded laboratory studies, because our proxy for the temperature at which individuals developed, mean annual SST, is not fully comparable with those of laboratory experiments. Our comparison shows that the relationship between annual sea surface temperature and female prosome length across both species is approximately linear, indicating that temperature is the most significant influence on geographic patterns of body size.

Prosome lengths of females in co-occurring populations have been reported in the North Sea by two studies (Jónasdóttir et al., 2005; Jónasdóttir and Koski, 2011). Combining their data indicates that no biologically significant differences in female body occur in the North Sea (figure 2), with *C. helgolandicus* having a marginally larger mean female prosome length (2.58 mm) than *C. finmarchicus* (2.56 mm). We therefore conclude that existing evidence is consistent with both species developing to the same body size under identical environmental conditions.

#### 2.2 Influence of temperature on development and growth

Inter-species differences in growth rate and development time are likely to be strong determinants of differences in the viability of each species in a particular environment. Here we critically review published development times for each species to see if there are interspecies differences.

# 2.2.1 Comparison of published experimental development times

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The most extensive study of growth and development in C. finmarchicus is the classic work of Campbell et al. (2001a), which has been used in a number of population models (Melle et al., 2014). A key finding was that *C. finmarchicus* follows the equiproportional rule of development (Corkett et al., 1986). This important rule states that the relative duration of each stage is independent of temperature. A notable departure from equiportionality was observed for the CV stage, which was prolonged at a temperature of 4 °C, however the reasons for this were unclear. Additional evidence that *C. finmarchicus* undergoes equiproportional development is given by the laboratory study of Hygum et al. (2000a). Tande (1988) concluded that C. finmarchicus does not undergo equiproportional development. However, they compared individuals from different geographic regions, and did not control for food conditions. Campbell et al. (2001a) found that between 4 and 12 °C, the relationship between development time and temperature followed a Belehrádek function (Belehrádek, 1935). Development time from egg to adult was approximately 91, 45 and 32 days at 4, 8 and 12 °C respectively. Comparison with other published estimates of C. finmarchicus development time from egg to adult (Corkett et al., 1986; Tande, 1988) show very close agreement in development times across studies. The work of Campbell et al. (2001a) therefore appears to be a solid basis for the many modelling studies that have used it. Development and growth of C. helgolandicus has been studied less extensively. The first published study of its growth from egg to adult was that of Thompson (1982), which

concluded that C. helgolandicus does not develop equiproportionally. However, they did not 233 perform species identification checks (Thompson 1982), which possibly resulted in a large 234 number of C. finmarchicus individuals being used. Apart from this, the recent work of 235 Bonnet et al. (2009) is the only laboratory study of C. helgolandicus growth from egg to adult 236 to consider the influence of temperature on stage duration. Analysis of stage durations at 237 temperatures of 9, 12 and 15 °C indicated that naupliar stages develop equiproportionally, 238 239 however they concluded that copepodite stages did not. A comparison of stage durations of this study with two others (Rey et al., 2001; Cook et al., 2007) showed very consistent 240 241 relative stage durations for naupliar stages across each study, providing further confirmation that naupliar stages develop equiproportionally. 242 We plotted published relationships between egg to adult development time and temperature 243 for both species (figure 3). This illustrates apparently clear differences between each species 244 245 at temperatures at and below 12 °C. All development times from egg to adult for C. helgolandicus (Bonnet et al., 2009; Thompson, 1982; Diel and Klein Breteler, 1986) are 246 247 longer at the relevant temperature than would be expected for C. finmarchicus based on the classic work of Campbell et al. (2001). Development times for naupliar stages of C. 248 helgolandicus were also found to be longer at 8 and 12 °C by Cook et al. (2007) in 249 250 comparison with published naupliar development times for C. finmarchicus (Campbell et al., 251 2001; Cook et al., 2007). However, published development times for C. helgolandicus are not consistent with each 252 other. This makes inferring the quantitative differences between each species problematic. 253 The experimental results of Bonnet et al. (2009) indicate that at 12 °C, C. helgolandicus takes 254 approximately 10 days longer to develop from egg to adult than C. finmarchicus (Campbell et 255 al., 2001), and that development time from egg to adult for C. helgolandicus at 15 °C is 256 257 approximately 5 days longer than for C. finmarchicus at 12 °C. These differences are not

258 consistent with other published results. Cook et al. (2007) found that C. helgolandicus had a shorter development time from egg to final naupliar stage at 15 °C than C. finmarchicus did 259 at 12 °C. C. helgolandicus development time from egg to C1 was also 4 and 6 days shorter at 260 12 and 15 °C respectively in Cook et al. (2007) than in Bonnet et al. (2009). Similarly, Rey et 261 al. (2001) reported C. helgolandicus development times from egg to C1under multiple food 262 regimes at 15 °C, finding development time under 10 days for all regimes. This is in contrast 263 264 to the 14 days reported in Bonnet et al. (2009). After comparing their results with those of Thompson (1982), Bonnet et al. (2009) concluded 265 that the experiment of Thompson (1982) probably contained significant numbers of C. 266 267 finmarchicus individuals. However, the development time to final naupliar stage at 12 °C recorded by Thompson is very similar to those reported for C. helgolandicus by Cook et al. 268 269 (2007) and Rey et al. (2001). Similarly, the development time from egg to adult reported by 270 Thompson (1982) (26.21 days) is similar to the time (24.4 days) reported by Rey-Rassat et al. (2002c). The difference between the development times to adult reported by Rey-Rassat et al. 271 272 (2002c) and Bonnet et al. (2009) is 12 days, and this is particularly anomalous given that the same food regime was used in both studies (*Prorocentrum micans*). The development time 273 reported by Diel and Klein Breteler (1986) at 10 °C (39 days) is also reasonably consistent 274 with that reported by Thompson (1982) at 9.57 °C (41.72 days). 275 This suggests that the development times published by Thompson (1982), Rey et al. (2001), 276 277 Cook et al. (2007) and Diel and Klein Breteler (1986) are broadly consistent. In contrast, Bonnet et al. (2009) appears to be an outlier, reporting significantly longer development 278 279 times than the other studies. 280 After reviewing the methodology in these studies it appears that differences in dietary

regimes is likely the reason for these diaparities in published C. helgolandicus development

times. As shown by Diel and Klein Breteler (1986), diet can have a significant influence on 282 the development time of *Calanus* species. Bonnet et al. (2009), Cook et al. (2007), Rev et al. 283 (2001) and Rey-Rassat et al. (2002c) all reported development times under the same dietary 284 regime (*Prorocentrum micans*). However, Bonnet et al. (2009) appears to have grown 285 individuals at below food saturated conditions. Total volume of water was 0.5 mL/individual 286 in Bonnet et al. (2009) in contrast to 6.25 (Cook et al., 2007), 4 (Rey et al., 2001) and 6 287 288 mL/individual (Rey-Rassat et al., 2002c) in the other studies. Bonnet et al. (2009) replenished food supply every 12 hours, however clearance rates for stages NIII-NVI are approximately 3 289 290 ml/individual/day (Rey et al., 2001) when fed on a *P. micans* diet. In addition, the mean prosome length of females reported by Bonnet et al. (2009) at 15 °C was 1.95 mm, 291 significantly lower than the mean of 2.59 mm reported by Rey-Rassat et al. (2002a). It 292 293 therefore appears probable that the lower development times reported by Bonnet et al. (2009) are a direct result of the dietary regime used. 294 If we accept that the *C. helgolandicus* development times reported by Bonnet et al. (2009) 295 cannot be compared directly with the published times for C. finmarchicus then we can draw 296 the following conclusions. C. finmarchicus has shorter development times than C. 297 helgolandicus at and below temperatures of 12 °C. However, a lack of published data means 298 299 we do not know if there are inter-species differences above 12 °C. We are therefore faced with two questions. First, what explains the inter-species differences 300 301 in development times? And second, are there inter-species differences at temperatures above 12 °C? We consider these questions by developing a model of the growth and development of 302 303 each species. In turn, we are asking a third question. Can known differences in development time between the two species be explained by known differences in the key drivers of growth 304 305 rate?

Growth in *Calanus* species in essence is the net change in body weight that results from the following key processes: ingestion and assimilation of food, egestion, excretion and metabolism. Differences in development time for each species must result from quantitative differences in how one or more of these processes are influenced by temperature and/or diet, or in absolute differences at each temperature.

Before detailing our growth and development model we will review existing knowledge of inter-species differences in these life cycle traits.

