



Title	Environmental factors which affect growth of Japanese common squid, <i>Todarodes pacificus</i> , analyzed by a bioenergetics model coupled with a lower trophic ecosystem model
Author(s)	Kishi, Michio J.; Nakajima, Kazuto; Fujii, Masahiko; Hashioka, Taketo
Citation	Journal of Marine Systems, 78(2), 278-287 <a href="https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmarsys.2009.02.012">https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmarsys.2009.02.012</a>
Issue Date	2009-09
Doc URL	<a href="http://hdl.handle.net/2115/39739">http://hdl.handle.net/2115/39739</a>
Type	article (author version)
File Information	KishiJMS78.pdf



[Instructions for use](#)

1 **Environmental factors which affect growth of Japanese common squid,**  
2 ***Todarodes pacificus*, analyzed by a bioenergetics model coupled with a**  
3 **lower trophic ecosystem model**

4

5 Michio J. Kishi<sup>1,2</sup>, Kazuto Nakajima<sup>3</sup>, Masahiko Fujii<sup>4</sup>, and Taketo Hashioka<sup>2</sup>

6

7 <sup>1</sup> *Hokkaido University, Faculty of Fisheries Sciences, c/o Cho-tatsu-ka, N13W8,*  
8 *Sapporo, Hokkaido, 060-0813, Japan*

9 <sup>2</sup> *Ecosystem Change Research Program, Frontier Research Center for Global Change,*  
10 *Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology, 3173-25, Showa-machi,*  
11 *Kanazawa-ku, Yokohama, Kanagawa, 236-0001, Japan*

12 <sup>3</sup> *Hokkaido University, Graduate School of Environmental Science, N10W5, Sapporo,*  
13 *Hokkaido 060-0810, Japan*

14 <sup>4</sup> *Sustainability Governance Project, Center for Sustainability Science, Hokkaido*  
15 *University, N9W8, Kita-ku, Sapporo, Hokkaido 060-0809, Japan*

16

17 Abstract

18 Bioenergetics model is applied to Japanese common squid, *Todarodes pacificus*. The  
19 temporal change of wet weight of common squid, which migrates in the Sea of Japan,  
20 is simulated. The time dependent horizontal distribution of prey is calculated a priori  
21 by 3-D coupled physical-biological model. The biological model NEMURO (North  
22 Pacific Ecosystem Model for Understanding Regional Oceanography) is used to  
23 simulate the lower-trophic ecosystem including three kinds of zooplankton biomass  
24 two of which is used as prey of common squid. A bioenergetics model reproduced  
25 appropriate growth curve of common squid, migrating in the North Pacific and the Sea  
26 of Japan. The results show that the wet weight of common squid in the northern Sea of  
27 Japan is heavier than that migrating in the central Sea of Japan, because prey density of  
28 the northern Sea of Japan is higher than that of the central Sea of Japan. We also  
29 investigate the wet weight anomaly for a global warming scenario. In this case, wet  
30 weight of common squid decreases because water temperature exceeds the optimum  
31 temperature for common squid. This result indicates that migration route and spawning  
32 area of common squid might change with global warming.

33

34 **Key words:** NEMURO, Bioenergetics model, *Todarodes pacificus*, Japanese common  
35 squid.

36

## 1 **Introduction**

2 Japanese common squid, *Todarodes pacificus*, is classified into three groups based  
3 on hatching season, i.e., winter-spawned group, summer-spawned group and  
4 fall-spawned group (Araya, 1972; Okutani, 1983; Kidokoro and Hiyama, 1996).

5 Winter-spawned group migrates widely to the Sea of Japan, Yellow Sea and North  
6 Pacific. This group is the main fisheries target inshore of the Sea of Japan and its  
7 resource was the highest amongst the three groups until 1970s. Its larvae appear mainly  
8 in the northern East China Sea and juveniles are transported to northward by the  
9 Tsushima Current from March to June (Watanabe, 1965; Murata, 1989). Young  
10 common squids, which are main squid fisheries targets, migrate along warm branch of  
11 the Tsushima Current up to the Polar Front (PF) and also into the North Pacific from  
12 June to July. They start southward migration in September and October (Murata, 1989).  
13 Based on Tameishi (1992), it also migrates along the Pacific coast of Japan and this  
14 migration route plays important role in their maintenance of biomass.

15 Summer group distributes inshore of middle and south of the Sea of Japan. The  
16 resource is the least amongst the three groups. This group spawns from May to August.

17 Fall group mainly distributes offshore of the Sea of Japan and is the main fisheries  
18 target since 1970s. Larvae appear in north of the East China Sea up to southwest part  
19 of the Sea of Japan from September to November. Young common squids mainly  
20 distribute from warm region of the Tsushima Current to south of PF from May to June.  
21 Adult common squids distribute from PF to near the coast of Japan from July to  
22 August. The northward migration is related to location of PF and sea surface  
23 temperature (SST) of Liman Current (Kasahara and Ito, 1972; Naganuma, 1967).  
24 Southward migration begins in August and September when mating becomes active.  
25 Then common squids that migrate to north of PF (called as the subarctic group (SG))  
26 move westerly along Liman current and reach offshore of east coast of the Korean  
27 Peninsula. Common squids that stay in south of PF (called as the Tsushima group  
28 (TG)) move the eastern Sea of Japan along the coast of Japan. Kidokoro and Hiyama  
29 (1996) found that the growth of SG is better than that of TG, because of the difference  
30 of prey in the migration area.

31 The purpose of the present study is: (1) to construct a common squid bioenergetics  
32 model by improving Rudstam (1988)'s model and NEMURO.FISH (North Pacific  
33 Ecosystem Model for Understanding Regional Oceanography for Including Saury and  
34 Herring; Ito et al. 2004; Megrey et al, 2007), which embedded a fish bioenergetics  
35 model into a lower-trophic ecosystem model, (2) demonstrate that the bioenergetics

1 model can reproduce the growth of common squids, regardless of the spawning areas  
2 and migration routes, (3) elucidate factors which cause the difference of growth  
3 between the subarctic group (SG) and the Tsushima group (TG) for the fall-spawned  
4 group, (4) discuss the difference of growth depending on migration routes for  
5 winter-spawned group, and (5) evaluate the response to global warming.

## 6 7 **Model description**

8 We used 3-D coupled physical-biological model results by Hashioka and Yamanaka  
9 (2007a) as input data necessary for the bioenergetics model of common squids.  
10 Hashioka and Yamanaka (2007a) used the CCSR-COCO (Center for Climate System  
11 Research, University of Tokyo, Ocean Component model; Hasumi, 2000) as a physical  
12 model and the NEMURO (Kishi et al., 2007) as a biological model. The two models  
13 were coupled and were run for the northwestern Pacific. The NEMURO has three  
14 categories of zooplankton, which are small zooplankton (ZS), large zooplankton (ZL)  
15 which corresponds to copepods, and predatory plankton (ZP) which corresponds to  
16 krill and/or salpa. The modeled common squid preys ZS and ZP as described below.

17 The daily growth rate of an individual common squid is described as the difference  
18 between the consumption and losses due to the respiration, specific dynamic action,  
19 egestion and excretion (Eq. (1)). Formulas and parameters for the individual  
20 components in the bioenergetics model follow terminology and symbols used in the  
21 Wisconsin bioenergetics models (Hanson et al., 1997) and Atlantic herring (*C.*  
22 *harengus*) model by Rudstam (1988).

### 23 24 *Growth*

25 The growth rate of an individual common squid is calculated as wet weight (W)  
26 increment per wet weight per day:

$$27 \quad \frac{dW}{W \cdot dt} = [C - (R + SDA + F + E)] \cdot \frac{CAL_z}{CAL_f} \quad (1)$$

28 where  $C$  is the consumption ( $\text{g prey g squid}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$ ),  $R$  is the respiration or losses  
29 through metabolism ( $\text{g prey g squid}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$ ),  $SDA$  is the specific dynamic action or  
30 losses due to energy costs of digesting food ( $\text{g prey g squid}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$ ),  $F$  is the egestion or  
31 losses due to feces ( $\text{g prey g squid}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$ ),  $E$  is the excretion or losses of nitrogenous  
32 excretory wastes ( $\text{g prey g squid}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$ ), and  $CAL_z$  and  $CAL_f$  are the caloric  
33 equivalent of zooplankton ( $\text{cal g zooplankton}^{-1}$ ) and common squid ( $\text{cal g squid}^{-1}$ ),  
34 respectively.  $CAL_z$  is 617.00 ( $\text{cal g prey}^{-1}$ ), which is the same value as that of Megrey

1 et al. (2002) used for pelagic fish in the North Pacific.  $CAL_f$  is the mean caloric  
 2 equivalent of seven sample squids that were estimated by Nishiyama and Hamaoka  
 3 (1989) and is set to be 1526.14 (cal g squid<sup>-1</sup>). All the units for the weight show the wet  
 4 weight in this study.

5  
 6 *Consumption (C)*

7 Daily consumption rate (g prey g squid<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>) was determined as the proportion of  
 8 available consumption rate that depends on prey density, the maximum daily  
 9 consumption rate that depends on the common squid wet weight, and the water  
 10 temperature:

11  $C = C_r \cdot f_c(T)$  (2)

12  $C_r = \sum_{j=1}^n C_j$  (3)

13  $C_j = \frac{C_{MAX} \cdot \frac{PD_{ij} \cdot v_{ij}}{K_{ij}}}{1 + \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{PD_{ik} \cdot v_{ik}}{K_{ik}}}$  (4)

14  $C_{MAX} = a_c W + b_c$  (5)

15 where  $C_r$  is the total available consumption rate without temperature effects (g prey g  
 16 squid<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>),  $f_c(T)$  is the temperature dependence function for the consumption, T  
 17 is the water temperature (°C), j and k are the prey types (ZS or ZP, see Table 2 in  
 18 detail), i is the predator type (life stage of common squid),  $C_{MAX}$  is the maximum  
 19 consumption rate dependant on the common squid wet weight (g prey g squid<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>),  
 20  $PD_{ij}$  is the density of prey type j (g wet weight m<sup>-3</sup>),  $v_{ij}$  is the vulnerability of prey type  
 21 j to predator i (0 or 1; dimensionless),  $K_{ij}$  is the half saturation constant (g wet weight  
 22 m<sup>-3</sup>) for individual predator type i feeding on prey type k, and  $a_c$  and  $b_c$  are the  
 23 intercept and slope of the allometric mass function for consumption, respectively. The  
 24 formula for  $C_{MAX}$  is different from that in Megrey et al. (2007) for simplicity.

