

1 **Biogeography of cephalopods in the Southern Ocean**  
2 **using habitat suitability prediction models**

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4 José C. Xavier<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Ben Raymond<sup>3,4,5</sup>, Daniel C. Jones<sup>2</sup> and Huw Griffiths<sup>2</sup>

5 1- Marine and Environmental Sciences Centre (MARE), Department of Life Sciences,  
6 University of Coimbra, 3004-517 Coimbra, PT

7

8 2- British Antarctic Survey, Natural Environment Research Council, High Cross, Madingley  
9 Road, CB3 0ET Cambridge, UK

10

11 3- Australian Antarctic Division, Department of the Environment, Kingston, Tasmania,  
12 Australia

13

14 4- Institute for Marine and Antarctic Studies, University of Tasmania, Hobart, Australia

15

16 5- Antarctic Climate and Ecosystems Cooperative Research Centre, University of Tasmania,  
17 Hobart, Australia

18 \* Corresponding author (José C. Xavier)

19

20 Abstract

21 Our understanding of how environmental change in the Southern Ocean will affect marine  
22 diversity, habitats, and distribution remain limited. The habitats and distributions of Southern  
23 Ocean cephalopods are generally poorly understood, and yet such knowledge is necessary for  
24 research and conservation management purposes, as well as for assessing the potential  
25 impacts of environmental change. We used net-catch data to develop habitat suitability  
26 models for 15 of the most common cephalopods in the Southern Ocean. Using modelled  
27 habitat suitability, we assessed favourable areas for each species and examined the  
28 relationships between species distribution and environmental parameters. The results  
29 compared favourably with the known ecology of these species and with spatial patterns from  
30 diet studies of squid predators. The individual habitat suitability models were overlaid to  
31 generate a “hotspot” index of species richness, which showed higher numbers of squid  
32 species associated with various fronts of the Antarctic circumpolar current. Finally, we  
33 reviewed the overall distribution of these species and their importance in the diet of Southern  
34 Ocean predators. There is a need for further studies to explore the potential impacts of future  
35 climate change on Southern Ocean squid.

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40 Keywords: Biogeography, Southern Ocean, Cephalopods, Habitat suitability models

41

## 42 **Introduction**

43           Habitat suitability models can contribute significantly to our understanding of species  
44 niche requirements and can predict the potential distributions of species (Hirzel et al., 2006).  
45 Certain regions of the Antarctic are among the most rapidly warming areas on Earth (Turner  
46 et al., 2009). However, our understanding of how these changes affect marine diversity,  
47 habitats, and distribution remain limited, particularly regarding pelagic taxa in the Southern  
48 Ocean (Xavier et al., 2006; Griffiths, 2010).

49           In the Southern Ocean, defined here as the region south of the Subtropical Front, all  
50 known squid are oceanic pelagic species with high levels of endemism (Collins and  
51 Rodhouse, 2006). As most pelagic cephalopods have a short life span, rapid and labile  
52 growth, and semelparous maturation patterns (Boyle and Rodhouse, 2005), it seems likely  
53 that they will respond relatively rapidly to environmental change. Antarctic squid are also a  
54 poorly studied group despite considered to be commercially exploitable in the future (Xavier  
55 et al., 2007). For the Southern Ocean, it has been suggested that predicted temperature  
56 increases, and/or changes in sea ice extent, are unlikely to have major effects on squid other  
57 than changes in distribution near the limits of their range (Rodhouse, 2013). However, the  
58 likely consequences of ecosystem change on the distribution of squid fauna in the Southern  
59 Ocean are not well understood (Constable et al., 2014; Kennicutt II et al., 2014; Xavier et al.,  
60 2014).

61           The objective of this study was to estimate the spatial distribution of suitable habitats  
62 of a number of common squid species from the Southern Ocean. We review our predicted  
63 distributions against previously published distribution estimates (Xavier et al., 1999;  
64 Rodhouse et al., 2014), the known distribution of the sampling effort (Griffiths, 2010), and  
65 the presence of the studied species in the diet of key top predators in different areas of the

66 Southern Ocean.

67

## 68 **Materials and Methods**

69 Occurrence data were taken from the SCAR Biogeographic Atlas of the Southern  
70 Ocean (De Broyer et al., 2014). This compilation was based upon Xavier et al. (1999), with  
71 additional data drawn from the Ocean Biogeographic Information System (OBIS, 2013),  
72 biodiversity.aq, the Australian Antarctic Data Centre, and the National Institute of Water and  
73 Atmospheric Research (NIWA, 2014). Duplicate records (identified by exact matches in  
74 species name and position) were removed. Figure 1 shows the study region and the names of  
75 features mentioned in the text. Figure 2 shows the complete set of occurrence records used.

