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Secondary sexual characteristics in codfishes (*Gadidae*) in relation to sound production, habitat use, and social behaviour

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1 **Secondary sexual characteristics in codfishes (*Gadidae*) in relation to sound**
2 **production, habitat use, and social behaviour**

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11 **Running head;** Secondary sexual characteristics in codfishes (*Gadidae*)

12

13 **Abstract**

14 Little is known about the reproductive biology of the codfishes (Gadidae). Lacking direct
15 observations, the study of secondary sexual characteristics can provide cues to their
16 reproductive biology and behaviour. We reviewed here published accounts on sexual
17 dimorphisms in 25 gadids in light of their general lifestyle, i.e. pelagic or demersal, and social
18 behaviour. In addition, complementary data on fin lengths and drumming muscle size in
19 haddock (*Melanogrammus aeglefinus*), saithe (*Pollachius virens*), blue whiting
20 (*Micromesistius poutassou*) and cod (*Gadus morhua*) are presented. Capacity for sound
21 production occurred in almost half of the studied species, but was most prevalent in demersal
22 species, where it is probably used in resource contests and to attract mates. For semi-pelagic
23 gadids, we postulate that sound production may be linked to the formation of male-biased
24 spawning shoals and the attraction of females towards such shoals; we identify candidate
25 species to further test this hypothesis. Though rarely studied, sexual fin dimorphisms occur in
26 several gadids. Cod, saithe and blue whiting males have longer pelvic fins than females,
27 whereas no such dimorphism was observed in haddock. In cod and haddock, males use pelvic
28 fins during courtship of females and agonistic encounters with other males. Pelvic fins
29 probably have a similar function also in other gadids. The hitherto available information on
30 sexually dimorphic traits and/or courtship behaviour in 7 gadid species suggests that complex
31 mating systems and non-random mate choice occurs frequently in this important group of
32 exploited fishes.

33

34 **Key words;** Codfishes, sexual selection, mating systems, fin dimorphisms, sound
35 production

36 **Introduction**

37 Sexual selection, typically through female choice of certain male traits, can lead to the
38 emergence of secondary sexual characteristics or sexual dimorphisms, provided there is a
39 genetic component to the variation in said trait (Ryan 1997). Such traits are thought to give
40 females either a direct, e.g. more offspring produced, or indirect, e.g. higher quality offspring,
41 benefit. Sexual selection can result in sexual dimorphism in size, body structure or colour
42 (e.g. Kodric-Brown 1990, Hendry & Berg 1999, Gardner 2010). Teleost examples abound
43 and include the genus *Xiphophorus* where males develop ‘swordtails’ or elongated caudal fins
44 (Basolo 1990a) and females show preference for males with longer swords (Basolo 1990b),
45 whereas dominant black goby *Gobius niger* (Linnaeus, 1758) males have a distinct dark
46 nuptial colouration (Mazzoldi & Razzotto 2002). Given that sexual dimorphisms are
47 commonly closely linked to reproductive behaviour, they may therefore provide important
48 insights into the mating systems of species that are poorly understood.

49 The codfishes (family Gadidae) comprise numerous species of which many are of
50 significant commercial and cultural importance and have been harvested for thousands of
51 years (Cohen et al. 1990). Despite this, little is known about their mating behaviour and
52 reproductive systems, because most spawn in the ocean at depths where direct observations of
53 spawning behaviour are difficult. Only Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua* Linnaeus, 1758) and
54 haddock (*Melanogrammus aeglefinus* Linnaeus, 1758) have been subject to close scientific
55 scrutiny.

56 Laboratory studies have demonstrated that during the reproductive period, male cod
57 and haddock court females and there is pronounced aggression between males (Brawn 1961a,
58 b; Hutchings et al. 1999; Hawkins & Amorim 2000). In cod, these behaviours appear to be
59 energetically costly (Skjæraasen & Hutchings 2010; Skjæraasen et al. 2010a) and linked to
60 individual male reproductive success (Rowe et al. 2008), suggesting the presence of female

61 choice (Rowe et al. 2008; Skjæraasen et al. 2010b). Concurrent with these displays male cod
62 and haddock also produce sound (Brawn 1961a; Hawkins & Amorim 2000). In the field, male
63 cod are observed to form dense sex-biased shoals (Morgan & Trippel 1996; Nordeide 1998),
64 which females appear to visit at the time of mating (Robichaud & Rose 2001; Meager et al.
65 2009, 2010). The cod mating system has therefore been suggested to resemble a lek
66 (Hutchings et al. 1999; Nordeide & Folstad 2000; Windle & Rose 2007; Meager et al. 2010).

