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Zooplankton community patterns in the Chukchi Sea during summer 2004

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ABSTRACT

Zooplankton were sampled in the Chukchi Sea along three transects between Alaska and Russia, plus four high-speed transects across the axis of Herald Valley in August of 2004. A total of 50 holoplanktonic species, along with a prominent assemblage of meroplankton were encountered; most were of Pacific Ocean origin. Copepods represented the most diverse group with 23 species, and contributed the bulk $(3100 \text{ ind. m}^{-3}, 30 \text{ mg dry weight m}^{-3})$ of the total holozooplankton community abundance (3500 ind.) m^{-3}) and biomass (42 mg DW m^{-3}) at most stations. Meroplanktonic larvae were, on average, almost as abundant (2260 ind. m⁻³) as the holozooplankton. Copepods were dominated numerically by four species of Pseudocalanus, Oithona similis, and the neritic copepods Acartia longiremis and Centropages abdominalis. The larger-bodied copepods, Calanus glacialis/marshallae and three Neocalanus species, equalled or exceeded the biomass of Pseudocalanus, followed by contributions from Metridia pacifica and Eucalanus bungii. Considerable abundance (256 ind. m⁻³) and biomass (42 mg DW m⁻³) of the larvacean Oikopleura vanhoeffeni was observed throughout the sampling area. The chaetognath Parasagitta elegans $(4.8 \text{ mg DW m}^{-3})$ and a diverse assemblage of cnidarians (~1.2 mg DW m}^{-3}) comprised the dominant predators. Six major assemblages of zooplankton were identified, and each was closely tied to physical properties of water masses: Euryhaline species in the warm fresh Alaska Coastal Current, a Bering Sea assemblage of both shelf and oceanic species in cool salty Bering Sea Water, a transitional group between these two, a neritic Bering Sea assemblage in cold salty Bering Winter Water, and a small cluster of Arctic Shelf species in cold, fresh Resident Chukchi Water. Ongoing climate change may alter the boundaries, extent of penetration, size spectra, and productivities of these communities, thus warranting regular monitoring of the zooplankton communities of this gateway into the Arctic. © 2009 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

The Chukchi Sea is one of the Arctic's wide and shallow marginal seas, bordered to the north by the deeper and bathymetrically complex Chukchi Borderlands and the steep continental slopes that separate the shelf from the Arctic Basin proper. The Chukchi Sea represents one of the major gateways into the Arctic where large quantities of Pacific heat, nutrients, phytoplankton and zooplankton enter the region through the shallow (~50 m average deep) Bering Strait in a complicated mixture of water masses (Pickart et al., 2009). Each of these water types—Alaska Coastal, Bering Shelf, and Anadyr—has distinct assemblages and quantities of Pacific-origin zooplankton (e.g. Springer et al., 1989; Coyle et al., 1996). As these waters move northward, they are diluted by Coastal Arctic waters of the East Siberian Current and bifurcate, moving off the shelf through Herald Canyon in the west, through a shallow central channel, and

* Corresponding author. E-mail address: hopcroft@ims.uaf.edu (R.R. Hopcroft). to the east through Barrow Canyon (Weingartner et al., 1998, 2005; Pickart et al., 2009). Simultaneously, the Pacific planktonic communities acquire more Arctic character as they are diluted by Arctic waters, particularly near the shelf break (e.g. Lane et al., 2008; Llinás et al., 2009).

At present, the high concentration of nutrients in Anadyr waters (Grebmeier and Barry, 1991) stimulate massive sea ice algal and phytoplankton blooms, that cannot be fully exploited by the local zooplankton communities due to temperature-limited growth (Springer et al., 1989; Deibel et al., 2005). Hence, much of this high production is exported unmodified to the benthos (Fukuchi et al., 1993), resulting in impressively high biomass of benthic infauna and epifauna in the southern Chukchi Sea (e.g. Grebmeier et al., 2006a, b; Feder et al., 2005, 2007). In addition to their local importance for the Chukchi shelf, these Pacific inflows are also significant sources of carbon and nutrients to the continental slopes and the deep basin, and play a critical role in structuring the stratification of the Arctic Ocean basins (Grebmeier et al., 1995; Grebmeier and Harvey, 2005).

Recent and projected changes in the extent and timing of the ice cover in the Arctic are expected to have profound impact on

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arctic marine ecosystems (ACIA, 2004; Carmack et al., 2006). Zooplankton communities may be particularly sensitive to such changes as seasonal life cycles are intricately coupled to the timing of ice-breakup and phytoplankton blooms (Smith and Schnack-Schiel, 1990; Deibel and Daly, 2007). There is significant discussion that the Chukchi Sea may be undergoing an enhancement of energy utilization within its pelagic realm as zooplankton populations respond with faster growth in warmer waters, with a consequent decline in the phytoplankton production made available to the benthic communities (Feder et al., 2005: Grebmeier et al., 2006a). Such changes will propagate through the system, ultimately affecting all trophic levels and leading to changes in the pathways and magnitude of energy flow into upper trophic levels such as fish, sea-birds and marine mammals, and consequently their abundance and distribution. These changes in prey base have already been documented for the northern Bering Sea (Grebmeier et al., 2006b; Coyle et al., 2007).

