

1   **Title:** Spermatogenesis, reproductive maturation, and spawning seasonality of male winter  
2   flounder, *Pseudopleuronectes americanus*: comparisons among fishery stocks

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10    **Abstract**

11           Winter flounder, *Pseudopleuronectes americanus*, were collected from three fishery  
12   stocks in the United States (U.S.) during 2009-2013 to describe spermatogenesis.  
13   Spermatogenesis included rapid, synchronous transitions during autumn from mitotic  
14   spermatogonia to meiotic spermatocytes, then to haploid spermatids, and the release of  
15   spermatozoa into lobule lumen. As these transitions occurred several months prior to the  
16   spring spawning season, maturity of the testes are a poor indicator of spawning season,  
17   however, individuals can be readily evaluated prior to the spawning season for evidence of  
18   skipped spawning. Throughout this process, the gonad weight increased dramatically, with  
19   spawning-season maxima from 11-17% relative to individual somatic weight, suggesting  
20   considerable reproductive investment relative to other flatfishes. Fish condition also cycled  
21   seasonally, which indicated that males follow a capital breeding pattern that has been reported  
22   for female winter flounder. The timing of spermiogenesis was very similar in the fish among  
23   each U.S. stock (Southern New England [SNE], Georges Bank [GB], and the Gulf of Maine  
24   [GOM]) and published data from coastal Newfoundland, even though U.S. winter flounder  
25   spawned earlier in spring than fish in the Canadian stock. Male maturity varied in relation to  
26   both size and age, and over time, in patterns similar to those reported for female winter  
27   flounder, but at smaller and younger sizes than females. These intra-specific variations in  
28   reproductive seasonality, maturation, and skipped spawning suggest that winter flounder have  
29   the potential to adaptively respond to a dynamic environment in a region where ocean  
30   warming is occurring rapidly.

31 **Keywords:** North Atlantic Ocean; flatfish; male maturity; geographic variation; skipped  
32 spawning; gonad histology

## 33 **1. Introduction**

34 Understanding fish gametogenesis, the order and timing of mitotic and meiotic events,  
35 has widespread relevance to fisheries science. In aquaculture, such basic knowledge is  
36 essential for improving current practices or expanding the diversity of cultured species (Alavi  
37 et al., 2012; Chauvigné et al., 2017). In harvest fisheries, management advice is often based  
38 on an interpretation of a population's reproductive potential, typically using a maturation  
39 schedule to characterize female spawning stock biomass (SSB) (Lowerre-Barbieri et al., 2016;  
40 Saborido-Rey and Trippel, 2013). The frequent use of female SSB proxy estimates may occur  
41 for the sake of model simplicity, but more legitimately because it is assumed that producing  
42 eggs is more costly than producing sperm, and thereby more likely to be a limiting condition  
43 (Bateman's principle). It may also occur because of a lack of evidence regarding a complex  
44 mating system or sex-specific traits, but when this is not true or when no evidence exists, then  
45 this should warrant greater attention to males (McBride et al., 2015; Morgan, 2008). For  
46 flatfishes, attention to the reproductive traits of both sexes appears justified and may improve  
47 predictions about fisheries productivity (Morgan et al., 2011; Trippel, 2003).

48 Sex-specific traits are well described among flatfishes. Size dimorphism is evident in  
49 nearly all flatfishes, such that females grow faster and to larger size than males (Cunningham,  
50 1900; Imsland et al., 1997; Rijnsdorp et al., 2015). Although it is accepted that males mature  
51 at a smaller size and younger age than females, there are few data to support this (Rijnsdorp et  
52 al., 2015). Other morphological differences between sexes, such as scale development, have

53 been observed and postulated to be adaptive for spawning (Cunningham, 1900; Tomiyama,  
54 2013). Sexual dimorphism in flatfish can result in sex-specific exploitation rates and in  
55 fisheries-induced changes to life-history characters, which can have implications for the  
56 biological realism of SSB estimates, our understanding of mating behavior, and predictions of  
57 recruitment (Rijnsdorp et al., 2010).

58 Knowledge about fish reproductive biology is concentrated among the more  
59 economically important fishery species, particularly at northern latitudes (McBride et al.,  
60 2015; Rijnsdorp et al., 2015). Among these well-studied flatfishes is the winter flounder  
61 *Pseudopleuronectes americanus*, which supports commercial and recreational fisheries in the  
62 western North Atlantic Ocean. The United States (U.S.) manages this species as three stocks –  
63 Gulf of Maine (GOM), Southern New England/Mid-Atlantic (SNE), and Georges Bank (GB)  
64 (NEFSC, 2017). The GB stock is a shared stock managed jointly with Canada. Canada  
65 manages three additional stocks (DeCelles and Cadrin, 2011; McBride, 2014). A broad  
66 framework of knowledge, across a broad latitudinal range, exists regarding winter flounder: in  
67 terms of seasonal migrations, habitat use, spawning behavior, and sex-specific reproductive  
68 traits (Fairchild et al., 2013; Kennedy and Steele, 1971; Pereira et al., 1999; Press et al., 2014;  
69 McElroy et al., 2013; Stoner et al., 1999; Wuenschel et al., 2009).

70 Annual oocyte development, spawning seasonality and hormonal cycles have been  
71 well researched for winter flounder (Burton and Idler, 1984; Dunn and Tyler, 1969; Dunn,  
72 1970; Harmin et al., 1995; Ng et al., 1980; Press et al., 2014), and at least relative to other  
73 species, male winter flounder traits are fairly well understood. Some characterization of the  
74 spawning behavior of both sexes, such as promiscuous mating from sunset to midnight, has  
75 also been described (Kennedy and Steele, 1971; Stoner et al., 1999). Moulton and Burton

76 (1999) present cytological details of the testis structure and the rapid process of  
77 spermiogenesis (the transformation of spermatids into spermatozoa) and spermiation (the  
78 release of spermatozoa into the lobular lumen) during autumn, which occurs several months  
79 prior to spawning. For both sexes, maturation schedules have been described, but there has not  
80 been any recent detailed (~25 years) study of males in U.S. waters (O'Brien et al., 1993;  
81 Witherell and Burnett, 1993).

82       Of particular interest when characterizing reproductive potential for winter flounder is  
83 the frequency of reproductively mature but inactive spawners (skipped spawning), which has  
84 been recognized to occur in both sexes (Burton, 1994; Tyler and Dunn, 1976). Winter  
85 flounder skipped spawning was experimentally demonstrated as a response to energetic status  
86 in the post-spawning period, for mature females (Burton 1994; reviewed by Rideout and  
87 Tomkiewicz, 2011). Female skipped spawning rates in U.S. stocks, typically less than 2%, are  
88 lower than the northern GOM (11.5%; McBride et al., 2013; McElroy et al., 2013; Press et al.,  
89 2014). Skipped spawning rates for male winter flounder in Newfoundland waters range from  
90 5- 35% (Burton, 1999), but none have been examined for U.S. waters for males, which we  
91 address herein.