76 The available species occurrence records were in presence-only form, and so the  
77 habitat suitability modelling was conducted using the Maxent software package (v3.3.3k)  
78 (Phillips et al., 2006). Maxent does not provide a direct estimate of the probability of  
79 presence of the species across its range, but rather an index of habitat suitability (effectively,  
80 utilized habitat relative to the background environmental conditions). This index is  
81 nonlinearly related to the probability of presence (Phillips et al., 2009). Maxent allows for  
82 nonlinear model terms by formulating a series of features from the predictor variables. Due to  
83 relatively limited sample sizes, we constrained the complexity of most models by considering  
84 only linear, quadratic, and product features. A multiplier of 3.0 was used on automatic  
85 regularization parameters to discourage overfitting (Radosavljevic and Anderson, 2014);  
86 otherwise, default Maxent settings were used. A 10-fold cross-validation procedure was used  
87 to assess model performance (using the area under the receiver-operating curve) and variable  
88 permutation importance, with values averaged over the 10 fitted models. The final predicted

89 distribution for each species was based on a single model fitted using all data. The squid  
90 presence records come from a mixture of sources: some dedicated marine science surveys  
91 with a designed sampling strategy, but also other sources such as fishing vessels. The  
92 presence records are therefore biased, in that they were not drawn at random from across the  
93 range of each species. To reduce the effects of this bias on the fitted models, the background  
94 points were sampled from the locations of all squid records, rather than randomly sampled  
95 from across the region of interest (Phillips et al., 2009). 1000 background points were used  
96 for each model.

97       Species distribution and habitat suitability modelling in the Southern Ocean relies on  
98 predictor variables drawn from remote-sensing and model sources in order to obtain synoptic  
99 coverage at suitable spatial and temporal resolution. Predictor variables (**Error! Reference  
100 source not found.**)(Smith and Sandwell, 1997; Spreen et al., 2008; Feldman and McClain,  
101 2010; Garcia et al., 2010; Rio et al., 2011; Trübenbach et al., 2013) were chosen from a  
102 collection of Southern Ocean layers (Raymond, 2012). These variables were selected as  
103 indicators of ecosystem structure and processes including water mass properties, sea ice  
104 dynamics, and productivity (see biological relevance, **Error! Reference source not found.**).  
105 We used a combination of predictive performance and expert opinion, including  
106 interpretation of the fitted responses, to select appropriate variables for each model. The  
107 selection process was also used to avoid including multiple, highly-correlated predictor  
108 variables within any one model.

109       Records of squid as prey items were extracted from the Southern Ocean dietary  
110 database (Raymond et al., 2011). These data were not used as part of the model fitting  
111 process, which was based entirely on the net catch data, but rather as informal evaluation of  
112 the predicted habitat distributions from the models. This comparison between the spatial

113 distribution of the diet records and the spatial pattern of predicted habitat was not done in a  
114 formal manner, because the geographic location of a diet record indicates where that diet  
115 sample was obtained (usually a breeding colony); the prey item in question may not be local  
116 to that colony. Some predators (e.g. sperm whales, wandering albatrosses) retain squid beaks  
117 in their stomachs for long periods of time (Clarke, 1980; Xavier et al., 2005) and/or have long  
118 foraging ranges (e.g. albatrosses) (Phillips et al., 2008), so they may have consumed that prey  
119 item a considerable distance from the colony. Further, the absence of a prey item from a  
120 predator's diet may be due to factors such as availability (e.g. deep prey beyond the diving  
121 reach of air-breathing predators) or prey preference, rather than disjunct spatial distributions  
122 (Xavier et al., 2013).

123         We identified cephalopod hotspots using an index of species richness derived from the  
124 individual species habitat models. We then converted the predicted habitat suitability for each  
125 species to a binary presence/absence layer by applying a threshold, such that habitat  
126 suitability values above the threshold were converted to presences. The threshold used for  
127 each species was the average of the thresholds (for each of the 10 training models) chosen to  
128 maximize the test area under the receiver-operating curve (Phillips et al., 2006). The binary  
129 layers were summed to give the number of species estimated to be present in each pixel  
130 (Ballard et al., 2012). The results of this study are available from the Australian Antarctic  
131 Data Centre.

132

## 133 **Results**

134         The results of the modelling, including the predictor variables used in each  
135 model, are summarised in Table 2. For each species we provide two maps: one showing the

136 catch data used to fit the model as well as the diet data available for that squid species as  
137 prey, and the second figure for each species showing the predicted habitat suitability map.

138

#### 139 Family Bathyteuthidae

140 *Bathyteuthis abyssicola* (Figure 3a,b). The predicted habitat suitability suggests a circumpolar  
141 distribution (i.e. occurring in all three sectors of the Southern Ocean). The most favourable  
142 habitat was predicted to lie between the Southern Antarctic Circumpolar Current Front  
143 (SACCF) and the Sub-Antarctic Front (SAF), with more moderate values of habitat suitability  
144 extending from roughly 45°S up to the Antarctic shelf.