There is a long and scattered history of work in the Chukchi Sea, even the earliest of which noted the significant influence of Pacific fauna on its ecosystem (Johnson, 1934; Stepanova, 1937a, b; Bogorov, 1939; Jaschnov, 1940). Further Russian studies in the Far Eastern Seas laid the foundation for our understanding of this broad region (Brodsky, 1950, 1957), along with work more specific to the Chukchi Sea (Virketis, 1952; Pavshtiks, 1984). North American work in the region began with both a quantitative and taxonomic dimension (Johnson, 1953, 1956, 1958), followed by the Alaskan Outer Continental Shelf Environmental Assessment Program (OCSEAP) with a variety of more regional surveys (English, 1966; Wing, 1974; Cooney, 1977; English and Horner, 1977). It was 1985-1986 before broader scale multidisciplinary zooplankton sampling resumed in the Bering Strait and Chukchi Sea with the Inner Shelf Transfer and Recycling (ISHTAR) program (Springer et al., 1989). Subsequent programs have typically concentrated on deeper waters to the north (Thibault et al., 1999; Ashjian et al., 2003; Lane et al., 2008). A notable exception to the political boundaries imposed on most post-WWII sampling in the Bering and Chukchi Seas has been the Joint US-USSR BERPAC program (Tsyban, 1999), from which BERPAC 1988 encompassed a significant number of stations from the southern Bering Sea through to the mid-Chukchi Sea (Kulikov, 1992). Direct comparison between these studies is hampered to various extents by the lack of access to the original data, changes in taxonomy and differences in gear type.

In order to detect and quantify any future or ongoing changes in Arctic zooplankton, it is essential that we form detailed and extensive baseline information on the current state of these communities. Given the oceanographic complexity of the region, simultaneous estimates of the zooplankton entering from both sides of the Bering Strait are essential; with the lack of cross basin coverage limiting the ability of most prior studies to adequately describe this region. In 2004, we began to address this need by a survey of zooplankton communities across the Bering Strait, and both sides of the Chukchi Sea, in conjunction with physical and chemical oceanographic characterization as part of the Russian American Long-term Census of the Arctic (RUSALCA) program.

2. Methods

The RUSALCA expedition consisted of 22 stations along 3 transects lines between Alaska and Russia, plus 4 high-speed transects across the axis of Herald Valley in the northwestern part of the study area (Fig. 1). Station depths typically varied between 40 and 55 m, except in the center of Herald Valley where the depth was as much as 100 m in the northern transect (see sections in Pickart et al., 2009). Quantitative zooplankton sampling was



Fig. 1. Station map overlain on the 7-day composite AVHRR sea-surface temperature during the sampling period (August 11–17, 2004). The 100 and 500 m contours indicated. Numbers indicate station numbers at the beginning and the end of each transect.

conducted at all stations on the lower 3 transects, end and midpoints of the upper transects, plus 2 additional stations for a total of 36 zooplankton sampling sites. Zooplankton were collected by a package of two 150 μ m-mesh, MARMAP-design, Bongo nets of 60 cm diameter. Nets were hauled vertically from within 3 m of the bottom to the surface at 0.5 m s⁻¹, and the volume of water filtered was measured by General Oceanics flow meters in the mouth of each net rigged not to spin during descent. Upon retrieval, one sample of each mesh size was preserved in 10% formalin containing Rose Bengal stain, and the other sample was preserved in 100% non-denatured ethanol (Bucklin, 2000). Weather prevented collection of a sample at station 16.

In the laboratory, survey samples were first scanned for larger and rarer species that were enumerated and measured in the sample's entirety. For more abundant species, subsampling was conducted by a combination of Folsom splits and Stempel pipettes, such that at least 50 of the most abundant taxa were in the smallest fraction examined. Increasingly larger fractions were examined, with no more than 100 of any single taxa measured, and a minimum of 300 animals measured in each sample. The copepods were staged, enumerated and their prosome length measured using a computer-assisted measurement system and ZoopBiom software (Roff and Hopcroft, 1986), except for Oncaea, where staging of the copepodites proved problematic. For some congeneric species, where earlier copepodites could not be distinguished, they have been grouped with the sibling species. Adults were identified to species. In the case of Calanus, excessive stain in several samples made it difficult to view the ocellus which could distinguish C. marshallae from C. glacialis, and other features used to separate the adults are difficult to employ routinely, thus the species were grouped for consistency. The larger C. hyperboreus would have been distinguished by size (e.g. Unstad and Tande, 1991; Hirche et al., 1994), but was not encountered. The weight of each specimen was predicted from species-specific relationships, or from those of a morphologically similar species of holozooplankton (Table 1). Such relationships were unavailable for merozooplankton. Notably, although a relationship has been published for Oithona

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Table 1

Relationships employed to predict weight from length for the holozooplankton encountered in the study region.