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#### 2.2.2 Metabolism and excretion

315 Metabolism plays a key role in determining the thermal niche and the potential to diapause of each species (Ingvarsdóttir et al., 1999). Recently, Maps et al. (2014) summarised published 316 metabolic rates for *Calanus* species. In total, five papers have reported respiration rates for *C*. 317 finmarchicus (Hirche, 1983; Marshall and Orr, 1958; Saumweber and Durbin, 2006; 318 Ingvarsdóttir et al., 1999; Ikeda et al., 2001). These studies provide valuable quantitative 319 insight into the metabolism of C. finmarchicus in both a diapausing and non-diapausing state. 320 Only one of these papers (Hirche, 1983) is sometimes referenced as reporting C. 321 helgolandicus respiration rates. Hirche (1983) reported C. finmarchicus respiration rates 322 which were based exclusively on C. finmarchicus individuals. However, C. helgolandicus 323 individuals were not distinguished from C. finmarchicus in the experiments sometimes 324 referred to as showing C. helgolandicus respiration rates. A knowledge gap therefore exists in 325 326 our understanding of metabolism in C. helgolandicus. However, the strong relationship between body size and metabolism (Ikeda et al., 2001) suggests that metabolic rates for C. 327 finmarchicus and C. helgolandicus should be very similar. In addition, Maps et al. (2014) 328 329 concluded that there was an almost identical inter-species pattern in allometric scaling of

metabolism with body size across *Calanus* species. However, apparent inter-species differences in response of ingestion to temperature (Møller et al., 2012) suggests that the energetics of each species differ, which may result in different metabolic rates.

Assimilation and excretion play critical roles in determining growth rate in zooplankton. A number of studies have reported assimilation efficiencies for *Calanus* species under different dietary regimes (summarised in Mayor et al., 2011). However, the lack of directly comparable data means that inter-species comparisons are currently not possible and remain an open question.

# 2.2.3 Influence of food on growth

A small number of studies have considered the influence of food concentration on growth in each species, however discerning the existence of inter-species differences from these studies is difficult. The laboratory study of Campbell et al. (2001a) considered the relationship between relative stage duration and carbon and nitrogen growth rates and food concentration. Stage durations were only recorded for low, medium and high food concentration; however there was a clear trend, with both nauplii and copepodite stages exhibiting longer stage durations at lower food concentrations. Carbon and nitrogen specific growth rates were found to saturate at high food concentrations.

The influence of food concentration on *C. helgolandicus* development from egg to naupliar stages (Cook et al., 2007) and from egg to adult stages (Rey-Rassat et al., 2002c) have been studied experimentally. Both studies only considered diets that could be described as having low and high food concentration, and they indicated that development is significantly slower at lower food concentrations.

Influences of both diet (Rey et al., 2001) and food concentration (Rey-Rassat et al., 2002c) on C. helgolandicus growth have been studied experimentally. Low food concentration has a significant negative influence on C. helgolandicus carbon and nitrogen growth rate (Rey-Rassat et al., 2002c). Growth rates also appear to be influenced by dietary composition, with Rey et al. (2001) reporting different carbon and nitrogen growth rates under varying dietary regimes. These studies only considered growth at the temperature of 15 °C, therefore due to the influence of temperature and body size on ingestion growth rates in each species cannot be reliably compared. We are therefore only able to make general descriptions of the relationship between growth and food concentration for each species. The nature of the functional response (Gentleman et al., 2003) of growth rate to food concentration in each species is uncertain. However, global patterns (Hirst and Bunker, 2003) and that for *C. finmarchicus* (Campbell et al., 2001a) indicates that this functional response may follow a Michaelis-Menten relationship. Further study is necessary to provide evidence of inter-species differences. Similarities in feeding behaviour were indicated by the study of Meyer et al. (2002), which found that neither C. finmarchicus or C. helgolandicus fed selectively on different algal groups of the same size, concluding that only size selective algal feeding occurred in each species. Harris et al. (2000) also studied C. finmarchicus and C. helgolandicus in the field and concluded that size-selective feeding predominated. However, in general, non-size selective-feeding has been observed in both species (e.g. Meyer-Harms et al., 1999; Irigoien et al., 2000). Temperature and body size both have significant influences on ingestion rates in Calanus species (Harris, 1996). A consequence is that quantitative comparisons of individuals of each species from different geographic regions need to be interpreted carefully. This difficulty is

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raised by the two existing comparative studies of feeding in each species (Meyer et al., 2002; Møller et al., 2012), with both studies raising each species at significantly different temperatures. The smaller size of C. helgolandicus than C. finmarchicus in existing feeding studies is likely to partially explain any inter-species differences in absolute ingestion rate, due to allometric scaling of ingestion rate (Wirtz, 2013). The results of Meyer et al. (2002) showed higher ingestion rates for nauplii, copepodite and adult female C. finmarchicus than for C. helgolandicus. However, the temperature at which individuals were raised and feeding experiments conducted, 10 °C for C. finmarchicus and 15 °C for C. helgolandicus, means that differences between the two species' ingestion rates cannot be confidently related to inter-species differences rather than the influence of temperature on body size and ingestion. The recent study of Møller et al. (2012), which measured clearance rate over a wide temperature range for both species, provides a more accurate quantification of the differences between each species' ingestion rates. Clearance rate for females, normalized to the fraction of its maximum clearance rate, was higher for C. finmarchicus below 11 °C, but higher for C. helgolandicus above 11 °C (figure 4). A dome shaped response of ingestion rate to temperature was found for both species, with optimum temperature for C. finmarchicus being approximately 11 °C and C. helgolandicus being 13 °C. The significant differences of the temperature at which individuals were raised; 5 °C for C. finmarchicus and 15 °C for C. helgolandicus would have resulted in C. finmarchicus females being significantly larger than C. helgolandicus. This, coupled with potential acclimatization effects, means that future study of clearance rates of individuals raised under identical conditions is needed to clarify our understanding of inter-species differences. It was generally assumed that Calanus species do not consume small cells, i.e. those that are "filtered" (Meyer et al., 2002). However, evidence indicates that C. helgolandicus consumes small cells (Meyer et al., 2002), and has been raised to adult stages on a diet of *Isochrysis* 

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galbana (Irigoien et al., 2000). Naupliar stages of *C. helgolandicus* appear to require higher food concentrations and develop more slowly when feeding on smaller cells (Cook et al., 2007). *C. finmarchicus* is also known to consume small cells (Harris et al., 2000; Båmstedt et al., 1999). Feeding studies of both species grown under the same environmental conditions will be needed to confirm if there is an inter-species difference in feeding on small cells.

Reviewing published studies of ingestion, ability to assimilate food and metabolism indicates

#### 2.2.4 Growth and Development Model

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that we can only make direct quantitative comparisons of the relationship between ingestion rate and temperature. We therefore hypothesised that inter-species differences in the response of ingestion rate to temperature alone can explain a large part of the difference in published development times, and we tested this by developing a new development model. Published development times for C. finmarchicus (Campbell et al., 2001a, Corkett et al., 1986) and C. helgolandicus (Bonnet et al., 2009; Rey-Rassat et al, 2002c; Thompson, 1982; Diel and Klein Breteler, 1986) were used for parameterisation and model testing purposes. Allometric scaling of key functions with body size suggests that stage based development can be dispensed with and replaced with a more simplified view of development that will maintain the key quantitative aspects of development. Ingestion and metabolic rates are therefore assumed to be stage independent in our model, i.e. they only depend on body size and temperature. Molting between stages is influenced strongly by body weight, and we assume that molting body weight is pre-determined, referring to this as the critical molting weight (Carlotti et al., 1993). Consideration of published body sizes (figure 2) indicates that terminal body size is the same for both species under identical environmental conditions, and that body size under food saturated conditions is determined by temperature (Campbell et al., 2001a). We therefore assume that terminal adult body weight is determined by temperature.

425 Carbon weight was used as our measure of body weight. Development in stage CV of C. finmarchicus is a combination of structural growth and lipid accumulation. Lipid 426 accumulation occurs on a large scale in CV of C. finmarchicus as a precursor to 427 overwintering, however C. helgolandicus may not accumulate lipids on the same scale. 428 Consequently, we have parameterised our development model only up to the start of CV. As 429 a result of a lack of comparable experimental data on the relationship between development 430 431 time and food concentration for each species we assume food-saturated conditions throughout. 432 Ingestion of carbon is governed by two processes: the relationship between maximum carbon 433 ingestion rate (units:  $\mu$   $(g, h^{-1})$ ) and body size (units:  $\mu$  (g)),  $f_1$ , and the relationship between 434 carbon ingestion rate and temperature,  $f_2$ . Ingestion rate in zooplankton is understood to be 435 436 strongly influenced by body size (Wirtz, 2013). Saiz and Calbet (2007) showed that 437 maximum ingestion rate has approximately three quarter power scaling with body size, therefore we set  $f_1$  to be  $\mu w^{0.75}$ , where w is carbon weight ( $\mu$   $\mathcal{G}$ ) and  $\mu$  is a parameter to be 438 fitted within boundaries estimated from Saiz and Calbet (2007). The form of  $f_2$  is a dome 439 shaped response (figure 4) taken from Møller et al. (2012). Some of the food ingested is 440 egested or excreted and therefore not assimilated into body carbon. We define the 441 assimilation efficiency, A Eas the percentage of food ingested that is assimilated, and this is 442 443 parameterised within boundaries derived from Mayor et al. (2011). This is then applied to the 444 ingestion rate to give us the rate at which food is assimilated into body carbon. 445 Metabolic costs are understood to have approximately three quarter power scaling with body 446 weight in general (Gillooly et al., 2001) and the review by Maps et al. (2014) indicates that this holds for *Calanus*. Metabolism also increases with temperature, and that this relationship 447 448 follows a Q10 relationship, i.e. each increase in temperature of 10 °C will result in respiration rates increasing by a factor of Q10. Therefore we use the equation  $Q10^{T/10}\lambda w^{0.75}$  to represent metabolic costs (units:  $\mu$   $\mathcal{G}$   $h^{-1}$ ), where T is temperature (°C) and with Q10 and  $\lambda$ being parameterised within reasonable bounds derived from the literature review contained in Maps et al. (2014). Minimum and maximum published Q10 are 2.3 (Marshall and Orr, 1958) and 3.4 (Hirche, 1983) respectively.