92       Although specific data gaps exists, this level of information makes male winter  
93 flounder an excellent candidate for broad geographic comparisons, which could lead to better  
94 predictions about how marine species respond to dynamic environments (Brander, 2015;  
95 Pankhurst and Munday, 2011). Plasticity in maturity schedules among fish stocks and  
96 geographic regions has been previously documented for female winter flounder (McBride et  
97 al., 2013; Winton et al., 2014) as well as other species like, American shad, *Alosa sapidissima*  
98 and Hogfish, *Lachnolaimus maximus* (Collins and McBride, 2015; Leggett and Carscadden,

1978). Recent use of gonad histology to study U.S. female winter flounder stocks has facilitated comparisons among stock regions, demonstrating that (1) spawning season occurs earlier for southern stocks, (2) maturity is more related to size rather than age, being younger in the south, (3) fecundity is highest in the most southern stock, and (4), skipped spawning rates are lower for females in southern stocks (McBride et al., 2013; McElroy et al., 2013; Press et al., 2014; Winton et al., 2014). Such spatial variation in age at maturity and skipped spawning rates suggest that these life history traits are plastic for female winter flounder. Documenting such plasticity at a stock-specific level is the first step to understanding if such plasticity could be adaptive to climate change.

Paternity can matter, so this study attempts to describe male reproductive traits in a complementary manner as has been done for females (Press et al., 2014). A gonad histology approach is emphasized to describe: the testis structure of winter flounder, its year-round seasonal reproductive cycle at the cytological and population level, and relative rates of maturity and skipped spawning among two U.S. managed stocks and the jointly managed GB stock. Although the sampling domain is largely limited to U.S. shelf waters, where possible, these new results will be compared to published results for Canadian stocks. We also consider how such plasticity should allow winter flounder to respond successfully to climate change, at least within portions of its range but not throughout its historical range.

## 2. Methods

### *2.1 Fish collection and processing*

A total of 602 male winter flounder were collected (total length, TL range 101 – 543 mm) monthly from December 2009 to May 2011 (Table 1.) from the following sources: the

121 Northeast Fisheries Science Center, Northeast Cooperative Research Program (NEFSC-  
122 NCRP) Study Fleet ( $n = 264$ ) and other NEFSC – NCRP studies ( $n = 66$ ); the NEFSC  
123 Ecosystem Survey Branch bottom trawl survey ( $n = 107$ ); the Massachusetts Department of  
124 Fish and Game, Division of Marine Fisheries bottom trawl survey ( $n = 132$ ); the Connecticut  
125 Department of Environmental Protection bottom trawl survey ( $n = 23$ ); and the University of  
126 Rhode Island, Graduate School of Oceanography bottom trawl survey ( $n = 10$ ). Supplemental  
127 samples were used to fill in specific temporal gaps (May 2012 and March, April and May  
128 2013). Geographically, fish were from three stock areas: GOM, GB, and SNE (Figure 1). Due  
129 to logistical constraints, fish were unable to be collected from GB during the months of  
130 February, September, and December.

131         Some fish ( $n = 483$ ) were saved at sea and transferred back to the laboratory where  
132 they were processed within 24 hours to insure the freshness of the reproductive tissue. Total  
133 length ( $TL \pm 1\text{mm}$ ), total body mass ( $BM \pm 0.001\text{g}$ ), total gonad (testis) mass ( $GM \pm 0.001\text{g}$ ),  
134 and a macroscopic maturity stage were recorded. A subset ( $n = 119$ ) of the total amount of  
135 fish used were processed while at sea ( $TL \pm 5\text{ mm}$ ,  $BM$  and  $GM \pm 1\text{g}$ ). Otoliths were removed  
136 and stored dry in envelopes until processed for age determination. A section of gonad tissue,  
137 no larger than  $1\text{ cm}^3$ , was excised from the middle of one testis, fixed in 10% buffered  
138 formalin for histological processing.

139         The gonadosomatic index (GSI) was calculated for each fish as:  $GSI = GM / (BM -$   
140  $GM) \times 100$ . Relative condition ( $K_n$ ) was calculated for each fish as the ratio of the observed  
141 mass over the predicted body mass (Le Cren, 1951) using a reference TL-BM equation  
142 determined from all males sampled. This predicted equation was fit using a log-transformed  
143 least squares regression:  $\ln(BM_{TF}) = -10.773 + 2.892 \ln(TL)$ , ( $n = 566$ ,  $SE\ a = 0.130$ ,  $SE\ b$

144 = 0.023,  $r^2 = 0.97$ ), where a testis-free body mass ( $BM_{TF}$ ) was used to examine changes in  
145 condition independent of testicular development.

## 146 ***2.2 Aging Methods***

147 Ages for 426 males were determined. Whole otoliths were examined in water against a  
148 black background through a dissecting microscope within a range of 1.25 - 1.6× magnification  
149 using reflected light. Ages were determined by counting alternate hyaline (translucent) and  
150 opaque zones from the otolith core to the margin (outer edge). Winter (translucent) bands  
151 appeared dark while summer (opaque) bands appeared white (Penttila and Dery, 1988).

152 For whole otoliths in which the determined age was 5 years or greater, thin sections  
153 were also made. Otoliths were mounted in a wax medium with the core marked, and a  
154 transverse section was taken using a low speed saw with double diamond blades. Sections  
155 were read under a dissecting microscope at a magnification range of 3.2- 4.0× using reflected  
156 light. Using the methodology noted by Penttila and Dery (1988), age determination was made  
157 counting hyaline and opaque zones from the core.

## 158 ***2.3 Histology processing and staging***

159 The fixed testis sample were removed from formalin after one month and prepared  
160 using standard paraffin embedding techniques (McBride et al., 2013). The tissue was  
161 sectioned using a rotary microtome set to 5µm, stained with Schiff's-Mallory trichrome, and  
162 mounted on microscope slides. In the lab, slides were projected onto a monitor with a digital  
163 camera and viewed (40 – 100×).

164 Terminology and description of stages of spermatogenesis followed Grier et al. (2009)  
165 and previous work on winter flounder (Moulton and Burton, 1999). Six germ cell stages were



166 observed: primary (Spg1) and secondary (Spg2) spermatogonia, primary (Spcy1) and  
167 secondary (Spcy2) spermatocytes, spermatids (Sptd), and spermatozoa (Sp). The “most  
168 advanced sperm cell stage” (MASS), along with earlier spermatogenic stages present, were all  
169 recorded. Later, it was determined that distinguishing between primary and secondary – for  
170 both spermatogonia and spermatocytes – did not affect assignment of class or characterization  
171 of seasonality, so these were grouped for all analyses. Additional histological observations  
172 recorded to determine individual maturity were: amount of interstitial tissue (referred to as an  
173 ‘interlobular region’ by Moulton and Burton [1999]); presence of a sperm duct and sperm  
174 within the duct; and tunica thickness ( $\mu\text{m}$ ) and complexity (Table 2). The tunica was  
175 categorized as simple or complex. Simple tunica lacked defined smooth muscle, did not have  
176 notable vascularization, and typically ranged from 10  $\mu\text{m}$  to 35  $\mu\text{m}$  ( $n = 45$  measurements).  
177 Complex tunica had a multi-layered appearance with defined smooth muscle, visible  
178 vascularization within, and it was typically  $>15\mu\text{m}$  during the spring, when maturity classes  
179 were readily distinguished.