67 Cod and haddock vocalise during reproductive displays with ‘drumming muscles’,
68 large pairs of striated muscles attached to the swim bladder (Brawn 1961c; Hawkins &
69 Amorim 2000; Nordeide et al. 2008). These muscles are larger in cod and haddock males than
70 females during the reproductive period (Hawkins 1993; Engen & Folstad 1999). Hawkins and
71 Rasmussen (1978) examined sound production and drumming muscles in nine gadid species
72 and found that they were present in all sound producing species, but not in ‘silent’ species.
73 Similarly, the pelvic fins of male cod are also used in both courtship and aggressive
74 behaviours (Brawn 1961a,b) and are larger in males than females (Skjæraasen et al. 2006).
75 Examination of secondary sexual dimorphisms in combination with insights into shoaling
76 dynamics and lifestyle thus represents a useful tool for making inferences about the
77 reproductive behaviour and thereby sexual selection of species difficult to observe in the field.

78 Here we review the literature on the presence of sound production and sexual
79 dimorphisms in gadids in the light of their general lifestyle, i.e. pelagic or demersal, and,
80 where such information was available, shoaling behaviour during reproduction (Table 1). In
81 addition we present new data on fin lengths and drumming muscle size in four common North
82 Atlantic gadids; haddock, saithe (*Pollachius virens* Linnaeus, 1758), blue whiting
83 (*Micromesistius poutassou* Risso, 1826) and cod.

84

85 **Material and Methods**

86 All fish sampled for the purpose of the present study were sourced from the Institute of
87 Marine Research surveys conducted between February and April 2007. Northeast Arctic
88 (NEA) haddock and saithe (~ N 70° 38, E 20° 50) were caught in the Barents Sea. Cod were
89 sourced from catches at the main spawning grounds for NEA cod in Lofoten (67° 38, E 1°
90 30). Blue whiting were caught in the Faroe-Shetland Channel (~ N 59° 48, W 07° 43). See
91 Table 2 for further information on sample sizes. All fish were frozen to – 30° C immediately
92 upon capture, and subsequently transported to a freezer room (– 30° C) at the University of
93 Bergen until they were measured in June–July 2008.

94

95 **Laboratory measurements of fin lengths and drumming muscle size**

96 Fish were first thawed for approximately 16–20 hours before total length (± 1 cm) and body
97 weight (± 1 g) was measured. We then measured the length of the longest pelvic and pectoral
98 fin ray from the base of the fin to the tip of the ray with callipers (± 1 mm). For the three
99 dorsal and two anal fins we followed the procedure of Engen & Folstad (1999) and measured
100 the length of the third fin ray along the length of the spine, counting in a head-to-tail
101 direction. This is usually the longest fin ray. The only exception to this procedure was the first
102 dorsal fin of haddock where we measured the length of the first fin ray, which is the longest
103 fin ray for haddock. Only whole, undamaged fin rays were measured.

104 Fish were then gutted and sexed based on macroscopic examination of the gonads. All
105 drumming muscles were subsequently removed using forceps. These were placed in
106 numbered aluminium trays and dried at 60° C and weighed daily (± 0.0001 g) until the weight
107 remained stable and no more weight loss occurred to obtain muscle protein weight and
108 exclude water. We took the utmost care to remove and only weigh the drumming muscle itself
109 and not any connective fibres or swimbladder tissue.

110

111 **Data analyses**

112 In addition to the results of the present study, we examined published research on gadids for
113 records of sexual dimorphisms, drumming muscles, sound production, reproductive
114 behaviour, spawning shoaling dynamics, and habitat association.

115 For the new data, we tested for sexual dimorphisms by comparing pelvic-fin length or
116 drumming-muscle mass between sexes using ANCOVAs. We controlled for the effect of
117 body size by including total length as the covariate for analyses involving fin length as the
118 response variable, and total weight in analyses where drumming muscle mass was the
119 response variable. The initial models also contained an interaction term between the
120 categorical variable sex and slope. If this parameter was not significant, i.e. slopes were
121 homogenous, a standard ANCOVA analysis was applied. All mass and length data, i.e. both
122 the response and covariate variables, were log_e-transformed to meet the assumption of
123 normality and to linearise allometric relationships. We also investigated the variability in
124 pelvic-fin length and drumming-muscle mass by comparing the coefficient of variance (CV)
125 for each trait, because theory suggests that sexually selected characters exhibit large
126 individual variation (Andersson 1994).

127 We then used partial correlation to measure correlation between pelvic-fin length and
128 drumming muscle mass while correcting for total body length. This test determined if there
129 was a trade-off between pelvic-fin length and drumming-muscle size, i.e. do males with large
130 pelvic fins have small drumming muscles after controlling for fish size (e.g. Engen & Folstad
131 1999). All three variables were log_e-transformed to linearise relationships.

