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- 18 Keywords: Atlantic Water; East Icelandic Water; vertical distribution; reproduction;
  19 lipid content; diapause
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#### 24 Abstract

A seasonal study of the life cycle and reproductive biology of the copepod Calanus 25 26 finmarchicus - the dominant zooplankton species and a key link between the lower and higher trophic levels within the southwestern Norwegian Sea - is presented. C. finmarchicus 27 reproduces, feeds and accumulates lipids during spring and summer within surface waters, 28 29 which enables it to survive overwintering at depth until the following spring. An inflow of warm and saline Atlantic Water (AW) enters from the southwest and meets the cold and less 30 saline subarctic waters (SAW) flowing from the north and west. This confluence establishes 31 the dynamic Iceland Faroe Front. The study includes seven cruises, conducted from July 32 2013 to July 2014. Ascent occurred earlier and over a prolonged period in AW compared to 33 the SAW. The peak egg production per capita occurred in April (43 eggs female<sup>-1</sup>  $d^{-1}$ ) and 34 May (13 eggs female<sup>-1</sup>  $d^{-1}$ ) in SAW and AW, respectively. The higher productivity in SAW 35 can be explained by larger female size, increased lipid content and better feeding conditions. 36 The increased egg production rates in May in AW were not reflected in an increased 37 abundance of young copepodite stages in June, potentially due to a decoupling between early 38 ascent and the late onset of the bloom. Descent, largely comprised by the pre-adult stages, to 39 overwintering depths was already initiated in June in both regions. This coincides with 40 41 increased lipid content, being significantly higher at depth compared to the surface in late 42 summer. A smaller portion of individuals remained within the upper layers to spawn a second

generation in August in both regions, increasing the abundance and biomass. The
reproductive phenology and stage development of *C. finmarchicus* likely influence feeding
and competition between herring and mackerel and the duration of their stay in Faroese
waters.

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## 50 **1.0 Introduction**

The copepod *Calanus finmarchicus* is the dominant secondary producer within the Norwegian Sea (Wiborg, 1955; Melle et al., 2014). It is an intense grazer of phytoplankton and serves as an important food source for the large stocks of pelagic fish such as Norwegian spring spawning herring and mackerel that migrate to this area to feed during spring and summer (e.g Dalpadado et al., 2000; Gislason and Astthorsson, 2002; Debes et al., 2012).

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The success of *C. finmarchicus* is partly due to its ability to survive long periods during low 57 food supply and to reduce predation mortality in winter (Jónasdóttir et al., 2019). The pre-58 59 adult copepodites have adopted an overwintering strategy where they migrate to great depths 60 and enter a resting state (diapause) (Ingvardsdóttir et al., 1999). During this period, the animals live off their accumulated lipid reserve, particularly of the wax esters, which 61 comprise the highest proportion of the total lipid content (Falk-Petersen et al., 2009). The 62 duration of diapause is likely influenced by the amount of lipid content, overwintering 63 temperatures and geographic location (Jónasdóttir et al., 2019). Towards spring, when 64 favourable feeding conditions return, the copepods ascend back towards the surface where 65 they moult into adults and initiate reproduction (Melle et al., 2004). The energy required for 66 reproduction mainly comes from ingested food. However, the lipid reserve is also assumed to 67 be an important energy source immediately after ascendance to the surface (Heath and 68 69 Jónasdóttir, 1999; Saumweber and Durbin, 2006). Females spawn either before or during the 70 spring bloom. The eggs are released into the near surface layers, where they hatch and 71 develop through six naupliar and five copepodite stages. Some individuals may moult into the adult stage and start a second round of reproduction while others descend and enter diapause 72 73 at stage C5 (Melle et al., 2014).

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The overwintering depth for C. finmarchicus varies geographically (Heath et al., 2000a; 75 Melle et al., 2004). In the Norwegian Sea, the overwintering population is concentrated 76 between 600 to 1200 m depths, which is within in Norwegian Sea Deep Water and 77 78 Norwegian Sea Arctic Intermediate Water – hereafter collectively referred to as simply Deep 79 Water (Heath et al., 2000b; Edvardsen et al., 2006). The Norwegian Basin, which is located in the southern part of the Norwegian Sea, is a major overwintering area (Heath et al., 2000a; 80 81 Melle et al., 2004). The presence of a cyclonic gyre within the Norwegian Basin (Jakobsen et 82 al., 2003), aggregates and helps to retain the overwintering population (Melle et al., 2014). Individuals who are not residing within the cyclonic boundary current, are likely transported 83 southwards by the deep water current, through the Faroe-Shetland Channel (FSC) and out 84 into the Iceland and Rockall basins (Gaard and Hansen, 2000; Heath et al., 2000a; Chafik et 85 86 al., 2020).

*C. finmarchicus* is also found in high concentrations within the Iceland Sea (Astthorsson and
Gislason, 2003; Gislason and Silva, 2012). This cooler environment sustains *C. finmarchicus*with a one year life cycle (Astthorsson and Gislason, 2003) and overwintering depths
between 200 to 600 m, which is somewhat shallower compared to Norwegian Basin
(Gislason, 2018). From the north-eastern region of Iceland, the copepod is advected into the
southwestern Norwegian Sea (Wiborg, 1955; Kristiansen et al., 2019).

