

Support for the Slope Sea as a major spawning ground for Atlantic bluefin tuna: evidence from larval abundance, growth rates, and particle-tracking simulations

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1 Abstract

2 Atlantic bluefin tuna (*Thunnus thynnus*) are commercially and ecologically valuable, but
3 management is complicated by their highly-migratory lifestyle. Recent collections of bluefin
4 tuna larvae in the Slope Sea off the Northeast United States have opened questions about
5 how this region contributes to population dynamics. We analyzed larvae collected in the
6 Slope Sea and the Gulf of Mexico in 2016 to estimate larval abundance and growth rates,
7 and used a high-resolution regional ocean circulation model to estimate spawning locations
8 and larval transport. We did not detect a regional difference in growth rates, but found that
9 Slope Sea larvae were larger than Gulf of Mexico larvae prior to exogenous feeding. Slope
10 Sea larvae generally backtracked to locations north of Cape Hatteras and would have been
11 retained within the Slope Sea until the early juvenile stage. Overall, our results provide
12 supporting evidence that the Slope Sea is a major spawning ground that is likely to be
13 important for population dynamics. Further study of larvae and spawning adults in the
14 region should be prioritized to support management decisions.

15 Keywords:

16 Atlantic bluefin tuna, larval transport, otolith, biological-physical modeling, *Thunnus thyn-*
17 *nus*

18 Introduction

19 Atlantic bluefin tuna (*Thunnus thynnus*) are an iconic marine species—valuable to com-
20 mercial and sport fishers alike, and ecologically important for their role as top predators.
21 However, their highly migratory life cycle complicates the study and management of their
22 populations because individuals routinely cross international boundaries and utilize different
23 areas of the ocean on both short (annual) and long (lifespan) time scales (Mather, Ma-
24 son, and Jones, 1995). Tagging studies (Block et al., 2005; Galuardi and Lutcavage, 2012;
25 Block et al., 2001), otolith microchemistry (Rooker et al., 2008; Rooker et al., 2014), and
26 population movement models (Kerr et al., 2013) have advanced our understanding of adult
27 movements and stock structure. Still, there are outstanding questions about the distribution
28 of spawning and larval habitat that can affect our life cycle models and, as a result, resource
29 management decisions.

30 Although the prevailing understanding is that Atlantic bluefin tuna (bluefin hereafter)
31 comprise two populations with strong natal homing to spawning grounds in the Gulf of
32 Mexico and the Mediterranean Sea, there has long been speculation that spawning may
33 occur in other regions (Mather, Mason, and Jones, 1995; Lutcavage et al., 1999). Evidence
34 from tagging in the Western Atlantic has shown that large individuals (presumed mature)
35 may not visit either the Gulf of Mexico or the Mediterranean during the spawning season
36 (Galuardi et al., 2010; Block et al., 2005). Studies of gonad status have also suggested that
37 some Western bluefin spawn much closer to the Gulf of Maine feeding grounds than the Gulf
38 of Mexico (Baglin, 1976; Goldstein et al., 2007). Furthermore, although very few bluefin
39 under 210 cm fork length (FL) are observed in the Gulf of Mexico (Richardson et al., 2016a;
40 Diaz and Turner, 2007), reproductive hormones indicate that individuals as small as 134 cm
41 FL are reproductively capable (Heinisch et al., 2014). Larval surveys near Cuba, the Straits
42 of Florida, and the Blake Plateau have all found some larval bluefin, but never in numbers
43 or abundance high enough to compare with the Gulf of Mexico and Mediterranean spawning
44 grounds (McGowan and Richards, 1989; Lamkin et al., 2019).

45 In 2013, larval bluefin were collected during ecosystem sampling in the Slope Sea, a wedge
46 of ocean bounded by the U.S. shelf break and the Gulf Stream as it peels away from the
47 U.S. east coast, at abundances comparable to levels typically found during the annual larval
48 bluefin tuna surveys in the Gulf of Mexico (Richardson et al., 2016a). Together with past
49 lines of evidence from tagging, histology, and reproductive hormones, an alternate hypothesis
50 of bluefin life history was put forward: that both the Eastern and Western stocks exhibit
51 maturity at 3-5 years of age, but that younger Western bluefin spawn in the Slope Sea until
52 they reach a size where the longer migration to the Gulf of Mexico is favorable (Richardson
53 et al., 2016a). The younger bluefin tuna that are hypothesized to occupy the Slope Sea
54 during the spawning season were estimated, as a spawning class, to have a higher biomass
55 than the older bluefin tuna that occupy the Gulf of Mexico, which in combination with the
56 larval abundances in the Slope Sea, led to the classification of this region as a third major
57 spawning ground (Richardson et al., 2016a; Richardson et al., 2016b).

58 The response to this discovery has been mixed, with some voices expressing skepticism
59 about the origin of larvae or asserting that classification as a spawning ground was premature
60 (Walter et al., 2016; Safina, 2016) and others arguing that it calls for more innovative studies
61 to resolve our understanding of bluefin life history (Di Natale, 2017). In order to assess the
62 classification of the Slope Sea as a major spawning ground, it is necessary to obtain more
63 years of larval sampling and to focus on estimates of larval abundance instead of catch per
64 tow (Walter et al., 2016). Although the temperature and transport conditions in the Slope
65 Sea are suitable for bluefin spawning, larval growth, and larval retention (Rypina et al., 2019;
66 Rypina et al., 2021), there are important open questions about whether conditions in the
67 Slope Sea actually support larval bluefin growth and survival. Another argument against
68 the assertions of Richardson et al. (2016a) is that drifter transit times were used to imply
69 that larvae could not have originated in the Gulf of Mexico, but actual spawning locations
70 were not estimated (i.e., via particle backtracking simulations). Additionally, evidence of
71 Slope Sea spawning activity by adults has not been conclusively shown, partly because

72 tagging has focused primarily on the largest individuals which routinely visit the Gulf of
73 Mexico (Block et al., 2005). Tagging studies on the sizes that are most likely to use the
74 Slope Sea for spawning (134-220 cm fork length; Richardson et al. 2016a; Heinisch et al.
75 2014) and histological collections within the Slope Sea would help identify what proportion
76 of adults in various size classes are reproductively active in the area. Finally, a major
77 open question regards the implications of Slope Sea residency and spawning for population
78 structure and mixing between the eastern and western stocks, which has prompted new
79 studies of population genetics (Puncher et al., 2018; Rodríguez-Ezpeleta et al., 2019).

80 In this paper, we further evaluate the importance of the Slope Sea as spawning habitat
81 for Atlantic bluefin tuna, and argue that larval observations from 2016 continue to support
82 the classification of the Slope Sea as a third major spawning ground. We calculated the
83 abundance of bluefin tuna larvae from sampling on several cruises in the Slope Sea in the
84 summer of 2016 as well as revisiting the 2013 observations to estimate abundance. Using
85 otoliths from larvae collected in 2016 in both the Slope Sea and the Gulf of Mexico, we
86 analyzed larval growth and compared larval growth in the two regions. Finally, we used a
87 high-resolution ocean circulation model to estimate the locations of spawning activity that
88 would have led to our larval observations in 2016 and to investigate retention of larvae within
89 the Slope Sea region until the onset of directed swimming.

90 **Methods**

91 **Larval sampling methods**

92 Larval samples from the Slope Sea were collected in 2016 during two cruises off the U.S.
93 northeast continental shelf, conducted by the Northeast Fisheries Science Center (NEFSC)
94 of the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA).

95 The first set of samples used in this study were collected during an approximately 72 hour
96 transit of the NOAA Ship *Gordon Gunter* from Rhode Island to Norfolk, Virginia, from June

17 to 20, 2016 (Cruise ID GU1608). Plankton sampling was performed at 24 stations (63% of these occurred during the day) along the transit. Net tows employed a bongo net with 61-cm diameter openings and 333- μm mesh, with an additional 20-cm bongo net with 165- μm mesh mounted 0.5 m above the larger bongo, and a CTD mounted 1 m above the smaller one. In order to target the depths occupied by larval bluefin tuna and billfish (Habtes et al., 2014; Reglero et al., 2018a) and minimize sampling time, the net was lowered to 25 m and brought back to the surface over a 5 minute period, and this was repeated for a total tow duration of approximately 10 minutes. Tow locations were spaced evenly on transects crossing the north wall of the Gulf Stream in order to target a gradient of habitat characteristics. Specifically, using information from the 2013 collections of bluefin tuna in the Slope Sea (Richardson et al., 2016a) and satellite-derived sea surface temperature data, sampling stations were chosen that crossed from colder waters, through waters presumed to be suitable for bluefin larvae, and into the Gulf Stream waters presumed to be less suitable. Samples from all 4 nets were preserved in 95% ethanol which was refreshed after 24 hours.