132

133 **Sexual dimorphism in morphological characters**

134 *Drumming muscles*

135 Sound production has now been described in more than 800 teleosts world wide (Kaatz 2002).
136 Sound can be produced by various means such as extruding gas through the cloaca (Wilson et
137 al. 2004) or rubbing fins together (Fine et al. 1996), but the most common mechanism of
138 making sound in teleosts is contracting muscles attached to the swimbladder wall, i.e. the
139 ‘drumming muscles’ (Ladich & Fine 2006).

140 In accordance with the results of Hawkins & Rasmussen (1978), drumming muscles
141 were present in cod and haddock, but not in saithe and blue whiting (Table 1). For haddock,
142 there was a strong, significant difference in drumming muscle size between males and
143 females with males having bigger muscles ($F_{(1,75)}=251$, $p<0.0001$, Fig.1). Overall, the slopes
144 of the drumming muscle size-body size relationships did not differ between sexes ($p>0.05$),
145 but this result was strongly influenced by a single point: a male with a very small drumming
146 muscle (Fig. 1A). If this male was excluded from the analysis, the difference in drumming
147 muscle mass between the sexes increased with size ($F_{(2,73)}=251$, $p<0.0001$, Fig. 1A). For a
148 given body weight male haddock also had larger drumming muscles than male cod
149 ($F_{(1,95)}=80.5$, $p<0.0001$, Fig 1AB, Table 2). The partial correlation coefficients did not
150 indicate that males with bigger drumming muscles had shorter pelvic fins for either cod
151 ($r=0.108$, $p=0.47$) or haddock ($r=0.096$, $p=0.53$).

152 Cod mating sounds consist of calls of short duration, i.e. grunts and hums (Brawn
153 1961c; Finstad & Nordeide 2004), whereas haddock can produce long pulses lasting for
154 several seconds with a number of ‘knocks’ (Hawkins & Amorim 2000). The larger drumming
155 muscle size of male haddock compared to similarly-sized cod (Table 2, Hawkins 1993) thus
156 concurs with their larger vocal repertoire. The observed sexual dimorphism in haddock
157 drumming muscle was also noted by Hawkins (1993). Sound production may vary between

158 populations (Mann & Lobel 1998; Parmentier et al. 2005; Amorim et al. 2010) and
159 individuals (Amorim et al. 2011); for cod, such differences in the frequency of vocalisations
160 are positively associated with drumming muscle mass (Rowe & Hutchings 2006).

161 The presence of drumming muscles has, to our knowledge, been examined in 25
162 different gadids (family Gadidae) to date (Table 1). Eleven species possess well developed
163 drumming muscles in the adult stage; eight of these have a predominantly demersal lifestyle.
164 The only clear exceptions were the benthopelagic Atlantic cod, walleye pollock (*Theragra*
165 *chalcogramma* (Pallas, 1811)) and the pelagic/benthopelagic pollack (*Pollachius pollachius*
166 (Linnaeus, 1758)) (Table 1). It seems further likely that sound production during reproduction
167 is not only found in the Gadidae family, but instead could be more widespread in the order
168 Gadiformes. Indeed, drumming muscles have been reported for European hake (*Merluccius*
169 *merluccius* (Linnaeus, 1758)) (Groison et al. 2011). Many gadiforms are demersal, a lifestyle
170 that appears to favour sound production (Table 1).

171

172 *Fin lengths*

173 Sexual fin dimorphisms are found in many teleosts (e.g. Ostrand et al. 2001; Park et al. 2001)
174 and may take on very elaborate forms (e.g. Kottelat et al. 2006; Britz & Conway 2009).

175 Notably, we found only the pelvic fin to be sexually dimorphic in the gadids examined. There
176 was no sexual dimorphism in dorsal, anal or pectoral fins for haddock, saithe or blue whiting
177 ($p > 0.05$ for all cases). In contrast, pelvic fins were sexually dimorphic with males having
178 longer fins than females for saithe ($F_{(1,108)}=9.09$, $p<0.01$, Fig. 2) and blue whiting
179 ($F_{(1,29)}=17.9$, $p<0.001$, Fig. 2), but not for haddock ($F_{(1,72)}=0.798$, $p=0.38$). The slopes of the
180 fin length-body length relationships did not differ between sexes for either species ($p>0.05$).
181 Fin lengths were not compared between sexes for Northeast Arctic cod, because only 2 out of
182 the 50 sampled fish were females (Table 2), but cod have previously been shown to possess

183 sexually dimorphic pelvic fins (Skjæraasen et al. 2006). Fish were generally well above the
184 size at which maturation is expected to occur (Table 2).

