

**Investigations on the biology of Indian Mackerel *Rastrelliger kanagurta* (Cuvier) along the Central Kerala coast with special reference to maturation, feeding and lipid dynamics**

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*in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of*

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## DECLARATION

I, Ganga. U., do hereby declare that the thesis entitled “**Investigations on the biology of Indian Mackerel *Rastrelliger kanagurta* (Cuvier) along the Central Kerala coast with special reference to maturation, feeding and lipid dynamics** “ is a genuine record of research work carried out by me under the guidance of **Prof. (Dr.) C.K. Radhakrishnan**, Emeritus Professor, Cochin University of Science and Technology, and no part of the work has previously formed the basis for the award of any Degree, Associateship and Fellowship or any other similar title or recognition of any University or Institution.

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Kochi – 16

September-2010

## **CERTIFICATE**

This is to certify that the thesis entitled “Investigations on the biology of Indian Mackerel *Rastrelliger kanagurta* (Cuvier) along the Central Kerala coast with special reference to maturation, feeding and lipid dynamics” to be submitted by Smt. Ganga. U., is an authentic record of research work carried out by her under my guidance and supervision in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy of Cochin University of Science and Technology, under the faculty of Marine Sciences.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AA	Arachidonic acid
DHA	Docosahexaenoic acid
DOC	Dissolved organic carbon
EPA	Eicosa pentaenoic acid
FA	Fatty acids
FOM	Final Oocyte Maturation
FOM	Final Oocyte maturation
GSI	Gonado-somatic Index
$I_p$	Index of Preponderance
MUFA	Mono unsaturated fatty acids
PG	Prostaglandins
PUFA	Poly un saturated fatty acids
$R_s$	Rank Correlation Coefficient
SFA	Saturated fatty acids

CHAPTER 1  
GENERAL INTRODUCTION

## CHAPTER 1

### GENERAL INTRODUCTION

The Indian mackerel *Rastrelliger kanagurta* (Cuvier, 1817) is a pelagic fish that is widely distributed in the Indo-Pacific region. Along the Indian coast its fishery is only second in importance to the oil sardine *Sardinella longiceps*. During the present decade (2000- 2008) the average all India landings was estimated at 1.29 lakh tones (t) most of which was landed along the southwest coast of India especially in Kerala and Karnataka. However, recent reports indicate that climate change induced variations in the marine environment such as sea surface temperature (SST) have impacted the mackerel and sardine stocks leading to the northward extension of their distribution ranges resulting in development of new fisheries targeting mackerel especially along the northwest coast of India (Asokan *et al.*, 2009).

A species can comprise of a single stock or a number of stocks with a fixed spawning ground and specific spawning season and probably a consistent migratory circuit (Begg and Waldman, 1999). From the point of fisheries management, it is observed that there is localized variation in fishing intensity along the Indian coast and therefore the stocks have to be effectively delineated and managed. To facilitate formulation of such appropriate exploitation and management strategies on local/ regional scales a holistic knowledge-base on biology, life history and behaviour of major commercial fish species in the region is crucial (Adams, 1980; Begg *et al.*, 1999). With regard to *R. kanagurta*, studies on morphometrics, food and feeding habits, maturity and spawning have

concentrated only in certain fishery centres such as off Calicut (Malabar Upwelling zone) of the state of Kerala and the Mangalore / Karwar coast of the state of Karnataka (Noble and Geetha, 1992). Relatively few reports on the fishery and biology of mackerel in other regions of its occurrence along the west coast (Rao, 1967; Kutty, 1965; Noble, 1974; Gopakumar *et al.*, 1991); east coast ( Rao, 1962; Abdussamad *et al.*, 2006 ) of India as well as from the Andaman seas (Jones and Silas, 1962; Luther,1973) are available. The present study focuses on the mackerel resource available off Cochin along the Central Kerala coast where the status of the resource is not yet reported.



Plate 1. Indian mackerel *Rastrelliger kanagurta* (Cuvier, 1817)

**1.1. Taxonomic classification:**

ORDER: PERCIFORMES

FAMILY: SCOMBRIDAE

SUB-FAMILY : SCOMBRINAE

GENUS: *RASTRELLIGER*

SPECIES: *KANAGURTA*

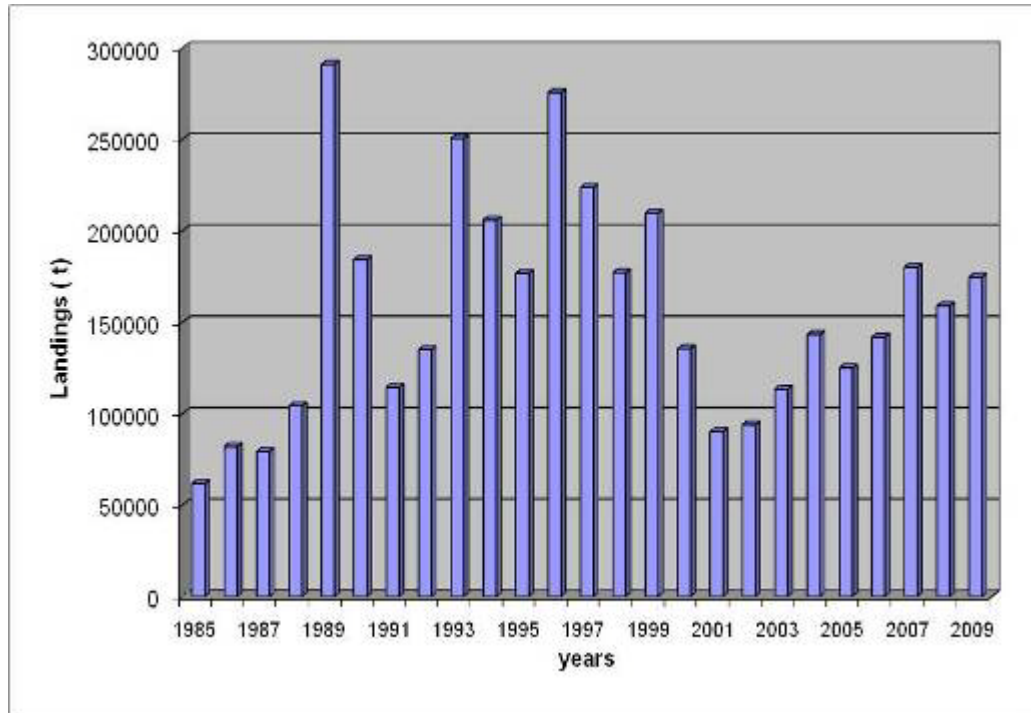
**Distinguishing characters:** Body bluish green with dark stripes or rows of dusky spots along upper half of the body, 2 dorsal fins, the first being spiny and the second one rayed, 5-6 pairs of anal finlets, pelvic fin without spine, snout pointed and length of head distinctly greater than depth of body (used to distinguish from another species, *R. brachysoma*).

**1.2. Distribution & Fishery:** *R. kanagurta* is widely distributed in the tropical Indo-west Pacific region, along both east and west coast of India and the Andaman and Nicobar Islands. Dense shoals occur in the coastal waters upto 50 m depths forming a major fishery along the west coast of India. Along the east coast, distribution and maximum abundance recorded at about 70 - 100 m depths.

The mackerel fishery along the Indian coast is essentially comprised of a single species, *R. kanagurta* although two other species namely, *R. brachysoma* (Bleeker, 1851) in Andaman seas (Jones and Silas, 1962) and *R. faughni* (Matsui, 1967) along the east coast of India (Gnanamuttu, 1971) are also recorded to occur in stray numbers. The fishery of Indian mackerel *R. kanagurta* is typically characterized by wide annual fluctuations and during the last 2 decades has varied from 113,000 t (1991) to a record high of 290,000 t in 1989 while the average all India catch during 2007- 08 was 165,000t (Fig. 1.1). Maximum exploitation of the resource has been recorded from the southwest (Kerala, Karnataka and Goa) coast of India using seines, gillnets and trawls. During the 90s a quantum leap in the annual marine fish catch was reported along the Kerala coast resulting mainly from increased catches of small pelagics

such as sardines and mackerel, which could be attributed to the introduction of an innovative gear the ring seine and motorization of country crafts as well as development of fishing harbours.

Of late the technological innovations, have led to changing fishing patterns and exploitation is spreading on temporal as well as spatial scales. Prior to 80s the monsoon season coinciding with spawning and recruitment of marine fishes along the southwest coast was an unofficial closed season due to the rough weather. But technological innovations in the fishing crafts and gears as well as the development of fishing harbours paved the way for exploitation even during monsoon by the early 90s. By the late 90s a sizeable portion of the mackerel caught by ring seines along the Malabar coast occurred during the monsoon period coinciding with their peak breeding and juveniles or first time spawners formed major portion of the catches which led to suggestions for exercising caution in such large scale capture (Yohannan and Nair, 2002). During 2005-08 period, the average annual mackerel catch along the Kerala coast was 55,380 t which was landed mainly by ring seines, followed by outboard gill nets and trawls. Nearly 11% of this catch was from the Central Kerala belt comprising the coastal districts of Ernakulam and Alappuzha. Although the fishery occurred throughout the year, peak catches were recorded during the monsoon (June – September) period followed by the post monsoon period (October – January).