25 The consumption is linearly dependent on the wet weight and nonlinearly  
 26 dependent on the prey zooplankton density and temperature, according to equations  
 27 above. The detailed values of the parameters are shown in Table 1. The maximum  
 28 consumption rate is referred to experimental data by Sakurai et al (1993). Their data  
 29 showed that the maximum daily feeding rate was 38.2g of food ingested by a 186g  
 30 common squid, or 20.5% of the body wet weight. Equation (5) was derived from a

1 relationship between the maximum daily feeding rate and estimated body wet weight  
 2 in each common squid for weights ranging from 141 to 413g during a 4-day  
 3 experiment from 8 to 12 August, 1990 (Sakurai et al 1993). The adapted curve of the  
 4 maximum consumption  $w \cdot C_{\max}$  (g prey day<sup>-1</sup>) is shown in Fig.1. Model results of ZS  
 5 and ZP biomass from NEMURO were used as prey for common squids. Modeled water  
 6 temperature by Hashioka and Yamanaka (2007a) was applied to this study.

7 Temperature dependence in the bioenergetics model  $f_c$  is generally modeled as a  
 8 dome-shaped curve proposed by Thornton and Lessem (1978). The Thornton and  
 9 Lessem function is the product of two sigmoid curves: one fits the increasing segment  
 10 (gcta) and the other fits the decreasing segment (gctb) of the temperature dependence  
 11 function:

$$12 \quad f_c(T) = gcta \cdot gctb \quad (6)$$

13

14 (The increasing segment)

$$15 \quad gcta = \frac{(xk1 \cdot t4)}{(1.0 + xk1 \cdot (t4 - 1.0))} \quad (7)$$

$$16 \quad t4 = e^{[t5 \cdot (T - te1)]} \quad (8)$$

$$17 \quad t5 = tt5 \cdot a \log \left[ 0.98 \cdot \frac{(1.0 - xk1)}{(0.02 \cdot xk1)} \right] \quad (9)$$

$$18 \quad tt5 = \frac{1}{(te2 - te1)} \quad (10)$$

19

20 (The decreasing segment)

$$21 \quad gctb = \frac{(xk4 \cdot t6)}{(1.0 + xk4 \cdot (t6 - 1.0))} \quad (11)$$

$$22 \quad t6 = e^{[t7 \cdot (te4 - T)]} \quad (12)$$

$$23 \quad t7 = tt7 \cdot a \log \left[ 0.98 \cdot \frac{(1.0 - xk4)}{(0.02 \cdot xk4)} \right] \quad (13)$$

$$24 \quad tt7 = \frac{1}{(te4 - te3)} \quad (14)$$

25 where  $te1$  and  $te2$  is the lower and higher water temperature in the increasing segment  
 26 at which the temperature dependence is the small fraction  $xk1$  (0.1) and the large  
 27 fraction  $xk2$  (0.98) of the maximum consumption rate, respectively.  $te3$  and  $te4$  is the  
 28 lower and higher water temperature in the decreasing segment at which the

1 temperature dependence is the large fraction  $xk3$  (0.98) and the small fraction  $xk4$  (0.1)  
 2 of the maximum consumption rate, respectively. See Table 1 for values of  $xk1$ ,  $te1$ ,  $te2$ ,  
 3  $xk4$ ,  $te4$ , and  $te3$ . The preferable temperature for the common squid habitat is obtained  
 4 from Kasahara (1989). Although experiments to investigate the temperature effect on  
 5 the consumption rate must be conducted, we have no data at this moment. Therefore,  
 6 we speculated the curve using habitat temperature of common squid. The maximum  
 7 temperature  $te4$  at which common squids can survive was set to be 23°C (Sakurai,  
 8 personal communication based on laboratory experiment). Consequently, we set  $te1$   
 9 through  $te4$ , as is shown in Table 1 and Fig. 2 (Sakurai, personal communication).

### 11 *Respiration rate (R)*

12 The respiration nonlinearly depends on the wet weight and the temperature, and the  
 13 swimming speed dependant on the wet weight,

$$14 \quad R = a_R \cdot W^{b_R} \cdot c_R^T \cdot f_R(U) \cdot 2.629 \quad (15)$$

$$15 \quad f_R(U) = e^{(d_R U)} \quad (16)$$

$$16 \quad U = a_A \cdot W^{b_A} \quad (17)$$

17 where  $a_R$  is the intercept of the allometric mass function and represents the specific  
 18 weight of the oxygen consumption rate of a 1g common squid at 0 °C without activity  
 19 (g O<sub>2</sub> g squid<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>),  $f_R(U)$  is the swimming dependence function for the  
 20 respiration,  $U$  is the swimming speed (cm s<sup>-1</sup>),  $b_R$  is the slope of the allometric mass  
 21 function for the standard metabolism,  $c_R$  is the coefficient relating temperature to the  
 22 metabolism,  $d_R$  is the coefficient relating the swimming speed to the metabolism,  $a_A$  is  
 23 the intercept of the allometric mass function,  $b_A$  is the slope of the allometric mass  
 24 function with the standard swimming speed.

25 The coefficient of 2.629 is used to convert (g O<sub>2</sub> g squid<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>) into (g prey g  
 26 squid<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>):

$$27 \quad \frac{6,780 \text{ joules}}{gO_2} \cdot \frac{1 \text{ cal}}{4.18 \text{ joules}} \cdot \frac{1 \text{ gwetweight}}{617 \text{ cal}} = 2.629 \quad (18)$$

28 Demont and O'dor (1984) introduced a relation between the respiration and water  
 29 temperature as well as the activity using *Illex illecebrosus*, which is an open ocean  
 30 species of squids and its ecological characteristics such as life cycles are similar to  
 31 Japanese common squid *Todarodes pacificus*. (Hatanaka et al., 1985)

32 The respiration nonlinearly depends on the body wet weight, temperature and  
 33 swimming speed which also depends on the wet weight. The energy loss due to the

1 respiration of squids is not known for the Japanese common squid, but a pelagic squid  
 2 *Illex illecebrosus* can be substituted for the Japanese common squid. In this study, the  
 3 equation of oxygen consumption for *Illex illecebrosus* was used for the Japanese  
 4 common squid (Demont and O’Dor, 1984) by modifying the parameters. The water  
 5 temperature does not play an important role in the respiration of the Japanese common  
 6 squid compared with *Illex illecebrosus* (Sakurai, personal communication).  
 7 Consequently,  $c_R$  in Eq. (15) is set to be smaller than that of *Illex illecebrosus*. Fig. 3  
 8 shows (A) a relationship between the wet weight on the water temperature at 15°C and  
 9 the respiration rate per day (g prey g squid<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>), and (B) the respiration (g prey  
 10 day<sup>-1</sup>) in the case of 15°C water temperature. Oxygen consumption of the Japanese  
 11 common squid was estimated at 470mg O<sub>2</sub> kg<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> (=0.0589 g prey g squid<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>) for  
 12 a 300g squid, which coincides with an experimental value (HITEC, 2001).

13

14 *Specific dynamic action (SDA), excretion (E), egestion or loss due to feces (F)*

15 Specific dynamic action is part of the total respiration and represents the energy  
 16 allocated to not only the digestive processes of food, principally the deamination of  
 17 proteins but also the absorption, transportation, and deposition of food (Beamish,  
 18 1974). We formulated the specific dynamic action as:

19  $SDA = S \cdot (C - F), \quad (20)$

20 where S is the proportion of assimilated energy by the specific dynamic action, C is the  
 21 consumption and F is the egestion or loss due to feces. The egestion (F) is modeled as  
 22 a constant proportion  $a_F$  of consumption and the excretion (E) is as a constant  
 23 proportion  $a_E$  of (C-F).

24

25  $F = a_F C, \quad (21)$

26  $E = a_E \cdot (C - F). \quad (22)$

27

28 *Migration and stages*

29 Kasahara (1989) divided life history of the common squid in the Sea of Japan into  
 30 five stages based on its mantle length. We divided 5<sup>th</sup> stages into two categories, before  
 31 and after the migration for spawning. Based on Okutani (1983), fall-spawned common  
 32 squid is hatched at the beginning of November. In our model, the date of hatching out  
 33 is supposed to be on 1<sup>st</sup> of November. This date is not strict, because we interpolated  
 34 10-day averaged model outputs of NEMURO (Hashioka and Yamanaka, 2007a) to  
 35 daily and used in this study, as mentioned in the following subsection. The relation



1 between the day from the hatching out and the stage is based on the relation between  
2 mantle length and age by Kidokoro et al. (1999) and shown in Table 2. The migration  
3 route of common squids in the Sea of Japan is suggested by Fujii et al. (2004), in  
4 which they simulated the migration route supposing a squid as a passive tracer, and by  
5 Ikeda et al. (2003) in which they monitored the migration route using the relation  
6 between the Sr:Ca ratio of statolith and the growth. The spawning ground of the  
7 fall-spawned group has been considered to extend from the southwestern part of the  
8 Sea of Japan to inshore of the northwestern Kyushu Island and also to the northern  
9 East China Sea (Kasahara and Ito, 1972, Shojima and Hotta, 1972). The wet weight of  
10 common squid increases rapidly from the age of five months and reaches its maximum  
11 weight at the age of eight or nine months (Kidokoro et al., 1999). Its main prey is  
12 zooplankton (*Themisto japonica* and *Euphausia pacifica*), which is pelagic species  
13 (Nishimura 1965). The life expectancy is exactly one year.

14 Kidokoro and Hiyama (1996) reported that the growth of common squids is  
15 different between those caught at the south of PF and those caught at the north of PF,  
16 although the spawning ground is in the same region. Consequently, the common  
17 squid's growth and distribution are closely related to the structure of the Sea of Japan  
18 (Araya 1967). The common squid which migrates up to PF is called the Tsushima  
19 group (TG) and one which crosses PF and migrates up to the northern Sea of Japan is  
20 called the subarctic group (SG). As is shown in Fig. 4, TG migrates along the coast of  
21 Japan and begins to come back to the spawning ground in July, SG migrates along the  
22 coast of the Korean Peninsula and comes back southward along the continent as well  
23 (Araya 1967). The winter-spawned group comes up to the east coast of Hokkaido in  
24 summer and comes down to the south coast of Kyushu in winter, migrating along the  
25 coast of Japan in the Pacific.