#### 180 ***2.4 Maturation and skipped spawning***

181 Maturation schedules were estimated by logistic regression to produce a predictive  
182 maturity ogive. Only fish from January to June were used, as this is when spawning fish were  
183 frequently observed across all stocks and mature fish were readily distinguished from  
184 immature fish. Assignment of maturity, which was based on histology and macroscopic  
185 characters, were simplified to a binary condition of immature or mature (mature = all classes  
186 not immature; Table 2). A generalized linear model was fit to this binary maturity data with a  
187 logit link function in R software (v.3.3.0, [www.r-project.org](http://www.r-project.org)) for both TL and age, including  
188 reporting the median age ( $A_{50}$ ) and length ( $L_{50}$ ) at 50% maturity. Stock differences were

189 explored by adding stock as just a main effect and with an interaction term. These models  
190 were evaluated relative to a base model with just length or age using second order Akaike  
191 information criterion, AICc (Anderson, 2008; using the aictab function in the AICcmodavg  
192 package). Model fit was also compared by looking at the proportional deviance explained, and  
193 specifically the adjusted form (adjusted  $D^2$ ) accounting for the number of parameters and  
194 sample size (Guisan and Zimmermann, 2000; Dsquared function in modEvA package).

195 Skipped spawning rates were calculated by examining mature fish in months prior to  
196 the spawning season, and assigning individuals that had not entered spermiogenesis. This  
197 criterion was consistent with Moulton and Burton (1999). The months used to evaluate  
198 potential skipped spawners for all stocks were December through March (number of mature  
199 males during months examined for skipped spawners: GOM  $n = 34$ , SNE  $n = 67$ , and GB  $n =$   
200 23). These months were selected as spawning active fish could be readily distinguished from  
201 non-spawning individuals; nearly all fish had sperm present and the median GSI was elevated  
202 (approximately 5% or above). As skipped spawners are mature but inactive, they would have  
203 complex tunica, spermatogenic cells not advanced past primary or secondary spermatogonia,  
204 and no sperm present in lobules or the duct.

### 205 **3. Results**

#### 206 ***3.1 Spermatogenic stages***

207 All stages of spermatogenesis were observed, from mitotic proliferation of  
208 spermatogonia to spermiation. Primary spermatogonia were the largest germ cell type (range  
209  $5.4\mu\text{m} - 10.4\mu\text{m}$ , mean  $6.9\mu\text{m}$ ,  $n = 50$ ). They appeared in all maturity classes; whereas,  
210 secondary spermatogonia were an ephemeral stage and were of limited use for characterizing

211 maturity classes. Spermatogonia initially appeared as single cells, and later, organized in cysts  
212 surrounded by interstitial tissue (Figure 2, A1). Seminiferous development was relatively  
213 homogeneous within the testes of all maturity classes, except late in the developing class,  
214 where many cell stages were present (Figure 2, B). Spermatozoa were widespread in the  
215 lobule lumen and the efferent duct, among spawning classes (Figure 2, C and D). Residual  
216 sperm was commonly observed in the lobules among post-spawning classes (Figure 2, E and  
217 F1). Spermatozoa were present in nearly all mature classes, but absent in later stage resting  
218 fish (Figure 2, F2).

### 219 ***3.2 Maturity classification***

220 The MASS and additional histological criteria alone were not enough to distinguish all  
221 mature classes. Therefore, macroscopic characters were incorporated in the definitions of  
222 some mature classes (Table 2); however, immature males were defined using only  
223 microscopic criteria. Throughout the testes of immature males, primary spermatogonia  
224 dominated the testes, the tunica was simple, and a continuous matrix of interstitial tissue  
225 occurred (Figure 2, A1 and A2).

226 The developing class was dynamic, and best defined by the presence of spermatocytes  
227 (Table 2). Depending on where in the developing stage the male was captured, the testes were  
228 either dominated by spermatocytes, or contained a mosaic of all developmental cell stages  
229 (Figure 2, B). The crypt structure containing the meiotic cells was continuous along the  
230 germinal epithelium lining the interstitial tissue, and the tunica appeared simple, as the gonad  
231 size rapidly expanded.

232 Differentiating ripe from ripe and running microscopically posed a challenge. In both  
233 classes, spermatids and fully developed spermatozoa dominated the testes (Figure 2, C and  
234 D). Small nests of primary spermatogonia were apparent, but crypts of meiotic germ cell  
235 stages no longer lined the interstitial tissue. The sperm duct was not always present in the  
236 histology section; therefore, using sperm presence in the duct could not be used as a defining  
237 characteristic. Ripe and running was best differentiated only by macroscopic evaluation, i.e.  
238 the flow of milt from the vent (Table 2), from ripe fish. The limited presence of non-  
239 continuous interstitial tissue and a high GSI discriminated ripe fish from the spent class.

240 Spent testes had an open lumen and lots of continuous interstitial tissue (Figure 2, E).  
241 Unreleased residual sperm was still the MASS, but nests of primary spermatogonia were  
242 clearly evident. The intermediate GSI of spent fish, relative to ripe and resting fish, further  
243 discriminated them (Table 2). At the beginning of the resting stage (Figure 2, F1); residual  
244 spermatozoa in the lumen were still evident but greatly reduced. Later in the resting stage  
245 (Figure 2, F2) the testes had continuous interstitial tissue, primary spermatogonia were the  
246 most abundant germ cell stage, the GSI was low compared to spent fish, and the tunica was  
247 complex distinguishing it from immature fish.

### 248 ***3.3 Seasonality***

249 At the cellular level, spermatogonia were present in fish year round for all stocks  
250 (Figure 3 and 4). Spermatocytes, evidence of meiotic division, were observed in few males in  
251 spring but became more common as the MASS by summer, as early as July, and declined in  
252 frequency by October or November. Spermatids appeared starting in October or November

253 coincident with a rising GSI (Figure 4), and were followed quickly by spermiogenesis and  
254 spermiation, with spermatozoa found in most males until the following summer.

255 At the class level, developing males dominated mature classes in autumn; spawning  
256 classes (ripe, ripe and running) dominated in winter. Spent and resting fish were present  
257 starting in winter, and resting fish dominate in spring and into summer (Figure 3).

258 The GSI followed the seasonal cycle of spermatogenesis, rising rapidly in late autumn,  
259 staying high in winter, and falling later, winter into the spring (Figure 4 and 5). The GSI's  
260 remained low from June to September in all stocks. For all stocks, median GSI was variable  
261 but near peak levels in January and February, with few fish below 5% GSI (Figure 4).  
262 Medians peaked at 6-9% across stocks, but fewer male fish in the GOM appeared to exceed  
263 10%. The median GSI dropped starting in March, but the distribution of GSI's became broad  
264 and bimodal as spawning itself peaked and the number of post-spawning fish increased  
265 (Figure 3 and 5). By April the majority of fish had low GSI's in all stocks, as spent and resting  
266 fish increased. The decline appeared slightly earlier and steeper for fish in SNE compared to  
267 the fish in the GOM, as some ripe fish with elevated GSI's continued as late as May and June  
268 in the GOM. From April to September the median GSI for all stocks was  $\leq 2\%$ .

