Structure, biomass distribution and trophodynamics of the pelagic ecosystem in the

Oyashio region, western subarctic Pacific

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Running head: Pelagic ecosystem of the Oyashio region

1 **Abstract**

2 Biomass distribution and trophodynamics in the oceanic ecosystem in the Oyashio

3 region are presented and analyzed, combining the seasonal data for plankton and

4 micronekton collected at Site H since 1996 with data for nekton and other animals at

5 higher trophic levels from various sources.   The total biomass of biological

6 components including bacteria, phytoplankton, microzooplankton, mesozooplankton,

7 micronekton, fishes/squids and marine birds/mammals was 23 g C m^{-2}, among which

8 the most dominant component was mesozooplankton (34% of the total), followed by

9 phytoplankton (28%), bacteria (15%) and microzooplankton (protozoans)(14%).   The

10 remainder (9%) was largely composed of micronekton and fish/squid.   Marine

11 mammals/birds are only a small fraction (0.14%) of the total biomass.   Large/medium

12 grazing copepods (*Neocalaus* spp., *Eucalanus bungii* and *Metridia* spp.) accounted for

13 77% of the mesozooplankton biomass.   Based on information about diet composition,

14 predators were assigned broadly into mean trophic level 3-4, and carbon flow through

15 the grazing food chain was established based on the estimated annual production/food

16 consumption balance of each trophic level.   From the food chain scheme, ecological

17 efficiencies as high as 24% were calculated for the primary/secondary production and

18 21% for the secondary/tertiary production.   Biomass and production of bacteria were

19 estimated as 1/10 of the respective values for phytoplankton at Site H, but the role of the

20 microbial food chain remains unresolved in the present analysis.   As keystone species

21 in the oceanic Oyashio region, *Neocalanus* spp. are suggested as a vital link between

22 primary production and production of pelagic fishes, mammals and birds.

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1. Introduction

The western boundary current of the subarctic circulation in the North Pacific is called the 'Oyashio' (Reid, 1973). The Oyashio originates from the Eastern Kamchatka Current, which mixes with cold, less saline Okhotsk Sea water on its way southwest along the Kuril Islands (Kono, 1997). The Oyashio flows offshore of southern Hokkaido, and reaches the east coast of northern Honshu, Japan, after which it turns east at about 40° N, parallel with the extension of the Kuroshio. The latter, warmer current originates to the east of the Philippins and flows northeast along the Ryukyu Islands and Honshu (Fig. 1). The "Oyashio region" as defined in this study refers to a broad, triangular oceanic area (ca. 3.0×10^5 km^2) between the southwestward, downstream limit of the Oyashio and its eastward, return stream, excluding coastal zones (Fig. 1).

The pelagic ecosystem in the Oyashio region is characterized by rich nutrients and the incidence of massive diatom blooms during spring (Saito et al., 2002). In the subarctic Pacific, the Oyashio region located at the western-end differs from the eastern region (typically represented by Station P) in several features: (1) macronutrients are often depleted as a result of diatom blooms (no blooms occur and nutrients are maintained at high level throughout the year at Station P; Harrison et al., 2004); (2) primary production is higher (new production; 78 vs. 35-50 g C m^{-2} y^{-1}; Wong et al., 2002); (3) mesozooplankton biomass in the epipelagic zone is much higher [annual mean; 115 (Odate, 1994) vs. 61 mg wet weight m^{-2} (calculated from Fig. 7 of Parsons and Larri, 1988)]; and (4) it possibly fosters greater planktivorous pelagic fish populations such as jack mackerel, Japanese anchovy, Japanese sardine and Pacific saury, which migrate through the area seasonally (Taniguchi, 1999). All these results

1 suggest that the Oyashio region is highly productive, but details about seasonal features

2 of the structure, biomass distribution of major components, and trophodynamics in the

3 pelagic ecosystem have been poorly synthesized.

4   During the period from September 1996 to October 1997, we sampled monthly in

5 an area established in the slope water of the Oyashio region off southeastern Hokkaido

6 ($41^o30'$ to $42^o30'$N and $145^o00'$ to $146^o00'$E, 2000-7000 m deep, hereafter referred to as

7 Site H, Fig. 1) off southeastern Hokkaido to evaluate the biomass and life cycles of

8 mesozooplankton.   To achieve that objective, the depth of sampling was designed to

9 cover the entire ontogenetic migration range of the large grazing copepods previously

10 evaluated at Station P in the eastern subarctic Pacific (Miller et al., 1984).   Since

11 October 1997, a less intensive follow-up study has been continuing, including bacteria,

12 phytoplankton and micronekton in this region.   This study is a synthesis of all

13 published and unpublished data collected at Site H, supplemented by a 10-year

14 (1990-1999) monitoring program (including nutrients and chlorophyll a) on the stations

15 along the A-line (acrossing Site H) by Hokkaido National Fisheries Research Institute

16 (Kasai et al., 2001).   Literature data on animals at higher trophic levels were combined

17 with those of lower trophic levels to broaden the perspective of the Oyashio region

18 ecosystem.

19

20 **2. Environmental conditions**

21 *2.1. Hydrography*

22   At Site H, the annual range of the sea surface temperature was large, ranging from

23 2^oC (March to April 1997) to 18^oC (September to October 1996 and 1997)(Fig. 2).

24 The Oyashio water, characterized by salinities from 33.0 to 33.3 and temperature below

1 3°C (Ohtani, 1971), occurred in the upper 150 m from February to April 1997. After

2 April, less saline, seasonally-warmed water (possibly originating from the Okhotsk Sea;

3 T. Kono, pers. comm.) occupied the upper 50 m of the water column. Surface

4 temperatures above 10°C were observed from September to November 1996 and from

5 June to October 1997, when the thermocline was well established at 20 to 50 m.

6 Effects of warm core rings originating from the Kuroshio extension were seen in

7 September of both 1996 and 1997, and from December 1996 to January 1997, as judged

8 by temperature at 200 m ($>4^{\circ}$C) and salinity in the 0 to 200 m layer (>33.5)(Fig. 2).

9 The temperature and salinity in the 200 to 1500 m layer were stable and nearly constant

10 at 2 to 3°C and 33.5 to 34.5, respectively, throughout the year.

11 With regard to the seasonal cycle of hydrographic conditions in the upper layers

12 anomalous southward intrusions of the Oyashio have been observed in winter of some

13 years, which is due to the barotrophic response of the ocean to the change in the wind

14 stress characterized by the southward development of the enhanced Aleutian Low

15 (Sekine, 1999).

16 The dissolved oxygen minimum layer is at 500-1000 m in the western subarctic

17 Pacific, including the Oyashio region (cf. Favorite et al., 1976). In the minimum layer,

18 our seasonal observation showed that the oxygen concentration at Site H declines to 0.8

19 ml O_2 l^{-1} or 10% saturation (Ikeda et al., 2004) .

20

21 *2.2. Nutrients*

22 Seasonal cycles characterized by highs in winter and lows in summer are an

23 annual event of nutrient concentrations in the surface layer of the Oyashio region (Kasai

24 et al., 2001). During our sampling from September 1996 through October 1997, the

1	maxima were seen in winter (25 μM nitrate, 42 μM silicate, and 1.8 μM phosphate) and

2	minima in summer (<0.1μM nitrate, 2 μM silicate, and 0.1 μM phosphate) at A4-A7,

3	A-line stations within Site H (Kasai et al., 2000). While the decrease from winter to

4	summer is due to uptake by the diatom bloom (Fig. 2), it is not explicitly known

5	whether or not nutrient depletion among other processes (zooplankton grazing, cell

6	sinking, light limitation etc) is the main cause for the termination of the bloom in the

7	Oyashio region as a whole (Saito et al., 2002; Saito and Tsuda, 2003). Kuma et al.

8	(pers. comm.) considers that iron depletion possibly occurs in the surface layers, since

9	iron concentration decreased from winter (0.6-1.0 nM) toward summer (<0.3 nM) at

10	Site H.

11

12	**3. Biological components**

13	*3.1. Bacteria*

14	 Heterotrophic bacteria were stained with DAPI and filtered onto 0.2 μm black

15	Nucleopore filters and counted with an epifluorescence microscope. Near-monthly

16	sampling from the surface to 3000 m depth during May through December 2002 at Site

17	H revealed the biomass density of heterotrophic bacteria to be 2.6-4.3 g C m^{-2} with a

18	mean of 3.7 g C m^{-2} (Table 1). At Station KNOT, Yamaguchi et al. (2004) reported

19	bacterial biomass values of 4-8 g C m^{-2} over the 0-2000 or 5000 m water column during

20	fall-winter, which is within 2-fold of the value for Site H. At A3 (a station more

21	inshore than Site H, cf. Fig. 1), heterotrophic bacterial biomass integrated over the

22	euphotic depth (30-50 m) ranged from 0.35 (winter) to 1.5 g C m^{-2} (summer) with a

23	mean of 0.85 g C m^{-2} (Shinada et al., 2001); however, the data at A3 cannot be

24	compared with those at Site H or Station KNOT because of a large difference in the

1   depth ranges integrated (30-50 m vs. 2000-5000 m) for the calculation of the biomass.