454 Thus our growth model is a differential equation of the form:

$$\frac{d}{d} \stackrel{w}{=} f_2 A E w^{0.75} - Q 10^{T/10} \lambda w^{0.75}$$

455 where

$$f_2 = \frac{P_5}{\left[1 + \exp\left(\frac{P_3}{T + 273} - \frac{P_3}{P_1}\right) + \exp\left(\frac{P_4}{P_2} - \frac{P_4}{T + 273}\right)\right]}$$

- For *C. finmarchicus*  $P_1 = 293$ ,  $P_2 = 284$ ,  $P_3 = 13,282$ ,  $P_4 = 29,725$ , and  $P_5 = 6.05$ , and for 456 C. helgolandicus  $P_1 = 289$ ,  $P_2 = 275$ ,  $P_3 = 39,429$ ,  $P_4 = 14,123$  and  $P_5 = 12.12$  (Møller et 457 al., 2012).  $P_5$  is a typo corrected from Møller et al. (2012) (Møller, personal communication). 458 Individuals are assumed to molt to the next stage when their carbon weight reaches the 459 respective critical molting weight. We estimated the relationship between molting weight for 460 461 CV individuals and temperature using published data on length-weight (Hygum et al., 2000b) and temperature-length relationships (Campbell et al., 2001a). CV molting weight was 462 therefore assumed to relate to temperature using the equation  $C_m = 2.037 * 10^{-10} *$ 463  $(-27.4 * T + 2084)^3.52$ , where  $C_m$  is the CV molting carbon weight in  $\mu$  g and T is 464 465 temperature in °C.
- First we parameterise our model completely for *C. finmarchicus*, using the development times at 4, 8 and 12 °C under food-saturated conditions reported by Campbell et al. (2001a).

468 The parameterisation of development to CV was performed by minimising the least squares of our model fit. This provides a general parameterisation of growth to CV for C. 469 finmarchicus, and our parameter values are A  $\not = 0.488$ ,  $Q_{10} = 3.19$ ,  $\mu = 0.0415$ ,  $\lambda =$ 470 471 0.000101. The relationship between development time and temperature given by the model (figure 3) departs from the conventional Belehrádek function, which sees development time 472 473 decrease monotonically with temperature. In contrast, our model indicates that there is a Ushaped relationship between development time and temperature. This U-shape is a result of 474 the differing relationships between ingestion rate and metabolism and temperature. Ingestion 475 476 rate appears to decrease with increasing temperatures above a temperature of approximately 12 °C for C. finmarchicus (Møller et al., 2012). However, metabolic costs will continue to 477 478 increase with temperature. As a result, carbon-specific growth rate will have a dome-shaped response to temperature, and development time will have a U-shaped response in turn. 479 We then changed the ingestion rate parameters to model C. helgolandicus and compared the 480 results with published development times for C. helgolandicus. Our model results for C. 481 482 helgolandicus (figure 3) show development times that are reasonably consistent with those of Thompson (1982) and Rey-Rassat et al. (2002c). However, as expected, they are considerably 483 shorter than those reported by Bonnet et al. (2009); approximately 8 days at 12 and 15 °C. 484 This implies that the development times published by Thompson (1982), Cook et al. (2007), 485 Rey et al. (2001) and Rey-Rassat et al. (2002c) are more directly comparable with those of C. 486 487 finmarchicus published by Campbell et al. (2001). Published differences in ingestion rate therefore appear to able to explain most of the known 488 489 inter-species differences in development time. However, future study is needed to clarify these issues. Quantitative understanding of inter-species differences in absolute ingestion and 490 respiration rates is currently lacking, along with knowledge of the influence of temperature 491 on respiration rate. Dietary regime can have a significant influence on growth (Rey et al., 492

493 2001), and therefore future studies of potential inter-species differences in the influence of food quality on development appears to be useful. 494 In addition, the C. helgolandicus individuals captured by Møller et al.(2012), were from a 495 496 geographically identical region, L4 English Channel, to those used by Bonnet et al. (2009). However Møller et al. (2012) (Gullmar fjord, Norway) captured individuals from a 497 geographically distinct region from those in Campbell et al. (2001a) (Gulf of Maine). Genetic 498 499 differentiation exists between eastern and western North Atlantic populations (Unal and Bucklin, 2010). Whether this differentiation results in significant quantitative differences in 500 501 life cycle parameters remains an open question (Melle et al., 2014), however our 502 parameterised model may be sensitive to such differences. 503 The relationship between development time and temperature produced here is 504 unconventional; however it is consistent with that produced by Møller et al. (2012), who used the same ingestion rate-temperature relationship to model development in C. finmarchicus 505 506 and C. helgolandicus. Currently, there is no data to test whether, as predicted, this 507 relationship departs from the conventional Belehrádek function. This is because development time has yet to be measured at temperatures above the turning points implied by our model. 508 509 However, there is considerable evidence that this may be the case. The relationship between egg production rate and temperature appears to be dome-shaped for most zooplankton species 510 where egg production rate is reported at a broad enough temperature range (e.g. Halsband-511 512 Lenk et al., 2002; Holste and Peck, 2006; Pasternak et al., 2013). In addition to Møller et al. (2012), a dome-shaped response has been found between ingestion rate and temperature in 513 514 other zooplankton species (e.g. Garrido et al. 2013; Alcarez et al., 2014). This indicates that a dome-shaped response of growth to temperature may be a regular occurrence in zooplankton 515 species. 516

Our model also indicates that there is an upper temperature limit, above which *Calamus* species cannot exist. At around 18 °C, the development time for *C. finmarchicus* is extremely protracted. High metabolic costs and lowered ingestion rates in this temperature region are likely to result in high mortality rates and an inability of *C. finmarchicus* populations to persist. This temperature range coincides with that seen in regions just south of the southerly latitudinal extent of *C. finmarchicus*. Similarly, development time for *C. helgolandicus* is extremely protracted at temperatures below 9 °C. We therefore hypothesise that the inability of Bonnet et al. (2009) to raise *C. helgolandicus* to adult at 9 °C results from ingestion being too low at that temperature to offset metabolism. This suggests that both species may only be able to exist within particular thermal windows. These windows are of particular interest in the context of climate change. Alcarez et al. (2014) recently synthesised research on thermal thresholds and concluded that differences in the temperature response of positive and negative elements of metabolic balance can result in an upper temperature threshold for zooplankton. Further quantification of these relationships will provide useful insights into the likely impacts of climate change on *Calanus* species.

# 2.3 Egg Production

Environmental influences on egg production play a significant role in influencing the population dynamics of zooplankton. Inter-species differences in egg production rate are therefore a candidate mechanistic explanation of the large geographic differences in populations of *C. finmarchicus* and *C. helgolandicus*. Spawning time of each species has been reported by a small number of papers. *C. helgolandicus* and *C. finmarchicus* have been reported to spawn at midnight and mid-day (Laabir et al., 1998), and mid-day and dawn

(Marshall and Orr, 1955; Runge, 1987) respectively. Whether these studies indicate interspecies differences in spawning behaviour remains inconclusive.

### 2.3.1 Environmental influences on egg production

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Temperature (Hirche et al., 1997), body size (Campbell and Head, 2000), and food quantity 543 and quality (Diel and Tande, 1992; Jónasdóttír et al., 2002; Bunker and Hirst, 2004; 544 545 Campbell et al., 2001b) all influence egg production rate (EPR). In broad terms, temperature has two key influences. Higher temperatures result in lower female body sizes, which has a 546 547 negative influence on EPR (Campbell and Head, 2000). In contrast for a given female, EPR will increase with temperature (Hirche et al., 1997). Comparisons of EPR in different 548 geographic regions are therefore challenging. 549 550 The laboratory study of Hirche et al. (1997) considered the influence of temperature and food 551 on C. finmarchicus EPR and has been used in population models (e.g. Speirs et al., 2006). However, no comparable studies of EPR in C. helgolandicus have been carried out to date. 552 Consequently, field-based studies have to be relied on when considering inter-species 553 differences. 554

#### 2.3.2 Comparison of egg production rate in both species

We reviewed published studies of maximum EPR for each species (figure 5). In the majority of studies the maximum EPR is higher for *C. finmarchicus* than for *C. helgolandicus*. This indicates that EPR for *C. finmarchicus* is in general higher than for *C. helgolandicus* at each species' "optimal" temperature, however this is not overwhelming confirmation of biological differences in egg production rate. Body size is significantly lower in *C. helgolandicus* than *C. finmarchicus* at "optimal" temperatures, therefore the strong positive relationship between