269 The morphometric condition cycle reflected the seasonal build up and depletion of  
270 energy related to the reproductive cycle. Condition achieved minima in spring (March-May,  
271 later for GOM males) following spawning: median  $K_n = 0.91$  in GB, 0.93 in GOM, 0.95 in  
272 SNE (Figure 5). The fish in SNE declined in condition earlier (beginning in February and  
273 March) and improved sooner ( $K_n > 1.0$  in May) than the male fish in the GOM, which had  $K_n$   
274  $< 1.0$  from March until June and lowest in May. GB data were more limited, but were closer

275 to SNE fish in timing with median condition improving rapidly to above 1.0 in May. Fish  
276 from all three stocks achieved highest condition (median  $K_n > 1.1$ ) in July and August, and  
277 remained high throughout the fall.

### 278 ***3.4 Maturity and skipped spawning rates***

279 The size at maturity varied by stock: the  $L_{50}$  was smallest for males from the GOM  
280 (204 mm TL), higher in SNE fish (236 mm TL), and largest for GB fish (270 mm TL) (Figure  
281 6). Very few mature fish below 200 mm TL were observed in the GOM and SNE, or below  
282 250 mm in the GB stock. Among all stocks only one fish  $> 300$  mm was classified as  
283 immature. Smaller sample size on GB, particularly for immature fish, contributed to lower  
284 confidence in parameter estimation and broader confidence intervals (Figure 6). Model  
285 evaluations demonstrated that including stock as a main effect was the best length model  
286 (Table 3, A); therefore individual stock-specific models and parameters were subsequently  
287 generated. The overall fit of the stock-specific length regressions were reasonable, and the fish  
288 in the GB stock had the steepest slope but highest standard errors around its parameters  
289 (Figure 6; Table 4, B). The SNE maturity at length was the most variable and the length  
290 model had the lowest amount of variation explained ( $D^2=0.40$ ), the GB male model explained  
291 more variation ( $D^2 = 0.63$ ), and the fish in the GOM was intermediate ( $D^2 = 0.50$ ).

292 Stock-specific values of  $A_{50}$  ranged from 2.05 to 2.11 years, and few fish matured at  
293 age 1 or were immature past age 3 (Table 5; Figure 6). There was no evidence for stock  
294 improving the age model (Table 3, B). However, stock-specific age models are presented for  
295 comparison and to provide stock-specific information for use in assessments (Table 4, B). Age  
296 models explained less of the variation in maturity than length models. The fish in the three

297 stocks had similar maturity schedules, 99% mature by age 5, but there was some variation  
298 around age 3 with a higher percentage maturity for the male fish in GB compared to the fish  
299 in the two other stocks (Table 5).

300 No skipped spawners were found in any of the U.S. stocks. Some resting fish were  
301 identified during those months, but residual sperm were present in the lobules or the sperm  
302 duct so therefore were not classified as skipped spawners.

#### 303 **4. Discussion**

304 Winter flounder have an unrestricted testis type, characterized by spermatogonia  
305 distributed throughout the length of the lobules (Uribe et al., 2014). Spermiation in an  
306 unrestricted testis type results in a non-continuous lining of interstitial tissue as the haploid  
307 cells release from germinal crypts into each lobule lumen. This is a common testes type  
308 among teleosts, including flatfish (García-López et al., 2005; Uribe et al., 2014; Weltzien et  
309 al., 2002). Our description of lobule structure, as well as the strong synchrony of meiotic  
310 divisions, agrees with Moulton and Burton (1999), who examined winter flounder from July-  
311 October in coastal Newfoundland. Our year-round and more southerly collections afford new  
312 temporal and spatial comparisons.

313 Most strikingly, male winter flounder in both Canada and U.S. stocks start the annual  
314 cycle of testes development well in advance of spawning. Meiotic divisions were evident as  
315 soon as the spawning season ended in spring, and spermatids were present with elevated  
316 hormone levels by October and November (Harmin et al., 1995; Moulton and Burton, 1999).  
317 Sperm within lobules was first detected in the fourth quarter (October-December) in both U.S.  
318 (data herein) and Canadian (Moulton and Burton, 1999) stocks. Burton and Idler (1984), also

319 in Newfoundland, indicated that sperm was present as early as November and could be  
320 activated in January, even though winter flounder spawn later there than in the U.S. stocks.  
321 Sperm can be observed microscopically nearly year-round because residual sperm was  
322 observed with decreasing frequency in the post-spawning period until autumn, overlapping  
323 with the transition back to meiotic divisions of spermatocytes starting in late summer.  
324 Therefore, the presence of sperm is not a precise proxy for spawning season or maturity class.  
325 Although our terminology refers to a post-spawning ‘resting’ class, this is only in reference to  
326 spawning activity itself, because within the resting gonad, mitotic activity of spermatogonia is  
327 quite active (Uribe et al., 2014).

328         Winter flounder spawn at some of the lowest temperatures of the year (Rogers, 1976).  
329 Ripe individuals occurred as early as November, spawning peaked roughly February-April in  
330 all three U.S. stocks, and some males were ripe as late as June. The seasonality was offset  
331 later in the GOM relative to the other stocks. Ripe males overlapped, even extending before  
332 and after, the appearance of ripe females in these stock areas (January-May; Press et al.,  
333 2014). Although Moulton and Burton (1999) reported a rapid, early (autumnal) transition of  
334 spermiogenesis and spermiation, spawning in Newfoundland occurs later than the SNE and  
335 GB fish and is closer to the colder-water GOM stock in timing (March-June; Burton and Idler,  
336 1984; Kennedy and Steele, 1971;). Moulton and Burton (1999) hypothesized that early and  
337 rapid meiotic development of the testes was adaptive, occurring prior to the winter fast, for  
338 energetic reasons. We are not aware of a rigorous test of such a hypothesis, but this pattern of  
339 spermatogenesis is similar in Newfoundland yellowtail flounder, *Limanda ferruginea*, a  
340 sympatric summer spawner that spermiates the previous autumn (Manning et al., 2004).



341           If GSI is a proxy for reproductive investment then it is interesting to note that male  
342 winter flounder are heaviest just prior to spawning, peaking at about 15% on average (data  
343 herein; Harmin et al., 1995; Stoner et al., 1999), whereas other male flatfishes have GSIs at  
344 5% or less when spawning (Manning et al., 2004; Rijnsdorp et al., 2015). Copious amounts of  
345 sperm may be related to the spawning behavior of this species, which has been observed to  
346 involve multiple males per female (Stoner et al., 1999) and the volume of sperm needed to  
347 fertilize the eggs produced by a female, which ovulates all at once (i.e., total spawner; Burton  
348 and Idler, 1984; Press et al., 2014). Flatfish spawning behavior varies considerably between  
349 species, including courtship and territorial defense (Carvalho et al., 2003; Manabe et al.,  
350 2000), and a review of sex-specific GSI in relation to mating systems could benefit our  
351 understanding of these differences. The high values of male GSI are also an aspect of winter  
352 flounder being capital breeders (i.e., they store energy during summer and use that energy  
353 during the winter spawning period; McBride et al., 2015). Capital breeding is evident in males  
354 from cyclic and inverse patterns of male condition and GSI. Wuenschel et al. (2009) also  
355 report seasonal cycles in percent dry muscle mass (a proxy for energy density) and a  
356 hepatosomatic index in male and female winter flounder offshore of New Jersey, and such  
357 cycles are evident for female winter flounder in other regions (Burton and Idler, 1984; Harmin  
358 et al., 1995).