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Due to the inflow of subarctic waters from the Iceland Sea, the southwestern Norwegian Sea 95 has a more Arctic character than the central and some parts of the northern areas within the 96 Norwegian Sea (Blindheim, 2004). The area is characterized by the persistent and dynamic 97 Iceland-Faroe Front (IFF), which is established when the poleward flow of warm and saline 98 Modified North Atlantic Water, hereafter abbreviated to Atlantic Water (AW) (Hansen and 99 Østerhus, 2000), meets the southeastern flow of cold and fresh East Icelandic Water from the 100 Iceland Sea (Fig. 1a). The posture of the IFF slopes downwards from the surface in the north 101 toward the Iceland-Faroe Ridge/northern Faroe Plateau further south (Fig. 1) (Hansen and 102 Østerhus, 2000). The AW flows eastwards along the southern border of the IFF, converges 103 104 into the Faroe Current and progresses further northeastwards along the Norwegian slope. A fraction of the poleward flow re-circulates back towards the Faroe Islands along the Jan 105 Mayen Ridge as the Recirculated Faroe Current, carrying Norwegian North Atlantic Water. 106 The water masses within the subarctic region, north of the IFF, are hereafter collectively 107 termed Subarctic Waters (SAW). 108

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A standard monitoring section, named Section N, extends northwards from the Faroe Islands
and into the southwestern Norwegian Sea (Fig. 1a). In the near-surface layer, the transect
covers AW in the southern region and SAW in the northern region, and these are separated
by the IFF (Fig. 1b). Deep Water occupies the water column below approximately 500 m.

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A key factor that determines the spatial distribution of C. finmarchicus is its position in the 115 water column as this determines its advection route (Heath et al., 2000a). The most direct 116 117 transportation route of C. finmarchicus to the southern region of Section N is with the AW from the northeastern Iceland Basin. There, a low standing stock of overwintering individuals 118 (Heath et al., 2004) and low reproduction activity within the upper layers in spring 119 (Jónasdóttir et al., 2008) have been documented. It has also been suggested that C. 120 finmarchicus may derive from the deep overflow from the Norwegian Sea and the FSC via 121 the Faroe Bank Channel (FBC) west of the Faroe Islands (Heath and Jónasdóttir, 1999; Gaard 122 and Hansen, 2000; Jacobsen et al., 2017). During ascent, a portion may enter the warm upper 123 layers of AW and circulate within the offshore waters around the Faroe Islands (Gaard and 124 125 Hansen, 2000; Heath 1999).

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The origin of the water masses north of the IFF suggest that the *C. finmarchicus* individuals within the subarctic region of Section N are a mixture of the populations from the Norwegian and Iceland Seas (Wiborg, 1955; Bucklin et al., 2000; Kristiansen et al., 2019). Furthermore,

from the Iceland Sea, and the volume of subarctic waters from the Iceland Sea, i.e. when 131 increased transport of subarctic waters from the Iceland Sea crosses the subarctic region 132 along Section N, the abundance of C. hyperboreus increases. The signal was less clear for C. 133 finmarchicus as it successfully overwinters and reproduces both in the Iceland and 134 Norwegian Seas. However, since 2003, a phenological change in the C. finmarchicus 135 population in SAW (Kristiansen et al., 2016) has co-occurred with a reduction of subarctic 136 waters from the northwest and C. hyperboreus (Kristiansen et al., 2019). Before 2003, 137 initiation of reproduction along Section N occurred earlier in AW compared to SAW, 138 resulting in different life cycles and stage compositions in the two water masses (Gaard, 139 1996; Kristiansen et al., 2016). The phenological shift in 2003 resulted in similar 140 reproductive pattern along Section N. Before 2003 only one generation of C. finmarchicus 141 was produced north of the IFF whereas after this, the production of two generations is evident 142 (Gaard, 1999; Kristiansen et al., 2016). To further investigate the demography of C. 143 144 finmarchicus at Section N, a seasonal study was conducted, which is the focus of the present 145 study.

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Here, seasonal abundance and stage composition of C. finmarchicus, combined with vertical 147 148 distribution, egg production, feeding activity and lipid content north and south of the IFF, are investigated. This is the first time a study has been conducted within the southwestern 149 Norwegian Sea that deals with seasonal vertical investigations. The lipid content, coupled 150 with vertical distribution, throughout the season presents a unique time series. Emphasis is 151 also on comparing the biological characteristics to environmental variables including 152 hydrography and phytoplankton biomass. Possible implications for the feeding conditions for 153 the large pelagic fish stocks within the study area are tentatively discussed. 154

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#### 158 **2.0 Materials & Methods**

# 160 **2.1 Location and sampling**

161 Section N is comprised of 14 stations located from 62°20'N to 64°30'N at longitude 6°05'W, apart for station N14, which is located at longitude 6°00'W (Fig. 1a). The distance between 162 stations is 10 nautical miles. To measure C. finmarchicus vital rates, the present study used 163 two sampling stations, N4 and N5, to represent the warmer Atlantic region (AW) and two 164 stations, N13 and N14, to represent the colder subarctic region (SAW) (Fig. 1b). Samples 165 were collected on seven occasions over a one-year cycle (Table 1). During every sampling 166 occasion, hydrographic data (temperature and salinity), chl-a fluorescence and zooplankton 167 samples were collected in order to examine the seasonal dynamics and demography of C. 168 169 finmarchicus and its habitat.

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172 **2.2 Hydrography** 

A CTD (Seabird Electronics 911 Plus) was used to measure the profiles of temperature and
 salinity to 1000 m depth. In July 2013 and 2014, a smaller CTD (Seabird 25) was used which

was lowered down to 500 m. Salinity was calibrated against standard seawater with an
Autosal 8400A salinometer. A fluorometer was attached to the CTD, measuring the
fluorescence profile simultaneously with the hydrographic properties. Raw fluorescence
values were used to represent the relative phytoplankton biomass.