2   Bacterial biomass per unit volume of water decreases with increasing depth, but this

3   depth-related reduction is known to be less radical than those of phytoplankton,

4   protozooplankton and metazooplankton (=mesozooplankton) in the western North

5   Pacific (Yamaguchi et al., 2002).

6   In the western subarctic Pacific, annual production/biomass (P/B) ratios of

7   bacteria derived from the data of bacterial biomass and production (determined by the

8   ^{3}H-leucine incorporation method) decrease rapidly with increasing depth (5-7 in the

9   0-100 m layer, and 0.1-0.2 in that from 1000-4000 m), with a mean of ca. 4 for 0-2000

10   or 3000 m (Nagata et al., 2000).   By combining the P/B ratio with the biomass

11   mentioned above, the annual bacterial production at Site H was estimated to be 14.4 (=

12   3.6×4) g C m^{-2} (Table 1).

13

14   *3.2. Phytoplankton*

15   Incidence of a massive phytoplankton bloom is an annual event in the Oyashio

16   region, though there are year-to-year variations in the timing and magnitude of the

17   bloom (Kasai et al., 2001).   During our zooplankton sampling program at Site H in

18   1996-1997, chlorophyll *a* at the surface was around 0.4 mg m^{-3} from August 1996 to the

19   end of February 1997 and then increased rapidly to > 9 mg m^{-3} in May 1997 (Fig. 2).

20   During this period, concentrations above 2 mg m^{-3} extended down to 50 m.   The

21   surface chlorophyll *a* concentrations had decreased to 2 mg m^{-3} by the end of June and

22   to 0.4 mg m^{-3} toward the end of 1997.   Chlorophyll *a* concentrations were <0.4 mg m^{-3}

23   below 100 m throughout the year.   Assuming a carbon/chlorophyll *a* ratio of 60

24   (Batchelder and Miller, 1989), the range of seasonal variations equates to 2.2-97 g C m^{-2},

1   with an annual mean of 6.6 g C m^{-2} (Table 1).   The results of size-fractionation

2   indicate that most chlorophyll *a* during the spring bloom is >10μm.   The fraction

3   <2μm increased with water temperature but never exceeded 20% (Kasai, 2000).   Water

4   samples were collected at Site H during 2002-2004 (2 years) and seasonal succession of

5   phytoplankton communities (cell size: >10 μm) studied by the Utermöhl method (Hasle,

6   1978) was characterized by the predominance of centric diatoms during spring blooms

7   (*Chaetoceros* in the 2003 bloom and *Thalassiosira* in the 2004 bloom), followed by

8   dinoflagellates in summer and pennate diatoms (*Fragilariopsis*, *Neodenticula*,

9   *Thalassionema*) in winter.   Over the same period, a total of 52 species of centric

10   diatoms, 25 pennate diatoms, 15 dinoflagellates and 3 silicoflagellates were recorded at

11   Site H (Masuda and Shiga, unpublished; Fukui and Shiga, unpublished).

12   Annual total production of phytoplankton (new plus regenerated) has been

13   estimated as 146 g C m^{-2} by combining scattered seasonal data (Kasai, 2000), and

14   200-300 g C m^{-2} by a global productivity model based on satellite-derived chlorophyll

15   concentration data (Behrenfield and Falkowski, 1997).   Annual new production, based

16   on the seasonal depletion in nitrate in the top 50 m of the water column, varied from 66

17   to 91 g C m^{-2} (mean: 78) during 1995-2000 in the Oyashio region (Wong et al.,

18   2002)(Table 1).

19

20   *3.3. Microzooplankton*

21   No microzooplankton data are currently available at Site H.   At A3,

22   microzooplankton biomass (flagellates, ciliates, copepod nauplii) in the euphotic zone

23   (30-50 m) ranged from 0.58 g C m^{-2} (winter) to 1.9 g C m^{-2} (summer) with an annual

24   mean of 1.1 g C m^{-2} (Shinada et al., 2001).   At station KNOT, microzooplankton

1   biomass has been determined as 1-4 g C m^{-2} for the 0-2000 or 5000 m water column in

2   fall-winter (Yamaguchi et al., 2004), and can be re-calculated as 3.2 g C m^{-2} for the

3   0-2000 m water column to facilitate comparison to the biomass of bacteria and that of

4   mesozooplankton (Table 1).

5   Shinada et al. (2001) computed annual production of microzooplankton at A3 as

6   5.2 g C m^{-2} (annual P/B ratio is therefore 4.7) for the euphotic zone only, and this value

7   should not be applied to the microzooplankton biomass in the 0-2000 m water column

8   on the premise that the P/B ratio declines with increasing depth, as was demonstrated

9   for bacteria above.   Therefore, it was not possible to estimate the annual production

10   and annual prey (=bacteria) consumption by microzooplankton at Site H in this study.

11

12   *3.4. Mesozooplankton.*

13   Monthly samplings were done for one year (September 1996 to October 1887) at

14   Site H using a closing net (60 cm mouth diameter, 100 µm mesh size; Kawamura, 1989),

15   which was towed vertically through five depth strata between 0 and 2000 m [0-bottom

16   of thermocline (BT), BT-250, 250-500, 500-1000 and 1000-2000 m].   The analyses of

17   mesozooplankton samples thus collected have yielded information about biomass and

18   life cycle patterns of most abundant species, including copepods, chaetognaths,

19   euphausiids, ostracods, hydromedusae and appendicularians (Table 2).   The towing

20   speed of the closing net was 1 m sec^{-1}, which would be fast enough to capture most

21   meso-size and young macro-size zooplankton, but "net-avoidance" cannot be ruled out

22   for active macrozooplankton such as euphausiids and amphipods, leading to potential

23   underestimation of the biomass of the latter two taxa.   While no alternative samples

24   were available for euphausiids, the biomass of amphipods were collected by Bongo nets

1 (70 cm mouth diameter, 333 μm mesh openings) which were towed from 500 m depth

2 to the surface every 1-2 months during 1996-1998 (Yamada et al., 2002; Yamada and

3 Ikeda, 2006).

4   Biomass density of each species at a given sampling date was calculated based on

5 a length-to-dry mass (DM) relationship or developmental stage-DM tables (see

6 literatures cited for each species in Table 2), combined with population structure

7 defined by size (body length) for amphipods, ostracods, chaetognaths, coelenterates and

8 appendicularians or developmental stages for copepods in the 0-2000 m water column.

9 The biomass thus obtained at each sampling date was then integrated over the entire

10 sampling period (396 days) to obtain its annual mean.   The biomass of each

11 mesozooplankton species was expressed as DM originally, but was converted to carbon

12 mass (CM) in this study, using a factor of CM/DM = 0.5 (Omori, 1969).   The sum of

13 annual mean biomass of all mesozooplankton (plus some macrozooplankton) was 8.21

14 g C m^{-2} (Table 2).   Copepods occupied 85.5% of the total biomass, followed by

15 chaetognaths (8.8%).   The remaining taxa were all less than 2%, e.g., euphausiids

16 (1.9%), amphipods (1.3%) and others.   Among copepods, *Neocalanus cristatus* was

17 the most dominant species in terms of biomass, followed by *Eucalanus bungii*, *N.*

18 *plumchrus* , *Metridia pacifica*, *N. flemingeri* and *M. okhotensis,* and these 6 copepods

19 altogether contributed 76.6% of the total (Table 2).   These results are in good

20 agreement with those in the 0-4000 m water column reported by Vinogradov and

21 Arashkevich (1969) off Kurile-Kamchatka (north of the Oyashio region), although their

22 survey was limited to the summer season only (June-August).   Despite anticipated net

23 avoidance behavior by euphausids, the present result (0.15 g C m^{-2}) is very similar to

24 the average biomass (0.11 g C m^{-2}) of *Euphausia pacifica* in the North Pacific Ocean

1   reported by Lasker (1966).   Recently, Taki (2006) analyzed seasonal Norpac net

2   samples along the coastal waters off south-eastern Hokkaido (41-43°N) and estimated

3   the annual biomass of *E. pacifica* to be 0.38 g C m^{-2} or 2.5 times the value at Site H.

4   Information about annual P/B ratios is currently available for *Neocalanus* spp.

5   (Kobari et al., 2003), *Metridia pacifica* (Ikeda et al., 2002), the four amphipods

6   (Yamada and Ikeda, 2006) and *Euphausia pacifica* (Taki, 2006).   For the other species,

7   on which no data are currently available, their annual P/B ratios were computed from

8   the generalized equation of Banse and Mosher (1980) in which the annual P:B was

9   expressed as a function of caloric content of matured females (M, kcal equivalent, cf.

10 Table 2) of invertebrates.   Annual P (= Annual B × Annual P/B) thus computed was

11 used as a basis to derive annual food consumption (Annual F) by using a balanced

12 equation proposed for zooplankton (Ikeda and Motoda, 1978).   According to Ikeda and

13 Motoda (1978), Annual F (= 3.33 × Annual P) is derived if one assumes assimilation

14 efficiency to be 70% and gross growth efficiency to be 30%.   To facilitate our

15 understanding of the pelagic trophic structure, mesozooplankton species were separated

16 into herbivores and carnivores, though the species classified as herbivores may better be

17 called omnivores or particle feeders (cf. Mauchline, 1998).

18

19 *3.5. Micronekton*

20   During the period from August 2002 to August 2003, micronekton was sampled

21 near monthly intervals with Bongo nets (70 cm mouth diameter, 0.33 mm mesh) from

22 1000 m depth to the surface at Site H.   From these seasonal samples, biomass densities

23 and major component species of crustaceans and fish were analyzed. To express

24 biomass in carbon mass (CM), dry mass (DM) was assumed to be 20% of wet mass

11

1	(WM) and CM to be 50% of DM (cf. Omori, 1969).