145

#### 146 Family Brachioteuthidae

147 *Slosarczykovia circumantarctica* (Figure 4a,b). The predicted habitat suitability suggests a  
148 circumpolar distribution, with meridional limits between approximately the SACCF and the  
149 SAF. Zonally, the most favourable habitat was predicted in the Scotia Sea in the Atlantic  
150 sector, particularly around the Antarctic Peninsula and South Georgia, in the Indian sector  
151 (with higher values at Kerguelen shelf and eastern waters) and south of the Tasman Sea  
152 between Tasmania and New Zealand. While net catches of this species were sparse outside of  
153 the southwest Atlantic sector, diet records were present in the Indian and Pacific sectors,  
154 broadly matching the predicted habitat distribution.

155

#### 156 Family Cranchiidae

157 *Galiteuthis glacialis* (Figure 5a,b). The predicted habitat suitability clearly indicates a  
158 circumpolar distribution, bounded to the south by the Antarctic continent and to the north by  
159 the SAF.

160

161 *Mesonychoteuthis hamiltoni* (Figure 6a,b). The predicted habitat suitability suggests a  
162 circumpolar distribution extending relatively close to the Antarctic continent but not into  
163 shallow areas such as the continental shelf or the Kerguelen Plateau. To the north, suitable  
164 habitat appears to be delimited by the SAF. The highest values of habitat suitability extended  
165 from the Weddell Sea in the Atlantic sector to 60 °E (west of the Kerguelen archipelago), and  
166 between 180 °E and 120 °W in the Ross/Amundsen seas region.

167

168 Family Gonatidae

169 *Gonatus antarcticus* (Figure 7a,b). The predicted habitat suitability suggests a circumpolar  
170 distribution, with patches of highly suitable habitat over the south part of the Patagonian shelf  
171 (around the Falkland Islands and Cape Horn), in the Scotia Sea and to the east in the Atlantic  
172 sector, in the Indian sector (northern Kerguelen Plateau and Prydz Bay) and in the Pacific  
173 sector (the Ross Sea, and eastwards along the continental shelf to the Antarctic Peninsula).  
174 Similarly to *S. circumantarctica*, catch records were almost exclusively restricted to the  
175 southwest Atlantic sector, whereas diet records were circumpolar, as was the predicted habitat  
176 distribution.

177

178 Family Histioteuthidae

179 *Histioteuthis atlantica* (Figure 8a,b). The predicted habitat suitability indicated a circumpolar  
180 distribution north of approximately 60 °S (50 °S in the Atlantic sector), away from the coldest  
181 waters of the Southern Ocean. The predicted distribution of *H. atlantica* was restricted to  
182 more northerly regions than that of the closely-related *H. eltaninae*.

183

184 *Histioteuthis eltaninae* (Figure 9a,b). The model predictions indicated that suitable habitat is  
185 widespread across the Southern Ocean, excluding shallow areas such as continental shelves  
186 and undersea banks and ridges.

187

188 Family Loliginidae

189 *Doryteuthis gahi* (Figure 10a,b). Predicted habitat for this species was limited to continental  
190 shelves, particularly the Patagonian shelf (agreeing well with all net capture and predator diet  
191 locations), and in South Chilean waters (in the Pacific). Areas of suitable habitat, albeit more  
192 restricted in extent, were also predicted around South Georgia, the Kerguelen Islands, and  
193 New Zealand.

194

195 Family Neoteuthidae

196 *Alluroteuthis antarcticus* (Figure 11a,b). Predicted habitat was circumpolar, bounded  
197 approximately by the SACCF to the north, and by the Antarctic continental shelf to the south.

198

199 Family Ommastrephidae

200 *Martialia hyadesi* (Figure 12a,b). The model predicted spatially-patchy areas of suitable  
201 habitat, generally downstream of land masses. The principal areas of predicted habitat were  
202 around the South American shelf, in the north Scotia Sea close to South Georgia, in the  
203 Indian sector (Prince Edward, Crozet and Kerguelen shelf archipelagos and to the east of the  
204 latter islands) and south and southwest of New Zealand.

205

206 *Todarodes filippovae* (Figure 13a,b). The predicted habitat suitability was clearly  
207 circumpolar, bounded to the south by the SAF, away from the coldest waters of the Southern  
208 Ocean. While catches were largely confined to the eastern Indian and Pacific sectors  
209 (Tasmania through to South America), a small number of diet and catch records from the  
210 western and central Indian sectors (approximately 30–80 °E) provided some corroboration of  
211 the circumpolar habitat prediction.

212

213 Family Onychoteuthidae

214 *Kondakovia longimana* (Figure 14a,b). The predicted habitat suitability was circumpolar,  
215 consistent with the catch and diet records, but spatially patchy. Areas of most suitable habitat  
216 were found in the Scotia Sea, particularly around South Georgia and the South Sandwich  
217 islands, in the Indian sector (Kerguelen waters and further south) and south of the Tasman  
218 Sea around 60 °S. Patches of suitable habitat were also predicted for parts of the Antarctic  
219 continent shelf (e.g. the western Antarctic Peninsula, Prydz Bay, and the Dumont d'Urville  
220 Sea).