The second set of samples were collected during the Atlantic Marine Assessment Program for Protected Species (AMAPPS) between June 27 and August 25 on the NOAA Ship *Henry B. Bigelow* (Cruise ID HB1603). The primary objective of the AMAPPS survey was to evaluate the abundance and distribution of marine mammals, sea turtle and seabirds in the US Exclusive Economic Zone off the northeast United States (Northeast Fisheries Science Center and Southeast Fisheries Science Center, 2016). Visual survey lines were broken into two strata. The first stratum has narrowly spaced lines from the 100 m isobath across the shelfbreak to the Slope Sea. The second stratum is further offshore and over deeper water with the survey lines more widely spaced (Figure S1). The AMAPPS cruise collected plankton samples along the survey lines to provide an ecosystem context for the protected species sightings. Sampling locations were not predetermined, but rather were timed to minimize disruption to the continuous daytime visual surveys. In general, plankton tows were conducted to begin the day (approximately 0500 local time), at lunchtime (approximately

124 1200), and after visual surveys were completed for the day (approximately 1800). These
125 standard samples were collected with a 61-cm bongo net with 333- μ m mesh, with a CTD
126 mounted on the wire 1 m above the bongo. The bongo was deployed to 200 m or within 5 m
127 of the bottom, in an oblique tow at outgoing wire speed of 50 m/min and incoming wire speed
128 of 20 m/min. One of the net samples was preserved in 95% ethanol to preserve otoliths and
129 DNA of ichthyoplankton, and the other net sample was preserved in 5% formaldehyde and
130 seawater to optimize the morphological identification of zooplankton. The ethanol-preserved
131 sample was refreshed after 24-48 hours.

132 In addition to these standard day-time bongo samples, additional plankton sampling was
133 carried out at night (36% of total number of bongos tows were performed at night), in areas
134 where the bottom depth exceeded 1000 m. At these nighttime stations, the standard 61-cm
135 bongo was deployed according to the standard protocol described above for the daytime
136 samples. An additional tow with a weighted 2-by-1 m frame net with 333- μ m mesh was used
137 to increase catch of bluefin tuna and other ichthyoplankton for aging and genetic analyses;
138 deployments of this net were double-oblique tows to 25 m over a 10 minute period. Samples
139 from the frame net were preserved in 95% ethanol and the ethanol was refreshed after 24-48
140 hours. Each of the 61 cm bongo and 2-by-1 m frame nets were deployed with a General
141 Oceanics flowmeter. However, we do not use the 2-by-1 m frame nets in our abundance
142 calculations because previous work indicates that catchability of tuna is different in these
143 samples when compared to standard bongo tows (Habtes et al., 2014).

144 **Laboratory processing of plankton samples**

145 From nearly every bongo station on GU1608 and HB1603, one of the net samples was
146 processed at the Morski Instytut Rybacki in Szczecin, Poland, following established protocols
147 for both ichthyoplankton (Walsh et al., 2015) and zooplankton analyses (Kane, 2007). For the
148 ichthyoplankton analysis, all fish larvae, fish eggs and cephalopod paralarvae were removed
149 and counted. Fish larvae were then identified to the lowest possible taxonomic category

150 and larval body length was measured with an ocular micrometer. Identification of scombrid
151 larvae, including bluefin tuna, were then verified at the Narragansett Laboratory of the
152 Northeast Fisheries Science Center using criteria described in Richards and Potthoff (1974).

153 Amongst the samples not sent to Poland, samples likely to contain bluefin tuna larvae
154 were processed to make ethanol-preserved individuals available for otolith and genetic anal-
155 yses. Stations that were most likely to contain bluefin tuna larvae were identified as those
156 with bottom depth exceeding 1000 m, SST exceeding 22°C, and sea surface salinity of 34.5-36
157 PSU. Bongo samples matching these specifications were sorted under a light microscope to
158 extract all ichthyoplankton. From these ichthyoplankton, bluefin tuna (*Thunnus thynnus*)
159 were identified using morphological characters (Richards and Potthoff, 1974) and species
160 identification for 3 of these fish was confirmed using genetic markers. A lower number of
161 larval bluefin tuna was subjected to genetic identification in this study relative to Richard-
162 son et al. (2016a) in order to ensure that sufficient sample sizes (N=80) were provided for
163 population genetics studies.

164 We sorted 11 samples collected with the smaller bongo net (20-cm diameter with 165- μ m
165 mesh) to evaluate whether there was extrusion of small bluefin tuna larvae from the 333- μ m
166 mesh in the 61-cm bongo. Information on the 3 small bongo samples that contained tuna
167 larvae is provided in Table S1. Some of the bluefin larvae identified from the 20-cm bongo
168 samples were used for ageing, but they were not included in calculations of abundance.

169 Bluefin tuna larvae from the Slope Sea that were processed in the U.S. were photographed
170 using either a Leica M205 microscope with a phototube, or Nikon SMZ-1500 microscope with
171 a Nikon Ri-2 camera and imaging software. The scale for photographs was determined using
172 a microscope calibration slide. Fish standard lengths were measured in ImageJ from the tip
173 of the bottom jaw to the tip of the notocord for pre-flexion larvae or to the point of flexion
174 in post-flexion larvae.

175 Larval distribution maps and larval abundance

176 For the Slope Sea collection, we generated a map of the estimated abundance of bluefin tuna
177 larvae from 61-cm bongo net tows (including tows to both 200 m and 25 m depth). This
178 abundance is a point-estimate at each sampling location, and is a relative measure, since
179 catchability of larval fishes can be affected by vessel speed, net configuration, and day/night
180 cycles. When both nets of the bongo station were processed, we summed the number of
181 larvae and the volume filtered from the two nets of the bongo. Abundance for each tow,
182 expressed as n per 10 m² is calculated as $a_i = 10 * n_i / v_i * h_i$, where n_i is the number of
183 individuals collected, v_i is the volume filtered, and h_i is the range of depth sampled (Irissou
184 et al., 2010). We plot negative observations (abundance of 0 larvae per m²) only at bongo
185 sampling locations deeper than 1000 m and between June 17 (when our sampling starts) and
186 August 15 (two weeks after our last collected larval bluefin). There were two bongo sampling
187 stations that meet these criteria that were not processed in Poland or the U.S., so those two
188 stations are excluded from maps and calculations of larval abundance. The cutoffs of June
189 17th and August 15th cover all of the dates when larvae were observed in the Slope Sea in
190 both 2016 (this paper) and 2013 (Richardson et al., 2016a). These dates are also consistent
191 with expectations from temperature-based estimates of the timing of spawning and larval
192 occurrence in the Slope Sea (Reglero et al., 2018b; Rypina et al., 2019). We follow the
193 methods of previous work on the Slope Sea (Richardson et al., 2016a) and focus on depths
194 greater than 1000 m because the northeast U.S. shelf is extensively sampled for plankton by
195 NOAA and bluefin larvae have rarely been found there.

196 However, we recognize that, because larval sampling has occurred in the Slope Sea in only
197 a few years, the choice of which samples to include or exclude can impact the abundance
198 estimates. If spawning occurs during a discrete time period with a single peak spawning time,
199 and exhibits a spatial pattern with decreased spawning activity with increasing distance from
200 the center of the spawning region, averaging over a larger area or a longer time period will
201 result in lower average larval abundance estimates. As such, we calculated mean larval

202 abundance using a variety of configurations and report the duration of sampling and total
203 area sampled for that configuration (Table S2). In particular, we looked at the effects of
204 only including stations at 1000 m or deeper, of including the GU1608 cruise which performed
205 targeted sampling across the north wall of the Gulf Stream, and of varying the sampling dates
206 included. The larval bluefin survey in the Gulf of Mexico typically samples from April 20 to
207 May 31, a duration of 42 days; in 2016, Gulf of Mexico sampling occurred between April 30
208 and May 30, a period of 31 days. We also calculated the abundance in the Gulf of Mexico
209 in 2016 and in the Slope Sea in 2013. In all of these cases, we restrict analyses to samples
210 collected with 61-cm bongo frames with 333- μ m nets.

211 Additionally, we utilized the AMAPPS survey design (Figure S1) to estimate stratified
212 mean abundance for bluefin larvae collected during the AMAPPS cruises in 2016 and 2013,
213 with multiple timing windows. The stratified means are calculated by using the spatial
214 overlay tools in the R packages *sp* (version 1.4-2) and *rgdal* (version 1.5-23) to identify
215 stations falling within each stratum. We used a Universal Transverse Mercator projection,
216 with the WGS84 datum, zone 18, to calculate stratum areas. The stratified mean is the
217 mean of values within each stratum, weighted by stratum area.

218 We also report the area covered by each sampling configuration. For stratified mean
219 configurations, the area is the sum of the areas of the two strata. For all other configurations
220 in the Slope Sea, we calculated the convex hull of sampling locations with a 28 km buffer
221 (approximately 0.25°latitude/longitude), and estimated the area in a WGS84 projection,
222 zone 18. To estimate the area covered by sampling in the Gulf of Mexico, we manually drew
223 a 0.25°latitude/longitude buffer around the sampling grid (following Scott et al., 1993), and
224 estimated the area in a WGS84 projection, zone 16.

225 **Age and growth analyses**

226 Larval otoliths display daily growth increments, with each increment corresponding to one
227 day of growth since the onset of exogenous feeding (Brothers, Mathews, and Lasker, 1976).

228 From the identified larvae in the Slope Sea samples, 66 bluefin tuna larvae were selected
229 for otolith analyses across the range of stations and lengths sampled. Of those 66, 9 larvae
230 had issues with preservation (desiccation of tissues or otolith dissolution) that prevented
231 successful extraction of otoliths.