2	 As crustacean micronekton, five mysids (*Eucopia australis, Meterythrops*

3	*microphithalma, Gnathophausia gigas, Boreomysis californica* and *Acanthomysis*

4	*dimorpha*) and six decapods (*Hymenodora frontalis, Bentheogennema borealis,*

5	*Gennadas propinquus, Acanthephyra quadrispinosa, Sergestes similis* and *Sergia*

6	*japonica*) occurred in the seasonal samples. The abundance ranged from 13-56

7	individuals m^{-2} for mysids, and 7.9-11.6 individuals m^{-2} for decapods. Annual mean

8	biomass was computed as 0.32 g C m^{-2} for mysids, and 0.52 g C m^{-2} for decapods (total:

9	0.84, Table 1).

10	 A total of 11 species were identified as micronektonic fish, and *Cyclothone alba,*

11	*C. atraria, Diaphus theta, Leuroglossus schmidti* and *Stenobrachius nannochir*

12	predominated in terms of biomass. Seasonally, the abundance changed from 0.5 to 14.4

13	individuals m^{-2} (0-1000 m) or 0.15 to 0.90 g C m^{-2} (annual mean: 0.64, Table 1). At

14	the three stations in the waters between Oyashio and Kuroshio (transitional zone) off

15	Honshu, Watanabe et al. (1999) reported an average myctophid fish biomass as 18.5

16	($\pm$4.7, SD) g WM m^{-2} in summer, which is equivalent to 1.9 g C m^{-2} (= 18.5 × 0.2 × 0.5)

17	or three times higher than our annual mean value. Watanabe et al. (1999) used a large

18	commercial net with mouth openings as large as 200 m^2 (as compared to 0.77 m^2 of our

19	Bongo net), whereby the most critical problem of net avoidance by the fishes is thought

20	to be minimized in their sampling. Nevertheless, incomplete coverage of all seasons

21	makes it difficult to compare their results with those at Site H.

22	 No information about annual P/B ratios is presently available for either fish or

23	crustacean micronekton. By defining the representative body mass of newly mature

24	specimens of the fish as 10 gWM, and of the crustaceans as 0.5 gWM, equivalent

12

1 calorific contents were computed as 10 and 0.5 Kcal, respectively (1 g WM = 1 Kcal,

2 Banse and Mosher, 1980).   Substituting these caloric contents into Banse and Mosher's

3 equation, we obtain the annual P/B ratio of 1.5 for the former and 0.8 for the latter

4 (Table 1).   Following the same procedure for mesozooplankton, Annual P and Annual

5 F thus obtained for fish micronekton were 0.96 and 3.2 g C m^{-2}, respectively, and those

6 for crustacean micronekton were 0.67 and 2.2 g C m^{-2}, respectively (Table 1).

7

8 *3.6. Fish and squid*

9   The biomass is a total of those of Pacific sardine (*Sardinops sagax*), walleye

10 pollock (*Theragra chalcogramma*), salmon (Salmonidae spp.), lanternfish

11 (Myctophidae spp.), Pacific saury (*Cololabis saira*), Japanese anchovy (*Engraulis*

12 *japonicus*), other fish and unspecified squid during 1980s (7.2 t WM km^{-2}) and 1990s

13 (4.0 t WM km^{-2}) (Springer et al., 1999).   A mean of the two periods (6 t WM km^{-2}) is

14 equivalent to 0.6 g C m^{-2} (Table 1) if one assumes the same conversion factors used for

15 mesozooplankton biomass.   Ivanov (1997) investigated the composition and biomass

16 of fish (including fish micronekton) and squid (mostly *Gonatopis borealis* and

17 *Watasenia scintillans*) in the upper mesopelagic zone (200-500 m) of the eastern

18 Oyashio region [Region 3 in Ivanov (1997)] during October-December 1992 and

19 August 1992, and reported the fish biomass to be 18.3 t WM km^{-2} (or 1.8 gC m^{-2}) and

20 squid biomass 0.9 t WM km^{-2} (or 0.09 g C m^{-2}).   According to the FAO Yearbook of

21 Fisheries Statistics, the annual landing of marine fish and invertebrates in Fishing Area

22 61 (Northwest Pacific) was 1.18-1.33 t WM m^{-2} (=0.11-0.13 g C m^{-2}) in 1989-1995

23 (FAO, 1997).   Standing stock has been estimated for individual fishes; the summer

24 biomass of Japanese sardine (*Sardinops melanostictus*) when its standing stock peaked

13

1   in 1984 was 3.2×10^6 tons WM per 48×10^3 km^2 (cf. Wada, 1991) or 6.6 g C m^{-2} by

2   using the same conversion factors mentioned above.   A recent estimate of Pacific saury

3   migrating the Oyashio region is 3 g C m^{-2} [calculated from: 400×10^6 tons per 5.49×10^6

4   km^2, taking into account the duration of migration being 5 mo (August-December) in

5   the year (http://www.myg.affrc.go.jp/)].   The severe lack of information led us to take

6   the data in Springer et al. (1999) as a minimal estimate of annual standing stock of fish

7   and squid in the Oyashio region.

8   To calculate annual P/B ratios of the group of Fishes/squids, a Pacific saury (100

9   g WM or 100 Kcal) was taken as a representative mature adult size, and Banse and

10 Mosher's equation predicted a ratio of 0.8 for this size of fish.   The Annual P was

11 computed as 1.6 g C m^{-2}, and Annual F to support the production was 1.6 g C m^{-2}

12 (Table 1).

13

14 *3.7. Marine mammals*

15   According to Springer et al. (1999), the western subarctic Pacific including the

16 Oyashio region is inhabited by 24 cetaceans and 7 pinnipeds.   The most abundant

17 species is Dall's porpoise (*Phocoenoides dalli*), which is distributed across the entire

18 subarctic Pacific.   Based on the information about the population size (estimated as 1.2

19 $\times 10^6$ individuals), assumed body mass of an individual (150 kg), and the total habitat

20 area ($19,937 \times 10^3$ km^2) of the subarctic Pacific (WSA, ESA, WTZ and ETZ regions;

21 Springer et al., 1999), the biomass was computed as 0.0090 kg WM km^{-2}, which is

22 equivalent to 0.0016 g C m^{-2} [conversion factors: DM/WM = 0.35 (Prosser, 1962), and

23 CM/DM = 0.5](Table 1).

24   The Northwestern Pacific is inhabited by 25,000 Minke whales (*Balaenoptera*

1   *acutorostrata*) weighing 5 t WM, 23,000 Brydes whales (*B. edeni*) weighing 15 t WM,

2   28,400 Sei whales (*B. borealis*) weighing 20 t WM, and 102,000 Sperm whales

3   (*Physeter catodon*) weighing 25 t WM (population data: http://www.icrwhale.org/

4   02-A-18.htm; representative body mass is arbitrary).　The biomass of the four whales

5   was summed and divided by the total habitat area ($10,566 \times 10^3 \text{m}^2$), yielding 0.34 t

6   WM km^{-2} or 0.060 g C m^{-2} (conversion factors; DM/WM = 0.35, CM/DM = 0.5).

7   Since these whales migrate to the western subarctic Pacific during spring/summer only,

8   the biomass was halved to calculate their annual mean biomass (=0.030 g C m^{-2}) in the

9   Oyashio region (Table 1).

10   The pinnipeds, Steller's sea lion (*Eumetopias jubatus*) among others, may be

11   important top predators in the subarctic region (Springer et al., 1999; Hunt et al., 2000),

12   but their impacts in the Oyashio pelagic ecosystem are thought to be limited, since they

13   stay near rookeries in summer and forage nearshore waters, which are not taken into

14   account in this study.

15   Annual P/B ratios of Dall's porpoises and the whales were calculated from Banse

16   and Mosher's equation, assuming representative body masses of mature specimens as

17   200 kg (=300×10^3 kcal) and 15,000 kg (=22.5×10^6 kcal), respectively.　As a result,

18   Annual P was calculated as 0.00032 g C m^{-2} for Dall's porpoises and 0.0015 g C m^{-2} for

19   the whales.　Annual F was calculated independently, because information is available

20   on their daily food consumption data [7% of body mass for Dall's porpoises (Hunt et al.,

21   2000), and 4% of body mass for minke whales (Tamura, 1998)].　The minke whale

22   data were used for the other whales.　Taking account of their feeding seasons (all

23   seasons for the Dall's porpoises, and 180 days in the year for the whales), Annual F was

24   estimated to be 0.041 g C m^{-2} for the Dall's porpoises and 0.22 g C m^{-2} for the whales.