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### 181 2.3 Satellite data

Eight-days temporal averages of level 3, merged (MODIS, VIIRS in varying constellations), 182 GSM-gridded (Maritorena et al., 2002) chlorophyll (CHL1) with 4-km grid resolution, for an 183 area covering Section N ( $6.5^{\circ}$  -  $5.5^{\circ}$  W by  $62.3^{\circ}$  -  $65^{\circ}$  N) for the period 2013 to 2014 from 184 GlobColour distributed ACRI-ST, were the Project, by downloaded 185 from http://www.globcolour.info. The surface chlorophyll variation is presented with a Hovmüller 186 diagram, where the values were spatially smoothed by averaging longitudinally across 187 188 Section N (6.5° - 5.5° W, i.e. 46-49 km), and laterally by dividing the region into ten 23 km wide segments. By demanding only one valid measurement in each cell in order to compute 189 the chlorophyll level, a relatively good coverage is obtained for the area. 190

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# 193 **2.4 Seasonal dynamics and demography of** *C. finmarchicus*

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# 195 2.4.1 Seasonal vertical distribution, abundance and biomass

Zooplankton samples were collected with a Multinet (0.25 m<sup>2</sup> opening and 5 nets attached 196 with a 200 µm mesh size) which was hauled vertically from a maximum depth of 1000 m to 197 the surface. The towing speed was 0.3-0.5 m s<sup>-1</sup>. The upper 200 m had sampling intervals of 198 50 m. At greater depths, the sampling intervals were adjusted according to the bottom depth 199 200 or maximum sampling depth. Zooplankton samples were preserved in 4 % formaldehyde 201 solution. In the laboratory, samples were split into subsamples to contain around 200 to 300 individuals of *C. finmarchicus* that were grouped into developmental stages and counted. The 202 prosome length of the first 10 individuals for each stage was also measured to the nearest two 203 decimal places. The number of stages per sample was converted to a mean concentration per 204 m<sup>3</sup> or per m<sup>2</sup> when looking at total water column abundance. The abundance of each 205 developmental stage was converted to biomass based on the allometric relationship between 206 individual body mass and average prosome length proposed by Hay et al. (1991). The 207 formulas DW=0.0154 \*L<sup>2.71</sup> and DW=0.0073 \*L<sup>3.46</sup> were used for stage C1-C5 and adults, 208 respectively, with DW being individual dry weight (mg) and L is prosome length (mm). 209

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## 212 2.4.2 Egg production

Females for egg production were collected using a WP-2 net with a 200  $\mu$ m mesh size and a 2 L non-filtering cod-end. The WP-2 net was hauled from 50 m depth to the surface with a speed of 0.3-0.5 m s<sup>-1</sup>. Whenever possible, 20 active and apparently undamaged females were collected and individually transferred into 0.5 L incubation chambers, with a fitted 500  $\mu$ m mesh screen on the bottom to separate the female from the eggs produced. The chambers were filled up with 20  $\mu$ m filtered seawater taken from 3 m depth. The females were

219 incubated for approximately 24 hours in dim light at *in situ* temperatures. Following the incubation period, the content of the chamber was filtered through a 30 µm sieve and the eggs 220 counted under a stereomicroscope. The proportion of females that spawned during the 221 incubation period is referred to as "spawning frequency", which is expressed as percentage 222 per day. Females that produced > 1 egg are included. Based on this data, individual (eggs 223 female<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>) and community (eggs  $m^{-2}$  day<sup>-1</sup>) egg productions rates (EPR) are calculated. If 224 less than 5 females were found, the sample is not representative due to large variations and 225 226 thus excluded from the experiment.

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#### 229 2.4.3 Female gut content

Samples were collected with a WP-2 net which had a cod-end fitted with a 200 µm net 230 screen. The WP-2 net was towed vertically from 50 m depth towards the surface. A sufficient 231 232 portion of zooplankton was quickly transferred to zip-bag and immediately sprayed with freezing spray to prevent the animals to defecate. Subsequently the sample was placed in the 233 freezer at -20°C. To prevent sample deterioration, samples were analysed within three 234 235 months. The working procedure for measuring and calculating the gut fluorescence was done 236 according to Blåmstedt et al. (2000). Whilst keeping the sample cold, five females were quickly selected and transferred into a vial and where the gut pigments (i.e. chl a) were 237 extracted with acetone and measured with a Turner Model 10 fluorometer. To minimize high 238 variability, six replicates were made per sample. 239

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#### 242 *2.4.4 Lipid analysis*

Animals for lipid analysis were taken from the same net hauls as the samples used for gut 243 fluorescence analysis. The zooplankton was handled delicately, put into vials and 244 subsequently frozen in liquid nitrogen. After the cruise, the samples were transferred to a 245 freezer, which kept them preserved at - 84°C. Prior to analysis, the samples were sorted while 246 kept on ice. The prosome length of two or three intact copepods of stage C5 and females was 247 measured and subsequently placed in tapered 1.5 ml vials. Three replicates were made. The 248 249 lipids were extracted according to the Folch method (Folch and Sloane-Stanley, 1957). Chloroform:methanol (2:1), a known concentration of the internal standard, Ketone, and a 250 0.88% KCL solution were added to each vial as the initial step in the lipid extraction process. 251 The air in the vials was replaced by nitrogen gas and subsequently stored at -84°C. The 252 samples were shipped on dry ice to DTU Aqua (Denmark) for further analysis, using an 253 Iatroscan TLC (thin layer chromatography) as described in Jónasdóttir (1999). The main lipid 254 reserve, i.e. the wax esters, were analysed and quantified in this paper. 255

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#### 258 **2.5 Data analysis**

All data was checked for normality and transformed if necessary. Comparison of means between AW and SAW was conducted using the independent two-sample t-test or the equivalent non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test. A Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was used to detect causality between EPR and the environmental variables within the study area during the peak egg production period from April to May. Data and statistical analyseswere performed using R core Team.

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# 268 **3.0 Results**

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# 270 **3.1 Hydrography and fluorescence**

Temperature and salinity profiles south and north of the IFF were clearly different (Fig. 2).
Within the upper 50 m, the seasonal temperature steadily increased from February to August
measuring between 7.5 to 11.2 °C in AW (Fig. 2a) and 3.4 to 8.9 °C in SAW (Fig. 2d). The
salinity fluctuated along with the temperature variability (Fig. 2b and 2e).