185 Our results concur with the results of Andersen & Jakupstova (1978) who detected
186 sexual dimorphism only in the pelvic fins of blue whiting and Engen & Folstad (1999) who
187 examined the ventral and dorsal fins of Norwegian coastal cod and found them not to be
188 dimorphic. Sexual dimorphism in the pelvic fins is not restricted to gadids, but has also been
189 reported for various other families (e.g. Schenck & Whiteside 1977; Barbieri et al. 1992;
190 Oliveira, & Almada 1995; Kottelat et al. 2006; Britz & Conway 2009; Arbour et al. 2010).
191 Yamanoue et al. (2010) proposed that the pelvic fin may be more readily modified by sexual
192 selection than other fins given their limited use for propulsion during swimming.

193 In our complementary data analysis we tested whether sexually dimorphic traits had a
194 larger CV in males than females. The coefficient of variation (CV) was generally lower for fin
195 lengths than for body weight or drumming muscle mass, but we found no indication that
196 males had a larger CV than females in the sexually dimorphic traits (Table 2). These findings
197 match the results of Skjæraasen et al. (2006); potential explanations for why this occurs are
198 outlined there and therefore not reiterated here.

199

200 **Sexual dimorphisms in relation to habitat use, sound production and social** 201 **behaviour**

202 Sexual dimorphisms can give insights into mating systems. For example, in *Paedocypris*
203 *progenetica* (Kottelat, Britz, Tan & Witte, 2006) the males possess modified pelvic fins with
204 hypertrophied muscles and a keratinized pad in front of the pelvic girdle (Kottelat et al. 2006).
205 This is thought to function as a clasping or holding device used during reproduction to either
206 facilitate internal fertilization, secure the male's position on a spawning site, or give males the
207 possibility to manipulate eggs.

208 Compiling the limited drumming muscle data and general life-history information of
209 the different gadid species, some patterns emerge. Firstly, drumming muscles, and
210 presumably sound production appear common, but occur predominantly in demersal species
211 (Table 1). As in other teleosts, gadids use sound production for social communication (Ladich
212 & Fine 2006). The main contexts in which sound production occurs are male mating calls and
213 aggressive vocal displays towards other males during the reproductive period and in food and
214 territorial contests (Hawkins 1993). The latter may thus involve both juveniles and adults
215 throughout the year. Arguably, territorial contests are more likely to occur at the seafloor
216 where potential landmarks may make resources defensible (Brawn 1961c). Tentatively
217 supporting this, some of the world's most highly vocal fish are both demersal and highly
218 territorial such as Lusitanian toadfish *Halobatrachus didactylus* (Bloch & Schneider, 1801)
219 and plainfin midshipman *Porichthys notatus* (Girard, 1854) (e.g. Bass et al. 2008; Amorim et
220 al. 2010). Saithe are interesting as they possess drumming muscles as juveniles when
221 occupying the demersal, benthic habitat, but lack these muscles in the adults that are pelagic
222 (Hawkins & Rasmussen 1978). For saithe, the primary function of sound production may thus
223 be to support interference competition for food or shelter or social aggregation formation
224 during the juvenile phase.

225 Drumming muscles are absent in most pelagic/semi-pelagic gadids examined to date
226 (Table 1). The only exceptions were the benthic-pelagic cod and walleye pollock and the
227 pelagic/benthic-pelagic pollack. Interestingly, the pelagic whiting (*Merlangius merlangus*
228 (Linnaeus, 1758) exhibit similar reproductive behaviour to cod and haddock, but drumming
229 muscles are absent and no sounds are produced during reproduction (Hawkins & Rasmussen
230 1978). Hence, although sound production is associated with courtship and aggression in cod
231 and haddock, it is not an obligatory feature of gadid reproductive behaviour.

232 It has been suggested that sound production in male haddock may be important in
233 attracting distant females to male-biased spawning aggregations (Hawkins and Amorim
234 2000). This is known as acoustic chorusing, and has been well studied in other taxa such as
235 insects and lekking anurans (e.g. Ryan et al 1981; Castellano et al 2009). Fishing targeted at
236 northeast Atlantic haddock spawning shoals produce catches dominated by males, clearly
237 indicating that haddock do indeed form such sex-biased shoals (Knut Korsbrekke, Institute of
238 Marine Research, Bergen, Norway, *pers. comm.*).