221

222 *Moroteuthis ingens* (Figure 15a,b). Predicted areas of suitable habitat were patchy, generally  
223 restricted to regions around 50 °S or further north. Oceanic waters were generally predicted to  
224 be unsuitable habitat, compared to areas above and around continental or island shelves,  
225 particularly around the Falkland Islands, Crozet, the Kerguelen Plateau in the Indian sector,  
226 south of Tasmania, and on the New Zealand shelf in the Pacific sector. North of about 60 °S,  
227 the shelf distribution of *M. ingens* is complementary to that of *H. atlantica*.

228

229 *Moroteuthis robsoni* (Figure 16a,b). The predicted habitat suitability was broadly circumpolar  
230 with a southern boundary at approximately the SAF, away from the coldest waters of the  
231 Southern Ocean, and with an affinity for mid-depth regions (e.g. shelf slopes).

232

233

234 Family Psychroteuthidae

235 *Psychroteuthis glacialis* (Figure 17a,b). Suitable habitat was predicted to be circumpolar,  
236 extending northwards from the Antarctic continent to approximately the APF. Areas of  
237 highest habitat suitability were found in patches in the southern Scotia Sea, Weddell, and  
238 Ross seas, and in coastal waters around the Antarctic continent.

239

240 **“Hotspot” regions in the distribution of cephalopods from the Southern Ocean**

241 The individual species habitat suitability predictions were combined to  
242 produce an index of species richness (Figure 18). The highest predicted values (8 or more

243 species) occurred in a largely-circumpolar band, approximately from the Polar Front south to  
244 the northernmost extent of sea ice. Areas of nine or more species were found in the southwest  
245 Atlantic sector. The lowest values occurred over the shelf around the Antarctic continent, and  
246 to the north of the sub-Antarctic front (but note that these latter waters are home to other  
247 species of squid not considered in this study).

248

## 249 **Discussion**

### 250 **Biases and uncertainties**

251 To our knowledge, this is the first study to develop habitat suitability predictions for  
252 these common cephalopod species of the Southern Ocean. The modelling component of this  
253 study presented a number of challenges. Data systems such as OBIS currently provide the  
254 most comprehensive occurrence data for biogeography but are aggregated from a variety of  
255 diverse sources with differences in aspects such as survey design and sampling techniques.  
256 One possible approach is to use the aggregated dataset merely as an index of the available  
257 data and follow each component dataset back to its original, detailed source. However, this is  
258 rarely practical for large-scale studies. Although we have attempted to account for the spatial  
259 distribution of survey efforts in the modelling procedure, these results should still be treated  
260 with caution, particularly for species with small sample sizes or where one particular area  
261 dominates the occurrence record.

262 The predictor variables used were drawn from satellite and similar sources. The  
263 information from such variables rarely provides direct characterization of the primary  
264 processes affecting the species distribution. For example, there are no direct estimates of  
265 squid prey distributions. Instead, these variables typically provide proxy information such as

266 water mass properties or primary productivity. The spatial and temporal scales of this  
267 information often do not match the scales experienced by the animals. Furthermore, predictor  
268 variables in the Southern Ocean are typically highly correlated because of the strong  
269 latitudinal and seasonal gradient that affects oceanic and atmospheric conditions. Because of  
270 these factors, it is rarely obvious which particular predictor variable is the most appropriate  
271 proxy to use in a given model. Predictive performance offers some guidance, but should not  
272 be relied upon exclusively (Raymond et al., 2014). Squid are also notorious for their net  
273 avoidance ability, and scientific nets typically catch only juvenile individuals (Collins and  
274 Rodhouse, 2006).

275         In order to help assess the influence of these issues on the results, we used *Doryteuthis*  
276 *gahi* as a validation species, because it is well known to be coastally distributed (up to 350 m  
277 depth) in areas of the Patagonian shelf and eastern Pacific Ocean from southern Peru to  
278 Southern Chile (Arkhipkin et al., 2013). The predicted habitat suitability for this species  
279 broadly matched the expected pattern. Small areas of suitable habitat were predicted in a few  
280 locations where this species is unlikely to be present (e.g. around New Zealand). This  
281 highlights the fact that the outputs from these models are predictions of suitable habitat and  
282 do not take into account other processes that govern species distributions such as dispersion,  
283 competition, and trophic dependencies. Indeed, combining food web models with species  
284 distribution models to predict spatial variation in community composition remains an active  
285 area of research in biodiversity modelling (Pellissier et al., 2013; Constable et al., 2014).