26

27

## 28 *Inputs from NEMURO*

29 Inputs from the coupled physical-ecological model from Hashioka and Yamanaka  
30 (2007a) were used as the physical condition and prey density. The ten-day averaged  
31 model results were interpolated to daily and were used for our simulation. The water  
32 temperature was averaged within the water column from the surface to 50m depth,  
33 because squids daily migrate down to 50~100m. Zooplankton concentrations were  
34 averaged from the surface to 20m depth, considering that the modeled zooplankton  
35 concentrates within upper 20m. Adult of common squid preys not only zooplankton

1 but also small fish (Sakurai et al., 1993). NEMURO does not include explicitly fish,  
2 but ZP (predatory zooplankton) includes implicitly higher trophics as well since ZP is  
3 the highest trophic in NEMURO. We assumed in the model that adult common squids  
4 prey ZP.

5 Hashioka and Yamanaka (2007b) simulated responses of the lower-trophic levels to  
6 global warming, using simulated fields according to the IPCC IS92a global warming  
7 scenario as boundary condition at the sea surface. These physical fields are obtained  
8 from global warming experiment of the CCSR/NIES coupled ocean-atmosphere model  
9 (Nozawa et al., 2001). We used the outputs from Hashioka and Yamanaka (2007b) for  
10 simulating responses of the common squid to global warming.

11 The bioenergetic model is integrated with a time step of one day. The starting points  
12 of migration are indicated in Fig.4. The initial wet weight of a squid in the model was  
13 supposed to be 0.2 g and simulations start on November 1<sup>st</sup> and January 1<sup>st</sup> for fall  
14 spawning and winter spawning group respectively. The outputs of water temperature  
15 and prey density are linearly interpolated in time and space between each migration  
16 point shown in Fig.4.

## 17 18 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

### 19 20 ***Growth of fall-spawning Subarctic group (SG) and Tsushima group (TG)***

21 Fig. 5 shows simulated time dependent features of (A) prey density along the  
22 migration route, (B) water temperature along the migration route and (C) wet weight of  
23 common squid. The prey density along the migration route increases in April for SG  
24 and in May for TG, respectively. The prey density for TG reaches its maximum in June  
25 and then decreases. That for SG, on the other hand, maintains its high level from the  
26 end of April to August. The difference of prey density between the two groups is 0.22  
27  $\mu\text{mol N l}^{-1}$  in April and 0.05  $\mu\text{mol N l}^{-1}$  in June. The difference of the water temperature  
28 becomes clear after May, while the growth shows clear difference after April, when the  
29 SG begins to cross the PF. The growth saturates in late August in both groups.

30 According to Kidokoro and Hiyama (1996), the clear difference of body size was  
31 observed during common squid investigations of the Sea of Japan from late June to  
32 early July 1994. The averaged wet weight of common squids caught at the south of the  
33 PF is 190g and that at the north of the PF is 267g, the ages of which were almost 240  
34 days. The simulated wet weight on 240 days after the hatch (at the beginning of July)  
35 is around 230g for TG and 320g for SG, respectively (Fig. 5 (C)). The modeled wet

1 weight overestimates the observation by about 20% and the modeled growth rate is  
2 considered faster than the observed one. However, the difference in the wet weight  
3 between TG and SG is around 40% in both observation and simulation, showing good  
4 performance of the model in reproducing the difference of the wet weight and growth  
5 rate between the two groups. Overall, the simulated sigmoid-shaped growth curve  
6 captures well the observed features by Kidokoro et al. (1999), and therefore, the model  
7 could reproduce well the growth of squids, although the simulated wet weight slightly  
8 overestimate and underestimate the observation before Stage 4 and after Stage 5,  
9 respectively. The time dependent features of the wet weight and the mantle length  
10 based on Kidokoro et al. (1999) is shown in Fig. 6. Kidokoro et al. (1999) examined  
11 the growth of mantle length, and mantle length was converted to body weight using the  
12 relation,  $\log W = -9.27 + 2.72 \log L$  (W: wet weight, L: mantle length), which was observed  
13 by Araya (1967). According to Fig. 6, we can conclude that our simulation shows a good  
14 agreement with the observation.

15 Figure 5 (A) suggests that the difference of the growth between two groups is caused  
16 by the difference of the prey density. In NEMURO, ZL which corresponds to copepods,  
17 behaves ontogenetic vertical migration. It ascends shallower layer in April to prey  
18 bloomed phytoplankton and descends to deeper layer in September. The reason why  
19 the prey density increases in April is due to the vertical migration of ZL, which brings  
20 increase of ZP as well. The growth of ZL and ZP is better in the subarctic regions than  
21 in the southern part of the Sea of Japan, because the spring bloom of phytoplankton is  
22 larger in the north of the PF due to the deep convection during winter. This causes the  
23 difference of the prey density between the two groups. Figure 7 shows the observed  
24 zooplankton concentration along the migration route, rewritten from Hirota and  
25 Hasegawa (1999). The observed zooplankton density supports our results as well as  
26 Hashioka and Yamanaka (2007a).

27 On the other hand, the water temperature gives a different effect on the growth.  
28 Figure 8 shows  $f_c(T)$  of Eqs. (2) and (6), which is the temperature dependence function  
29 for the consumption. This shows that the water temperature is more preferable for the  
30 growth of TG than that of SG from April to August. In addition, the energy loss by the  
31 respiration does not show clear difference between the two groups (not shown). These  
32 results show that the physical environment, represented solely by the water  
33 temperature, is more preferable in TG than in SG, but the difference of prey density  
34 plays much more important role in the common squid growth. This is the hypothesis  
35 also pointed out by Kidokoro and Hiyama (1996).

1

## 2 **Growth of winter-spawning group which migrates the Pacific coast**

3 Fig. 9 denotes modeled time series of (A) prey density of winter-spawning  
4 group and (B) the water temperature on the migration route, and (C) wet weight of  
5 winter-spawning group from January to December, estimated by using the  
6 bioenergetics model. The prey density on the migration route has two peaks which  
7 appear in April and September through November. The maximum of prey density for  
8 winter-spawning group is  $0.192 \mu\text{molN } t^{-1}$ , as high as that for TG (Fig. 5 (A)). The prey  
9 density is high from the first stage of common squid's life history and is variable with  
10 time. The water temperature on the migration route of winter-spawning group is  
11 around  $20^{\circ}\text{C}$  from January to July, and has its minimum in September. The minimum  
12 temperature for winter-spawning group is  $13.8^{\circ}\text{C}$ , close to that for fall-spawning  
13 groups. The modeled wet weight of winter-spawning group is 292.2g, which is close to  
14 that of TG (Figs. 5 (C) and 9 (C)). The wet weight increases rapidly after July when  
15 food consumption of the winter-spawning group starts to be relatively active, and show  
16 signs of leveling off after mid-October. As the modeled increase curve of wet weight  
17 follows reasonably a sigmoid-shaped curve which is characteristic for the growth of  
18 common squids, the model result can be considered to reproduce realistically the  
19 growth of common squids. The growth of the modeled winter-spawned group is similar  
20 to that of the modeled TG, because the prey density for winter-spawned group in June  
21 through October is  $0.192\mu\text{molN } t^{-1}$ , as high as for TG. The higher energy loss caused  
22 by the respiration in migrating in the warm region during early stages is considered to  
23 be made up by feeding on plentiful preys from April to June.

24 For simplicity, winter-spawning group in the Pacific Ocean in the model is set to  
25 migrate from spawning areas toward the east coast of Hokkaido along the coast of  
26 Japan. In reality, on the other hand, common squids in the eastern coast of Hokkaido  
27 migrate in the warm Kuroshio water advecting northward. The migration to the eastern  
28 coast of Hokkaido is considered to restrict in years when the cold Oyashio water is  
29 dominant and intrusion of the warm Kuroshio water is interrupted (Mori and  
30 Nakamura, 2001). Therefore, we examined how migration routes affect the growth of  
31 winter-spawning group, by comparing model results obtained by three experiments  
32 with different migration routes of P-1, P-2 and P-3 (Table 3). P-1 is a route described  
33 above as a standard experiment, on which common squids migrate northward along the  
34 coast of Japan and reach the east coast of Hokkaido ( $42.5^{\circ}\text{N}$ ,  $146.5^{\circ}\text{E}$ ). P-2 is a route  
35 that common squids migrate along the coast of Japan but do not reach the east coast of

1 Hokkaido and stay at 39.5°N, 144.5°E. P-3 is a route on which common squids reach  
2 the east coast of Hokkaido (42.5°N, 146.5°E) but migrate through the offshore area of  
3 Japan (along 142.5°E) since June. On any of the three routes, common squids are set to  
4 hatch out at 30.5°N, 128.5°E on January 1 and migrate northward along the coast of  
5 Japan until the end of May.

6 Figure 10 shows the modeled wet weight of winter-spawning group that  
7 migrates along P-1, P-2 and P-3 route, respectively. The difference of the growth in  
8 July through September among the three cases is considered to be due to difference of  
9 the prey density. On the other hand, the wet weight increases up to 300g and is similar  
10 eventually in any cases. This suggests that the bioenergetics model modified to fit  
11 common squids by this study can reproduce the growth of winter-spawning common  
12 squids regardless of migration routes. In this study, only one southward migration route  
13 of winter spawning group is considered, that is, a route along the coast of Japan in the  
14 Pacific Ocean. This is because the water temperature in the Sea of Japan in southward  
15 migrating period exceeds the maximum temperature of 23°C at which common squids  
16 can survive (Sakurai, personal communication). However, as common squids carry out  
17 actively the diurnal vertical migration, it is possible that common squids also reach the  
18 spawning region through the Sea of Japan, where is the other migration route of WG,  
19 by passing through the deep water with lower temperature and migrating southward.  
20 The possible southward migration is not taken into account in this study. We might  
21 need to incorporate ecological knowledge of common squids such as the vertical  
22 migration and habitat depth into future bioenergetics models.