1

2   *3.8. Marine birds*

3   Springer et al. (1999) and Hunt et al. (2000) summarized the abundance and

4   biomass of marine birds in the subarctic Pacific and its marginal seas.   However, the

5   data for the Oyashio region defined in this study are considered as part of

6   Kuroshio/Oyashio Currents Zone (KR/OY) and Western Transitional Zone (WTZ), and

7   the data of KR/OY are inadequate.   The number of marine bird species occurring in the

8   broad areas is 35-40, with the predominance of Stormy-Petrels (*Oceanodroma* spp.) and

9   Fulmars (*Fulmarus glacialis*)/Shearwaters (*Puffinus* spp.) in the western subarctic

10   Pacific (Hunt et al., 2000).   The biomass density estimated for the WTZ is 15.8 kg

11   km^{-2} (=0.003 g C m^2)(Springer et al., 1999) or 3.2 kg WM km^{-2} (=0.0005 g C m^2)(Hunt

12   et al., 2000).   While the reason for the difference between the two estimates is not clear,

13   we adopted the lower estimate of the latter paper in this study (Table 1).   While no

14   Annual P value is available, Annual F (per 96 day summer) was given as 0.026 g C m^{-2}

15   for the WTZ (Hunt et al., 2000).

16

17   **4. Discussion**

18   *4.1. Mesozooplankton as the major biological component*

19   The total biomass density of all organisms in the pelagic ecosystem in the

20   Oyashio region is 23 g C m^{-2} (Table 1), among which the most dominant category is

21   mesozooplankton (34% of the total), followed by phytoplankton (28%), bacteria (15%)

22   and microzooplankton (protozoans)(14%).   The remainder (9%) is largely composed

23   of micronekton and fish/squid.   Marine mammals and birds are only a tiny fraction

24   (0.14%) in the total biomass.   The total biomass per unit area (m^{-2}) thus estimated for

16

1 the organisms in the Oyashio region is more than 10 times higher than that (1.8 g C m^{-2})

2 of the biomass of humans on the Japan Islands at present (128 million people on

3 377,835 km^{-2}, assuming 30 kg per person and conversion factors of DM/WM = 0.35 and

4 CM/DM = 0.5 used for marine mammals above).

5   Our 1996-1997 survey at Site H revealed that six large/medium grazing copepods

6 (*Neocalaus* spp., *Eucalanus bungii* and *Metridia* spp., cf. Table 2) were the major

7 components of mesozooplankton biomass (77%, cf. Table 2), and their biomasses

8 underwent marked seasonal and bathymetric (0-250 and 250-2000 m) variations in

9 response to seasonal phytoplankton abundance (Fig. 3).   In the 0-250 m water column,

10 the biomass was maintained at a low level from September to March of the following

11 year, increased rapidly in April-July through the phytoplankton bloom (Fig. 3), then

12 decreased toward Octorber (annual mean: 1.85 g C m^{-2}).   In the 250-2000 m layer,

13 high biomass of these copepods seen in early September, decreasing gradually toward

14 April of the next year, then increasing again until August-October of the same year

15 (annual mean: 4.45 g C m^{-2}).   *Neocalanus* spp. are known to spawn at depth in advance

16 of the phytoplankton bloom, and their early copepodids are ready to utilize

17 phytoplankton during the bloom, a feature quite different from the spawning habit of

18 *Calanus* spp. in the North Atlantic (Miller et al., 1984; Kobari and Ikeda, 1999, 2001a,

19 b; Tsuda et al., 1999, 2004).   Unlike *Neocalanus* spp., *Calanus* spp. in the North

20 Atlantic (and *Eucalanus bungii* and *Metridia* spp. in the Oyashio region) spawn in the

21 surface layer during the spring phytoplankton bloom, thus causing a delay in their

22 biomass peak until after the phytoplankton bloom (cf. Parsons et al., 1984).   The

23 biomass of *Neocalanus* spp. found in the 250-2000 m layer at Site H is fated to die off

24 after completing their annual life cycle and predated by chaetognaths (Terazaki, 1991)

1 and other carnivores at that depth, but part of their biomass is thought to return to the

2 food chain of the epipelagic zone through the predation by diel migrating myctophid

3 fishes (Moku et al., 2000).

4   In addition to the six large/medium copepods, the euphausiids (*Euphausia*

5 *pacifica* and *Thysanoessa* spp., cf. Table 2) are assigned as herbivores in this study.

6 Among them, *E. pacifica* has been reported to depend on phytoplankton as its diet, and

7 to spawn in response to the phytoplankton bloom in the southern Japan Sea (Iguchi et

8 al., 1993) and off California (Brinton, 1976).   During our survey in 1996-1997 at Site

9 H, *E. pacifica* appeared to spawn a few months after the phytoplankton bloom, possibly

10 because water temperatures at the time of the bloom were too cold to induce their

11 spawning (2-10°C as compared to the 9-16°C, optimal spawning temperature for *E.*

12 *pacifica*, cf. Brinton, 1976).   Our estimate of the spawning season at Site H is

13 consistent with those of Taki (2006) for the population of *E. pacifica* along coastal

14 waters off south-eastern Hokkaido.   In contrast, *Thysanoessa inspinata/longipes* larvae

15 were abundant during the phytoplankton bloom at Site H (Okazaki and Ikeda,

16 unpublished).   Depending on environmental changes, the duration and intensity of

17 euphausiid spawning could vary from one year to the next, as has been observed for *E.*

18 *pacifica* and *T. inspinata* populations off central Oregon (Feinberg and Peterson, 2003).

19 While the importance of euphausiids at Site H is not marked in terms of biomass (Table

20 2), they are known to be a major link between phytoplankton (plus some

21 microzooplankton) and walleye pollock in the coastal Oyashio region (Yamamura,

22 2004) and minke whales in the Okhotsk Sea (Tamura and Fujise, 2002).

23   Over the period 1951-1990, mesozooplankton biomass in the Oyashio region has

24 been reported to have fluctuated by a factor of two (Odate, 1994).   Tadokoro et al.

1   (2005) analyzed part of Odate's sample series (1972-1999, ca. 30 years) taxonomically,

2   and noted that the *Neocalanus* biomass was high in the mid-1970s, decreased in the late

3   1970s, and recovered in the late 1980s.   As the cause for the long-term variation in the

4   *Neocalanus* biomass, Todokoro et al. (2005) considered top-down control by Japanese

5   sardine, the standing stock of which varied inversely with that of mesozooplankton.

6   However, the amplitude of inter-annual variations in the stock size of the Japanese

7   sardine during 1960s and 1990s is much greater (×1000) than that of the *Neocalanus*

8   biomass.   It has been shown that interannual fluctuation patterns of mesozooplankton

9   and fish in the subarctic Pacific do not necessarily coincide with analyses at basin scales,

10   suggesting the possible existence of match-mismatch between the two (Taniguchi,

11   1999; Ito et al., 2004).   A recent study by Chiba et al. (2006), in which copepods were

12   clustered into five seasonal groups, led to an alternative explanation of the long-term

13   variation of mesozooplankton biomass in the Oyashio region during the last 50 years

14   (1953-2001).   According to them, the variation was a response to climate changes

15   affecting the temperature of the water column from winter through summer, and

16   specifically to the length of the productive season of each year (i.e., bottom-up control).

17   The Aleutian Low has been considered a major climate forcing of the broad Kuroshio

18   and Oyashio ecosystems, including primary production and sardine production (Miller

19   et al., 2004).

20

21   *4.2. Trophic structure: Production/consumption balance*

22   Trophic structure is a basis for analyzing the dynamics of each biological

23   component within the pelagic ecosystem.   With phytoplankton as the primary producer

24   (trophic level = 1), diet composition data for the other biological components or the

1   dominant species of the component such as micronekton (Hopkins and Sutton, 1998),

2   fish micronekton (Beamish et al., 1999; Moku et al., 2000; Sassa and Kawaguchi, 2005),

3   Pacific saury (Sugisaki and Kurita, 2004), walleye pollack (Yamamura, 2004), Japanese

4   sardine (cf. Tadokoro et al., 2005), squids (Kawabata and Kubota, 2002; Watanabe et al.,

5   2004), marine mammals and seabirds (Beamish et al., 1999; Springer et al., 1999; Hunt

6   et al., 2000; Tamura and Fijise, 2002) were used to determine the most likely trophic

7   level for each group of organisms (Table 1).   The number of trophic levels thus

8   estimated ranged from 3 to 4 for Fishes/Squids (mid-trophic level: 3.5), and from 3 to 5

9   for Marine Mammals/Marine Birds (mid-trophic level: 4).

10   Pelagic organisms, excluding large animals at higher trophic levels, are

11   transported in and out of the Oyashio region system by the currents (Fig. 1).

12   Assuming a current speed of 20-30 cm s^{-1} at 200-300 m depth, Kono (2000) calculated

13   the fate of copepods in the mesopelagic zone of the Oyashio region.   According his

14   results, copepods carried out of the Oyashio region to the east will return to the Oyashio

15   region again in about 1 year, if they are entrained into the Western Gyre (total distance:

16   8,000 km), or in about 2 years if they travel in the Subarctic Current System (and are

17   then entrained into the Alaskan Gyre and then the Western Gyre, total distance: 15,000

18   km).   Kono (2000) indicated also that the horizontal transport and dispersal of the

19   population of copepods (and other zooplankton) by the Oyashio are variable, depending

20   on the vertical migration behaviors at various time scales (diel and seasonal) of each

21   species.   As a first attempt at analysis of the broad food chain in the pelagic ecosystem

22   of the Oyashio region, we assumed that the biomasses transported in and out of the

23   Oyashio region defined in Fig. 1 are balanced on an annual basis for all the groups of

24   organisms in Table 1.