562 body size and EPR (Campbell and Head, 2000; Jónasdóttir et al., 2005) possibly explains a large part of the difference between each species in these studies. 563 The apparent reduction in maximum EPR with increased annual temperature indicates that 564 body size variation explains a significant part of the large scale geographic variation in EPR 565 across both species. However, the broad scale relationship between temperature and egg 566 production rate is still a matter of debate. A recent study (Bonnet et al., 2005) compared EPR 567 568 for C. helgolandicus at four separate stations, finding that temperature did not have a discernibly large influence. This inability to predict the influence of temperature on egg 569 production over large geographic scales has also been demonstrated by a multi-station 570 analysis of C. finmarchicus EPR (Melle et al., 2014). In contrast, laboratory studies have 571 found that temperature does have a significant influence on egg production rate (Runge and 572 Plourde, 1996; Hirche et al., 1997; Jónasdóttir et al., 2005; Jónasdóttir and Koski, 2011). This 573 574 lack of quantitative understanding of the influences on geographic variations in egg production rate within species means that comparison of individuals living in very similar, or 575 identical, environments is needed if we are to draw inferences about inter-species differences 576 in egg production rate. 577 Rigorous comparison of egg production rates of co-occurring *C. finmarchicus* and *C.* 578 helgolandicus faces a number of difficulties. Ages of co-occurring females may be 579 significantly different as a result of inter-species differences in development time. This can 580 581 have an impact on relative EPR of each species for several reasons: young females can take a significant time to reach full reproductive maturity (Plourde and Runge, 1993; Niehoff et al., 582 583 1999), older females can have lower EPR (Diel and Tande, 1992; Hirche et al., 1997), and feeding history can have a significant impact on EPR (Rey-Rassat et al., 2002a; Hirche et al., 584 1997; Niehoff, 2000; Ceballos and Alvarez-Marquez, 2006).

586 To date two studies, both carried out in the Dogger Bank, North Sea, have recorded EPR for co-occurring populations (Jónasdóttir et al., 2005; Jónasdóttir and Koski, 2011). These 587 studies show that inter-species differences, if they exist, do not follow a clear pattern. 588 Jónasdóttir and Koski (2011) reported egg production rates for the years 2001, 2002 and 589 590 2005, finding no statistically significant differences between the two species' EPR. Jónasdóttir et al. (2005) reported that C. finmarchicus had higher per capita EPR in March, 591 April and June 2001, whereas it was higher in C. helgolandicus in May and September of that 592 year. It is possible that these differences result from differing levels of maturity of females. 593 594 Maturity of females from March to September 2001 in the North Sea was reported by Jónasdóttir et al. (2005), and these show monthly differences between each species. These 595 differences may result from the contrasting seasonal cycles of each species in the North Sea, 596 597 however more research is needed if we are to properly quantify seasonal differences in 598 maturity. Dome-shaped responses between egg production rate and temperature have been observed for 599 600 a large number of zooplankton species (Halband-Lenk et al., 2002; Holste and Peck, 2006; 601 Holste et al., 2009; Rhyne et al., 2009; Koski and Kuosa, 1999; Pasternak et al., 2013.) Egg production and ingestion rates are strongly correlated in calanoid copepods (Peterson and 602 603 Dam, 1996), therefore the dome-shaped response between ingestion rate observed in both species (Møller et al., 2012) implies that there will also be a dome-shaped response between 604 egg production rate and temperature in both species. The form of the ingestion rate-605 606 temperature relationship for each species (figure 4) implies that C. finmarchicus will have a peak egg production rate at lower temperatures. Evidence to support this is given by studies 607 of hatching success rate at high temperatures. C. finmarchicus egg hatching success has been 608 observed to be significantly reduced at temperatures of 22 °C (Preziosi and Runge, 2014), 609 whereas C. helgolandicus egg hatching success appears to be unaffected at these 610

temperatures (Laabir et al., 1995). However, studies of EPR at a wider range of temperatures is needed to confirm the exact quantitative nature of any inter-specific differences. This potential temperature response may also be a further influence on the thermal niche of each species.

We conclude that at its optimal temperatures of 15 °C, *C. helgolandicus* will have significantly lower egg production rate than for *C. finmarchicus* at its optimal temperature of 10 °C. Studies of co-occurring individuals show no clear evidence of clear inter-species differences. However, we hypothesis that the differing responses of ingestion rate to temperature will result in inter-species differences in egg production rate.

# 2.4 Vertical population structuring and diel vertical migration

Both *C. finmarchicus* (Heath et al., 2004) and *C. helgolandicus* (Andersen et al., 2001) display vertical population structuring where a seasonal thermocline has developed. Studies in the Irish Sea (Williams, 1985) and the Dogger Bank, North Sea (Jónasdóttir and Koski, 2011) indicate a distinct pattern of vertical structuring in each species. Prior to the development of the seasonal thermocline there is no evidence of differences in vertical structuring. In contrast, the development of the thermocline and warmer temperatures results in *C. finmarchicus* largely living in cooler deep waters, with *C. helgolandicus* remaining at the surface in warmer waters. Irigoien et al. (2004) also found no significant difference between the vertical positioning of each species in the water column in the Irish Sea.

However, the temperatures in this study region were significantly lower than for Williams (1985) and Jónasdóttir and Koski (2011), where living in deeper waters may be necessary for *C. finmarchicus* to survive. The extent of vertical separation between the two species may therefore be strongly influenced by the temperature profile of the water column.

Differences in vertical distribution of both species are likely a reflection of each species positioning itself at an optimal point in the water column to maximize growth. Our development time model indicates that this position is probably different for both species, with *C. helgolandicus* expected to prefer warmer surface waters.

Diel vertical migration plays an important role in *Calanus* species, allowing individuals to avoid predation, and to feed at optimal times (Lampert, 1993). Comparisons of vertical structuring during the day and night show that both species undertake diel vertical migration (Jónasdóttir and Koski, 2011; Andersen et al., 2004). The only study of diel vertical migration of co-existing *C. finmarchicus* and *C. helgolandicus* (Irigoien et al., 2004) found no significant difference between each species' diel vertical migration behaviour in the Irish Sea. Both species migrated to the surface at night in the central part of the Irish Sea, but at coastal regions this pattern was reversed. No significant differences were found between the diel vertical migration amplitude of each species.

# 2.5 Overwintering Behaviour

*C. finmarchicus* experiences long periods during winter where there is minimal food in surface waters. To survive this period *C. finmarchicus* undergoes a long period of overwintering, commonly referred to as diapause, spent in deep waters with reduced respiration rates (reviewed in Hirche, 1996). The reasons for this period of overwintering are thought to be multiple, including the need to survive long periods of low food supply and avoiding high predation rates (Ji, 2011). Individuals normally enter diapause during the fifth copepodite stage (Heath and Jónasdóttir, 1999), however significant numbers of CIV copepodites have been observed in some overwintering populations (Head and Pepin, 2007).

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Diapause usually begins in summer or autumn when individuals swim to depths (Hirche, 1996) and remain there for a period of up to six months. Median dormancy duration has been estimated as 200 days in the western North Atlantic and 250 days in the eastern North Atlantic (Melle et al., 2014). Exit from diapause normally occurs in the second half of winter, but there is significant geographic variation in timing (Jónasdóttir et al., 2008). This overwintering period is known to occur at a temperature range of -1 to 11 °C (Dupont and Aksnes, 2012) and a depth range of 500 to 1,500 metres (Heath and Jónasdóttir, 1999). Some uncertainty persists in our understanding of the causes and mechanisms behind diapause in C. finmarchicus, however a large body of evidence (synthesised in Irigoien, 2004) indicates that lipids play a fundamental role. Before diapause commences individuals build up significant lipid reserves. These lipid reserves are primarily composed of wax esters (WE), the proportion of which is normally in excess of 80% (Kjellerup et al., 2012). Lipids then act as the primary energy reserve for respiration during diapause (Ingvarsdóttir et al., 1999), with lipid sacs often taking up in excess of 60% of body volume (Perrin et al., 2012), but being continuously depleted as diapause proceeds. Diapause requires individuals to maintain neutral buoyancy at depths for a significant period of time. Visser and Jónasdóttir (1999) proposed that the thermo-physical properties of lipids enable C. finmarchicus to attain neutral buoyancy in deep waters. This ability however has been challenged due to its sensitivity to the relative biochemical composition of individuals (Campbell and Dower, 2003). Visser and Jónasdóttir's (1999) model results were also based on the properties of the lipids in the Pacific species Neocalanus plumchrus, and it is unclear if the properties of lipids in C. finmarchicus are the same (Wilson et al., 2013; Pond and

Tarling, 2013).

Recently, the level of unsaturation in lipids has been proposed as a partial determinant of the neutral buoyancy depth of zooplankton (Pond, 2012). The temperature at which lipids can undergo liquid-solid phase transitions is dependent on the level of unsaturation (Pond and Tarling, 2011), and selective catabolism of saturated and unsaturated wax esters may play a key role in aiding neutral buoyancy during overwintering (Clark et al., 2012). The physical properties of *C. finmarchicus* lipids in general needs further study, and so the relative importance of lipids to buoyancy regulation remains unclear.

After exiting diapause, individuals molt to the next development stage, primarily from CV to adult. CV individuals that are to become female predominantly exit diapause after males (Heath, 1999) and then lay eggs in proportion to food supply, however there is some evidence that remaining lipid reserves may fuel pre-spring bloom egg production (Richardson et al., 1999; Mayor et al., 2009).