359           Winter flounder size and age at maturity vary by sex, when adjusted by stock (Table  
360 6). Sex effects have been noted in many flatfish (Fitzhugh et al., 2008; Imsland et al., 1997;  
361 Rijnsdorp et al., 2015), including winter flounder. Kennedy and Steele (1971) reported that  
362 male winter flounder in coastal waters of Newfoundland mature at a smaller size and at a  
363 younger age than females. However, elsewhere in Canada, Beacham (1982) found limited

364 differences between the sexes, particularly in the southern most region examined in that study  
365 (Northwest Atlantic Fisheries Organization [NAFO] region 4X). Our histology-based results  
366 can be compared well to other recent, histology-based studies of female winter flounder from  
367 U.S. stocks, indicating that males mature at a smaller size and age than females when  
368 separated by stock area (McBride et al., 2013; Winton et al., 2014). Macroscopic assessments  
369 of maturity reported limited sex-specific differences, < 20 mm TL, in the 1980s (SNE and  
370 GOM: Witherell and Burnett, 1993; SNE, GOM, and GB: O'Brien et al., 1993).

371 Winter flounder size and age at maturity also varies over time. In the 1980s, male fish  
372 in SNE and GOM had larger  $L_{50}$ s (~40-80 mm) and were older (~ 1yr) than now. For male  
373 fish on GB, the  $L_{50}$ s were smaller and younger compared to fish in SNE and GOM in the  
374 1980's; similar  $L_{50}$ s are evident today (Table 6). Beacham (1982) found a declining trend in  
375 the size at maturity in southern Canada (NAFO region 4X) between 1959-1964 and 1975-  
376 1979 (Table 6). At a practical level, these changes indicate the dynamic nature of maturity  
377 schedules, and why maturity for some fishery stocks is modeled as a moving average, e.g. in  
378 the GB winter flounder assessment (NEFSC, 2011). At a more mechanistic level, changes in  
379 the size at maturity could be related to year-class strength, fishing pressure, environmental  
380 conditions, and habitat quality (Kulaw et al., 2017; McBride et al., 2015; Roff, 1982). Species  
381 like winter flounder have the time-series of data to evaluate how these multiple factors  
382 influence both short- and long-term changes in these traits. The data-rich situation for winter  
383 flounder suggest that a strategic approach to continued monitoring of this species – across  
384 sexes and stocks – may yield insight into these population dynamics.

385 Size at maturity was related to U.S. stock of origin, whereas age at maturity was not.  
386 This result is consistent with the earlier studies for the two inshore U.S. stocks, which had

387 nearly identical  $A_{50}$ 's in the 1980's (Table 6). The maturity differences by fish length reflect  
388 the differences in growth among the stocks: slower in the GOM and faster on GB (NEFSC,  
389 2011). Comparison among regional studies is complicated by temporal change and  
390 methodological differences. In general, most of the Canadian studies have  $L_{50}$ 's closer to the  
391 GOM stock currently, but at an older age (Table 6), consistent with slower growth in the  
392 colder waters. Beacham (1982) compared three regions within Canada in the later 1970's, and  
393 also found the smallest length at maturity in the northern most region (Gulf of St. Lawrence)  
394 at 188 mm (Table 6). Differences in age at maturity among stocks of male and female winter  
395 flounder have been attributed to lower available energy (i.e., shorter growing season) at higher  
396 latitudes (Burton and Idler, 1984; Moulton and Burton, 1999). However, Rijnsdorp et al.  
397 (2015) provides examples of flatfish maturation schedules correlating and not correlating with  
398 latitude. Such dynamics are of considerable interest in a warming ocean, but their  
399 interpretation requires simultaneous consideration of growth and mortality rates, best  
400 examined with a probabilistic maturation reaction norm approach (Rijnsdorp et al., 2015), for  
401 which these data in the current study was insufficient.

402         Sub-stock level variation in the size at maturity for male winter flounder is likely. A  
403 few unusual fish were noted, particularly at the extreme northern and southern ends of the  
404 stock region, but the data is insufficient to examine for intra-stock variation, as done for  
405 female winter flounder in U.S. waters (McBride et al., 2013; Winton et al., 2014). Winton et  
406 al. (2014) uses generalized additive models to show female maturity varying considerably  
407 within both the SNE (by 84 mm) and GOM (by 122 mm) stocks. A spatial cluster analysis  
408 indicates three sub-regions within the SNE stock and six within the GOM stock region. A

409 more comprehensive data set for males would likely reveal a more fine-scale spatial model of  
410 maturation schedules comparable to that reported for females by Winton et al. (2014).

411 Because spermiation occurs well in advance of spawning, this creates a period  
412 preceding or early in spawning to distinguish delayed spawning from skipped spawning  
413 (Rideout and Tomkiewicz, 2011). The presence of residual spermatozoa, months after the  
414 spawning season, also distinguishes post-spawn fish from resting fish during the spawning  
415 season. We looked but skipped spawning by male winter flounder was not observed for any of  
416 the three U.S. stocks examined here. As reported elsewhere, male skipped spawning rates  
417 fluctuate widely across this species' range, as high as 35% in coastal waters of Newfoundland  
418 (Burton, 1994; Burton, 1999) to none observed in U.S. stocks (herein; Wuenschel et al.,  
419 2009). Experimental studies linked skipped spawning to poor condition and reduced feeding  
420 during the period immediately after spawning (Burton, 1994; Burton, 1999), and condition  
421 measures for U.S. stocks have been found to be higher than in the colder water Canadian  
422 stocks (Plante et al., 2005; Wuenschel et al., 2009). We might expect the GOM stock was the  
423 most likely U.S. stock to exhibit male skipped spawning because it had the lowest condition  
424 and coldest waters of the U.S. stocks. However, none was observed currently; therefore we  
425 would expect with warming temperatures it will remain at or near zero in the foreseeable  
426 future. However, female skipped spawning rates were higher (11.5%) in the northern GOM  
427 than the southern GOM (2.7%, McBride et al. 2013), so we might expect changes with  
428 temperature in male skipped spawning could vary within this basin.

429 In terms of geographic stock dynamics, Nye et al. (2009) reports a conflicting pattern  
430 of shifting distributions of winter flounder stocks. Specifically, the center of distribution of the  
431 fish in the SNE stock has moved northward whereas the fish in the GOM stock has moved

432 southward. Nye et al. (2009) suggests that the geography and bathymetry of the GOM, as well  
433 as migratory behavior (from southern to northern stocks) could have contributed to the  
434 southward movement of the biomass centroid for some species, including winter flounder.  
435 From our perspective focused on reproductive biology of male and female winter flounder, we  
436 suggest changes in vital rates and therefore productivity as the primary mechanism. Warming  
437 in the southern region could be causing physiological stress for the portion of winter flounder  
438 at its southern distributional limit, such as offshore of New York and New Jersey, thereby  
439 decreasing growth or reproductive success (Bell et al., 2018; Wuenschel et al., 2009). This  
440 decreased productivity at the stock's southern range makes it look like the stock's center of  
441 distribution is moving northward, rather than the actual fish moving northward. The opposite  
442 response could be operating in the GOM where growth and maturity rates, along with other  
443 vital rates, may actually be improving with warming trends. Increased productivity could be  
444 driving the center of the biomass distribution southward, rather than the fish moving  
445 southward. The effects of temperature on productivity can be difficult to disentangle from  
446 other well recognized drivers, such as fishing pressure, larval dispersal, mortality, and  
447 recruitment (Adams et al., 2018; Baudron et al., 2014; Morgan et al., 2014), but here, we  
448 make two points: 1) demographic dynamics means that not all fish need migratory behaviors  
449 or large home ranges for their populations distributions to 'move,' and 2) the distributions and  
450 demographics of the 'cold-water' species may be independent between stocks. The maturity  
451 schedules presented herein, and elsewhere for females (Winton et al., 2014), serve as a basis  
452 to monitor the potentially adaptive stock-specific vital rates in response to a warming ocean.