239 Male cod aggregate in reproductive shoals that resemble leks and produce a loud
240 chorus that can be detected several kilometers away (Nordeide & Kjellsby 1999; Nordeide &
241 Folstad 2000). Formation of similar sex-biased shoals has also been noted for walleye pollock
242 (Baird & Olla 1991 and references therein), but has hitherto not been examined in the sound-
243 producing benthopelagic/pelagic pollack. Interestingly, the benthopelagic gadoid European
244 hake possess drumming muscles (Groison et al. 2011), and the closely related Argentinean
245 hake (*Merluccius hubbsi* Marini, 1933) form sex-biased shoals off the Patagonian coast
246 (Martin Ehrlich, INIDEP, Buenos Aires, Argentina, *pers. comm.*). Previously it has been
247 suggested that sound production in gadids may be linked to fish size in relation to predation
248 pressure, i.e. larger gadids are safer from predators and have much lower risk when producing
249 sound (Hawkins & Rasmussen 1978), and, secondly, that it is mostly absent in schooling fish
250 (Hawkins 1993). Whilst our comparative analysis does not dismiss such explanations (Table
251 1), we suggest that there is clearly merit in examining whether sound production is also linked
252 to the formation of sex-biased spawning shoals whenever present in semi-pelagic gadids.
253 Obvious candidates for a comparative study are the sound-producing benthopelagic/pelagic
254 pollack and the ‘silent’ pelagic saithe (Table 1).

255

256 The male pelvic fin likely has a special significance during reproduction in gadids. It has been
257 shown to be used prominently in both courtships towards females and during antagonistic
258 interactions between males for cod and haddock (Brawn 1961a, b; Hawkins & Amorim
259 2000). Similar reproductive behaviour has also been observed for walleye pollock (Baird &
260 Olla 1991; Park et al. 1994) and whiting (Hawkins & Rasmussen 1978), which thus might be
261 expected to also show the same fin dimorphisms. Given the observed dimorphism in blue
262 whiting and saithe (Fig. 2), similar courtship and antagonistic displays may be present in these
263 species as well. It is curious that the pelvic fins were not sexually dimorphic in haddock,
264 despite their documented use in haddock reproductive behaviour (Hawkins & Amorim 2000)
265 and in contrast to the dimorphisms exhibited by our other study species. We can only
266 hypothesize as to the causes, but it may be that their large investment in drumming muscle
267 size (Fig. 1) and the associated, complex (Hawkins & Amorim 2000), energetically costly
268 sound production (e.g. Amorim et al. 2002) has hindered the development of sexually
269 dimorphic pelvic fins.

270

271 **Concluding remarks**

272 Our review of previously published accounts indicates that drumming muscles, and as a
273 consequence, sound production, is common in gadids, and seems to be associated primarily
274 with the benthic habitat. Close to the bottom, sound production probably has a function during
275 both contests for food and territories, and for mate attraction and agonistic encounters
276 between males, mainly during the reproductive season. For pelagic/bentho-pelagic gadids, the
277 presence of drumming muscles may be linked to the formation of sex-biased spawning shoals
278 during spawning, but more research is needed to further investigate this assumed function.
279 The sexually dimorphic pelvic fins are likely to play an important role during reproduction in
280 some North Atlantic gadids, potentially in support of male courtship and aggressive displays.

281 Sexually dimorphic traits and/or courtship behaviour have been studied only in few gadid
282 species so far. Complex mating systems and non-random mate choice may be widespread and
283 hence we encourage morphological studies to shed light into the reproductive biology of this
284 important group of partially heavily exploited fishes. Such studies should preferably also be
285 designed in a way that makes it possible to further disentangle inter-, intrasexual, and natural
286 selection and their differential influences on dimorphic characters (e.g. Lailvaux & Irschick
287 2006, Bonduriansky 2007, Clutton-Brock 2009).