It remains unclear what triggers diapause entrance and exit. Photoperiod was proposed as a potential trigger for diapause initiation and exit (Miller et al., 1991), however this failed to reproduce the observed geographic variations in diapause onset and duration (Hind et al., 2000). More recently, Johnson et al. (2008) analysed patterns of dormancy duration for *C. finmarchicus*, concluding that no individual environmental cue triggered diapause initiation or termination. However, they could not rule out the Lipid Accumulation Window hypothesis to explain the onset of diapause, or a lipid-modulated endogenous timer as the control of diapause duration. Pond (2012) recently synthesised research to suggest that wax ester unsaturation level may influence the timing of both diapause entrance and exit.

In contrast to *C. finmarchicus*, the overwintering behaviour of *C. helgolandicus* remains less clear. The study of Hirche (1983) is sometimes cited as showing that *C. helgolandicus* undergoes diapause. This showed reduced respiration rates during winter, a key indication of genuine diapause, however this study did not distinguish *Calanus* species. Therefore its conclusions about the behaviour of *C. helgolandicus* remain uncertain. The only other study reporting respiration rates for *C. helgolandicus* during winter (Williams and Conway, 1984) concluded that it did not undergo true diapause in the Irish Sea. Further indications of differences in overwintering behaviour is provided in the North Sea, where *C. finmarchicus* largely retreats to deeper water by November, in contrast to *C. helgolandicus* which mostly remains in shallower waters (Bonnet et al., 2005).

Differences in overwintering behaviour between the two species could also be inferred from first principles, assuming that lipids are the principle driver of diapause, by comparative analysis of lipid content of both species. These differences may also have broader ecological impacts. A recent study argued that *C. helgolandicus* would not be a full replacement for *C. finmarchicus* as part of the diet for some fish species (Frederiksen et al., 2013) partly as a result of its lower lipid content.

Reported values of wax ester content of stage C5 *C. helgolandicus* are significantly lower than those for *C. finmarchicus* (tables 1 and 2). For example, a laboratory study found that CV of *C. finmarchicus* had three times more wax ester than those of *C. helgolandicus* (Rey-Rassat et al., 2002b). However, individuals were raised at different temperatures in this study: *C. finmarchicus* at 8 °C and *C. helgolandicus* at 15 °C. A consequence is that the *C. finmarchicus* individuals would have been significantly larger, and it is further known that

smaller *C. finmarchicus* individuals have lower lipid levels (Miller et al., 2000). The same difficulty exists for comparison of other studies of lipid levels in both species.

We therefore have two possibilities: there is an inter-species difference in lipid accumulation in the two species, or that observed differences between the two species are largely because smaller individuals have lower lipid levels. The relationship between body length and wax ester content in *C. finmarchicus* is very significant, with CV individuals of prosome length 2 mm having total absolute wax ester content over 5 times lower than those of individuals with prosome lengths of 2.7 mm (Pierson et al., 2013; Pepin et al., 2011; Saumweber and Durbin 2006). The majority of reported wax ester levels for *C. helgolandicus* CV have been in the English Channel, and the highest reported value value is 55 µg C (Rey-Rassat et al., 2002b). *C. finmarchicus* CV have on average 50 µg C of wax ester (Pierson et al., 2013) when their prosome lengths are 2 mm. This is approximately the size of *C. helgolandicus* CV in the English Channel. Therefore the recorded wax ester levels for *C. helgolandicus* are not significantly different to those in *C. finmarchicus* of the same size. This indicates that there are no significant inter-species differences in lipid accumulation ability.

Comparison of the lipid composition of co-occurring *C. finmarchicus* and *C. helgolandicus* populations is currently lacking, however a study of lipid composition of both species in relatively similar regions of the North Sea found no inter-species differences (Kattner and Krause, 1989), and that observed differences can probably be explained by environmental differences. Existing observations are therefore consistent with a lack of inter-species differences in lipid accumulation rate.

An open question is the actual behaviour of C. helgolandicus during winter. Populations exist

in regions with sea bed depths ranging from 1,000 to 4,000 metres (Bonnet et al., 2005; Stohr et al., 1996; John et al., 1998; Andersen et al., 2001). It has been observed living predominantly at depths of 2,000 metres in June in the Levantine Sea (Bonnet et al., 2005) which indicates a seasonal vertical migration may occur. This over-summering behaviour is probably a necessary life cycle adaptation given *C. helgolandicus*'s possible metabolismingestion trade off. Temperatures at the surface during summer in the Levantine Sea are potentially too high for *C. helgolandicus* to offset metabolic losses by ingesting food, therefore a seasonal migration to deeper, cooler waters may be necessary.

There are currently no studies of the duration and timing of any possible diapause period for *C. helgolandicus*. However, consideration of our knowledge of the duration of diapause for *C. finmarchicus* can be used to make some credible predictions about the maximum duration of diapause for *C. helgolandicus*. Diapause can be seen as an extended period of low respiration rates without feeding (Ingvarsdóttir, 1999), therefore diapause must end before an individual starves. The two main influences on time to starvation are total lipid content at the start of diapause and in situ temperature (Saumweber and Durbin, 2006). Throughout most of its geographic range, *C. helgolandicus* would overwinter at temperatures greater than 10 °C, and CV individuals would have body size below 2 mm. Extension of the diapause duration model of Saumweber and Durbin (2006) (updated by Pierson et al., 2013) to *C. helgolandicus* would indicate a maximum diapause duration of less than 60 days, more than three times shorter than for *C. finmarchicus*. Respiration rates for overwintering *C. helgolandicus* are not available in the literature; therefore this is a preliminary prediction.

Importantly, an inability to survive without food for much longer than two months may be an explanation for *C. helgolandicus* largely being restricted to continental shelf regions. Oceanic

regions experience more prolonged periods of low food supply, typically in excess of 90 days, than shelf regions. Therefore the inability of *C. helgolandicus* to diapause for long periods may result in low viability of populations in off-shelf regions.

# 2.6 Mortality

Estimates of mortality in stage-structured *Calanus* populations face many problems and uncertainties. Advection, patchiness of populations, and uncertainties in estimates of stage duration, among other factors, has led to the general view that the problem is intractable (Ohman, 2012). As a result there has been relatively little attempt to quantify the impact of mortality on populations. However, some recent research has attempted to provide a clearer direction for the rigorous quantification of mortality in *Calanus* (Ohman, 2012; Gentleman et al., 2012).

A limited number of studies have made field-based estimates of mortality in *C. finmarchicus* (e.g. Eiane et al., 2002; Eiane and Ohman, 2004, Ohman and Hirch, 2001; Ohman et al., 2002; Ohman et al., 2004) and *C. helgolandicus* (Hirst et al., 2007). These estimates of *Calanus* mortality have been used in population models of *C. finmarchicus* (Speirs et al., 2006) and *C. helgolandicus* (Maar et al., 2013). Both species see significantly higher mortality in egg and early naupliar stages than in later stages. However, inferring interspecies differences from these studies is very difficult. The only existing studies of each species have been in distinct geographic regions, with distinct predation and temperature regimes. Mortality can vary significantly with predation regime (Eiane et al., 2002) and temperature (Hirst et al., 2007). Therefore published mortality estimates are not directly comparable and we cannot make particularly credible conclusions about inter-specific differences.

We can however infer some general differences between each species given the apparent response of their development times to temperature. Below 12 °C *C. finmarchicus* develops faster than *C. helgolandicus*. As a result, we would expect mortality pressures to be stronger on *C. helgolandicus* at these temperatures. Similarly, our development time model indicates that the converse is true for temperatures above 13 °C, where *C. finmarchicus* is likely to see more significant mortality pressures. *C. finmarchicus* also appears to have significantly lower egg survival rates at higher temperatures (Preziosi and Runge, 2014). The dome-shaped response of each species' ingestion rate to temperature (Møller et al., 2012) implies that starvation mortality will be different in each species. The low ingestion rates of *C. helgolandicus* at temperatures of around 7 °C and below imply that it will have very high levels of mortality at these temperatures, and that this will be particularly pronounced during periods of low food. Similarly, *C. finmarchicus* is likely to see pronounced levels of mortality at temperatures close to 20 °C because the lowered ingestion rates are likely to fail to offset increased respiratory costs at these temperatures. Mortality may therefore play a key role in limiting the geographic extent of each species.

# 3 Biogeography and environmental niches of C. finmarchicus and C. helgolandicus

Inter-species differences can be discerned by evaluating the ecological niches of species in relation to the environment. A recent study (Helaouët and Beaugrand, 2007) considered the environmental niches of each species in relation to a range of environmental variables. They found that the most influential factors on the abundance of each species, as recorded by the Continuous Plankton Recorder, are temperature and its correlates, and bathymetry.

