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Does egg production represent adult female copepod growth? A call to account for body weight changes

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ABSTRACT: An almost universal assumption in determining growth in copepods is that, over short periods, an individual adult female's net growth is equal to the amount of material expelled as eggs. This assumption relies upon adult body mass being in steady-state between the start and end of the same period. We explore different situations where this assumption is violated. Initially, concepts of how adult body weight and egg output are coupled over time are addressed. Using a refined concept of growth, we show that using typical 24 h incubation methods to measure egg output in sac spawners or broadcasters that produce clutches of eggs with a periodicity of >1 d may give correct mean population growth rates, but erroneous individual rates (including maximum and minimum individual growth, and measurements of individual variability such as coefficient of variation). Measurements derived from laboratory and field studies are then used to explore errors associated with the steady-state assumption. Decoupling of egg production from assimilation, and non-steady-state body weight in large lipid-storing higher-latitude species are relatively well documented, yet growth estimates allowing for such changes have almost never been made. Errors are not limited only to such species, however, and changing adult body weights can occur in small temperate and tropical species too. Body weight can increase or decrease whether or not eggs are exuded over the same period. The errors that can arise if we assume that the output of eggs by females equals their net growth rate are large and variable; in our compilation they range from –208% (i.e. egg output being 9.7% of body carbon weight per day, but adult carbon weight simultaneously declining by 13.7% d⁻¹) to +71% (i.e. egg output being 1.5% of body carbon weight per day, and adult carbon weight simultaneously increasing by 4.3% d⁻¹). Using measurement of the natural variability in adult body weights, we determined that in order to be able to discriminate significant changes in body weight of 1 and 10% respectively, >1000 and <100 replicates are necessary, if applying typical sacrificial weighing methods. If we are to make accurate estimates of growth in adult copepods, then changes in body weight are of fundamental importance. We make initial recommendations for tackling these problems and reducing errors in the future

KEY WORDS: Copepod · Egg production · Body weight · Net growth

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INTRODUCTION

Copepods are probably the most numerous metazoan sub-class on the planet (Mauchline 1998). They are the major metazoan grazers in the world's oceans,

and the principal trophic link between primary production and many planktivorous fish (e.g. Turner 1984). Copepods dominate the mesozooplankton usually comprising 80% of its biomass (Verity & Smetacek 1996). Therefore, copepods are the focus of much attention in pelagic research.

Over the past few decades, considerable effort has been expended in determining species-specific growth

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in copepods, and their contribution to community secondary productivity. Production (P) by an individual over a time interval is defined as the rate of elaboration of biomass by that animal regardless of its fate, and may be described in the most simple form as:

$$P = (B_t - B_0) + B_r + B_s \quad (1)$$

where B_t and B_0 are the body weight of the individual at Time t and Time 0 respectively, B_r is the reproductive output over the same period, and B_s the biomass of somatic materials shed during this time (e.g. exuviae in copepods). In juvenile copepods (eggs to Copepodite Stage 5) growth is demonstrated as change in body weight ($B_t - B_0$) and exuviae release (B_s). Once a copepod has reached the adult stage (Copepodite 6) there is no further moulting, and production can be expressed as output of reproductive material (eggs in females, spermatophores in males) as well as changes in body weight. Measurements of egg output (often termed egg production) are commonly made to assess growth of adult females, while body weight is seldom considered. Since adult copepods do not moult, and their integument is fairly rigid, negligible body weight increases have been assumed.

Adult females are the most commonly studied group when measuring copepod growth, presumably because of their relative importance, and ease of measurement in comparison to younger and smaller stages. 'Egg production' approaches have become central to attempts to quantify growth and production of marine copepods (Poulet et al. 1995, Runge & Roff 2000). Although there are a variety of egg production methods, many are conceptually very similar. For broadcast spawning copepods the 'incubation approach' is most common. Animals are collected from the environment and incubated in natural or filtered seawater. Incubations are usually of ~24 h duration because of the diurnal cycle in many physiological processes including egg-laying (Marshall & Orr 1972, Marcus 1985, Runge 1985, Laabir et al. 1995). The average or individual daily weight-specific growth (g_t , d^{-1}) is then expressed as:

$$g_t = (B_e / W_a) \times 24 / T \quad (2)$$

where T is the period of incubation (h), W_a the individual or mean adult female weight, and B_e the total weight of eggs produced per female over the period T (e.g. Peterson et al. 1991).

For sac spawners, the methods used are slightly more diverse. The 'incubation approach' described above has been used (e.g. Paul et al. 1990, Bautista et al. 1994, Calbet et al. 1996, Saiz et al. 1997, Calbet & Agustí 1999), usually with the incubation of those individuals found upon sorting to lack eggs. A second method, the 'egg-ratio method' is also used. This

approach involves collection and enumeration of eggs and adults from the water column. Weight-specific growth is then derived from the ratio of egg to adult female abundance (E/F), the hatch rate of the eggs (HR , d^{-1}), and the mean weight of the female (W_a) and egg (W_e) (e.g. Nielsen & Sabatini 1996).

$$g_t = (E/F) \times HR \times (W_e / W_a) \quad (3a)$$

Alternatively growth may be derived in a similar fashion, but from the duration of egg development (D , days) (e.g. McKinnon & Klumpp 1998):

$$g_t = (E/F \times D) \times (W_e / W_a) \quad (3b)$$

Many studies have been published using these methods, and it has been suggested that egg production can be used as a standard protocol to map copepod production (Poulet et al. 1995). Both the 'incubation approach' and the 'egg-ratio method' have assumptions inherent in their use, yet one is fundamental and often ignored: if egg production equates to net growth of an adult female over a period of time, then the body weight of that female must be the same at the end of that same period as at the start (i.e. steady-state).

Rates of egg output have been used to measure growth of adult female copepods for many decades, in studies of tropical (Chisholm & Roff 1990, Webber & Roff 1995), temperate (Landry 1978, Peterson et al. 1991, Uye & Shibuno 1992, Hay 1995, Calbet et al. 2000), through to sub-polar and polar regions (Hirche et al. 1991, Diel & Tande 1992, Nielsen & Hansen 1995). Investigators have suggested that: 'egg production thus represents the female production' (Hirche 1996, describing growth in *Calanus finmarchicus*); that the 'egg production rate represents the net production rate of adult females' (Liang & Uye 1997); and have assumed that adult somatic production is negligible (McLaren & Corkett 1981, Berggreen et al. 1988, Chisholm & Roff 1990). The underlying assumption that adult weight must be steady-state (e.g. Scenario B in the following example) has very seldom been examined in detail. Many workers when examining lipid-storing large copepods such as *Calanus* spp., especially in high latitudes, appreciate that egg production may not equate to growth. Large *Calanus* species in seasonal environments may have body weights that increase or decrease, and egg production may be fuelled by lipid reserves and body protein (see Armstrong et al. 1991, Hirche & Niehoff 1996, Calbet & Irigoien 1997, Carlotti & Hirche 1997). Stored reserves may also be metabolised during over-wintering phases, or in the development of ovaries and maturation (Gatten et al. 1980, Tande & Hopkins 1981, Hirche & Kattner 1993, Hagen & Schnack-Schiel 1996). However, even in these environments attempts to calculate

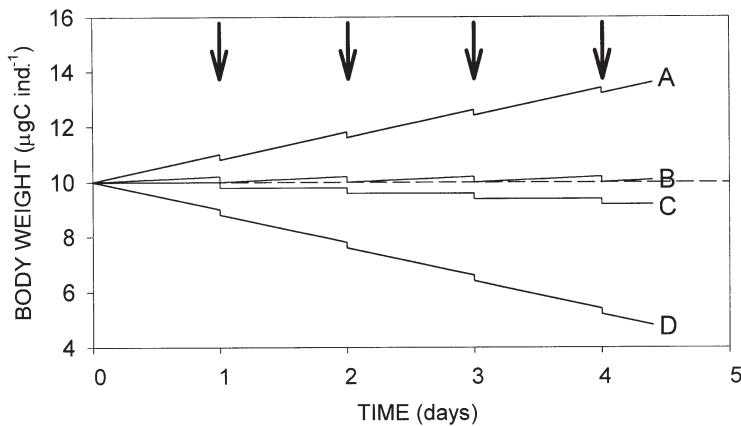


Fig. 1. Four scenarios for the body weight of individual adult copepods that exude an egg mass of $0.2 \mu\text{gC}$ every 24 h (monitoring arrows). A: adult exudes eggs and continues to increase in weight; B: adult increases in weight but then exudes increase as eggs every 24 h; C: adult weight declines simply as a function of egg output; D: adult weight declines as a function of egg output but with additional weight loss. Dashed line: constant body weight of $10 \mu\text{gC ind.}^{-1}$ over time

growth allowing for body weight change as well as egg output are rare. Lipid reserves, as a percentage of total dry weight, are generally greatest for high-latitude species and lowest in low latitude species (Båmstedt 1986). This may explain why appreciation of variable adult body weight is mostly acknowledged in cold-water environments and apparently almost never in warmer waters. Of course, if one is only interested in measuring rates of egg release or recruitment, then whether fecundity actually equates to growth may not be of importance. When examining net growth or measurements dependent upon this term, changes in adult body weight are clearly fundamental.

