- 1 Title: Life cycle, distribution and trophodynamics of the lanternfish
- 2 Krefftichthys anderssoni (Lönnberg, 1905) in the Scotia Sea
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#### 20 Abstract:

21 Myctophid fish play an important role in the Southern Ocean pelagic food web. The rhombic lanternfish Krefftichthys anderssoni is one of the most common myctophids in 22 23 the region, but its ecology is poorly known. This study examines spatial and temporal patterns in the species distribution of abundance, life cycle, population structure and 24 25 diet using samples collected by mid-water trawl nets deployed in different seasons across the Scotia Sea. Virtually absent from the sea-ice zone, the species was most 26 27 abundant in the northern Scotia Sea around the Georgia Basin at depths below 400 m 28 associated with the Circumpolar Deep Water. The species migrates during night to the upper 400 m following their main preys: the copepods Rhincalanus gigas and 29 Calanoides acutus, and euphausiids of genus Thysanoessa. Larvae length distribution 30 and post-larvae length frequency analysis suggested a life cycle of  $\approx$  3 years with 31 spawning and recruitment strongly connected with the APF and the South Georgia 32 33 shelf. Spatial distribution, population structure and diet changed both seasonally and ontogenetically. To date, the present study is the most comprehensive for K. anderssoni 34

in the Scotia Sea and contributes to resolving how pelagic food webs and ecosystemsoperate in the Southern Ocean.

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#### 38 Introduction:

Mesopelagic fishes are among the most abundant vertebrate group on earth, and yet they 39 remain one of the least studied components of the open-ocean ecosystem (Gjøsaeter & 40 Kawaguchi 1980, Irigoien et al. 2014). They occupy an important trophic status, as 41 42 zooplankton consumers and as prey to many higher marine predators, and may respire up to 10% of primary production in deep waters (Pakhomov et al. 1996, Smith 2011, 43 Irigoien et al. 2014). Lanternfish (family Myctophidae) are considered to be the 44 dominant fishes within the global mesopelagic fish community, including the Southern 45 Ocean (Gjøsaeter and Kawaguchi 1980). 46

In the Southern Ocean, the family Myctophidae is represented by 12 genera and 47 48 24 resident species plus 44 species occasionally recorded south of the sub-Tropical front (Duhamel et al. 2014), comprising an estimated biomass of 70-130 million tonnes (Mt) 49 50 (Lubimova et al. 1987). Myctophids play an important ecological role in the offshore pelagic food-web in this region (Barrera-Oro 2002; Saunders et al. in press). They are a 51 key dietary component of sea birds, seals, cetaceans, squid and large predatory fish 52 (Rodhouse et al. 1992, Olsson and North 1997, Cherel et al. 2002, Reid et al. 2006, 53 Collins et al. 2007, Cherel et al. 2008), and are themselves predators of 54 55 macrozooplankton, such as a copepods, amphipods and euphausiids, including Antarctic krill (Euphausia superba) (Pakhomov et al. 1996, Williams et al. 2001, Shreeve et al. 56 2009; Saunders et al., 2015c). Myctophids are particularly important to the ecosystem in 57 this region as they provide a major krill-independent trophic pathway in an otherwise 58 krill-dominated food web (Murphy et al. 2007b). However, despite their ecological 59 importance, very little is known about the ecology of key myctophid species in the 60 region. Acquisition of new data on the ecology of myctophid fish, particularly their 61 trophic ecology, is therefore an essential prerequisite for understanding the operation of 62 63 the Southern Ocean ecosystem and carbon cycles, and for establishing sustainable ecosystem management policies. 64

65 The rhombic lanternfish Krefftichthys anderssoni (Lönnberg, 1905) is one of the most common myctophid fish in the Scotia Sea (Hulley 1981, McGinnis 1982, 66 Piatkowski et al. 1994, Collins et al. 2008), benefiting from the high levels of 67 productivity conditions that sustain an abundant zooplankton community upon which 68 they feed (Holm-Hansen et al. 2004)It has a distribution in the Southern Ocean and 69 adjacent seas and is found from the Weddell-Scotia confluence to 32°S-33°S in the 70 Peruvian Current, and to 34°S in the Falkland Current (Hulley 1981). Krefftichthys 71 72 anderssoni has a patchy distribution pattern and population structure throughout this range (Hulley 1981, Koubbi et al. 2001, Collins et al. 2008, Duhamel et al. 2014). It has 73 74 been reported that the life cycle of this broadly Antarctic species is strongly associated 75 with the Antarctic Polar Front (APF), with the most suitable habitats for the larvae found both off- and on-shelf in waters influenced by the APF (Hulley 1981, Koubbi et 76 77 al. 2001, Koubbi et al. 2011, Duhamel et al. 2014). In the Scotia Sea, K. anderssoni has been caught from the surface up to 1000 m but only deeper than 400 m during daylight, 78 79 which is indicative of diel vertical migration (DVM) (Piatkowski et al. 1994, Collins et 80 al. 2008). Possible seasonal variations in depth distribution have yet to be investigated 81 for this species.