An additional question is the ability of environmental variables to explain the large scale geographic distribution of each species. Here we consider this question, restricting our

analysis to those variables considered by Helaouët and Beaugrand (2007) which have high quality spatial coverage in the North Atlantic, that is temperature, bathymetry and salinity. We used the statistical modelling method of general additive modelling (GAMs) to relate average monthly abundance of both species to average annual sea surface temperature, monthly salinity and bathymetry during the period from 1958 to 2002, with seasonality, when considered, accounted for by including a monthly component in GAM models. Monthly sea surface temperature is from the HadISST dataset (Rayner et al., 2003). Bathymetry was taken from the General Bathymetric Chart of the Oceans. Monthly salinity data is taken from the World Ocean Atlas (2009) (Antonov et al., 2010). Biological and environmental data was resolved to a 1 degree resolution, with Calanus abundance averaged in each cell by month. We used monthly CPR data from 1958 to 2002. Initially there were 170,149 observations, which were reduced to 85,007 after resolving to a 1 by 1 degree resolution. Abundance data was then log transformed, i.e. we used  $\log_{10}$  (abundance + 1). We then considered the success of these models in predicting the geographic distribution of each species, and inferred each species' environmental niche to the key environmental variables temperature and bathymetry. Model results are summarized in table 3.

#### 3.1 Geographic Range

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The geographic distributions of each species over the period 1960-2000 are shown in figure 6. *C. finmarchicus* has a range covering a large part of the North Atlantic, with known population centres in the Irminger Sea, Labrador Sea, Iceland Basin, Norwegian Trench and the Faroe Shetland Channel (Heath et al., 2004). *C. helgolandicus* has a range stretching from the Leventine Sea in the eastern Mediterranean Sea (Weikert et al., 2001) to the North Sea (Bonnet et al., 2005). *C. finmarchicus* is largely located within the Atlantic Polar Biome north

856 of the Oceanic Polar Front, whereas C. helgolandicus occurs in waters south of the Oceanic Polar Front (Helaouët and Beaugrand, 2007). C. helgolandicus predominantly lives in waters 857 with significantly lower oxygen, silicates and nutrients (Longhurst, 1998; CPR). 858 The large scale geographic distribution of both species were reasonably successfully 859 reproduced (figure 7 illustrates this for the period 1960-1969) using the predictions from the 860 GAM model relating abundance with temperature, bathymetry and salinity 861 (te(MON,SAL,TEMP,BATH)) in table 3). The R<sup>2</sup> value for the C. finmarchicus model, 0.5, is 862 higher than for C. helgolandicus, 0.4, indicating greater predictive ability. However, spatial bias 863 in the CPR data means that this should not necessarily be interpreted as meaning that these 864 865 variables are stronger predictors of C. finmarchicus abundance than C. helgolandicus. Our temperature and month only model was much stronger for C. finmarchicus than for C. 866 helgolandicus. However, the inclusion of bathymetry results in a marked improvement in the 867 868 ability of the model to predict the geographic distribution of C. helgolandicus. C. helgolandicus is largely a continental shelf species, so the greater importance of bathymetry for C. 869 870 helgolandicus than C. finmarchicus implied by our models is in line with expectations. 3.2 Environmental niches in relation to temperature and bathymetry 871 872 The southern extent of C. finmarchicus is thought to be the 11 °C isotherm (Planque and Fromentin, 1996), which also coincides closely with the northern extent of C. helgolandicus. 873 C. finmarchicus has a known temperature range of 0-16 °C (Mauchline, 1991), whereas C. 874 helgolandicus ranges from 5-28 °C (Bonnet et al., 2005). 875 876 We derived the relationship between the abundance of each species and temperature and bathymetry using our GAM models, as shown in figure 8. The annual temperature optimum 877 is approximately 4 °C for C. finmarchicus and 14 °C for C. helgolandicus (in agreement with 878 879 Helaouët and Beaugrand, 2007). The derived thermal niche also indicates that the

temperature tolerance range for *C. finmarchicus* is greater than for *C. helgolandicus*, which accords with Helaouët and Beaugrand (2007). *C. finmarchicus* is predominantly an oceanic species and this is reflected by the wide range of its bathymetry niche. In contrast, *C. helgolandicus* has a geographic range that is largely restricted to the Continental Shelf, and its bathymetry niche indicates that it is largely restricted to waters shallower than 1,000 metres. The population map for *C. helgolandicus* also indicates a very abrupt decline in population numbers at the continental shelf to the south west of the British Isles. The reasons for this restriction are not fully known. Studies in the Mediterranean Sea (e.g. Anderson et al., 2001) indicate that *C. helgolandicus* is capable of living at depths of up to 4000 m. However, we hypothesised in our section on overwintering that this restriction may be explained by an inability of *C. helgolandicus* to undergo a significant period of diapause during winter.

#### 4 Seasonality and inter-species interactions

#### 4.1 Seasonal cycles

Geographic differences exist in the patterns of seasonality for each species. *C. finmarchicus* shows a clear seasonal cycle, with a single peak in spring occurring throughout its geographic range (Planque and Fromentin, 1996). In contrast, *C. helgolandicus* mostly has a seasonal peak that varies significantly with latitude, with peak seasonal abundance occurring in spring in the Mediterranean, whereas peak abundance occurs in autumn in the North Sea and North East Atlantic (Bonnet et al., 2005; Planque and Fromentin, 1996).

The main region where both species overlap, the North Sea, sees very clear differences in seasonality, which is shown in the Stonehaven time series (Bonnet et al., 2005). This time series, starting in 1997, shows that *C. helgolandicus* has a seasonal peak in autumn, with an

903 earlier smaller peak in spring also evident. In contrast, C. finmarchicus has a seasonal peak significantly earlier in the year during spring. 904 Here we consider the trend in the region around Stonehaven since 1960 by analysing CPR 905 906 records. Figure 9 shows the seasonal pattern in abundance in the region around Stonehaven over four decades from 1960 to 2000, derived from CPR data using a GAM model that 907 relates monthly abundance of each species purely with month. Our derived time series 908 reflects the decline in the abundance of C. finmarchicus, and increase in C. helgolandicus 909 over the period 1960-2000 (Reid et al., 2003), and as in the Stonehaven time series it 910 indicates that abundance peaks significantly later in the year for C. helgolandicus than for C. 911 912 *finmarchicus* throughout the time period. Interestingly, there appears to be indications that the spring C. helgolandicus peak did not develop until the 1980s. 913 914 This mismatch in seasonality between the two species has led some researchers to conclude that C. finmarchicus is more important as prey in the diets of many fish species in the North 915 916 Sea (e.g. van Deurs et al., 2009). The causes of this mismatch between the seasonal cycle of 917 the two species are unclear. Different development responses to temperature probably play a role, with our review of development time showing C. helgolandicus developing more slowly 918 at the temperatures experienced in this region. The stark difference between seasonality also 919 suggests that different advective routes into the North Sea may play a role. C. finmarchicus is 920 known to require annual advection into the North Sea to maintain a summer population 921 922 (Heath et al., 1999), however to date the role of advection in North Sea populations of C. helgolandicus has not been studied. A greater understanding of the influences of seasonality 923 924 on each species is therefore necessary to aid predictions of ecosystem impacts of C. finmarchicus being replaced by C. helgolandicus. 925

### 4.2 Inter-species competition

It remains unclear if there is significant inter-species competition where the two species coexist. Meyer et al. (2002) is the only existing study comparing the feeding behaviour of each species in co-existing field populations. No significant differences between the two species in terms of feeding behaviour were found. This implies that some level of competition for resources should occur between the two species where they physically co-exist. However, studies of the vertical structuring of co-occurring C. finmarchicus and C. helgolandicus populations indicate that there is often a lack of vertical overlap for the two species, thus possibly limiting the potential for inter-species competition. Jónasdóttir and Koski (2011) found that in the Dogger Bank, North Sea, C. helgolandicus stayed predominantly in the warm surface waters, with C. finmarchicus staying in the cooler, deep waters. This difference however appears to be dependent on the existence of a thermocline. Williams and Conway (1985) studied differences in vertical distribution in the Irish Sea. They found that after the development of the thermocline, there were distinct differences in the vertical distribution of the two species, but prior to this there was no significant difference in their vertical distributions. There is also a temporal mismatch in the seasonal population peaks (Bonnet et al., 2005) and egg production rates (Jónasdóttir et al., 2005) of co-occurring C. finmarchicus and C. helgolandicus. This may further limit the importance of inter-species

#### **5** Conclusions

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- We have reviewed the ecological and biological differences between *C. finmarchicus* and *C. helgolandicus* and our key conclusions are as follows:
  - *C. finmarchicus* has an annual temperature optimum of approximately 5 °C, while *C. helgolandicus* has an optimum of 14 °C.

- Experimental studies indicate that *C. finmarchicus* develops faster than *C. helgolandicus* at temperatures below 12 °C. We have produced a new development model which indicates that *C. helgolandicus* develops faster than *C. finmarchicus* above 13 °C.
- Reviewed published data indicates that both species grow to the same body size under identical environmental conditions, with large geographic differences in body size apparently being determined by in situ temperature.
  - Comparative evidence shows that, if they exist, inter-species differences in egg production do not follow a clear pattern.

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- There is no direct evidence that *C. helgolandicus* undergoes a period of diapause, and we hypothesise that due to high overwintering temperatures any period of diapause will be short in duration.
- Broad scale differences in lipid levels in each species can be explained without invoking inter-species differences, and are consistent with the lower lipid levels of *C*. *helgolandicus* resulting from temperature driven differences in body size.
- Both species undertake diel vertical migration, and existing evidence implies no interspecies differences in behaviour.
- Significant differences in seasonal cycle exist, with *C. helgolandicus* abundance

  968 peaking significantly later in the year in the North Sea, where the species co-occur.
- Ongoing climate change is likely to result in the continued replacement of *C. finmarchicus* by *C. helgolandicus* in many ecosystems, in particular the North Sea. Our review sheds some

  light on the prospects of these changes, and uncertainties in our knowledge of their impacts.