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276 Snapshots of the chl-a fluorescence was captured during the CTD measurements at each cruise (Fig. 2c and 2f) and is supported by satellite measurements of the seasonal progression 277 of the phytoplankton biomass which provides an overview of the conditions before, during 278 279 and after the sampling dates (Fig. 3). According to Eliasen et al. (2017) satellite observations capture on average lower values compared to spectrophotometric analysis of water samples 280 by around a factor of 2. However, keeping this in mind, the usage of satellite data provides 281 high frequency (and spatially extensive) observations, which is valuable alongside less 282 frequent ship collected data. The primary production started earlier in SAW compared to 283 AW. In 2013, the onset of phytoplankton production north of the IFF started around mid 284 May, while south of the IFF the bloom started in late May (Fig. 3a and 3c). From June to 285 August, the bloom was notably higher in the southern region than in the northern region. In 286 2014, a similar pattern can be observed as in 2013, apart from the four week earlier initiation 287 of spring production north of the IFF (Fig. 3b and 3d). 288

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# 291 **3.2 Seasonal vertical distribution**

In February, 98% of the collected overwintering population  $(G_0)$  in SAW, which mainly 292 comprised of the pre-adult stage C5, was found between 500 m to 1000 m in depth (Fig. 4j). 293 In contrast, 44% of the collected G<sub>0</sub> population in AW was found within the upper 200 m 294 (Fig. 4c), suggesting that the ascent to the surface layers is more advanced in AW. It is, 295 however, possible that a lesser amount of overwintering individuals were located below the 296 maximum sampling depth of 1000 m. In April, 95% and 65% of the total G<sub>0</sub> population 297 resided within the upper 50 m in SAW and AW, respectively. The remaining G<sub>0</sub> individuals 298 in AW were located between 50-500 m in depth. Within the upper 50 m, the adult stages 299 dominated the population, comprising 50% and 70% of the population in SAW and AW, 300 respectively. Initiation of reproduction in April was evident, particular in SAW, where the 301 abundance of stage C1 was higher compared to south of the IFF (Fig. 4d and 4k). In May, the 302 recruits (stage C1 to C3) clearly dominated the population structure (Fig. 4e and 4l), while in 303 June the juveniles (stage C4 and C5) also constituted a large portion of the C. finmarchicus 304 population (Fig. 4f and 4m). In July, the total abundance within the upper 50 m had only 305

declined by 9% in AW, while the *C. finmarchicus* stock in the SAW declined by 78%
compared to June (Fig. 4g and 4n).

308

Evidence of descent to diapause appeared already in June, where throughout the water 309 column, around 2% of the juveniles and adults appeared at > 200m depth north and south of 310 the IFF, respectively. By July, these numbers had increased to 18% and 14% in AW and 311 SAW, respectively and resembling the overwintering concentration found north of the IFF in 312 February. Descent of the animals was also apparent in July 2013, also with higher 313 concentration in the south compared to the north (Fig. 4ab and 4h). In August, the 314 overwintering concentration had increased in the subarctic region to a similar level to the 315 warmer region, south of the IFF (Fig. 4b and 4i). 316

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The depth integrated numbers were relative low during winter and early spring (February to April), ranging from around 5,500 individuals  $m^{-2}$  in AW and 11,700 individuals  $m^{-2}$  in SAW (Fig. 5a and 5c). In May, the numbers in AW increased dramatically to 91,600 individuals  $m^{-2}$ due to input of G<sub>1</sub> while a three-fold increase occurred in SAW. In June, a steep increase to 141,376 individuals  $m^{-2}$  was observed in SAW. After the steep increase in numbers in May and June, the numbers declined.

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Zooming in on stage development within the upper 50 m, which is also the depth layer used 325 for investigating egg production and gut content, we found no significant difference in total 326 abundance throughout the season (Mann Whitney U-test, p > 0.05). The composition in the 327 C. finmarchicus population in AW (Fig. 6a and 6b) and SAW (Fig. 6e and 6f) bear 328 resemblance early in the season, with an increased number of females in April along with a 329 lower number of stage C1. The number of all developmental stages continues to increase, 330 peaking in May in the AW but a month later in SAW. A subtle difference in the population 331 structure is observed in June and July where AW appears to have a higher proportion of C4 332 and C5 compared to the population in SAW (Fig. 6b and 6f). Both regions show evidence of 333 an increase in stage C1 in August, which indicates that a secondary production occurs in both 334 regions. The composition in abundance is reflected in the biomass pattern of C. finmarchicus 335 within the upper 50 m in AW (Fig. 6c and 6d) and SAW (Fig. 6g and 6h), being lowest in 336 February and highest in May and June in AW (80 mg DW m<sup>-3</sup>) and SAW (120 mg DW m<sup>-3</sup>), 337 respectively. There was no significant difference in total abundance and biomass throughout 338 the season within the upper 50 m (Mann Whitney U-tests, p > 0.05). 339

340

There is a significant difference in female sizes (Welch t-test, p < 0.05), with individuals being larger in SAW than in AW within the upper 50 m throughout the season (Fig. 7). The seasonal trend is more pronounced in AW compared to SAW. In February, AW females are at their smallest size while they are largest in April. Hereafter, from May to July, they gradually decrease in size as they have being growing during higher temperature in spring and summer (Durbin et al., 2000). In contrast, the mean size of SAW females remains quite constant from February to July, ranging from 2.53 to 2.58 mm.

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# 350 **3.3 Egg production**

The seasonal variability in daily EPR in AW and SAW is shown in Fig. 8, revealing a 351 significant higher production capacity in SAW (Welch t-test, p < 0.05). During winter, not 352 enough females were caught to measure the EPR. In April, the egg production had drastically 353 increased in SAW, reaching its peak at 43 eggs female<sup>-1</sup>  $d^{-1}$  (Fig.7e). A notable increase was 354 also observed in AW in April (Fig. 8a), but the peak was recorded in May in this southern 355 region, measuring 13 eggs female<sup>-1</sup>  $d^{-1}$ . In June and July, the egg production remained below 356 0.2 and 1.3 eggs female<sup>-1</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> in SAW and AW, respectively. Similar low values were also 357 noted in July 2013. Based on the concentration of females and individual egg production 358 rates, average community egg production rates were calculated. The community EPR were 359 highest in April, with a subsequent decrease in May in SAW from ~250,000 to ~43,000 eggs 360  $m^{-2} d^{-1}$  (Fig. 8g). In AW, the community EPR increased from 16,000 eggs  $m^{-2} d^{-1}$  in April to 361 91,000 eggs  $m^{-2} d^{-1}$  in May (Fig. 8c). The proportion of spawning females from April to July 362 was highest in April and May, ranging between 95 to 97 % in SAW (Fig. 8f) and 85 to 90% 363 in AW (Fig. 8b). 364

