

 1975; Wahle *et al.*, 2008). The Atlantic Red Crab Company (TARCC) is the only company fishing for RDSC and their main processing plant is located in New Bedford, Massachusetts. The current fishing grounds include Baltimore and Norfolk Canyons and fishing occurs year-round. The RDSC is a data-poor stock and research needs include estimation of reproductive parameters (Chute *et al.*, 2008). Studies of sexual maturity are needed to provide essential information for fisheries management and reproductive parameters for stock assessment models.

 In crustaceans, sexual maturity can generally be divided into four categories: morphometric, physiological, behavioral, and functional maturity (Conan *et al.*, 2001; Haig *et al.*, 2016; Biscoito *et al.*, 2015; Pardo *et al.*, 2017; Robinson, 2008; González-Pisani *et al.*, 2017). Morphometric maturity indicates the presence of external secondary sexual characteristics necessary for reproduction and in females is commonly determined by using allometric relationships (e.g. abdomen width vs. carapace size) (Conan *et al.*, 2001). Physiological maturity is reached when the gonads are completely developed and ready to produce offspring (Haig *et al.*, 2016). Behavioral maturity is indicated by morphological features indicating successful mating; this includes sperm plugs and open gonopores in females (Haig *et al.*, 2016). Lastly, functional maturity in females indicates the presence of eggs attached to the pleopods (González- Pisani *et al.*, 2017). This study focuses on the physiological and behavioral sexual maturity of RDSC females.

 Physiological maturity in females is commonly determined by examination of the ovary and oocyte development. The macroscopic condition of the ovary is an important element to characterize the stages of ovarian development, but for an adequate comprehension of the female reproductive cycle, it is necessary to describe oogenesis (Sharifian *et al.*, 2015). Oogenesis provides information about development and growth of the oocytes in the ovary, including yolk

 accumulation in the oocyte, and changes in nucleus and ooplasm structures (Ravi *et al.*, 2012; Liu *et al.*, 2014; Sharifian *et al.*, 2015). Ovarian development has been studied for other geryonid crabs, including *Chaceon notialis* (Delgado & Defeo, 2004), *Chaceon fenneri* (Manning & Holthuis, 1984); Erdman & Blake, 1988; Hinsch, 1988), and *Chaceon maritae* (Manning & Holthuis, 1981; Melville-Smith, 1987), however, oocyte development was not very detailed described. In brachyurans, asynchrony between physiological and behavioral maturity may occur; hence, females might reach the pubertal molt (i.e. the molt to maturity, Sainte-Marie (1993), prior to ovarian maturation (Melville-Smith, 1987; Fernández-Vergaz *et al.*, 2000). Therefore, it is important to investigate both, physiological and behavioral maturity separately, to understand the reproductive cycle and population dynamics, and provide reliable estimates of size at maturity for RDSC.

 Different types of sexual maturity have been used to estimate size at maturity for other crabs in the family Geryonidae, such as *Chaceon notialis* (Manning & Holthuis, 1989; Delgado & Defeo, 2004; Sant'Ana & Pezzuto, 2009), *Chaceon ramosae* (Manning, Tavares & Albuquerque, 1989; Pezzuto & Sant'Ana, 2009), and *Chaceon affinis* (A. Milne-Edwards & Bouvier, 1894; Fernández-Vergaz *et al.*, 2000; Pinho *et al.*, 2001). Size at sexual maturity for female RDSC was previously estimated between 65–75 mm in carapace length (CL) using the size distribution in which relative growth of the abdomen changes is associated with maturation of the vulvae, copulation and insemination, gonad development, and egg extrusion in the Chesapeake Bight (Haefner, 1977). Another study estimated size at sexual maturity at 61.6 mm CL using logistic regression on categories defined by vulva condition (Stevens & Guida, 2016) in the Mid-Atlantic Bight. Efforts to determine size at maturity for female RDSC using

 allometric growth of the abdomen (i.e. morphometric maturity) have thus far been unsuccessful (Stevens & Guida, 2016).