We will begin by illustrating the assumption of steady-state adult body weight, with hypothetical adult copepods that shed eggs to the environment every 24 h (see Fig. 1). In Scenario A, body weight increases in addition to eggs being produced. In Scenario B the body weight increases over 24 h by an amount equivalent to the spawned egg mass. This mass is released upon spawning, hence body mass is steady-state between points separated by a 24 h period. In Scenario C, the female uses body mass to produce eggs, and the adult weight declines every 24 h by an amount equal to the weight of eggs expelled. In Scenario D, the female loses weight and also produces eggs. In all cases, if the rate of egg output was assumed to represent growth this would give values of $0.2 \mu\text{gC ind.}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$, whereas net growth in these examples are $1.0 \mu\text{gC ind.}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ (Scenario A), $0.2 \mu\text{gC ind.}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ (Scenario B), $0.0 \mu\text{gC ind.}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ (Scenario C), and $-1.0 \mu\text{gC ind.}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ (Scenario D). Only in Scenario B does egg

output represent the net growth of the female when measured over 24 h or multiples of this (e.g. 48 h, 72 h, etc).

The aims of the present study were to: (1) Explore the crucial assumption of steady-state adult female weight and highlight different situations where this may be invalid; (2) determine the errors that may occur when egg output (production) alone is assumed to equal the net growth of adult females; (3) give initial suggestions on overcoming potential errors and quantifying the number of replicates necessary to measure adult weight changes of similar magnitude to typical egg output. We approached these aims using theoretical scenarios, previously published data and new measurements.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Hypothetical populations. Many small temperate species have periods of very high egg output followed by days of zero or very low egg output, e.g. *Centropages typicus* (Carlotti et al. 1997, Razouls 1982), *Temora stylifera* (Razouls 1982) and *Acartia* spp., (Uye 1981). This pattern may relate to day-to-day variability in rates of feeding, digestion and assimilation of food into new tissue. These variations may drive the observed day-to-day differences in egg output, while body weight remains constant; although usually not stated by investigators when using egg production to describe net growth rates, they have effectively accepted such a mechanism. An alternative mechanism can be put forward, which if correct would lead to such assumptions being flawed. Rates of assimilation and production of new tissue could be relatively constant day-to-day, and instead egg output might be variable. In fact, for sac-spawners, and broadcasters which produce clutches of eggs, one would not expect rates of egg output over a 24 h incubation period necessarily to reflect the rate of net growth over the same period. Egg release might only occur over brief periods with significant periods between release. In sac-spawners it is well documented that clutches of eggs are shed with an inter-spawn period (cycle duration, Hopcroft & Roff 1996) of 1 to several days (Uye et al. 1982, Sabatini & Kiørboe 1994, Hopcroft & Roff 1996, Andersen & Nielsen 1997, Ambler et al. 1999). Egg output is therefore limited by the egg hatch-time and the inter-clutch period. The inter-spawn period in many *Calanus* species can be from 24 h up to several weeks (Conover 1967, Marshall & Orr 1972, Runge 1984, Peterson 1988, Hirche 1989, 1990, Tourangeau & Runge 1991, Diel & Tande 1992; also see Kosobokova 1994 and Hirche & Niehoff 1996). Other broadcasters

such as *Neocalanus plumchrus* and *Sinocalanus tenellus* (see descriptions in Mauchline 1998) exude clutches of eggs with great day-to-day variability.

The question as to whether the body of an animal stores mass until release as eggs, or whether eggs are instead released at the same rate as material assimilated into the body, may not seem to be of direct importance, but this is fundamental to the current methods used. Let us clarify this using several hypothetical situations whereby eggs are produced with varying inter-spawn periods, and the body is used to 'store' the egg mass until release. Current methods are designed so that the weight of eggs produced by a female copepod during an incubation period is attributed as growth exclusively over the incubation period. However, egg output is a mechanism of release and should not necessarily be regarded as a growth term in itself. The sources and sinks of material from within the body, and movement of material (carbon, nitrogen etc) from ingestion into and then between nutrient pools, structural mass, gonads and oocytes are important. Such compartments have been examined in some modelling studies (Sciandra et al. 1990, Carlotti & Hirche 1997), but measurements of these, and movements of material between them, are difficult to make and almost unquantified at present. These compartment details are beyond the level at which we examine whole animal growth errors in this paper. We have chosen to examine these terms at the whole animal level because this is the level at which almost all practical studies on this topic to date have been made.

For an individual copepod the weight of an egg clutch must be accumulated between releases, and appear as changes in whole animal body weight. This might be manifested in 2 ways: as a constant clutch size with variable intervals between spawning (see Fig. 2), or as a constant rate of production with variable sizes of clutches (see Fig. 3). Body weight thus appears to change in a 'saw-tooth' pattern. We chose whole day units as spawning intervals because in nature they may often approximate to a number of whole day units; *Oithona nana*, *O. simplex* and *Corycaeus amazonicus* had inter-spawning intervals of 24 h, and *O. plumifera* 48, 72 or 96 h in tropical waters (see review by Hopcroft & Roff 1996, cf. Peterson 1988). We have calculated growth rates of populations of such hypothetical individuals described in Figs 2 & 3 in 2 ways: either accounting for body weight change and egg output (i.e. the true net growth), or by applying the 'Incubation Approach' equations. In both cases we have assumed that egg release is not synchronised among individuals, so for example, when the inter-spawn period is 2 d we assume 50% of the population release eggs over one day.

Incubated populations. Data were taken from published literature for adult females that had been incubated in containers and changes in body mass of individuals or populations derived. We only chose studies with adults, in order to avoid any weight changes resulting from an influx of different sized recruits. If egg mass production had been measured, then this data was also extracted. We did not discriminate the type of food supplied during the incubation period (e.g. natural food assemblage, mono-specific algal culture etc.) but we do discuss the implications of this. Incubation studies allow the examination of weight changes in populations where in nature it may not be possible to monitor such changes because of continued recruitment, size-selective mortality, and dispersion of copepods. However, such methods have the disadvantage that collected copepods may suffer handling stress, altered feeding behaviour, and changes in the turbulence of the environment, all of which could induce physiological changes.

Field populations. The field studies included here comprise those where changes in adult weight have been made on field populations through time. Again, we have limited our data selection to adults in which it was believed there is no further recruitment in order to avoid different weights of new females entering the breeding population. We excluded data where in an attempt to describe a single seasonal signal, samples collected over large geographical areas and over many different years were combined to produce a single seasonal signal (e.g. Hagen & Schnack-Schiel 1996). The field-collection approach allows us an examination of natural populations free from some of the problems associated with incubations, but because smaller species in temperate and tropical regions often show continued recruitment, such data had to be excluded. The data we have obtained are thus primarily from cold-water regions.

Direct measurements of body weight change. Changes in body weight of adult females at different reproductive stages were measured in the free-spawning copepod *Scolecithrix danae*, and in *Calanoeicia trifida*, a freshwater calanoid that carries its eggs. Adult female *S. danae* were collected from the chlorophyll maximum (~60 m) off Myrmidon Reef, Australia (18° 14' S, 147° 21' E) in November 1999, and sorted according to the maturity of the ovary as: 'immature', 'medium' or 'ripe' (see Marshall & Orr 1972, their Fig. 14). These samples were used to determine adult female weight changes that occur as females mature from pre-reproductive up to maturity. On 30 January 2000, plankton collections were made in the Ross River, Townsville, Australia (19° 16' S, 146° 47' E), from which we sorted *C. trifida*. Adults were separated into 3 groups, which we term: 'ripe', 'ovigerous' and

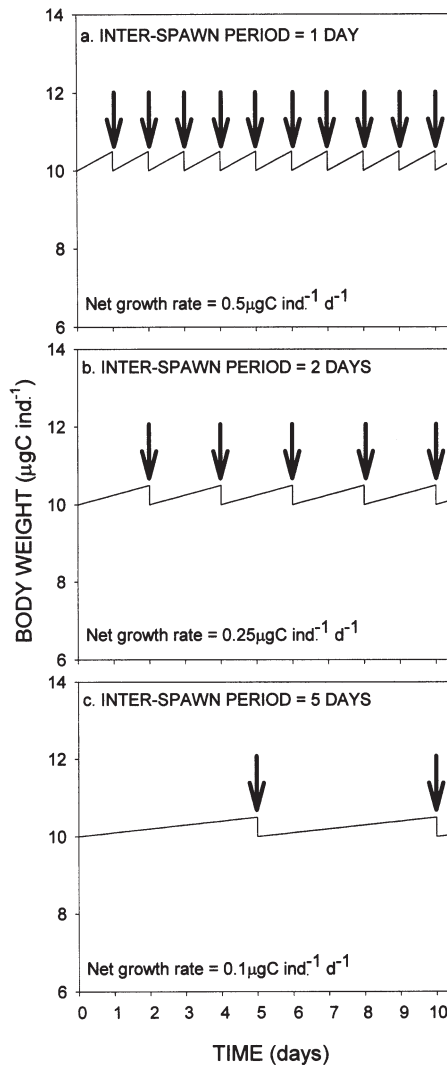


Fig. 2. Changes in the body weight of individual copepods that grow at different rates, and have different inter-spawn periods, but which exude the same weight of egg material when they spawn (arrows; $0.5 \mu\text{gC ind.}^{-1}$ spawning event⁻¹)

included in Table 2 together with the errors arising from considering egg output alone to represent growth (given as a percentage of the true net growth value). These errors range from -208.3 to $+71.4\%$. The only studies where a natural assemblage of food has been supplied to a field-collected population and weight changes in adult females then examined as well as egg production are those of Durbin et al. (1992) and Koski & Kuosa (1999). Unfortunately many incubation studies in which body weight changes have been included have not been completed using natural food sources. Investigators have often incubated wild-caught individuals in algal cultures or even filtered seawater; such weight changes in adults may therefore not be directly comparable to field situations.