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In contrast to the egg production rates, the gut content was significant higher in AW compared to SAW throughout the season (t-test, p < 0.05). The gut content was highest in April and May in both regions, which coincides with increased female fecundity. The gut content increased from April to May in AW (Fig. 8d) while in SAW only a slight variation was observed, from 3.0 ng to 3.3 ng Chl *a* female<sup>-1</sup>, during the same period (Fig. 8h). During summertime, i.e. from June to July, the gut content was significantly lower, remaining below 1.6 ng Chl *a* female<sup>-1</sup> in both water masses.

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Environmental variables and female condition (i.e. size and gut content) influencing the egg 374 375 production rates in AW and SAW were further examined with a PCA (Fig. 9). In order to extract primary factors influencing the egg production rates during the peak period, data 376 collected from April to May was considered in the analysis. The first and second principal 377 components (PC) explained 48.2% and 29.2%, respectively, of the total variation in the data. 378 Two separate clusters are observed on the basis of PC scores, indicating a clear separation 379 between AW (negative PC1 scores) and SAW (positive PC1 scores). The SAW cluster is 380 positively associated with higher egg production rates, spawning frequency, female size and 381 fluorescence units. In contrast the AW cluster is associated with higher temperatures and gut 382 fluorescence. The PCA reveals that C. finmarchicus in SAW have higher egg production 383 rates associated with larger individuals and increased spawning frequency when compared to 384 the warmer AW. 385

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# 388 **3.4 Lipid content**

A seasonal and vertical lipid profile of the C5 pre-adult stage and females in AW and SAW is presented in Fig. 10. There is a general tendency throughout the season that stage C5 has a higher wax ester content compared to the females. Both C5 and females in the northern region tend to have a higher seasonal wax content compared to the individuals found south of the IFF (t-tests, p < 0.05), which coincides with larger female size (Fig. 11a). In February, the

lipid concentration for both stages within 0-200 m depth layer was low and became even lower in May but in June and July the levels had increased, particularly for stage C5, indicating that the individuals were preparing for diapause (Fig. 10). The highest wax ester reserves were recorded July at >500 m depth for both stages. While the mean lipid reserve for C5 was up to 40 times higher compared to the females in the upper layer in July in both regions, the wax esters at >500 m depth was similar between the stages, measuring on average 52 and 85  $\mu$ g<sup>-1</sup> in AW and SAW, respectively.

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#### 404 4.0 Discussion

Numerous studies on C. finmarchicus have been conducted within the eastern, central and 405 northern Norwegian Sea, while few have focused on the southwestern Norwegian Sea. 406 407 Zooplankton monitoring back to 1994 has shown that prior to 2003, the stage composition of C. finmarchicus in May used to be different in the warm AW compared to the colder SAW 408 north of the Faroe Islands (Kristiansen et al., 2016). However, since 2003, a phenological 409 shift occurred, resulting in a similar composition of developmental stages between the areas. 410 411 Variable volume of the East Icelandic Water relative to the AW affects the ocean climate in the southwestern Norwegian Sea. This variability can be observed between seasons (Hansen 412 and Østerhus, 2000), years (Skagseth and Mork, 2012) and decades (Blindheim et al., 2000). 413 The variability affects plankton composition and phenology and may propel up the food 414 chain to planktivorous predators, including the large herring and mackerel stocks that migrate 415 to the southwestern Norwegian Sea in summertime to feed. 416

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# 419 **4.1 Horizontal transport**

420 The IFF represents a barrier between the southern and northern regions along Section N (Fig. 421 2), allowing minimal exchange of copepods across the frontal region (Kristiansen et al., 2016). This vertical barrier results in a clear difference in female sizes between the regions 422 (Fig. 7). The notable difference observed in February could potentially be due to the (i) 423 424 advection pattern in relation to the position of the individuals in the water column or (ii) females who entered diapause from the year before. The females advected to the AW region 425 of Section N in April and May have likely moulted from stage C5 during winter and early 426 spring within the upper layers. Females in June, July and August are smaller than the 427 individuals in spring as they have been growing during higher temperatures. Throughout the 428 season the females were always larger within the subarctic region and smaller in the warmer 429 region, which agrees with the well established inverse relationship between body size and 430 temperature, e.g. Huntley and Lopez (1992) and Durbin et al. (2000). Similar sizes within 431 432 colder and warmer regions is also documented throughout a geographically wider region 433 (Jónasdóttir et al., 2019).

434

The subarctic northern region of Section N is resupplied with the G<sub>0</sub>-individuals in spring
ascending from the overwintering depths within the Iceland Sea and the Norwegian Basin.
During summertime when the individuals remain within the upper layers, transport by surface

currents shapes the C. finmarchicus community. The advection route is somewhat more 438 complex south of the IFF due to the current system. The simplest and most direct 439 transportation route is likely with the Faroe Current, which carries AW along the southern 440 border of the IFF (Hansen et al., 2003). The winter abundance of C. finmarchicus is 441 442 somewhat lower south of the IFF compared to the northern subarctic region (Fig. 5). This is in good agreement with the overwintering abundance from the different neighbouring regions 443 from which the population north and south of the IFF are likely advected (Dale et al., 1999; 444 445 Heath et al., 2000a, 2004; Gislason, 2018).