Species	Regression	Units	Source
Themisto pacifica*	$DW = 0.0049TL^{2.957}$	mm, μg	Ikeda and Shiga (1999)
Themisto libellula	$DW = 0.006TL^{2.821}$	mm, μg	Auel and Werner (2003)
Acartia longiremis	$CW = 1.023 \times 10^{-8} PL^{2.906}$	μm, μg	Hansen et al. (1999)
Calanus glacialis/marshallae	$Log DW = 4.034 \log PL - 11.561$	μm, μg	Liu and Hopcroft (2007)
Centropages abdominalis	$Log DW = 3.00 \log PL - 7.89$	μm, μg	Uye (1982)
Eucalanus bungii	Log DW = 3.091 log PL - 0.0026	mm, μg	Hopcroft et al. (2002)
Eurytemora hermani	$Log DW = 2.96 \log PL - 7.60$	μm, μg	Middlebrook and Roff (1986)
Microsetella**	Log AFDW = 2.52 log PL - 16.03	μm, μg	Webber and Roff (1995)
Metridia pacifica	Log DW = 3.29 log PL - 8.75	μm, μg	Liu and Hopcroft (2006b)
Neocalanus plumchrus/flemingeri	Log DW = 3.56 log PL - 2.32	mm, mg	Liu and Hopcroft (2006a)
Neocalanus cristatus	Log DW = 4.001 log PL - 11.776	μm, μg	Kobari et al. (2003)
Paraeuchaeta spp.	$AFDW = 0.0075 PL^{3.274}$	mm, mg	Mumm (1991)
Pseudocalanus spp.	$Log DW = -2.85 \log PL - 7.62$	μm, μg	Liu and Hopcroft (2008)
Oithona similis***	Log AFDW = 3.16 log PL - 8.18	μm, μg	Hopcroft et al. (1998)
Oncaea spp.***	Log AFDW = 3.16 log PL - 8.18	μm, μg	Hopcroft et al. (1998)
Oikopleura vanhoeffeni	Log C = 3.20 log TL - 8.93	μm, μg	Deibel (1986)
Fritillaria borealis ⁺	Log DW = 3.21 log TL - 9.11	μm, μg	Fenaux (1976)
Other calanoids ⁺⁺ Micro-calanus, Jaschnovia	$Log DW = -2.85 \log PL - 7.62$	μm, μg	Liu and Hopcroft (2008)
Ostracods	$AFDW = 0.0228PL^{2.3698}$	mm, mg	Mumm (1991)
Thysanoessa inermis (T. rachii)	Log DW = 2.50 log CL - 1.162	mm, mg	Pinchuk and Hopcroft (2007)
Evadne & Podon	$Log DW = 4.0 \log TL - 10.5$	μm, μg	Uye (1982)
Tomopteris	$DW = 0.005L^{2.25}$	mm, mg	Matthews and Hestad (1977)
Eukrohnia hamata	$DW = 0.00032PL^{3.00}$	mm, mg	Matthews and Hestad (1977)
Parasagitta elegans	$DW = 0.000064 PL^{3.30}$	mm, mg	Matthews and Hestad (1977)
Aglantha digitale & other jellies	$DW = 0.00194 PL^{3.05}$	mm, mg	Matthews and Hestad (1977)

Where species-specific relations were not employed we used relationships from: **T. japonica*, ***Macrosetella*, ****Oithona nana*, **F. pellucida*, ***Pseudocalanus*. DW—dry weight, AFDW—ash-free dry weight, CW—carbon weight, TL—total body length, PL—prosome length, CL—carapace length.

similis (Sabatini and Kiørboe, 1994), its slope of 2.16 is unrealistically shallow and thus overestimates weights for early stages, hence we use that for a congeneric species of similar body form. Where necessary, ash-free dry weight (AFDW) was converted to dry weight (DW) assuming 10% ash (Båmstedt, 1986). A carbon weight (CW) to DW conversion does not exist for larvaceans, so we assumed it to be 40% of DW for *Oikopleura vanhoeffeni*, as is typical of many copepods (Båmstedt, 1986). For *Acartia longiremis* where CW was 50% of DW, weights were more consistent with other relationships determined for this genus (e.g. Uye, 1982).

Community patterns were explored using the Primer (V6) software package which has been shown to reveal patterns in zooplankton communities (e.g. Clarke and Warwick, 2001; Wishner et al., 2008). Analyses were performed independently for abundance and biomass data. Data sets were power transformed (4th root), and the Bray-Curtis similarity index between stations was calculated employing all taxonomic categories that contributed at least 3% to any sample in that dataset. Significant groups within the hierarchical clustering were established with the SIMPROF routine, and these clusters were superimposed on the 2D and 3D plots of the multi-dimensional scaled (MDS) datasets, as well as spatial plots of the data. The SIMPER routine was used to provide insight into the species combinations responsible for each species group, as well as by performing cluster analysis similar to above, among the species (rather than among stations).

Concurrent physical oceanographic data were collected with a Seabird 911+ equipped with an oxygen sensor, transmissometer and fluorometer (Pickart et al., 2009) with data binned into 1 m intervals. Chlorophyll was collected by Niskin bottles on the CTD rosette every 5 m starting at the surface, filtered at low pressure onto GF/F filters and analyzed fluorometrically (Lee et al., 2007). Water masses were identified by cluster analysis using the SIMPROF routine, employing Euclidean distances on the normalized average temperature and salinity from the surface to the just above the bottom, or to a maximum of 50 m at deeper stations in Herald Valley to avoid excessive weighting of very cold bottom waters at those locations. The 2-D MDS representation from this approach yields a plot similar to a traditional T-S diagram shown below, with quantitative separation. Established terminology is employed for the observed water masses (Weingartner et al., 1998; Pickart et al., 2009). Relationships between zooplankton community composition and these variables were explored with Primer's BEST routine using normalized physical and chlorophyll data that had been averaged over the upper 10 and 50 m. For physical data we also considered averages of the upper 25 m, the layer between 10 and 50 m, and the layer between 25 and 50 m, to determine if the stratified aspect of some variables was a determinant of community composition (e.g. Lane et al., 2008).