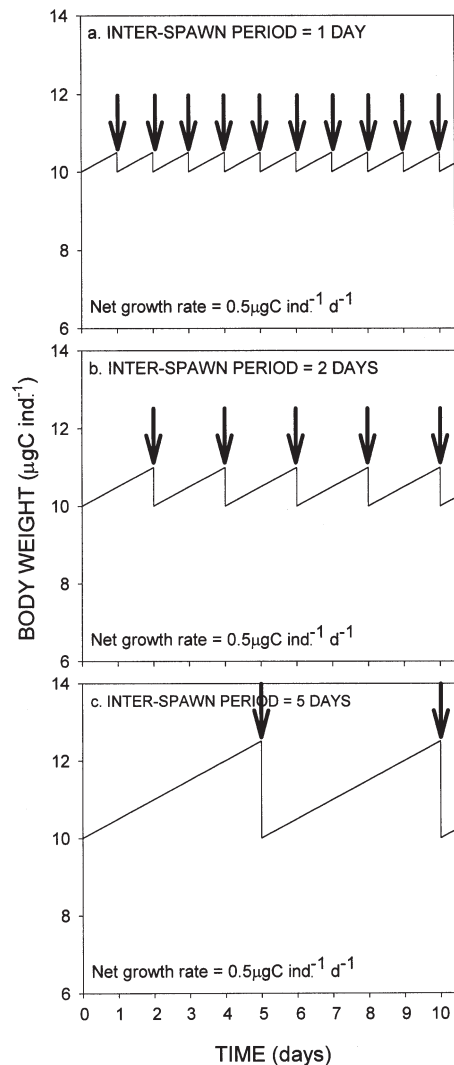


Fig. 3. Changes in body weight of individual copepods that grow at the same rate (i.e. $0.5 \mu\text{gC ind.}^{-1} \text{d.}^{-1}$) but which have different lengths of time between each spawning event (arrows)

Durbin et al. (1992) found for *Acartia hudsonica* that body carbon increased by as much as $12.2\% \text{d.}^{-1}$, and decreased by as much as $7.0\% \text{d.}^{-1}$, with eggs being produced in both cases. The errors in these measurements that would arise if one had assumed that egg production alone equalled net growth (Table 2) range from $+28.3\%$ (i.e. underestimation) to -136.1% (i.e. overestimation). These are remarkably large considering that this species has small amounts of stored lipids in comparison to many larger species, and might be typically regarded as having very close coupling between egg production and net growth. Koski & Kuosa (1999) incubated *A. bifilosa* in natural seawater for 48 h at a temperature equivalent to that below the thermocline (their Expts 3 and 4). Body carbon was found to

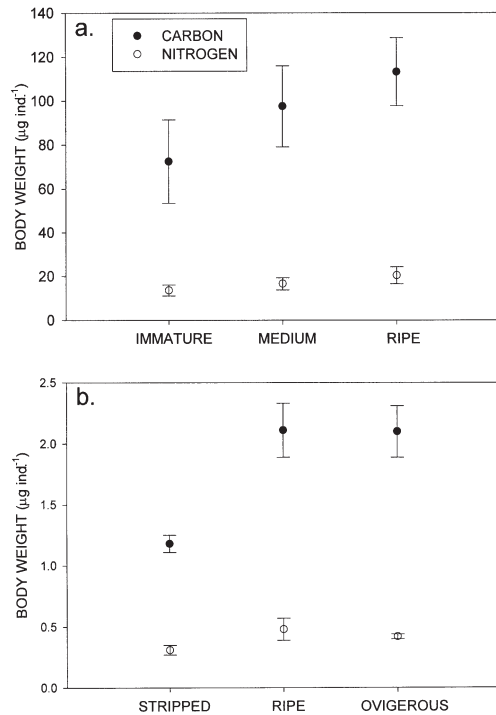


Fig. 4. *Scolecithrix danae* (a) and *Calamoecia trifida* (b). Mean (\pm SD) body carbon (\bullet) and nitrogen weight (\circ) of adult female at different reproductive stages see 'Results' for details

decline by up to 13.7 % d^{-1} and to increase by 7.1 % d^{-1} , whilst eggs were also produced. In this case, if body weight changes were not considered, the errors from net growth would be -208.3 and $+30.1$ % respectively.

Lipid weight losses of up to 85.3% in starved *Calanus australis* are possible (Table 3: data from Attwood & Peterson 1989). Maximum reported increases in weights of adult females are for *Acrocalanus gibber*, with carbon and nitrogen increases of >130 % (McKinnon 1996). *Acartia* spp. demonstrate losses of >20 % in body carbon (Durbin et al. 1992, Koski & Kuosa 1999), and up to 30 % in dry weight (Durbin et al. 1992).

Field populations

Large increases and decreases in average daily female weight are observable in these natural populations (Table 2), suggesting that body weight changes are not limited to artificial incubation approaches, but occur in the natural environment. Unfortunately, because of the methodologies we have adopted to ensure that single populations are followed (with no significant recruitment to the adults over the period of body weight change), we have been limited to colder-water studies on larger animals. In some field cases we may have underestimated growth by up to 100 %, and in other cases it has been

overestimated by up to 100 %. Those studies for which we have obtained body weight data do not include egg production, and so we have only been able to establish crude limits to the net growth errors.

Estimates of total body weight changes for field populations are relatively limited (Table 3). The study of Hopkins et al. (1984) showed increases of 146.1 and 191.5% in dry weight and carbon weight respectively in *Calanus finmarchicus* in Balsfjorden, northern Norway. Losses as high as 45.3% of dry weight for *Paralabidocera antarctica* from a coastal sites in Antarctica have been reported (K. Swadling pers. comm.). Evanston et al. (2000) found dry weight losses of 71.5% in *Neocalanus plumchrus* in the Strait of Georgia, British Columbia, Canada, over a 45 d period.

Direct measurement of body weight change

Carbon and nitrogen weight varied with different reproductive states for the 2 chosen species, *Scolecithrix danae* and *Calamoecia trifida* (Fig. 4, Table 4). The carbon and nitrogen content of female *S. danae* differed according to reproductive maturity. Those with immature ovaries did not have significantly different amounts of body carbon or nitrogen than those with medium development (Student's *t*-test; $p > 0.05$), neither did the medium development group differ significantly from ripe individuals ($p > 0.05$). However, the ripe individuals did have significantly higher carbon and nitrogen weights than immature individuals ($p = 0.010$ for carbon, $p = 0.015$ for nitrogen). *C. trifida* differed in their body carbon and nitrogen weight according to their stage in the clutch cycle. Stripped *C. trifida* females contained significantly less carbon and nitrogen than those that were either ovigerous ($p < 0.001$ for carbon, $p = 0.001$ for nitrogen) or ripe ($p < 0.001$ for carbon, $p = 0.004$ for nitrogen), whereas ripe females were not significantly different from ovigerous females ($p > 0.05$). The ripe females might be considered as being near the top of the 'saw-tooth' pattern while the stripped individuals are near the bottom. The ovigerous females are also at the bottom; although they have an apparent weight similar to the ripe individuals, as their weight includes an external egg mass. Their actual body weight (without eggs) equals that of the stripped individuals.

Sample sizes needed to determine significant weight changes

The sample sizes necessary to assess 1 and 10 % changes in body weight (Zar 1999) are given in Table 5. Replication sizes seem practical for detecting 10 % changes, often with <100 replicates necessary (i.e. 50

Table 2. Measured daily increases and decreases in dry weight (DW), carbon (C), nitrogen (N), protein (Pro) and lipid (Lip) content of female copepods, together with measured rates of egg production (both sets of values determined as percentage of initial adult weight per day) for *in vitro* incubated populations and *in situ* field populations. All Copepods were Stage C6 except where indicated. % Error: percentage error of net growth (allowing for both egg and body weight growth) that would arise by considering egg production (ep) alone (i.e. not allowing for body weight changes) to be net growth (np), derived using equation $\{(np - ep)/np\} \times 100$. Positive values indicate under-estimation, negative values over-estimation of net growth. Error derived from carbon units or from units in which measurements were made. –: no data

1 Changes in weight derived from their Table 2, copepods believed to be adult females (T. Ikeda pers. comm.); **2** Values taken from their Table 1. **3** Values from their Table 5; only statistically significant changes given here (in the 2 d expts this was on 3 of 6 and 2 of 6 occasions for C and N respectively; in the 4 d expts this was on 3 of 8 and 1 of 8 occasions). **4** Changes in body weights and egg production rates from their Tables 1 & 2; only statistically significant changes given here; egg production rate calculated as percentage of initial body weight over period and assuming egg weight of 0.041 µgC (Kiørboe & Sabatini 1995). **5** Increase in weight of those individuals kept in algae-enriched natural seawater compared to incubations in ambient seawater for 2 d over same period; value taken from their Table 1; egg production calculated as percentage body weight (measured at end of enriched incubation period) and assuming egg weight of 0.041 µgC. **6** Values from their Table; only statistically significant changes given here. **7** Only significant change in October 1993 given here, where females after moult to adult were followed through time. **8** Weight changes from his Table 3; egg production rate given his text; error derived from assuming egg production of 5.56% body carbon d⁻¹ (Table 1) over 77 d for female of 101 µgC i.e. 432.4 µgC produced in eggs compared with loss of 16 µgC over the 77 d incubation period. **9** Changes estimated from their Table 3 using weights at Stn 1 as Time 0 values. **10** Egg production rates determined from their Table 2 for Stn 1 (egg weights as in their Table 3). **11** Changes in body weight derived from their Table 5 by comparing mean weights

of wild females collected on the 21 February (considered as Time 0 values) with weights after egg production experiment; duration of egg production taken from their Table 4 for each individual; females with large oocytes were selected for incubation, whereas wild females (with no apparent selection) were used as Time 0 to determine weight loss during incubation; mean egg and adult weight (0.37 and 299 µgC respectively) used to estimate weight-specific egg production rates; growth error derived assuming that carbon weights declined over course of experiment because protein and lipid values decreased. **12** Weight changes derived from their Table 1; adult females were believed to be predominant stage (T. Ikeda pers. comm.). **13** Weight loss described as 'due only to metabolic losses as no eggs are produced during periods of extended starvation', hence zero egg production assumed here; lipid loss for each day predicted from their empirical equation: lipid content (mg) = 0.034e^{-0.208days}. **14** Comparison for weight loss made between individuals fed *Prorocentrum micans* and *Thalassiosira weissfloggi* for 18 h and those starved for 18 h (no Time 0 values given). **15** Weight changes derived from daily means in their Table 1; wild controls used for Time 0 weights. **16** Values taken from their Table 8 (only total lipid values presented as dry weight values increased); starvation defined by authors as placing copepods in surface water passed through 35 µm mesh net, assuming that the material passing through is unimportant to these large carnivores. **17** Weight changes taken from their text. **18** K. Swadling pers. comm