Source: CMFRI Annual Reports

Fig. 1.1. All India landings (t) of Indian mackerel during 1985 -2009

**1.3. Length composition:** Yohannan and Sivadas (2003) reported that the average length frequency distribution of mackerel along the west coast of India is constituted by size group 110 – 150 mm with mode at 145 mm, while along the east coast, larger size groups of 175 -215 mm with modal size 195 mm are recorded. During the period 2004 -2008, the mackerel landings off Cochin were mainly constituted by the 190 - 200 mm size group (64% in numbers landed) with the average season-wise length frequency as given in Fig. 1.2. Earlier, Noble (1974) had reported that mainly juveniles < 190 mm dominated in the fishery along the Cochin coast which was carried out using gill nets in inshore waters. The subsequent introduction of ring seines by larger motorized/mechanized



crafts which extended the area fished to deeper waters than that exploited during the 80s may explain the landings of larger size groups subsequently.

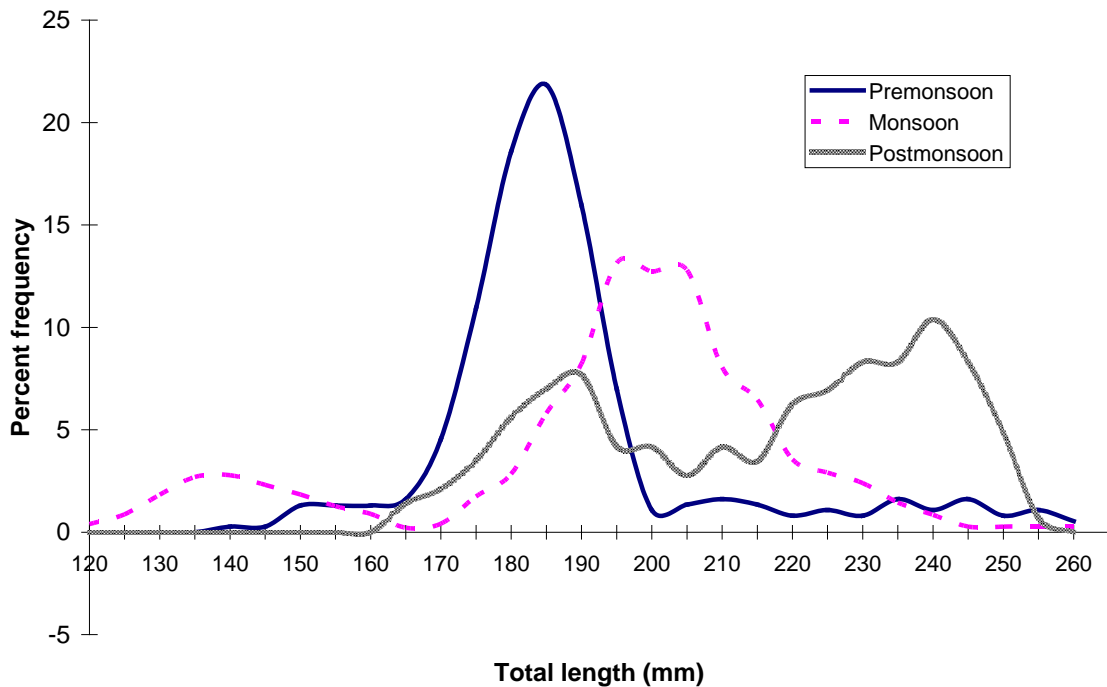


Fig.1.2. Seasonal length frequency distribution of mackerel caught by ring seines and trawls along the Central Kerala coast (2004 - 2008 average)

**1.4. Age and growth:** The life span of mackerel is believed to be about two years and growth is very fast especially in the juvenile stages, with fishes reaching a length of about 190 mm by the end of first year (Devaraj *et al.*, 1997).

**1.5. Maturation and spawning biology:** Peak spawning and recruitment is reported to be coinciding with the southwest and northeast monsoon seasons on the west and east coasts of India respectively (Qasim, 1973). The FAO/UNDP assisted exploratory surveys of pelagic resources considers the central Kerala

belt as an important spawning area of the Indian mackerel (Anon., 1976). However detailed studies on the maturity and spawning dynamics of mackerel in other regions including off Cochin coast are few.



Plate 2. Different size groups of *R. kanagurta* occurring in the mackerel landings

**1.6. Food and feeding habits:** The Indian mackerel has been variously classified as a planktonivore/ omnivore with varied diet composition (diatoms, dinoflagellates, copepods, crustaceans and occasionally fish and sand particles) recorded by researchers in various fishery centres along the Indian coast

(Vivekanandan *et al.*, 2009). Except a few reports based on stray landings of mackerel from deep sea trawlers conducting exploratory surveys from the northwest coast observations on diet composition of mackerel are mostly from inshore waters of < 20 m depths (Kutty, 1965; Rao, 1965). It has been hypothesized that the microbial loop in the coastal waters may be a significant factor ensuring adequate energy to allow reproduction and recruitment successfully in mackerel even when the environmental conditions and food availability are generally unfavourable to support successful recruitment process of another pelagic species, the oil sardine, sharing the same ecosystem with mackerel (Madhuratap *et al.*, 1994). Detailed studies on the seasonal and ontogenetic changes in the diet composition, qualitative aspects of the diets and feeding dynamics in relation to the spawning/maturation cycle are not reported for the Indian mackerel.

**1.7. Behaviour and Stock studies:** Studies on the fishery by commercial vessels as well as the FAO-UNDP conducted acoustic and exploratory fishing surveys have indicated that the species remains in the shelf waters year around (Anon., 1976). Mackerels have a tendency to remain in the mixed layer, just above the thermocline where food availability is good. With the beginning of the sinking of thermocline starting sometime by November in the Arabian Sea they also move to deeper waters which results in declining catches from surface gears such as seines and appearance in the bottom-set gears such as trawls (Yohannan and Abdurahiman, 1998). Large scale occurrence / migration of juvenile mackerel in inshore region during the period immediately following the

monsoon has been recorded. Morphometric/meristic studies, tagging, electrophoretic as well as DNA techniques have been applied in *R. kanagurta* stock studies (Seshappa, 1985; Menzes *et al.*, 1993; Jayasankar and Dharmalingam, 1997). According to Nair *et al.* (1970) the few tagging studies conducted suggest limited offshore migration and probably a long-distance north-south migration along the west coast of India. However, he concluded that a number of independent and discrete populations of *R. kanagurta* exist within a single stock in Indian waters. Later, genetic studies using DNA markers (Jayasankar and Dharmalingam, 1997) suggested restricted intermixing of populations which supports the observations of Nair *et al.* (1970). The stock is believed to be optimally exploited along the Indian coast and showing regional variations in fishing mortality rates (Noble *et al.*, 1992; Devaraj *et al.*, 1994; Yohannan *et al.*, 2002 ). The less exploited deeper waters are believed to serve as natural refuges of the resource making it strong enough to withstand high fishing mortalities especially along the west coast of India (Yohannan *et al.*, 2002).

**2. Background of the study:** An understanding of the reproductive biology of a species is an important prerequisite for providing scientific advice for fisheries management to enable optimum exploitation of the concerned species in tune with its reproductive characteristics. Some of the important life-history traits of fishes which determines the productivity of the resource which can be usefully integrated into scientific advice for fisheries management include the size/age at first maturity, sex ratio, fecundity, spawning periods and spawning behaviour

(Katsukawa, 1997; Morgan, 2008). There is a longstanding interest in fish lipids due to the fact that they play an important role in the life-histories and physiology of fish as well as the fact that they contain highly unsaturated fatty acids that are particularly important in the nutrition of many animals including humans. The major role of lipids in fish is for the storage and provision of metabolic energy in the form of ATP provided through  $\beta$  oxidation of fatty acids (Sargent *et al.*, 2002). Lipid energy has therefore been considered as a proxy for egg production and reproduction in several fish stocks for assessment of recruitment and stock abundance that is likely to follow (Marshall *et al.*, 1999; Kamler, 2005). It is also sufficiently well documented that all fish species have a unique and specific fatty acid composition and the critical factor determining the species level fatty acid composition is the specificity of enzyme regulated fatty acid oxidation of the various fish species (Tocher, 2003). The specific fatty acid composition is reportedly important not only for the well being of the particular fish species, especially in ensuring successful reproduction, larval survival and growth to adult stage but also in terms of providing health promoting fatty acids such as Docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) and Eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) to human consumers. Maturation and recruitment dynamics of marine fish is critically dependant on availability of food resources (Wootton,1985) and diet is considered a critical factor regulating reproductive success in fishes especially through their control on polyunsaturated fatty acid (PUFA) content (Sargent *et al.*, 1999). According to Kraak *et al.* (1998), PUFAs being important regulators of steroid biosynthesis in fishes are influenced by their diet and represent an

important signal underlying the dietary modulation of reproductive functions in fish. Thus, in wild fish stocks who obtain their energy sources from natural feeds, environment induced adverse feeding conditions can constrain reproduction process which will in turn negatively impact their recruitment to the fishery (Lauth and Olson, 1996). This means that studies on the commercial fishery resources should also be related to the food energy available to sustain the resource. For this, information on feeding strategies for utilization of available food resources and feeding preferences of the different size/ maturity groups of many commercially important fish species in Indian seas is required but available literature is rather scanty. The present study therefore was aimed at understanding the dynamics of the *R. kanagurta* resource using a holistic approach integrating information on the maturation, feeding and lipid dynamics from a relatively less studied region, namely, the Central Kerala coast on the west coast of India.