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753 **Table 1:** Immature and mature male winter flounder collected by month and stock area (Gulf of Maine [GOM], Georges Bank [GB] and southern  
754 New England [SNE]). Sample size (*n*), total fish length (TL), and total body mass (BM) are summarized.

Stock Maturity		Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Total ( <i>n</i> )
GOM	<i>n</i>	0	0	0	1	38	0	0	0	11	0	1	0	51
	TL range (mm)				130	101-273				125-235		244		
	BM range (g)				24	13-257				24-174		201		
Immature	<i>n</i>	8	11	12	30	65	2	6	2	11	12	14	3	176
	TL range (mm)	279-366	305-351	265-365	190-347	116-419	288-298	276-365	337-345	223-353	170-338	270-368	320-346	
	BM range (g)	237-715	345-526	201-555	70-495	18-889	238-303	227-735	523-553	144-624	63-478	100-764	398-482	
Mature	<i>n</i>	0	0	0	9	0	1	0	1	0	2	1	0	14
	TL range (mm)				140-290		274		323		250-380	327		
	BM range (g)				29-284		271		421		160-655	442		
GB	<i>n</i>	6	0	17	20	11	21	3	6	0	9	6	0	99
	TL range (mm)	396-437		338-503	230-530	330-384	310-543	406-473	354-480		290-490	345-420		
	BM range (g)	781-1159		456-1628	130-1590	438-643	359-1625	820-1033	527-1379		275-1355	505-915		
Immature	<i>n</i>	1	0	9	18	25	3	11	7	3	3	0	2	82
	TL range (mm)	274		119-280	129-291	143-307	220-272	155-217	185-244	131-216	213-226		245-246	
	BM range (g)	238		17-255	24-328	35-438	152-277	46-134	84-180	29-118	107-131		174-184	
Mature	<i>n</i>	9	11	39	21	38	18	6	3	5	13	9	8	180
	TL range (mm)	259-357	308-358	170-403	167-355	212-369	236-398	180-340	208-394	238-295	209-310	225-321	209-310	
	BM range (g)	222-565	349-580	61-776	45-525	118-545	169-685	80-180	126-306	181-327	119-374	139-422	99-374	
SNE														

755 **Table 2:** Macroscopic and microscopic characteristics of male winter flounder testes, specifying the criteria used to assign a maturity  
756 class. Macroscopic characters are modified from Burnette et al., (1989) and microscopic characters are adapted from Moulton and  
757 Burton (1999). (GSI, gonadosomatic index).  
758

<b>Maturity Class</b>	<b>Macroscopic characteristics</b>	<b>GSI</b>	<b>Microscopic characteristics</b>	<b>Staging criteria using macroscopic and microscopic characteristics</b>
<b>Immature (Im)</b>	Testes triangular shape, endpoint is rounded and flattened. Extends back into body cavity. Translucent to gray in color.	mean: 0.3 range: 0.1 - 3.6 stdev: 0.5	Nests of primary spermatogonia. Continuous interstitial tissue throughout and a simple tunica.	No spermatozoa present and simple tunica.
<b>Developing (De)</b>	Testes enlarged and firm, very little or no milt present. Off white to gray in color.	mean: 2.85 range: 0.02 - 16.1 stdev: 3.67	Several germ cell stages present within the teste: Primary and secondary spermatogonia, primary and secondary spermatocytes, spermatids and sometimes spermatozoa. Continuous interstitial tissue.	Primary and secondary spermatocytes present.
<b>Ripe (Ri)</b>	Testes now very large and robust, with a thick liquid consistency. Chalky white in color.	mean: 8.9 range: 2.1 - 28.3 stdev: 4.2	Spermatozoa encompass most of lobule area and some spermatids may be present. Small nests of primary spermatogonia present. Thin sections of non-continuous interstitial tissue and a simple tunica.	GSI >2% and spermatozoa present. Some or little non-continuous interstitial tissue.
<b>Ripe and Running (RR)</b>	Milt flows easily from vent with little or no pressure, once cut open milt flows easily. Very “jello- like” consistency. Chalky white in color.	mean: 6.4 range: 1.5 - 13.3 stdev: 3.2	Very similar to ripe stage. Mostly spermatozoa throughout, some spermatids still visible. Nests of primary spermatogonia present and a simple tunica.	Assigned using macroscopic criteria.
<b>Spent (St)</b>	Testes flaccid, not as robust as in ripe stage. Will contain residual milt. Edges and other parts of testes starting to turn gray in color.	mean: 1.6 range: 0.8 - 4.2 stdev: 0.98	Residual spermatozoa within lobules and the duct (if duct is present in section). Nests of primary spermatogonia more abundant than ripe and ripe and running stages. Open spaces with lots of thick interstitial tissue throughout. Complex tunica.	GSI between 0.8 and 2%. Or GSI > 2% if lots of continuous interstitial tissue present.
<b>Resting (Re)</b>	Testes shrunken in size and tightened up. Little to no residual milt. Yellowish, brownish, or gray in color.	mean: 0.4 range: 0.02 - 0.8 stdev: 0.2	Nests of primary spermatogonia more abundant. Sections of residual spermatozoa often present within lobules and the duct (if duct is present in section). Lots of interstitial tissue and complex tunica.	GSI <0.8% and complex multi-layered tunica.

759 **Table 3:** AICc model analysis comparing logistic regressions of male winter flounder maturity at length (A) and age (B). The base model (just  
760 length or age) was compared to models including stock both as a main (+) effect or an interaction term (\*). The model evaluation output  
761 includes the number of estimable parameters (K), the second order Akaike's Information Criterion (AICc), change in the AICc between  
762 models ( $\Delta AICc$ ), the AICc weight (AICc Wt.), log-likelihood (LL), and adjusted proportion of the deviance explained (adjusted  $D^2$ ).

763

								764
A	Model Names	K	AICc	$\Delta AICc$	AICc Wt.	LL	Residual Deviance	Adjusted $D^2$
	model TL + Stock	4	261.43	--	0.9997	-126.67	253.34	0.4749
	model TL * Stock	6	263.91	2.48	0.2244	-125.86	251.72	0.4759
	model TL	2	277.71	16.28	0.0003	-136.84	273.68	0.4353
<b>B</b>								
	model AGE	2	279.42	--	0.7984	-137.70	275.39	0.3895
	model AGE + Stock	4	282.18	2.75	0.2016	-137.04	274.08	0.3895
	model AGE * Stock	6	283.41	3.99	0.0981	-135.61	271.21	0.3930

766 **Table 4:** Coefficients and standard errors presented for stock-specific logistic regressions of male winter flounder maturity at length (A) and age  
767 (B) and for overall models of all stocks combined. Measures of model fit include the residual deviance, degrees of freedom (DF), second  
768 order Akaike's Information Criterion (AICc), and adjusted proportion of the deviance explained (adjusted D<sup>2</sup>).