286         Generally, each predicted habitat distribution matched the picture provided by the  
287 combination of occurrence and predator diet records. For *Kondakovia longimana*, the  
288 predicted habitat was much more circumpolar in nature than the observed catch records, but  
289 that circumpolar pattern was consistent with predator diet observations. Similarly, suitable

290 habitat for *Gonatus antarcticus* was predicted to include areas close to the Antarctic  
291 continent, well away from observed net catches. However, emperor penguins have been  
292 recorded to feed on this species there (Cherel and Kooyman, 1998). Some minor  
293 discrepancies were also noted. The sea ice zone was not predicted to be suitable habitat for  
294 *Moroteuthis ingens*, apparently contradicting an emperor penguin diet record from Auster  
295 colony, near Mawson station (Robertson et al., 1994). However, this species has never been  
296 recorded in any other emperor diet studies (Xavier and Cherel, 2009) and so this record may  
297 have been a misidentified *M. knipovitchi*, an Antarctic species of the same family with  
298 broadly similar beak characteristics (Xavier and Cherel, 2009). Finally, *S. circumantarctica*  
299 has occasionally been caught by nets in warm waters near New Zealand (around 45 °S) but  
300 this was not predicted to be a suitable habitat (Figure 4b).

301         The models showed that ocean areas with generally higher levels of habitat suitability  
302 exist around 50 °S in the Atlantic and Indian sectors and 60 °S in the Pacific sector, where the  
303 majority of the fronts are distributed (i.e. Polar Front, sub-Antarctic Front and subtropical  
304 Fronts; see Xavier et al. 1999), reinforcing that these areas regions are broadly ecologically  
305 relevant, including for cephalopods.

306

### 307 **Physical and biogeochemical ocean mechanisms influencing the distribution of squid in** 308 **the Southern Ocean**

309         The Southern Ocean is characterized by high surface macro-nutrient concentrations  
310 and relatively low iron concentrations, and so iron input typically leads to increased  
311 productivity. Several low-latitude species (e.g. *Doryteuthis gahi*, *Martialia hyadesi*) were  
312 associated with regions where atmospheric iron deposition is strongly correlated with

313 increased productivity (as measured by satellite-based chlorophyll, e.g. east of Patagonia, on  
314 the Falkland plateau) (Erickson et al., 2003). Away from land in the open Southern Ocean,  
315 areas of elevated productivity tend to be driven by upwelling of nutrients, often caused by the  
316 interaction of the Antarctic circumpolar current flow with large-scale bathymetric features,  
317 such as mid-ocean ridges (Sokolov and Rintoul, 2007). Some such areas are known to be  
318 foraging grounds for predators such as seabirds (Raymond et al., 2010). Thus water depth can  
319 potentially influence cephalopod distribution, even in deep, mid-ocean areas well away from  
320 shelves.

321 Broadly speaking, cold, nutrient-rich waters upwell south of the Polar Front and  
322 subduction (i.e. downwelling) occurs north of the Polar Front (Sarmiento et al., 2004).  
323 Several species in this study (e.g. *Todarodes filippovae*, *Galiteuthis glacialis*) featured a  
324 strong contrast across the Subantarctic Front. Upwelling in the Weddell and Ross gyres may  
325 also play a role in forming suitable habitat for some species, such as *Psychroteuthis glacialis*  
326 (Figure 17a,b). Three species (*Mesonychoteuthis hamiltoni*, *Bathyteuthis abyssicola* and  
327 *Slosarczykovia circumantarctica*) were found to have a potential affinity for areas with low  
328 oxygen minima, suggesting that these species may use this ecological niche close to or within  
329 the oxygen minimum zone. Although low oxygen levels are known to greatly limit the  
330 abundance, vertical distribution, and ecology (e.g. predation, food competition) of numerous  
331 marine animals, some species of squid (e.g. jumbo squid *Dosidicus gigas*) are known to thrive  
332 in such harsh environments (Trübenbach et al., 2013).

333 This study indicates that large-scale physical and biogeochemical properties can  
334 influence the suitability of a given region, often in remarkably different ways for different  
335 cephalopod species. The 15 species modelled here can be discussed in terms of three broad  
336 spatial groupings: those distributed in cold waters close to the Antarctic continent, those in

337 relatively warm waters to the north, and those with less constrained distribution (i.e.  
338 extending into both warm and cold waters).

339

#### 340 **Habitat suitability of “cold” water cephalopod species**

341 The species that clearly have suitable habitat close to the Antarctic continent were  
342 *Alluroteuthis antarcticus*, *Galiteuthis glacialis*, *Mesonychoteuthis hamiltoni*, *Psychroteuthis*  
343 *glacialis*. These species have been recognized as typical Antarctic water species with a  
344 suggested circumpolar distribution (Xavier et al., 1999; Rodhouse et al., 2014), consistent  
345 with our results. *A. antarcticus* is occasionally caught in nets in the Atlantic and Indian  
346 sectors of the Southern Ocean (Rodhouse, 1989; Lu and Williams, 1994) but also in the diet  
347 of albatrosses in the Pacific sector (Xavier et al., 2014). *G. glacialis* is one of the most  
348 abundant (i.e. most commonly caught in midwater research nets) and widely distributed squid  
349 species in the colder waters of the Southern Ocean. *M. hamiltoni* is arguably the largest squid  
350 species in the world, growing to ten metres or more in length (Collins and Rodhouse, 2006).  
351 Its habitat is typically in circumpolar colder waters (see results; Xavier et al. 1999). It is  
352 occasionally caught by longline fisheries (as a by-catch), and is found in top predator diets  
353 (Xavier and Cherel, 2009). Finally, *P. glacialis* is considered to be abundant with a  
354 circumpolar distribution in high Antarctic areas (Filippova and Pakhomov, 1994; Xavier et  
355 al., 1999). This is supported by our habitat suitability predictions, suggesting that this species  
356 may be abundant close to the continent as previously thought, but also in oceanic waters (see  
357 results). Evidence of *P. glacialis* living near the bottom at the shelf break area (300–1000 m)  
358 (Lu and Williams, 1994; Collins et al., 2004), applies particularly for the Scotia Sea region in  
359 our habitat suitability predictions. *P. glacialis*, like *A. antarcticus*, *G. glacialis* and *M.*