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# 448 4.2 Seasonal vertical distribution

450 *4.2.1 Timing and duration of ascent* 

Although the majority of individuals are found <1000 m, some may also overwinter at greater 451 depth (Heath et al., 2000b; Edvardsen et al., 2006; Gislason, 2018) and these are not 452 represented in this paper. The collected  $G_0$  along Section N were found between 500-1000 m 453 depth in Deep Water during winter. Ascent and moulting into adults at Section N occurs 454 455 around the same time as reported in the Norwegian Sea (Hirche, 1996; Melle et al., 2004) and FSC (Heath, 1999). Since ~44 % of the collected  $G_0$  population in AW compared to only ~2 456 % of the G<sub>0</sub> population in SAW was located within the upper 200 m in February suggests an 457 earlier arousal and ascent in AW. The ascent in AW also appears to occur over a prolonged 458 period as  $G_0$  individuals are present at 200-500 m depth in April, which is supported by data 459 from the FSC (Heath, 1999) and FBC (Gaard and Hansen, 2000), east and south of the Faroe 460 Islands, respectively. The few  $G_0$  individuals that remained at depth in March had 461 disappeared in May (Heath, 1999). A less gradual ascent pattern was observed in SAW from 462 February to April. Asynchrony ascendance does not suggest that emergency is triggered by 463 environmental cues (Heath, 1999), which has led to the proposal of a gradual depletion of 464 energy stores (wax esters) as a cue for arousal (Jónasdóttir, 1999; Saumweber and Durbin, 465 2006; Maps et al., 2012). The lower wax ester content for stage C5 in the southern region 466 than in the northern region in February at 500-1000 m depth (Fig. 10) may be an indication of 467 the difference in depth distribution in north and south of the IFF and why the individuals in 468 AW ascent earlier towards the surface. 469

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- 472 *4.2.2 Initiation of descent*

It is generally stated that C. finmarchicus remains active within the upper layers until mid to 473 late summer and then descend to greater depth (Gislason 2018; Melle, 2004). In the Iceland 474 Sea and in the western Norwegian Sea descent occurs somewhere between late August and 475 476 late November (Gislason, 2018; Strand et al., 2020). In contrast, a reduction in abundance within the surface waters of stage C5 and adults is observed in July in the central/eastern 477 Norwegian Sea (Bagøien et al 2012; Strand et al., 2020). Here, we show evidence of descent 478 in both regions between 200 to 500 m depth as early as in June (Fig. 4f and 4m). In July, the 479 overwintering stages, of which 77% comprised stage C5, were found in increasing numbers 480 481 at greater depths. A small fraction (3%) of females accompanied the juvenile stages. This is

also observed in the Iceland Sea (Gislason, 2018) and the FSC (Heath and Jónasdóttir, 1999).
It is notable that the females in July had accumulated lipids instead of directing their energy
towards egg production, thus having equal capacity of wax ester reserves as stage C5.
Consequently, these females will be immediately ready to contribute to the reproduction in
the following spring, after ascent. The wax ester content was higher at depth in July
compared to the surface, suggesting that wax ester fullness may be a trigger for descent.

488 489

# 490 **4.3 Spring and summer production**

Fecundity is largely dependent on food availability (Stenevik et al., 2007). Kristiansen et al. (2016) showed that the onset of the phytoplankton bloom along Section N generally occurs around May in the SAW and in early June in the AW (e.g. Fig. 3a), which contrasts the pattern from the rest of the Norwegian Sea (Broms and Melle, 2007; Bagøien et al., 2012). The bloom tends to be shorter and more intense in SAW than in AW due to earlier stratification of a relative shallow, low saline upper layer in SAW (Fig. 2).

497

498 It appears that the copepods in SAW also have a physiological advantage from February to 499 April compared to the individuals in AW. The females in the SAW are larger (Fig. 7 and 11a) which is known to be an advantage for increased clutch size (Jónasdóttir et al., 2008; Head et 500 al., 2013) and they tend to have a higher wax ester content (Fig. 11b). The four week earlier 501 initiation of the spring bloom in the northern region (April 2014, Fig. 3b) also provides 502 improved feeding conditions for these copepods. This is reflected both in the individual and 503 the community egg production rates (Fig. 8e) as well as the abundance of young stages within 504 the upper 50 m in SAW in April (Fig. 6e). Supporting these results are observations by Heath 505 et al. (2004) and Jónasdóttir et al. (2008) that showed a strong contrast in lipid content and 506 507 prosome length between individuals north and south of the Iceland Faroe Ridge, with 508 individuals being in better condition north of the Iceland Faroe Ridge which was also 509 reflected in the egg production rates.

510

We see low egg production rates in April and May in AW that we cannot explain with the 511 512 present data, which Gaard and Nattestad (2002) and Jónasdóttir et al. (2008) also observed. Despite the number of females increasing by nearly a two-fold from April to May in AW 513 (Fig. 6a), the EPR only slightly increases (Fig. 8c). The high spawning frequency (> 80%) in 514 AW in April and May (Fig. 8b) suggests that most females had fully mature gonads and thus 515 had the potential to contribute to the population. Although the phytoplankton concentrations 516 were at pre-bloom state in April and mid-May in AW, the female consumption was nearly 517 twice as high south of the IFF compared to north of the IFF (Fig. 8). This is not necessarily 518 surprising since maximum levels of ingestion rates have been observed at relatively low chl a 519 520 levels (Stenevik et al., 2007). Therefore, in this situation, it can be speculated whether food 521 quality suppresses the egg production rates rather than the decoupling between ascent and initiation of the spring bloom. 522

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Peak spawning in AW took place during the pre-bloom phase, reaching a maximum of 13 eggs female<sup>-1</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> in May, which is in agreement with other studies, e.g. Niehoff and Hirche

(2000) and Jónasdóttir et al. (2008). When the onset of the bloom occurred in late May to 526 early June in AW, the number of females in early June had already declined by nearly 90% 527 which can largely be attributed to high mortality after prolonged spawning (Diel and Tande, 528 1992). The decline may also be partially attributed to predation pressure. Herring arrive to the 529 study area in May, showing high feeding activity in May and June (Gislason and Astthorsson, 530 2002), with a preference of larger copepodite stages (Dalpadado et al., 2000) which attributes 531 to reduce zooplankton abundance (Gislason and Astthorsson, 2002). Kaartvedt (2000) also 532 533 heuristically suggests that planktivorous fish may influence the timing of descent as a result of reduced predator-prey interactions. 534