1   A schematic food chain in the oceanic Oyashio region was constructed (Fig. 4).

2   It is noted that the current human biomass density on the Japanese islands falls

3   somewhere between those of trophic levels 2 and 3.   With phytoplankton (PHYTO)

4   and marine birds and mammals (MB/MM) as primary producers and top predators,

5   respectively, the carbon flow through the food chain was estimated based on calculated

6   Annual P/Annual F of the three intermediate trophic level groups [herbivorous

7   mesozooplankton [MESOZ(H)], carnivorous mesozooplankton [MESOZ(C)] plus

8   micronekton (MICRONEK), and fishes and squids (FISH/SQUID)].   Human

9   exploitation (FISHERY) was taken into account as a component of top predators (Fig.

10   4).   If one takes the lower estimate of annual total primary production (146 g C m^{-2}),

11   our calculation indicates that the ecological efficiencies are 24% [= 35.4 × 100/146] for

12   the secondary/primary production and 21% [= (5.7 + 0.97 + 0.67) × 100 /35.4] for the

13   tertiary/secondary production.   Since some secondary consumers (trophic level 3) are

14   included in Fishes/Squids, the tertiary/secondary production efficiency would be

15   underestimated to some extent.   Similar calculations with higher estimates of annual

16   primary production (200-300 g C m^{-2}, from Behrenfield and Falkowski, 1997) lead to an

17   ecological efficiency of 12-18% [= 35.4 × 100/(200 or 300)] for the secondary/primary

18   production.   Since the ecological efficiencies are considered to be 10-20% in most

19   marine food chains (cf. Parsons et al., 1984), the higher estimate of primary production

20   may be more realistic in the food chain scheme (Fig. 4).   The annual secondary

21   production calculated in this study (35 g C m^{-2}) is close to that (40-50 g C m^{-2}) in the

22   outer shelf and slope waters of the southeastern Bering Sea, which are also known as

23   one of the highly productive regions in the world (Vidal and Smith, 1986). Annual

24   mean B, and calculated Annual P and F of FISH/SQUID and MM/MB (Dall's porposes,

21

1 Whales and Marine birds) of this study are subject to large uncertainties. Nevertheless,

2 Annual F of animals at higher trophic level is matched by Annual P of their immediate

3 prey organisms in this simplified food chain (Fig. 4); FISHERY and Annual F by

4 MM/MB accounted to 27% (= $0.13 \times 100/0.48$) and 60% (= $0.29 \times 100/0.48$),

5 respectively, of Annual P of FISH/SQUID.

6 The trophic structure scheme in Fig. 4 is based on a grazing food chain and does

7 not include the microbial food chain. The latter is thought to be functional throughout

8 the year at the nearshore site (A3, Fig. 1) in the Oyashio region (Shinada et al., 2001).

9 Kobari et al. (2003) observed that the main diets of *Neocalanus* spp. changed from

10 diatoms to ciliates during April and July in the Oyashio region, suggesting the

11 importance of microbial food chains to support the food demands of these copepods in

12 summer. As part of mesozooplankton community at Site H (Table 2), small copepods

13 (*Oithona* spp., *Oncaea*/*Triconia* spp.) and ostracods may be associated closely with the

14 microbial food chain in the epipelagic/mesopelagic zones. In a recent study, grazing

15 of small copepods including *Oithona* spp. and *Pseudocalanus*, were found to account

16 for 70-99% of zooplankton grazing in the Greenland Sea during summer, when large

17 *Calanus* spp. (equivalent to *Neocalanus* spp. in the Oyashio region) descend to enter the

18 diapause (Møller et al., 2006). In addition, appendicularians have been thought to be a

19 component of secondary production characterized by an extremely high production

20 potential (Annual P/B ratio as high as 176 for the population in Toyama Bay, southern

21 Japan Sea, cf. Tomita et al., 1999). At Site H, a total of 23 appendicularian species

22 was recorded from the samples of the 1996-1997 sampling program, with *Oikopleura*

23 *longicauda* being the predominant species (Shichinohe, 2000). A sharp biomass peak

24 of *O. longicauda* was seen in September 1997 when phytoplankton biomass was low.

1   The lack of a close relationship between appendicularian biomass and phytoplankton

2   biomass was also noted in Toyama Bay, where the former peaked in June and the latter

3   in January-March (Tomita et al., 1999).   Because of the lack of appropriate data other

4   than biomass, we are unable to calculate production/consumption values for small

5   crustaceans and appendicularians in the Oyashio region in this study.   These gaps in

6   our knowledge need to be filled in future studies for a better understanding of pelagic

7   food chains in the Oyashio region.

8   In the coastal ecosystem of the Oyashio region (<150 m deep along the

9   southeastern coast of Hokkaido, cf. Fig. 1), Yamamura (2004) studied population

10   dynamics of walleye pollock (*Theragra chalcogramma*) and its associated prey (largely

11   *Euphausia pacifica*) consumption in a trophodynamic model.   His simulation led him

12   to conclude that the production of *E. pacifica* population was not sufficient to support

13   the pollock populations in this coastal region and suggested a possible advective supply

14   of the prey to the coastal ecosystem.   In the coastal zone, walleye pollack was reported

15   to be eaten extensively by minke whales during June and September (Tamura and Fujise,

16   2002).   According to Yamamura's simulation data, the annual mean biomass of *E.*

17   *pacifica* (10 gWW m^{-2}, or 1 g C m^{-2} using the same conversion factors as this study)

18   exceeds that of *Neocalanus* spp. (7.7 g WW m^{-2}, or 0.8 g C m^{-2}) and therefore generates

19   the largest component of the secondary production in the coastal zone.

20

21   *4.3. Ecosystem comparison*

22   In the previous East-West comparisons of the broad subarctic Pacific ecosystem,

23   the West data were represented by those at Station KNOT,   located in the southwest

24   edge of the western subarctic gyre (Fig. 1).   The major difference between the Oyashio

1   region (Site H) and KNOT is in their hydrography; the former is under the influence of

2   the cold and less saline water from the Okhotsk Sea.   The effects of the warm core

3   rings derived from the Kuroshio extension are also recognized in subsurface layers at

4   times at Site H (Fig. 2).   Because of this, the ranges in seasonal variations in surface

5   temperature and salinity observed at Site H (2-18°C and 32.2-33.5, cf. Fig. 2) are

6   slightly broader than those (2-15°C and 32.5-33.0, respectively) observed at KNOT.

7   In terms of primary production (new production) estimated from seasonal depletion of

8   nitrate (Wong et al., 2002), there are only small differences between the western

9   subarctic gyre (67 g C m^{-2} y^{-1}) and the Oyashio region (78 g C m^{-2} y^{-1}), despite the fact

10   that the spring/summer phytoplankton bloom in the former is reportedly less

11   pronounced (max. <2 mg chlorophyll a m^{-3}, Imai et al., 2002).   Mesozooplankton

12   assemblages are the same in the two regions, and life cycle patterns of *Neocalanus* spp.

13   (Kobari and Ikeda 1999, 2001ab), *Metridia* spp. (Padmavati et al., 2004) and *Eucalanus*

14   *bungii* (Shoden et al., 2005) have been evaluated as being synchronized in these two

15   regions.   The lack of time-series data of mesozooplankton over one year at KNOT

16   means that any determination of the regional differences in terms of annual mean

17   biomass is tenuous.

18   For ecosystem comparison we selected the Barents Sea (mean depth: 230 m, area:

19   1.4×10^{6} km^{2}, locating 70-80°N in the North Atlantic Ocean), the ecosystem dynamics

20   of which have been studied extensively (Sakshaug et al., 1994; Wassmann et al., 2006).

21   In the present comparison, Annual mean B, and Annual P and F data of Sakshaug et al.

22   (1994) were used, but revised Annual F data of Wassmann et al. (2006) were also used

23   (Table 1).   As the habitat of pelagic organisms, the northern part of the Barents Sea is

24   under the influence of cold Arctic currents (<0°C) and the southern part by the warmer

24

1   Atlantic currents (3-6°C).   Among the biological components in the Barents Sea,

2   "Calanus+krill" are the major herbivorous meso/macrozooplankton, and "capelin+cod"

3   are the major fish components.   Bearing in mind the differences in the environmental

4   conditions between the Oyashio region and the Barents Sea, the annual mean biomass

5   density of phytoplankton, mesozooplankton, fishes, whales and marine birds are the

6   same order of magnitude in these two ecosystems.   On the other hand, bacterial

7   biomass in the Barents Sea (0.4 g C m^{-2}) is one order of magnitude less than that (3.6) in

8   the Oyashio region.   The shallow ecosystem in the Barents Sea (230 m, as compared

9   with 2000 m in the Oyashio region) may be considered the major reason, since among

10   various planktonic taxa (phytoplankton, protozooplankton or mesozooplankton), the

11   biomass of bacteria per unit volume of water declines most slowly with depth, so that

12   the depth of integration affects the result most seriously in bacteria (Yamaguchi et al.,

13   2004).

14   No appreciable differences between the Oyashio region and the Barents Sea are seen

15   in Annual P of phytoplankton ("total" and "new") or of animal groups at equivalent

16   trophic levels such as fishes/squids versus Capelin+cod or whales plus Dall's porpoises

17   versus whales.   However, Annual P of bacteria is higher but that of Calanus+krill is

18   lower in the Barents Sea than the respective values in the Oyashio region.   In the light

19   of the rapid decline in bacterial P/B ratios with increasing depth (Nagata et al., 2000),

20   higher Annual bacterial P (despite lower biomass) in the Barents Sea ecosystem than the

21   Oyashio ecosystem may be due to much higher bacterial P/B ratios integrated over the

22   water column of the former (depth: 230 m) than the latter (2000 m).   Compared with

23   herbivorous mesozooplankton in the Oyashio region, lower Annual P of Calanus+krill

24   in the Barents may be interpreted as resulting from slower growth rates at lower water

1   temperatures ($<$0-6°C as compared with 2-18°C in the Oyashio region, cf. Fig. 2),

2   combined with its lower biomass.