**3. Study Area:** The state of Kerala has a coastline of about 560 Km and the



central zone comprises the coastal districts of Ernakulam and Alleppey. This region has an extensive system of backwaters and also falls within the upwelling ecosystem of the south-west coast of India. The region has rich diversity and supports substantial marine and estuarine fisheries (Menon *et al.*, 2000). The mackerel fishery which is generally

Fig. 1.3. Map Showing location of study area

poor in the southern zone comprising districts of Trivandrum and Quilon shows increase in the central zone and progressive increase in catches is recorded from further northern districts of Kerala such as off Calicut (Kozhikode district) which is the Malabar upwelling ecosystem.

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CHAPTER 2  
MATURATION DYNAMICS



## CHAPTER 2

# MATURATION DYNAMICS

### 2.1. Introduction

Fishery management requires knowledge of different aspects of the reproductive biology of the fishes. This is because of the fact that the productivity of the resource is to a very large extent influenced by the reproductive traits of the particular species which in turn determine its resilience capacity and to what level the resource can be sustainably exploited by the fisheries sector (King, 1995). Each fish species has a unique set of reproductive characters (pattern of gamete development, duration of spawning season and associated endocrine changes) which can be used in formulating capture fisheries management policies (Macer, 1974; Johannes, 1978; Kathirvelu *et al.*, 2003) as well as in controlled fish breeding programmes for mariculture (Poortenar *et al.*, 2001).

Marine fishes exhibit wide heterogeneity in reproductive strategies and tactics with the main objective being to maximize progeny in relation to available energy and parental life expectancy that will reach adulthood to further propagate the species (Balon, 1984; Lambert and Ware, 1984; Ware, 1984; Wootton, 1985). The reproductive strategy of a species is the overall pattern of reproduction common to the individuals of a species whereas the reproductive tactics are those variations in response fluctuations in the environment (Wootton, 1985). A key issue in the estimation of the egg production and resilience potential in any fish species is to correctly identify its reproductive strategy that includes oocyte development pattern, fecundity type and spawning pattern (Holden and

Raitt, 1974; Smith and Walker, 2004; Murua and Saborido-Rey, 2003). It is also necessary to estimate fecundity and establish fecundity – size (length/weight/age) relationships to scale estimates of spawning stock biomass or spawner abundance to the population egg abundance which can aid a prediction of the following recruitment to the fishery (Rickman *et al.*, 2000; Murua *et al.*, 2003).

As the reproductive potential of individual fishes within the spawning stock affects recruitment most fish biomass assessment programmes require inputs on reproductive parameters such as the age/length at maturity, proportion of mature fishes in the population, fecundity and spawning frequency (Nikolskii, 1969; Conover, 1985; Parrish *et al.*, 1986; Rothschild, 1986; Lambert, 1990; Koslow, 1992; Kjesbu *et al.*, 1996a; Trippel *et al.*, 1997; Marshall *et al.*, 1998; Rickman *et al.*, 2000; Rose *et al.*, 2001; Scott *et al.*, 2005). Thus, results from studies on fish maturation dynamics using exploratory surveys for estimation of spawner, egg and larval biomass, application of macroscopic staging of gonads and histological interpretation of ovarian development pattern and estimates of reproductive parameters have been widely applied to formulate capture fisheries management strategies such as enforcement of minimum catch at size restrictions, closed fishing seasons during peak breeding periods as well as in aquaculture sector for improved breeding technologies (Poortenar *et al.*, 2001; Murua and Saborido-Rey, 2003; Smith and Walker, 2004).

Taking into consideration the above, the present study focuses on the Indian mackerel which is an important pelagic resource contributing nearly 6% of

the total marine fish landings of India. The resource is a major component of the landings along the southwest coast of India especially Kerala and Karnataka with wide fluctuations in annual landings. Although its fishery biology with regards to maturation, spawning and recruitment is relatively well studied from the Malabar upwelling ecosystem of Kerala, relatively little information is available from the Central Kerala belt which is a different and unique ecosystem (Menon *et al.*, 2000). This region has been identified as the major spawning gyre of the Indian mackerel based on fish and larval surveys (Anon., 1976) but there are hardly any literature regarding its maturation and spawning dynamics from this area.

## **2.2. Review of literature**

**2.2.1. Maturation and Spawning:** Spawning patterns and precise maturity ogives are critical inputs in fish stock assessments. Growth, maturation, fecundity and timing of spawning are interrelated and vary both within and among fish stocks and have been used to identify natural stock units as well as estimate spawning stock sizes in wild fish populations (Begg *et al.*, 1999). According to Beverton (1992) appreciation of the demographic significance of maturation in marine fish in relation to size and age was realized by year 1900 but was applied in fishery science much later. In most of the tropical marine fishes, maturation is a continuous process resulting in the occurrence of mature fishes throughout the year (Longhurst and Pauly, 1987). However climato-hydrographical factors such as rainfall, water temperature and wind act independently or in combination as a kind of stimulus for gonad development to create peak spawning in certain

months of the years (Weber, 1974; Sundararaj, 1981; Lam, 1983; Peter and Yu, 1997; Nath *et al.*, 2007).

Maternal attributes and condition can affect fish maturity and reproductive performance (McEvoy and McEvoy, 1992; Scott *et al.*, 1999; Marteinsdottir and Begg, 2002; Blanchard *et al.*, 2003; Morgan and Lilly, 2006). More recently attention is being given to male reproductive characteristics also in relation to offspring production (Trippel, 2003; Kamler, 2005). Rajasilta (1992) reported that maturation rate is dependant on fish condition with well-feeding fish maturing at a higher rate, with larger gonads and reproducing earlier than those which feed less well. Ware and Tanasichuk (1989) reported maturation rate of Pacific herring to be size dependant with larger fish maturing first. Similar observations of size related maturation have been recorded in certain pelagic fishes such as atherinids (Moreno *et al.*, 2005).

Several studies have also indicated long term changes in growth patterns and age/length at maturity for several fish stocks (Jorgensen, 1990 - Atlantic cod *Gadus morhua*; Rjindsorp, 1993- North sea Plaice *Pleuronectes platessa*; Agnalt, 2006 – mackerel *Scomber scombrus*; Silva *et al.*, 2006 - Sardines *Sardinella* spp.). Some of these changes in maturation patterns are possibly fishery-induced and have been interpreted as compensatory density – dependant effects that regulate population growth (Bowering, 1989; Jorgensen, 1990; Rjindsorp, 1993, Helser and Almeida, 1997; Rose *et al.*, 2001; Olsen *et al.*, 2004; Ernande, 2008). However, contrary to these observations, Junquera *et al.* (2004) has noted stability in the reproductive parameters in the halibut fish in spite of the temporal

changes in stock sizes over a period of 9 years. Density dependant changes in maturation can arise from food limitation due to increased intra-specific competition that directly limits energy supply for gonad development (Morgan, 2004) or indirectly impacts growth which influences the triggering of maturation (Engelhard and Heino, 2004). An earlier age at maturity and an increase in the length specific fecundity is considered a mechanism to ensure high reproductive output when the spawning stock decreases (Koslow, 1995; Trippel *et al.*, 1997).

Hilborn and Walters (1992) suggested that spatial variations in maturation within the boundaries of a stock should also be taken into account in stock assessment if they are associated with large spatial differences in population abundance. Agnalt (2006) studying the long-term changes in growth and age at maturity of mackerel *Scomber scombrus* from North sea, related the decline in size/age at maturity during the 80s to immigration of another stock. Wang *et al.* (2009) showed how sampling biases can affect estimates of length/ age at 50% maturity and suggested need to monitor maturation schedules via multiple maturation indices.