Species	Incubation conditions: From, to (at Time 0)	Change in Time 0 body wt (% wt d ⁻¹)					Egg production rate (% wt d ⁻¹) C	% Error	Source
		DW	C	N	Pro	Lip			
INCUBATED POPULATIONS									
With food supplied									
<i>Acartia australis</i>	Field-collected copepods (then ambient seawater for 6 h), ambient seawater for 43 h	-	-	-	-19.3	-	-	0 to -100	Ikeda & Skjoldal (1980) ¹
<i>Acartia bifilosa</i>	Ambient seawater for 48 h, altered seawater for 80 h	-	2.9	-	-	-	8.4	23.8	
<i>Acartia bifilosa</i>	Ambient seawater for 48 h, altered seawater for 80 h	-	1.4	-	-	-	10.0	12.0	Koski & Kuosa (1999) ²
<i>Acartia bifilosa</i>	Ambient seawater for 48 h, altered seawater for 80 h	-	2.9	-	-	-	13.0	17.2	
<i>Acartia bifilosa</i>	Ambient seawater for 48 h, altered seawater for 80 h	-	4.3	-	-	-	15.0	20.2	
<i>Acartia bifilosa</i>	Ambient seawater for 48 h, altered seawater for 80 h	-	7.1	-	-	-	13.0	30.1	
<i>Acartia bifilosa</i>	Ambient seawater for 48 h, ambient seawater for 80 h	-	2.1	-	-	-	4.7	29.4	
<i>Acartia bifilosa</i>	Ambient seawater for 48 h, ambient seawater for 80 h	-	2.1	-	-	-	11.0	15.2	
<i>Acartia bifilosa</i>	Ambient seawater for 48 h, ambient seawater for 80 h	-	-6.4	-	-	-	19.0	-78.9	
<i>Acartia bifilosa</i>	Ambient seawater for 48 h, ambient seawater for 80 h	-	-6.4	-	-	-	22.0	-60.0	
<i>Acartia bifilosa</i>	Ambient seawater for 48 h, ambient seawater for 80 h	-	4.3	-	-	-	1.5	71.4	
<i>Acartia bifilosa</i>	Ambient seawater for 48 h, ambient seawater for 48 h	-	-13.7	-	-	-	9.7	-208.3	
<i>Acartia bifilosa</i>	Ambient seawater for 48 h, ambient seawater for 48 h	-	-5.9	-	-	-	17.8	-61.0	

(Table continued on next page)

Table 2 (continued)

Species	Incubation conditions: From, to (at Time 0)	Change in Time 0 body wt (% wt d ⁻¹)					Egg production rate (% wt d ⁻¹) C	% Error	Source
		DW	C	N	Pro	Lip			
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	Field-collected copepods, algae-enriched seawater for 2 d	-	7.0	-	-	-	-	0 to 100	} Durbin & Durbin (1992) ³
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	Field-collected copepods, algae-enriched seawater for 2 d	-	-	13.7	-	-	-	0 to 100	
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	Field-collected copepods, algae-enriched seawater for 2 d	-	18.6	21.3	-	-	-	0 to 100	
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	Field-collected copepods, algae-enriched seawater for 2 d	-	11.3	-	-	-	-	0 to 100	
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	Field-collected copepods, algae cultures for 4 d	-	26.7	12.3	-	-	-	0 to 100	
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	Field-collected copepods, algae cultures for 4 d	-	12.8	-	-	-	-	0 to 100	
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	Field-collected copepods, algae cultures for 4 d	-	9.5	-	-	-	-	0 to 100	
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	Field-collected copepods, algae-enriched seawater for 2 d	-	5.4	6.4	-	-	19.2	22.1	} Durbin et al. (1992) ⁴
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	Field-collected copepods, algae-enriched seawater for 2 d	-	3.5	-	-	-	18.1	16.3	
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	Field-collected copepods, algae-enriched seawater for 2 d	-	-7.0	-4.7	-	-	12.2	-136.1	
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	Field-collected copepods, algae-enriched seawater for 2 d	-	8.7	9.1	-	-	27.6	23.9	
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	Field-collected copepod, algae-enriched seawater for 2 d	5.9	6.3	6.8	-	-	47.7	11.8	
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	Field-collected copepod, algae-enriched seawater for 2 d	9.9	-	6.9	-	-	17.4	0 to 100	
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	Field-collected copepod, algae-enriched seawater for 2 d	-	9.3	10.6	-	-	56.7	14.1	
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	Field-collected copepods, algae-enriched seawater for 2 d	-	5.6	-	-	-	41.9	11.9	
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	Field-collected copepods, ambient seawater for 2 d	-	-6.1	-	-	-	11.1	-121.8	
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	Field-collected copepods, ambient seawater for 2 d	-	12.2	9.1	-	-	31.0	28.3	
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	Field-collected copepods, ambient seawater for 2 d	6.0	7.4	7.1	-	-	46.6	13.8	
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	Field-collected copepods, ambient seawater for 2 d	8.4	-	9.3	-	-	37.8	15.8	
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	Field-collected copepods, ambient seawater for 2 d	-	4.9	7.9	-	-	51.4	8.7	
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	Algae-enriched seawater for 1 d, algae-enriched seawater for 1 d	5.9	-	-	-	-	35.6	0 to 100	} Durbin et al. (1993) ⁵
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	Field-collected copepods, algal culture incubation for 1 d	-	27.4	24.8	-	-	-	0 to 100	
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	Field-collected copepods, algal culture incubation for 1 d	20.0	13.2	12.6	-	-	-	0 to 100	} Thompson et al. (1994) ⁶
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	Field-collected copepods, algal culture incubation for 1 d	-	24.8	22.8	-	-	-	0 to 100	
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	Field-collected copepods, algal culture incubation for 1 d	24.6	19.1	16.0	-	-	-	0 to 100	
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	Field-collected copepods, algal culture incubation for 1 d	16.2	9.7	-	-	-	-	0 to 100	
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	Field-collected copepods, algal culture incubation for 1 d	17.2	16.9	-	-	-	-	0 to 100	
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	Field-collected copepods, algal culture incubation for 1 d	-	10.7	-	-	-	-	0 to 100	

(Table continued on next page)

Table 2 (continued)

Species	Incubation conditions: From, to (at Time 0)	Change in Time 0 body wt (% wt d ⁻¹)					Egg production rate (% wt d ⁻¹) C	% Error	Source
		DW	C	N	Pro	Lip			
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	Field-collected copepods, algal culture incubation for 1 d	18.8	16.0	23.0	-	-	-	0 to 100	Thompson et al. (1994) ⁶
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	Field-collected copepods, algal culture incubation for 1 d	24.2	15.6	11.0	-	-	-	0 to 100	
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	Field-collected copepods, algal culture incubation for 1 d	23.8	48.6	37.4	-	-	-	0 to 100	
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	Field-collected copepods, algal culture incubation for 1 d	41.6	53.7	29.7	-	-	-	0 to 100	
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	Field-collected copepods, algal culture incubation for 1 d	44.4	61.1	37.9	-	-	-	0 to 100	
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	Field-collected copepods, algal culture incubation for 1 d	-	48.7	30.1	-	-	-	0 to 100	
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	Field-collected copepods, algal culture incubation for 1 d	39.3	31.3	22.4	-	-	-	0 to 100	
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	Field-collected copepods, algal culture incubation for 1 d	20.0	21.0	-	-	-	-	0 to 100	
<i>Acrocalanus gibber</i>	37 µm screened ambient seawater, 37 µm screened amb. seaw. for 5 d	-	26.2	27.2	-	-	-	0 to 100	McKinnon (1996) ⁷
		-	20.1	18.5	-	-	-	0 to 100	
<i>Calanus finmarchicus</i>	Field-collected copepods, algae (>400 µgC l ⁻¹) for 77 d	-0.005	0.2	-0.05	-	-	5.6	-3.8	Hirche (1990) ⁸
<i>Calanus glacialis</i>	Field-collected copepods, algae (above 300 µgC l ⁻¹) for 77 d ⁹	0.2	0.1	0.6	-	-0.9	2.5 ¹⁰	3.9	Hirche & Kattner (1993)
<i>Calanus glacialis</i>	Field-collected copepods, algae (above 300 µgC l ⁻¹) for 45 d followed by starvation for 26 d ⁹	-0.3	-0.5	-0.03	-	-	-	0 to -100	
<i>Calanus glacialis</i>	Field-collected copepods, starved for 45 d followed by algae (above 300 µgC l ⁻¹) for 26 d ⁹	-0.2	-0.4	-0.1	-	-	-	0 to -100	
<i>Calanus propinquus</i>	Field-collected copepods, algae (above 300 µgC l ⁻¹) for 10 d	-	-	-	-2.2	-7.4	4.1	0 to -100	Kosobokova (1994) ¹¹
<i>Calanus propinquus</i>	Field-collected copepods, algae (above 300 µgC l ⁻¹) for 13 d	-	-	-	-2.3	-6.0	1.9	0 to -100	
<i>Calanus propinquus</i>	Field-collected copepods, algae (above 300 µgC l ⁻¹) for 13 d	-	-	-	-1.0	-6.3	1.2	0 to -100	
<i>Calanus propinquus</i>	Field-collected copepods, algae (above 300 µgC l ⁻¹) for 46 d	-	-	-	-0.8	-1.0	0.6	0 to -100	
<i>Calanus propinquus</i>	Field-collected copepods, algae (above 300 µgC l ⁻¹) for 56 d	-	-	-	-0.9	-0.7	1.2	0 to -100	
<i>Calanus propinquus</i>	Field-collected copepods, algae (above 300 µgC l ⁻¹) for 56 d	-	-	-	-1.1	-1.1	0.5	0 to -100	
<i>Paracalanus parvus</i>	Field-collected copepods, algae for 3 d	7.2	-	-	-	-	-	0 to 100	Ikeda (1977) ¹²
Starved									
<i>Acartia bifilosa</i>	Ambient seawater for 48 h, starved for 80 h	-	-8.6	-	-	-	3.6	-140.5	Koski & Kuosa (1999) ²
<i>Calanus australis</i>	4 d fed <i>Thalassiosira weissflogii</i> ad libitum, starved for 1 d	-	-	-	-	-17.6	0.0	-100	
<i>Calanus australis</i>	4 d fed <i>Thalassiosira weissflogii</i> ad libitum, starved for 2 d	-	-	-	-	-17.7	0.0	-100	Attwood & Peterson (1989) ¹³
<i>Calanus australis</i>	4 d fed <i>Thalassiosira weissflogii</i> ad libitum, starved for 3 d	-	-	-	-	-15.7	0.0	-100	
<i>Calanus australis</i>	4 d fed <i>Thalassiosira weissflogii</i> ad libitum, starved for 4 d	-	-	-	-	-14.0	0.0	-100	
<i>Calanus australis</i>	4 d fed <i>Thalassiosira weissflogii</i> ad libitum, starved for 5 d	-	-	-	-	-12.9	0.0	-100	