<b>A</b>	<b>Stock</b>	<b>Intercept</b>		<b>Slope</b>		<b>Residual Deviance</b>	<b>DF</b>	<b>AICc</b>	<b>Adjusted D<sup>2</sup></b>
		<b>Intercept</b>	<b>SE</b>	<b>Slope</b>	<b>SE</b>				
	GOM	-8.055	1.452	0.039	0.006	91.01	165	95.08	0.496
	GB	-15.228	5.299	0.056	0.018	22.82	83	26.97	0.625
	SNE	-8.368	1.338	0.036	0.005	137.89	190	141.95	0.402
	ALL	-7.523	0.866	0.034	0.003	273.68	442	277.71	0.435
<b>B</b>									
	GOM	-3.483	0.799	1.647	0.302	94.72	154	98.80	0.408
	GB	-6.556	2.433	3.199	1.090	28.80	81	32.95	0.523
	SNE	-3.482	0.697	1.659	0.277	147.69	185	151.76	0.328
	ALL	-3.661	0.512	1.758	0.202	275.39	424	279.42	0.389



769 **Table 5:** The percent mature at age estimated using the stock-specific models from Table 4B.

AGE	GOM	GB	SNE
1	13.8	3.4	13.9
2	45.3	46	45.9
3	81.1	95.4	81.7
4	95.7	99.8	95.9
5	99.1	100	99.2
6	99.8	100	99.8
7	100	100	100

770 **Table 6:** Reported estimates of length ( $L_{50}$ , mm) and age ( $A_{50}$ , yr) at 50% maturity for male winter flounder from different regions and stock time  
771 periods. Estimates were fitted to data assuming a logistic cumulative density function unless noted. Canadian stocks listed by NAFO  
772 divisions.

773

Region	Stock	$L_{50}$	$A_{50}$	Time period	Citation
Newfoundland, Canada	3L	210	5	1962 - 1963	Kennedy & Steele (1971)*
Gulf of St. Lawrence	4T	188	3.7	1975 - 1979	Beacham (1982)*
Magdalen Islands, Canada	4T	207	-	2006 - 2008	DFO (2010)
Scotian Shelf (north)	4W	229	-	1975 - 1979	Beacham (1982)*
Scotian Shelf (south)	4X	292	-	1959 - 1964	Beacham (1982)*
Scotian Shelf (south)	4X	254	-	1975 - 1979	Beacham (1982)*
Massachusetts, U.S.	GOM	272	3.3	1983 - 1991	Witherell & Burnett (1993)
Massachusetts, U.S.	GOM	276	3.3	1987 - 1990	O'Brien et al. (1993)
Northeast U.S. coast	GOM	204	2.1	2009 - 2013	Current study
Georges Bank	GB	256	1.8	1986 - 1990	O'Brien et al. (1993)
Georges Bank	GB	270	2.1	2009 - 2013	Current study
Massachusetts, U.S.	SNE	280	3.1	1983 - 1991	Witherell & Burnett (1993)
Massachusetts, U.S.	SNE	290	3.3	1985 - 1990	O'Brien et al. (1993)
Northeast U.S. coast	SNE	236	2.1	2009 - 2013	Current study

774

775 \* Used a probit link to estimate a median size-at-maturity parameter but this probably accounts for only minor differences from logit link estimates.  
776 Kennedy and Steel (1971) did not report an  $A_{50}$  value so was estimated from their tabulated data.

**Figure 1:** Map of the study region along the North American east coast (inset). The three stock areas are marked by thick black lines: Gulf of Maine (GOM), Georges Bank (GB), and Southern New England (SNE). Crosses (+) indicate where samples were collected and their size is scaled to the number of male winter flounder sampled per location. The black dashed line indicates the U.S./Canadian exclusive economic zone boundary.

**Figure 2:** Testicular tissue of winter flounder, *Pseudopleuronectes americanus*, showing different spermatogenic cell types and structures seen in the maturity classes.

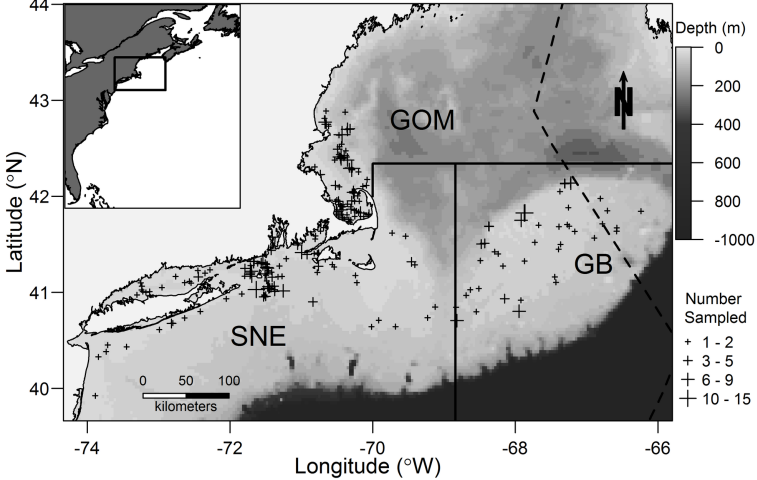
**Immature (A1 and A2):** Primary spermatogonia grouped in nests, continuous interstitial tissue, and simple tunica, is shown. **Developing (B):** A mosaic of several stages at once, continuously along the interstitial tissue. **Ripe (C):** Spermatozoa dominate the lobules, thin sections of non-continuous interstitial tissue, and isolated nests of primary spermatogonia. **Ripe and running (D):** Very similar to ripe stage microscopically with simple tunica shown. **Spent (E):** Primary spermatogonia nests, thick continuous interstitial tissue, and residual spermatozoa within lobules. **Resting (F1):** Early in this stage residual spermatozoa still present, complex tunica and recrudescing primary spermatogonia. Later in this stage (**F2**), tightly packed primary spermatogonia and continuous interstitial tissue. Labeled features include: primary spermatogonia (Spg1); primary spermatocytes (Spcy1); spermatids (Sptd); spermatozoa (Sp); simple tunica (sTN); complex tunica (cTN); continuous interstitial tissue (cIT); non-continuous interstitial tissue (nIT). Scale bar for images A1, A2, C, D, F1 and F2 = 50µm; for images B and E = 25µm.