From Indian seas, studies on maturation and spawning of several commercial species are available (Prabhu, 1955- Ribbonfishes; Prabhu, 1956; Pradhan, 1962- flatfish *Psettodes erumei*; Raju 1964, 1964a - skipjack tuna *Katsuwonus pelamis*; Dharmamba, 1959; Annigeri, 1963; Antony Raja, 1964, 1971; Radhakrishnan, 1967; Dhulkhed, 1968 - sardines and clupeids ; Sekharan, 1958; Radhakrishnan, 1965; Rao, 1967 - Indian mackerel; Appa Rao, 1964; Devadoss, 1969 - sciaenids; Marichamy, 1970 - anchovies; Kagwade, 1968 -

carangid *Caranx kalla*; Kagwade, 1970- Threadfins *Polynemus* spp.; Krishnamoorthi, 1971-Threadfin bream *Nemipterus japonicus*; Marichamy,1971- Spotted herring *Herklotsichthys punctatus*; Rangarajan, 1971- Snapper *Lutianus kasmira*; Selvaraj and Rajagopalan, 1973, Rao and Krishnan, 2009 - Rock cod *Epinephelus* spp.; James and Vasudevappa, 1978 – catfish *Tachysurus dussumieri*; Pati, 1982- silver pomfret *Pampus argenteus*; Devaraj, 1983 - Seerfishes *Scomberomorus* spp.; Rao, 1983 - Lizard fishes *Saurida* spp.; James and Badrudeen, 1986 - Leiognathids; Rajaguru, 1992- Flatfishes; Zacharia and Jayabalan, 2007 – whitefish *Lactarius lactarius*). In the Indian seas the main spawning season of many marine fishes including *R. kanagurta* is reported to coincide with the southwest and north-east monsoons along the west and east coasts respectively (Qasim, 1973; Weber, 1974). Yohannan and Nair (2002) reported that the main spawning season of *R.kanagurta* along the southwest coast occurs during May to July and the successful broods produced during this time are the ones that support the fishery of the ensuing season. Off the Cochin coast, Noble (1974) noted a general dominance of juveniles only and very few mature mackerel in the commercial landings by gill nets. According to Antony Raja (1971) in oil sardine unfavorable ecological conditions inhibit the normal maturation process thereby constraining the recruitment process. Maturation schedules have been reported to shift in *Nemipterus* spp. with the species showing a maximum spawning season trend towards cooler climatic conditions (Vivekanandan, 2009). Such climate-change induced impacts if any, probably

due to sea water temperature rise have not yet been studied for other species including mackerel in the Indian seas.

**2.2.2. Length at first maturity ( $L_m$ ):** This is the mean length at which fish of a given population develop ripe gonads for the first time (Froese and Pauly, 2010). The length at first maturity ( $L_m$ ) is an important parameter influencing fecundity of fish and has to be assessed as shifts in the age or size at maturation have been documented for a number of exploited populations (Rothschild, 1986). Studies conducted during the 40s to 60s period have indicated the length at first maturity ( $L_m$ ) of mackerel to be at 190- 224 mm length (Devanesan and John, 1940; Pradhan and Palekar, 1956; Rao, 1967). Sekharan (1958) reported that at the time of first spawning, mackerel are about two years old and measuring 200 - 220 mm in total length. In comparison, studies on Indian mackerel sampled from Andaman seas were reported to have high  $L_m$  of 250 – 259 mm (Luther, 1973) which was attributed to the presence of only large size groups available for the study. However, some recent studies indicate a significant decline with an  $L_m$  of 170 -180 mm (Prathibha and Gupta, 2004; Sivadas *et al.*, 2006).

**2.2.3. Gametogenesis:** Fish have evolved to reproduce under environmental conditions favorable to the survival of the eggs and larvae and long before spawning, seasonal cues begin the process of maturation. When the gonads have matured, a favourable environmental stimuli (changes in photoperiod, temperature, rainfall and food availability) can trigger ovulation and spawning (Lam, 1983; Stacey, 1984). The environmental conditions which play a key role in fish reproduction by affecting fecundity levels and thereby controls recruitment in

wild fish populations (Kjesbu *et al.*, 1998; Rjindsorp, 1991; Koslow *et al.*, 1995) are reported to be mediated by the neuroendocrine regulatory mechanisms that act via the hypothalamo-hypophyseal-gonadal axis (Nath *et al.*, 2007). During the reproductive process of female fishes, two major physiological events occur- 1) gradual enlargement of ovaries due to formation and yolky oocytes known as vitellogenesis mediated by the gonadotropin GTH1 and 2) maturation, ovulation and spawning of yolky oocytes mediated by the gonadotropin GTH2 (Nagahama, 2000). Basic patterns of oocyte growth in all species can be divided into five phases, namely, primary oocyte growth, cortical alveolar stage, vitellogenesis, maturation and ovulation (West, 1990; Tyler and Sumpter, 1996). Changes in plasma levels of gonad steroids and oocyte development in several marine teleosts (Whitehead *et al.*, 1983; Pankhurst and Conroy, 1988; Matsuyama *et al.*, 1990, 1991; Kjesbu *et al.*, 1996; Roberts, 1999; Poortenar *et al.*, 2001; Sun and Pankhurst, 2004; Sabet *et al.*, 2009) has been reported. In several species including scombroids a protracted spawning period termed a bet-hedging strategy which is aimed at taking advantage of prey availability and optimizing larval survival is observed (Lambert and Ware, 1984).

Many multiple spawners have rhythmic periodicity of reproductive behavior with spawning confined to limited period of day or night (Devanesan and John, 1940; McEvoy and McEvoy, 1992). Schaefer (1998) noted diel pattern in ovarian maturation and spawning of yellow fin tuna while Shirashi *et al.* (2005) observed a lack of population synchrony in gonad development of captive chub mackerel *Scomber japonicus* after injection with human chorionic gonadotropin.



In aquaculture knowledge of timing of successive ovulations is critical as the ovulated eggs which are retained in the ovary lumen are to be removed by manual stripping of ripe females within a specified period of time, otherwise they will be over-ripened and lose their viability (McEvoy and McEvoy, 1992). Energy required to carry out the gametogenic process in fishes is usually obtained using directly ingested food (opportunistic pattern) or stored reserves from muscle/liver/other organs (conservative pattern) and is used to define the reproductive pattern in fishes (Darriba *et al.*, 2005).

**2.2.4. Ovary development and classification:** On the basis of oocyte size distribution, ovaries of teleosts have been classified into three basic types, synchronous, group synchronous and asynchronous (Wallace and Selman, 1981). In synchronous spawners (eg. *Salmo salar*, *Clupea harengus*) all oocytes develop and ovulate at the same time and further replenishment from earlier stages does not occur and hence due to a single spawning batch in a season show a narrow size distribution of oocytes. In group-synchronous spawners, ovaries contain two groups of oocytes, one homogenous group with larger oocyte diameter (defined as a “clutch”) and a heterogenous group of smaller oocytes from which “clutches” are formed periodically. The fishes with asynchronous development pattern have protracted spawning seasons with multiple spawnings and there is continuous recruitment of ova into maturation/ovulation, with ovaries characterized by many different sized oocytes accumulating yolk (Murua and Saborido-Rey, 2003). Asynchronous oocyte development is supposed to be adaptive to an environment where either the environmental conditions are

conducive for a prolonged breeding period or where the environmental conditions are extremely unstable in the short term so that reproductive effort can be invested profitably at the most opportune time (Lambert and Ware, 1984). In contrast, synchronous oocyte development is considered as a specialized characteristic, possibly restricted to species which make long energy-demanding migrations to spawning grounds (DeVlaming, 1983; Kjesbu *et al.*, 1998). Among asynchronous development patterns, determinate and indeterminate spawners are distinguished, based on the presence and absence respectively, of a size gap between maturing (vitellogenic oocytes) and immature (pe-vitellogenic) eggs. In species with determinate fecundity the standing stock of vitellogenic oocytes is fixed prior to onset of spawning whereas in those species exhibiting indeterminate fecundity *de novo* vitellogenesis continues even after the onset of spawning (Murua *et al.*, 2003). From the perspective of fish life-history tactics, repeated oogenesis (indeterminate fecundity pattern) during the spawning season requires faster maturation of oocyte, but it enables a fish to adjust its reproductive investment more economically in accordance with its body condition, energy budget and availability of food (McDowall and Eldon, 1997). However in few species no consensus has been reached regarding determinate/indeterminate fecundity (Greer Walker *et al.*, 1994; Mcdermott *et al.*, 2007; Gordo *et al.*, 2008) although it is a critical factor in deciding among the two methods (annual egg production method AEPM/ Daily egg production method DPEM) used for estimating spawning stock biomass and recruitment process as part of allotting annual fish catch quotas (Hunter *et al.*, 1985; Priede and Watson,

1993; Jennings *et al.*, 2001; Stratoudakis *et al.*, 2006). de Vlaming *et al.* (1982) and Cayre and Laloe (1986) reviewed the use of gonad index to study spawning dynamics. Ovarian growth from about 1% or less of body weight to 20% or more prior to spawning has been reported (Wiegand, 1996).