360 *hamiltoni*, is also found in the diets of a wide range of top predators, including albatrosses,  
361 penguins, seals, whales and toothfish species (Xavier and Cherel, 2009).

362

### 363 **Habitat suitability of “mixed” (i.e. cold and warm) water cephalopod species**

364 A group of species were predicted to be broadly distributed, from close to the  
365 Antarctic continent to warmer waters north of 60 °S: *Bathyteuthis abyssicola*, *Slosarczykovia*  
366 *circumantarctica*, *Histioteuthis eltaninae*, *Kondakovia longimana* and *Gonatus antarcticus*.

367 *B. abyssicola* occurs in all three sectors of the Southern Ocean (Roper, 1969), but  
368 occurs very rarely in the diet of top predators (Xavier and Cherel, 2009), probably because it  
369 lives at great depths (Roper, 1969). *S. circumantarctica* is considered to be the most abundant  
370 squid in the upper layers of pelagic waters in the Southern Ocean, generally deeper than 400  
371 m by day and migrating towards the surface by night (Collins and Rodhouse, 2006). The  
372 suitable habitat of *S. circumantarctica* in this study predicted to be circumpolar but not close  
373 to the Antarctic continent (only at the Antarctic Peninsula islands; see results) occurring  
374 regularly in research nets in the Scotia Sea (Rodhouse and Piatkowski, 1995; Rodhouse et al.,  
375 1996; Collins et al., 2004). *S. circumantactica* is the most important squid species (by  
376 frequency of occurrence and by number) in the diet of Antarctic fur seals breeding at South  
377 Georgia in most years (British Antarctic Survey, unpubl. data). *H. eltaninae* is distributed the  
378 furthest south of the species of the family Histioteuthidae, with a circumpolar distribution  
379 (Rodhouse and Piatkowski, 1995; Rodhouse et al., 1996; Xavier et al., 1999; Collins and  
380 Rodhouse, 2006), occurring in small numbers in research nets (Rodhouse and Piatkowski,  
381 1995; Xavier and Cherel, 2009), but never close to the Antarctic continent (matching model  
382 predictions here; see results). Although it has been suggested that *H. eltaninae* is more

383 abundant in proximity to land and oceanic ridges (Roper et al., 1984), this is not expressed in  
384 our predictions (but note that the habitat suitability model for this species used only a single  
385 predictor variable (depth), and so should be treated with caution). *H. eltaninae* occurs in a  
386 wide range of predator diets (Cherel and Klages, 1998; Xavier and Cherel, 2009). *K.*  
387 *longimana* has a circumpolar distribution (Xavier, 1997; Xavier et al., 1999), matched by our  
388 study results, ranging from close to the Antarctic continent coasts to north of 60 °S (Cherel  
389 and Weimerskirch, 1999). This species also reaches large sizes (Rodhouse et al., 2014), but  
390 not as large as *M. hamiltoni*. Although rare in research nets (Collins et al., 2004), *K.*  
391 *longimana* is one of the most important species (by number and by mass) in numerous  
392 predators in the Southern Ocean, including wandering and grey-headed albatrosses (Clarke,  
393 1980; Croxall and Prince, 1996; Xavier et al., 2003b; Cherel et al., 2004; Xavier and Cherel,  
394 2009). *G. antarcticus* has a circumpolar distribution reaching as far south as the Antarctic  
395 continent (Xavier et al., 1999), a finding mirrored by our results. This species occurs  
396 occasionally in nets (Rodhouse et al., 1996; Collins and Rodhouse, 2006) but is more  
397 commonly found in the diet of seabirds and seals (Croxall and Prince, 1996; Cherel and  
398 Klages, 1998; Xavier et al., 2002; Cherel et al., 2004; Xavier and Cherel, 2009).