Of the Southern Ocean myctophid fish community, K. anderssoni appears to be 82 one of the most important species in the pelagic food web. It comprises a crucial part of 83 the diet of many predators in the region, particularly the squid Martialia hyadesi 84 85 (Rodhouse et al. 1992), Patagonian toothfish *Dissostichus eleginoides* (Collins et al. 2007), king penguins Aptenodytes patagonicus (Bost et al. 1997; Bost et al. 2002; 86 87 Cherel et al. 1996), macaroni penguins *Eudyptes chrysolophus* (Klages et al. 1989; Waluda et al. 2010), grey-headed albatrosses Thalassarche chrysostoma (Xavier et al. 88 89 2003) and Antarctic fur seals Arctocephalus gazella (Green et al. 1989 Cherel et al. 1997; Daneri et al. 2005). Based on biochemical analyses, this relatively small 90 myctophid species (up to  $\approx 80$  mm standard length; Hulley, 1981) is also considered a 91 high level predator (trophic level = 3.8) in this food web, feeding on crustacean 92 suspension feeders and other zooplankton (Stowasser et al. 2012), mainly copepods and 93 small euphausiids (Gaskett et al. 2001, Shreeve et al. 2009). However, the exact diet 94 composition of this species remains unresolved since previous trophic studies are 95 96 limited to relatively small sample sizes collected over restricted spatial and temporal

scales (Pakhomov et al. 1996, Gaskett et al. 2001, Shreeve et al. 2009, Cherel et al. 97 98 2010). Recent trophic studies of other Southern Ocean species have shown that diets of other myctophid species vary spatially, temporally and ontogenetically, with the 99 possibility of resource partitioning between co-existing species, such as *Electrona* 100 carlsbergi, Gymnoscopelus braueri, and Protomyctophum bolini (Shreeve et al. 2009, 101 102 Saunders et al. 2014, Saunders et al. 2015a). However, such variation has yet to be examined for K. anderssoni and there remain major uncertainties in the species' diet 103 composition. New studies are required to assess the extent of resource overlap between 104 105 this species and other potential competitors in the same region.

Myctophids comprise an estimated biomass of around 4.5 Mt in the Scotia Sea 106 107 (Collins et al. 2012) and new knowledge about their ecology and trophodynamics in the Atlantic sector of Scotia Sea constitutes a major step towards understanding ecosystem 108 109 dynamics at the broader scale of the Southern Ocean. In this paper, new data is 110 presented concerning the distribution, abundance, length structure and feeding ecology of K. anderssoni, in the Scotia Sea, using net samples collected during three 111 112 multidisciplinary research cruises (November 2006, January 2008 and March 2009) that surveyed the Scotia Sea from the sea-ice zone (SIZ) to the APF (ref Tarling et al DSR 113 summary paper). This information is important for resolving the structure and 114 115 evaluating the stability of the Southern Ocean food web that is presently subject to sustained ocean-climate change (Moline et al. 2004, Murphy et al. 2007a, Flores et al. 116 117 2012). The Scotia Sea is one of the most productive regions of the Southern Ocean (Holm-Hansen et al. 2004), sustaining abundant secondary consumers, major 118 populations of higher predators and important commercial fisheries (Everson 1992, 119 120 Constable et al. 2000, Murphy et al. 2007b, Atkinson et al. 2009).

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### 122 Materials and Methods

123 This study takes advantage of the information collected on *K. anderssoni* during the 124 three multidisciplinary cruises conducted onboard RRS *James Clark* during austral 125 spring, summer and autumn of consecutive years. The cruises were designed to cover all 126 the major water masses and oceanographic regimes across Scotia Sea. Without being 127 species targeted, extended depth and latitudinal sampling in the three surveys allowed

- the study of the composition and distribution of the mesopelagic fish at the community
- level (Collins et al. 2012; Van de Putte et al. 2012) and at species level (Saunders et al
- 130 2014; Saunders et al. 2015a; Saunders et al. 2015b). Data on *K. anderssoni* captured
- seasonally in the same stations and through an extended depth range was used to follow
- the species distribution, abundance and trophodynamics in relation to major
- 133 oceanographic regimes, latitude and depth. Post-larvae length frequency analysis
- 134 combined with larvae abundance and length data collected during the British Antarctic
- 135 Survey's long-term ichthyoplankton monitoring programme (Belchier and Lawson
- 136 2013) were used to help determine the species life cycle.

### 137 Study location and oceanographic background

Three cruises were conducted during the austral spring (cruise JR161, October – 138 December 2006), austral summer (JR177, January – February 2008) and autumn (JR 139 200, March – April 2009). The cruises covered one transect from the sea ice zone (SIZ) 140 to the APF (Figure 1). During each survey, oceanographic (Venables et al. 2012), 141 142 acoustic (Fielding et al. 2012) and biological data (Collins et al. 2012; Korb et al. 2012; 143 Ward et al. 2012a; Whitehouse et al. 2012) were collected at a six fixed stations that were spread across the different water masses and frontal zones in the region, following 144 145 a transect line from east of the South Orkneys to west of South Georgia, following an 146 ERS satellite altimeter track. These stations were named as follows: southern Scotia Sea 147 (SSS), mid- Scotia Sea (MSS), western Scotia Sea (WSS), northern Scotia Sea (NSS), 148 Georgia Basin (GB) and the polar front (PF, Figure 1).

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## 150 Fish sampling and processing

Mesopelagic fish and invertebrates were collected using an opening and closing
rectangular mid-water trawl net (RMT 25) (Piatkowski et al. 1994). The RMT 25 is a
set of two 25 m<sup>2</sup> nets that can be opened and closed sequentially via an electronic downwire control unit to sample two depth-discrete layers. Each net had a cod-end mesh of 5
mm and was fitted with a protective cod-end to minimise damage to the samples. The

- 156 RMT 25 was towed obliquely at  $\approx 2.5$  knots for 30 60 min in each depth stratum, and
- each deployment was monitored in real time using a custom-built net monitoring system
- that logged depth and environment temperature. Both nets were closed during

159 deployment and veering, but opened sequentially during hauling. At each station, depth-160 stratified hauls were undertaken at 0-200 m, 200-400 m, 400-700 m and 700 - 1000 m. These depth strata were repeated day and night during the spring and summer cruises, 161 162 but all hauls were conducted at night during autumn due to reduced daylight hours. The upper-most depth strata (0-200 m and 200 - 400 m) were sampled as close to local 163 midday or midnight as practical. The sampling depth range and stratification were 164 defined *a priori* to be coincident with predator vertical foraging ranges and also to 165 facilitate comparisons between BAS surveys. The targeted mesopelagic community 166 167 perform dial migratory movements between the deeper waters near 1000 m and the 168 shallow layer with abundance peaks around 400 m during the day and upper to 200 m 169 during the night (Piatkowski et al. 1994; Collins et al. 2008). Additionally, the predators 170 (e.g. king penguin and Antarctic fur seal) dive to forage predominantly above the 200 m 171 (Bost et al. 2002; Guinet et al. 2001) setting the limit for the most superficial depth 172 strata.