3   Some differences are seen between the Annual F estimates as between Sakshaug

4   et al. (1994) and Wassmann et al. (2006) for the same animal groups, and Wassmann et

5   al. explained that this was due to an accumulation of stomach analysis data since the

6   study of Sakshaug et al.   Comparing the data of Wassmann et al. with ours, it is

7   evident that Calanus+krill in the Barents Sea consume only 1/10 of the food eaten by

8   herbivorous mesozooplankton in the Oyashio region.   As mentioned above, lower

9   water temperature in the Barents Sea and lower biomass density of Calanus+and krill as

10   representative herbivores are responsible for their lower food consumption.   Such

11   marked differences are not evident among animals at higher trophic levels ($\geq$3), and the

12   between-ecosystem differences in the Annual F of a given group (including fisheries)

13   hardly exceeds a factor of four.   Summed Annual F by the animals at trophic levels $\geq$3

14   and fisheries was greater in the Oyashio region (2.0 g C m^{-2}) than in the Barents Sea

15   (1.20, Wassmann et al. data), and the major source of differences is in Annual F

16   estimates between the groups of Fishes/Squids in the Oyashio region and Capelin+Cod

17   in the Barents Sea.

18   In the Barents Sea food chain, copepods (*Calanus finmarchicus* and *C. glacialis*),

19   capelin (*Mallotus villosus*) and herring (*Clupea harengus*) are regarded as key species,

20   mediating between phytoplankton and all large predators (cod, marine birds, seals and

21   whales) including fisheries (Sakshaug et al., 1994; Wassmann et al., 2006).   In the

22   pelagic food chain in the Oyashio region, the present results suggest that the top

23   candidates for keystone species status are the *Neocalanus* copepods, followed by

24   euphausiids (*Euphausia pacifica*), especially in coastal waters (Yamamura, 2004).

Pelagic fishes, such as Pacific saury or Japanese sardine/anchovy, play important roles,

but they are seasonal migrators to the Oyashio region and are subject to considerable

year-on-year variations in stock size (Ito et al., 2004).   While the scope of this study

was largely limited to the oceanic ecosystem of the Oyashio region, walleye pollock and

Steller sea lion (*Eumetopias jubatus*), in addition to euphausiids, are dominant

components of the coastal ecosystem of this region.

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Table 1. Annual mean biomass (B) and annual production (Annual P) of major component organisms in the pelagic ecosystems of the Oyashio region and Barents Sea. For details on "mesozooplankton", see Table 2. Annual food consumption (Annual F) was computed for the heterotrophic components (two estimates in the Barents Sea were separated by roman and italic). See text for details.

Food chain	Trophic level	Oyashio region (this study) Component organisms	B (g C m⁻²)	Annual P (g C m⁻²)	Annual F (g C m⁻²)	Barents Sea (Sakshaug et al., 1994; *Wassmann et al., 2006*) Component organisms	B (g C m⁻²)	Annual P (g C m⁻²)	Annual F (g C m⁻²)	*Annual F (g C m⁻²)*
Microbial	2	Bacteria	3.6[1]	14.4[11]		Bacteria	0.4	80		
	3	Microzooplankton	3.2[2]							
Grazing	1	Phytoplankton	6.6[3]	Total: 146[12]		Phytoplankton	2.0	110		
				New 78[13]				60		
	2	Mesozooplankton (herbivores)	6.6[4]	35.4[4]	118[19]	Calanus+krill	3.0	9.5		*9*
	3	Mesozooplankton (carnivores)	1.3[5]	5.7[5]	19[19]					
	3	Fish micronekton	0.64[6]	0.96[14]	3.2[19]					
	3	Crustacean micronekton	0.84[7]	0.67[15]	2.2[19]					
	3.5(3-4)	Fish/squids	0.6[8]	0.48[16]	1.6[19]	Capelin+Cod	0.72	0.3	0.35[24]	*0.9*
	4.5(4-5)	Dall's porpoises	0.0016[8]	0.00032[17]	0.041[20]	Seals	0.007	0.0003	0.06	*0.09*
	4(3-5)	Whales	0.03[9]	0.0015[18]	0.22[21]	Whales	0.042	0.0014	0.23	*0.05*
	4(3-5)	Marine birds	0.0005[10]	?	0.026[22]	Seabirds	0.001	0.0002	0.05	*0.11*
		Fishery			0.13[23]	Fishery (capelin)			0.085	*0.05*
		Summed Annual F for trophic levels 3.5-4.5			**2.02**				**0.775**	**1.20**

1) Matsunaga and Yamaguchi (unpublsihed), Appendix 1
2) Yamaguchi *et al*. (2002) at KNOT
3) Calculated from Kasai *et al*. (2001) assuming C/Chl*a* ratio = 60
4) Herbivorous copepods and euphausiids (cf. Table 2)
5) Carnivorous species (cf. Table 2)
6) Yokokura and Yamaguchi (unpublished), Appendix 3
7) Kanazawa and Ikeda (unpublished), Appendix 3
8) Springer (1999)
9) The total of Minke, Brydes, Sei and Sperm whales
10) Hunt *et al*. (2000)
11) Annual P/B = 4 is assumed from 0-4000 m data of Nagata *et al*. (2000)
12) Kasai (2000)
13) Wong *et al*., (2002)
14) Annual P/B = 1.5 from Banse and Mosher's (1980) equation 13
15) Annual P/B = 0.8 from Banse and Mosher's (1980) equatopn 4
16) Annual P/B = 0.8 from Banse and Mosher's (1980) equation 13
17) Annual P/B = 0.2 from Banse and Mosher's 1980) equation 14
18) Annual P/B = 0.05 from Banse and Mosher's (1980) equation 14
19) F = 3.33 × P (cf. Ikeda and Motoda, 1978)
20) F = B × 0.07 × 365 (Hunt *et al*., 2000)
21) F = B × 0.04 × 180 (Tamura, 1998)
22) WTZ data (92 day summer) assuming prey with 3kj g⁻¹ (Hunt *et al*., 2000)
23) Annual landing from Northwest Pacific 1.3 × 0.2 × 0.5 (Area 61, FAO, 1997)
24) Cod only

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Table 2. Annual mean biomass (B, separated into 0-250 and 250-2000 m depth strata), annual production:biomass (Annual P/B) ratios, caloric content of females reached maturity (M) and annual production (Annual P) of various zooplankton species at Site H in the Oyashio region, western subarctic Pacific Ocean. Bold figures denote key herbivores and italic ones key carnivores in this region. Contribution of biomass of each species to the total is noted as %.

Group	Species	B (mgC m^{-2}) 0-250m	0-2000m	(%)	Annual P:B	(M: ×10^{-3}Kcal)	Annual P (mgC m^{-2})
Copepods	*Neocalanus cristatus*	**790.5**	**2454**[1]	**29.9**	**5.0**[15]		**12270**
	Neocalanus plumchrus	**306**	**1206.5**[1]	**14.7**	**5.2**[15]		**6274**
	Neocalanus flemingeri	**103**	**479.5**[1]	**5.8**	**5.3**[15]		**2541**
	Eucalanus bungii	**360**	**1322**[2]	**16.1**	**5.6**[16]	**2.90**	**7403**
	Metridia pacifica	**256**	**533**[3]	**6.5**	**6.2**[17]		**3305**
	Metridia okhotensis	**34**	**305**[3]	**3.7**	**5.7**[16]	**2.85**	**1739**
	Pleuromamma scutullata	**0**	**55.5**[4]	**0.7**	**6.0**[16]	**2.43**	**333**
	Gaidius variabilis	**0**	**110.5**[5]	**1.3**	**5.8**[16]	**2.65**	**641**
	Heterorhabdus tanneri	*0*	*41*[4]	*0.5*	*5.9*[16]	*2.59*	*242*
	Paraeuchaeta elongata	*0*	*105*[6]	*1.3*	*3.2*[16]	*13.0*	*336*
	Paraeuchaeta rubra	*0*	*71.5*[6]	*0.9*	*2.8*[16]	*20.0*	*200*
	Paraeuchaeta birostrata	*0*	*154*[6]	*1.9*	*2.3*[16]	*32.0*	*354*
	Oncaea/Triconia spp.	0	80[7]	1.0			
	Oithona spp.	100	100[8]	1.2			
Chaetognaths	*Sagitta elegans*	*108.5*	*108.5*[9]	*1.3*	*3.3*[16]	*12.4*	*358*
	Eukrohnia hamata	*0*	*449*[9]	*5.5*	*4.6*[16]	*4.92*	*2065*
	Eukrohnia bathypelagica	*0*	*137.5*[9]	*1.7*	*4.6*[16]	*4.92*	*633*
	Eukrohnia fowleri	0	29[9]	0.4			
Amphipods	*Themisto pacifica*	*31*	*31*[10]	*0.4*	*9.1*[10]		*282*
	Themisto japonica	*19.5*	*19.5*[10]	*0.2*	*11.6*[10]		*226*
	Primno abyssalis	*0*	*17.5*[10]	*0.2*	*2.1*[10]		*37*
	Cyphocaris challengeri	*0*	*36.5*[10]	*0.4*	*4.5*[10]		*164*
Ostracods	*Discoconchoecia pseudodiscophora*	0	33[11]	0.4			
	Orthoconchoecia haddoni	0	45.5[11]	0.6			
	Metaconchoecia skogsbergi	0	8.5[11]	0.1			
Coelenterates	*Aglantha digitale*	*93*	*93*[12]	*1.1*	*8.7*[17]		*809*
Euphausiids	*Euphausia pacifica, Thysanoessa* spp.	**154**	**154**[13]	**1.9**	**6.4**[18]		**986**
Appendicularians	*Oikopleura* spp.	31	31[14]	0.4			
TOTAL		2396.5	8221	100			41199