 Adequate fisheries management strategies rely on biological parameters and information on population dynamics of a species, which are not existing for RDSC. Lack of biological information for RDSC causes major uncertainties about the status of the current stock. This study is vital to begin understanding the reproductive biology of the current population, including ovarian development, sexual maturity types, and size at maturity. This information is necessary to understand the reproduction as well as population dynamics, growth characteristics and biological differences within the RDSC population (Sharifian *et al.*, 2015). In recognition of this, we decided to use histological observations of the ovarian and oocyte development to estimate 102 physiological size at 50% sexual maturity (SM_{50}) for females. We also decided to use gonopore condition to estimate behavioral SM50 for comparisons between physiological and behavioral maturity.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sampling

 Red deep-sea crabs for this study were collected in the Mid-Atlantic Bight (Fig. 1) during January of 2011 and 2012, and in July of 2013 aboard National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) research vessels along the Hudson and Baltimore Canyons at depths 110 > 250 m by trawling (Stevens & Guida, 2016). During July and September of 2014 and July of 2015, sampling was conducted off Newport News, VA, along the Norfolk Canyon at depths >600 m aboard commercial vessels using traps, via collaboration with TARCC. The standard 113 trap used by TARCC is a conical pot (120 cm diameter \times 60 cm height) with \sim 7.6 cm nylon mesh and a top round entry (25 cm) (Tallack *et al.*, 2007), and traps are baited and tied to a string in groups from 70 to 100 traps. In August of 2016, sampling was conducted off New Bedford, MA, along the Baltimore Canyon at depths >600 m by traps. Females were dissected on board and measured for carapace length (CL, from the rostral teeth to the center of the edge of the carapace) and carapace width (CW, including lateral spines) with a digital or manual caliper to the nearest 0.01 mm. During 2016, samples were collected in February, April, May, July, September, November, and December at the fishing ports in Newport News and Hampton, VA, from vessels fishing near the Norfolk Canyon at depths >600 m using traps. Females were kept alive in a cooler until measured and dissected at the laboratory, Paul S. Sarbanes Coastal Ecology Center (Berlin, MD), by placing them with the ventral surface up and creating a layer of ice packs between each layer of crabs. The size and color of ovaries, the presence of external eggs, and gonopore condition were recorded. Ovary size was classified as small, medium, or large using the midgut as a reference. An ovary was considered small if the midgut was completely visible, medium if the ovary was covering 1/2 of the midgut and large if the ovary was covering more than 3/4 of the midgut.

Physiological maturity

Physiological maturity was determined by histological examination of the ovaries of female

131 crabs (Peemoeller & Stevens, 2013). Ovary samples $(\sim 1 \text{ cm}^3)$ for histological analysis were

preserved in 10% formalin and after a week transferred to 70% EtOH until processed. Tissues

were dehydrated in a tissue processor (Tissue-Tek VIP-E150, Sakura Fineteck USA, Inc.,

Torrence, CA) consisting of a sequence of 70% EtOH, 95% EtOH, various concentrations of

100% EtOH, a clearing agent and melted paraffin. Then, tissues were embedded in paraffin using

Tissue-Tek DRS (Sakura Fineteck USA, Inc., Torrence, CA), sectioned at 5–10 µm (depending

on oocyte dimensions), stained with hematoxylin and eosin, and mounted in Permount. Ovary

sections were examined for the presence of oocytes, and digitally photographed at a

magnification of 4X using two different microscopes: Leica M125 (Leica Microsystems,

Wetzlar, Germany) stereo-zoom microscope, and Olympus DP73 digital camera mounted on an

Olympus SXZ16 (Olympus Corporation, Tokyo, Japan) stereomicroscope. Higher magnification

(10X) photos of oocytes and other cells in the ovary were taken with Olympus DP73 digital

 camera mounted on an Olympus BX41 (Olympus Corporation, Tokyo, Japan) compound microscope.

 The areas of 30 randomly selected oocytes per female were measured from images using the ROI (Region of Interest) Manager tool in ImageJ Software (Schneider *et al.*, 2012). The scale was calibrated using an image of a micrometer at the same magnification and oocyte area was measured by drawing a line around the oocyte periphery. Area measurements were taken from oocytes sectioned through the nucleus, but if those were scarce, oocytes with part of the nucleus noticeable were measured. Only oocytes in the center of the images were measured, to reduce bias from a peripheral view, and different images were used until 30 measurements were recorded. Lastly, mean oocyte area was calculated for each female and then converted to mean 153 oocyte diameter (calculated as $2\sqrt{A/\pi}$, where *A* is mean area). We decided to measure oocyte area and then use the conversion to diameter to reduce possible bias due to the sphere shape of oocytes (Swiney & Shirley, 2001).