173 RMT 25 net haul catches were sorted on board to the lowest taxonomic level 174 possible using published guides (Hulley 1981, 1990). Total catch weights for each fish 175 species were obtained using a motion- compensated balance. All fish were measured to 176 the nearest 1 mm (standard length, hereafter SL). Stomachs were dissected from a 177 random sub-sample of 25 fish per haul, or from each fish when net catches were poor 178 (see Table 1 for sample size for length frequency and stomach content analyses). All 179 stomachs were frozen for subsequent microscopic analysis.

### 180 Length frequency analysis, LFA

Length-frequency data aggregated by season, region and depth strata were plotted as 181 182 histograms of 5 mm SL classes. The resulting distributions were tested for normality 183 with the Shapiro-Wilks test and based on the results obtained, a series of Kolmorov-Smirnov tests were conducted on the length frequency distributions to investigate 184 possible differences in population structure between seasons, regions and depth strata 185 across the Scotia Sea. For each factor, the tests were performed pairwise, comparing 186 187 levels with n > 60 individuals. The package R Mixdist (Macdonald, 2014) was used to fit normal distributions to the composite length-frequency distributions. Mixdist fits a 188 189 mixture of distributions model using an algorithm defined by Macdonald and Green

(1988). The algorithm identifies a set of overlapping normal (or log-normal) component 190 191 distributions that gives the best fit for a specific mixture distribution. The number of 192 expected cohorts and approximate mean SL per cohort is specified by the user a priori by visual inspection of the length histograms as initial fitting parameters. The analysis 193 was constrained to fixed variance between mixture components and all components 194 195 were assumed to be normal. The analysis was only conducted in data sets with n > 60(Table 1). A series of runs were conducted based on the presence of two or three cohorts 196 and the best fit was determined by the analysis of the goodness-of-fit in larger  $\chi^2$  value 197 obtained with significance level p < 0.05. 198

## 199 Larvae sampling and data analysis

Larval length data were collected from Cumberland Bay larval study, South Georgia 200 201 (54°17'S, 36°20'W), as part of the British Antarctic Survey's long-term ichthyoplankton monitoring program (Belchier and Lawson 2013). These inshore surveys were 202 203 conducted on a weekly basis between January 2002 and October 2008, with 1 to 5 hauls conducted each month and 20 to 39 hauls per year. Larval fish samples were collected 204 from a total of 219 oblique plankton tows conducted with a RMT with a 1 m<sup>2</sup> opening 205 (RMT1) and net mesh size of 610 µm that was towed for 30 minutes from the surface to 206 207 a maximum depth of 25 m. The tows were conducted in an approximately north to south direction over water depths of  $\approx 25$  m and the volume of water filtered was calculated 208 209 from swept area of the net calculated from GPS derived vessel speed and trawl duration 210 data. The K. anderssoni collected represented approximately 37% of the larvae collected occurring in 35 % of the hauls (Belchier and Lawson, 2013). For each sampled 211 month a maximum of 200 K. anderssoni larvae were measured, with standard length 212 (SL) ranging between 2 mm and 19 mm. Further details about the larval fish sampling 213 procedures are described in Belchier and Lawson (2013). Variability among sampling 214 years and sampling months was analysed with type III ANOVA for unbalanced 215 216 samples. The mean larval month was then determined by calculating the average length 217 of the mean length obtained in each month sampled.

### 218 Diet analysis

Following Shreeve et al (2009), prey species were identified to the highest level that thestate of digestion would allow using standard zooplankton identification guides

(Boltovskoy 1999). Individual prey items were then counted and weighed. If the prey
was highly disaggregated, the weights of component species were estimated as a
proportion of the weight of total contents.

*Krefftichthys anderssoni* diet was expressed using percentage mass (%M),
percentage frequency of occurrence (%F), percentage number (%N), and an Index of
Relative Importance (%IRI, Cortés 1997). Percentage mass was based on the weight of
prey found in the stomach and not on estimated original mass. The %IRI was calculated
for prey specimens and the % IRI<sub>DC</sub> for key diet categories (hereafter DC) (Main et al.
2009; Shreeve et al. 2009). The %IRI was calculated as:

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$$\% IRI = \frac{(\% N_i + \% M_i) \times \% F_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n (\% N_i + \% M_i) \times \% F_i} \times 100$$
(1)

Diet categories were selected for the prey taxa > 1% IRI of the diet: *Themisto* 231 gaudichaudii (thm), Thysanoessa spp. (thy), Calanoides acutus (cac), Calanus 232 233 simillimus (cas), Metridia spp. (met) and Rhincalanus gigas (rcg). The % IRI<sub>DC</sub> was 234 calculated with data aggregated by region, season and size class (Table 1). The fish size 235 classes small (< 32 mm SL), medium (32-60 mm SL) and large (> 60 mm SL) were derived from the length-frequency analyses. The 95% confidence limits for the mean % 236 237 IRI of each DC were calculated using bootstrapping technique, whereby each species dataset (individual stomachs) was re-sampled with replacement 1000 times following 238 239 Main et al. (2009).