**2.2.5. Fecundity:** The estimation of fecundity usually refers to the determination of number of vitellogenic oocytes (potential fecundity), which is strongly influenced by female size, trade-off between egg size and egg numbers, reproductive strategy and spawning pattern of the species (Lambert, 2008). Although fecundity is described as the number of eggs per female, various terms defining the different facets of fecundity exist such as 1) Total fecundity- defined as the standing stock of yolked oocytes at any time; 2) Batch fecundity - the number of eggs in the most advanced stage in a mature ovary ; 3) Annual population fecundity- number of eggs that all females in a population spawn in a breeding season (Hunter *et al.*, 1992; Bagenal, 1978). Fecundity has been related to fish length as well as condition factor (Blaxter and Hempel, 1963; Bengston *et al.*, 1987; Marshall *et al.*, 1998; Oskarsson *et al.*, 2002). Kjesbu *et al.* (1998) reported on the fecundity, egg size and atresia of captive Atlantic cod in relation to proximate body composition while Bleil and Oeberst (2005) studied the variations in potential fecundity of the Baltic Sea cod during the period 1993 - 1999 and found it related to the stock size. Fecundity variations within and between various wild populations of Chinook salmon was reported by Healey and Heard (1984). Thrush and Bromage (1991) reported relationships between fecundity, egg size, egg volume and fish weight in farmed Atlantic salmon.

Classical stock-recruitment models such as Ricker (1954) and Beverton and Holt (1957) take into consideration only stock biomass while efficiency of spawners is generally not taken into consideration (Trippel *et al.*, 1997). However, several studies (Blaxter and Hempel, 1963; Marteinsdottir and Steinarsson, 1998; Vallin and Nissling, 2000) have also indicated maternal influence on egg production both in quantity as well as quality which has important implications for subsequent recruitment to the fishery and its success. Some studies have emphasized that it is the older, larger females which contribute a relatively greater proportion of the population's total egg production and therefore the importance of retention of the brooder fish stock to prevent recruitment overfishing (Hunter and Leong, 1981; Parrish *et al.*, 1986). Larger females which have certain advantages for obtaining food like wider food niche, higher agility in catching prey and also escaping from predators are reportedly placed favorably *vis-à-vis* the smaller females in producing more oocytes through more number of batches of eggs during the spawning season (Chambers and Walwood, 1996; Dominguez-Petit and Saborido – Rey, 2009). Hence inclusion of age/size composition of female fish in the stock for assessing stock recruitment relationships (Marteinsdottir and Thorarinnson, 1998) has been suggested. On the other hand, Ciechomskii and Capezaani (1969) have observed large differences in fecundity of similar sized specimens of Argentinean mackerel *Scomber japonicus marplatensis* while Morgan *et al.* (2007) concluded that the importance of age composition of the spawning stock may not be a universal phenomenon and species to species assessments are required.

Fecundity modality of many multiple spawning species has been assessed using stage specific variations of oocyte size frequency distribution, seasonal decline in total fecundity, seasonal increase/decrease in the mean diameter of advanced vitellogenic oocytes and incidence of atresia ( Murua *et al.*, 1998; Macchi *et al.*, 2000, 2004; Laphikhovskiy *et al.*, 2002; Plaza *et al.*, 2002; Gordo *et al.*, 2008). Fecundity estimates combined with estimates of abundance of eggs in the sea have been used to estimate the stock biomass of several temperate water species with a single well defined spawning peak (Armstrong *et al.*, 2001). Fecundity estimate in multiple spawning fishes with asynchronous ovary depends on the number of batches of eggs and the fecundity of each batch (Hunter and Goldberg, 1980; Clarke, 1987). In indeterminate multiple spawners, new batches of eggs mature throughout the season and therefore fecundity cannot be reliably estimated from counts of oocyte standing crop nor the number of batches per year deduced from the number of oocyte modes and incidence of post-ovulatory follicles or hydrated eggs also needs to be estimated (Hunter and Goldberg, 1980; Hunter and Leong, 1981; Blaxter and Hunter, 1982). Inter-year variability in relative fecundity in the order of 10 to 20% has been demonstrated for several species of fishes such as *Scomber scombrus* (Walsh *et al.*, 1990 ) and Plaice *Pleuronectes platessa* (Rjindsorp, 1991).

According to Bagenal (1966) the amount of food available which in turn is related to population density is the most important factor in determining fecundity of the plaice *Pleuronectes platessa*. Yamada *et al.* (1998) reported that batch fecundity of chub mackerel was affected by the nutritional state of spawning

female. Several studies have concluded that when food resources are abundant the reproductive output of adult fish increase due to energy surplus (Hislop *et al.*, 1978; Wootton, 1979; Townshend and Wootton, 1984; Holdway and Beamish, 1985; Lambert *et al.*, 2000). The study by Hay and Brett (1988) indicated that in herrings, during poor feeding conditions, females allocate more energy to the ovaries in relation to body weight than during good feeding conditions. Wootton (1985) observed that in the stickle back *Gasterosteus aculeatus*, that once spawning was initiated the number of batches of eggs produced depended on the food intake. Changes in food availability and *El nino* events are reported to have adversely impacted the fecundity of several multiple spawners such as sardines, anchovies and sprats (Alheit, 1989).

**2.2.6. Egg size and Fecundity:** Oocyte size measurement have been used to estimate fecundity (Hunter *et al.*, 1985) as well as time to start of spawning (Kjesbu *et al.*, 1994; Oskarsson *et al.*, 2002) and later during spawning, proportion of eggs spawned and spawning frequency (Kjesbu *et al.*, 1990). Cayre and Laloe (1986) have stated that ovarian maturation is a complex process and attempting to describe it by a single parameter (eg., oocyte size) however precise can be misleading. Eenennam and Doroshov (1998) have observed that among the various sturgeon (*Acipenser*) species, the Atlantic sturgeon *A. oxyrinchus* has lower egg diameter and approximate individual and relative fecundity almost double at similar body size indicating species-specific characteristics. Chambers and Walwood (1996) could not find any correlation between female size and egg diameter but related to the condition factor K. Egg size is an important

determinant of egg and larval survival (Bagarinao and Chua, 1986; Brooks *et al.*, 1997; Kamler, 1992, 2005) and many authors have reported positive correlation between egg size and fish (deMartini and Fountain, 1981; Eenennaam and Doroshov, 1998). Greater size of larvae from larger eggs have been recorded in several fishes which positively influences their growth and survival and variations (interspecific and intraspecific) in egg size in fishes and its ecological implications have been reported (Ware, 1975). Offspring properties related to egg size is based mainly on two indices, namely, growth and survival, as predation on fish larvae is operating in a size dependant way and the broader feeding spectra of larger larvae which have a larger mouth gape (Knutsen and Tilseth, 1985) allowing better feeding and growth. According to Kjesbu *et al.* (1998) variations in relative fecundities, vitellogenic oocyte distribution and mean size were reflecting a delicate reproductive tactic to minimize negative nutritional effects on egg size and quality under natural environmental conditions. According to de Vlaming (1983) ovulation and spawning are separate events under different control mechanisms and that in the absence of direct observations on spawning females, it is difficult to predict the number of spawnings and number of eggs spawned from oocyte size frequency distribution alone.

**2.2.7. Atresia:** Follicular atresia is a degenerative process by which oocytes in various stages of their growth and differentiation are lost from the fish ovary (Forberg, 1982; Hunter and Macewicz, 1985; Guraya, 1993). The course of oogenesis in fishes is regulated by environmental, endocrinological and metabolic factors and atresia is considered as an adaptation which leads to

temporary suspension of breeding activity under unfavorable environmental factors (Guraya, 1993). It is an important phenomenon regulating fecundity in many fish species including determinate and indeterminate multiple spawners with low atresia levels characteristic of fishes with determinate fecundity *vis-a-vis* indeterminate fecundity (Macer, 1974; Hunter and Macewicz, 1985; Kjesbu *et al.*, 1991; Witthames and Greer Walker, 1995; Rideout *et al.*, 2000; Murua and Saborido-Rey, 2003). Kjesbu *et al.* (1991) found that actual fecundity decreased by 20 to 80% compared to potential fecundity due to atresia in Atlantic cod. Alekseev *et al.* (1989) noted that in the flying fishes (*Exocetus* spp.) of the available oocytes only about 75% is contributing to the potential fecundity while the rest is resorbed. Research conducted on rates of atresia based on starvation in captive northern anchovy *Engraulis mordax* along with rates of recommencement of spawning after resuming feeding provides insight into relationships between feeding, somatic energy reserves and egg production (Hunter and Macewicz, 1985).