288

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296

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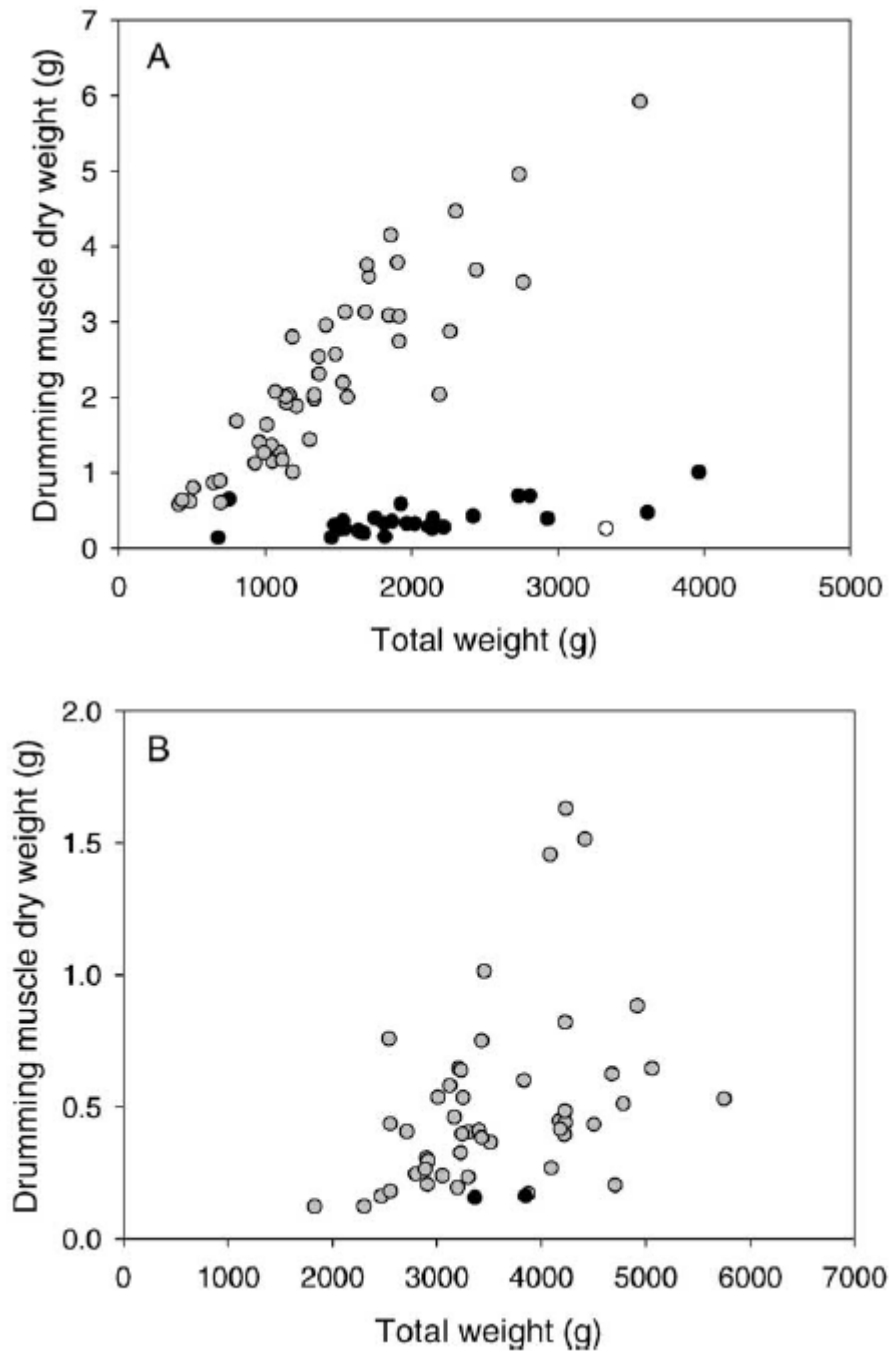
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445 **Figure Legends**



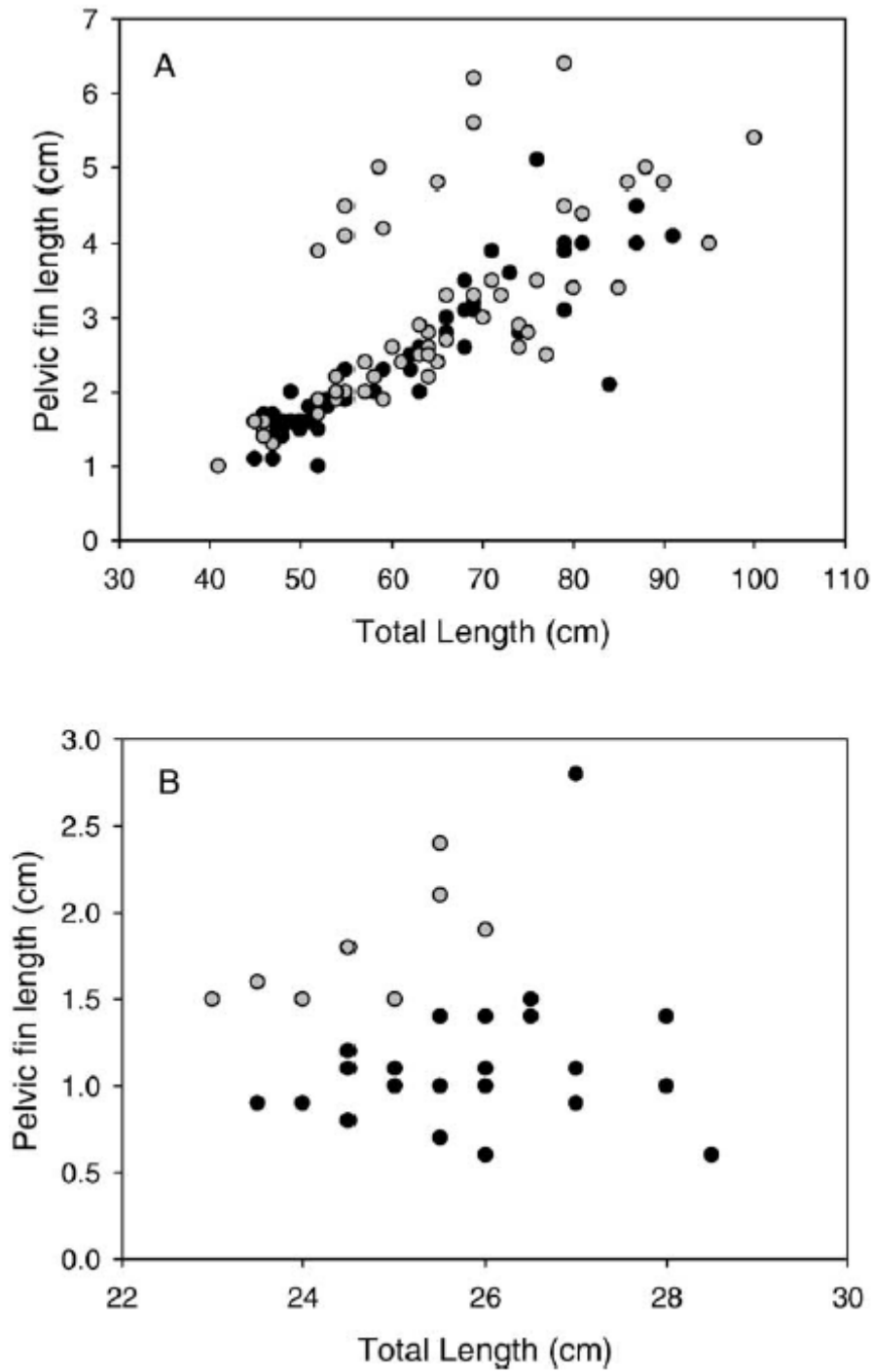
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447 Figure 1. Drumming muscle mass of male (grey) and female (black) (A) haddock