240

# 241 **Results**

## 242 Oceanographic conditions

Krefftichthys anderssoni was mainly captured in the regions north of the Southern 243 Boundary of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (SB-ACC), so only oceanographic 244 conditions in the northern Scotia Sea are described here. Stations in the WSS and MSS 245 lay close to the South Antarctic Circumpolar Current Front (SACCF), where mean 246 247 temperatures and Chl a concentration in the Antarctic surface waters (AASW) ranged from -0.2°C to 2.1 °C and 0.2 – 2.6 mg m<sup>-3</sup>, respectively. Stations in the NSS and GB 248 249 were situated between SACCF and the APF. Mean temperature and Chl a concentrations were similar in the AASW in these two regions during each survey ( $\approx$ 1.5-4.0 °C and  $\approx$ 250

 $0.2-1.0 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ ). The APF stations were situated in waters close to the southern Antarctic 251 252 Polar Front (S-PF). The APF stations of spring 2006 (JR161) lay north to that S-PF, where surface waters in this region had a mean temperature > 4°C during all surveys with mean 253 Chl *a* concentrations ranging between 0.2 mg m<sup>-3</sup> and 0.6 mg m<sup>-3</sup>. Winter water (WW: 254 100-200 m) and Circumpolar Deep Water (CDW; > 200 m) were evident at all stations 255 located between SB-ACC and APF. Mean temperatures in the WW ranged between 0.2°C 256 and 1.0°C. Mean water temperature in the CDW ( $\approx 0.8$  °C) varied by < 0.5 °C between 257 surveys and by  $\approx 1.0^{\circ}$ C between regions. More detailed descriptions of the oceanographic 258 259 conditions can be found in Venables et al. (2012) and Whitehouse et al. (2012).

260

## 261 **Distribution and abundance**

A total of 143 non-targeted net hauls were conducted during the three surveys (Table 2). 262 263 All stations were sampled repeatedly to a varying degree during the study period except the WSS, where sampling was confined to the spring survey. Krefftichthys anderssoni 264 265 abundance and biomass was variable, however the distribution pattern was consistent between sampling years with species being predominantly distributed in the northern 266 267 Scotia Sea (NSS, GB and PF) and seldom occurred in the sea-ice sector (SSS) (n=2). Higher densities and biomass were found in spring 2006 (0.12 ind.1000 m<sup>-3</sup>; 0.20 g 268 1000 m<sup>-3</sup>), and the lower densities and abundance in summer 2008 (0.04 ind.1000 m<sup>-3</sup>; 269 0.05 g 1000 m<sup>-3</sup>) (Table 2). The species was most abundant in spring around the GB 270  $(0.22 \text{ ind. } 1000 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ and } 0.25 \text{ g} 1000 \text{ m}^{-3})$  and least abundant in the MSS regions in 271 autumn (< 0.02 ind. 1000 m<sup>-3</sup> and < 0.04 g 1000 m<sup>-3</sup>; Table 2). 272

273 Krefftichthys and erssoni was most abundant at depths greater than 400 m during daytime, although the species was caught at the surface layers (0-200 m) during this 274 275 time, suggesting daylight surface schooling of part of the population (Figure 2). During 276 the night-time, the species was distributed higher in the water column, with peaks in 277 abundance situated around 201-400 m, indicative of some DVM (Figure 2). There was 278 also evidence of seasonal variation in the species' depth distribution. Peaks in both 279 night-time abundance and biomass occurred at depths 201-400 m during the spring, but occurred progressively deeper in summer (401-700 m) and autumn (700-1000 m; Figure 280 281 2). The data show an increasingly dominance of larger specimens in the deepest regions

of the water column during summer and autumn, as the mean size of specimens between

283 700-1000 m was at least 15 mm larger than that observed at depths higher up the water

column (e.g. 34 mm at 401-700 m compared to 49 mm at 700-1000 m in autumn). Such

size stratification was not apparent in spring.

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### 287 Life history and length frequency structure

288 The larval mean length varied both with sampling year (F = 196.50, p < 0.0001) and sampling month (F = 150.74, p < 0.0001), and the interaction between the two factors 289 290 (F = 151.00, p < 0.0001). The smallest larvae (mean SL = 5.71 mm ± 0.73, SD) were 291 captured in June, whilst the largest larvae were captured in March (mean SL = 14.25292 mm  $\pm 1.46$ , SD; Figure 3). These results indicate that the species is most likely a winter spawner, and therefore individuals are considered as belonging to a 0-group from the 293 294 time of hatching until the 31<sup>st</sup> July of the following year, to a group I from the 1<sup>st</sup> August to the 31<sup>st</sup> July of the next year, and so on. 295

The overall size range of K. anderssoni post-larval stages was 15-75 mm, SL and 296 the series of Kolmorov-Smirnov tests between seasons, regions and depth strata did not 297 show significant differences between frequency distributions (for all pairwise 298 299 comparisons p > 0.05). Overall, length-frequency analyses suggested that the species had a post-larval life cycle of  $\approx 2$  years (Figure 4). Although the data were not collected 300 301 in consecutive seasons, the overall seasonal pattern in population structure appeared to 302 be as follows. The spring population contained two size/age- classes, the group  $1^+$ 303 (mode: 35 mm), composed by fishes hatched in the previous year winter, and group  $2^+$ 304 (mode: 60 mm). There was only little growth for these two cohorts by summer and a spreading of the group  $2^+$  (mode: 60 mm) distribution as a result of the decreasing of the 305 306 population growth rate. Larvae hatched the previous winter were first evident as the group  $0^+$  (mode: 20 mm) in the population in autumn. Both the group  $1^+$  (mode: 43 mm) 307 308 and remnants of the group  $2^+$  (mode: 59 mm) were also evident at this time, suggesting 309 a relatively high rate of summer growth for the group  $1^+$ . The autumn groups 0 and 1 310 would presumably overwinter and recruit into the new  $1^+$  and  $2^+$ , respectively, the following July/August. Kolmorov-Smirnov tests revealed significant (p < 0.01) spatial 311 312 variation in the population structure of K. anderssoni across the Scotia Sea (Figure 5,