**2.2.8. Whole Oocyte staging and Histology:** The macroscopic staging of fish gonads determined from its gross anatomy and microscopic examination of whole oocytes (Clark, 1934; de Jong, 1940; June, 1953; Davis and West, 1993; Smith and Walker, 2004) is a rapid and inexpensive method to determine reproductive status in fishes and routinely done in most fisheries monitoring programmes. However, it lacks consistency especially with regards to certain maturity stages which are difficult to discriminate macroscopically and only histological studies allow precise unambiguous grading and determination of



reproductive status (West, 1990). Hence the use of histological criteria to establish the stages has been recommended (West, 1990). According to Schaefer (1998) the inadequacy of gonad indices/ oocyte diameters for separating developing ovaries in a stage of early vitellogenesis from post-spawning ovaries in atretic stages of resorption is addressed only by histology. Thus it has often been proposed that histologically validated maturity scales be developed at least for those species of major commercial importance that are regularly monitored for fisheries management purposes (James and Baragi, 1980; West, 1990). Accordingly several important commercial species (capelin *Mallotus villosus*- Forberg, 1982; Sea bass *Dicentrarchus labrax* – Mayer *et al.*, 1988; Dover sole *Microstomus pacificus* - Hunter *et al.*, 1992; Atlantic sturgeon *Acipenser oxyrinchus*- Eenennaam and Doroshov, 1998; Tilapia *Tilapia zilli* - Coward and Bromage, 1998; Baltic cod *Gadus morhua*- Tomkiewicz *et al.*, 2003; bluefin tuna-Corriero *et al.*, 2003; carp *Cyprinus carpio* - Smith and Walker, 2004; Kathirvelu *et al.*, 2003; Japanese anchovy *Engraulis japonicus* - Funamoto *et al.*, 2004; Argentine hake *Merluccius hubbsi*, Macchi *et al.*, 2004; swordfish *Xiphias gladius* –Arocha, 2002; Poisson and Fauvel, 2009; European anchovy- Ferreri *et al.*, 2009) have therefore been assessed using histological aids. Studies by James and Baragi (1980) have indicated that although many marine fishes in Indian waters are multiple spawners, individual species differ in their maturation patterns and more studies to recognize and classify these stages are required possibly employing histological methods. However, relatively few species of

marine fishes of commercial importance have been evaluated using histological indices (Tessy, 1994; Gopalakrishnan, 1991; Rao and Krishnan, 2009 ).

**2.2.9. Studies on Reproduction dynamics of Scombroids:** Murua and Saborido-Rey (2003) described the reproductive strategies of a large number of commercially important fishes of the North Atlantic including scombroids such as Atlantic and Chub mackerel, yellowfin tuna and swordfish taking into consideration oocyte development, ovary organization, recruitment of oocytes and spawning pattern. Studies on scombroids (Albacore tuna- Otsu and Uchida, 1959; Atlantic mackerel, *Scomber scombrus* – Morse, 1980; King Mackerel, *Scomberomorus cavalla*- Finucane *et al.*, 1986; Yellowfin tuna- *Thunnus albacares*– McPherson, 1991; Schaefer, 1996 ; bluefin tuna-*Thunnus thynnus*- Medina *et al.*, 2002; Corriero *et al.*, 2003; swordfish *Xiphias gladius*, deMartini *et al.*, 2000; Arocha, 2002; Young *et al.*, 2003; Poisson and Fauvel, 2009) throw light on the general reproductive strategies of these species.

The Indian mackerel which is a scombroid fish is a heterosexual species which does not exhibit sexual dimorphism. Abnormality in gonads of Indian mackerel has only been rarely reported (Prabhu and AntonyRaja, 1959; Rao, 1962; AntonyRaja and Bande, 1972). According to Yohannan (1979) rapid gonadal growth at the expense of somatic growth occurs when the mackerel attains a length of about 21 cm or around 8 months of age. Pradhan and Palekar (1956) developed a maturity scale for mackerel, describing seven stages based on the external appearance of the gonads, its size relative to the abdominal cavity and the range of ova diameter readings in the ovaries. Subsequent

authors have made modifications to this scale by adding further sub-stages (Rao, 1967). However, it is recognized that well-defined maturity scales with fewer stages are preferable over scales that distinguish a larger number of maturity stages (Qasim, 1973; Gerritsen and McGrath, 2006; Costa, 2009). There is no description of atresia in mackerel although incidence of same reported in another pelagic multiple spawning fish the oil sardine, *Sardinella longiceps* (Antony Raja, 1964, 1971).

Devanesan and John (1940) initiated the study of maturation and spawning of mackerel who estimated the number of ripe eggs in the mackerel ovary. Subsequent studies by Pradhan (1956) and Yohannan (1995) also indicated prolonged and batch spawning of the species. Devanesan and John (1940) estimated a fecundity of 94, 000 eggs for *R. kanagurta* while Antony Raja and Bande (1972) estimated it at 37,200 eggs. Shekaran (1958) concluded that the mackerel is a batch spawner where ova are ripened and released in batches but did not mention fecundity as he could not conclude whether after spawning the most advanced batch of eggs the remaining degenerated or proceeded to ripen. Yohannan and Abdurahiman (1998) found mature spawners of the Indian mackerel with hydrated oocytes in gillnets operated at dusk but total absence of such catches in trawls operated during the daytime and concluded it to be indicative of maximum spawning activity in the night.

The ova-diameter frequency method has been most commonly applied to understand the spawning dynamics and fecundity of Indian mackerel (Prabhu and Antony Raja, 1959; Rao, 1962; Radhakrishnan, 1965; Vijayaraghavan,

1962). Yohannan and Abdurahiman (1998) considered the fecundity estimates made by all previous workers an underestimate because of its multiple batch spawning nature. In formalin preserved gonads ova diameter measurements in the range 0.6 – 0.75mm (Prabhu and Antony Raja, 1959; Rao, 1962) and fresh ova measuring 0.6 – 1.071mm (Antony Raja and Bande, 1972) have been recorded. Joseph (1963) noticed shrinkage in tuna eggs preserved in Gilson's fluid. Antony Raja and Bande (1972) noted shrinkage of 17 and 22% in ripe and maturing mackerel eggs respectively.

### **2.3. Materials and Methods**

The mackerel samples were collected on a weekly basis from mackerel landings by ring seine and trawl nets at various landing centers such as Kalamukku / Cochin Fisheries Harbour and a monthly sample from Alleppey landing center during the period 2005 –2008. The fishing grounds by these ringseine/trawl fishing units are along the Central Kerala coast.

**2.3.1. Gonad staging:** Freshly caught fish samples were transported to the lab in ice and individual fish were examined for the following: Total length (mm), total weight (gm), maturity stage (immature, maturing, ripe and spent) was recorded which was based on macroscopic observations of the gonad such as the size of ovary/testes in relation to abdominal cavity and its appearance (whether bulging, half shrunk or flaccid; the presence of blood vessels on the ovary and colouration of the gonads) which was primarily based on the maturity scale developed for mackerel by Pradhan and Palekar (1956). Indeterminate stages were recorded separately. Only females were used to prepare a modified key for visual staging

of gonads using macroscopic and histological criteria as ovary is more indicative of spawning activity because females invest more energy into the reproduction process and generally only the female reproductive parameters are considered in stock assessment models (King, 1995; West, 1990) while male gonads were assigned scales based on macroscopic observations only. Maturation pattern was assessed from macroscopic gonad staging of the fish samples collected weekly and pooled over the months during all the years (2005 -2008). Only female gonads in various maturity stages randomly selected from the monthly samples were fixed in 10% formalin for histological studies later.

**2.3.2. Gonado-somatic index (GSI):** This was calculated for each maturity stage of both sexes using gonads in fresh condition collected during the year 2005 and 2006, by the equation given by Cailliet *et al.* (1986) as:

$$\text{GSI} = \text{Weight of gonads (g) /body weight (g)*100.}$$

**2.3.3. Length at first maturity ( $L_m$ ):** This estimate corresponding to size at which 50% of the population attains maturity was estimated for all the years (2005 -2008) by the method given by Udupa (1986) as:

$$\text{Log}_{10} m = X_k + X / 2 - (X \sum p_i) ,$$

Where,  $X_k$  = last log size at which 100% of fish are fully mature

$X$  = log size increment and  $p_i$  = proportion of fully mature fish in the  $i^{\text{th}}$  size group and the  $L_m$  (M) = antilog (m).

**2.3.4. Ova diameter:** The oocyte size frequency distribution of maturing, ripe and spent gonads (stage 4, 5 and 6a & b as per the classification of Pradhan and

Palekar, 1956) was taken after sufficient hardening of the formalin preserved ovaries, usually after 5 – 7 days, using a microscope with ocular micrometer. From the monthly samples, a few ovaries randomly selected were used for detailed studies. Ova diameter of 30 to 100 numbers of oocytes from various ovaries in the different maturity stages were taken along the longest axis to obtain the oocyte diameter frequency distribution following Clark (1934). Oocyte diameter frequency of individual fishes in the various maturity stages were pooled and smoothed using a 3 point moving average to obtain the characteristic oocyte distribution in each maturity stage.