535

Continuously low EPR, owing to a reduced number of females who also are less active, 536 contribute to a prolonged reproduction in AW during summertime compared to the subarctic 537 waters north of the IFF. Our data showed that several factors could affect the lower spawning 538 539 frequency, including reduced gut fullness (Fig. 8d) and reduced female size in June and July compared to April and May in AW (Fig. 7). The size reduction does indicate that the females 540 belong to the  $G_1$  generation, which further leads to the question if a portion of the females 541 may not jet at that time have reached reproductive maturity. In June and July, a portion of 542 543 females are accumulating fat rather than investing the energy to egg production eggs (Fig. 544 10), which also lowers the EPR.

545

#### 546

# 547 **4.4 Seasonal progression in abundance and composition between water masses**

The duration of the development of nauplii and copepodite stages is temperature dependent 548 (Corkett et al., 1986). Using the Belehrádek function provided by Corkett et al. (1986) and 549 the mean local temperature south (~ 8.2 °C) and north (~ 4.0 °C) of the IFF, it would take 550 around three weeks to mature from an egg to stage C1 in AW and around five weeks in 551 SAW. This means that the eggs produced in SAW at the peak of production in late April (Fig. 552 553 8e) would be the peak appearing as stage C1 in June (Fig. 5c). The decreased egg production rates in May are reflected in the decrease of C1 abundance in July. Thus, the reproductive 554 pattern is reflected in the abundance and composition in SAW. This is not the case in the AW 555 556 where despite an increase in female abundance (Fig. 6a) and egg production from April to May (Fig. 8a) a peaked abundance of young copepodite stages in June is not observed. This 557 inconsistency in AW may be due to increased egg cannibalism by copepodite stage C5 and 558 adults, which are increased during a pre-bloom period (Ohman and Hirche, 2001). A change 559 in advection pattern from the downstream area may also result in inconsistencies that we 560 observe south of the IFF. 561

562

When comparing the abundances and composition of stages in the AW and SAW within the upper 50 m, slower development within the subarctic waters is apparent in June and July where the proportion of younger individuals is higher. Using the Belehrádek function provided by Corkett et al. (1986) and the mean local temperature north and south of the IFF, it can be calculated that the life cycle of the copepods from egg to stage C5 from the peak spawning in SAW and AW, is completed around early July and late June, respectively. Judging by the increase in abundance in stage C1 in August the previous year, suggests that a 570 portion of the C5 moult into adults and produce a  $G_2$  in both regions. This contrasts 571 observations made by Strand et al. (2020 and references herein) who were only able to see a 572  $G_2$  within the Atlantic Water in the Norwegian Sea. Within the Iceland Sea, one generation is 573 observed (Astthorsson and Gislason, 2003).

574

The observed phenology of two generations within a seasonal cycle north of the IFF appears 575 to be highly dependent upon the eastward extent of subarctic waters from the Iceland Sea. A 576 577 study by Gaard (1999) shows that the subarctic region at Section N was dominated by the older developmental stages in August 1993, which is a year of increased eastward extension 578 of subarctic waters from the Iceland Sea. In contrast, since 2003 when the eastward extension 579 was reduced, the numbers of stage C1 to C3 have increased in August, north of the IFF 580 (Kristiansen et al., 2019). In recent years, the eastward extension of subarctic waters from the 581 Iceland Sea has increased again (Skagseth et al., in prep) and it appears that the abundance 582 and composition in August, north of the IFF, has reversed to similar phenology as prior 2002 583 (Kristiansen, unpublished data). Studies along Section N conducted in 2002 showed that the 584 gonad development was at a more advanced stage in AW compared to SAW in May (Gaard, 585 2002), which agrees with the later onset of reproduction in the Iceland Sea (Gislason, 2018) 586 587 and earlier onset in AW south of the Iceland Faroe Ridge (Jónasdóttir et al., 2008). This points toward an interchangeable phenology pattern in SAW, depending on the eastward 588 extent of subarctic waters from the Iceland Sea. 589

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### 592 *4.4.1 Prey availability for pelagic fish*

Previous studies have shown that herring tune their feeding migrations to the timing and 593 abundance of the ascended G<sub>0</sub> C. finmarchicus populations (Østvedt, 1965; Gislason and 594 Astthorsson, 2002; Broms et al., 2012). Therefore, the years when the inflow from the 595 Iceland Sea is weakened, the herring will find smaller individuals from the G<sub>1</sub> dominating 596 597 with lower biomass than in years with a high inflow of subarctic water from the west. The subsequent arrival of younger and smaller herring (ICES, 2018) coincides with improved 598 feeding conditions as the G<sub>1</sub> population has advanced to stages C4 and C5 and significantly 599 600 increased in numbers and biomass from May to June (Fig. 6), both north and south of the IFF. Mackerel arrives later to the feeding grounds than herring. Being less size selective, mackerel 601 exploits the copepod generation available (Kaartvedt, 2000). The earlier onset of C. 602 finmarchicus reproduction in SAW leads to an increased abundance of stage C4 and C5 upon 603 the arrival of mackerel in early summer and the presence of a secondary production in late 604 summer (Fig. 6). Thus, the years with a reduced arctic inflow from the west appear to be an 605 advantage for mackerel as food availability has both increased and been extended in time. 606

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# 610 **5.0 Summary**

The present study contains two different *Calanus* populations, separated by the Iceland-Faroe
Front (IFF). Ascent occurred earlier but over a prolonged period in the Atlantic Water (AW)

south of the IFF compared to the subarctic Water (SAW), dominating north of the IFF. The

614 population displayed similar composition of developmental stages, with two generations 615 being produced in both regions. The egg reproduction per capita was significantly higher 616 north of the IFF and peaked a month earlier compared to south of the IFF. In contrast, the egg 617 production rates were sustained over a prolonged period in the south. Descent, largely 618 comprised by copepodite stage C4 and C5, was already initiated in June in both regions and 619 coincided with increased accumulated lipid content in late summer.