 The oocyte development was based on oocyte diameter, nuclear and ooplasm appearance, and yolk accumulation. Oocytes were categorized as one of the following: previtellogenic, early vitellogenic, late vitellogenic, vitellogenic, and atretic oocytes. The stages of ovarian development were described based on ovary size and color, and oocyte development. The stages of ovarian development were described as: 1) immature, 2) early maturing, 3) late maturing, 4)

mature, and 5) redeveloping. Presence of external eggs was used to distinguish between

immature and redeveloping stages. The percentage of oocyte types was calculated for each stage

of ovarian development. One-way analysis of variance was used to compare the mean oocyte

diameters in each stage of ovarian development. Females were classified as physiologically

mature if the ovary was in stages 2 through 5 (see above).

Behavioral maturity

Behavioral maturity for female crabs was defined based on the condition of their gonopores.

Females with clean, closed gonopores were defined as immature, and those with blackened areas

around the gonopores, indicative of prior copulation, were defined as mature.

Size at sexual maturity

171 The SM_{50} of female RDSC was estimated using a logistic model to describe the proportion of mature females, shown in Equation 1:

173
$$
P_M = \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{CL}{CL_{50}}\right)^s} \tag{1}
$$

174 where P_M is the probability of an individual being mature, CL is the carapace length, CL_{50} is the 175 carapace length at 50% maturity (the SM₅₀ in terms of CL), and *s* is the slope parameter. Physiological and behavioral maturity were fit separately using maximum likelihood and assuming a binomial distribution of data in R statistical software (R Development Core Team, 2011). Data were fit to a series of models in which *CL50* or *s* were allowed to vary 179 linearly with geographic locations (treated as a discrete variable). The best-fit model for SM_{50} 180 was determined using the AIC_c (Akaike's Information Criterion corrected for sample size). Initial fits suggested that Baltimore and Norfolk Canyons had similar SM50s, so post hoc models were fit which included grouped areas by geographic location (i.e. north canyons vs. south

 canyons); models were included in the analysis of physiological and behavioral maturity for comparison. Baltimore and Norfolk Canyons are the current fishing grounds for RDSC, hence, combining the sites in the model may be helpful for the fisheries management. All statistical 186 results in this study are presented as mean \pm standard deviation (mean \pm SD). 187 RESULTS A total of 681 female crabs were collected for the study across all years, seasons and geographic locations, ranging from 34.6 to 123.4 mm CL (Table 1, Fig. 2A). We observed that samples 190 collected from Hudson Canyon had smaller CL sizes $(69.9 \pm 11.6 \text{ mm CL}, N = 64)$ than Baltimore (81.0 ± 10.5 mm CL, *N* = 254) and Norfolk (87.5 ± 10.7 mm CL, *N* = 363) Canyons. Most samples were collected in fishing grounds (i.e. Baltimore and Norfolk Canyons) using round traps (Fig. 2B). It is important to mention that all samples from Hudson Canyon were collected by trawl, whereas, Baltimore and Norfolk Canyons were a combination of trawl (38% and 7%, respectively) and fishing traps (68% and 93%, respectively) (Table 1). *Ovarian development* We described five stages of ovarian development for female RDSC. The ovarian wall was formed by a thin epithelium and a thick layer of connective tissue and the ovary was formed by lobular areas where oogenesis occurs. The center of the ovary lobes was the germinal zone with new oogonia and oocytes developing, and, upon maturation, moving from the center to the periphery of the ovary (Fig. 3). The percentage of the types of oocytes varied between the stages of ovarian development. One-way analysis of variance showed a significant difference in the 203 mean oocyte diameter of females between ovarian stages $(F = 684.3; P < 0.001, df = 4)$. Stage 1 (Immature): An ovary at early development was generally very thin or small in

relation to the cephalothorax. The ovary color was white or ivory and smooth in appearance. The