bar diagrams on the left column). Three cohorts were present in the population at the 313 314 PF, the 0-group (mode: 20 mm), group 1 (mode: 39 mm) and group 2 (mode: 57 mm), indicating that recruitment and growth had occurred in this region. By contrast, the 315 group 0 was notably absent in regions south of the APF in the Scotia Sea, with only 316 group 1 and group 2 specimens present in the population in the northern sector (GB and 317 NSS), and mainly 2 group specimens present at the southernmost range of the species 318 core distribution (MSS). This suggests that the species does not recruit in the oceanic 319 regions of the Scotia Sea and that populations become dominated by older and larger 320 321 specimens with increasing latitude into colder waters. The analyses also showed that the 322 species' population structure varied with depth, as the 0 group was predominantly 323 confined to the surface waters (0-200 m) and only 1 and 2 group specimens were 324 present in the deeper layers (> 200 m; Figure 5 bar diagrams on the right column).

325

### 326 Diet analysis

A total of 374 stomachs were examined during the analysis, of which 97 (24 %) were 327 328 found to be empty. The diet of K. anderssoni was mainly composed of copepods (80 % 329 IRI<sub>Copepoda</sub>, 70 % F), notably the species Rhincalanus gigas (59 % IRI), Calanoides acutus (14% IRI) and Calanus simillimus (7 % IRI). Euphausiacea (10% IRIEuphausiacea, 330 32 % F), represented mostly by *Thysanoessa* spp. (14 % IRI), were the second most 331 332 important prey group consumed. The species also consumed the amphipod Themisto gaudichaudii but it only comprised a relatively minor part of the diet (10 % F, 1% IRI) 333 334 (Table 4).

335 Based on the index of relative importance of the dominant prey taxa (%IRI<sub>DC</sub>), seasonal, spatial and ontogenetic differences in the diet of K. anderssoni were apparent. 336 337 Whilst the copepods R. gigas (spring: 61% IRI; summer: 72% IRI) and C. acutus (spring: 338 10 % IRI; summer: 24 % IRI) dominated the diet in spring and summer, there was a clear 339 switch to *Thysanoessa* spp. in the autumn (78% IRI) (Figure 6A). *Krefftichthys* 340 anderssoni consumed mostly the copepods Calanoides acutus (30-40 % IRI), Metridia 341 sp (18 % IRI) and *Calanus simillimus* (14% IRI) in the MSS and NSS, but further north its diet was dominated by R. gigas (59% IRI) and Thysanoessa spp. (27% IRI) in the 342 343 GB and by *R. gigas* at the PF (73 % IRI) (Figure 6B). Although, the diet of all *K*.

- 344 *anderssoni* size classes were dominated by the copepod *R. gigas*, size-related variations
- in diet were still apparent as there was a progressive increase in *Thysanoessa* spp.
- consumption with increasing fish size (26 % IRI in larger fish), whilst smaller/younger
- individuals preyed more on *C. acutus* (29 % IRI) ) (Figure 6C).
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#### 349 **Discussion**

Krefftichthys anderssoni is one of the most important myctophid species in the Scotia 350 351 Sea, as a key prey species for a wide range of Southern Ocean marine predators (Guinet et al. 1996; Waluda et al. 2010). However, to our knowledge, this study is the first to 352 353 detail information about the species distribution, life cycle, population structure and 354 feeding ecology in different seasons at the ocean-basin scale in any region of the Southern 355 Ocean. Myctophid fish are difficult to sample in this region and exhibit a relatively high degree of patchiness in their distribution patterns and population dynamics. Since data 356 357 were collected in different years, and therefore possible inter-annual effects cannot be 358 accounted for, such variation should be taken into consideration when interpreting the 359 results.

360

## 361 **Distribution patterns**

During this study, K. anderssoni was caught between the APF and SACCF, which is 362 363 consistent with other studies of this broadly Antarctic species in the region (Hulley 364 1981, McGinnis 1982, Duhamel et al. 2014). The species was most abundant in the 365 northern regions of the Scotia Sea, particularly around the NSS and GB often attaining a 366 greater abundance and biomass than some of the other larger myctophid species, such as E. antarctica and G. braueri (Saunders et al. 2014, Saunders et al. 2015a). Although 367 368 previous studies have hypothesized a close association between K. anderssoni and the 369 APF (e.g. Koubbi et al. 2001), the present data supports the concept that it also occurs 370 in high abundance south of this front in the northern Scotia Sea (Piatkowski et al. 1994, 371 Collins et al. 2008).

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### 373 Vertical distribution

Krefftichthys anderssoni occurred predominantly below 200 m in circumpolar deep 374 375 water (CDW) (Venables et al. 2012). There was evidence of DVM within this water 376 mass, with individuals moving from below 400 m during the day to depths between 377 201-400 m at night. These results are consistent with other studies in the region (Piatkowski et al. 1994, Collins et al. 2008). Daytime net avoidance in the upper regions 378 of the water column has been reported widely for many Southern Ocean myctophids 379 (Collins et al. 2008), but part of the K. anderssoni population was caught in the surface 380 layers (0-200 m) during daylight hours in our study. Daytime surface aggregations have 381 382 been reported previously for this species off the Kerguelen Islands (Indian sector of the 383 Southern Ocean), which is consistent with both acoustic studies of myctophid schools at 384 South Georgia (Saunders et al. 2013) and foraging studies of higher predators, such as king penguins, in the northern Scotia Sea (Scheffer et al. 2010). Similar behaviour has 385 386 also been reported for myctophids of the Protomyctophum genus in this region (Saunders et al. 2015b). Our data suggested that the daytime surface aggregations were 387 388 attributable to age 0+ and age 1 reflecting the extended surface feeding by juveniles in 389 the warmer and more food-rich layers of the water column following DVM (Venables et 390 al. 2012, Ward et al. 2012a).