232 Otoliths were extracted from individual larvae with dissecting pins; both sagittae and
233 lapillae were extracted and placed flat side down on a glass microscope slide in Type B
234 immersion oil. Otoliths were imaged with a Leica DM2500 compound microscope with an
235 oil-immersion 100X objective lens; images were taken with a Leica MC120 HD camera and
236 the Leica Application Suite software. Images were calibrated using a stage micrometer.
237 Otoliths were read in ImageJ using the ObjectJ plug-in. All extractions and reads were
238 performed by the same reader. For each larva, sagittae and lapillae were identified based
239 on otolith radius, because the sagittae are larger. If two sagittae had been extracted, the
240 clearest was selected for reading. There were 8 larvae for which we were able to extract
241 and photograph only 1 or 2 otoliths. Among these 8, there were 3 fish from which we had
242 extracted 2 otoliths with a visible size difference. This leaves 5 for which we could not use
243 visual cues to determine if we had extracted a sagittal otolith (for 3 larvae, we extracted 1
244 otolith, and for another 2 larvae, we extracted 2 otoliths that did not have a visually obvious
245 size difference). After reading otoliths from all larvae (see below), we analyzed how these 5
246 larvae were distributed on a plot of otolith radius vs. otolith increments (Figure S2). We
247 found that 3 of the otoliths in question fell in the middle of the distributions of otolith radius,
248 given the number of increments. The other 2 otoliths were the two smallest amongst otoliths
249 with 2 daily increments. These 2 fish were excluded from the subsequent analyses.

250 The selected images of sagittal otoliths, one per larva, were read once, the order of the
251 images was shuffled, and they were read again. If the two reads yielded ages within ± 1
252 day, the second read was retained. If the two reads differed by more than 1 day, a third read
253 was performed. If the third read agreed to within ± 1 day of either the first or second
254 read, then the third read was retained. If the third read differed by more than 1 day from

255 both the first and second reads, then that fish was not retained in age analyses.

256 In addition to the Slope Sea samples, otoliths were analyzed from 143 larval bluefin tuna
257 collected in the Gulf of Mexico in 2016 by the Southeast Fisheries Science Center (SEFSC) as
258 part of the Southeast Area Monitoring and Assessment Program (SEAMAP). These larvae
259 were collected by oblique tows of a 61-cm bongo, either following the standard protocol with
260 333- μm mesh to a sampling depth of 200 m, or with 505- μm mesh to a sampling depth of 10 m.
261 The 143 larvae that were examined were selected to cover a range of locations, oceanographic
262 conditions, and sizes. For all of these larvae, standard length was also measured. The same
263 protocols were used for extracting otoliths as for the Slope Sea larvae. Otoliths for Gulf of
264 Mexico bluefin larvae were imaged with a Zeiss Axio Scope.A1 compound microscope with
265 an oil-immersion 100X objective lens; images were taken with a Qimaging MicroPublisher
266 3.3 RTV camera and ImagePro Plus 7 software.

267 Both the Slope Sea and Gulf of Mexico otoliths from 2016 were read by the same reader
268 following consistent protocols for marking images and quality control of reads. After quality
269 control, 52 larval otoliths from the Slope Sea and 142 from the Gulf of Mexico were retained
270 for age and growth analyses.

271 We used linear least-squares to fit age-length relationships for the Slope Sea and Gulf of
272 Mexico data sets. Because the Slope Sea data set had no larvae with more than 8 increments,
273 and few larvae with more than 4 increments, we also estimated best-fit lines for three subsets
274 of the data: larvae from the Gulf of Mexico with 0-8 increments, larvae from the Gulf of
275 Mexico with 0-4 increments, and larvae from the Slope Sea with 0-4 increments. The slopes
276 of these lines are estimates of the daily growth rates for each of the data sets or subsets.

277 We used an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) approach to determine if there is a signif-
278 icant effect of region on either the slope or intercept of the linear models of the age-length
279 relationships. We pooled the data from the Gulf of Mexico and the Slope Sea, and added a
280 factor for region. We then used the *aov* function in R (version 4.0.2) to fit a linear model to
281 these data, including an interaction term between the number of increments and the region.

282 This function returns a p-value for each covariate and the interaction term. If the interaction
283 term was not significant, we interpreted this as no significant difference in the slopes of the
284 two regression lines. We then used the *aov* function without the interaction term to test for a
285 significant effect of region on the intercept of the best-fit lines. We performed this step-wise
286 analysis for all larvae with 0-8 increments, and then a second time for the subset of larvae
287 with 0-4 increments.

288 Otolith radius tends to be strongly correlated with larval length, so the width of each
289 daily increment is a proxy for daily growth rate, and the distance (or radius) to each daily
290 increment is a proxy for length at age (Sponaugle et al., 2009). We measured the increment
291 width for increments within a given otolith starting from the first daily growth ring (e.g.,
292 a larva with 5 increments marked will yield 4 increment widths, corresponding to 4 days of
293 larval growth). To control for effects such as selective mortality, we restricted our analysis
294 of Gulf of Mexico increment widths and otolith radii to only those larvae with 8 or fewer
295 increments, since the oldest larva in our Slope Sea data set has 8 increments. For each
296 regional data set, we calculated the mean increment width and mean radius to increment
297 for each day of larval life if there are at least 3 larvae with that increment (i.e., we did not
298 calculate a mean increment width for the Slope Sea for increments 6 or 7 because there are
299 only 2 larvae with 7 rings and 1 larva with 8 rings). We also calculated the standard error of
300 the mean as $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$, where σ is the sample standard deviation and n is the sample size at that
301 increment index.

302 We also tested for a significant difference in the mean otolith radius at the first increment
303 between the Slope Sea and the Gulf of Mexico, using a two-sided Welch t-test. We performed
304 this test for larvae with 0-8 increments and then again for those larvae with 0-4 increments.

305 Larval drift simulations

306 We estimated the spawning locations and larval transport trajectories of larvae collected
307 in the Slope Sea in 2016 using particle backtracking in a regional ocean circulation model

308 (MABGOM2). The same model was used in Rypina et al. (2019). This regional ROMS-based
309 model is specifically constructed for the continental shelf and slope region off the northeast
310 US, and has a high resolution of 1 km in the cross-shore direction and 2 km in the alongshore
311 direction. The MABGOM2 model was previously validated for the Slope Sea region based
312 on in situ hydrographic observations and satellite altimetry data for 2013 (Rypina et al.,
313 2019). The configuration of the MABGOM2 model for 2016, which is used here, is identical
314 to that for the 2013 MABGOM2 model run. More details about MABGOM2 can be found
315 in Rypina et al. (2019).

316 As this high-resolution model is capable of resolving the realistic circulation features of
317 interest at both meso- and submeso-scale, we treat the larval trajectories as deterministic
318 and do not add any stochasticity to the simulated larval drift. [Note that the addition of a
319 small stochastic component appropriate for representing the un- and under-resolved scales of
320 motion does not significantly change our results due to the short duration of larval trajectory
321 integration (≤ 27 days).] We use model velocity fields at 10 m below the ocean surface to
322 advect simulated larvae (Habtes et al., 2014; Reglero et al., 2018a). Larval trajectory back-
323 and forward-tracking is performed using the 4th order variable-step Runge-Kutta scheme
324 (built-in function “ode45” in Matlab) with a bi-linear interpolation between velocity grid
325 points in both time and space; identical integration and interpolation numerical schemes
326 were used in Rypina et al. (2019), Rypina, Pratt, and Lozier (2016), and Rypina et al.
327 (2014).

328 Larvae included in otolith analyses had direct age estimates available for use in backtrack-
329 ing simulations. For larvae that were not aged, we used the overall size-at-age relationship
330 derived from Slope Sea otolith analyses to estimate the number of daily growth increments.
331 We also accounted for spread around the best-fit line by defining the distribution of expected
332 ages using the best-fit line as the mean and the standard deviation of the residuals as the
333 variance. For each larva that was measured but not aged, we drew a value from this normal
334 distribution and then rounded it to the nearest 1 day, resulting in an estimated number of

335 increments for that larva. There were 3 larvae with missing length data—we assumed the
336 length of these larvae to be the average length of all measured bluefin larvae collected at
337 that station.

338 This gives age in days since the onset of exogenous feeding, but to inform backtracking, we
339 needed estimated ages in days post spawning. At the typical temperatures of field collections
340 of larval bluefin tuna in the Slope Sea, it takes 30-50 hours for bluefin tuna eggs to hatch
341 (Reglero et al., 2018b) and approximately 2 days until the onset of exogenous feeding after
342 hatching (Yúfera et al., 2014). Therefore, we added 4 days to convert the estimates of
343 increment number into age of each larva in days post spawning, which is also consistent
344 with work on Pacific bluefin tuna reared in the laboratory (Itoh et al., 2000). We performed
345 individual-based particle simulations for each unique combination of station and larval days-
346 post-spawning. These simulations were run backwards in time to the estimated spawning
347 date.

348 Additionally, we ran simulations forward in time to examine whether the observed bluefin
349 larvae would have been retained in the Slope Sea during the period of drift as eggs and larvae.
350 Laboratory work on Pacific bluefin tuna indicates that they begin schooling at 25 days post
351 hatch (Fukuda et al., 2010). Therefore, we assume that bluefin tuna are capable of directed
352 swimming at 27 days post spawning (2 days of egg duration plus 25 days post hatch) and
353 that the egg-and-larval drift period covers 27 days post spawning. For each larva, we know
354 their estimated age in days post spawning and collection location—with this, we simulate
355 their trajectory forward in time until their age would have been 27 days post spawning.

356 Results

357 In 2016, larval sampling in the Slope Sea yielded 225 bluefin tuna larvae, ranging in size
358 from 2 to 8.2 mm. Atlantic bluefin tuna larvae were observed across a wide geographic area,
359 from 36.65 to 39.73°N and from 67.9 to 74.3°W (Figure 1, Table S1). There was one bluefin

360 larva collected at a station inshore of the shelf break, with a bottom depth of 55 m. All other
361 observations of bluefin larvae were at locations with a bottom depth of 2000 m or greater.
362 All but 7 of the bluefin tuna larvae observed in the Slope Sea in 2016 were collected between
363 June 18 and July 13. Six bluefin larvae were collected on July 31 and one additional bluefin
364 larva was collected on August 1—these two stations were also the northernmost observations.

365 At stations where bluefin tuna larvae were observed, the abundance ranged from 0.80
366 to 31.75 bluefin larvae per 10 m² (mean=11.29 larvae per 10 m², Table S1). The highest
367 abundance was observed on July 31 on the north eastern edge of the Mid-Atlantic Bight
368 (Figure 1). The second-highest abundance (31 larvae per 10 m²) occurred within a cluster
369 of high-abundance stations in the eastern portion of the sampling area on July 8. The third-
370 highest abundance (27.47 larvae per 10 m²), along with two other high-abundance stations,
371 was observed in the southwestern portion of the Slope Sea on June 19-20.

372 The mean abundance of bluefin tuna larvae across the Slope Sea in 2016 varied between
373 1.94 and 3.19 larvae per 10 m², depending on the configuration of stations included (Table
374 S2). The highest estimate is attained when the sampling period is restricted to the AMAPPS
375 cruise, stations 1000 m and deeper, and a time period of 42 days (to match the duration of
376 typical sampling in the Gulf of Mexico); this set of samples covers an area of 262471 km².
377 The mean abundance for the configuration of samples included in Figure 1 (both cruises,
378 June 17-Aug 15, stations at 1000 m or deeper) is 2.80 larvae per 10 m², over an area of
379 283959 km². When we drop the mid-June sampling that used shallower bongo tows on a
380 transect across the north wall of the Gulf Stream (the GU1608 samples) and include only the
381 AMAPPS cruise between June 28-Aug 15 (49 days) at 1000 m or deeper, the mean abundance
382 is estimated to be 2.79 larvae per 10 m² over an area of 262471 km². The stratified mean,
383 which takes into account the AMAPPS cruise design, provides a similar estimate (2.55 or
384 2.46 larvae per 10 m²) for a duration matching either typical SEAMAP sampling (42 days)
385 or the SEAMAP duration in 2016 (31 days). The combined area of the two strata is 308704
386 km².

387 In the Gulf of Mexico in 2016, station abundance ranged from 3.95 to 356.83 larvae per
388 10 m² (Figure S3). The estimated mean abundance in the Gulf of Mexico, using the full
389 SEAMAP survey from 2016 (31 days) is 12 larvae per 10 m² over an area of 447676 km².

390 We also calculated station abundances for the bongo stations where bluefin tuna larvae
391 were observed in the Slope Sea in 2013 (Richardson et al., 2016a) and found that they ranged
392 from 2.58 to 116.9 bluefin per 10 m², with an average of 28.59 bluefin per 10 m² amongst
393 the 8 positive bongo stations. Estimates of larval abundance for the Slope Sea in 2013 range
394 from 1.24 to 5.23 larvae per 10 m², depending on the configuration. The stratified mean
395 abundance for the full AMAPPS cruise in 2013 (48 days) is 2.66 larvae per 10 m².

396 Larvae from the Slope Sea that were used in otolith analyses ranged from 2.53 to 6.56
397 mm and had 0 to 8 increments (Figure 2A). The 52 larvae with high-quality otolith data
398 represent a wide geographic range of observations, although no larvae were aged from several
399 of the low-abundance stations in the central region of the sampling area (Figure S4A). The
400 larvae we aged were collected between June 19 and July 12 (Table S1).

401 The estimated growth rate for bluefin tuna larvae collected in the Slope Sea was 0.37 mm
402 day⁻¹, and the estimated length at 0 increments was 3.08 mm (Figure 2A). However, there
403 are few larvae with more than 5 increments. If we restricted our analysis to only those larvae
404 with 4 or fewer increments, we found that the estimated growth rate was slightly lower, 0.32
405 mm day⁻¹, and the estimated length at 0 increments was slightly higher, 3.15 mm.

406 Larvae from the Gulf of Mexico that were used in otolith analyses ranged from 2.52
407 to 7.93 mm, and from 0 to 13 increments. The 142 larvae with high-quality otolith data
408 represent a wide geographic range of sampling locations across the northern Gulf of Mexico
409 (Figure S4B). These larvae were collected between April 30 and May 30, 2016.

410 The estimated growth rate for bluefin tuna larvae collected in the Gulf of Mexico in 2016
411 was 0.37 mm day⁻¹, and the estimated length at 0 increments was 2.85 mm (Figure 2B).
412 If we restricted our analysis to only those larvae with 8 or fewer increments (to facilitate
413 comparison with the Slope Sea data), we found that the estimated growth rate was 0.42 mm

414 day⁻¹, and the estimated length at 0 increments was 2.65 mm. If we restricted our analysis
415 to only those larvae with 4 increments or fewer (again, for comparison with the Slope Sea
416 data), we found that the estimated growth rate was 0.38 mm day⁻¹, and the estimated length
417 at 0 increments was 2.72 mm.

418 The stepwise ANCOVA analysis found no significant effect of region (Slope Sea vs. Gulf
419 of Mexico) on the slope of the larval age-length relationship in our dataset (p=0.24 for 0-8
420 increments, p=0.31 for 0-4 increments). There was, however, a significant effect of region
421 on the intercept (p<0.01 for 0-8 increments, p<0.0001 for 0-4 increments). Therefore, we
422 determined that there is no significant difference in the average daily growth rate of bluefin
423 larvae based on whether they were collected in the Slope Sea or the Gulf of Mexico, but that
424 the larvae collected in the Slope Sea were significantly larger prior to exogenous feeding and
425 potentially at hatching.

426 In our measure of daily growth rate, using increment width as a proxy for daily growth,
427 we observed that the first 3 increment widths (from increments 1 through 3 to increments 2
428 through 4) are extremely similar in the Slope Sea and the Gulf of Mexico (Figure 3A). The
429 error bars for Slope Sea values at increments 4 and 5 also overlapped with Gulf of Mexico
430 values, but the small sample size of Slope Sea larvae over 4 increments restricted our ability
431 to interpret those values. Otolith radius, as a proxy for larval size, is higher in Slope Sea
432 larvae at the first increment, and then that difference appears to carry over across the rest
433 of the increments (Figure 3B).

434 The average distance to the first otolith increment is higher in the Slope Sea (12.21 μm
435 for larvae with 0-8 increments and 12.16 μm for larvae with 0-4 increments) than in the
436 Gulf of Mexico (11.29 μm for larvae with 0-8 increments and 11.58 μm for larvae with 0-4
437 increments). The Welch t-test determined that this difference was statistically significant
438 for the larvae with 0-8 increments (p<0.0001) and for larvae with 0-4 increments (p=0.029).

439 Particle tracking simulations for Slope Sea larvae placed the vast majority of larvae within
440 the Slope Sea domain on the estimated day of spawning and at the onset of directed swim-

441 ming [approximately 25 days post hatch, (Fukuda et al., 2010) or 27 days post spawning].
442 We observed 60 unique combinations of collection location and estimated age in days post
443 spawning in the Slope Sea in 2016. There were 53 trajectories, representing 217 larvae, that
444 backtracked to locations within the Slope Sea, which formed 3 clusters near: (1) the south-
445 eastern flank of Georges Bank, (2) the shelf slope off New Jersey and Maryland, and (3)
446 the southwestern corner of the Slope Sea (Figure 4). There were 5 trajectories, representing
447 6 larvae, that backtracked to locations outside of the southern boundary of the Slope Sea
448 near Cape Hatteras. There was one bluefin larva collected on the shelf that was estimated
449 to have been spawned on the shelf, as well as 1 larva that was collected outside of the Slope
450 Sea in the Gulf Stream region that backtracked to that same area near 35°N, 65°W (Figure
451 4). There were 53 simulated trajectories, representing 217 larvae, that were retained within
452 the Slope Sea until 27 days post spawning, and 7 trajectories, representing 8 larvae, that
453 exited the MABGOM2 model domain through the eastern boundary—and 4 of these are
454 trajectories that also backtracked to locations near Cape Hatteras (Figures 4 and S5). The 6
455 sampling locations that correspond to larvae that were not retained in the Slope Sea (or the
456 MABGOM2 model domain) until 27 days post spawning all correspond to locations along
457 the Gulf Stream boundary of the Slope Sea (Figure S5).

458 Discussion

459 The collections of Atlantic bluefin tuna larvae in the Slope Sea in 2016, together with the
460 otolith analyses and particle tracking simulations that they enabled, support the conclusion
461 that the conditions in the Slope Sea are suitable for their growth and retention, and that
462 they originated from spawning within the Slope Sea. Larvae were observed across a wide
463 geographic area in the Slope Sea from mid-June to early August, with a mean abundance of
464 approximately 2.5 larvae per 10 m². Otolith analyses found that, in 2016, Slope Sea larvae
465 appear to have hatched at larger sizes and grew at similar rates to larvae collected in the

466 Gulf of Mexico. Particle backtracking simulations confirmed that larvae collected in the
467 Slope Sea were spawned in the Slope Sea. These results support the previous assertions that
468 widespread spawning by bluefin occurs in the Slope Sea and that the conditions are suitable
469 for spawning and larval growth (Richardson et al., 2016a; Rypina et al., 2019).

470 At the broadest and simplest scale of comparison, the temporal and spatial extent of larval
471 observations in the Slope Sea are consistent with a broad region of spawning habitat. In our
472 study as well as previous larval studies in the Slope Sea, Gulf of Mexico, and Mediterranean,
473 larval observations generally span a 2-month period, with the phenology modulated by local
474 environmental conditions (Richardson et al., 2016a; Reglero et al., 2018b). The locations
475 of larval presence in the Slope Sea in 2016 spanned 8° of longitude and 4° of latitude
476 (Figure 1); larvae were observed across 12° of longitude and 5° of latitude during 25 years of
477 comprehensive sampling in the Gulf of Mexico (Muhling, Lamkin, and Roffer, 2010). In the
478 Mediterranean, spawning occurs across an even larger spatial extent, but much of the recent
479 sampling focus has been on the smaller spawning hotspot around the Balearic Islands, an
480 area of 5° longitude by 2° latitude (Alemany et al., 2010). Although a degree of longitude is
481 not equidistant at all latitudes, our larval observations and estimated spawning locations are
482 widespread in the Slope Sea, and this is consistent with the results of Rypina et al. (2019)
483 and Rypina et al. (2021) that suitable spawning habitat is amply available in this region.

484 Observations of larval bluefin abundance in the Slope Sea are comparable to those from
485 the Gulf of Mexico and the Mediterranean given the limited sampling in the Slope Sea and
486 the highly patchy nature of bluefin larvae. The overall mean abundance of bluefin larvae at
487 sampling stations around the Balearic Islands in the Mediterranean from 2001 to 2005 was
488 4.3 larvae per 10 m² (Alemany et al., 2010), nearly twice as high as our estimate from the
489 Slope Sea. We estimated that the mean larval abundance in the Slope Sea in 2016 and 2013
490 was approximately 2.5 larvae per 10 m², and that the mean abundance in the Gulf of Mexico
491 in 2016 was 12 larvae per 10 m² (Figure S3). The estimate for the Gulf of Mexico in 2016 is
492 nearly 5 times as high as our estimate for the Slope Sea (and nearly 3 times as high as the

493 estimate from the Mediterranean), but it's important to point out that the larval abundance
494 index in the Gulf of Mexico in 2016 is 4.5 times higher than its average from the preceding
495 decade (Ingram, 2018; ICCAT, 2019).

496 There are few peer-reviewed publications on the time series of larval bluefin tuna abun-
497 dance in the Gulf of Mexico, since studies of larval bluefin tuna report an abundance time
498 series that combines multiple tuna taxa (Lindo-Atichati et al., 2012; Domingues et al., 2016;
499 Habtes et al., 2014) or focus on probability of occurrence (Muhling, Lamkin, and Roffer,
500 2010; Muhling et al., 2013; Domingues et al., 2016). One time series that is available is
501 the larval abundance index, which uses statistical fitting methods related to the timing and
502 seasonality of larval collections, as well as the swept area of sampling and the estimated
503 ages and mortality rates of larvae to estimate the average number of larvae per 100 m² at
504 first daily otolith increment formation, across the Gulf of Mexico sampling domain (Ingram
505 et al., 2010; Ingram, 2018). The mean larval abundance index from 1981-2015 is 0.50, while
506 the value in 2016 was 2.46, nearly 5 times the mean in the preceding 35 years (see "ZIDL"
507 in Table 4 of Ingram 2018). Although a direct comparison is difficult, it would appear that
508 the larval abundance estimates from the Slope Sea are consistent with observations in the
509 Gulf of Mexico between 1981 and 2015.

510 The scope of larval bluefin collections in the Slope Sea in 2016—207 larvae collected at
511 20 out of 79 bongo stations—align much better with collections from the major spawning
512 grounds than with other scattered observations. For example, the Slope Sea larvae are
513 often compared with a southeast U.S. cruise, which found 14 larvae at 10 stations out of
514 147 sampled stations (McGowan and Richards, 1989), the surveys in Mexican waters near
515 Campeche Bank which found 5 larvae at 4 stations out of sampling at 40 stations (Muhling
516 et al., 2011), or the survey north and east of the Bahamas that found 18 larvae at 9 out
517 of 97 stations using a net and tow protocol designed to optimize the collection of bluefin
518 larvae (Lamkin et al., 2014). That is a 7% positive station rate in the southeast U.S. region,
519 a 10% positive rate in Mexican waters, and a 9% positive rate near the Bahamas. We

520 estimate a 25% positive station rate in the Slope Sea in 2016, which agrees well with the
521 SEAMAP positive station rate of 0-30% (mean of 15%) between 1993 and 2009 (Domingues
522 et al., 2016), and a 14% positive station rate in the Balearic Sea surveys from 2001 to 2005
523 (Alemany et al., 2010). By several metrics, the distribution of bluefin larvae in the Slope
524 Sea is comparable to the observations on the two other recognized major spawning grounds.

525 Our growth analyses, performed with the same reader analyzing otoliths from both the
526 Slope Sea and the Gulf of Mexico from 2016, reveal that Slope Sea larvae grew at comparable
527 rates to Gulf of Mexico larvae. Otolith analyses from bluefin larvae collected in the Balearic
528 Sea in 2003-2005 estimated the growth rate at 0.35 to 0.41 mm day⁻¹ (García et al., 2013),
529 similar to the rates that we estimated for both the Slope Sea and Gulf of Mexico in 2016
530 (Figure 2). Another study of larval bluefin tuna growth analyzed larvae collected in the Gulf
531 of Mexico in 2000-2012, and found a lower intercept (2.24 vs. 2.85 mm) and higher slope
532 (0.46 vs. 0.37 mm day⁻¹) as compared to our results from the Gulf of Mexico in 2016, for
533 a similar size and age range of larvae (Malca et al., 2017). Data from an older study of
534 bluefin tuna larvae collected in the Straits of Florida (Brothers, Williams, and Sale, 1983)
535 provides a lower estimate of larval growth, approximately 0.27 mm day⁻¹ (McGowan and
536 Richards, 1989). There may be inter-annual variability in larval growth conditions on the
537 various spawning grounds, as has been shown in the Balearic Sea (García et al., 2013), but
538 detailed studies of inter-annual variability in larval growth have not been published for the
539 Gulf of Mexico. A single year of comparison is insufficient; if growth conditions in the Gulf
540 of Mexico were anomalously poor in 2016 (for example, due to the high larval abundance
541 that was observed), then our comparison of Slope Sea and Gulf of Mexico growth rates is
542 incomplete. While the samples exist to enable a study of interannual variability in larval
543 bluefin growth in the Gulf of Mexico, we need several more years of sampling in the Slope
544 Sea to be able to characterize the interannual variability in larval growth there.

545 Our otolith analyses also suggest that Slope Sea larvae were larger at the onset of exoge-
546 nous feeding in 2016, using two different proxies. The intercept of the size-at-age relationship

(Figure 2) and the otolith radius to the first increment (Figure 3B) were both found to be significantly higher in the Slope Sea than the Gulf of Mexico, regardless of whether we used a dataset including larvae with 0-8 increments or 0-4 increments. There are two possible mechanisms for a difference in larval size at hatching: temperature and maternal provisioning. Larval length at hatching for a given species decreases with increasing temperature (Peck, Huebert, and Llopiz, 2012). The average sea surface temperature at the time of collection for aged larvae from 2016 from the Slope Sea was 25.5°C, and it was 27.0°C for aged larvae from the Gulf of Mexico. This temperature difference may be sufficient to account for the difference in size at hatching. On the other hand, larval size at hatching and growth before the onset of exogenous feeding also depend on the resources provided in the egg, which has been shown to be related to body condition of the mother (Chambers, Leggett, and Brown, 1989). The maternal condition and allocation of resources (both per-egg provisioning and total provisioning) to reproduction depend on size, recent food availability, and metabolic activity (Green, 2008). Increased maternal provisioning in Slope Sea larvae could indicate that Slope Sea spawning adults are able to allocate more resources to reproductive activity than are Gulf of Mexico spawning adults; this could be due to the shorter spawning migration distance to the Slope Sea (Chapman, Jørgensen, and Lutcavage, 2011). However, reproductive investment and offspring quality can also vary with maternal size or age (Green, 2008), so it is important that we identify the distribution of ages amongst bluefin tuna that spawn in the Slope Sea.

Although it was previously estimated that none of the larvae collected in the Slope Sea in 2013 could have been spawned in the Gulf of Mexico or the Straits of Florida (Richardson et al., 2016a), the perception remains that larvae collected in the Slope Sea could easily be transported there from more southerly locations (Safina, 2016) where small collections of larvae have been observed previously, such as the Straits of Florida (Brothers, Williams, and Sale, 1983) and the Blake Plateau (McGowan and Richards, 1989). In this study, we simulate larval trajectories using a high-resolution circulation model for the Mid-Atlantic

574 Bight and Gulf of Maine (MABGOM2), which was previously validated using hydrocast
575 data from NOAA cruises (Rypina et al., 2019). We find that nearly all (96%) of the larvae
576 collected in the Slope Sea in 2016 backtrack to locations north of Cape Hatteras on the
577 estimated dates of spawning (Figure 4). When we simulated trajectories forward in time,
578 we likewise found that nearly all (96%) larvae collected in the Slope Sea would have been
579 retained within the Slope Sea domain (Figure 4). For both backward and forward tracking,
580 the handful of trajectories that originate or terminate outside of the Slope Sea correspond
581 to larvae that were collected along the Gulf Stream front (Figure S5).

582 Previous work has used particle tracking simulations with larval growth and retention
583 criteria to understand the distribution of suitable bluefin spawning habitat in the Slope
584 Sea (Rypina et al., 2019) and the interannual variability of that suitable habitat (Rypina
585 et al., 2021). These simulations have identified a persistent region of high spawning habitat
586 suitability in the Mid-Atlantic Bight and the associated Slope Gyre (Rypina et al., 2021).
587 The larval observations in both 2013 and 2016 were concentrated in these regions (Figure 1,
588 Rypina et al. 2019; Richardson et al. 2016a), as were our estimated spawning sites in 2016
589 (Figure 4A). Taken together, this is strong evidence that repeated and predictable spawning
590 activity by bluefin tuna is possible in the Slope Sea.

591 It is imperative that we increase our studies of the Slope Sea to understand how bluefin
592 tuna spawning in this region influences the ecology and population dynamics of this valuable
593 stock. Ichthyoplankton sampling occurs routinely on the northeast U.S. shelf (Walsh et al.,
594 2015) but plankton monitoring, and ship traffic in general, is limited beyond the shelf break.
595 However, the spatial and temporal patterns of larval tuna distributions in the Slope Sea are
596 reliable and can be used to inform future cruises (Figure 1, Rypina et al. 2019; Richardson et
597 al. 2016a; Rypina et al. 2021). Additional years of larval bluefin collections will strengthen
598 our understanding of age and growth and enable us to build a time series of the larval
599 abundance index in the Slope Sea (Scott et al., 1993; Ingram et al., 2010). With multiple
600 years of data, we can investigate inter-annual differences and test for relationships between

601 metrics of growth and environmental conditions. There is a need for ecological work on the
602 diets and zooplankton food availability for bluefin larvae in the Slope Sea, and comparisons
603 with the other major spawning grounds (Llopiz and Hobday, 2015).

604 An important open question is the abundance, distribution, and identity of the spawning
605 adults in the Slope Sea. How many adults are spawning there, and do they consistently
606 utilize the suitable habitat identified in Rypina et al. (2021)? Are they western individuals
607 that mature earlier than previously understood, or is there significant stock mixing occurring
608 between eastern and western individuals? Bluefin in the Slope Sea should be sampled across
609 a wide range of sizes for histological analyses to determine what sizes of bluefin are repro-
610 ductively active in the region. Reproductively active individuals can also be tested for stock
611 identity using otolith microchemistry (Rooker et al., 2008) or population genetics (Puncher
612 et al., 2018; Rodríguez-Ezpeleta et al., 2019).

613 Atlantic bluefin tuna are an iconic commercial and sport fish that captivate human imag-
614 inations and taste buds. Climate change is threatening their ability to reproduce in the Gulf
615 of Mexico, even if they were to shift their phenology (Muhling et al., 2015). Spawning in
616 the Slope Sea may offer the species additional resilience in the face of both harvesting and
617 climate change. If we hope to conserve this species and sustain the industries that depend
618 on it, we must acknowledge Slope Sea spawning and integrate it into our understanding of
619 the bluefin tuna life cycle and our management of stock dynamics.

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624 **Competing interests**

625 The authors declare there are no competing interests.

626 **Author contributions**

627 CMH, DER, and JKL conceived the project. CMH, DER, and KEM performed laboratory
628 analyses on Slope Sea samples. KS provided Gulf of Mexico otolith images. IR and KC
629 performed model simulations. CMH read all otoliths, analyzed data, prepared figures, and
630 drafted the manuscript. All authors edited the manuscript.

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641 **Data availability statement**

642 Data and code associated with this project are available on Github at: [https://github.](https://github.com/chrissy3815/SlopeSeaBluefinTuna)
643 [com/chrissy3815/SlopeSeaBluefinTuna](https://github.com/chrissy3815/SlopeSeaBluefinTuna). All data collected by the CTD have been up-
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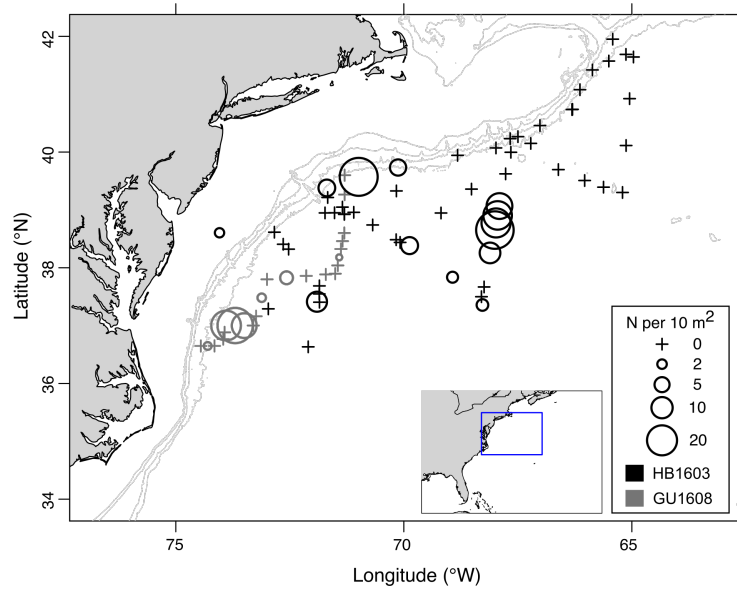


Figure 1: Abundance of Atlantic bluefin tuna larvae in the Slope Sea in 2016. Abundance of Atlantic bluefin tuna (*Thunnus thynnus*) larvae, expressed as n per 10 m^2 . Data is shown for all bongo stations at locations with 1000 m depth or greater that were sampled between June 17 and August 15, plus one station on the shelf where bluefin larvae were observed. Sampling stations are separated by cruise, with the the marine mammal survey cruise (HB1603) shown in black and the earlier Gulf Stream crossing sampling cruise (GU1608) shown in dark grey. Bathymetric contours at 100, 200, 1000, and 2000 m depth are shown in light grey (accessed through GEBCO). Coastlines are the coastlineWorldFine data from the ocedata package in R and the aspect ratio for plotting is automatically chosen by R for the latitude and longitude at the center of the plot.

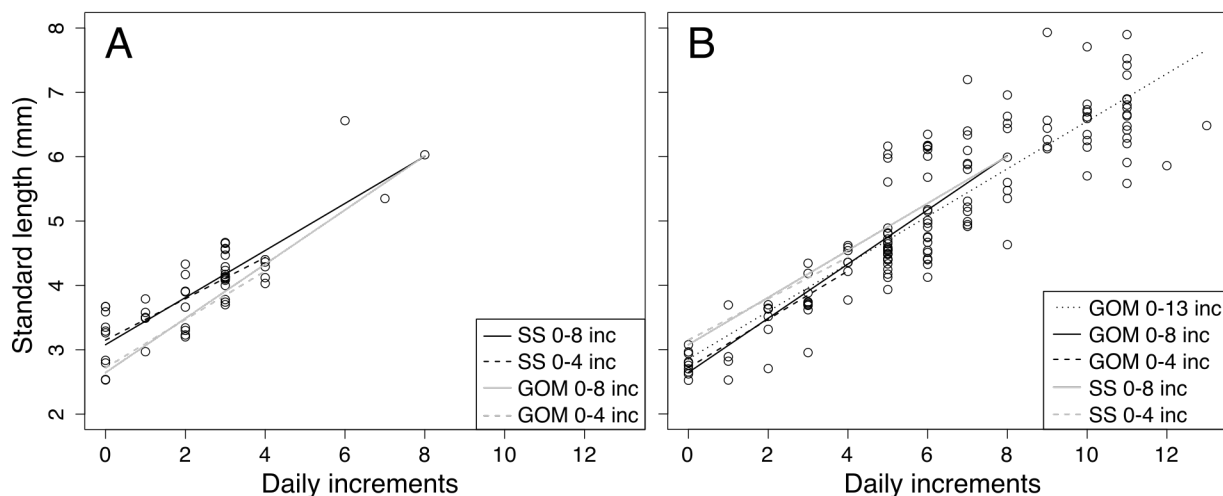


Figure 2: Larval growth curves for bluefin tuna larvae in 2016. Larval size-at-age for Atlantic bluefin tuna larvae (*Thunnus thynnus*) collected in (a) the Slope Sea and (b) the Gulf of Mexico in 2016. On each plot, the circles show the standard length (mm) for larvae with 0-13 daily growth increments. The black lines are best-fit lines to the circles, and the grey lines show the best-fit lines from the opposite panel. Solid lines show the relationship for larvae with 0-8 increments, dashed lines correspond to larvae with 0-4 increments, and the dotted line in (b) shows the best-fit line for the overall dataset from the Gulf of Mexico (0-13 increments).

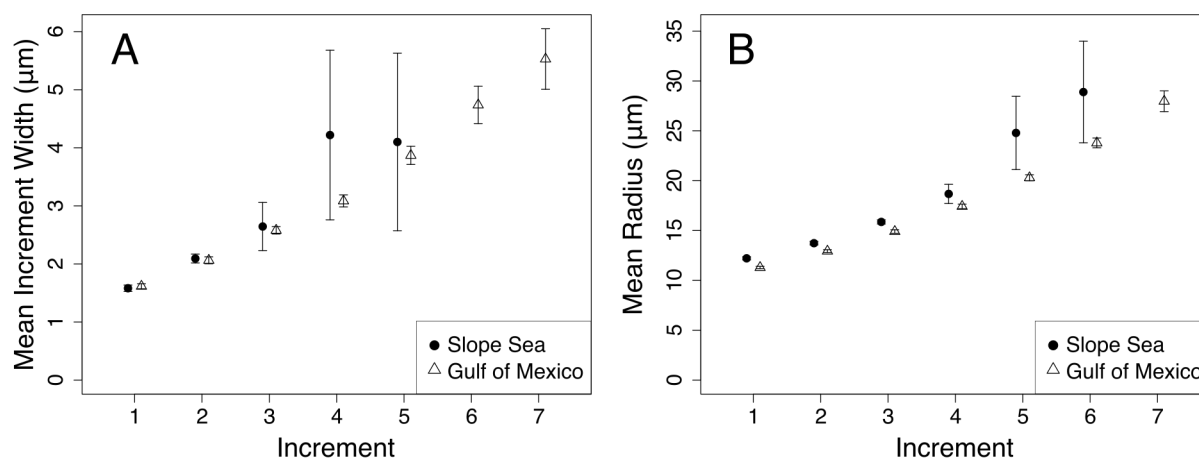


Figure 3: Otolith measurements from bluefin tuna larvae collected in 2016. Otolith increment width is a proxy for daily growth rate on a given day of larval growth (e.g., width of increment 1 is measured as the distance between the first to the second increments), and otolith radius to a given increment is a proxy for larval size. In order to compare between the Slope Sea and Gulf of Mexico datasets, we include only those larvae with 0-8 increments. For each region, the mean increment width (A) and the mean radius to increment (B) are shown for each day of larval life if there are at least 3 larvae with that increment. Error bars show the standard error of the mean, calculated as $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$, where σ is the sample standard deviation and n is the sample size at that increment index.

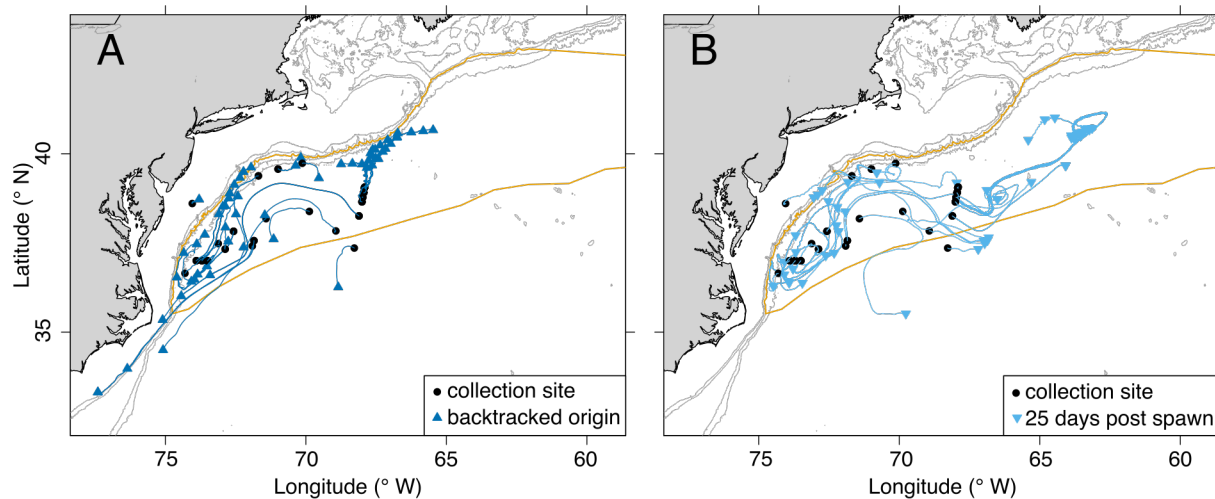


Figure 4: Simulated trajectories for larvae collected in the Slope Sea in 2016. For each unique combination of station and age (days post spawning, either estimated directly from otoliths or indirectly from the age-length relationship), larval trajectories were simulated backwards in time to estimate spawning location (**A**), and forwards in time until the onset of directed swimming behavior (an estimated larval age of 27 days post spawning, **B**). Bathymetric contours at 100, 200, 1000, and 2000 m depth are shown in light grey (accessed through GEBCO). The Slope Sea bounding box (orange outline) is defined in Richardson et al. (2016a); the shapefile, which uses a WGS84 projection was downloaded from: <https://marineregions.org/gazetteer.php?p=details&id=59314>. Coastlines are the coastlineWorldFine data from the ocedata package in R and the aspect ratio for plotting is automatically chosen by R for the latitude and longitude at the center of the plot.

Supplemental materials for *Support for the Slope Sea as a major spawning ground for Atlantic bluefin tuna: evidence from larval abundance, growth rates, and particle-tracking simulations*

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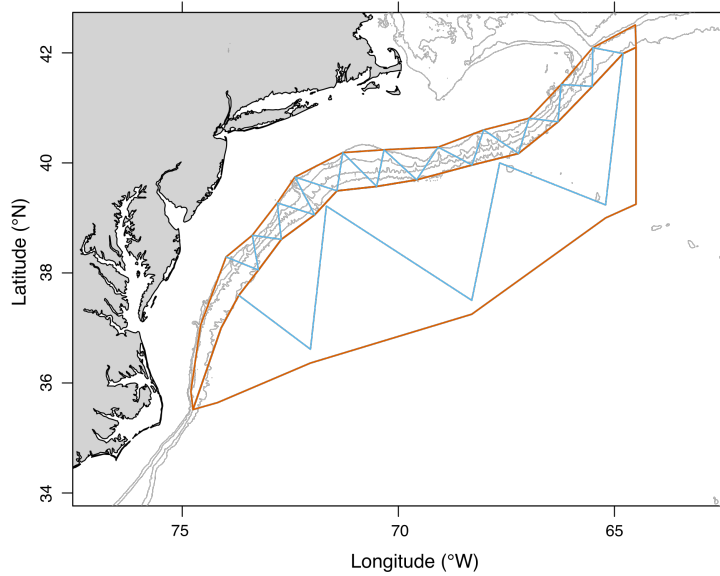


Figure 1: Survey design for the the Atlantic Marine Assessment Program for Protected Species (AMAPPS) cruises. The red polygon outlines the offshore and shelfbreak strata areas, and the blue lines show the typical cruise track for the visual survey. These strata are used for calculating a stratified mean abundance of bluefin larvae during the HB1603 cruise. Bathymetric contours at 100, 200, 1000, and 2000 m depth are shown in light grey (accessed through GEBCO). Coastlines are the coastlineWorldFine data from the ocedata package in R and the aspect ratio for plotting is automatically chosen by R for the latitude and longitude at the center of the plot.

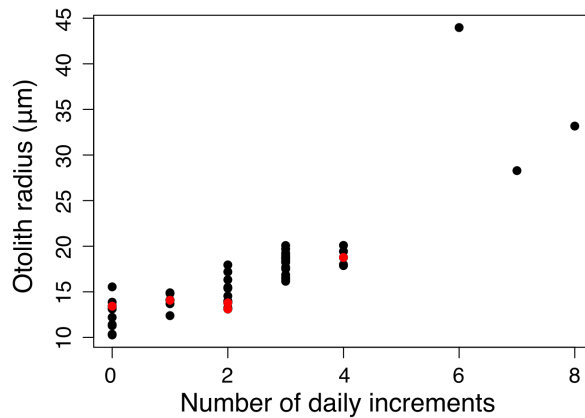


Figure 2: Using otolith size to determine if sampled otoliths include only sagittae. We plotted otolith radius against the number of daily increments. Measurements from larvae where we could not visually determine if we had sampled a sagittal otolith are highlighted in red. We determined that the two otoliths that are the smallest amongst otoliths with two daily increments should be excluded from further analyses.

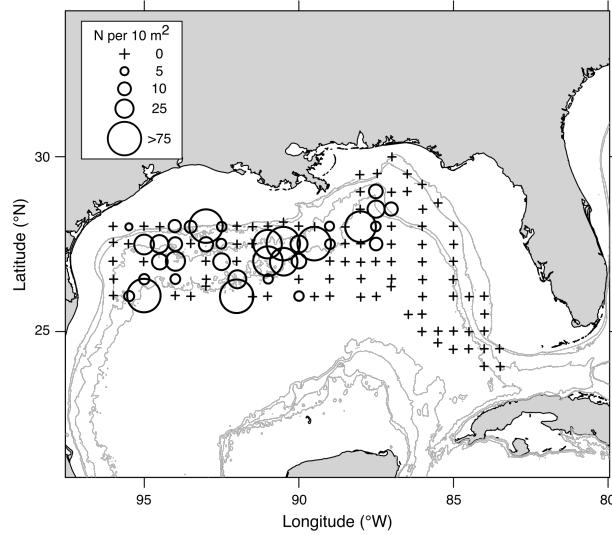


Figure 3: Abundance of Atlantic bluefin tuna larvae in the Gulf of Mexico in 2016. Abundance of Atlantic bluefin tuna (*Thunnus thynnus*) larvae, expressed as n per 10 m^2 . Data is shown for bongo samples collected with $333\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ mesh as part of the SEAMAP sampling program. Bathymetric contours at 100, 200, 1000, and 2000 m depth are shown in light grey (accessed through GEBCO). Coastlines are the coastlineWorldFine data from the ocedata package in R and the aspect ratio for plotting is automatically chosen by R for the latitude and longitude at the center of the plot.

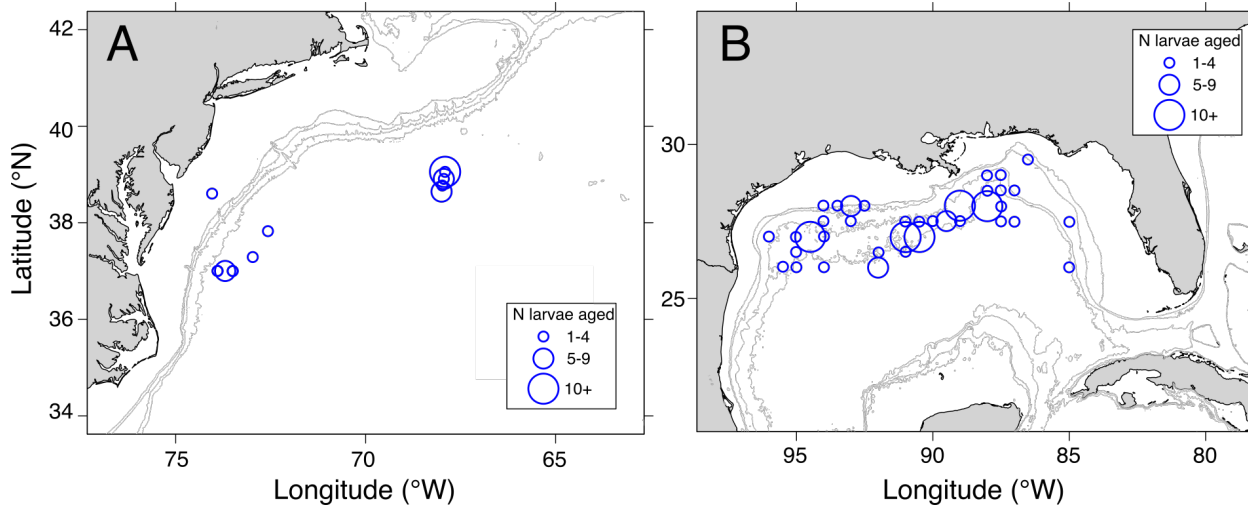


Figure 4: Maps of larvae used in otolith analyses for (A) the Slope Sea and (B) the Gulf of Mexico. Circles, with size scaled to the number of aged larvae from each net, are plotted at the geographic collection location. Bathymetric contours at 100, 200, 1000, and 2000 m depth are shown in light grey (accessed through GEBCO). Coastlines are the coastlineWorldFine data from the ocedata package in R and the aspect ratio for plotting is automatically chosen by R for the latitude and longitude at the center of the plot.

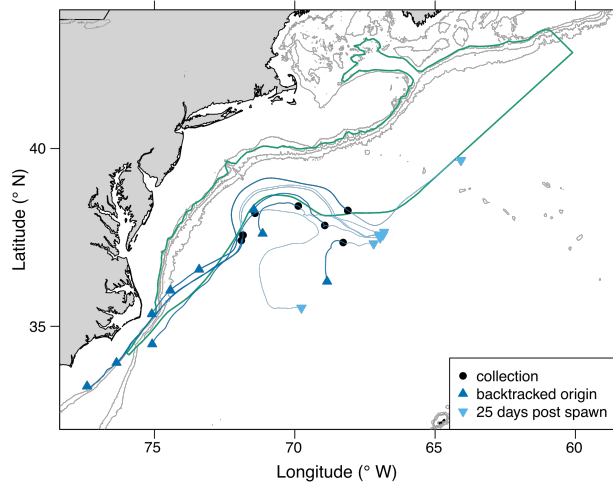


Figure 5: Subset of simulated trajectories that experience model boundary effects. Larval trajectories were simulated backwards in time to estimate spawning location, and forwards in time until the onset of directed swimming behavior. These 10 larval trajectories, corresponding to 13 larvae at 7 collection locations, all exit the Slope Sea domain before the forward tracking simulation completes. They were all collected in the vicinity of the north wall of the Gulf Stream near a persistent northward meander. Additionally, 6 of these trajectories, representing 8 larvae, have estimated spawning locations near Cape Hatteras. Circles show the collection sites, upward facing triangles plot the estimated spawning locations, and downward facing triangles plot the estimated location at the onset of directed swimming behavior. Bathymetric contours at 100, 200, 1000, and 2000 m depth are shown in light grey (accessed through GEBCO). Coastlines are the coastlineWorldFine data from the ocedata package in R and the aspect ratio for plotting is automatically chosen by R for the latitude and longitude at the center of the plot. The green polygon is defined by the 200-m isobath on the inshore side and the average position of the north wall of the Gulf Stream during the simulation period on the offshore side. We use this definition here to highlight the persistent meander that influences the trajectories included here.

Table 1: Station information for collections of Atlantic bluefin tuna larvae in the Slope Sea in 2016. Three types of nets were used, indicated in the “Gear” column: “6B3” refers to the 61-cm bongo with 333- μm mesh, “2B1” is the 20-cm bongo with 165- μm mesh, and “2N3” is the 2-by-1 m frame net with 333- μm mesh. N is the number of bluefin tuna larvae identified from those net samples, with the number of aged larvae given in parentheses. Station abundance (in n per 10 m²) is listed for the 61-cm bongo samples.

Cruise	Station	Date	Gear	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°W)	Bottom Depth (m)	SST (°C)	N (Aged)	Abundance (n per 10 m ²)
GU1608	224	June-18-2016	6B3	38.18	71.42	3061	23.54	1	0.80
GU1608	229	June-19-2016	6B3	37.83	72.57	2911	23.65	6 (1)	3.60
GU1608	231	June-19-2016	6B3	37.48	73.12	2916	24.26	2	1.58
GU1608	234	June-19-2016	2B1	37.00	73.50	2862	25.98	2 (2)	
GU1608	234	June-19-2016	6B3	37.00	73.50	2862	25.98	23 (3)	13.53
GU1608	235	June-19-2016	2B1	37.00	73.70	2721	25.16	1	
GU1608	235	June-19-2016	6B3	37.00	73.70	2721	25.16	43 (5)	27.47
GU1608	236	June-20-2016	2B1	37.00	73.90	2490	24.62	3 (3)	
GU1608	236	June-20-2016	6B3	37.00	73.90	2490	24.62	25 (2)	19.40
GU1608	240	June-20-2016	6B3	36.65	74.30	2037	26.7	1	1.34
HB1603	16	July-1-2016	6B3	37.41	71.91	3351	28.33	1	8.83
HB1603	17	July-1-2016	2N3	37.56	71.85	3284	24.56	3	
HB1603	21	July-1-2016	2N3	37.33	72.87	3049	27.92	2 (2)	
HB1603	36	July-4-2016	6B3	38.38	69.88	3529	28.05	1	6.38
HB1603	42	July-6-2016	6B3	37.84	68.93	4124	27.69	1	2.67
HB1603	45	July-7-2016	6B3	37.36	68.28	4831	26.64	1	2.98
HB1603	49	July-7-2016	6B3	38.26	68.11	4406	27.8	5	9.39
HB1603	50	July-8-2016	2N3	39.04	67.92	3724	25.56	49 (13)	
HB1603	50	July-7-2016	6B3	39.07	67.90	3629	25.62	7 (3)	14.64
HB1603	51	July-8-2016	2N3	38.91	67.94	3793	25.56	20 (9)	
HB1603	51	July-8-2016	6B3	38.91	67.94	3805	25.56	4 (1)	17.90
HB1603	52	July-8-2016	6B3	38.78	67.98	4053	25.67	5 (1)	18.58
HB1603	53	July-8-2016	6B3	38.65	68.00	4170	25.85	9 (6)	31
HB1603	68	July-12-2016	6B3	38.61	74.04	55	24.57	1 (1)	1.92
HB1603	70	July-13-2016	6B3	39.38	71.69	2200	23.94	2	6.15
HB1603	121	July-31-2016	6B3	39.57	70.99	2450	25.99	6	31.75
HB1603	125	Aug-1-2016	6B3	39.73	70.13	2058	26.13	1	5.80

Table 2: Sensitivity of larval abundance calculations to the choice of which stations to include. SEAMAP refers to the Gulf of Mexico sampling program. The Slope Sea cruises in 2016 were GU1608 on the NOAA Ship *Gordon Gunter* and HB1603 on the NOAA Ship *Henry B. Bigelow*. The Slope Sea cruises in 2013 were GU1302 on the NOAA Ship *Gordon Gunter* and HB1303 on the NOAA Ship *Henry B. Bigelow*. Configurations indicate how the mean abundance (including zero stations) and mean abundance at positive stations were calculated. Days indicates the number of days elapsed between the first and last station included in a given configuration.

Configuration	Days	Area (km²)	Mean abund. (n per 10 m²)	Mean abund. at pos. stations (n per 10 m²)
GU1608+HB1603, June 17-Aug 15, all stations	60	390839	1.96	11.29
GU1608+HB1603, June 17-Aug 15, 1000m and deeper	60	283959	2.80	11.78
HB1603, June 28-Aug 15, 1000m and deeper	49	262471	2.79	13.01
HB1603, June 28-Aug 8, all stations	42	359528	2.05	12.15
HB1603, June 28-Aug 8, 1000m and deeper	42	262471	3.19	13.01
HB1603, June 28-Aug 24, stratified mean	58	308704	1.94	12.94
HB1603, June 28-Aug 8, stratified mean	42	308704	2.55	12.94
HB1603, June 28-July 28, stratified mean	31	308704	2.46	11.12
SEAMAP 2016, April 30-May 30, all stations	31	447676	12.00	39.68
GU1302+HB1303, June 21-Aug 18, 1000 m or deeper	59	282758	3.69	28.59
HB1303, July 2-Aug 18, all stations	48	385274	1.24	18.20
HB1303, July 2-Aug 12, 1000 m or deeper	42	244086	3.21	18.20
HB1303, July 2-Aug 18, stratified mean	48	308704	2.66	17.42
HB1303, July 2-Aug 1, stratified mean	31	308704	5.43	16.28