1) Kobari and Ikeda (2000)
2) Shoden (2000), Appendix 2
3) Padmavati (2002), Appendix 2
4) Yamaguchi and Ikeda（2000a)
5) Yamaguchi and Ikeda（2000b)
6) Yamaguchi and Ikeda（2001)
7) Nishibe and Ikeda (2004)
8) Kaneko (2005), Appendix 2
9) Nishiuchi (1999), Nishiuchi and Ikeda (unpublished data), Appendix 2
10) Yamada et al. (2002), Yamada and Ikeda (2006)
11) Kaeriyama and Ikeda (2002)
12) Takahashi and Ikeda (2006)
13) Okazaki and Ikeda (unpublished), Appendix 2
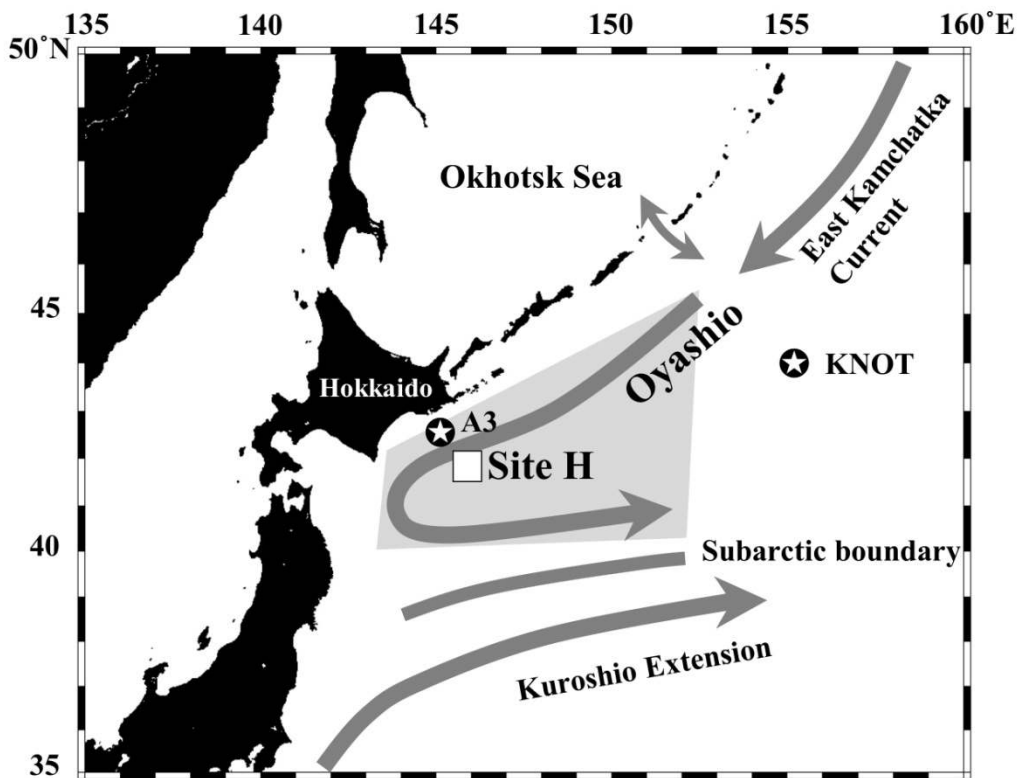14) Shichinohe (2000). Appendix 2
15) Kobari et al. (2003)
16) $\log_{10}(P/B) = -0.34\log_{10}M - 0.16$ (Banse and Mosher,1980)
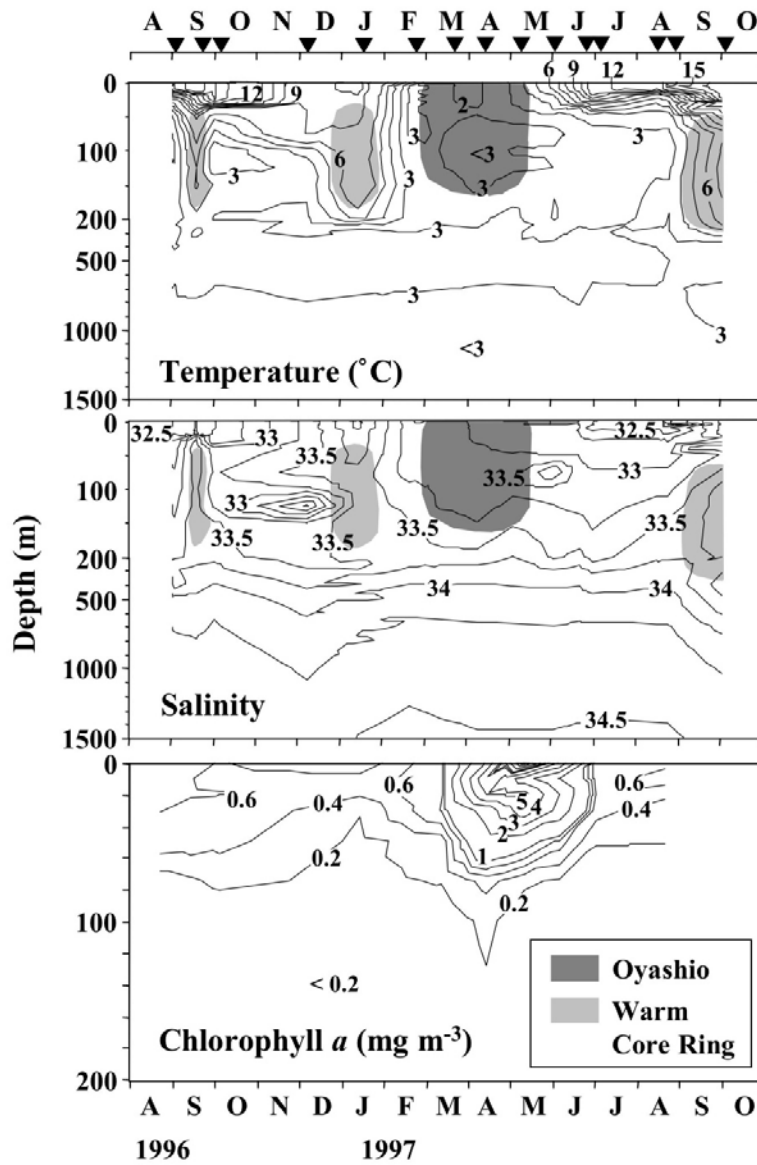17) Ikeda (unpublished)

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Fig. 1.   Current systems (arrowed) and the Oyashio region (shaded) in the western

subarctic Pacfic Ocean.   Locations of Site H, A3 and KNOT are

superimposed

A S O N D J F M A M J J A S O
6 9 12 15

Temperature (°C)

Depth (m)

Salinity

Chlorophyll *a* (mg m⁻³)

< 0.2

Oyashio
Warm
Core Ring

A S O N D J F M A M J J A S O
1996　　　　　1997

Ikeda et al. Fig.2

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2　　　Fig. 2. Seasonal changes in temperature (top), salinity (middle) and chlorophyll

3　　　a (bottom) at Site H in the Oyashio region.　Incidences of the Oyashio and

4　　　effects of Warm Core Rings are shown in (a) and (b).　Note different depth scale

5　　　in (c).　Solid triangles on abscissa denote sampling dates.

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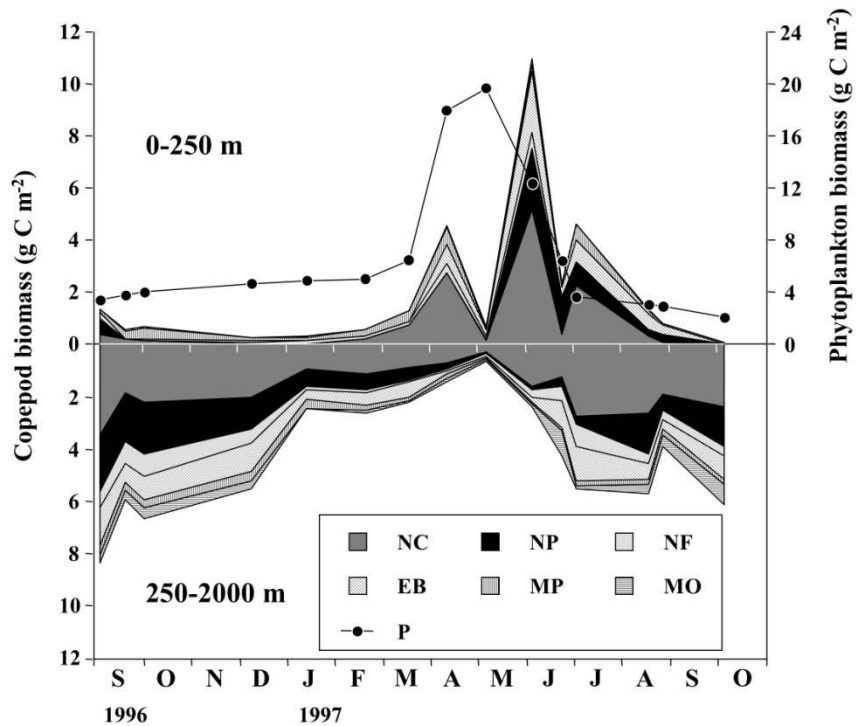
Ikeda et al. Fig. 3

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4   Fig. 3. Seasonal changes in the biomass of large/medium-sized copepods in the two

5   depth strata (0-250 and 250-2000 m) at Site H in the Oyashio region.