There was clear seasonal variation in the depth distribution of K. anderssoni, with 391 relatively high concentrations of specimens moving progressively to deeper layers of 392 393 the water column between spring and autumn. Such behaviour is similar to that of other 394 myctophids in the region, such as *Electrona carlsbergi*, *Gymnoscopelus fraseri* and *G*. 395 nicholsi, although these species tend to be distributed higher in the water column (above 400 m) than K. anderssoni during all seasons (Saunders et al. 2014; 2015a). A seasonal 396 deepening of mesopelagic fish populations is generally assumed to be a response to the 397 398 winter deepening of food resources within the deep scattering layers (DSL), such as overwintering copepods (Atkinson 1998, Dypvik et al. 2012, Pepin 2013). To a certain 399 400 extent, our observations are in accordance with this hypothesis, as there was a seasonal deepening of the overwinter stages of the copepods R. gigas and C. acutus in the region 401 402 (Ward et al. 2012a). However, these copepods, particularly R. gigas, occurred predominantly in regions above 400 m, as did the euphausiids Thysanoessa spp., which 403 404 were the other main prey group consumed by K. anderssoni. The data further indicated that the seasonal migration was age-specific, suggesting that factors other than predation 405

406 on the DSL might also be important in driving this behaviour. For example, the

407 aggregation of large, mature adults at depth in autumn may reflect mating behavior prior

408 to spawning in winter.

409

# 410 **Population dynamics**

Krefftichthys anderssoni had a life cycle of around 3 years, with seasonal growth 411 412 apparent for all cohorts and clear spatial variation in population structure across the 413 Scotia Sea (Hulley 1981, McGinnis 1982, Collins et al. 2008). Length-frequency 414 analyses indicated that spawning and recruitment were predominantly confined to regions around the APF in oceanic waters and that the population became increasingly 415 416 dominated by larger and older specimens with increasing latitude. This trend, which is also apparent for several other myctophids in the region (Saunders et al. 2014; Saunders 417 418 et al. 2015a), is indicative of an oceanic expatriate proportion of the population in the Scotia Sea that could be related to temperature following oceanic transportation of 419 individuals from regions further north. For example, recruitment of this typically sub-420 421 Antarctic species may be inhibited in the cold oceanic waters of the Scotia Sea with 422 only the larger specimens, being able to tolerate the colder temperatures at increased latitudes. Ontogenetic feeding/spawning migrations have also been suggested for 423 myctophids in this region (Hulley 1981, McGinnis 1982, Zasel'sliy et al. 1985, Collins 424 425 et al. 2008), although the adaptive advantage of such behavior between regions of 426 comparable food availability is unclear (Atkinson 1998, Ward et al. 2002; Ward et al. 427 2012a).

428 Small K. anderssoni appeared in June and July, suggesting that the species as a winter spawner. Our data support the notion that the shelf waters around South Georgia 429 are an important region for spawning and recruitment of K. anderssoni south of the APF 430 (Collins et al. 2008, Belchier and Lawson 2013). Other studies have reported that the 431 432 species has a life cycle and distribution pattern that is closely coupled with waters of the APF (Piatkowski et al. 1994; Koubbi et al. 2001; Koubbi et al. 2011), possibly due to 433 434 the warmer water temperatures and food availability associated with this region. Similarly, environmental conditions around the South Georgia shelf may be suitable for 435 436 spawning, growth and recruitment of the species (Atkinson et al. 2001), enabling it to

form a self-sustaining population in the northern Scotia Sea, a region south of its core 437 438 distributional range. Interestingly, K. anderssoni could be the only myctophid species that recruits successfully in the Scotia Sea south of the APF, as 0-group specimens and 439 larvae are notably absent in population studies of all other common species in the 440 region, including E. carlsbergi, G. braueri, G. nicholsi and Protomyctophum bolini 441 (Rowedder 1979, Linkowski 1985, Piatkowski et al. 1994, Greely et al. 1999, Pusch et 442 443 al. 2004, Collins et al. 2008, Donnelly and Torres 2008, Belchier and Lawson 2013, 444 Saunders et al. 2014; Saunders et al. 2015a). Eggs of these species have been reported 445 in the Scotia Sea, although most appear to be associated with regions of the APF, 446 (Efremenko 1986), suggesting that recruitment may be confined to warmer waters 447 further north.

448

#### 449 Diet patterns

Krefftichthys anderssoni preyed on the most abundant species of the Southern Ocean 450 zooplankton community (Boltovskoy, 1999; Ward et al. 2012a), particularly copepods 451 452 and small euphausiids. The most important species consumed were the copepods R. gigas, C. acutus, and C. simillimus and the euphausiids Thysanoessa spp., which 453 became of greater importance in the diet during autumn. The results are broadly 454 455 consistent with the spatially and temporally limited observations in the Scotia Sea and 456 elsewhere (Pakhomov et al. 1996, Gaskett et al. 2001, Shreeve et al. 2009) and suggest that the diet of *K. anderssoni* depends on the seasonality and depth of zooplankton 457 458 abundance (Atkinson et al. 2001). Calanoides acutus, C. simillimus and R. gigas are amongst the most abundant copepods of the Southern Ocean in the upper 400 m of the 459 460 water column, with a depth distribution that changes throughout the year (Ward et al. 2012a). Our data showed a relatively high overlap between the vertical distribution 461 462 patterns of K. anderssoni and these prey species in each season, suggesting that the species feeds on both diel and seasonally migrating copepods following DVM to 463 464 regions higher in the water column at night (Ward et al. 2006; Ward et al. 2012a). There was also high overlap in the horizontal distribution patterns of K. anderssoni and these 465 prey species across the Scotia Sea that may explain the southernmost extent of its 466 broad-scale distribution pattern. For instance, there was a marked decrease in the 467