399

#### 400 **Habitat suitability of “warm” water cephalopod species**

401 Five species were predicted to be distributed in the warmer waters of the Southern  
402 Ocean: *Histioteuthis atlantica*, *Martialia hyadesi*, *Todarodes filippovae*, *Moroteuthis ingens*  
403 and *Moroteuthis robsoni*. *H. atlantica* has a circumpolar distribution (Xavier et al., 1999;  
404 Rodhouse et al., 2014), and is more northerly distributed than *H. eltaninae*, as reflected by  
405 our predicted habitat suitability for both histioteuthid species. *H. atlantica* is known to occur  
406 in oceanic waters (Roper et al., 1984), as suggested by our predictions (see results) but it has

407 also been caught in shallow waters (Voss et al., 1998). *H. atlantica* is important in the diet of  
408 albatrosses, sharks and many other predators that forage in the warmer waters of the Southern  
409 Ocean (Xavier and Cherel, 2009). *M. hyadesi* is found further south than *H. atlantica*, but  
410 never close to the Antarctic continent (Rodhouse, 1998a; Xavier et al., 1999). Our results are  
411 consistent with this, indicating that the sea ice zone comprises unsuitable habitat for this  
412 species. *M. hyadesi* is the squid species that has attracted most attention with regard to future  
413 commercial exploitation (Rodhouse, 1997), and is present in the diet of a wide range of top  
414 predators (Xavier and Cherel, 2009), being particularly important in the diet of grey-headed  
415 albatrosses in some years (Xavier et al., 2003a). *T. filippovae* has a similar circumpolar  
416 distribution to *H. atlantica*, and extending further north than the region modelled here (to 35  
417 °S) (Pethybridge et al., 2013). It is common around seamounts and slope waters, up to a 1000  
418 m depth (Roeleveld, 1998; Xavier et al., 1999). While generally found in relatively warm  
419 waters, *T. filippovae* is periodically caught further south (Rodhouse, 1998b). *Todarodes* spp.  
420 are present in the diet of toothed whales, wandering albatrosses, seals, sharks and fish (Smale,  
421 1996; Xavier and Cherel, 2009). *M. ingens* is mostly associated with shelves (Cherel and  
422 Duhamel, 2003) but is also found in bathyal waters (Rodhouse et al., 2014). Given these  
423 depth differences, more sampling and genetics work must be carried out to verify if it is truly  
424 a single species and not a group of similar species. *M. ingens* is common in the diet of  
425 penguins, albatrosses, petrels, whales, seals and the southern opah (Clarke, 1980; Green and  
426 Burton, 1993; Cherel et al., 1996; Croxall and Prince, 1996; Cherel and Klages, 1998; Xavier  
427 and Cherel, 2009). *M. robsoni* may exhibit a circumpolar distribution (Rodhouse, 1990;  
428 Rodhouse et al., 2014), extending as far south as the Scotia Sea but nevertheless still a warm  
429 water cephalopod species. Like *M. ingens*, most specimens of *M. robsoni* have been caught in  
430 shelf/near shelf waters with a small number specimens being caught in oceanic waters, and so  
431 more sampling and genetics work must be carried out to verify the nature of this species. *M.*

432 *robsoni* is an oceanic species (Roper et al., 1984) that occurs occasionally in the diets of  
433 Southern Ocean predators that forage sufficiently far north (Imber, 1992; Cherel et al., 2004;  
434 Xavier and Cherel, 2009).

435 The “hotspots” in the distribution of cephalopods in the Southern Ocean are related to  
436 oceanic waters, across various fronts. This is consistent with the tendency of top predators to  
437 target oceanic fronts, potentially to catch squid (Rodhouse et al., 1996; Xavier et al., 2004).  
438 Further research should concentrate on these areas to improve our understanding of the  
439 abundance and population dynamics of Southern Ocean cephalopods (Xavier et al., 2015).  
440 Several species (e.g. *K. longimana*, *G. antarcticus*, *M. hyadesi*, *M. knipovitchi*) have  
441 commercial potential in the future (Xavier et al., 2007), although the biology and ecology of  
442 some species (particularly *M. knipovitchi*) remain poorly known (Collins et al., 2004; Collins  
443 and Rodhouse, 2006). There is also a need for studies to explore the potential impacts of  
444 future climate change on Southern Ocean squid.

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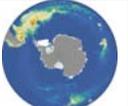
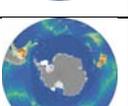
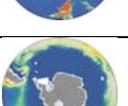
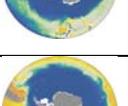
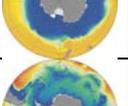
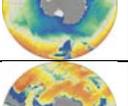
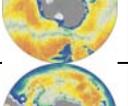
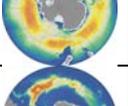
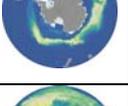
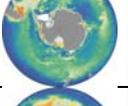
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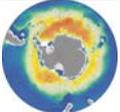
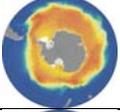
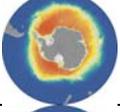
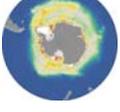
Table 1. Predictor variables used in the species distribution habitat suitability modeling.