23 As well as fall-spawned common squid, the growth of winter-spawned  
24 common squids is also considered to depend strongly on the prey density. The  
25 bioenergetics model modified in this study can be applied to various common squids  
26 that migrate the coasts of Japan regardless of spawning periods and migration routes.

27

### 28 ***Possible effects of global warming on the growth of fall-spawning groups***

29 We examined how common squids are affected by global warming, by comparing  
30 model results with and without changes in the water temperature and prey density, both  
31 of which are presumably caused by global warming. Fig. 11 shows the model results of  
32 (A) the prey density, (B) water temperature and (C) wet weight for SG and TG under  
33 the influence of global warming. The prey density increases rapidly in April for SG  
34 and in May for TG, similar to the corresponding result without global warming effects  
35 (Fig. 5 (A)). However, the peak of the prey density for TG would appear earlier by 10

1 days and the prey density for SG from the end of April to August will be more  
2 fluctuant as global warming proceeds.

3 The water temperature on the migration route of common squids under the  
4 influence of global warming decreases after the start of migration and has their  
5 minimum in April for TG and in August for SG, respectively. The water temperature on  
6 the migration route of TG is predicted to increase by 4°C on the entire migration route  
7 by global warming. The water temperature on the migration route of SG, by contrast,  
8 raises by 2°C from November to July, but does not after August in which common  
9 squids migrate for hatching, by global warming.

10 The wet weight of SG is estimated to be 393.4g by the bioenergetics model,  
11 similar with or without the influence of global warming. The modeled wet weight of  
12 TG, on the other hand, is estimated to be 145.3g with global warming, much lower than  
13 that without global warming. It also should be noted that the wet weight of TG will  
14 decrease in August through the end of September in which common squids migrate for  
15 hatching if global warming proceeds. This is because the water temperature on the  
16 migration route exceeds the maximum temperature of 23°C at which common squids  
17 can survive (Sakurai, personal communication) under the influence of global warming.

18 The model results above reveal that the growth of TG can be significantly  
19 inhibited by global warming while the effect of global warming to the growth of SG is  
20 relatively minor. The inhibition of the growth of TG by global warming is primarily  
21 due to higher water temperature because the prey density is similar with or without the  
22 influence of global warming.

23 Model results show that the energy loss by the respiration is notably higher for  
24 TG than for SG in April through July (Fig. 12) when the growth rate of fall-spawned  
25 group is relatively high. The energy loss by the respiration is strongly dependent on the  
26 water temperature (Eq. 15), and therefore, the energy loss is high during the period  
27 when the water temperature is relatively high.

28 The model results suggest that global warming presumably affects the  
29 growth of common squids with higher water temperature, especially for TG. Global  
30 warming may yield the water temperature on the migration route which is closer to, or  
31 even higher than the maximum water temperature for the growth of common squids in  
32 rapidly-growing larvae, juvenile, young and adult stages (Table 2) in summer. The rise  
33 in the water temperature may result in future changes in the migration route and  
34 spawning regions of common squids. The southernmost region which meets the  
35 maximum water temperature for common squid's spawning predicted by the model is

1 off Niigata pref. (38.5~39.5N, 137.5~138.5E), which is consistent with a potential  
2 spawning region suggested by Sakurai et al. (2002) estimated by the water temperature  
3 distribution and bottom topography.

#### 4 5 **Conclusion**

6 We conclude: (1) a bioenergetics model that was modified for common squids  
7 by this study can be applied to various common squids migrating around the coasts of  
8 Japan, regardless of the spawning season and migration route, (2) difference in growth  
9 of fall-spawning common squids with different migration route is resulting from  
10 different prey density on the migration route, and (3) possibility of future inhibited  
11 growth of the Tsushima group and changes in the migration routes and spawning areas  
12 of common squids, caused by rise in the water temperature as effect of global  
13 warming.

14 The vertical migration and horizontal migration route are simplified in the  
15 model. Some parameters for the common squid's respiration were needed to be  
16 modified from values obtained from previous studies and be used in the model. We  
17 may need to solve the problems in developing the bioenergetics model by  
18 incorporating various important ecological processes for common squids, such as the  
19 specific dynamic action, fecal excretion and nitrogenous egestion, into the model for  
20 more accurate assessment and prediction of the common squid's growth.

#### 21 22 23 **Acknowledgement**

24 The authors wish to thank Prof. Yasunori Sakurai and Dr. Hideaki Kidokoro for their  
25 helpful discussions and comments. We would also like to thank Dr. Yasuhiro  
26 Yamanaka for his suggestions on computer coding. The authors also thank anonymous  
27 referees of this journal as well as those of Bull. Jpn. Soc. Fish. Oceanogr. for our  
28 previous submitted manuscript written in Japanese, which we withdrew.

#### 29 30 31 **References**

32  
33 Araya, H. 1967. Resources of common squid, *Todarodes pacificus*, Steenstrup in the  
34 Japanese waters. Fisheries Research Series, vol. 16. Japanese Association of the  
35 Marine Resources Conservation, Tokyo, 60 pp. (in Japanese)

1  
2 Araya, H. 1972. Formation of offshore fishing ground of common squid in the  
3 Northern Sea of Japan. Bull. Jpn. Soc. Fish. Oceanogr., 21, 44-48. (in Japanese)  
4  
5 Beamish, F. W. H. 1974. Apparent specific dynamic action of largemouth bass,  
6 *Micropterus salmoides*. J. Fish. Res. Board Can. 31,1763 -1769.  
7  
8 Demont, M. E. and O'dor, P. K. 1984. The effects of activity, temperature and mass on  
9 the respiratory metabolism of the squid, *Illex illecebrosus*. J. mar. Biol. Ass. U.K., **64**,  
10 535-543.  
11  
12 Fujii, Y, Hirose, H., Watanabe, T. and Kidokoro, H. 2004. Simulation of transport of  
13 common squid in the Japan Sea. Umi to Sora, 80, 9-16. In Japanese with English  
14 abstract.  
15  
16 Hanson, P. C., Johnson, T. B., Schindler, D. E., and Kitchell, J. F. 1997. Fish  
17 bioenergetics 3.0 for Windows. Technical Report. WISCU-T-97-001. University of  
18 Wisconsin Sea Grant Institute, Madison, WI, USA.  
19  
20 Hashioka, T. and Yamanaka, Y. 2007a. Seasonal and regional variations of  
21 phytoplankton groups by top-down and bottom-up controls obtained by a NEMURO  
22 coupled with a general circulation model. Ecol. Modell., 202, 68-80.  
23  
24 Hashioka, T. and Yamanaka, Y. 2007b. Ecosystem change in the western North Pacific  
25 due to global warming obtained by a 3-D NEMURO. Special issue of NEMURO in  
26 Ecol. Modell., 202, 81-94.  
27  
28 Hatanaka, H., Kawahara, S., Uozumi, Y., and Kasahara, S. 1985. Comparison of life  
29 cycles of five ommastrephid squid fished by Japan, *Todarodes pacificus*, *Illex*  
30 *illecebrosus*, *Illex argentinus*, *Nototodarus sloani sloani* and *Nototodarus gouldi*.  
31 Northwest Atlantic Fisheries Organisation (NAFO) Scientific Council Studies, 9,  
32 59-68.  
33  
34 Hasumi, H. 2000. CCSR Ocean Component Model(COCO). CCSR report, **13**, 68.  
35



- 1 Hirota, Y. and Hasegawa, S. 1999. The zooplankton biomass in the Sea of Japan. *Fish.*  
2 *Oceanogr.*, **8**, 274-283.
- 3
- 4 HITEC. 2001. Research report on “Quality maintenance of common squid” by  
5 Hokkaido Industrial Technology Center, 2001. (in Japanese)
- 6
- 7 Ikeda, Y., Arai, N., Kidokoro, H. and Sakamoto, W. 2003. Strontium:Calcium ratios in  
8 statoliths of Japanese common squid *Todarodes pacificus* (Cephalopoda:  
9 Ommastrephidae) as indicators of migratory behavior. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*,  
10 **251**, 169-179.
- 11
- 12 Ito, S., Kishi, M. J., Kurita, Y., Oozeki, Y., Yamanaka, Y., Megrey, B. A. and Werner,  
13 F. E. 2004. Initial design for a fish bioenergetics model of Pacific saury coupled to a  
14 lower trophic ecosystem model. *Fish. Oceanogr.* 13 (Suppl. 1), 111–124.
- 15
- 16 Kasahara, S. and Ito, S. 1972. Distribution and migration of common squid in the  
17 offshore area of the Japan Sea. *Res. Rep. 57*, Agriculture, Forestry, Fisheries Research  
18 Council, Tokyo, 115-143.
- 19
- 20 Kasahara, S. 1989. Common squid in the Japan Sea. Report on long term forecast,  
21 1988. Published by JAFIC, Japan. p162-181
- 22
- 23 Kidokoro, H. and Hiyama, Y. 1996. Spatial variation in growth of Japanese common  
24 squid, *Todarodes pacificus* STEENSTRUP in the Sea of Japan, *Bull. Japan Sea Natl.*  
25 *Fish. Res. Inst.* **46**, 77–86. (in Japanese)
- 26
- 27 Kidokoro, H., Wada, Y., Shikata, T., Sano, K. and Uji, R. 1999. Growth of the Japanese  
28 common squid *Todarodes pacificus* in the Sea of Japan in 1996 analyzed from statolith  
29 microstructure. *Bull. Japan Sea Natl. Fish. Res. Inst.* 49, 129-135. (in Japanese)
- 30
- 31 Kishi, M. J., Kashiwai, M., Ware, D. M., Megrey, B.A., Eslinger, D.L., Werner, F. E.,  
32 Aita, M. N., Azumaya, T., Fujii, M., Hashimoto, S., Huang, D., Iizumi, H., Ishida, Y.,  
33 Kang, S., Kantakov, G. A., Kim, H.-C., Komatsu, K., Navrotsky, V. V., Smith, S. L.,  
34 Tadokoro, K., Tsuda, A., Yamamura, O., Yamanaka, Y., Yokouchi, K., Yoshie, N.,  
35 Zhang, J., Zuenko, Y. I., Zvanlinsky, V. I., 2007. NEMURO—Introduction to a lower