abundance of the main copepods, particularly R. gigas, C. acutus and C. simillimus, in 468 469 regions south of the SACCF, which constituted the approximate boundary to the species' southern range in the Scotia Sea (Ward et al. 2012a). This suggests that the 470 species survival at these increased latitudes may be inhibited by both low water 471 temperatures and insufficient availability of its main food source. While in spring and 472 473 summer, the diet was dominated by the copepods, mostly R. gigas followed by C. 474 acutus, the species' diet shifted to euphausiids in the autumn with Thysanoessa spp. being present in 77% of the 77 stomachs analysed. This change in prey is related to the 475 476 prey abundance and biomass. During spring and summer, the copepods R. gigas and C. 477 acutus aggregate between 400 m and 600 m (Ward et al. 2012a) overlapping the depth 478 distribution of K. anderssoni, and in autumn, the Thysanoessa spp becomes more 479 abundant (Piatkowski et al. 1994; Ward et al. 2012a). It is noteworthy that even in 480 autumn *Thysanoessa* spp is a shallower water species (aggregating in the upper 400 m) and is far less abundant than copepods in the same region (Ward et al. 2012a). Shreeve 481 482 et al. (2009) already had identified the importance of these euphausiids in the diet of K. 483 anderssoni during autumn. In the Artic, species of the genus Thysanoessa are known to 484 form swarms and to conduct DVM (Cottier et al. 2006). It is most likely that the Antarctic species have the same behavior and could be consumed when moving to 485 deeper waters where large K. anderssoni aggregate during autumn. The diet preferences 486 also changed in relation to the species ontogeny. While the smaller (age-group 0) and 487 medium (age-group I) groups fed preferentially on copepods, the large and older 488 animals (age-group II) fed preferentially on *Thysanoessa* spp. Such changes of prey 489 490 with predator size may be related to increased gape and swimming speed with predator 491 size.

492 Considering our results, K. anderssoni seems to be a selective predator. Previous studies comparing the fatty acids signature of myctophids with their potential preys off 493 494 the Kerguelen Plateau indicate that copepods of the genus Oncaea can contribute as 495 much as 19% of the diet of K. anderssoni (Connan et al. 2010). However, our results 496 show that, in the Scotia Sea K. anderssoni do not feed directly on these small but highly abundant copepods, such as Oncaea and Oithona spp. (Ward et al. 2012a). Also, only in 497 498 the Mid Scotia region does the genus *Metridia* (mean sized and abundant copepods) 499 feature substantially in K. anderssoni diet (18 % IRI). In contrast, Protomyctophum

*bolini*, an equally small myctophid, feeds mostly on *Metridia* spp. (Saunders et al.
2015b). Other aspect that confirms the selectivity in the *K. anderssoni* feeding behavior
is, as explained above, their preference of feeding on *Thysanoessa spp.* an apparently

503 less abundant euphausiid (Piatkowski et al. 1994; Shreeve et al. 2009). The selective

504 predation seems to be common to several myctophid species in the Scotia Sea. In their

study, Saunders et al (2015c) showed that several myctophid feed preferentially on the

506 most nutritive prey as the copepodite older stages and on the euphausiid *Thysanoessa* 

spp, rather than the most abundant copepods as *Oithona* spp and *Oncaea* spp.

508

## 509 Niche separation between co-existing myctophids

510 Krefftichthys anderssoni co-exists, in the Scotia Sea, with several other myctophid species (Collins et al. 2008; Collins et al. 2012; Saunders et al. 2014; Saunders et al. 511 512 2015a; Saunders et al. 2015b). From these, P. bolini, E. carlsbergi and G. fraseri have similar distribution, life span or feeding habits to K. anderssoni. These species are 513 indeed warmer water and cosmopolitan species that help to define the bioregion north of 514 515 the SACCF (Ward et al. 2012b). However, a detailed analysis of the four species life cycle strategies, diet, population dynamics and vertical distribution allows niches 516 separation to be considered (Barange 1990). *Krefftichthys anderssoni* and *P. bolini* are 517 the smallest myctophid species found in the Scotia Sea with similar life span of 2 years 518 (Saunders et al. 2015a). However, P. bolini seems to be less abundant than K. 519 and and its vertical distribution is limited to 400 m, performing DVM to 520 521 shallower waters (0-200 m) in spring and summer (Push et al. 2004; Saunders et al. 2015b). Krefftichthys anderssoni had a wider vertical distribution with abundance 522 523 maxima between the 400 and 700 m. Its vertical distribution is also ontogenetically driven, with the bigger and older individuals being more abundant in the deeper waters, 524 525 particularly below the 700 m. This is particularly relevant when both species seem to share at least one important prey, the copepod R. gigas (Saunders et al. 2015a). The 526 larger DVM performed by K. anderssoni and the limited depth range of P. bolini 527 suggests that while K. anderssoni feeds mainly during the night when it ascends to the 528 529 shallower layers, P. bolini feeds constantly on the most common copepods around 400

m. *Krefftichthys anderssoni* also shows greater dietary diversity, with *Calanus acutus*and *C. simillimus* being common prey to the species.