(Table continued on next page)

Table 2 (continued)

Species	Incubation conditions: From, to (at Time 0)	Change in Time 0 body wt (% wt d ⁻¹)					Egg production rate (% wt d ⁻¹) C	% Error	Source
		DW	C	N	Pro	Lip			
<i>Calanus australis</i>	4 d fed <i>Thalassiosira weissflogii</i> ad libitum, starved for 6 d	-	-	-	-	-11.8	0.0	-100	Attwood & Peterson (1989) ¹³
<i>Calanus australis</i>	4 d fed <i>Thalassiosira weissflogii</i> ad libitum, starved for 7 d	-	-	-	-	-10.9	0.0	-100	
<i>Calanus australis</i>	4 d fed <i>Thalassiosira weissflogii</i> ad libitum, starved for 8 d	-	-	-	-	-10.3	0.0	-100	
<i>Calanus australis</i>	4 d fed <i>Thalassiosira weissflogii</i> ad libitum, starved for 9 d	-	-	-	-	-9.5	0.0	-100	
<i>Calanus glacialis</i>	? starved for 77 d ⁹	-0.7	-0.9	-0.7	-1.1	-	0.4 ¹⁰	-149.1	Hirche & Kattner (1993)
<i>Calanus helgo-</i> <i>landicus</i>	? starved for 1 d	-	-	-7.6	-	-	-	-	Corner et al. (1976)
<i>Calanus helgo-</i> <i>landicus</i> (C5 & C6)	Field-collected copepods, starved for 18 h	-	-	-10.5	-	-	-	0 to -100	Hays et al. (1997) ¹⁴
<i>Chiridius armatus</i>	Field-collected copepods, starved for 1 d	-2.9	-	-	-	-	-	0 to -100	Alvarez & Matthews (1975) ¹⁵
<i>Chiridius armatus</i>	Field-collected copepods, starved for 2 d	-3.2	-	-	-	-	-	0 to -100	
<i>Chiridius armatus</i>	Field-collected copepods, starved for 3 d	-2.8	-	-	-	-	-	0 to -100	
<i>Chiridius armatus</i>	Field-collected copepods, starved for 4 d	-2.3	-	-	-	-	-	0 to -100	
<i>Chiridius armatus</i>	Field-collected copepods, starved for 80 h	-	-	-	-	-2.3	-	0 to -100	Lee et al. (1971) ¹⁶
<i>Gaussia princeps</i>	Field-collected copepods, starved for 120 h	-	-	-	-	-1.5	-	0 to -100	
<i>Gaussia princeps</i>	Field-collected copepods, starved for 5 d	-2.2	-	-	-	-	-	0 to -100	
<i>Paracalanus parvus</i>	Field-collected copepods, starved for 3 d	-2.8	-	-	-	-	-	0 to -100	Ikeda (1977) ¹²
FIELD POPULATIONS									
Sampling area; time									
<i>Calanus</i> <i>finmarchicus</i>	Balsfjorden, Northern Norway January–April	-0.4	-0.3	1.0	-	-	-	0 to -100	Hopkins et al. (1984) ¹⁷
<i>Calanus</i> <i>finmarchicus</i>	Balsfjorden, Northern Norway April–September	1.0	1.3	-	-	-	-	0 to 100	
<i>Metridia longa</i>	Balsfjorden, Northern Norway October–March	-0.2	-	-	-	-	-	0 to -100	
<i>Metridia longa</i>	Balsfjorden, Northern Norway October–April	-	-0.2	-	-	-	-	0 to -100	
<i>Neocalanus</i> <i>plumchrus</i>	Strait of Georgia, British Columbia 21 Jan 97 – 10 Feb 97	-3.0	-	-	-	-3.2	-	0 to -100	Evanson et al. (2000)
	10 Feb 97 – 6 Mar 97	-1.1	-	-	-	-0.5	-	0 to -100	M. Evanson pers. comm.
<i>Paralabidocera</i> <i>antarctica</i>	Coastal site, Antarctica 15 Dec 93 – 22 Dec 93	2.4	-	-	-	-	-	0 to 100	K. Swad- ling pers. comm. ¹⁸
	29 Dec 93 – 12 Jan 94	-2.4	-	-	-	-	-	0 to -100	
	Coastal site, Antarctica 15 Dec 94 – 17 Dec 94	12.0	-	-	-	-	-	0 to 100	
	21 Dec 94 – 28 Dec 94	-5.2	-	-	-	-	-	0 to -100	
	Ace Lake, Antarctica 23 Nov 94 – 10 Dec 94	0.6	-	-	-	-	-	0 to 100	
	23 Dec 94 – 13 Jan 95	-0.8	-	-	-	-	-	0 to -100	

Table 3. Measured total changes in weights (dry weight, DW; carbon, C; nitrogen, N; protein, Pro; and lipid, Lip) of female copepods. Changes are total percentage change from initial weight, where negative values indicate loss and positive values gain. All copepods were Stage C6 except where indicated

1 Changes in weight derived from their Table 2, copepods believed to be adult females (T. Ikeda, pers. comm.); **2** Values taken from their Table 1. **3** Only significant maximum increases and decreases in DW, C and N given here, data from their Table 2. **4** Data from their Table 1, only maximum decrease given here. **5** Values taken from their Table 5, only significant maximum changes given here. **6** Data taken from their Table 1, initial weights taken as 'ambient' incubation individuals from the same table. **7** Values from their Table 2, only statistically significant maximum changes given here. **8** Only significant change in October 1993 given here, where females after moult to adult were followed through time. **9** Weight changes from their Table 3. **10** Changes in body weight derived from their Table 5 by comparing mean weights of wild females collected on 21 February (as Time 0 values) against weights after egg production experiments; duration of egg production taken from Table 4 for each individual; females with large oocytes

were selected for incubation, whereas wild females (with no apparent selection) were used for Time 0 to determine weight loss during incubation. **11** Weight changes derived from Table 1. Adult females were believed to be the predominant stage for this species (T. Ikeda pers. comm.). **12** Data taken from their Table 1, maximum loss given here, with wild controls used as Time 0 weights; **13** Lipid loss predicted from their empirical equation: lipid content (mg) = $0.034e^{-0.208 \text{ days}}$. **14** Weight change taken as difference between fed and starved individuals. **15** Weight changes taken from their Table 3. **16** Values taken from their Table 8, only total lipid values presented, as dry weight values increased. Starvation defined by authors as placing copepods in surface water passed through a 35 μm mesh net, assuming that the material passing through this mesh is unimportant to these large carnivores. **17** Weight changes taken from their text. **18** Only maximum changes given here, K. Swadling pers. comm