1 trophic level model for the North Pacific marine ecosystem. *Ecol. Modell.* 202, 12–25.  
2

3 Megrey, B. A., Rose, K., Werner, F. E., Klumb, R. A. and Hay, D. E. 2002. A  
4 generalized fish bioenergetics/biomass model with an application to Pacific herring.  
5 *PICES Sci. Rep.* 20: 4–12.  
6

7 Megrey, B. A., Rose, K., Klumb, R. A., Hay, D. E. Werner, F. E., Eslinger, D. L., and  
8 Smith, S. L. 2007. A bioenergetics-based population dynamics model of Pacific  
9 herring (*Clupea harengus pallasii*) coupled to a lower trophic level nutrient –  
10 phytoplankton –z ooplankton model: description, calibration and sensitivity analysis.  
11 *Ecol. Modell.* 202, 144–164.  
12

13 Mori, K. and Nakamura, Y. 2001. Migration rout of common squid estimated from tag  
14 release. *Bulletin of Hokkaido National Fisheries Research Institute*, **65**, 21-43. (in  
15 Japanese)  
16

17 Murata, M. 1989. Population assessment, management and fishery forecasting for the  
18 Japanese common squid, *Todarodes pacificus*. In: *Marine invertebrate fisheries: their*  
19 *assessment and management*, ed. by Caddy J. R., John Wiley, 613-616.  
20

21 Naganuma, K. 1967. Consideration on the formation of fishing grounds for salmon,  
22 saury and squid in the offshore frontal zones of the Japan Sea. *Bul. Japan Sea Reg.*  
23 *Fish. Res. Laboratory*, **18**, 93-107.  
24

25 Nishimura, S. 1965. The zoogeographical aspects of the Japan Sea, Part 1. *Publ. Seto.*  
26 *Mar. Biol. Lab.*, **13**, 35-79.  
27

28 Nishiyama, T. and Hamaoka, S. 1989. Caloric Equivalence of Summer Growth  
29 Increment for Common Squid *Todarodes pacificus* in the Japan Sea. *Proc. Hokkaido*  
30 *Tokai Univ., Science and Engineering*, 2, 67-79.  
31

32 Nozawa, T., Emori, S. Numaguti, A. Tsushima, Y., Takemura, T., Nakajima, T.,  
33 Abe-Ouchi, A. and Kimoto, M. 2001. Projections of future climate change in the 21st  
34 century simulated by the CCSR/NIES CGCM under the IPCC SRES scenarios. In:  
35 *Present and Future of Modeling Global Environmental Change Toward Integrated*

1 Modeling, Matsuno, T. and Kida, H., eds. Terra Scientific Publishing Company, Tokyo,  
2 15-28.  
3  
4 Okutani, T. 1983. *Todarodes pacificus*. In: Cephalopod life cycle, ed. P. R. Boyle,  
5 volume 1, Academic press, London, 201-214.  
6  
7 Rudstam, L. G. 1988. Exploring the dynamics of herring consumption in the Baltic :  
8 Applications of an energetic model of fish growth. *Kieler Meeresforsch. Sonderh.*, **6**,  
9 312-322.  
10  
11 Sakurai, Y., Ikeda, Y. Shimizu, M. and Shimazaki, K. 1993. Feeding and growth of  
12 captive adult Japanese common squid, *Todarodes pacificus*, measuring initial body  
13 size by cold anesthesia. In: Recent Advances in Cephalopod Fisheries Biology, eds.  
14 Okunishi. T., O'Dor R. K., and Kubodera, T., Tokai University Press, Tokyo, 467-476.  
15  
16 Sakurai, Y., Kiyofuji, H., Saitoh, S., Yamamoto, J., Goto, T., Mori, K and Kinoshita, T.  
17 2002. Stock fluctuations of the Japanese common squid, *Todarodes pacificus*, related  
18 to recent climate changes. *Fish. Sci.*, **68**, 226-229.  
19  
20 Shojima Y. and Hotta, H. 1972. On common squid distributed in the East China Sea.  
21 Res Rep No. 57. Agriculture, Forestry, Fisheries Research Council, Tokyo, 31-43  
22  
23 Tameishi, H. (1992) Marine environment and mechanism of fisheries ground formation.  
24 In "Squid-from its biology to consumption". Edited by Nasu, K., Ogura, M. and  
25 Okutani, K., Seizendo publ., Tokyo, , p71-122. (in Japanese)  
26  
27 Tanaka, O. and Omori, M. 1969. Additional report on calanoid on calanoid copepods  
28 from the Izu Region. Part 2. *Euchirella and Pseudochirella*, **17**, 155-169  
29  
30 Thornton, K. W. and Lessem, A. S. 1978. A temperature algorithm for modifying  
31 biological rates. *Trans. Amer. Fish. Soc.*, **107**, 284-287.  
32  
33 Watanabe, T. 1965. Ecological distribution of rhynchoteuthion larvae of common  
34 squid, *Todarodes pacificus* Steenstrup, in the Southeastern Waters off Japan during the  
35 winters, 1959-1962. *Bull. of Tokai Reg. Fish. Res. Lab.*, **43**, 1-12.

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35

**Figure captions**

Fig. 1. Relationship between the wet weight (g) and maximum consumption rate  $w \cdot C_{\max}$  (g prey day<sup>-1</sup>).

Fig. 2. Temperature dependence function of the consumption  $f_c(T)$  for each stage of common squids.

Fig. 3. Relationship between the wet weight at the water temperature of 15°C and (A) the respiration rate (g prey g squid<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>) and (B) the respiration (g prey day<sup>-1</sup>).

Fig. 4. Migration routes of common squids in this study: fall-spawned subarctic group (SG) (squares), fall-spawned Tsushima group (TG) (circles), and winter-spawned Pacific migration route (diamonds). Dotted lines indicate migration routes. Open symbols indicate northward migration and black symbols indicate southward migration. The numerals indicate the date when common squid arrives at the point.

Fig. 5. Calculated seasonal variations of (A) the prey density (sum of prey as is indicated in Table 2), (B) the water temperature and (C) the wet weight of fall-spawned common squids. Solid and dotted lines are for subarctic group (SG) and Tsushima group (TG), respectively.

Fig. 6. Observed wet weight and mantle length by Kidokoro et al. (1999)

Fig. 7. Observed zooplankton density along the migration route after Hirota and Hasegawa(1999) converted from biomass into nitrogen using the ratio by Tanaka and Omori(1969)

Fig. 8. Seasonal variation of  $f_c(T)$  (the temperature dependence function for the consumption). A solid line is for subarctic group and a dotted line is for Tsushima group.

Fig. 9. Same as for Fig. 5 but for winter-spawning group.

1

2 Fig. 10. Modeled wet weight of winter-spawning groups with different migration  
3 routes. P-1 indicates northward migration along the coast of Japan, P-2 indicates  
4 northward migration along the coast of Japan (stay at 39.5°N), and P-3 indicates  
5 northward migration along the 142°E line (see Table 3).

6

7 Fig. 11. Same as for Fig. 5, but for global warming case.

8

9 Fig. 12. Energy loss through the respiration in global warming case. Solid and dotted  
10 lines are for subarctic group (SG) and Tsushima group (TG), respectively.