 ovary was frequently difficult to distinguish from the hepatopancreas in very small females. At this stage, present in the ovary are oogonial cells, primary and secondary oocytes, and previtellogenic oocytes located in the germinal zone (Fig. 3A). The primary and secondary oocytes are small and elliptical with a basophilic ooplasm and a large nucleus relative to the ooplasm (Fig. 4A). The previtellogenic oocytes have a moderate basophilia of the ooplasm, smaller nucleus and large nucleolus compare to primary and secondary oocytes (Fig. 4A). In this phase, the previtellogenic oocytes increase in size and mark the transition from basophilia to eosinophilia. As the previtellogenic oocytes continue to develop, they shift from the germinal zone to the periphery with follicle cells nearby. The ovary wall is thick and consisted of three distinguishable layers of epithelium and an underlying layer of thick connective tissue. Agglomerations of follicle cells were present in the ovary in this stage. Previtellogenic oocytes (88.6%) predominated at this stage, but oogonia, primary, and secondary oocytes (9.9%), and early vitellogenic oocytes (1.5%) were also present (Fig. 5A). The mean oocyte diameters ranged 219 from 76.7 to 196.6 μ m (164.6 \pm 22.7 μ m, *N* = 43, Fig. 5B). Due to absence of oocytes, measurements were not taken from three females. Female sizes ranged from 34.6 to 80.9 mm CL 221 (65.7 \pm 9.2 mm CL, $N = 46$, Fig. 6A, B).

 Stage 2 (Early maturing): In this intermediate development stage, the ovary was small to medium in size; the color ranged from beige to light yellow to orange. There was a noticeable increase in ovary size compared to the previous stage, and ovaries covered part of the hepatopancreas, and the midgut was still visible. Lobulation and granular texture of the ovary were first observed at this stage. The ovary was surrounded by thin connective tissue, the ovary wall was not as evident as the previous stage, and the central lumen in the lobes was distinguishable (Fig. 3A). Early vitellogenic oocytes exhibited marginally granular and gradually

 eosinophilic ooplasm due to vacuolated globules and small yolk platelets, as well as smaller basophilic nuclei (Fig. 4B). In the germinal zone, oogonial cells, primary and secondary oocytes (2.2%), and previtellogenic oocytes (44.7%) were observed. However, this stage was dominated by early vitellogenic oocytes (52.3%), and a few late vitellogenic oocytes (0.8%) were present, both were located in the periphery of the ovary with follicle cells nearby (Fig. 5A). At this stage, mean oocyte diameters ranged from 178.2 to 282.4 µm (227.8 ± 24.9 µm, *N* = 101, Fig. 5B). 235 Female sizes in this stage ranged from 53.7 to 101.9 mm CL $(81.5 \pm 10.8 \text{ mm CL}, N = 101, Fig.$ 6A, B).

 Stage 3 (Late maturing): The ovary covered a portion of the hepatopancreas and midgut and ranged in size from medium to large. The color ranged from bright orange to dark orange to brown. The appearance of the ovary was granular with convoluted lobes. The ovary wall was very thin, and the germinal zone and central lumen decreases in area as the oocytes develop into late vitellogenic oocytes (Fig. 3B). The ovary was composed of oogonial cells, primary and secondary oocytes (0.9%), previtellogenic oocytes (18.1%), and early vitellogenic oocytes (17.0%) (Fig. 5A). The predominant late vitellogenic oocytes (52.2%) had an eosinophilic and granular ooplasm, muted eosinophilia in the nucleus, yolk platelets, and lipid droplets (Fig. 4C). A few late vitellogenic oocytes transitioning to mature oocytes (11.8%) were present. Yolk platelets, lipid droplets, and vacuolated globules increased in number, resulting in oocyte enlargement. At this time, we observed the presence of a chorion and tubular follicle cells 248 enclosing the oocytes. The mean oocyte diameter ranged from 259.3 to 503.5 μ m (374.8 \pm 71.1 μ m, $N = 129$, Fig. 5B). Female sizes ranged from 62.9 to 109.2mm CL (87.1 \pm 8.1 mm CL, $N =$ 129, Fig. 6A, B).