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Source and references</b>	<b>Biological relevance</b>
Sea surface temperature (SST)	Sea surface temperature summer climatology, calculated over the 2002/03 to 2012/13 austral summer seasons	MODIS Aqua (Feldman and McClain 2010)	General water mass properties including positions of fronts, which can represent areas of different prey and of prey-aggregation
Sea ice cover	The average proportion of the year for which sea ice is present. Concentration data from 1-Jan-2003 to 31-Dec-2010 was used. The fraction of time each pixel was covered by sea ice of at least 85% concentration was calculated	AMSR-E satellite estimates of daily sea ice concentration (Spreen et al. 2008)	Indicator of sea ice cover, including polynyas, which affects ecosystem structure and prey availability
Depth	Measured and estimated seafloor topography from satellite altimetry and ship depth soundings	Smith and Sandwell (1997) V15.1	Water mass properties
Sea surface height (SSH)	Mean dynamic topography (sea surface height relative to geoid)	CNES-CLS09 Mean Dynamic Topography v1.1 (Rio et al. 2011)	Water mass properties
Chlorophyll- <i>a</i> (Chl- <i>a</i> )	Near-surface chlorophyll- <i>a</i> summer climatology, calculated over the 2002/03 to 2012/13 austral summer seasons	MODIS Aqua (Feldman and McClain 2010)	Productivity, ecosystem structure
Oxygen minimum	Minimum dissolved oxygen value in the top 1000m of the water column	World Ocean Atlas 2009 annual climatology (Garcia et al. 2010)	Water mass properties, potential habitat niche for cephalopods (Trübenbach et al. 2013)



Table 2. Habitat suitability modeling results summary (N occ.: Number of occurrences, AUC: area under the receiver-operating characteristic, OW: open water, PF: polar front, SAF: Sub-Antarctic Front, SIZ: sea ice zone. For variable names see Table 1). The thumbnail maps are reproductions of figures 3b-17b, and are included here to allow a convenient comparison of the broad spatial patterns in the modelling results.

Species	N occ.	Train /test AUC	Variables used in model (permutation importance, %)		Typical habitat from model predictions					
					SST (°C)	Depth (m)	Ice	O <sub>2</sub> min. (ml/l)	Chl- <i>a</i> (mg m <sup>-3</sup> )	Water mass
<i>Doryteuthis gahi</i>	149	0.99/0.99	Chl (60.5) Depth (34.3) Ice (5.1)		≥9	<400	OW		>0.75	
<i>Martialia hyadesi</i>	260	0.94/0.94	Chl (47.2) SST (43.8) Ice (5.8) Depth (3.2)		3–15		OW		>0.3	PF to SAF
<i>Moroteuthis ingens</i>	3808	0.61/0.61	Depth (65.5) SST (27.4) SSH (4.8) Ice (2.3)		3–16	300–1500	OW		>0.2	
<i>Moroteuthis robsoni</i>	342	0.75/0.75	SSH (41.5) Chl (32.5) O <sub>2</sub> min (16.4) Depth (9.7)		7–18	>1000	OW		0.15–0.55	SAF and north
<i>Todarodes filippovae</i>	1173	0.62/0.61	SSH (84.9) Depth (15.1)		≥10		OW			SAF and north
<i>Histioteuthis atlantica</i>	106	0.89/0.89	Depth (85.4) SST (14.6)		≥5	>3000	OW		<0.6	
<i>Histioteuthis eltaninae</i>	110	0.90/0.90	Depth (100)			>3000	OW–70% cover		<0.65	
<i>Bathyteuthis abyssicola</i>	548	0.91/0.91	Depth (53.8) SST (37.2) O <sub>2</sub> min (9.0)		≤12	>2500	OW–70% cover	<4.8	<0.7	
<i>Slosarczykovia circumantarctica</i>	1304	0.96/0.96	SSH (74.4) Ice (19.6) Chl (4.2) SST (1.8)		0–7	>1500	OW–20% cover	4–4.5	0.15–0.65	SAF to parts of SIZ
<i>Gonatus antarcticus</i>	120	0.83/0.82	SST (66.2) Chl (33.8)		< 12				>0.4	
<i>Kondakovia longimana</i>	100	0.95/0.94	SSH (82.8) Chl (12.1) Ice (5.2)		<6	>500	OW–70% cover		>0.15	PF and south

<i>Mesonychoteuthis hamiltoni</i>	234	0.93/ 0.92	SSH (57.5) Depth (37) O <sub>2</sub> min (5.4)		≤11	>2200		<4.75		SAF and south
<i>Galiteuthis glacialis</i>	1449	0.88/ 0.88	SST (79.5) SSH (20.5)		≤6	>500	SIZ- OW			PF and south
<i>Alluroteuthis antarcticus</i>	124	0.93/ 0.93	SST (98.6) Depth (1.4)		≤3	>500	SIZ and OW			South of PF
<i>Psychroteuthis glacialis</i>	316	0.94/ 0.93	SST (66.6) SSH (24.0) Chl (7.4) Ice (2.0)		≤3	>500	SIZ and OW			South of SAF