Species	Incubation conditions	Initial wt ($\mu\text{g ind.}^{-1}$) (Time 0)	Final wt ($\mu\text{g ind.}^{-1}$) (Time t)	Units	Time t (d)	% Change from initial wt	Source
INCUBATED POPULATIONS							
With food supplied							
<i>Acartia australis</i>	Ambient seawater	7.92	3.22	Pro	1.79	-59.3	Ikeda & Skjoldal 1980 ¹
<i>Acartia bifilosa</i>	5 $\mu\text{g chl a l}^{-1}$ culture	2.1	2.3	C	3.33	9.5	
	10 $\mu\text{g chl a l}^{-1}$ culture	2.1	2.2	C	3.33	4.8	Koski & Kuosa (1999) ²
	14 $\mu\text{g chl a l}^{-1}$ culture	2.1	2.3	C	3.33	9.5	
	19 $\mu\text{g chl a l}^{-1}$ culture	2.1	2.4	C	3.33	14.3	
	24 $\mu\text{g chl a l}^{-1}$ culture	2.1	2.6	C	3.33	23.8	
	Ambient seawater	1.4	1.5	C	3.33	7.1	
		1.4	1.5	C	3.33	7.1	
		1.4	1.1	C	3.33	-21.4	
		1.4	1.1	C	3.33	-21.4	
		1.4	1.6	C	3.33	14.3	
		2.2	1.6	C	2	-27.3	
		1.7	1.5	C	2	-11.8	
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	Ambient seawater	10.93	12.77	DW	2	16.8	Durbin et al. (1992) ³
		5.31	6.61	C	2	24.5	
		5.56	4.88	C	2	-12.2	
		1.24	1.47	N	2	18.5	
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	Algae-enriched seawater	10.93	13.09	DW	2	19.8	Durbin et al. (1992) ³
		3.98	4.72	C	2	18.6	
		5.56	4.78	C	2	-14.0	
		1.08	1.31	N	2	21.3	
		1.50	1.36	N	2	-9.3	
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	Low concentrations of algae	12.11	8.49	DW	7	-29.9	Durbin et al. (1992) ⁴
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	High concentration of algae	3.98	4.72	C	2	18.6	Durbin & Durbin (1992) ⁵
		1.08	1.31	N	2	21.3	
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	High concentration of algae	5.54	7.02	C	4	26.7	Durbin & Durbin (1992) ⁵
		1.46	1.64	N	4	12.3	
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	Algae-enriched seawater	11.8	13.2	DW	2	11.9	Durbin et al. (1983) ⁶
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	Algae culture	9.9	14.3	DW	1	44.4	Thompson et al. (1994) ⁷
		3.32	5.35	C	1	61.1	
		0.95	1.31	N	1	37.9	

(Table continued on next page)

Table 3 (continued)

Species	Incubation conditions	Initial wt ($\mu\text{g ind.}^{-1}$) (Time 0)	Final wt ($\mu\text{g ind.}^{-1}$) (Time t)	Units	Time t (d)	% Change from initial wt	Source
<i>Acrocalanus gibber</i>	37 μm screened ambient seawater	0.89	2.11	N	5	137.1	McKinnon (1996) ⁸
		2.58	6.05	C	5	134.5	
<i>Calanus finmarchicus</i>	Algae culture	267	266	DW	77	-0.4	Hirche (1990) ⁹
	Algae culture	93	109	C	77	17.2	
	Algae culture	27	26	N	77	-3.7	
<i>Calanus propinquus</i>	Algae culture	584	452	Pro	10	-22.6	Kosobo- kova (1994) ¹⁰
		1070	277	Lip	10	-74.1	
		584	410	Pro	13	-29.8	
		1070	241	Lip	13	-77.5	
		584	509	Pro	13	-12.8	
		1070	198	Lip	13	-81.5	
		584	375	Pro	46	-35.8	
		1070	599	Lip	46	-44.0	
		584	277	Pro	56	-52.6	
		1070	663	Lip	56	-38.0	
		584	227	Pro	56	-61.1	
		1070	415	Lip	56	-61.2	
<i>Paracalanus parvus</i>	Algae culture	6.0	7.3	DW	3	21.7	Ikeda (1977) ¹¹
Starved							
<i>Acartia bifilosa</i>	Filtered seawater	2.1	1.5	C	3.33	-28.6	Koski & Kuosa (1999) ²
<i>Chiridius armatus</i>	Filtered seawater	750	650	DW	5	-13.3	Alvarez & Matthews (1975) ¹²
<i>Calanus australis</i>	Filtered seawater	34.0	5.2	Lip	9	-85.3	Attwood & Peterson (1989) ¹³
<i>Calanus helgo-landicus</i> (C5 & C6)	Filtered seawater	12.91	11.89	N	0.75	-7.9	Hays et al. (1997) ¹⁴
<i>Calanus glacialis</i>	Filtered seawater	337	99	C	77	-70.6	Hirche & Kattner (1993) ¹⁵
<i>Paracalanus parvus</i>	Filtered seawater	6.0	5.5	DW	3	-8.3	Ikeda (1977) ¹¹
<i>Gaussia princeps</i>	Screened seawater	1300	1200	Lipid	5	-7.7	Lee et al. (1971) ¹⁶
FIELD POPULATIONS							
<i>Calanus finmarchicus</i>	Natural population	204	128	DW	90	-37.3	Hopkins et al. (1984) ¹⁷
	Balsfjorden,	103	71	C	90	-31.1	
	Northern Norway	128	315	DW	150	146.1	
		71	207	C	150	191.5	
<i>Metridia longa</i>	Natural population	130	90	DW	150	-30.8	Hopkins et al. (1984) ¹⁷
	Balsfjorden, Northern Norway	66	40	C	180	-39.4	
<i>Neocalanus plumchrus</i>	Natural population	916	261	DW	45	-71.5	Evanson et al. (2000)
	Strait of Georgia, British Columbia	580	188	Lip	45	-67.6	M. Evanson, pers. comm.
<i>Paralabidocera antarctica</i>	Natural population Coastal site, Antarctica	35.8	19.6	DW	28	-45.3	K. Swadling pers. comm. ¹⁸
<i>Paralabidocera antarctica</i>	Natural population Coastal site, Antarctica	25.8	34.9	DW	6	35.3	

Table 4. Carbon and nitrogen content of adult female copepods in different stages of ovarian ripeness. Weights for ovigerous *Calamoecia trifida* include body and attached egg mass, see 'Results' for details. Results from paired *t*-tests included: ns: not significant at $p < 0.05$

Reproductive stage	Carbon wt ($\mu\text{g C ind.}^{-1}$)				Nitrogen wt ($\mu\text{g N ind.}^{-1}$)				
	\bar{x}	SD	n	<i>t</i> -test p	\bar{x}	SD	n	<i>t</i> -test p	
<i>Scolecithrix danae</i>									
Immature	72.49	18.92	5	0.054 ns	0.010	13.63	2.55	5	0.101 ns
Medium	97.56	18.48	6			16.60	2.79	6	
Ripe	113.26	15.53	4	0.200 ns	20.42	3.85	4	0.104 ns	
<i>Calamoecia trifida</i>									
Stripped (removed egg mass)	1.18	0.07	5	<0.001	<0.001	0.31	0.04	5	0.004
Ripe	2.11	0.22	6			0.48	0.09	6	
Ovigerous (with egg mass)	2.10	0.21	5	0.954 ns	0.42	0.02	5	0.179 ns	

at Time 0 and 50 at Time t), and sometimes <15 . This often rises to >1000 replicates to detect a 1% change, and for 19 of the 33 cases examined here it was >10000 . This seems impractical to undertake using standard methods.

DISCUSSION

In the 'Hypothetical populations' section (see 'Results') we explore a situation whereby adult body mass is cyclical, being steady-state from one point in the egg-spawning cycle to the equivalent point in the next spawning period. Body weight increases to the point of egg output, when this accumulated mass is released, producing a 'saw-tooth' pattern. Using this refined description of the mechanism of coupling between growth and egg output in copepods, we demonstrated that although the mean rate of growth may be derived from egg output, when the incubation period is less than the inter-spawn period all individual rates are incorrect, as are the maximum and minimum. When measurements of coefficient of variation in growth are in error, any measurement of variability that relied upon individual rates would also be incorrect. The mean rates are only correct because the individual errors effectively cancel each other out when considering the entire population. As described in the 'Introduction', egg output (production) is measured either through the 'incubation approach' or the 'egg-ratio method'. As the latter method is applied at the population level, it is not used to derive individual rates but only means, hence it does not suffer from the problems associated with incorrectly describing growth rates of individuals (be these maximums, minimums or variability). Although we use a 'saw-tooth' pattern to describe body weight change in these hypothetical individuals the real situation is likely to be much more complex because of minor fluctuations related to feeding and migration cycles, food patchiness, etc.

The results for *Calamoecia trifida* may be illustrative of the saw-tooth pattern in body weight shown in Fig. 2. The stripped females (i.e. females bearing egg sacs that were removed prior to weight determination) were significantly lighter in carbon and nitrogen terms than the ripe females that were about to release their eggs. Stripped females were also lighter than ovigerous ones weighed with their egg sacs still attached. Ripe females were not significantly different in carbon or nitrogen weight from the egg sac-bearing ovigerous females. For *C. trifida*, the carbon and nitrogen weight of the egg mass was almost as great as for the body weight of stripped individuals. It may not be usual for clutches to be so heavy in relation to the adult body, although values of 35 to 60% have been observed in other tropical egg-carriers (Hopcroft & Roff 1996). Operationally, such heavy clutches have made it easier to measure significant changes. However, this does not detract from the possibility of saw-tooth patterns of weight changes occurring in those species bearing light egg masses, or in clutch-producing broadcasters too.