  The ecosystem impacts of these changes rest in part on the ability of *C. helgolandicus* to

  "replace" *C. finmarchicus*. Importantly, many inter-species differences, in particular in body

  size and lipid content, appear to be lower than has been assumed in some literature

(Frederiksen et al., 2013). However, current mismatch between seasonality in each species results in C. finmarchicus playing a much more important role in the diets of some fish species (van Deurs et al., 2009). A fuller understanding of the potential future evolution of C. helgolandicus seasonality is necessary to get a more complete picture of the extent to which C. helgolandicus can replace C. finmarchicus in ecosystems. The strong similarities between each species lead to the possibility of hybridisation between C. finmarchicus and C. helgolandicus where they co-exist. Recent research has shown that C. finmarchicus and C. glacialis can inter-breed (Parent et al., 2012), the first known instance in any zooplankton species. Hybrids often outnumbered the population of C. finmarchicus or C. glacialis in the Labrador Sea and Scotian Shelf (Parent et al., 2012). Whether hybridisation occurs, and has the effect of masking inter-species differences, between C. finmarchicus and C. helgolandicus remains an open question. Other recent work has shown that there is more overlap in body size of C. finmarchicus, C. glacialis and C. hyperboreus than previously thought (Parent et al., 2011). This confirms the need to look at traits where species co-exist if we want to identify differences between the species. Identification of the extent of overlap of key traits where *Calanus* species co-exist will be a good indicator of the potential ecosystem changes that may result from future regime shifts. A key research question is whether geographic genetic differences have significant quantitative influences on populations. We parameterised our growth model using development times of western North Atlantic C. finmarchicus and ingestion rates from eastern North Atlantic C. finmarchicus. Similarly, quantitative inferences based on traits measured for C. helgolandicus in the North Sea may not accurately reflect those found in the

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Mediterranean. Our model therefore may be sensitive to geographic variations in genetics.

An important area for future research is the potential expansion of *C. helgolandicus* into oceanic environments. Its population is currently largely restricted to continental shelf regions, a phenomenon we hypothesise is determined by higher temperatures causing shorter potential diapause periods. A more complete understanding of the mechanisms explaining *C. helgolandicus*' current restriction to continental shelf is necessary to predict whether it will continue to be restricted to continental shelf regions, which may have significant impacts on ecosystems.

# Acknowledgements

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1008 We thank Marine Alliance for Science and Technology Scotland and the University for

1009 Strathclyde, whose funding made this work possible.

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#### Figure and Table Captions

1634

1635 Figure 1: Comparison of published female prosome lengths of *C. finmarchicus* and *C.* helgolandicus with annual average sea surface temperature in the year prosome length 1636 was recorded. C. finmarchicus references: Tande, 1982; Richardson et al., 1999; Runge 1637 and Plourde, 1996; Ohman and Runge, 1994; Kjellrup et al., 2012; Svensen and Tande, 1638 1999; Niehoff et al., 1999; McLaren et al., 2001; Niehoff, 2004; Runge et al., 2006; Munk 1639 et al., 2003; Madsen et al., 2008; Jønasdøttir et al., 2008; Stenevik et al., 2007. 1640 C.helgolandicus: Jønasdøttir et al., 2005; Ceballos et al., 2004; Ceballos et al., 2006; Rey-1641 Rassat et al., 2002b; Jønasdøttir and Koski, 2011; Yebra et al., 2011; Bonnet et al. 2009. 1642 1643 Annual average sea surface temperature was estimated using the HadSST3 data set (Rayner et al., 2003), and in the HadSST3 grid cell the prosome length was measured 1644 within. Line shows linear model: Prosome length = 2.869 - 0.0358 Temperature ( $r^2 =$ 1645 0.63.) 1646 1647 1648 Figure 2: Comparison of female prosome lengths for co-occurring *C. finmarchicus* and *C.* helgolandicus published in Jønasdøttir et al., 2005 and Jønasdøttir and Koski 2011. Line 1649 shows linear model: C. finmarchicus PL = 0.579 + 0.767 C. helgolandicus PL ( $r^2 = 0.70$ .) 1650 1651 Figure 3: Development time for C. finmarchicus and C. helgolandicus from egg to start of 1652 CV stage. Model was parameterised for C. finmarchicus using Campbell et al. (2001a). 1653 Solid lines are modelled development times assuming that the only inter-species 1654 difference is the relationship between ingestion rate and temperature, whereas symbols are 1655 published experimental development times for each species. 1656

Figure 4: The relationship between clearance rate and temperature for *C. finmarchicus* and *C. helgolandicus*. Reproduced from Møller et al. (2012).

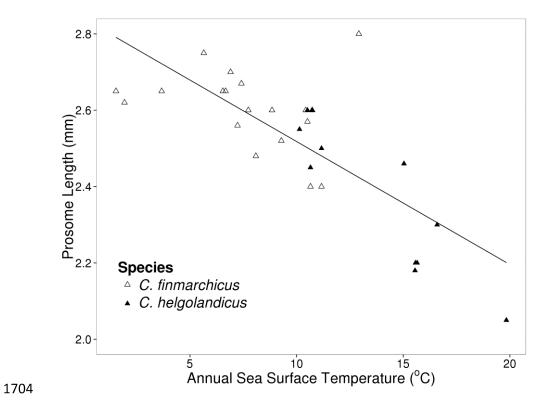
Figure 5: Comparison of published maximum egg production rates and annual average sea surface temperatures for C. finmarchicus and C. helgolandicus. C. finmarchicus: Head et al., 2000; Diel and Tande, 1992; Jønasdøttir et al., 2008; Niehoff et al., 1999; Niehoff et al., 2004; Durbin et al., 2003; Jønasdøttir et al., 2005; Jønasdøttir and Koski, 2011; Gislason and Astthorsson, 2000; Hay, 1995; Runge et al., 2006; Campbell and Head, 2000. C. helgolandicus: Fileman et al., 2010; Harris, 1988; Tiselius et al., 2012; Ceballos et al., 2004; Ceballos and Alvarez-Marques, 2006; Ceballos et al., 2006; Jønasdøttir et al., 2005; Jønasdøttir and Koski, 2011. Line shows linear model: Max. EPR = 115.35 – 4.438

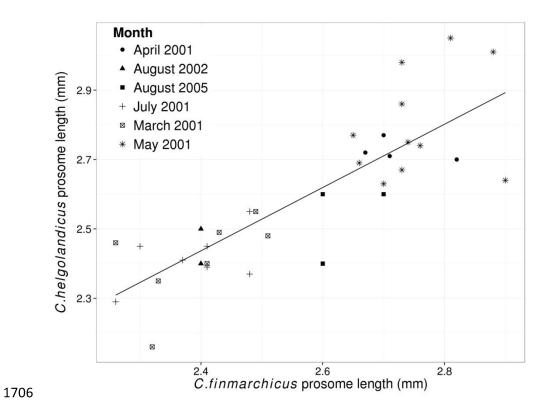
Temperature  $(r^2 = 0.175.)$ 

Figure 6: Decadal changes in *C. finmarchicus* and *C. helgolandicus* total stages CV and CVI abundances, from CPR data. Data was interpolated using Loess smooths, with a span of 0.05. We exclude any one by one degree grid cells where there are less than 5 total monthly observations in the cell and its direct neighbours during the respective decade. Colour scale represents annual abundance of CV and CVI stages.

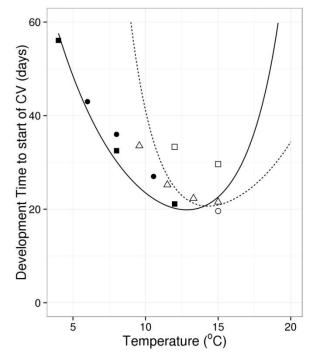
Figure 7: Average annual abundances of *C. finmarchicus* and *C. helgolandicus* stages CV and CVI during the period 1960-69 as predicted by a GAM model, which related abun-

1679 dance to annual temperature, monthly salinity, bathymetry and month. Colour scale represents predicted average annual abundance of CV and CVI stages. 1680 1681 Figure 8: Relationship of annual average abundance to temperature and bathymetry for C. 1682 finmarchicus and C. helgolandicus. Relationship is derived using a GAM model relating 1683 abundance with temperature, bathymetry, and month. Colour scale represents predicted 1684 annual abundance of CV and CVI stages. 1685 1686 Figure 9: Seasonal cycles in the North Sea for C. finmarchicus (dashed line) and C. 1687 helgolandicus (solid line). Derived from CPR abundance data using a GAM model relating 1688 monthly abundance with month 1689 1690 Table 1: Published papers reporting *C.finmarchicus* lipid levels for stage C5 1691 1692 Table 2: Published papers reporting C. helgolandicus lipid levels for stage C5 1693 1694 Table 3: R<sup>2</sup> values for single and multi-variable GAMs for Calanus finmarchicus and 1695 Calanus helgolandicus. Models related abundance of C. finmarchicus and C. 1696 1697 helgolandicus, from Continuous Plankton Recorder data over the period 1958-2002, with annual temperature (TEMP), salinity (SAL) and bathymetry (BATH), with 1698 seasonality accounted for using month (MON). We used tensor product smooths (te). 1699 1700 All p-values were less than 0.01.