11

12

### 13 **Table lists**

14

15 Table 1. Biological parameter symbols and the values in a common squid bioenergetics  
16 model.

17

18 Table 2. Ecological conditions and parameters in each stage of common squids.

19

20 Table 3. Northward migration route and limit of northwan routes (P-1, P-2 and P-3).

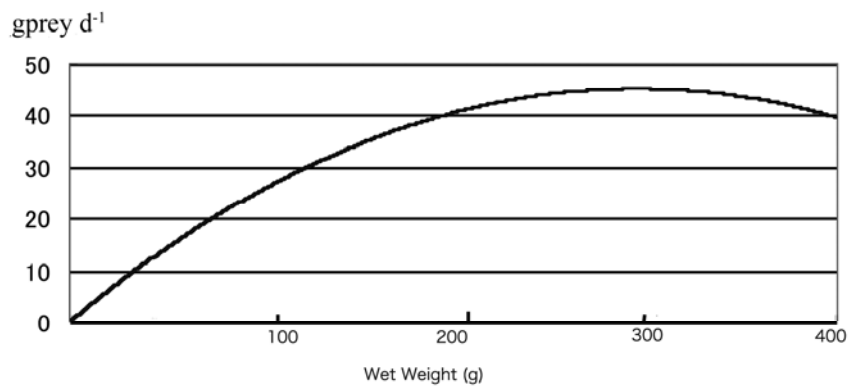


Fig . 1

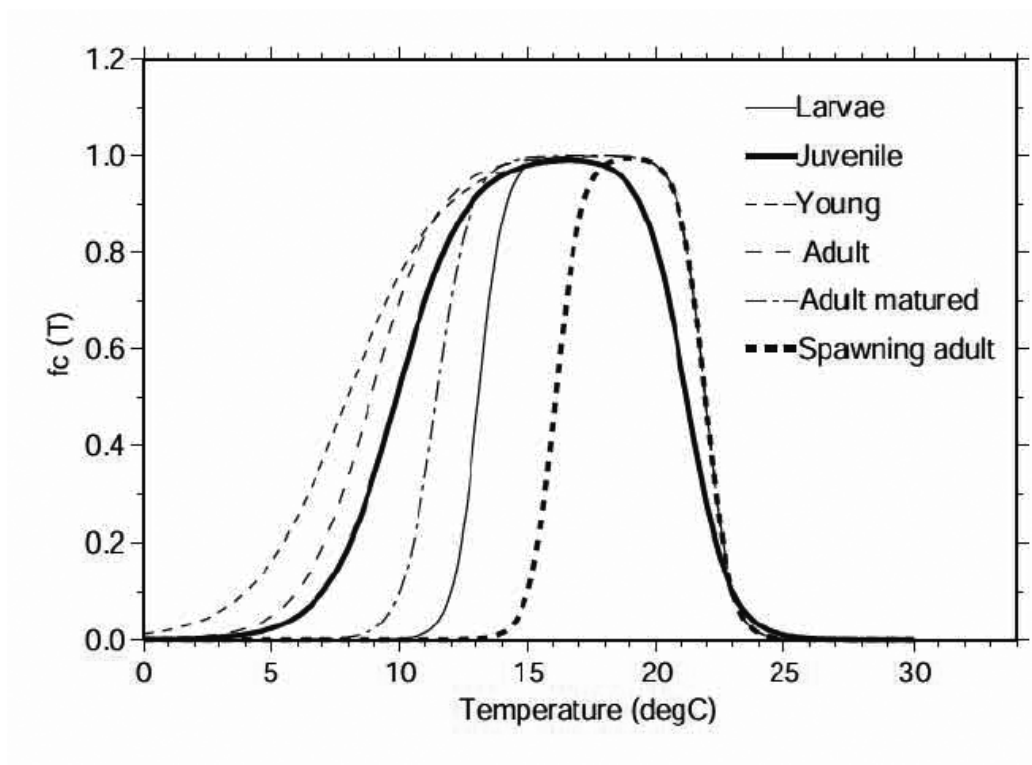


Fig.2

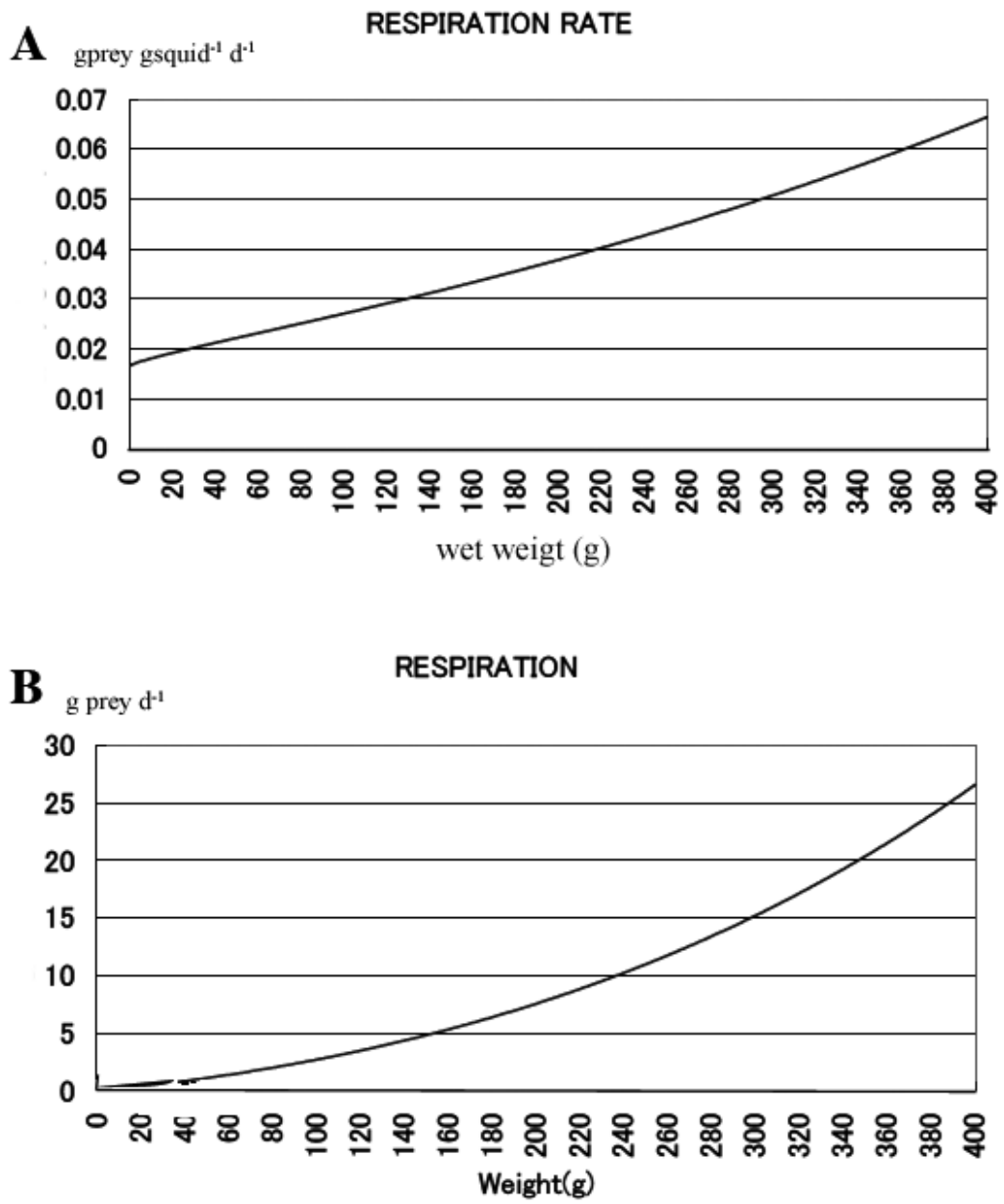


Fig.3



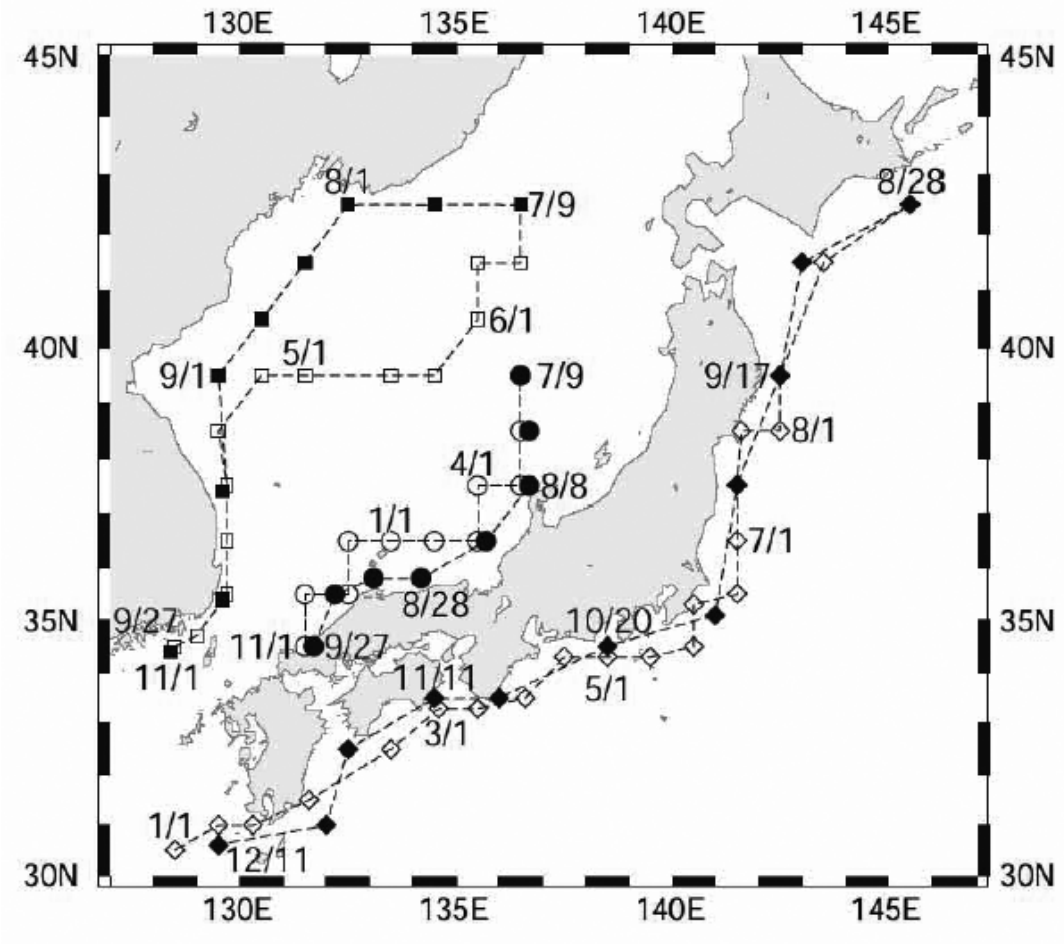


Fig.4

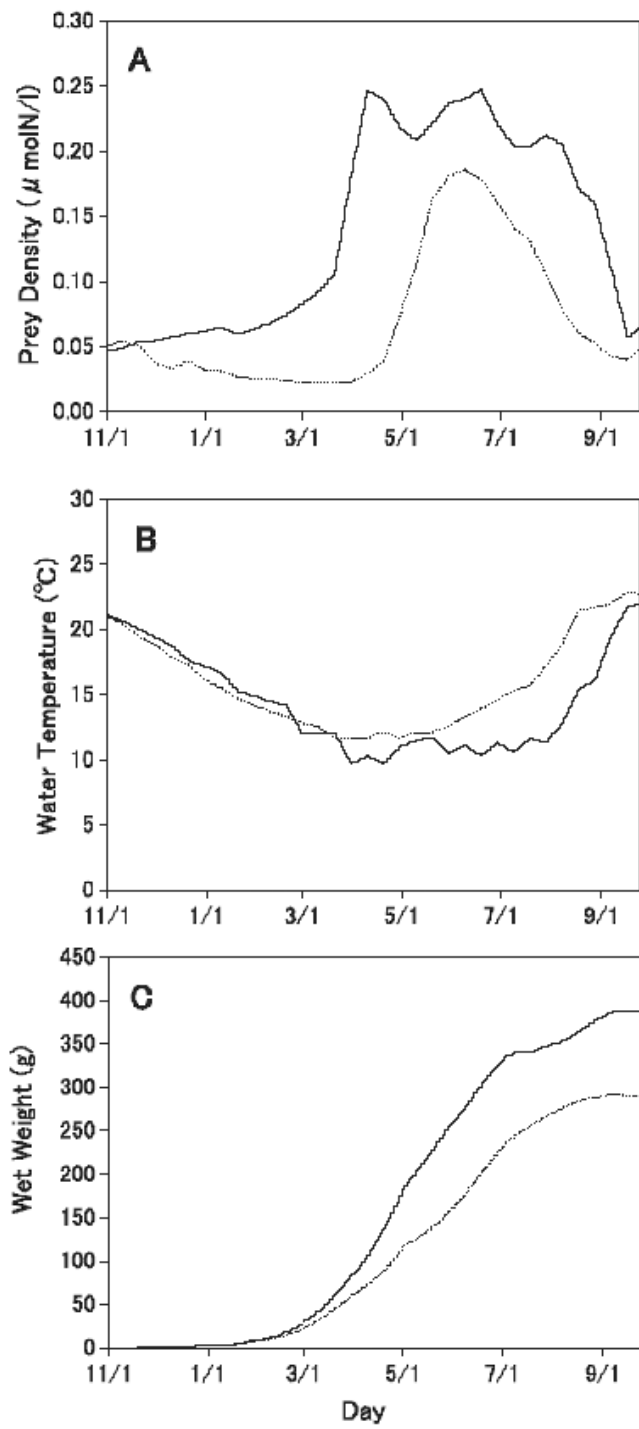


Fig.5

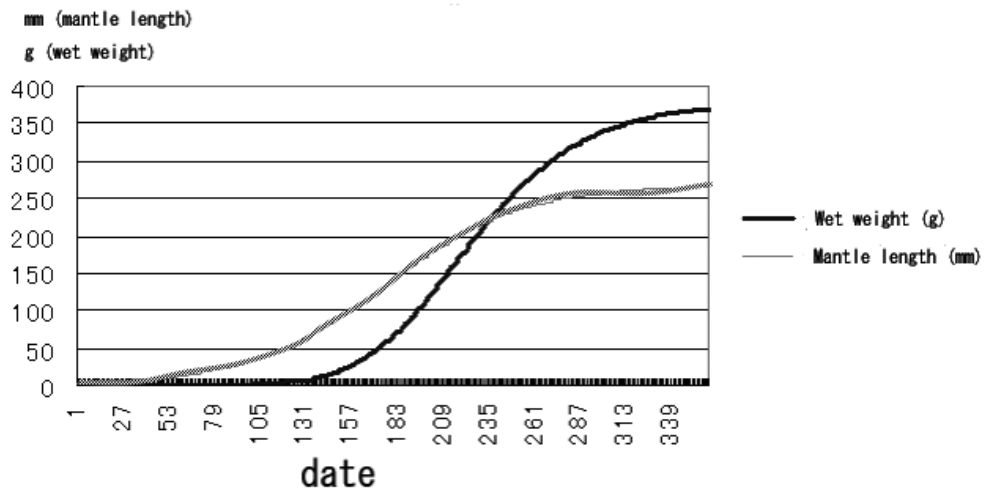


Fig.6

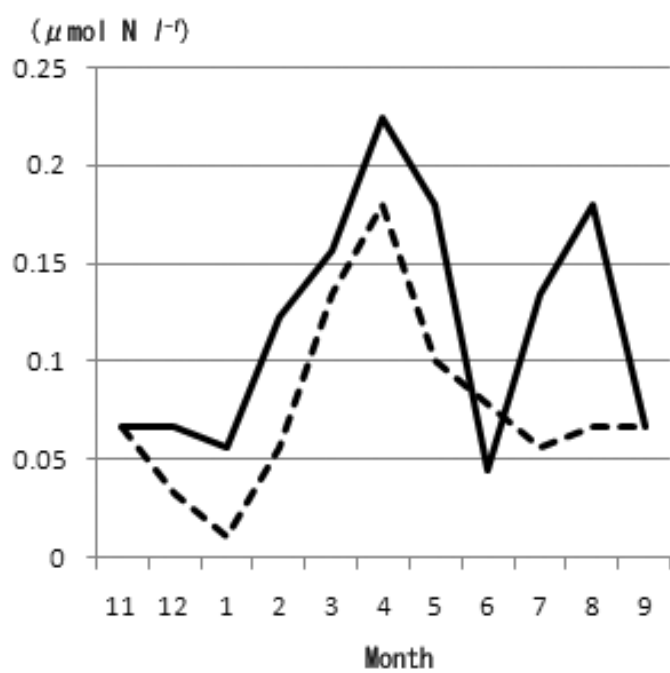


Fig.7