It is not only reproductively active adult females that may gain and lose weight, but also pre- and post-reproductive adults, which are attributed a zero growth rate using the 'incubation approach' because of zero egg output. Is this an accurate assumption? We have found clear evidence that females may increase and decrease in weight. McKinnon (1996) found that for the small tropical species *Acrocalanus gibber* grown in mesocosms containing 'natural' water, both carbon and nitrogen body content continued to increase upon moulting to the adult. In 1 case, the nitrogen content of newly moulted females was $0.89 \mu\text{gN ind.}^{-1}$, but their weight continued to increase over the following 5 d to reach $2.5 \mu\text{gN ind.}^{-1}$. These changes represent increases of 134 and 137% in carbon and nitrogen body weights respectively, during a period including both a pre-reproductive and reproductively active phase. Such measurements clearly bring into

Table 5. Comparisons of weight measures and their variability in female copepods. All copepods were Stage C6 except where indicated. (SD = is the standard deviation of samples when number of individuals per replicate $r = 1$, SE = standard error of means when $r > 1$; variance is the SD or SE squared). No. of replicates needed to allow discrimination of 1 and 10% changes in body weight are given (i.e. where a t -test would detect a weight change 90% of the time, with $p < 0.05$ defining significant difference); e.g. value of 50 would equate to 25 initial replicates and 25 at the end of the period; Replicates needed: we assumed that the variance for the population after the change was equal to that before (hence the within-population variability is derived as the variances multiplied by 2)

Species	Units	Mean wt (μg)	SD or SE	Variance	No. of repli- cates made	No. of indi- viduals per replicate (r)	Source	Replicates needed for	
								1%	10%
<i>Calanus helgolandicus</i> (C5 & C6)	N	12.91	1.63	2.66	42	5	Hays et al. (1997)	~13436	136
<i>Calanus finmarchicus</i>	DW	267	47	2209	28	1	Hirche (1990)	~26088	131
	C	93	22	484	28	1		~47112	472
	N	27	6	36	28	1		~41574	416
<i>Calanus glacialis</i>	DW	705	31	961	5	2	Hirche & Kattner (1993)	~1628	18
	DW	750	55	3025	5	10		~4528	48
	DW	774	55	3025	5	10		~4252	44
	DW	791	26	676	2	10		910	12
	C	337	31	961	5	2		~7124	74
	N	56	7	49	5	2		~13154	134
<i>Acartia hudsonica</i>	DW	12.11	0.29	0.0841	3	20	Durbin et al. (1992)	484	6
<i>Acartia bifilosa</i>	C	2.1	0.08	0.0064	7	–	Koski & Kuosa (1999)	~1222	14
	C	1.4	0.04	0.0016	7	–		688	8
	C	2.2	0.06	0.0036	100	–		626	8
	C	1.7	0.05	0.0025	60	–		730	10
<i>Paracalanus indicus</i>	C	2.30	0.534	0.285	10	5	A. D. McKinnon unpubl. data	~45356	454
	N	0.76	0.093	0.0086	10	5		~12534	128
<i>Paracalanus aculeatus</i>	C	8.03	2.214	4.902	4	5	A. D. McKinnon unpubl. data	~28906	290
	N	2.97	1.344	1.806	4	5		~172368	~1724
<i>Oithona oculata</i>	C	2.62	0.067	0.0045	3	10	A. D. McKinnon unpubl. data	552	6
	N	0.68	0.135	0.0182	3	10		~33136	332
<i>Bestiolina similis</i>	C	2.21	0.271	0.0734	6	5	A. D. McKinnon unpubl. data	~12652	128
	N	0.43	0.095	0.0090	6	5		~40978	412
<i>Oithona nishida</i>	C	0.61	0.084	0.0071	5	10	A. D. McKinnon unpubl. data	~16064	162
	N	0.10	0.017	0.0003	5	10		~25256	254
<i>Parvocalanus crassirostris</i>	C	0.88	0.076	0.0058	4	7	A. D. McKinnon unpubl. data	~6306	66
	N	0.17	0.021	0.0004	4	7		~11652	118
<i>Acartia baylyi</i>	C	1.81	0.284	0.0807	3	5	A. D. McKinnon unpubl. data	~20738	210
	N	0.45	0.200	0.04	4	5		~166298	~1662
<i>Temora turbinata</i>	C	8.18	0.243	0.0590	3	2	A. D. McKinnon unpubl. data	742	10
	N	2.41	0.054	0.0029	3	2		422	8
<i>Acrocalanus gibber</i>	C	4.09	1.642	2.6965	5	2	A. D. McKinnon unpubl. data	~136186	~1356
	N	1.71	0.468	0.219	5	2		~63052	632

doubt the assumption that adult female body weight increases are very limited because of their rigid exoskeleton and inability to moult. It is not possible to relate the other increases and decreases in weight given in Tables 2 & 3 to whether females were pre- or post-reproductive. The results from measurements on *Scolecithrix danae* at different stages of reproductive maturity provide evidence that females can put on weight over the period from reproductive immaturity to ripeness. Because this species was collected in a

tropical region, it is clear that such weight changes are not only limited to large species in cold waters. In this case, body carbon increased by 56% for adult females with immature ovaries through to ripeness, and nitrogen increased by 50% for the same developmental stages.

When measuring egg production rates, it is not uncommon to incubate *Calanus helgolandicus* (e.g. Bautista et al. 1994, Pond et al. 1996), or larger *Calanus* species such as *C. finmarchicus* (e.g. Plourde & Runge

1993), *C. glacialis* (e.g. Hirche et al. 1994) and *C. hyperboreus* (e.g. Hirche & Kattner 1993) in food-free (e.g. GF/C- or GF/F-filtered) seawater. Laabir et al. (1995) found that during 24 h incubations of *C. helgolandicus*, eggs were produced at the same rate in both filtered and natural seawater. Similarly, Plourde & Runge (1993) found that *C. finmarchicus* collected from the lower St. Lawrence Estuary and incubated for 24 h usually had similar rates of egg production regardless of whether they were incubated in food-enriched or filtered seawater. Tester & Turner (1990) showed that radioactive carbon introduced in the food of *Acartia tonsa* could be measured in newly produced eggs in less than 10 h. The time taken for C^{14} label in eggs to reach a maximum was only 9.5 h for *A. tonsa* and 16.5 h for *Centropages velificatus*, but 65.5 h for *Labidocera aestiva*, 89 h for *Centropages typicus*, and 91 h for *Anomalocera ornata*. Although these results may be indicative of tight coupling between feeding and egg output in the smaller species, this is not in itself evidence that body weights are in steady-state. When eggs continue to be shed at rates that are independent of food supplied for many hours to days (as detailed above), and when there may be many hours to days before food ingested appears in eggs, there is a strong indication of de-coupling of ingestion and egg output, at least over the short-term. The fact that when previously starved adult females are given food there may be a significant period of time before eggs are produced (e.g. Hirche & Bohrer 1987, Peterson 1988, Ohman et al. 1998) may also be indicative of body weight not being in steady-state. Presumably, in this period, body weight increases may be important and related to re-development of body reserves, gonad re-establishment and egg development. Copepods have been shown to utilise body proteins and sterols for egg production when food is of poor quality (Durbin et al. 1983). In a study of adult female *A. hudsonica* from Narraganset Bay, Durbin et al. (1992) found significant increases or decreases in dry weight, carbon or nitrogen on 5 of the 17 examinations (see their Table 2). Adults lost up to 30% of their own body weight when subjected to poor food conditions. Whereas upper limits to increasing body weight might be controlled by the restrictions placed by the exoskeleton, negative growth is not—rather, this might be limited by the amount of storage products as well as other physiological constraints.

Results from the compilation of laboratory and field studies demonstrate that the body weights of female copepods can change greatly when incubated under natural and artificial feeding conditions. Losses and gains of nitrogen, carbon, lipid and protein have been observed over short incubations. Weight increases of >100% and decreases of >30% have been demon-

strated (Table 3). In some cases such body weight changes may be attributable to dramatic changes in food, turbulence, encounter rates or other environmental conditions associated with taking an animal from the environment and incubating it. In the studies compiled here, many investigators examined body weight changes that occurred as a result of starvation or when food was added to superabundance. Such studies may give insight into the tolerances of the animals, but may not necessarily reflect usual weight changes.

The environment that animals experience in nature may change extremely rapidly as a result of physical, chemical and biological changes. Concentrations of chlorophyll *a* may vary by orders of magnitude as a result of phytoplankton blooms in the space of a few days (Durbin et al. 1983, Plourde & Runge 1993, Kiørboe & Nielsen 1994) as may particulate carbon and nitrogen concentrations (Durbin et al. 1983). Natural spatial and temporal patchiness of food may result in animals experiencing very different food quality/quantities through their life. Alarming, the only studies of weight changes that we have encountered in which adult copepods were incubated in natural food assemblages collected from the same location as the copepods were those of Durbin et al. (1992), McKinnon (1996) and Koski & Kuosa (1999).

Weight changes associated with reproductive maturity have been mentioned in numerous studies. A characteristic feature of polar and sub-polar herbivorous copepods is the utilisation of their large lipid reserves for basic metabolic needs to allow survival during periods of food scarcity (Lee et al. 1971). The elevated levels of lipid storage of high-latitude species has also been suggested to be representative of a reproductive strategy adapted to marked seasonality (Båmstedt 1986). Plourde & Runge (1993) found that the oil sac/body volume ratio of adult female *Calanus finmarchicus* decreased by 30 to 40% prior to the spring bloom, with this change being associated with gonad maturation. Most Arctic species continue to produce eggs when incubated in the absence of food over long periods, even months. *C. hyperboreus* and *C. glacialis* may naturally mature and spawn on stored energy alone, often in 'anticipation' of the spring bloom, although egg production increases when there is available food (Conover 1962, 1967, Smith 1990, Hirche 1991, Conover & Siferd 1993, Hirche & Kattner 1993).

In the absence of food, egg production relies on stored energy, mostly wax esters deposited during the feeding period, and body protein for nitrogen supply (Hirche & Niehoff 1996). Females may continually produce eggs almost completely at the expense of whole adult weight over long periods. Conover (1967) states that 'Spent females (of *Calanus hyperboreus*) in nature are nearly transparent and almost devoid of internal

structure. They may weight only 10% as much as a similar sized individual just after the spring bloom.' Conover & Siferd (1993) later observed *C. hyperboreus* dry weight to decline from 6 to 1 mg over a 3 mo period. The same appears to be true for *Neocalanus cristatus* (Fulton 1973); for this species and its congener *N. plumchrus*, negative growth must be considered the norm since females do not feed (Beklemishev 1954).