1708



#### Model results

- C. finmarchicus .... C. helgolandicus

- Experimental results

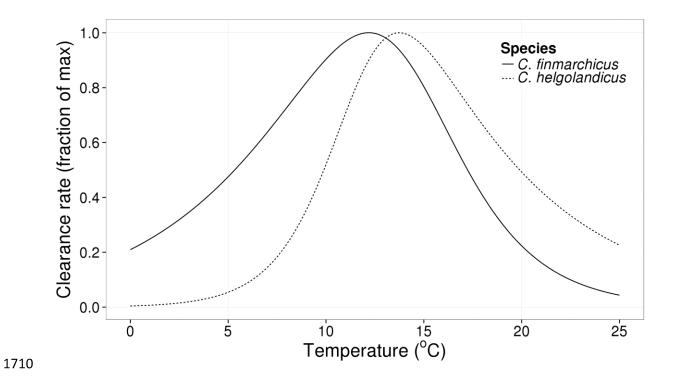
   C. finmarchicus (Campbell et al., 2001)

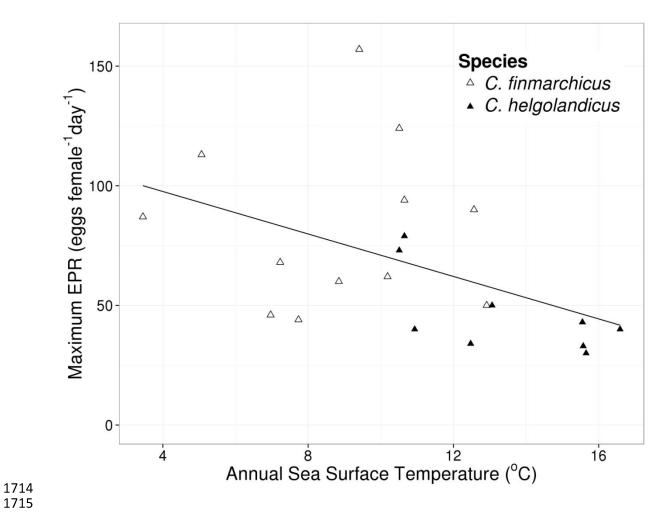
   C. finmarchicus(Corkett et al., 1986)

  □ C. helgolandicus (Bonnet et al., 2009)

   C. helgolandicus(Rey-Rassat et al., 2002c)

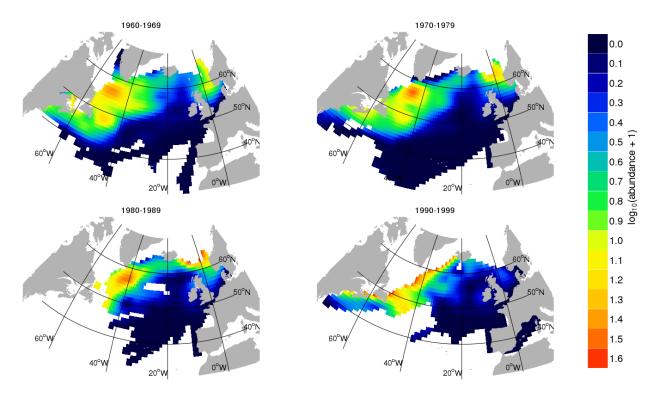
  △ C. helgolandicus(Thompson et al., 1982)



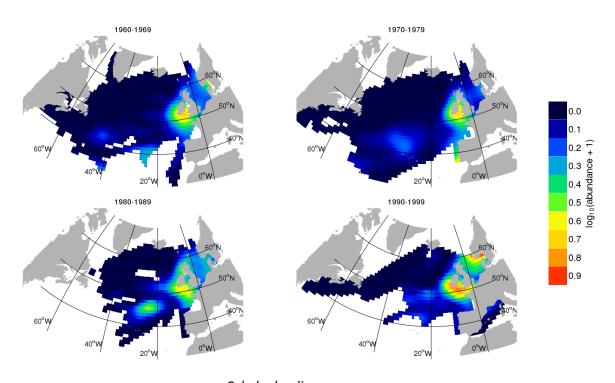


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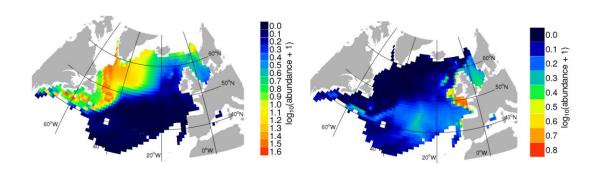
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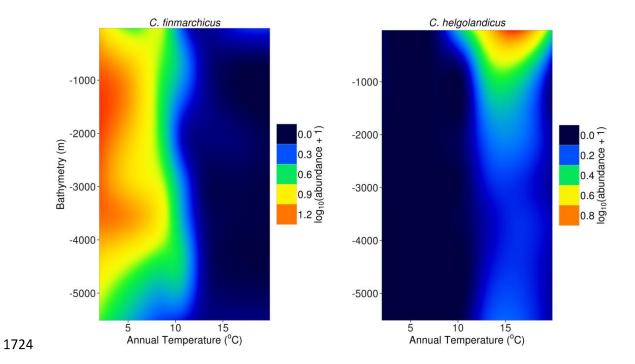


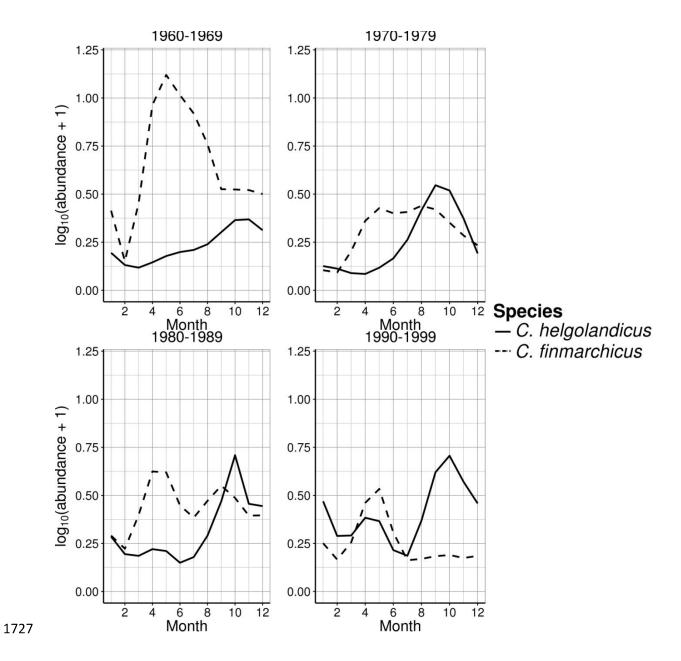
C. finmarchicus 1718



C. helgolandicus







### 1733 Table 1

1734	Reference	Location	Maximum WE (μg C)
1735	Kattner and Krause, 1987	North Sea	30
1736	Kattner and Krause, 1989	North Sea	49.808
1737	Ohman and Runge, 1994	St. Lawrence	11.356
1738	Heath and Jønasdøttir,1999	Faroe-Shetland Channel	100
1739	Clark et al., 2012	Loch Ewe	100
1740	Marker et al., 2003	Bergen	77
1741	Marker et al., 2003	Tromso	82
1742	Hygum et al., 2000a	Mesocosms	60
1743	Hygum et al., 2000b	Mesocosms	72
1744	Rey-Rassat et al., 2002b	Mesocosms	142
1745	Jønasdøttir, 1999	Faroe-Shetland Channel	200

1747	Table 2			
1748				
1749	Reference	Location		Maximum WE (μg C)
1750	Gatten et al., 1979	English Channel		50.31
1751	Kattner and Krause, 1989	North Sea		36
1752	Ceballos et al., 2006	Cantabrian Sea		21.3
1753	Sargent et al., 1977	English Channel		19.9
1754	Rey-Rassat et al., 2002b	Mesocosms	55	
1755				

1757	Table 3		
1758			
1759	Model	Calanus finmarchicus	Calanus helgolandicus
1760	te(MON)	0.094	0.014
1761	te(SAL)	0.118	0.008
1762	te(TEMP)	0.243	0.113
1763	te(BATH)	0.033	0.115
1764	te(MON,TEMP)	0.371	0.253
1765	te(SAL,TEMP)	0.26	0.206
1766	te(TEMP,BATH)	0.25	0.183
1767	te(MON,SAL)	0.237	0.173
1768	te(SAL,BATH)	0.21	0.158
1769	te(MON,BATH)	0.153	0.051
1770	te(MON,TEMP,BATH)	0.448	0.349
1771	te(MON,SAL,TEMP)	0.427	0.296
1772	te(MON,SAL,BATH)	0.385	0.293
1773	te(SAL,TEMP,BATH)	0.301	0.264
1774	te(MON,SAL,TEMP,BATH)	0.498	0.399