448 (*Melanogrammus aeglefinus*) and (B) cod (*Gadus morhua*). The white point (A) indicates the

449 'outlier' male mentioned in the results. Note the different scales on the y-axes of both graphs.

450



451

452 Figure 2. Pelvic - fin versus total length of male (grey circles) and female (black circles) (A)

453 saithe (*Pollachius virens*) and (B) blue whiting (*Micromesistius poutassou*).

454 **Table 1.** Summary table of information on adult habitat, social behaviour and sexual dimorphism in codfishes (Gadidae); maximum size (total length, cm); reproductive
 455 behaviour (RB); presence of, and sexual dimorphism in drumming muscles (D, drumming muscle present, SD, sexually dimorphic drumming muscle), and the presence of
 456 sexual pelvic-fin length dimorphism (PFD) sorted according to habitat. Under 'Habitat', D denotes demersal, P denotes pelagic, and BeP denotes benthopelagic. Under 'RB',
 457 A denotes the presence of aggressive behaviour and C courtship behaviour during reproduction. Under D/SD the first Y denotes the presence of drumming muscles and *
 458 indicates that actual sound production of the species has been recorded. The second Y indicates that the drumming muscle have been shown to be sexually dimorphic. ** -
 459 juvenile, but not adult saithe possess a drumming muscle. N denotes the absence of a drumming muscle/ pelvic - fin dimorphism. '-' Indicates that the species in question has
 460 not been examined for this particular trait. Data on habitat and maximum size (cm) were obtained from the FAO species catalogue (Cohen et al. 1990).