In the Antarctic, *Calanoides acutus* sexually matures and commences egg production when there is little or no food by utilising internal energy reserves (Hagen & Schnack-Schiel 1996). Similarly, adult females of *C. propinquus* in the Weddell Sea may complete gonad formation and commence spawning before the onset of the spring phytoplankton bloom (Hagen & Schnack-Schiel 1996). This period is characterised by decreasing lipid content and dry mass in early spring. However, at other times of the year egg production is more closely coupled to feeding. Adult females of other polar species are also suspected of accumulating large lipid reserves and using these during the period of egg production, e.g. *Metridia gerlachei*. Indeed, Calbet & Irigoien (1997) expressed concern that egg production rates may not truly reflect ingestion rates and other metabolic processes in this species because lipid stores may be used as some form of buffer, allowing decoupling of immediate ingestion and egg production rates. Under circumstances where no food is being assimilated, total net growth must be negative given the respiration demands of starved individuals. Egg output rates in such situations clearly represent a decoupling of growth from food supply and not net growth rates.

Such situations are not limited to high latitudes. In the Californian upwelling system, *Eucalanus californicus* continues to increase the amount of lipid storage on moulting to C6, and commencement of egg production is delayed (Smith & Lane 1991). They suggested that the accumulation of lipids and gonad maturation (and later egg production) were occurring simultaneously. The lipid and wax ester content of *Calanus helgolandicus* declines from immature to mature females (Gatten et al. 1980). *Neocalanus tonsus* reproduce at depths of 500 to 1000 m in the winter, relying upon lipid reserves (Ohman 1987). Abou Debs (1979) reports that for laboratory incubations over 6 d with 8×10^3 cells ml⁻¹ of *Hymenomonas elongata*, the lipid content of *Temora stylifera* increased from 11 to 15% of the initial dry weight.

Recommendations for new protocols

The use of egg output from incubations of individual animals may not be reliable at giving individual rates of growth if these species are producing eggs discon-

tinuously, with an inter-spawn period longer than the incubation period, or if females are utilising stored resources or indeed adding body reserves. Although data on individuals or small groups of several individuals have been used to describe rates of maximum or minimum growth (e.g. Hay 1995, Nielsen & Hansen 1995, Saiz et al. 1999) or individual variability in growth (e.g. Richardson & Verheye 1999), unless the incubation period is equal to or a whole-number multiple of the inter-spawn period, such results may not be valid. There may be a large number of individuals within an adult population that produce no eggs over a 24 h incubation period. These may be pre- or post-reproductive adults, those not able to produce eggs, or reproductively active females for which the period of incubation is shorter than the inter-spawn period. In some studies in which individuals have been incubated, zero egg production results were excluded prior to the derivation of the mean growth rate of adults (e.g. Hopcroft & Roff 1998). The saw-tooth concept of body weight change exemplifies why those individuals not producing eggs should be included when deriving mean growth rates. If these are excluded, the mean growth rates for the egg-producing group can be an overestimate of the actual mean growth rate for this same group.

Errors associated with the saw-tooth growth and egg release pattern might potentially be solved in 2 ways. Firstly, if one were to measure changes in individual body weights in addition to egg output, net growth at the individual level could be correctly derived. Secondly, if one were to incubate individuals over a period equal to or a whole-number multiple of the inter-spawn period, egg output would give correct individual growth rates (so long as body weights are steady-state at similar points on the inter-spawn period, example B in Fig. 1). This is still problematic however, because inter-spawn periods vary spatio-temporally and between individuals. Unfortunately, the longer the incubation the greater the incubation conditions may diverge from those *in situ*. If one incubates a large enough number of individuals (a very important issue especially when spawning is infrequent) and body weight is steady-state over the scale of the spawning period, then mean growth rates derived from egg output will still be accurate, even if the incubation period is less than the inter-spawn period.

Several workers have examined egg output and either measured or derived ingestion rates simultaneously, in an attempt to determine whether the latter are sufficient to meet the requirements of the former, or whether egg production must be fuelled in part from body weight reserves (e.g. Ward & Shreeve 1995, Cabal et al. 1997). Such approaches have usually assumed values for assimilation and gross growth effi-

ciencies. A more direct way of determining whether ingestion demands meet those of egg output (production), would simply be to take account of the total weight change. We are not aware of any investigations in polar or sub-polar regions in which adult female copepod production has been measured taking into account both egg output and body weight changes. Some workers have examined ingestion and egg production and derived egg production efficiencies (e.g. Checkley 1980, Kiørboe et al. 1985, Peterson 1988). Abou Debs (1984), working on laboratory carbon and nitrogen budgets for *Temora longicornis*, found that C and N ingestion was much higher than the cost of metabolism, egestion and reproduction. Although the author states that 'in adults there should be no net growth' (presumably meaning body weight increase), he goes on to consider that lipid content as a percentage of animal dry weight may indeed have increased. If adult body weights are not in steady-state, and endogenous as well as exogenous supplies of elements such as carbon and nitrogen are not considered, then clearly the results may be inaccurate. Indeed, Durbin & Durbin (1992) have used this argument to draw into doubt results from the study of Kiørboe et al. (1985), stating 'The significance of short-term weight changes for energy budget calculations can be estimated from the detailed study of *A. tonsa* bioenergetics at 18°C by Kiørboe et al. (1985)'. Durbin & Durbin's own data indicate that at the lowest food levels most respired carbon and excreted nitrogen was from body-tissue catabolism rather than from food ingestion as was assumed in the assimilation efficiency calculations of Kiørboe et al. (1985).

Ideally, the weight of single individuals would be followed through time, thus eliminating problems of population variance that hinder results from sacrificial methods of weight determination (see last sub-section of 'Results'). However, seasonal studies have shown that large weight changes in a species through the year may only be reflected by very small prosome length changes (Bottrell & Robins 1984). Furthermore, relatively large changes in the body weights of individual copepods may accompany only small changes in body length (Durbin et al. 1992, McKinnon 1996), and statistically significant changes in body carbon, nitrogen and dry weight may not accompany significant changes in prosome length (Thompson et al. 1994). Unfortunately the most accurate methods available for determination of body weight are destructive. We are therefore at present unable to follow the weight of one individual through time, and instead are forced to use methods whereby animals are sacrificed from a population over time.

A factor of particular importance is that inter-individual variation in body weight may be high, and if

sample size is low, then detection of body weight changes may be obscured (i.e. a Type II error may arise). This needs to be considered in the experimental design. As is apparent from Table 5, to measure changes in body weight of 1%, when growth rates are of a similar percentage of body weight, would be impractical. Fortunately, egg production rates are often >10% of body weight d^{-1} , although growth rates <10% are not uncommon in temperate (e.g. Hay et al. 1991, Peterson et al. 1991, Checkley et al. 1992, Kiørboe & Nielsen 1994, Rodríguez et al. 1995), sub-polar/polar regions (e.g. Hirche et al. 1991, Hassett et al. 1993), or oligotrophic environments (e.g. Calbet et al. 1996, McKinnon & Ayukai 1996, Calbet & Agustí 1999), and are especially common in many adults with body weights >10 $\mu gC\ ind^{-1}$ (see Hirst & Lampitt 1998). The extent of replication necessary to detect a 10% change in body weight may be practical, i.e. often <100 determinations (50 at Time 0 and 50 at Time t), and sometimes <15 (see Table 5), but appear impractical for 1% change.

Tester & Turner (1990) state that 'If relationships between copepod egg production and feeding rates are temporally uncoupled, this precludes the use of egg production as an index of feeding'. We go further and suggest that egg production may not only be decoupled from feeding, but from growth too. Using egg output measurements without consideration of body weight change probably does not allow accurate estimation of net growth in copepods, and future investigations should assess changes in body weight. Keeping individuals in food-free seawater is obviously unsuitable when attempting to measure body weight changes, and incubation containers should be large enough to ensure that the concentration of phytoplankton, microzooplankton and other prey components changes by only a minimal amount during incubation. Attempting to measure changes in adult weight makes the incubation even more critical. For example Ikeda & Skjoldal (1980) related changes in *Acartia australis* protein weight to reduced feeding conditions, even though the incubations were in natural seawater collected at the same site where copepods were captured. Ikeda (1977) described the difficulties in collecting animals from the environment without physiological consequences. The weight of material in the copepod gut and its variability may be an additional complication. For example, the maximum gut content of *Centropages typicus* is 12 ng of chlorophyll *a* for a female weighing 16.7 μgC ; using a carbon:chlorophyll *a* ratio of 50 this equates to 600 ngC, or 3.6% of its body carbon weight (derived by Sciandra et al. 1990 from the data of Dagg & Gill 1980). It thus appears a necessity to allow animals a brief but sufficient period in which to empty their guts prior to weight determination.

The steady-state assumption for adult female body size has been recognised as a problem in those larger species that contain or can potentially contain large lipid reserves. Several workers have also shown that this assumption may not always be valid even in those species not typically regarded as having de-coupled feeding and spawning, such as small temperate and tropical species. In the future, if we wish to derive accurate estimates of growth in natural populations of copepods, we cannot limit ourselves to measurements of egg output alone. There are very few studies where changes in body weights of females have been examined and more work of this type is urgently needed if we are to appreciate how accurately egg output terms equate to net growth of adult females.

Acknowledgements. We wish to thank all those who were so generous in donating data or giving information from their work. Comments by Angus Atkinson, Adrian Bunker, Shin-ichi Uye, Peter Ward and anonymous reviewers improved an earlier version of the manuscript. We thank Samantha Duggan for carbon and nitrogen analyses. AGH was supported by the Nuffield Foundation (NUF-NAL 99), and the NERC thematic programme 'Marine Productivity' (GST/02/2767).

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