3. Results

A total of 50 holoplanktonic species, along with a prominent assemblage of 12 meroplanktonic taxa, were encountered during the RUSALCA survey (Table 2). The copepods represented 23 of the holoplanktonic species, and contributed the bulk of the zooplankton community abundance (Fig. 2) and biomass (Fig. 3) at most stations. Numerically, both the holozooplankton and copepod communities were dominated by a suite of four species of Pseudocalanus: P. minutus, P. mimus, P. acuspes and P. newmani, with the former two not consistently separated. These were followed by Oithona similis, and then the neritic copepods A. longiremis and Centropages abdominalis. The less abundant but larger-bodied copepods Calanus glacialis/marshallae, and the three Neocalanus species, equalled or exceeded the biomass of Pseudocalanus, followed by contributions from Metridia pacifica and Eucalanus bungii. Abundance of copepods declined rapidly with body size (as prosome length), and began to level-out at \sim 1.5 mm, with the largest individuals approaching 9 mm (Fig. 4). The corresponding biomass spectrum was multi-modal with

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Table 2

List of planktonic taxa collected during the 2004 RUSALCA cruise, with their average abundance and dry-weight biomass over the study area.

	Num m ⁻³	$\mathrm{mg}\mathrm{m}^{-3}$		Num m ⁻³	$\mathrm{mg}\mathrm{m}^{-3}$
Copepods			Chaetognaths		
Acartia longiremis	199.1	0.41	Eukrohnia hamata	0.4	0.34
Acartia hudsonica	2.5	0.01	Parasagitta elegans	5.7	4.77
Acartia tumida	0.4	< 0.01	Amphipods		
Calanus glacialis/marshallae	36.1	6.71	Amphipod (misc)	< 0.1	0.14
Centropages abdominalis	190.8	0.74	Primno macropa	Trace	
Eucalanus bungii	14.5	1.31	Themisto pacifica	< 0.1	0.06
Euchaeta elongataa	Observed		Themisto libellula	< 0.1	< 0.01
Eurytemora herdmani	6.9	0.02	Ctenophores		
Eurytemora pacifica			Bolinopsis infundibulum	Observed	
Jaschnovia tolli	0.3	0.01	Mertensia ovum	Observed	
Microcalanus pygmeus	8.2	0.03	Cnidarians		
Microsetella norvegica	19.3	0.09	Aeginopsis laurentii	Observed	
Metridia pacifica	39.7	1.45	Aglantha digitale	5.4	0.95
Neocalanus flemingeri	7.1	4.50	Chrysaora melanaster	Observed	
Neocalanus plumchrus	2.1	1.42	Euphysa flammea	< 0.1	0.08
Neocalanus cristatus	0.9	6.38	Melicertum octocostatum	< 0.1	< 0.01
Oithona similis	703.4	0.77	Melicertum campanula	< 0.1	0.01
Oncaea borealis	64.9	0.10	Obelia sp.	0.4	< 0.01
Pseudocalanus iuvenile	1604.6	4.51	Polvorchis sp.	< 0.1	0.02
Pseudocalanus minutus	71.7	0.89	Halitholus voldia-arcticae	< 0.1	0.02
(includes P. mimus)			Tiaropsis multicirrata	Observed	
Pseudocalanus acuspes	38.6	0.51	Plotocnide borealis	Observed	
Pseudocalanus newmani	92.8	0.55	Ptychogena lacteal	< 0.1	0.08
Copepod total	3104	30.05	Rathkea octopunctata	11.6	0.02
			Sarsia tubulosa	< 0.1	0.02
Larvaceans			Ostracods	< 0.1	< 0.01
Oikopleura vanhoeffeni	255.9	4.12	Polychaetes		
Fritillaria borealis	84.7	0.01	Tomopteris sp.	< 0.1	0.01
Cladocerans			Meroplankton		
Evadne nordmani	11.3	0.040	Barnacle Cypris	226.7	
Podon leuckarti	14.5	0.069	Barnacle Nauplii	1008.9	
Euphausiids			Bivalvia larvae	148.3	
Eunhausiid Naunlii	2.6	< 0.01	Crab Megalops	0.2	
Euphausiid calvntonis	0.2	< 0.01	Crab Zoea	< 0.1	
Thysanoessa juvenile	3.3	0.65	Decapod Zoea	0.3	
Thysanoessa inermis	0.1	0.44	Echinodermata larvae	795.1	
Thysanoessa raschii	< 0.1	0.08	Fish larvae	0.2	
Thyanoessa longines	Observed		Shrimp Mysid stage	Observed	
,			Polychaeta larvae	81.9	
			Paguriid Zoea	0.3	
			Other total	2658	11.9

Observed material was noticed during the study, but not in the subsamples analyzed.

strongest peaks at approximately 0.4–1.6 mm, 3–3.5 mm followed and 7.5–8.5 mm.

For non-copepod groups, considerable populations of larvaceans, particularly the large arctic O. vanhoeffeni, were observed throughout the sampling area (Table 2). Oikopleura (followed Oithona within the holozooplankton) rivaled the most important copepod species in terms of average biomass contribution, and exceeded the biomass of dominant copepod species at some of the Herald Valley stations (Fig. 3). The chaetognath Parasagitta elegans also contributed significantly to community biomass, with much lower contribution by the deeper water species *Eukrohnia hamata*. Abundances of the three *Thysanoessa* species of euphausiids, as well as the hyperiid amphipods, were low and variable, but ichthyoplankton samples from a concurrently towed 505 µmmesh Bongo net (Norcross et al., 2009, plus unpublished) suggested our catches generally reflected their absolute abundances. Within the study area there was also a notable diversity of both small and large scyphozoans, hydromedusae and ctenophores. More than a dozen species were encountered in the samples, but only the hydromedusae Aglantha digitale and Rathkea octopunctata were common, with only A. digitale contributing significantly to community biomass. Finally, pelagic larvae of benthic organisms were also exceptionally common throughout the sampling region, exceeding the abundance of holozooplankton at some stations where they were concentrated. Although meroplankton biomass could not be accurately estimated, it appears to have been considerable at some stations based on their abundance (Fig. 2).

Multivariate analysis of the data revealed similar overall patterns across stations within the data, regardless of the severity of the transformation (i.e. square root, fourth root, log+1), but the fourth root transformation (Fig. 5) produced fewer and more spatially contiguous clusters. For abundance, seven station groups were significant, with these forming four major hierarchical clusters and one unique station (station 67) at a Bray-Curtis similarity of \sim 70% (Fig. 5A). Two-dimensional ordination of the MDS space confirmed the appropriateness of these groupings (Fig. 5B), 0.15 in 2 dimensions. Spatially, these major clusters present (1) group A–B along the Alaska Coastal Current (ACC), (2) group G that extends from the middle of Bering Strait northward beside the ACC and joining the southeastern boundary of Herald Valley, (3) group D on the Western side of Bering Strait that encompasses much of the southern Chukchi Sea, and (4) group F that encompasses most of Herald Valley (Fig. 5C). The clustering of station 11 into group F appears anomalous. Minor group E shares closest similarity with group F.

Biomass revealed surprisingly similar patterns given that it emphasizes a different suite of species: again, four major

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Fig. 2. Abundance (ind. m⁻³) of major taxonomic planktonic groups in the Chukchi Sea, August 2004. Longitude is in °N, latitude is in °W.

hierarchical clusters, plus two unique stations (stations 27 and 67) are suggested at a Bray–Curtis similarity of \sim 65–70% (Fig. 6A). Similarly, two-dimensional ordination of the MDS space confirmed the appropriateness of these grouping (Fig. 6B); however, the 2D stress value of 0.15 showed limited improvement (to 0.11) when using 3 dimensions. Spatially, these major clusters resemble those of abundance, except that group F extends more northward along the eastern side of Herald Valley (Fig. 6C).

Pronounced changes in temperature and salinity occurred across the transect lines (Fig. 7; for Herald Valley see Pickart et al., 2009). The temperature and salinity data formed five distinct clusters, warm fresh Alaska Coastal Current Water, cool salty Bering Sea Water, a transitional group between them, cold salty Bering Winter Water, and a small cluster of cold fresh Resident Chukchi Water (Fig. 8A). A CTD cast was not available for Station 17, but we assumed it would be very similar to the nearby and downstream Station 18 for subsequent analysis. The distribution of these clusters matches almost exactly that revealed by zooplankton community analysis (Fig. 8B). The community assemblages were statistically correlated with various combinations of the environmental variables of temperature, salinity and/or density, with maximum similar Spearman's correlations of 0.78 for several 2- and 3-variable models (Table 3), demonstrating that it is physical properties of the water masses to which the assemblages are associated. There was no marked improvement in using environmental parameters within narrower layers as compared to over the upper 50 m, although layered models produced more combinations of higher correlation owing to the larger number of variables (and

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Fig. 3. Biomass (mg m⁻³) of major holozooplankton groups in the Chukchi Sea, August 2004. Longitude is in °N, latitude is in °W.



Fig. 4. Size spectra of copepod community in the Chukchi Sea, August 2004, in terms of abundance and biomass, based on 150 μ m mesh nets. All size bins are 50 μ m wide. Data represent the average over the 3 southern transects, with associated standard errors.

correlations within the layered variable set). The inclusion of chlorophyll, oxygen concentration, transmissivity or fluorescence—alone or in combination—only lowered the strength of the correlations.

Arrangement of the zooplankton abundances based on the independent clustering of stations and species provides an insightful summary of the underlying patterns (Fig. 9). Firstly, there is a group of generally abundant and relatively neritic/shelf species broadly distributed across all station groups. The ACC water is characterized most distinctly by a group of neritic, lowsalinity tolerant zooplankton species, the absence of the more oceanic Bering Sea species, and the reduction of Bering Sea shelf species. The Bering Sea Water is characterized by the presence of most species, except for those unique to the ACC. The transitional stations are intermediate between these. The Winter Water is similar to the Bearing Sea Water, but lacks (or has reduced abundances) of the more oceanic Bering Sea species, particularly those with annual life cycles. The Resident Chukchi water shows further reductions of Bering Sea oceanic fauna.

4. Discussion

4.1. Species composition

The Chukchi Sea displays a similar level of diversity, and high biomass compared to the adjoining East Siberian (Jaschnov, 1940; Pavshtiks, 1994) and Beaufort (e.g. Horner, 1981) Seas, but less diversity than is present in the deep vertically structured basins (e.g. Kosobokova and Hirche, 2000; Kosobokova and Hopcroft, 2009). It is also notable that with the exception of the few cases of *C. glacialis* and *Jaschnovia tolli*, all copepod species observed in this

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Fig. 5. (A) Station similarity as determined by hierarchical clustering of fourth root-transformed zooplankton abundance. Red lines connect stations that are not statistically unique (P<0.05). (B) Multidimensional scaling of zooplankton community abundances. (C) Spatial distribution of zooplankton clusters in the Chukchi Sea, August 2004. Color-code is shared. Data missing for unfilled symbol.

study were common to the subarctic Pacific Ocean and/or the Bering Sea rather than to the Arctic (Brodsky, 1950, 1957). Nonetheless, the species composition is generally similar to that observed during the summer ice-free period in this region when similar-sized collecting meshes are employed (e.g. Springer et al., 1989; Kulikov, 1992), or allowances are made for differences in mesh size (e.g. Wing, 1974; English and Horner, 1977). Interestingly, our estimate of 42 mg DW m^{-3} (~2.1 g DW m⁻²), overlaps the broad range of older biomass estimates for the region, $\sim 2 g$ DW m⁻² for herbivorous zooplankton in summer north and south of Bering Strait (Springer et al., 1989), 2.5–5.5 g DW m^{-2} on the US side of the Chukchi sea or 1.3 spanning both sides of the Chukchi (Turco, 1992a, b). Furthermore, 14.8 g WW m⁻² (Kulikov, 1992) and 356 mg WW m^{-3} (14.2 g WW m⁻²—Pavshtiks, 1984) for all mesozooplankton spanning the Chukchi Sea is also close if we assume DW is 10-15% of WW (Wiebe et al., 1975). Our observations also overlap the range of more recent observations $(3-58 \text{ mg DW m}^{-3})$ to the northeast near the shelf (Lane et al., 2008; Llinas et al., 2009), and are surprisingly similar to values for the upper 50 m (42 mg DW m^{-3}) further into the adjoining basin (Kosobokova and Hopcroft, 2009).

In terms of composition, the species observed in this study have in general been reported previously for this region, but not consistently within single publications. Changes in mesh size between studies (e.g. 505 µm mesh used in ISHTAR—Springer et al., 1989; Turco, 1992a, b) greatly complicates quantitative comparison of community composition between studies, except for the largest species. Comparison between previous studies is also hampered to various extents by both changes in taxonomic resolution, taxonomic proficiency, and taxonomy itself, which warrant review. Presuming that copepods should be the best identified group, historically *Pseudocalanus* adults in this region have seldom been separated to species (e.g. Cooney, 1977; Springer et al., 1989) or regarded as only *P. minutus* (e.g. Pavshtiks,

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Fig. 6. (A) Station similarity as determined by hierarchical clustering of zooplankton biomass. Red lines connect stations that are not statistically unique (*P*<0.05). (B) Multidimensional scaling of zooplankton community biomasses. (C) Spatial distribution of zooplankton clusters in the Chukchi Sea, August 2004. Color-code is shared. Data missing for unfilled symbol.

1984; Turco, 1992a, b) prior to the revision of the genus (Frost, 1989), despite their prominence and their species-affiliation with different water masses (this study, see Hopcroft and Kosobokova (2009) for more detail on *Pseudocalanus* distribution). In terms of the biomass dominants, earlier studies either predate or fail to distinguish the subarctic C. marshallae (Frost, 1974) from the closely related C. glacialis (e.g. Pavshtiks, 1984; Kulikov, 1992), and even today routine morphological separation is difficult (Llinás, 2007; Lane et al., 2008). Similarly, many studies predate the separation of Neocalanus plumchrus into N. plumchrus and N. flemingeri (Miller, 1988). Several misidentifications are notable, for example, records of *M. pacifica* identified as *M. lucens* (Cooney, 1977; several cruises in Turco, 1992a, b). Three species of Acartia appear to be present in the study area, with A. longiremis dominant and lesser numbers contributed by A. hudsonica, which has been frequently misidentified as A. clausi (e.g. Cooney, 1977; Neimark, 1979; Kulikov, 1992). Although we can verify the

presence of *A. tumida*, the existence of *A. bifilosa* (Neimark, 1979) within the region cannot yet be verified. Finally, we verify the existence of at least two species of *Eurytemora*, *E. hermandi* (dominant) and *E. pacifica* (rare), but did not observe *E. americana* (i.e. Neimark, 1979). It is notable that the average size-spectrum of the copepod community was relatively flat compared to the California Current (Hopcroft et al., 2001), and more like the spectra observed in the Arctic Basins (Hopcroft et al., 2005), but lacks the depressed region between ~600 and 2000 µm observed in the Canada Basin due to the contribution of *Pseudocalanus* and other small- to medium-sized calanoids.

Other holoplanktonic crustacean groups, such as euphausiids and cladocerans, present less of a taxonomic challenge and are generally accurately reported in previous works, although sometimes not to the species level. Non-crustacean groups have been recorded with variable resolution and proficiency in previous studies. There were considerable populations of larvaceans,

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Fig. 7. Temperature (above) and salinity (below) sections along the three lower transect lines (Fig. 1) in the Chukchi Sea, August 2004. The viewer is looking north, with southern most transect on the left.



Fig. 8. (A) Water masses present in the Chukchi Sea study area, August 2004, as determined using mean values for the station (to a maximum of 50 m). (B) Distribution of water masses over the Chukchi Sea, August 2004, based on *T*–*S* properties from averages over the upper 50 m of the water column. Data is missing for unfilled square symbol.

particularly the large arctic *O. vanhoeffeni* throughout the sampling area, that have been reported in high numbers (e.g. Kulikov, 1992; Lane et al., 2008) and/or high biomass by other studies (Springer et al., 1989), consistent with reports from the

northern Bering Sea (Shiga et al., 1998). Larvaceans are increasingly implicated as key players in polar systems (e.g. Acuna et al., 1999; Hopcroft et al., 2005; Deibel et al., 2005) due to their high grazing and growth rates. At times, the biomass of larvaceans in

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Table 3

Environmental variables correlated to the observed community structure as revealed by the BEST analysis, for temperature (*T*), salinity (*S*), density (ρ), oxygen (O), turbidity (Tu), in situ fluorescence (Fl), and extracted chlorophyll (Chl).