 Stage 4 (Mature): The ovary was large, highly lobulated, with a granulated texture and distinguishable oocytes. The ovary overlaid the midgut, heart, and portion of the hepatopancreas. The ovary color in this stage ranged from dark brown to red brown to purple. The ovary wall, germinal zone, and central lumen were faintly visible at this stage (Fig. 3C). During this stage, vitellogenic oocytes were completing maturation and becoming ready to be extruded and fertilized. Vitellogenic oocytes were filled with yolk platelets and lipid droplets and surrounded by tubular follicle cells (Fig. 4D). The size of the nucleus relative to the ooplasm was lower than previous stages. The ooplasm of the vitellogenic oocyte was very granular and eosinophilic due to yolk accumulation. The ovary was entirely mature with vitellogenic oocytes (85.2%) and a few late vitellogenic oocytes (1.9%). Oogonial cells, primary and secondary oocytes (0.8%), previtellogenic oocytes (11.8%) and a few early vitellogenic oocytes (0.3%) were found in the ovary indicating the development of a new cohort (Fig. 5A). This suggests that the development 263 of oocytes in the ovary is continuous. The mean oocyte diameter ranged from 504.3 to 671.4 µm 264 (578.6 \pm 44.2 mm CL, *N* = 48, Fig. 5B). Female sizes ranged from 77.6 to 110.9 mm CL (92.0 \pm 8.2 mm CL, *N* = 48, Fig. 6A, B).

 Stage 5 (Redeveloping): After egg extrusion, the ovary underwent severe reduction in size and became smooth-textured, and the color varied from ivory to beige. This stage is very similar to the immature stage except all the females were ovigerous. During this stage, oocytes 269 that had not been extruded from the ovary were being resorbed. Atretic oocytes had a degenerating ooplasm with vacuoles, a thick surrounding membrane surrounded by follicle cells, and an amorphic shape (Fig. 4E). Atretic oocytes (2.5%) at different degrees of resorption were found in the ovary, although the ovary was dominated by previtellogenic oocytes (85.2%) with few oogonia, primary and secondary oocytes (6.5%), and early vitellogenic oocytes (5.8%) (Fig.

274 5A). The mean oocyte diameter ranged from 120.3 to 546.9 μ m (191.1 \pm 50.4 mm CL, *N* = 37,

275 Fig. 5B). Ovigerous female sizes ranged from 59.7 to 110.7 mm CL (88.6 \pm 7.9 mm CL, $N = 37$,

Fig. 6A, B).

Physiological maturity

 A total of 435 female RDSC sampled in 2011–2016 were individually analyzed to estimate size at physiological sexual maturity. The best-fit model showed geographical differences in the estimated value of physiological SM50 and slopes (Table 2) and there was no support for the null 281 model of no difference among the sites. There were a total of four models that had $\Delta AIC_c < 2$ indicating that all had similar levels of support; since all show the same trend of latitudinal 283 differences in the SM_{50} we present the best fit model which shows a difference among the north and south canyons and note that there is evidence that all three differ. In the best-fit model (i.e. 285 model 1 in Table 2), physiological SM₅₀ was estimated at 61.2 mm CL (CI \pm 3.8) for Hudson 286 Canyon (i.e. north site), and 70.8 mm CL (CI \pm 1.9) for Baltimore and Norfolk Canyons (i.e. south sites) (Fig. 7A, B). Physiologically mature females (PMF, *N* = 389) ranged from 53.7 to 288 110.9 mm CL (86.7 \pm 9.5 mm CL, Fig. 8). The mean size of PMF by geographic locations was 73.7, 85.4 and 89.8 mm CL for Hudson, Baltimore, and Norfolk Canyons, respectively. For 290 physiologically immature females (PIMF, $N = 46$), the CL range was 34.6–80.9 mm (65.7 \pm 9.2 mm CL, Fig. 8) and the mean size was 62.8, 65.7 and 68.0 mm CL for Hudson, Baltimore, and Norfolk Canyons, respectively. *Behavioral maturity*

A total of 633 female RDSC sampled in 2012–2016 were individually analyzed to estimate size

at behavioral maturity using condition of the gonopores. Similar to our physiological maturity

296 analysis, the best-fit model (i.e. model 1 in Table 3) showed difference in the $SM₅₀$ among all

 development in RDSC is a slow and prolong process (Fig. 6B), which is consistent with a slow-growing brachyuran in the deep-sea environment (Hastie, 1995).