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Decreased influx of Calanus spp. into the south-western Norwegian Sea since 2003.

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Fig. 1. Map of the study area. The main warm (red) and cold (blue) currents within the upper 813 layers that influence Section N (green dotted line) are displayed (a). The average salinity 814 profile of the water masses along Section N are shown in (b), together with the position of the 815 sampling stations (downward arrows). The salinity average is from February, May and 816 August/September at each station from 2004 to 2019. The Iceland Faroe Front (IFF) is 817 illustrated with a black dotted line in both panels. Abbreviations: FC (Faroe Current), EIC 818 (East Icelandic Current), RFC (Recirculated Faroe Current), IFR (Iceland Faroe Ridge), FSC 819 (Faroe Shetland Channel), AW (Atlantic Water) and SAW (Subarctic Water). 820



Fig. 2. Vertical profiles of mean temperature, salinity and fluorescence at Section N from
seven cruises between July 2013 to July 2014. Averages are from stations N04 and N05,
located in south of the IFF (see Fig. 1a) and stations N13 and N14, located north of the IFF.
Abbreviations: AW (Atlantic Water) and EIW (East Icelandic Water).



Fig. 3. Hovmöller diagram of satellite-based chl *a* concentration (left panels) and time series of averaged data from the Subarctic Water (SAW, blue line) and Atlantic Water (AW, red line) (right panels) from March 2013 to August 2014. The white spaces in the left panels are data void due to cloud coverage, while the black crosses and arrows indicate the start and finish of the seasonal study. The stippled lines show the position of station N10, which always is north of the IFF (Kristiansen et al., 2016).





Fig. 4. Seasonal vertical distribution of stage determined *Calanus finmarchicus* from July 2013 to July 2014 in Atlantic Water (AW, south) and Subarctic Water (SAW, north) at Section N. The colour scale represents each copepodite stage by a unique colour. Note that the mean abundance of *C. finmarchicus* is presented in different scales during the sampling season.



Fig. 5. Total integrated depth (0-1000 m) abundance of *Calanus finmarchicus*. Values are presented in (a) numbers  $m^{-2} \times 1000$  and (b) relative abundance (%) of each copepodite stage in Atlantic Water (AW, south) and Subarctic Waters (SAW, north) at Section N.



Fig. 6. Seasonal variation of *Calanus finmarchicus* in abundance (numbers m<sup>-3</sup>) and biomass
(mg DW m<sup>-3</sup>) within the upper 50 m in Atlantic Water (AW, south) and Subarctic Waters
(SAW, north) at Section N.



B55 Date
Fig. 7. Seasonal variation in female prosome length in Atlantic Water (AW, grey box) and
Subarctic Waters (SAW, white box) within the upper 50 m. The vertical lines show standard
error. The solid and dotted horizontal lines represent the median and mean values. The black
cross indicates that less than 10 females were found and measured.





Fig 8. Egg production rates (eggs female<sup>-1</sup>  $d^{-1}$ ), spawning frequency (%  $d^{-1}$ ), population egg 863 production rates (eggs  $m^{-2} d^{-1} x 1000$ ) and gut chlorophyll content (ng ind<sup>-1</sup>), as estimated by 864 fluorescence, in Calanus finmarchicus females within the upper 50 m of the water column in 865 Atlantic Water (AW, south) and Subarctic Water (SAW, north) at Section N from July 2013 866 to July 2014. The vertical lines show standard error. The shaded area defines the reproductive 867 period in 2014. Sampling dates where less than five females were caught are indicated by 868 black crosses. 869



PC1 (48.18%)
Fig. 9. Ordination biplot, showing the first and second principal component based on a PCA
of measured variables that have the potential to influence egg production rates. Direction and
length of arrows indicate the direction and rate of steepest increase of the variables. Open
(black) and filled (grey) circles denote sampling stations in Atlantic Water and Subarctic
Water, respectively. The measured variables are from April and May.





Fig. 10. Wax ester content of *Calanus finmarchicus* stage C5 and females. The box plot shows the median (black line) while the boxes, whiskers and dots show 25/75, 19/90 and 5/95





Fig. 11. Size and wax ester (WE) content in relation to temperature throughout the season in Atlantic Water (AW) and Subarctic Water (SAW). (a) Prosome length of females at 0-50 m depth as a function of mean temperature (5-50 m) and (b) wax ester content of copepodite stage C5 and females (C6f) as a function of prosome length. The grey and black squares represent AW and SAW, respectively, at Section N. The vertical lines in (a) show the standard error.

Atlar	ntic Water		Subarctic Water				
Date	Sampling time		Date	Samplin	g time		
	N4	N5		N13	N14		
10.07.13	09.15	11.45	13.07.13	21.45	23.45		
29.08.13	04.45	07.30	30.08.13	01.45	06.15		
17.02.14	05.30	11.15	18.02.14	08.15	13.45		
25.04.14	00.15	03.45	25.04.14	15.00	20.30		
12.05.14	04.30	01.00	11.05.14	06.45	03.15		
06.06.14	23.00	06.45	06.06.14	16.45	20.30		
16.07.14	21.30	23.30	20.07.14	10.15	12.30		

Table 1. Sampling dates and times in Atlantic Water and Subarctic Water throughout thestudy period.

# **Highlights**

- C. finmarchicus ascend earlier in warm Atlantic Water than in cold Subarctic Water 4 •
  - Females show increased egg production capacity within the subarctic region •
- 6 • Increased female size and better feeding conditions are seen in the subarctic region
- 7 Initiation of descent was observed as early as in June in both regions •

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Descended individuals had higher lipid content than individuals at the surface 8 •

#### **Declaration of interests**

X The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: