



Life cycles of some Arctic amphipods

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ABSTRACT: Life cycles, number of eggs per female, minimal adult female length and reproductive costs are presented for 18 species of Amphipoda from the West Spitsbergen area, 77–79°N. Fifteen species incubated eggs during the polar night and released their offspring in early April. Three species incubated eggs from late spring till late summer. The appearance of the youngest juveniles, indicating the hatching period, is presented for 63 species. Most of the species studied were *K* strategists, with large eggs of over 1 mm diameter; only one species (*Hyperoche medusarum*) was *r* – strategist.

Key words: Arctic amphipods, breeding, life cycles, eggs incubation.

Introduction

Amphipods are a speciose group and constitute an ecologically important component of polar fjords ecosystems (Jażdżewski *et al.* 1995). Spitsbergen amphipods have been relatively well recognised from the faunistic point of view (Stephensen 1935–40, Palerud and Vader 1991, Gulliksen *et al.* 1999), and ecology (Lagardere 1968, Węśławski 1990, Jażdżewski *et al.* 1995, Legeżyńska 2001). Except for ice-associated taxa (sympagic) (Poltermann 1997) and intertidal species (Węśławski *et al.* 2000) there is no published data on the breeding biology or production of Svalbard amphipods. Breeding of amphipods from other Arctic regions is not well known; there are some data from the southern Barents Sea (Kuznetsov 1964, Tzvetkova 1977), Canadian Arctic, and Greenland (Dunbar 1957, Steele 1967, 1972; Steele and Steele 1970, 1972, 1973, 1975 a, b, c, 1978). Some data on Arctic amphipods (16 species also known from Svalbard area) are presented in the extensive review by Sainte-Marie (1991). Most of the above-cited studies were based upon a seasonally limited material (usually collected in summer) and contained only a few adult females. The growing concern of the consequences of climate warming for the Arctic ecosystem involves an understanding of the biology of key species, since the poikilotherm animals' development is directly tempera-

ture-related. The present paper contains some new data on breeding parameters of common coastal species, aimed at resolving the question – what is the diversity of breeding strategies in the Amphipoda of the Svalbard region? May they be changed when exposed to elevated sea temperatures?

Materials and methods

Gravid females were collected using different sampling gear (grabs, dredges, and hand nets) during a year-round expedition to Hornsund (South West Spitsbergen) in 1984/85 and during several summer trips to Kongsfjorden (North West Spitsbergen) in the years 1996–2000. Amphipod length was measured from the tip of the rostrum to the end of the telson to 0.1 mm accuracy. Wet weight was taken from animals preserved in 4% formaldehyde, after gently washing them in tap water and blotting on filter paper 6 to 12 months after collection. Egg diameter was calculated as a mean value from two measurements of the longest and shortest diameter, from at least 5 eggs measured to 0.01 mm accuracy. Wet formaline weight of 10 eggs was measured to an accuracy of 0.1 mg, then calculated for the single egg. The effect of formaline preservation on crustaceans' weight and volume have been analysed by Opaliński (1991), who found fresh weight to formaline weight difference of 1%; our unpublished data on fresh and preserved amphipods shown to 1 to 5% difference.

Reproductive effort (%RR) was calculated after Wildish (1982) as the percentage share of brood volume to female volume. Female volume was calculated after measuring the depth of body (d) as the body height at the 4th pereion segment. Altogether 152 gravid females were measured (Table 1).

Study area

Hornsund (77°N) and Kongsfjorden (79°N), where the materials were collected, are both medium-sized West Spitsbergen fjords facing the Greenland Sea. The waters from coastal current (South Spitsbergen Current) and coastal waters of West Spitsbergen fill the fjords. Surface layer is less saline, up to 30 PSU, whereas in the near bottom layer, below 20 m depth, salinity is stable and does not fall below 34 PSU. Maximal summer temperature (August) may reach 8°C in tidal pools, and in open fjord waters is up to 6°C. Very cold water (–1.88°C) is formed in autumn (November–December) during freezing of the water surface; this dense and cold water sinks down and fills the semi-enclosed basins in the inner fjord areas. During the spring melt the water column is heated from the surface and seasonal pycnocline is formed (Swerpel 1985, Węśławski *et al.* 1991, Piechura 1993, Piechura and Walczowski 1996, Svendsen *et al.* 2001). The seasonality of physical phenomena and primary production in examined fjords is presented by Węśławski *et al.* (1988), Eilertsen *et al.* (1989) and Wiktor (1999).

Table 1
 Reproduction parameters of examined egg-bearing females, Hornsund, Kongsfjorden, Svalbard.

Taxon	number of ovigerous females		min-max length of ovig. female		mean length of ovig. fem.		min-max wet weight ovig. fem		mean wet weight ovig. fem		min-max number of eggs per fem.		mean number of eggs per fem.		egg diameter		wet weight of single egg	
	n	n	mm	mm	mm	mm	mg	mg	mg	mg	n	n	n	n	mm	mm	mg	mg
<i>Acanthostephea malmgreni</i>	5	5	31–36	31–36	33.2	33.2	693–990	693–990	808	808			85	85	1.2	1.2	0.85	0.85
<i>Ampelisca eschrichti</i>	1	1	37	37					676	676			12	12	1.6	1.6	1.04	1.04
<i>Anonyx nugax</i>	1	1	44	44					1900	1900	87	87			1.3	1.3	0.74	0.74
<i>Anonyx sarsi</i>	6	6	20–30	20–30	27.5	27.5	548–630	548–630	589	589	20–30	20–30	25	25	1	1		
<i>Calliopius laeviusculus</i>	7	7	12–18	12–18	15	15							62	62	0.85	0.85		
<i>Gammarellus homari</i>	8	8	19–36	19–36	28.4	28.4	245–739	245–739	424	424	20–133	20–133	49	49	1.5	1.5	0.7	0.7
<i>Gammarus oceanicus</i>	33	33	18–32.5	18–32.5	26.4	26.4	158–512	158–512	331	331	16–152	16–152	78	78	0.77	0.77	0.16	0.16
<i>Gammarus setosus</i>	23	23	19–30	19–30	26	26	200–350	200–350	287	287	30–117	30–117	70	70	0.77	0.77	0.16	0.16
<i>Goesia depressa</i>	3	3	8–11	8–11	9.25	9.25	12.5–18	12.5–18	15.6	15.6			9	9	0.6	0.6	0.07	0.07
<i>Hyperoche medusarum</i>	4	4	7–9.5	7–9.5	8.5	8.5	11.4–31.5	11.4–31.5	23.5	23.5	160–500	160–500	320	320	0.23	0.23	0.003	0.003
<i>Ischyrocerus anguipes</i>	16	16	8.5–9	8.5–9	8.9	8.9	8–13	8–13	10.4	10.4	8–9	8–9	8	8	0.78	0.78	0.1	0.1
<i>Monoculodes packardii</i>	1	1	5.8	5.8					14	14			30	30	0.45	0.45		
<i>Onisimus caricus</i>	5	5	22–26	22–26	25	25			287	287	5–18	5–18	12	12	1.4	1.4	1.8	1.8
<i>Onisimus edwardsi</i>	6	6	11–12.5	11–12.5	12	12							39	39	0.7	0.7		
<i>Onisimus litoralis</i>	6	6	12.5–19.5	12.5–19.5	17	17					15–60	15–60	50	50	1	1		
<i>Orchomenella minuta</i>	15	15	6–9	6–9	7	7	5–34	5–34	20	20	4–15	4–15	8	8	0.7	0.7		
<i>Paroediceros lynceus</i>	11	11	18–24	18–24	20.9	20.9	147–312	147–312	227.8	227.8	200–300	200–300	220	220	0.7	0.7	0.1	0.1
<i>Weyprechtia pinguis</i>	1	1	25	25					360	360			157	157	1.02	1.02	0.29	0.29

Table 2
 Some data on breeding seasonality of Amphipoda of the Svalbard area.

Taxon	Egg bearing females	Smallest observed juveniles	Females with empty marsupium
Ampeliscidae <i>Ampelisca eschrichti</i> Kröyer, 1842 <i>Byblis gaimardii</i> (Kröyer, 1846) <i>Haploops tubicola</i> Lilljeborg, 1855	August	3 mm, July	August July
Corophiidae s.l. <i>Goesia depressa</i> (Goes, 1866) <i>Neohela monstrosa</i> (Boeck, 1861) <i>Unciola leucopis</i> (Kröyer, 1845)		3 mm, July	July July
Isaeidae <i>Protomedeia grandimana</i> Bruggen, 1905			July
Dexaminidae <i>Atylus carinatus</i> (Fabricius, 1793)	October	4 mm, June	
Iphimediidae <i>Acanthonotozoma serratum</i> (Fabricius, 1780)			August
Eusiridae s.l. <i>Apherusa glacialis</i> (Hansen, 1887) <i>Apherusa sarsi</i> Shoemaker, 1930 <i>Apherusa tridentata</i> (Bruzzellius, 1859) <i>Calliopius laeviusculus</i> (Kröyer, 1838) <i>Eusirus cuspidatus</i> Kröyer, 1845 <i>Halirages fulvocinctus</i> (M. Sars, 1858) <i>Rhachotropis aculeata</i> (Lepechin, 1780) <i>Rhachotropis inflata</i> (G. Sars, 1882) <i>Rhachotropis helleri</i> (Boeck, 1871) <i>Rhachotropis macropus</i> G. Sars, 1893 <i>Rozinante fragilis</i> (Goes, 1866)	May Jan.–May, June–July	3 mm, July 4 mm, July 3.5 mm, July 3 mm, June	August July July July July August July
Epimeriidae <i>Paramphithoe cuspidata</i> (Lepechin, 1780)			August
Gammarellidae <i>Gammarellus homari</i> (Fabricius, 1779)	October–April	2.5 mm, April	May
Gammaracanthidae <i>Gammaracanthus loricatus</i> (Sabine, 1821)			August
Gammaridae <i>Gammarus oceanicus</i> Segerstrale, 1947 <i>Gammarus setosus</i> Dementieva, 1931 <i>Gammarus wilkitzkii</i> Birula, 1897 <i>Weyprechtia pinguis</i> (Kröyer, 1838)	October–April October–April April	2.5 mm, April 2.5 mm, April 3 mm, May 5 mm, July	May May June July
Ischyroceridae <i>Ischyrocerus anguipes</i> Kröyer, 1838	May–July	2 mm, July	July
Lysianassidae s.l. <i>Anonyx laticoxae</i> Gurjanova, 1962 <i>Anonyx nugax</i> (Phipps, 1774) <i>Anonyx sarsi</i> Steele et Brunel, 1968 <i>Aristias</i> sp. <i>Hippomedon propinquus</i> (G.Sars, 1890) <i>Lepidepcreum umbo</i> (Goes, 1866) <i>Menigrates obtusifrons</i> (Boeck, 1861)	November–June November–April	3 mm, April 3 mm, April 3 mm, April 2mm, July 3mm, July	July July July

Table 2 – continued.

<i>Onisimus brevicaudatus</i> Hansen, 1886		3 mm, May	
<i>Onisimus caricus</i> Hansen, 1886	September–May	3 mm, July	
<i>Onisimus edwardsi</i> (Kröyer, 1846)	November–May	4 mm, July	
<i>Onisimus glacialis</i> G. Sars, 1900		4 mm, July	
<i>Onisimus litoralis</i> (Kröyer, 1845)	November–April	2.5 mm, May	June
<i>Orchomenella minuta</i> (Kröyer, 1846)	December–May	2 mm, May	June
Stegocephalidae			
<i>Stegocephalus inflatus</i> Kröyer, 1842	June	3 mm, August	August
Stenothoidae			
<i>Metopa bruzelii</i> (Goes, 1866)			July
Synopiidae			
<i>Syrrhoë crenulata</i> Goes, 1866		3 mm, July	
Caprellidae			
<i>Caprella septentrionalis</i> Kröyer, 1838	November–May	3 mm, June	July
Hyperiidæ			
<i>Hyperoche medusarum</i> (Kröyer, 1838)	June–August		August
<i>Themisto abyssorum</i> (Boeck, 1871)	December–March		
<i>Themisto libellula</i> (Lichtenstein, 1822)	December–March	3 mm, Feb.	July
Melitidae			
<i>Melita dentata</i> (Kröyer, 1842)			July
<i>Melita formosa</i> Murdoch, 1866			July
<i>Melita palmata</i> (Montagu, 1804)			July
Odiidae			
<i>Odius carinatus</i> (Bate, 1862)			July
Oedicerotidae			
<i>Acanthostephea malmgreni</i> (Goes, 1866)	November–April	5 mm, July	August
<i>Arrhis phyllonyx</i> (M. Sars, 1858)	June	2.5 mm, June	July
<i>Monoculodes borealis</i> Boeck, 1871		2.5 mm, June	July
<i>Monoculodes longirostris</i> (Goes, 1866)			July
<i>Monoculodes packardii</i> Boeck, 1871	November–May	2.5 mm, July	July
<i>Paroedicerus lynceus</i> (M. Sars, 1858)		2.5 mm, June	June
Phoxocephalidae			
<i>Harpinia serrata</i> G. Sars, 1879		2.5 mm, July	August
<i>Phoxocephalus holbolli</i> (Kröyer, 1842)			July
Pontoporeiidae			
<i>Pontoporeia femorata</i> Kröyer, 1842	June	2.5 mm, July	July
Pleustidae			
<i>Parapleustes bicuspis</i> (Kröyer, 1838)	May	3 mm, June	July
<i>Parapleustes monocuspis</i> (G. Sars, 1893)	May	3 mm, June	July
<i>Pleustes panoplus</i> (Kröyer, 1838)	May		
<i>Pleusymtes glabroides</i> Dunbar, 1954	May		

Results

Indirect evidence of hatching was observed for 20 species – namely constituting observations of newly-hatched juveniles and females with empty marsupium (Table 2). Most of the species observed incubated eggs in winter, from November till April–May; summer incubation of eggs was observed in two species (pelagic *Hyperoche medusarum* and phytal inhabitant *Ischyrocerus anguipes*). There were

indications that one species (*Calliopius laevisculus*) may have two breeding periods per year, since some females were found to incubate eggs in December–April and some in May–September. The examined species represented different life strategies; extremes were *Orchomenella minuta*, a small species laying 4 to 15 large eggs, while the equally small *Hyperoche medusarum* lays a large number (150–500) of very small eggs (Table 1). Medium-sized amphipods (*Onisimus litoralis* and *Paroediceros lynceus*) also differed in terms of eggs' number (60 to 250 respectively), whereas large species (*Anonyx nugax*, *Acantostepheia malmgreni*) represented similar breeding patterns with not numerous large eggs (Table 1). Reproductive effort measured after the Wildish (1982) method, divided all species into two groups – the first with low reproduction costs in the range of 1–10% (*Gammarus* spp., *Anonyx* spp., *Hyperoche medusarum*), and the second group of high reproductive costs ranging from 15 to 30% (*Weyprechtia pinguis*, *Gammarellus homari*, *Monoculodes packardi*) – Table 1. The relation of breeding costs to *K* or *r* strategy was not clear, as both types of strategies represented low and high reproductive costs (Table 1). Sex ratio divides the species studied into three groups, those with the balanced (1:1) ratio (e.g. *Gammarus* spp.), species with female predominance (e.g. *Onisimus edwardsii*), and species with strong male predominance (e.g. *Calliopius laevisculus*) – Table 3.

Table 3
Sex ratio in examined populations, Hornsund, Svalbard, summer season.

Species	males	females	sex ratio	mean
<i>Gammarus setosus</i>	136	120	1.13	
<i>Gammarus oceanicus</i>	185	199	0.93	
				0.9
<i>Caprella septentrionalis</i>	44	58	0.76	
<i>Gammarellus homari</i>	68	125	0.54	
<i>Orchomenella minuta</i>	38	80	0.48	
<i>Onisimus edwardsii</i>	67	148	0.45	
				0.5
<i>Anonyx nugax</i>	28	10	2.80	
<i>Anonyx sarsi</i>	87	45	1.93	
<i>Onisimus litoralis</i>	117	43	2.72	
<i>Calliopius laevisculus</i>	51	14	3.64	
<i>Paroediceros lynceus</i>	240	133	1.80	
<i>Monoculodes borealis</i>	14	4	3.50	
<i>Pleustes panoplus</i>	34	16	2.13	
				2.6

Discussion

Most of papers on the biology of subpolar and polar marine invertebrates report strong seasonally correlated breeding as a typical pattern (Dunbar 1957, Kuznetsov 1964, Steele 1967, 1972; Steele and Steele 1972, 1975c; Thurston

1972, Clarke 1979). A stable physical environment, and well marked peak of seasonal vegetation followed by long months of low food availability (Węśławski *et al.* 1988, 1990; Węśławski 1994, Wiktor 1999) are all factors in favor of a single, well-timed brood per year. The variability of year-to-year sea surface temperature, presence or absence of sea ice, changeable freshwater inflow, *etc.* (Piechura and Walczowski 1996, Węśławski and Adamski 1987, Beszczyńska *et al.* 1997) may directly influence the intensity or the length of the algal bloom. These factors would not change the scheme of high Arctic primary production with a single bloom, governed by the solar cycle. This stability and low productivity regime, have been considered as promoting an *A* strategy in “adverse” conditions (a follow-up of *r* and *K* strategies concept Greenslade 1983). In Amphipoda it would be a favor long life span, late maturity, and low reproductive costs (Sainte-Marie 1991).

Duration of life might be estimated after an analysis of the length frequency for a given population. Considering that polar amphipods breed once in a lifetime (Dunbar 1957, Kuznetsov 1964, Steele and Steele 1975, Tzvetkova 1977, Koszteyn *et al.* 1995) and breeding is strongly seasonally timed *i.e.* once per year (present data) we may attribute each of the length frequency peaks for separate year cohort (Table 4). A summary of the life cycles for the species studied is given in Fig. 1, which shows small species with a 1 year life span and the largest with over 4 years life expectancy. A long life span was also observed for a high Arctic ice-associated species – *Gammarus wilkitzkii* (Tzvetkova 1977, Polterman 1997). Southern-boreal populations of some of the species observed usually show a shorter life span and often two broods per year (Kuznetsov 1964, Segerstrale 1967, Jazdzewski 1970, Steele and Steele 1973, 1975b, 1976; Sainte-Marie 1991, Koszteyn *et al.* 1995, Beare and Moore 1998). Other taxa of Peracarida in the Svalbard area, like mysids and decapods, show similar patterns in breeding (Węśławski 1987, 1989).

The minimal size of mature females plays a key role in the number of eggs laid in amphipods (Steele and Steele 1975a). Females of amphipods observed in the Svalbard area belong to the largest specimens known in their species. The same is true for the egg diameter (mean 0.6 mm) when compared to the 0.4 mm mean egg diameter for temperate populations of amphipods (Van Dolah and Bird 1980, Nelson 1980, Wildish 1982). The size of egg is related to the incubation temperature and its duration in marine poikilotherms (Marshall 1953). As was estimated by Steele and Steele (1975) a gammaridean egg of 1.00 mm diameter needs some 120 days for incubation in cold temperate sea. This value is in accordance with the incubation time presented here (about 150 days). A larger egg size yields even longer incubation time, as was observed in Antarctic lysianassoid amphipods (Thurston 1972). The largest specimens of egg-bearing females in our collection were found in August (*Anonyx nugax*, *Ampelisca eschrichtii* and *Acanthostepheia malmgreni*), when their eggs diameter ranged to 1.5 mm – comparable to the size of decapod eggs incubated for 9–10 months in Antarctica (Clarke 1979).