 As oocyte development progressed, the ovary increased in size and changed in color; however, ovary color overlapped across ovarian stages. Biochemical composition and endocrinology studies of the ovary may clarify the pigmentation changes during development. By examining the oocyte development, we were able to identify the production of a new cohort in the ovary during stages 3 and 4, demonstrating that oogenesis continues before oviposition occurs; therefore, after oviposition the ovary is occupied almost completely by previtellogenic oocytes (i.e. stage 5). The oogonia cells and previtellogenic oocytes had a basophilic ooplasm, whereas the oocytes from early vitellogenesis to vitellogenesis became gradually eosinophilic, similar to *Callinectes sapidus* Rathbun, 1896 (Brown, 2009), *Portunus pelagicus* (Linnaeus, 1758; Ravi *et al.*, 2012) and four Mithracidae species (Mollemberg *et al.*, 2017). The reason for 331 this difference in staining is mainly attributed to yolk accumulation in the oocytes (Smija $\&$ Sudha Devi, 2015).

 Our SM50 estimates of RDSC are lower than previously reported by Haefner (1977) suggesting that females in the current population may be mating at smaller sizes. All the females <70 mm CL of RDSC from the Mid-Atlantic Bight had gonopores with intact margins (i.e. were BIMF) (Haefner, 1977); however, in this study only 53% of females <70 mm CL were BIMF, 337 suggesting that size of BMF has possibly decreased. Considering that 95% of females \geq 70 mm CL were BMF in this study, the current acceptable size to harvest males is 75 mm CL, from 94 mm CW in Chute *et al.* (2008), using the equation for RDSC by Stevens & Guida (2016), and males have to be 50% larger than females for mating (Wahle *et al.*, 2008); thus, it is possible that females may not find males of appropriate size for mating. Further investigation is needed to

 explore the possibility that the differences in size at maturity between Haefner's (1977) study and ours could be a consequence of removing large males from the population during 40 years of fishing.

 The latitudinal trend in both physiological and behavioral SM_{50} estimates for female RDSC, increasing from north (Hudson Canyon) to south (Norfolk Canyon), suggests there are differences in population dynamics by geographical site. The mean CL of female crab was significantly greater at Norfolk Canyon than at any of the other sites (Stevens & Guida, 2016), 349 which is consistent with our SM_{50} estimates. The RDSC fishery is managed as a single stock but this information suggests differences in the reproduction of RDSC due to geographic locations, therefore, stock boundaries may have to be taken into consideration. Latitudinal clines in size at maturity have been attributed to phenotypic plasticity due to environmental variations (Orensanz *et al.*, 2007). The decline in size at maturity with increasing latitudes is the inverse of Bergmann's rule, which establishes that higher latitudes and colder temperature have large-size animals, and lower latitudes and warmer temperatures have small-size animals (Meiri, 2011). This inverse of Bergmann's rule was described for female snow crabs (*Chionoecetes opilio* (O. Fabricius, 1788) in the eastern Bering Sea (Orensanz *et al.*, 2007). Latitudinal clines in size at maturity may denote changes in life history and population dynamics in a species (Hines, 1989). The cause of geographic variations in size at sexual maturity in RDSC merits further investigation since our study present limitations in size frequency and sample size among geographic locations (Table 1, Fig. 2) that may be a result of size selectivity of the sampling methods.

 Size at sexual maturity for RDSC indicated asynchrony between physiological and behavioral maturity, implying that mating may occur prior to completion of ovarian

 development. Analysis of physiologically and behaviorally mature females showed that 58% of females with a stage 1 ovary and 100% of females with a stage 2 ovary were BMF, suggesting they are able to mate before completing the ovarian maturation, hence, they present asynchrony between physiological and behavioral maturity. The red crab, *C. maritae*, from South West Africa is asynchronous (Melville-Smith, 1987); in contrast, *C. notialis* from the southwestern Atlantic Ocean (Delgado & Defeo, 2004) exhibited synchrony. The females of *C. affinis* from the Canary Islands reach morphometric maturity before completing physiological maturation (Fernández-Vergaz *et al.*, 2000), similar to our findings.