**2.3.6. Histology** : Representative gonads in various stages of maturity were also assessed using histology to understand the oocyte development patterns. Transverse sections of the selected ovaries preserved in formalin (1:3 tissue : formalin) were washed in running tap water for 5 – 6 hours and then subject to dehydration in ascending concentration of alcohol. Slices of tissue were embedded in Paraplast and histological sections were cut at 5 $\mu$ . Staining was done with haematoxlyn followed by eosin counterstain (Hunter and Macewicz, 1985). The slides were cleared in xylene and mounted using DPX. Oocytes identified using the description given by Wallace and Selman (1981) were used to understand the oocyte development pattern. Oocyte diameter measurements of each maturity stage were obtained using a digital microscope with image analysis software (Motic BA310). For this only the oocytes sectioned through the nucleus were used (Foucher and Beamish, 1980).

**2.3.6. Fecundity:** The formalin preserved ovaries collected during 2006 was used for gravimetric analysis of fecundity. The selected ripe ovaries from each monthly sample were washed in tap water, blotted dry and three subsamples of approximately 1mg were taken from the middle of the ovary lobe. All the eggs from each subsample were teased out using fine needles, spread on a glass slide and counted. The Potential fecundity (PF) was estimated as per Bagenal (1978) as

$PF = w/W * OW$  where  $w$  = the number of eggs in the sub-sample;  $W$  = total weight of sub sample and  $OW$  = total weight of the preserved ovaries of the particular specimen.

Relative fecundity was estimated as Potential fecundity divided by body weight (with gonad) as given by Hunter *et al.* (1985). Relation between fecundity and other parameters such as total length, total weight and ovary weight were obtained by fitting data as a scatter plot and fitting linear regressions.

## **2.4. Results**

**2.4.1. Macroscopic gonad staging and Maturity Scale:** The smallest size at which gonads could be recognized without the aid of microscopy was in the length class > 145 mm. Based on the appearance of the ovary, histological sections and GSI, the mackerel gonads (ovary and testes) could be classified into 4 stages of maturity excluding the indeterminate stage (Tables 2.1 and 2.2; Plate 2.1).

**2.4.2. Maturation and spawning:** Maturation and spawning appeared as a year round phenomenon. However, peak spawning activity was observed during May-

June and November months along the Central Kerala coast. In all the years of observation, only during the year 2006, the secondary spawning peak usually occurring around November was absent (Fig. 2.1).

**2.4.3. Ovary development pattern:** Classification of ovaries into four maturity stages using oocyte diameter ranges and GSI values was found to be amenable for routine macroscopic staging studies (Plate 2.1). GSI indicated rapid increase with maturation and these changes were more pronounced in females as compared to males (Figs.2.2 & 2.3). There were 3 modes (300, 550 and 850  $\mu$ ) in the oocyte diameter distribution of ripe ovaries of which nearly 85% were in the size range of 750 – 1000  $\mu$ . The maturing ovary showed a major mode at 450  $\mu$  (early stage) and 550  $\mu$  (late stage) while the partially spent ovary showed mode at 500  $\mu$  (Fig. 2.4)

The oocytes could be classified into four stages of development, namely, perinucleolar oocytes (PN), previtellogenic oocytes (PV), vitellogenic oocytes (VT) and hydrated oocytes (HY) (Fig.2.6., Table 2.3). Ripe ovaries contained predominantly vitellogenic oocytes (Fig. 2.5A) while spent stages were characterized by the presence of previtellogenic oocytes, atretic mature oocytes as well as empty follicles (Fig. 2.5B).

**2.4.4. Length at first maturity ( $L_m$ ):** The  $L_m$  varied among the year (2005 - 2008) and ranged from 162 to 196 mm. It did not show any definite trend and was 162, 196, 164 and 174 mm total length during 2005, 2006, 2007 and 2008 respectively (Fig. 2.7).



**2.4.6. Fecundity:** Total fecundity estimated varied from 10521 to 92279 eggs. Linear regression of fecundity on total length ( $F = 405.280 \cdot (TL) - 59364.6$ ,  $F = 44.58$ ,  $P < .01$ ,  $R^2 = 0.56$ ) (Fig. 2.8); total weight ( $F = 5694.14 \cdot (TW) + 2689.9$ ,  $F = 12.61$ ,  $P < .01$ ,  $R^2 = 0.3$ ) (Fig. 2.9) and ovary weight ( $F = 4480.6 \cdot (OW) + 1480.4$ ,  $F = 41.8$ ,  $P < .01$ ,  $R^2 = 0.73$ ) indicated strongest relationship with ovary weight followed by total length. Relative fecundity was estimated as  $476 \pm 163$  eggs per gram body weight of mackerel.

Table 2.1. Histologically validated Macroscopic Maturity Scale for female mackerel

<b>Stage</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Dominant Oocyte stage (Histology)</b>	<b>Mean GSI</b>
Indeterminate	Gonads tiny and underdeveloped and impossible to differentiate among sex	-	-
Immature (stage F 1)	Gonads small, tubular and pink, oocytes not visible	Previtellogenic	0.38
Maturing (stage F 2)	Gonads tubular, light yellow – orange colouration filling about half of the abdominal cavity. Blood vessels visible on the ovary.	Vitellogenic- lipid droplets appeared, and progressive increase in size and number of lipid droplets	1.26 – 3.98
Ripe (Stage F 3)	Gonads dark orange, turgid and filling the body cavity, transparent ova visible	Vitellogenic -Migratory nucleus stage dominant.	5.10
Spent (Stage F 4)	Gonads flabby with reddish brown gonads.	Post ovulatory follicles (POF), atretic eggs and pre-vitellogenic oocytes	4.00

Table.2.2. Macroscopic Maturity Scale for male mackerel

<b>Stage</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Mean GSI</b>
Immature (M1)	Gonads small, whitish and flattened	0.46
Maturing (M 2)	Gonads pinkish - whitish filling about half of the abdominal cavity.	1.40 (early) – 3.41 (late)
Ripe (M 3)	Gonads white, turgid and filling the body cavity, milt is released on applying pressure	4.61
Spent (M 4)	Gonads flabby with haemorrhagic brownish-white gonads.	2.09

Table 2.3. Oocyte stage classification using oocyte appearance and size range criteria in histology processed ovaries for validation of macroscopic staging

<b>Oocyte stage</b>	<b>Oocyte appearance</b>	<b>Size range</b>
PN (Perinucleolus)	Oocyte with large nucleus and densely staining cytoplasm.	<10 $\mu$
PV (Pre-vitellogenic)	Oocytes with very small lipid droplets in the cytoplasm around the nucleus. Lipid droplets start to form.	120 $\mu$ - 350 $\mu$
VT (Vitellogenic)	The zona radiata (ZR) membrane surrounding the oocyte clearly visible. Yolk granules become much more numerous and densely packed. In the later stage some of the lipid droplets coalesce to form large oil globule (migratory nucleus stage).	520 $\mu$ - 1000 $\mu$
HY (Hydrated)	Completely translucent appearance with irregular shape in whole oocyte preparation caused by the fusion of lipid droplets and coalescence of yolk globules to form yolk plates. In histological preparations seen as completely transparent circular shape.	Irregular shape >800 $\mu$

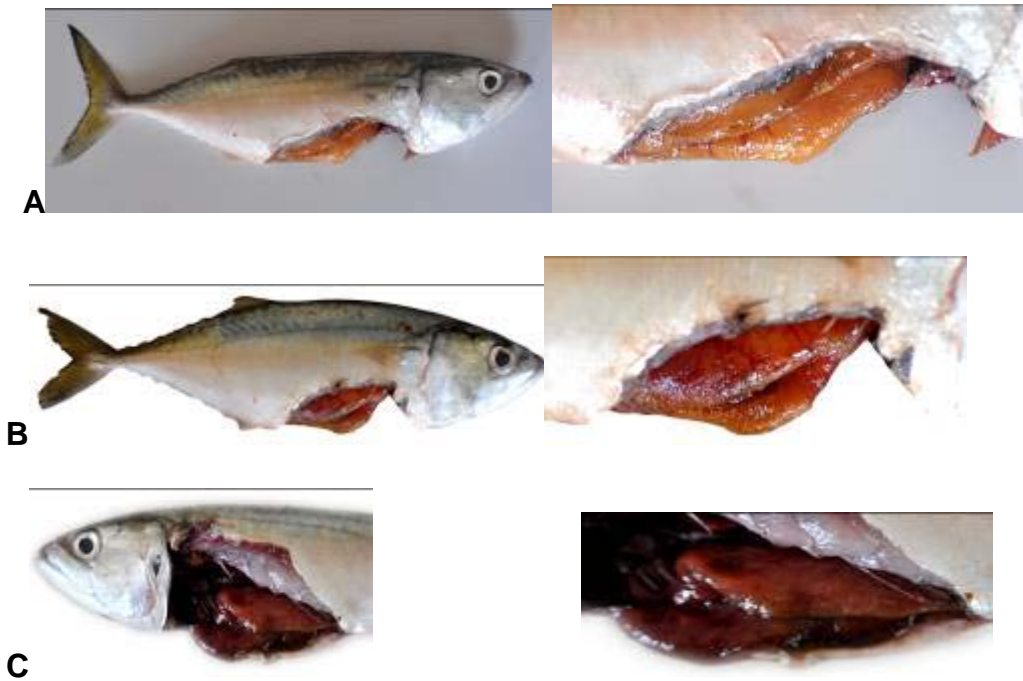


Plate. 3. Macroscopic gonad staging of female mackerel representing A. Maturing (early stage) B. Ripe and C. Spent stages