6   Concomitant changes in phytoplankton biomass (closed circles) are

7   superimposed in the 0-250 m panel.   Copepod abbreviations; NC=*Neocalanus*

8   *cristuatus*, NP=*Neocalanus plumchrus*, NF=*Neocalanus flemingeri*,

9   EB=*Eucalanus bungii*, MP=*Metridia pacifica*, MO=*Metridia okhotensis*.
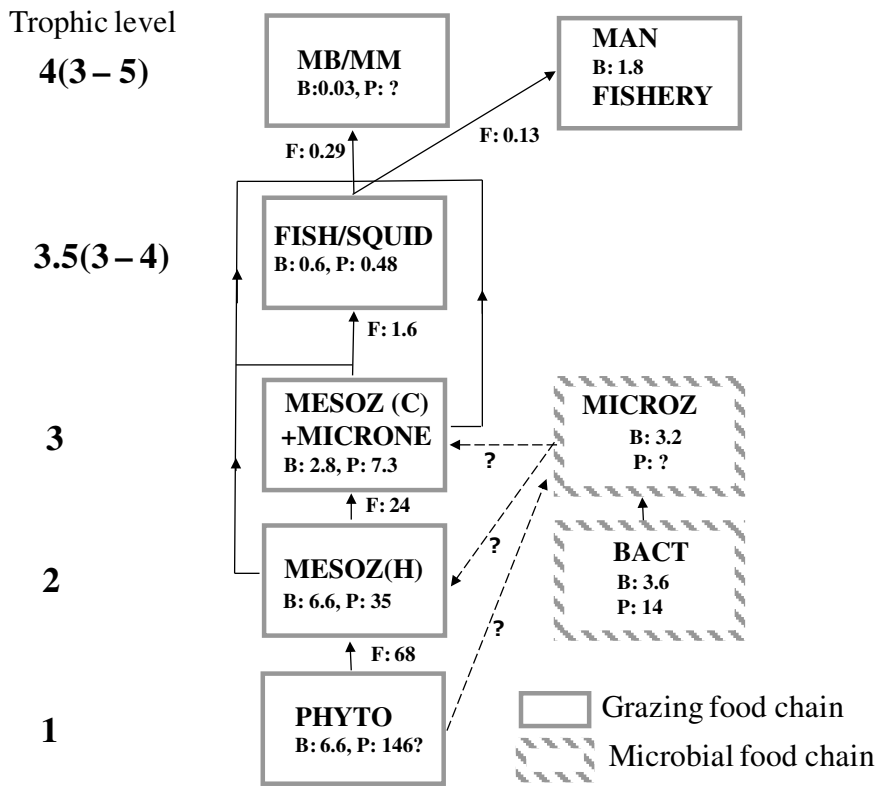
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Ikeda et al. Fig.4

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4 Fig. 4. Schematic presentation of trophic structure (including grazing and microbial

5   food chains) of the oceanic ecosystem in the Oyashio region, as expressed by

6   its biomass (annual mean) distribution (B: g C m^{-2}) and carbon flow through

7   the grazing food chain based on annual production (P: g C m^{-2} y^{-1}).   Figures

8   alongside the arrows denote annual consumption (F: g C m^{-2} y^{-1}).   Human

9   biomass density (MAN) on Japanese islands and fishing impacts (FISHERY)

10   are superimposed in the top right panel for comparison.   For detailed figures

11   see text.

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Appendix 1. Biomass of heterotrophic bacteria at Site H during May-December 2002. Unit: mgC m^{-3} (Matsunaga and Yamaguchi, unpublished).   See text for details.

Depth	19-May-02	7-Jun-02	13-Jul-02	9-Aug-02	9-Oct-02	18-Dec-02
0	14.7	11.15	14.42	23.36	10.35	3
5	14.91	11.83	12.03	21.67	23.12	5.42
10	15.58	12.61	12.42	19.85	15.78	8.09
20	22.17	11.37	15.13	16.81	13.66	4.14
30	15.9	23.76	14.6	11.83	19.96	4.75
40	10.38	8.29	6.99	8.42	6.75	5.36
50	7.79	7.09	7.17	7.97	5.73	4.72
75	5.71	4.52	5.58	5.69	4	4.54
100	4.73	4.06	3.81	3.7	3.04	2.24
125	4.45	3.93	4.84	3.81	3.36	3.65
150	4.48	3.2	3.42	3.44	2.84	5.45
200	2.83	2.95	2.49	3.49	2.6	3.96
300	3.41	2.45	1.93	3.48	1.78	3.05
400	3.06	2.51	0.97	1.99	1.64	2.2
500	1.17	1.13	0.73	1.83	1.04	0.98
750	1.01	0.9	0.55	1.03	1	1.56
1000	1.21	0.68	0.52	0.86	0.96	1.46
1250	1.02	1.08	0.48	0.72	0.87	1.03
1500	0.76	1.57	0.36	0.54	0.71	0.64
1750	0.93	1.37	0.45	0.54	0.68	0.74
2000	0.59	1.19	0.2	0.3	0.53	0.77
2250	0.31	0.65	0.21	0.34	0.5	0.48
2500	0.69	0.69	0.15	0.27	0.3	0.56
2750	0.3	0.7	0.19	0.38	0.3	0.31
3000	0.5	0.18	0.34	0.37	0.4	0.29
0-3000 (mgC m^{-2})	4220	4318	2591	3705	3362	3703

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Appendix 2. Biomasses integrated over 0-2000 m of copepods [*Eucalanus bungii* (Shoden, 2000), *Metridia pacifica* and *M. okhotensis* (Padmavali, 2002), and *Oithona* spp. (Kaneko, 2005)], chaetognaths [*Sagitta elegans*, *Eukrohnia fowleri*, *E. bathypelagica*, and *E. hamata* (Nishiuchi and Ikeda, unpublished)], euphausiids (Okazaki and Ikeda, unpublished) and *Oikopleura* spp. (Schinohe, 2000) at Site H during September 1996-October 1997. Unit: mg DM m^{-2} (0-2000 m). ND: not determined. See text for details.

Date	E. bungi	M. pacifica	M. okhotensis	Oithona spp.	S. elegans	E. fowleri	E. bathypelagica	E. hamata	Euphausiids	Oikopleura spp
4-Sep-96	3471	994	630	282	600	75	175	1150	61.9	28.85
19-Sep-96	1430	1109	891	ND	175	0	200	525	17.7	582.51
2-Oct-96	1933	1506	821	ND	550	0	150	975	11.2	228.92
8-Dec-96	2288	1134	607	392	175	0	225	1500	9.4	40.61
13-Jan-97	866	906	184	ND	75	0	175	400	5.8	0.24
20-Feb-97	1042	723	328	ND	175	50	250	450	33.5	0.07
17-Mar-97	1362	945	186	ND	75	100	300	625	19.4	0.24
11-Apr-97	1854	1624	325	76	250	0	250	950	13	0.2
7-May-97	650	157	300	ND	175	0	175	525	10.6	0.54
4-Jun-97	5081	630	692	ND	725	0	350	1075	45.9	7.76
23-Jun-97	2751	591	1869	ND	250	0	225	1350	22.8	0.61
2-Jul-97	4336	1633	180	ND	475	200	400	1275	123	0.44
17-Aug-97	2388	660	800	ND	175	50	325	850	315	70.31
26-Aug-97	1344	689	855	ND	100	150	225	750	33.3	24.41
5-Oct-97	1893	504	1580	131	75	0	225	950	18.1	329.7

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Appendix 3. Biomasses of micronektonic decapods and mysids (Kanazawa and Ikeda, unpublished) and micronektonic fishes (Yokokura and Yamaguchi, unpublished) at Site H during August 2002-August 2003. D/N: Day and Night samples were combined to calculate means. Unit: g WM m^{-2} (0-1000 m). See text for details.

Dates	Day/Night	Decapods	Mysids	Fishes
9-Aug-02	D/N	3.55	2.58	1.51
9-Oct-02	D/N	8.59	1.95	7.44
11-Feb-03	D	4.54	4.83	7.44
13-Mar-03	N	2.82	7.88	8.96
11-May-03	D/N	4.66	3.15	2.67
21-May-03	D/N	2.57	1.75	5.61
4-Jun-03	D	5.28	1.16	2.59
15-Jun-03	D	1.32	0.54	3.8
28-Jun-03	D	2.28	0.97	1.94
23-Aug-03	N	8.55	1.23	8.15

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