 Fisheries management relies on biological information such as sexual maturity to incorporate the population dynamics of a species into stock assessment. We recommend that special attention be given to the geographical differences in $SM₅₀$ within the RDSC population, in order to understand stock structure and improve management. Updated estimates of SM₅₀ for the current population of RDSC suggest that size at maturity has declined over time, possibly as a result of fishing and different stocks defined by geographic range. This study provides valuable information for the development of appropriate management strategies for RDSC.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

 We thank the Atlantic Red Crab Company for allowing us to sample during fishing trips and the assistance provided aboard the vessel. We are thankful to Shadaesha Green, Indu Sharma, and Justin Wilson for their participation during the sample collection. We wish to acknowledge the help provided by Samantha Peart with the histological analysis. Special thanks to Andrés G. Morales-Núñez for permitting us use of his laboratory equipment. We are grateful for the contributions by the anonymous reviewers. Funding for this research was provided by NOAA grants NA11SEC4810002 and NA16SEC4810007 to the Living Marine Resources Cooperative

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 Figure 1. Location of sampling sites for red deep-sea crab, *Chaceon quinquedens*, during cruises aboard NOAA research vessels (2011–2013) and The Atlantic Red Crab Co. F/V *Hannah Boden* (2014–2016) in the Mid-Atlantic Bight.

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- **Figure 4.** Stages of ovarian development of *Chaceon quinquedens* females sampled during
- 2011–2016 in the Mid-Atlantic Bight. Immature stage (**A**). Early maturing stage (**B**). Late
- maturing stage (**C**). Mature stage (**D**). Redeveloping stage (**E**). OC, oogonial cells; PO, primary
- oocyte; SO, secondary oocyte; PVO, previtellogenic oocyte; VG, vacuolated globules; N,

quinquedens in the Mid-Atlantic Bight suggesting a continuous maturation of oocytes in the

ovary (**A**). Frequency of mean oocyte diameter (μm) in the stages of ovarian development (**B**).

 Figure 7. Logistic curves fitted to the physiological and behavioral sexual maturity of *Chaceon quinquedens* females sampled during 2011–2016 in the Mid-Atlantic Bight. The horizontal line represents the proportion of 50% sexually mature. Physiological maturity: Hudson Canyon (**A**) and Baltimore and Norfolk canyons (**B**). Behavioral maturity: Hudson Canyon (**C**), Baltimore 84 Canyon (D), and Norfolk Canyon (E). SM₅₀, size at 50% sexual maturity.

 Figure 8. Size-frequency distributions of physiologically and behaviorally immature and mature females of *Chaceon quinquedens* in the Mid-Atlantic Bight. PIMF, physiologically immature females; BIMF, behaviorally immature females; PMF, physiologically mature females; BMF, behaviorally mature females.

Table 1. Data collected of *Chaceon quinquedens* aboard NOAA research vessels (R/V) and The

Atlantic Red Crab Co. fishing vessel (F/V) *Hannah Boden* in the Mid-Atlantic Bight. CL,

carapace length.

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 Table 2. Model selection table for physiological size at maturity of female *Chaceon quinquedens* sampled during 2011–2016 in the Mid-Atlantic Bight. Model indicates the parameters used in the model, where CL50 is the carapace length at 50% maturity and *s* is the slope. N and S refer to north (Hudson Canyon) and south (Baltimore and Norfolk Canyons) sites, respectively. No, H and B refers to Norfolk Canyon, Hudson Canyon and Baltimore Canyon, respectively. K is the 114 number of parameters for each model and AIC_C is the Akaike's Information Criterion corrected for sample size that was used to determine the best-fit model.

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 Table 3. Model selection table for behavioral size at maturity of female *Chaceon quinquedens* sampled during 2011–2016 in the Mid-Atlantic Bight. Model indicates the parameters used in the model, where CL50 is the carapace length at 50% maturity and *s* is the slope. N and S refer to 127 north (Hudson Canyon) and south (Baltimore and Norfolk Canyons) sites, respectively. No, H and B refers to Norfolk Canyon, Hudson Canyon and Baltimore Canyon, respectively. K is the 129 number of parameters for each model and AIC_C is the Akaike's Information Criterion corrected 130 for sample size that was used to determine the best-fit model.

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