No. of variables	Best variable combinations using 0–50 m layer (Spearman Rank Correlation)					
2	<i>Τ</i> , <i>ρ</i> (0.75)					
3	<i>Τ</i> , <i>ρ</i> , <i>S</i> (0.75)	<i>Τ</i> , <i>ρ</i> , O (0.69)	<i>Τ</i> , <i>ρ</i> , Fl (0.67)			
4	T, ρ, S, O (0.71)	<i>T</i> , <i>ρ</i> , <i>S</i> , Fl (0.71)	<i>T</i> , <i>ρ</i> , <i>S</i> , Chl (0.68)	<i>T</i> , <i>ρ</i> , <i>S</i> , Tu (0.67)		
5	<i>T</i> , <i>ρ</i> , <i>S</i> , O, Fl (0.69)	T _. ρ, S, Tu, Fl (0.66)	$T_{,} \rho, S, O, Chl$ (0.65)	<i>T</i> , <i>ρ</i> , <i>S</i> , O, Tu (0.65)		
_	Best variable combinations using multiple depth layers (Spearman Rank Correlation)					
2	T_{10-50}, ρ_{0-50} (0.78)					
3	$S_{10-50}, \rho_{0-50}, T_{10-50}$ (0.77)	$ ho_{10-50}, ho_{0-50}, T_{10-50}$ (0.77)	$S_{0-50}, T_{10-50}, \rho_{10-50}$ (0.77)	$S_{0-50}, \rho_{0-50}, T_{10-50}$ (0.77)		
4	$S_{0-50}, \rho_{0-50}, T_{10-50}, \rho_{10-50}$ (0.77)	$T_{0-50}, \rho_{0-50}, T_{10-50}, S_{10-50}$ (0.77)	$ ho_{0-50}, T_{10-50}, S_{10-50}, ho_{10-50}$ (0.77)	$T_{0-50}, \rho_{0-50}, S_{0-50}, \rho_{10-50}$ (0.76)		
5	$T_{0-50}, \rho_{0-50}, S_{0-50}, T_{10-50}, \rho_{10-50}$ (0.77)	$T_{0-50}, \rho_{0-50}, T_{10-50}, S_{10-50}, \rho_{10-50}$ (0.77)	$T_{0-50}, \rho_{0-50}, T_{10-50}, S_{10-50}, T_{u_{0-10}}$ (0.77)	$T_{0-50}, \rho_{0-50}, S_{0-50}, T_{10-50}, S_{10-50}$ (0.76)		

Subscripts indicate the layer (in m) over which the variable has been constructed.



Fig. 9. Zooplankton abundance (ind. m⁻³), clustered by species and stations in the Chukchi Sea, August 2004, with corresponding water masses and faunal affinities noted.

2004 rivaled that of the copepods, particularly at the ice-edge stations in Herald Canyon, where some of the highest reported abundances for *O. vanhoeffeni* were observed.

The dominant predators in terms of abundance and biomass were the chaetognaths, mostly *P. elegans*, consistent with other studies from the region (e.g. Cooney, 1977; Neimark, 1979; Springer et al., 1989; Kulikov 1992; Lane et al., 2008). There was

considerable diversity of both small and large gelatinous organisms: scypho- and hydromedusae, and ctenophores that are often overlooked: more than a dozen species were encountered in 2004, with *A. digitale* and *Rathkea octopunctata* being most common. All studies confirm the numerical dominance of *Aglantha* within the hydromedusae (e.g. Cooney, 1977; Neimark, 1979; Springer et al., 1989; Kulikov, 1992), while the composition and relative

contribution of other species varies greatly between these studies. Several species of amphipods formed a relatively minor predatory/omnivory group, as did several forms of larval decapods.

Finally, suspension-feeding meroplanktonic larvae of benthic organisms were exceptionally common throughout the sampling region in 2004. High abundance of meroplankton is typical of summer-time data in this region (e.g. Cooney, 1977; Neimark, 1979; Springer et al., 1989; Kulikov, 1992), and improved knowledge of their abundance and distribution is relevant to understanding recruitment to the rich benthic communities in this region (Iken et al., 2009). Relationships between the size and weight for meroplanktonic groups need to be established to more fully appreciate their role in this region; based on the observed abundances, their biomass and impact as grazers could be significant.

4.2. Community patterns

The spatial distribution of the zooplankton communities in the Chukchi Sea is shown to be strongly tied to the different water masses, a conclusion reached by several previous studies in this region. Such patterns were first recognized by Russian researchers as early as the 1930s (Stepanova, 1937a, b), and are to a large extent a continuation of patterns observed in the northern Bering Sea (see review by Coyle et al., 1996). These patterns were reiterated by later Russian studies (e.g. Pavshtiks, 1984) that identified at least three water types in the region. Although the first years of the ISHTAR program were restricted to sampling in US waters, oceanic Anadyr waters, continental shelf and lowsaline nearshore waters were all recognized (Springer et al., 1989). Cross-basin studies by the BERPAC program also identified three zooplankton clusters within the Chukchi Sea, but failed to articulate their species assemblages or associate them with specific water masses (Kulikov, 1992). Concurrent sampling for ichthyoplankton within this program revealed a remarkably similar grouping of stations as were identified here, and also coupled their groups to water masses (Norcross et al., 2010).