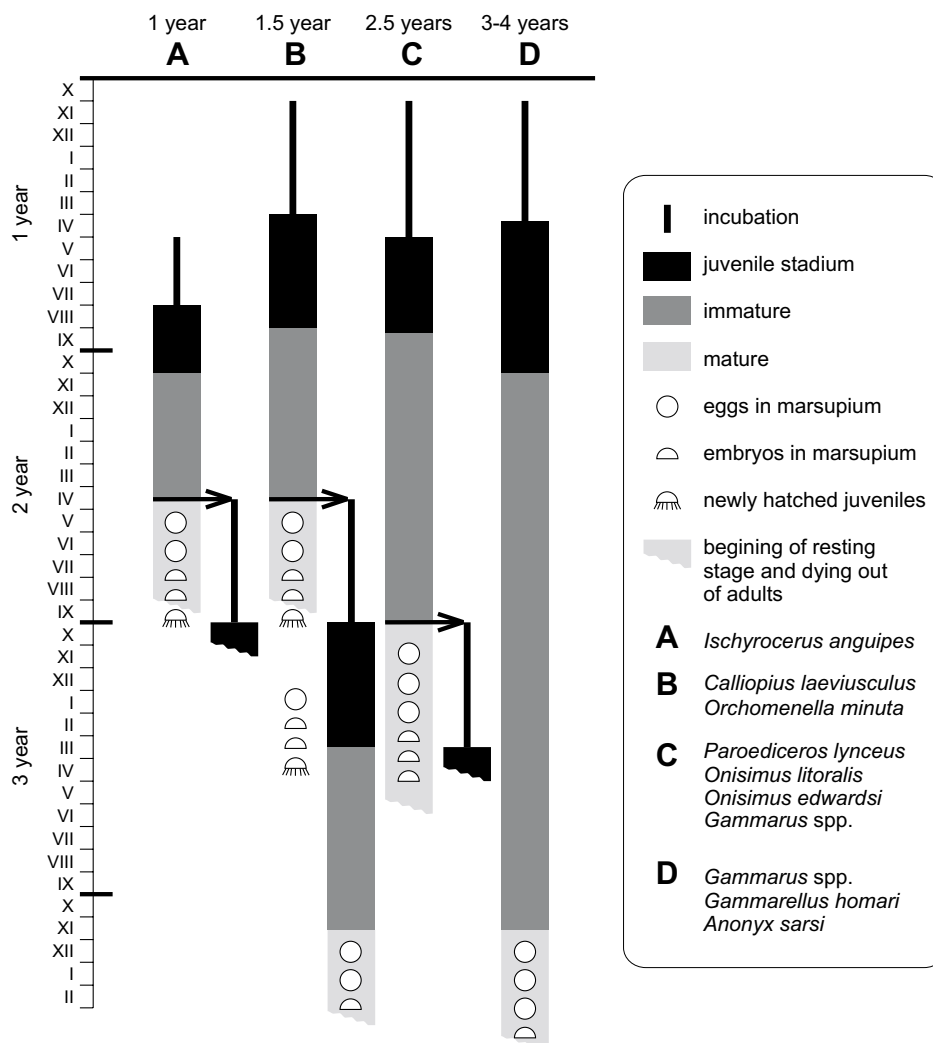


Fig. 1. Life history diagrams of Svalbard amphipods.

The only clear example of *r* strategy in our collection was the small, pelagic, summer-breeding *Hyperoche medusarum*. Abundant early autumn zooplankton may serve as a predictable food source for the rapid development of *H. medusarum* juveniles.

The calculation of reproductive costs in Svalbard amphipods shows twice higher costs (mean of 11.2%), when compared to southern counterparts (mean of 5.6%, Wildish 1982). The present review of the breeding biology of Svalbard amphipods shows little variance in strategies and confirms the view of the domination of *K* (or *A* sensu Greenlade 1983) strategy in cold water crustaceans (Clarke 1979, 1980, Sainte-Marie and Brunel 1983, Sainte Marie 1991). Since the breeding of

Table 4
 Estimated life span and length frequency for some of the examined species in summer, Svalbard.

length mm	estimated age	<i>Caprella septentrionalis</i> n = 38; August	<i>Gammarus homari</i> n = 86; September	<i>Gammarus setosus</i> n = 30; June	<i>Paroediteiros lynceus</i> n = 257; June	<i>Anonyx nugax</i> n = 73; July	<i>Onisimus edwardsi</i> n = 90; July	<i>Onisimus caricus</i> n = 84; July	<i>Anonyx sarsi</i> n = 90; July
4	1st year			5	60				
5	1st year			25				3.6	
6	1st year		10	20				12.0	
7	1st year							5.0	
8	1st year				10	6.8	2.2	5.0	2.2
9	1st year					6.8	38.9	3.6	10.0
10	1st year	3.4					45.6	7.1	12.2
11	2nd year						13.3	6.0	12.2
12	2nd year	12.3						3.0	2.2
13	2nd year							3.0	0.0
14	2nd year	16.8	10	5	10			3.0	0.0
15	2nd year					1.4		1.2	1.1
16	2nd year	25.1		5	10	8.2		2.2	2.2
17	2nd year					5.5		1.2	1.1
18	2nd year	12.3	15	15		5.5		4.8	1.1
19	2nd year					2.7		16.0	3.3
20	2nd year	23.5	15	8	10			9.5	10.0
21	2nd year					1.4		8.3	17.8
22	2nd year	3.4	20	7		1.4		4.0	14.4
23	2nd year							6.0	5.6
24	2nd year		20			5.5		1.2	3.3
25	2nd year					9.6			1.1
26	3rd year	3.4	4			8.2			
27	3rd year					1.4			
28	3rd year		2	5		2.7			
29	3rd year					1.4			
30	3rd year		2	5		1.4			
31	3rd year								
32	3rd year								
33	3rd year					1.4			
34	3rd year		2			1.4			
35	4th year					2.7			
36	4th year					4.1			
37	4th year					9.6			
38	4th year					2.7			
39	4th year					2.7			
40	4th year					4.1			
41	4th year					1.4			

most of the species observed is synchronised with algal development, which in turn is fully controlled by the solar cycle (Wiktor 1999), it seems unlikely that the predicted temperature increase will change the life patterns of Svalbard amphipods. Even with slightly faster eggs' incubation there is only a narrow window in time when juveniles may be released to find abundant food in High Arctic latitudes.

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