Species	Habitat	Size	RB	D/SD	PFD	References
<i>Melanogrammus aeglefinus</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	D	100	AC	Y*/Y	N	Hawkins & Rasmussen 1978; Hawkins & Amorim 2000; this study
<i>Raniceps raninus</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	D	30	-	Y*/-	-	Hawkins & Rasmussen 1978
<i>Gadus ogac</i> (Richardson, 1836)	D	70	-	Y/-	-	Hawkins & Rasmussen 1978
<i>Boreogadus saida</i> (Lepechin, 1774)	D	40	-	Y/-	-	Hawkins & Rasmussen 1978
<i>Molva molva</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	D	200	-	Y/-	-	Hawkins & Rasmussen 1978
<i>Molva dypterygia</i> (Pennant, 1784)	D	155	-	Y*/-	-	Hawkins & Rasmussen 1978 – only examined in males
<i>Brosme brosme</i> (Ascanius, 1772)	D	110	-	Y/-	-	Hawkins & Rasmussen 1978
<i>Gaidropsarus mediterraneus</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	D	50	-	Y*/-	-	Almada et al. 1996
<i>Gaidropsarus vulgaris</i> (Yarrell, 1836)	D	60	-	N	-	Hawkins & Rasmussen 1978
<i>Ciliata mustela</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	D	25	-	N	-	Hawkins & Rasmussen 1978
<i>Enchelyopus cimbrius</i> (Linnaeus, 1776)	D	41	-	N	-	Hawkins & Rasmussen 1978
<i>Microgadus proximus</i> (Girard, 1854)	D	30	-	N	-	Hawkins & Rasmussen 1978
<i>Eleginus navaga</i> (Pallas, 1811)	D	42	-	N	-	Hawkins & Rasmussen 1978
<i>Eleginus gracilis</i> (Tilesius, 1810)	D	55	-	N	-	Hawkins & Rasmussen 1978
<i>Pollachius virens</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	P	130	-	N**	Y	Hawkins & Rasmussen 1978, this study
<i>Gadiculus argentus</i> (Guichenot, 1850)	P	15	-	N	-	Hawkins & Rasmussen 1978
<i>Micromesistius poutassou</i> (Risso, 1826)	P/BeP	50	-	N	Y	Andersen and Jákupsstova 1978; Hawkins and Rasmussen 1978; this study
<i>Pollachius pollachius</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	P/BeP	75	-	Y*/-	-	J. Nilsson, Institute of Marine Research, Bergen, Norway, <i>pers. comm</i>
<i>Trisopterus esmarkii</i> (Nilsson, 1855)	P/BeP	20	-	N	-	Hawkins & Rasmussen 1978
<i>Trisopterus minutus</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	BeP	40	-	N	-	Hawkins & Rasmussen 1978
<i>Trisopterus luscus</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	BeP	45	-	N	-	Hawkins & Rasmussen 1978
<i>Gadus morhua</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	BeP	200	AC	Y*/Y	Y	Brawn 1961 ab; Morgan & Trippel 1996; Engen & Folstad 1999; Skjæraasen et al. 2006
<i>Merlangius merlangus</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	BeP	70	AC	N	-	Hawkins & Rasmussen 1978
<i>Theragra chalcogramma</i> (Pallas, 1811)	BeP	80	C	Y/-	-	Hawkins & Rasmussen 1978; Baird & Olla 1991; Onuki & Somiya 2006
<i>Gadus macrocephalus</i> (Tilesius, 1810)	BeP	100	N	N	-	Sakuri & Hattori 1996

461

462 **Table 2.** Summary of morphological measurements. Mean (M) and coefficient of variance
 463 (CV) of total length (TL, cm), total weight (TW, g), drumming-muscle dry weight (DR, g)
 464 and lengths (cm) of the first (D1), second –(D2), and third dorsal - (D3) fin, pectoral (PF),
 465 pelvic (PL), pectoral (PF), and first (A1) and second (A2) anal fin (all lengths are given in
 466 cm). Numbers in parentheses indicate sample size. Not all fin measurements were conducted
 467 on each sample.

	Blue whiting				Haddock				Saithe				Cod			
	♂ (10)		♀ (25)		♂ (50)		♀ (27)		♂ (56)		♀ (57)		♂ (48)		♀ (2)	
	M	CV	M	CV	M	CV	M	CV	M	CV	M	CV	M	CV	M	CV
TL	24.9	0.06	25.8	0.05	49.8	0.16	53.1	0.13	65.0	0.21	60.6	0.21	70.9	0.09	68	-
TW	99	0.27	103	0.17	1450	0.48	2010	0.36	2806	0.67	2393	0.68	3570	0.23	3613	-
DR	-	-	-	-	2.2	0.57	0.37	0.55	-	-	-	-	0.50	0.68	0.16	-
D1	2.4	0.09	2.4	0.17	6.3	0.17	6.7	0.18	4.0	0.27	3.7	0.28	5.5	0.17	5.8	-
D2	2.1	0.14	2.4	0.14	3.4	0.35	3.5	0.16	3.2	0.29	2.9	0.29	4.4	0.22	4.6	-
D3	1.6	0.10	1.5	0.22	2.5	0.31	2.6	0.20	2.0	0.48	1.6	0.42	4.6	0.16	4.6	-
PF	3.0	0.14	3.1	0.10	5.2	0.26	5.7	0.16	5.3	0.22	4.9	0.25	6.6	0.11	6.5	-
PL	1.8	0.19	1.1	0.39	3.4	0.20	3.5	0.14	3.1	0.41	2.4	0.41	5.6	0.10	5.1	-
A1	1.8	0.15	1.9	0.14	3.7	0.22	4.1	0.18	3.8	0.27	3.5	0.30	4.9	0.25	4.9	-
A2	1.6	0.06	1.5	0.15	2.6	0.30	2.83	0.20	2.1	0.51	1.6	0.45	4.8	0.12	4.8	-

468