The species assemblages observed in this study are most clearly demarcated by the euryhaline nearshore cladocerans (i.e. Podon and Evadne), A. hudsonica, Eurytemora species and selected meroplankton that denote the Alaska Coastal Current (ACC). These species have been shown to be particularly abundant in the nearshore waters, while the oceanic assemblage is absent from such waters (Cooney, 1977; Neimark, 1979; Springer et al., 1989). Earlier Russian studies have failed to detect the ACC community because they lacked stations sufficiently close to the American shore to sample ACC waters. Most other community groups appear to be less rigid, and more transitional, involving more subtle changes in absolute and relative abundances. The strong contribution of oceanic subarctic Pacific expatriates to the community biomass was noted in the earliest studies in the region (i.e. Stepanova, 1937a, b) and remains a consistent feature of all subsequent summer studies. Not surprisingly, there is a transition zone between these coastal waters and the adjoining Bering Sea waters. What is interesting is that although physical oceanographers have debated the pathways of water across the Chukchi shelf (see Pickart et al., 2009), we demonstrate that the zooplankton community shows some traces of even ACC communities along the eastern edge of Herald Valley.

The cold Bering Sea Winter Waters encountered through much of the Herald Valley (Pickart et al., 2009), and possibly present also at Stations 27 and 11 along the Siberian Coast, is characterized to a large degree by the absence of the large-bodied Pacific expatriates. These expatriates are not present because this water was likely formed on the Bering Sea Shelf during winter (Weingartner, pers. comm.) when these species have undertaken the ontogenetic vertical migration to depth in their life cycle (Miller and Clemons, 1988; Mackas and Tsuda, 1999), and so are absent from these waters. Only a few stations appeared to reflect Resident Chukchi Water with its more Arctic assemblage of species, and such a community would be expected to be encountered moving eastward into Long Strait south of Wrangel Island, or moving more northward (e.g. Pavshtiks, 1984, 1994). Ultimately, as one moves northward we would anticipate transition into water masses of a strictly Arctic Ocean origin with their unique assemblage of predominately oceanic species (e.g. Pavshtiks, 1994, Ashjian et al., 2003, Hopcroft et al., 2005; Lane et al., 2008), but such regions were not encompassed by this expedition.

5. Conclusions and outlook

In terms of mechanisms, planktonic communities of the Chukchi Sea are likely to undergo climate-related changes both through shifts in the absolute transport rate and penetration of Pacific species into the Arctic, and by environmental changes that affect their survival. It has been estimated that 1.8 million metric tons of Bering Sea zooplankton are carried into the Chukchi Sea annually (Springer et al., 1989). These zooplankton, along with the entrained phytoplankton communities, are responsible for the high productivity of the Chukchi Sea in comparison to adjoining regions of the Arctic Ocean (e.g. Plourde et al., 2005; Lane et al., 2008). In the summer of 2004 one would characterize the southern Chukchi zooplankton fauna as primarily Pacific in character, and these Pacific species were carried far northward through the Herald Valley. Other Pacific species have been observed as far as the Chukchi Plateau (Ashijan et al., 2003), and at very low numbers within the adjoining basins (Hopcroft et al., 2005; Kosobokova and Hopcroft, 2009). Given the range of variability in the literature, and the lack of comparable sampling methods and stations, there is no indication summer zooplankton biomass in this region has changed systematically over the past few decades, although changes have been documented to occur closer to the shelf break (Lane et al., 2008)

Future increases in transport would, however, carry more Pacific zooplankton through Bering Strait with even further penetration into the Arctic. In contrast, a reduction in transport of Bering Sea water would not only decrease the overall biomass and productivity of the Chukchi Sea, but give it a more Arctic Ocean faunal character. Thus, changes in the transport rates ultimately affect the species composition of this region, as well as the absolute zooplankton biomass distributed throughout the Chukchi Sea, and such shifts would also result in changes in the size structure of zooplankton communities. As indicated by both species composition and size spectra, the southern Chukchi Sea already has much greater contribution from, and importance of, smaller-bodied species/stages than observed in the Arctic Basins (e.g. Hopcroft et al., 2005). This pattern could become common across the entire Chukchi Sea. Most higher trophic levels select their prey based on size; thus, the consequences of size-structure shifts could be even more important than changes in zooplankton biomass (Richardson and Schoeman, 2004; Lane et al., 2008).

As with most long-term observations, the challenge will be detecting systematic change from the year-to-year variability already noted in this region (e.g. Springer et al., 1989; Turco, 1992a, b; Pavshtiks, 1994), understanding how rate processes respond to temperature, and recognizing the importance of water mass origin in defining the observed community structure. A more systematic, spatially distributed and regularly repeated, international sampling program in the region will be essential to

address this need given the Chukchi Sea's oceanographic complexity. Emerging molecular tools may further aid in our ability to separate problematic species (e.g. Llinás, 2007; Lane et al. 2008; Bucklin et al., 2009) and even populations within them (Nelson et al., 2009). In addition to the regular addition of new data, the challenge to build predictive models for the future will be greatly aided by the rescue of older data, and larger effort should be expended on consolidating past knowledge than is the current practice.

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