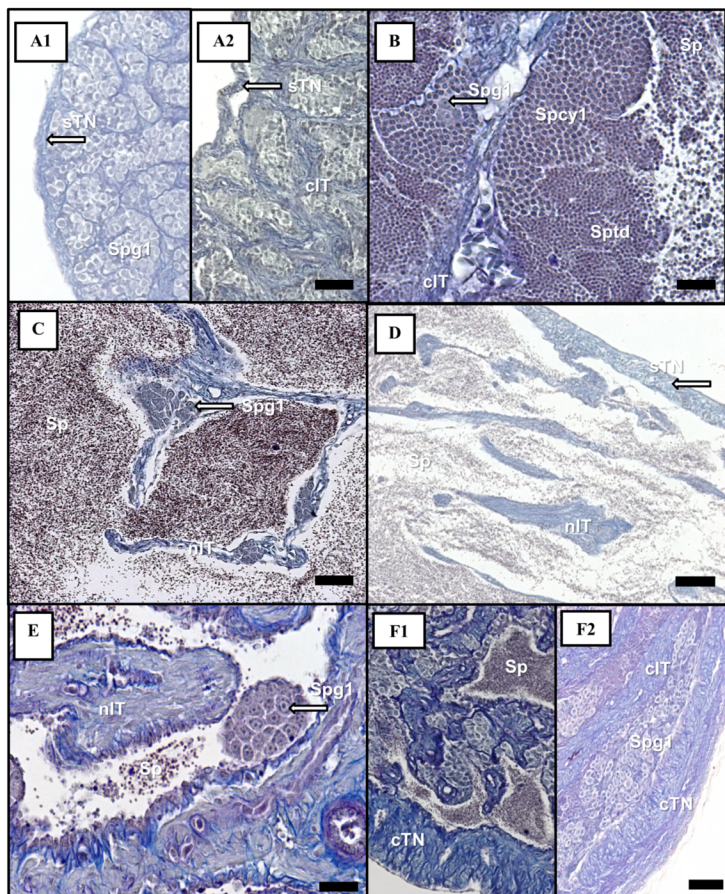
**Figure 3:** Monthly trends in assigned maturity class (Re, resting; St, spent; RR, ripe and running; Ri, ripe; De, developing) (top panel) and most advanced stage of spermatogenesis (Sp, sperm; Sptd, spermatids; Spcy, spermatocytes; Spg, spermatogonia) (bottom panel) compared by stock (see Figure 1 for stock definitions). Only mature male winter flounder are included. The numbers above the bars represent sample sizes. No fish were collected in February, September, and December for GB. Data not plotted for months with less than 3 fish.

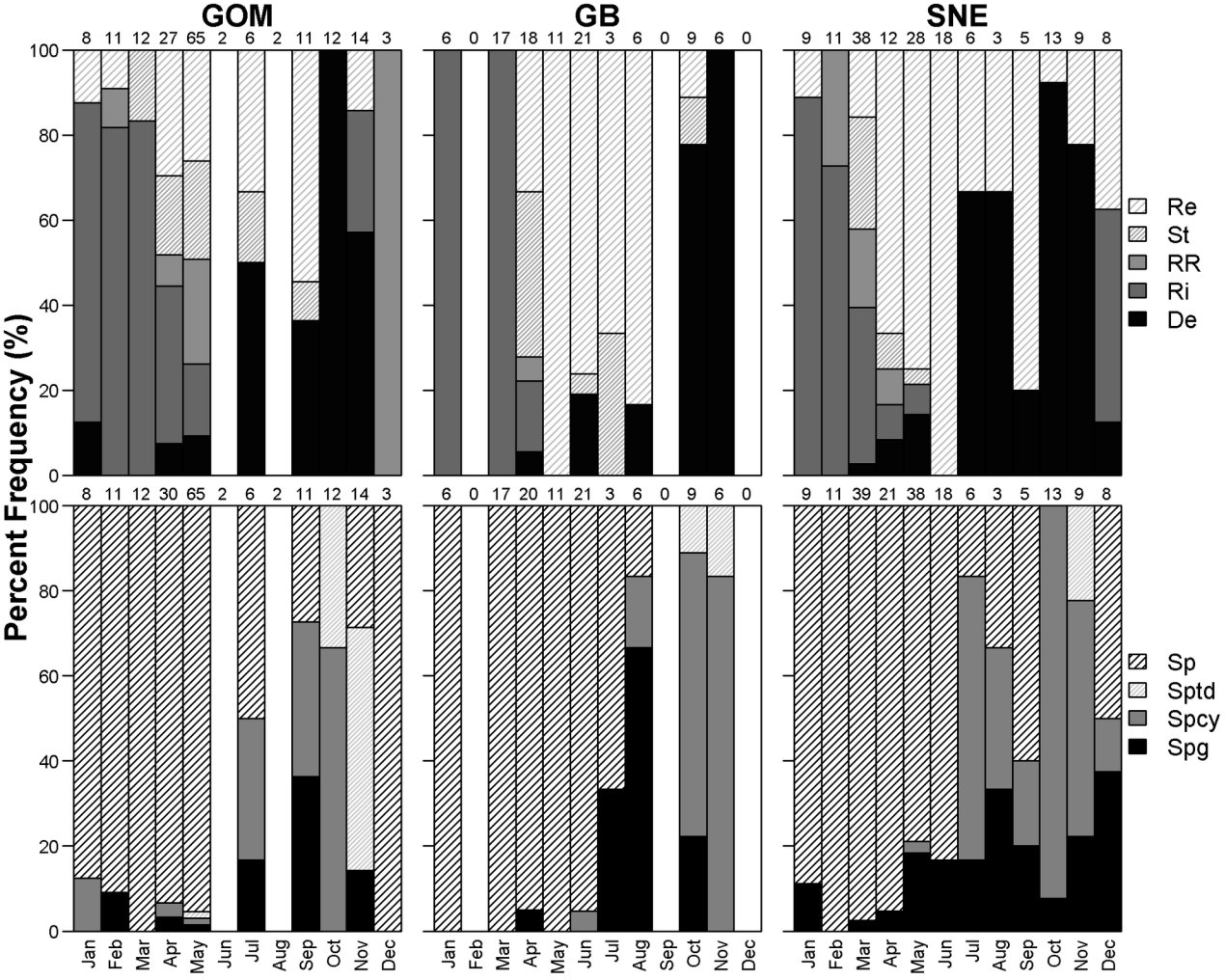
**Figure 4:** Seasonality of spermatogenesis (circles) with the median gonadosomatic index (GSI, gray line) on the secondary y-axis compared by stock of male winter flounder (see Figure 1 for stock definitions). The black circles are scaled as a proportion of males each month a sperm stage (Sp, sperm; Sptd, spermatids; Spcy, spermatocytes; Spg, spermatogonia) was observed. Crosses indicate germ cell stage not observed in that month. Immature males not included.

**Figure 5:** Monthly trends in gonadosomatic index (%GSI) and condition ( $K_n$ ) compared by stock of male winter flounder (see Figure 1 for stock definitions). Numbers above represent sample size. Immature males were not included. Horizontal line indicates 'average' condition ( $K_n = 1$ ), and plus signs indicate outliers.

**Figure 6:** Length-based (left) and age-based (right) maturity ogives for male winter flounder by stock (see Figure 1 for stock definitions). The solid line is the predicted fit, and dashed lines are the 95% confidence intervals. Points along the axes indicate sizes or ages of immature (bottom axes) or mature (top axes) males (ages are jittered to show the density of individuals). Sample size ( $n$ ), and point estimates for the size (mm) or age (yr, year) at 50% maturity are listed on each panel.







# Stage of Spermatogenesis