Electrona carlsbergi adults are particularly abundant in NSS during spring, 532 apparently competing with the K. anderssoni for prey (mainly R. gigas and Metridia 533 spp.) (Shreeve et al. 2009; Saunders et al. 2014). However, E. carlsbergi attains 534 535 significantly large sizes and has a larger life span (75 - 85 mm SL within 5 years, Linkowsky 1985) exhibiting a different life cycle strategy. Moreover, E. carlsbergi has 536 a patchy distribution limited by depth, season and area to the upper strata of the water 537 538 column (0-200 m) in NSS during spring. During spring, K. anderssoni is more abundant 539 in GB area along the entire water column performing large DVM. This means that, 540 although feeding on the same main prey (R. gigas) during spring, both these myctophid species do not seem to compete directly for space and prey. 541

542 Gymnoscopelus fraseri is the least abundant of the three species sharing the same area with K. anderssoni (Saunders et al. 2015a). Although having a similar life span, G. 543 544 fraseri attains a larger size (40 - 115 mm SL), which means that it has a higher growth 545 rate and a different life cycle strategy. Both species are particularly abundant in the 546 northern areas of the sampling area, namely NSS, GB and PF, but the vertical 547 distribution of G. fraseri is limited to the upper 200 m of the water column, and only in autumn does the species appear to descend to depths of around 400 m. During this 548 season, the K. anderssoni population is dominated by older animals that aggregate 549 deeper (401-1000 m) and in southern areas of NSS and MSS. Nevertheless, there could 550 551 be some spatial overlap between the two species during spring, when K. anderssoni juveniles aggregate near the surface, although these specimens are very small (15-25 552 553 mm SL) in comparison with G. fraseri adults and feed mainly on C. acutus which is 554 seldom consumed by G. fraseri (Saunders et al. 2015a).

The differences found between the four species growth rates, diet, spatial and vertical distribution appear sufficient to avoid direct competition for food and space in the northern Scotia Sea region. Indeed, previous studies on isotopic niches of myctophids of Kerguelen region (Cherel et al. 2010) and in the oceanic waters off

- Adélie land (Cherel et al. 2011) showed that the differences found in the Nitrogen stable
- 560 isotope ratio (<sup>15</sup>N:<sup>14</sup>N,  $\delta^{15}$ N) and in the Carbon stable isotope ratio (<sup>13</sup>C:<sup>12</sup>C,  $\delta^{13}$ C)
- signatures revealed a strong niche segregation between the myctophid genera
- 562 *Gymnoscopelus, Electona* and *Protomyctphum*. When comparing the stable isotope

signatures of these species groups with *K. anderssoni*, in both studies the results show

- that the later present a significantly low  $\delta^{15}N$  signature in the muscle, most probably due
- to the species small size and due to its diet dominated by herbivorous and omnivorous

566 copepods (Atkinson 1998; Ward et al. 1996) that have a lower  $\delta^{15}$ N signature

567 (Stowasser et al. 2012). The apparent *K. anderssoni* specialization to feed on

568 *Thysanoessa* spp. during autumn also contributes to the niche separation between these

and the other myctophid species (Shreeve et al. 2009).

570

## 571 Conclusion

This study provides new insight into the ecology and trophodynamics of one of the most abundant myctophid species in the Scotia Sea, which is important for understanding the structure and dynamics of the Southern Ocean food web and ecosystem. These data also contribute to resolving the biology, adaptations and dynamics of the global mesopelagic fish community, which is an essential prerequisite for understanding the functioning of the global open-ocean ecosystem and its biogeochemical cycles.

578

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817	Figures
818	Fig. 1 Map of the Scotia Sea and of the non-targeted net hauls position conducted in the
819	spring cruise (• JR161), the summer cruise (• JR177), and autumn cruise (• JR200).
820	Mean frontal positions determined during the cruises from dynamic height data
821	(Venables et al. 2012) are as follow: northern Antarctic Polar Front (N-PF), southern
822	Antarctic Polar Front (S-PF), south Antarctic Circumpolar Current Front (SACCF) and
823	southern boundary of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (SB-ACC). The heavy black
824	<i>line</i> shows the position of the 15% ice-edge cover for 24/10/2006 (JR161) and the grey

*line* shows the position of the 15% ice-edge cover for 24/10/2006 (JR161) and the *grey line* shows the position of the 15% ice-edge cover for 15/01/2008 (JR177). The ice-

- edged occurred well south of the transects during autumn 2009 (JR200).
- Fig. 2 Mean vertical distribution of the rhombic lanternfish *Krefftichthys anderssoni*density (individuals 1000 m<sup>-3</sup>) and biomass (g 1000 m<sup>-3</sup>) across the Scotia Sea during
  the day and night. No net hauls were collected during the daytime in autumn 2009
  (JR200).

Fig. 3 Rhombic lanternfish *Krefftichthys anderssoni* larval mean standard length by
month. The red dot indicates the mean SL while the box limits indicate the 25%, 50%
and 75 % quartiles

Fig. 4 Rhombic lanternfish *Krefftichthys anderssoni* standard length-frequency (mm,
SL) distribution in the Scotia Sea by season. Mixture distributions (solid lines) were
determined using Mixdist package in R.

Fig. 5 Rhombic lanternfish *Krefftichthys anderssoni* length-frequency (mm, SL)
distribution in the Scotia Sea by sampling region (bar diagrams in the left column) and
by depth strata (bar diagrams in the right column). PF- polar front; GB – Georgia Basin;
NSS – northern Scotia Sea; MSS - mid- Scotia Sea. The curves indicate the normal
distribution of the three age groups identified based on the mixture of distributions
analysis. The green line represents the age-group 0; the blue line represents the agegroup 1 and the orange line indicates the age-group 2.

Fig. 6 Variations in rhombic lanternfish *Krefftichthys anderssoni* diet in the Scotia Sea
by (a) season, (b) region and (c) size. Diet is expressed as mean % IRI of the dominant
prey categories (% IRI<sub>DC</sub>) with 95% confidence intervals. cac - *Calanoides acutus*; cas -

- *Calanus simillimus*; rcg *Rhincalanus gigas*; met *Metridia* spp.; thm *Themisto*
- *gaudichaudii*; thy *Thysanoessa* spp.