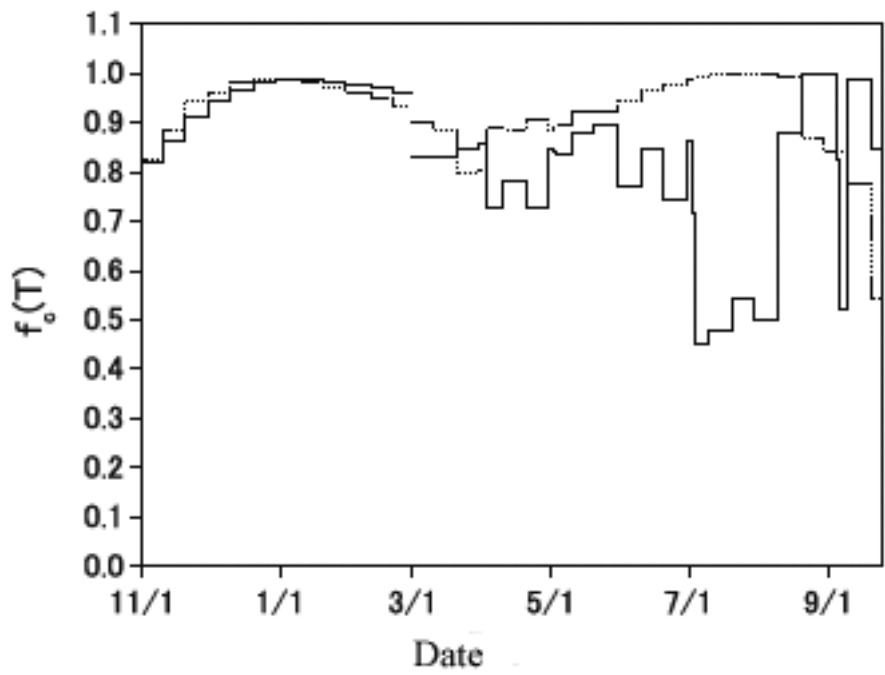


Fig.8

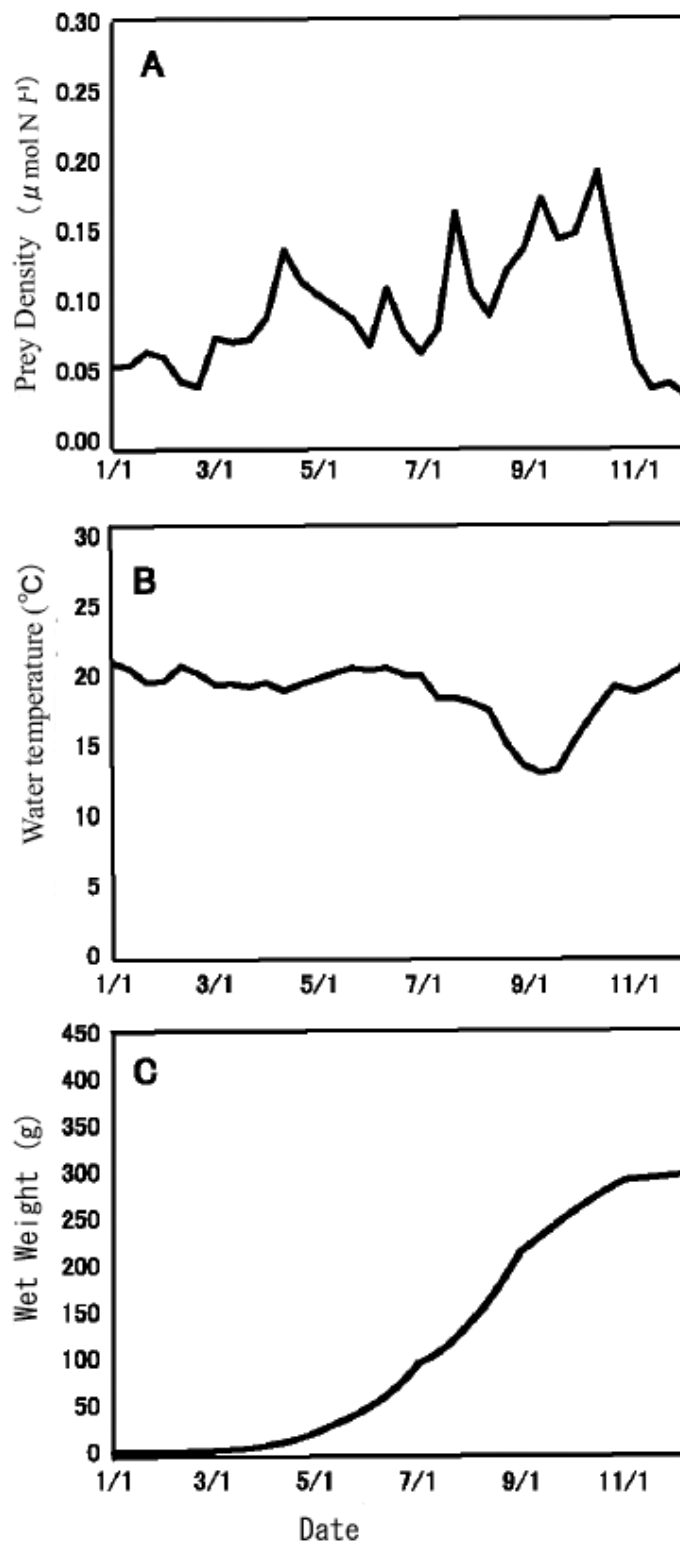


Fig.9

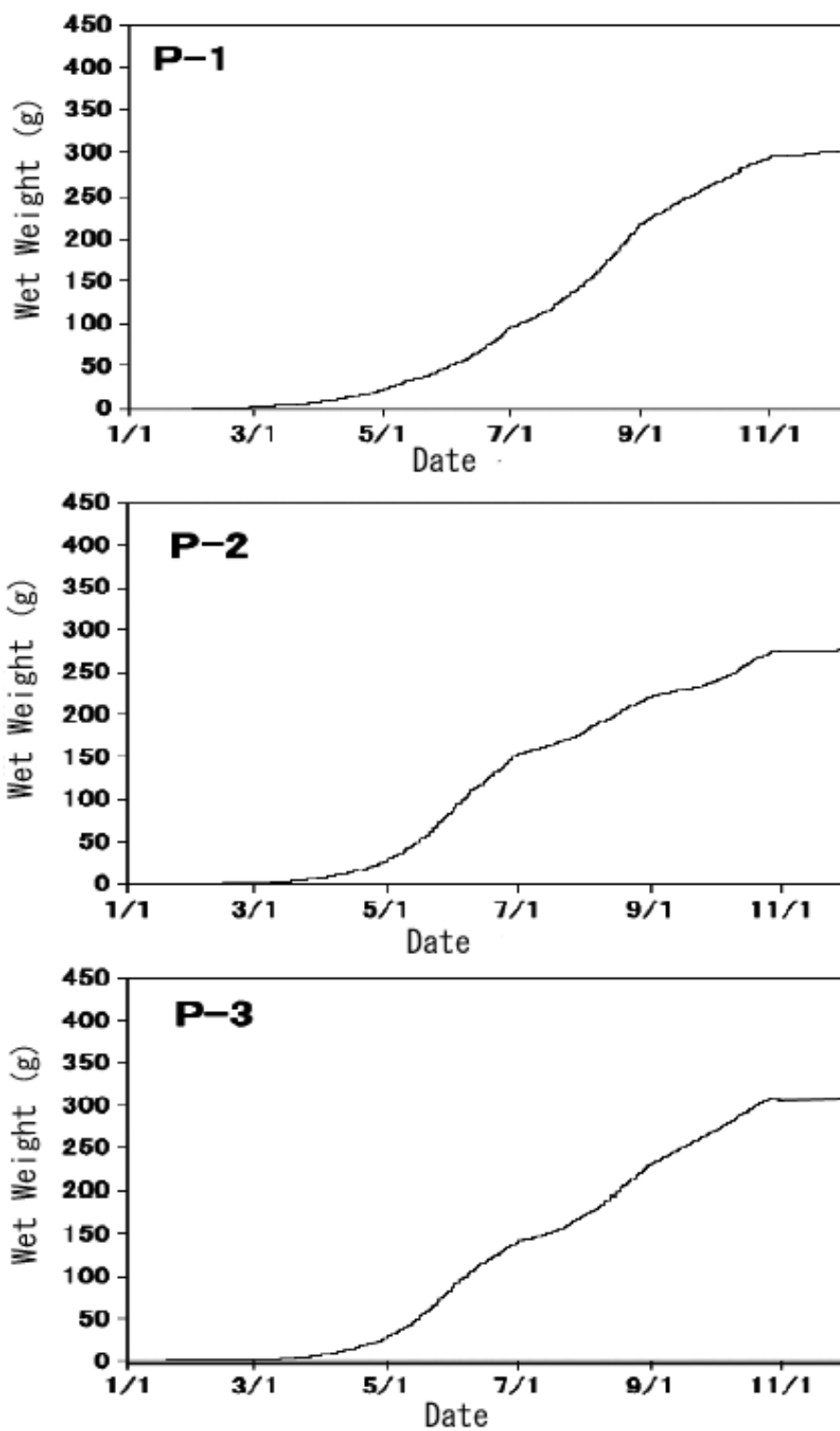


Fig.10

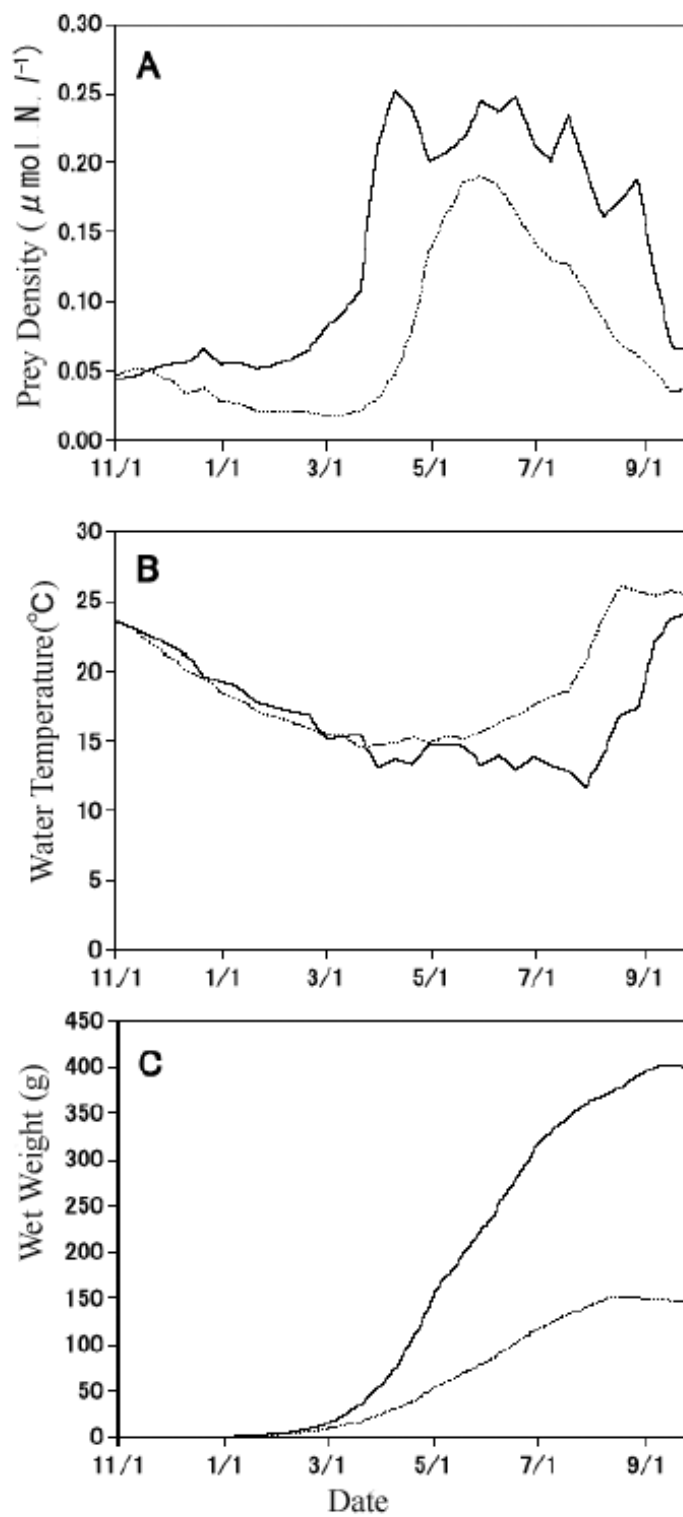


Fig.11



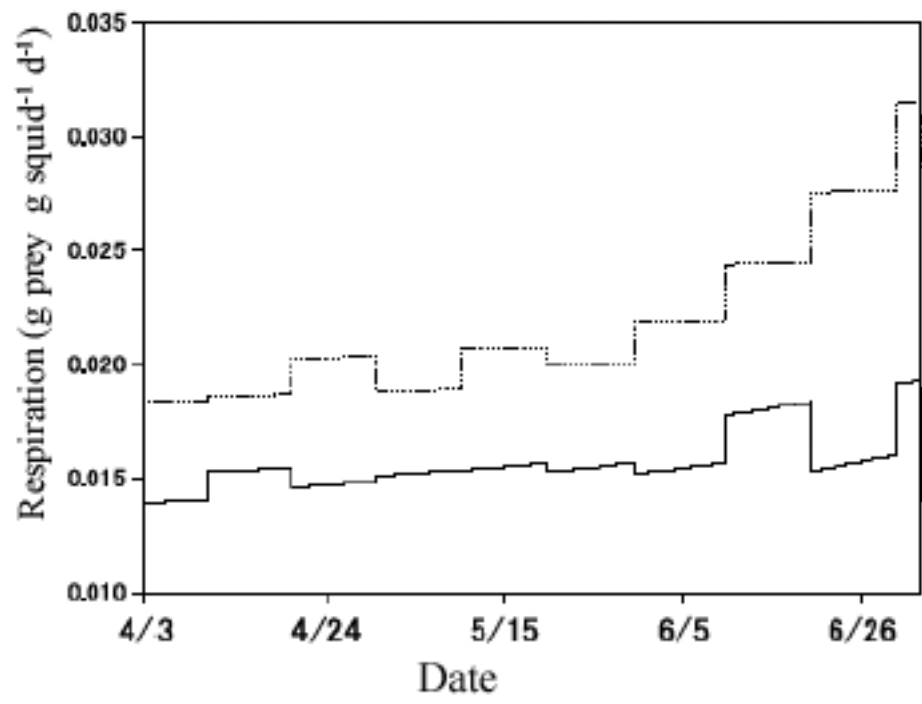


Fig.12

Table1

Symbol	Value
consumption	
$a_c$	-0.00052
$b_c$	0.3048
te1(Stage1,Stage2,Stage3,Stage4,Stage6,Stage5)	12,7,4,6,10,15
te2(Stage1-3,Stage4-5,Stage6)	15,14,18
te3(Stage1-3,Stage4-6)	18,20
te4(for all stages)	23
xk1	0.1
xk2	0.98
xk3	0.98
xk4	0.1
Respiration	
$a_R$	0.000463
$b_R$	0.0
$C_R$	1.2
$d_R$	0.00972
Swimming speed	
$a_A$	1.6
$b_A$	0.75
Egestion and Excretion	
$a_F$	0.08
$a_E$	0.05

Table 2

Stage number	Stage name	Mantle length	Date		Prey
			(Fall-spawning)	(Winter-spawning)	
1	Larvae	less than 1.5 cm	Nov.1-Dec.15	Jan.1-Feb.15	ZS
2	Juvenile	1.5-12.0 cm	Dec.16-Apr.1	Feb.16-Jun.1	ZS+ZP
3	Young	12.1-20.0 cm	Apr.2-May1	Jun.2-Jul.1	ZP
4	Adult	20.1-23.0 cm	May2-Jul.2	Jul.2-Sep.2	ZP
5	Adult	more than 23.0	Jul.3-Sep.3	Sep.3-Nov.3	ZP
	matured	cm			
6	Spawning	more than 23.0	Sep.4-Oct.31	Nov.4-Dec.31	ZP
	adult	cm			

**Table 3**

Case	Northward migration route	Limit of northward migration (Stay period at the northernmost point)
P-1	Along the coast of Japan	42.5°N (8/28-9/27)
P-2	Along the coast of Japan	39.5°N (7/29-9/27)
P-3	Offshore area of Japan (Along 142.5°E line)	42.5°N (8/28-9/27)