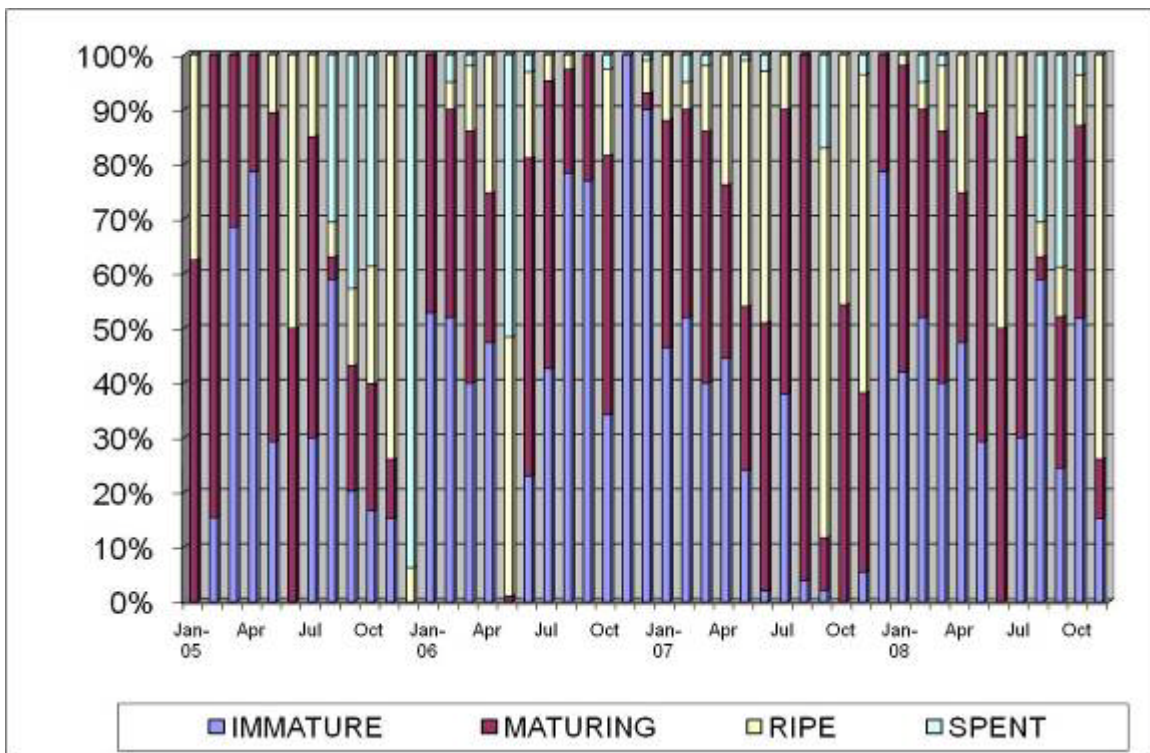


Fig. 2.1. Monthly occurrence of the various maturity stages of *R.kanagurta*

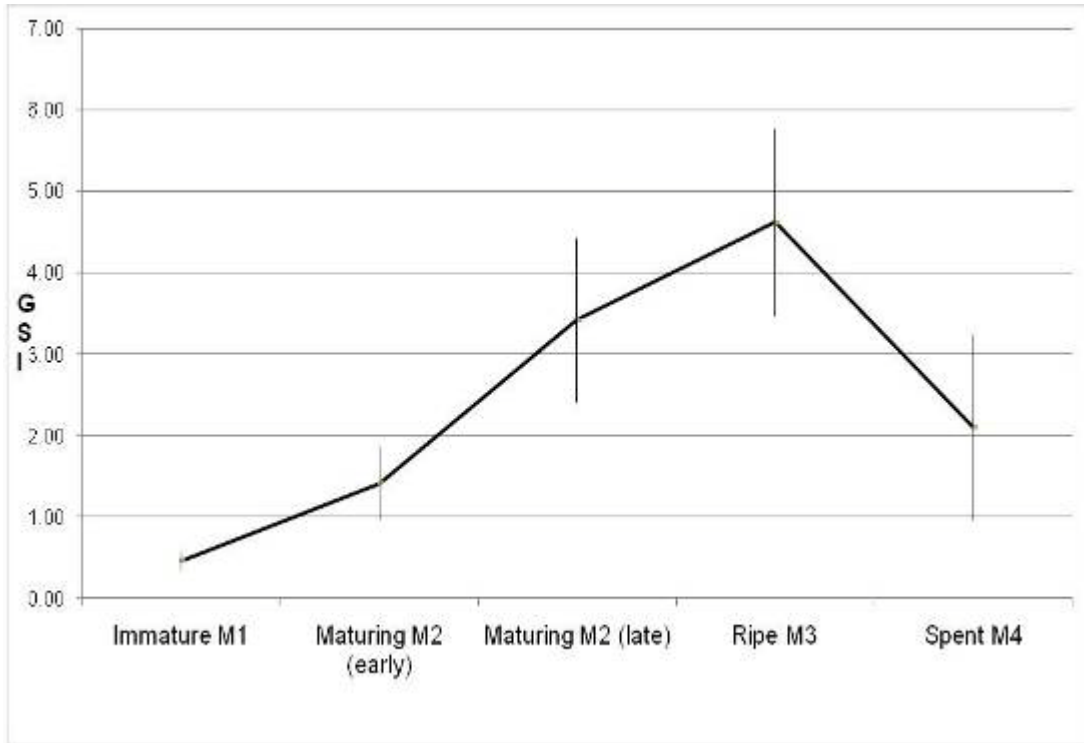


Fig. 2.2. GSI of various maturity stages of male *R.kanagurta* indicating maximum, minimum and mean values (vertical bars)

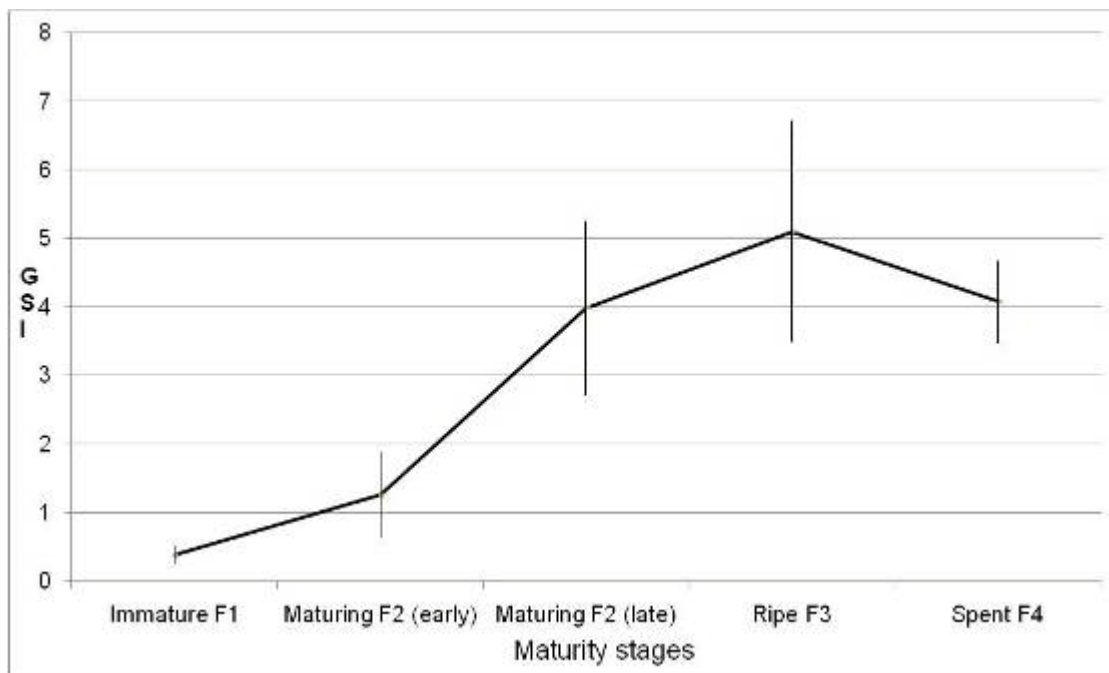


Fig. 2.3. GSI of various maturity stages of female *R.kanagurta* indicating maximum, minimum and mean values (vertical bars)

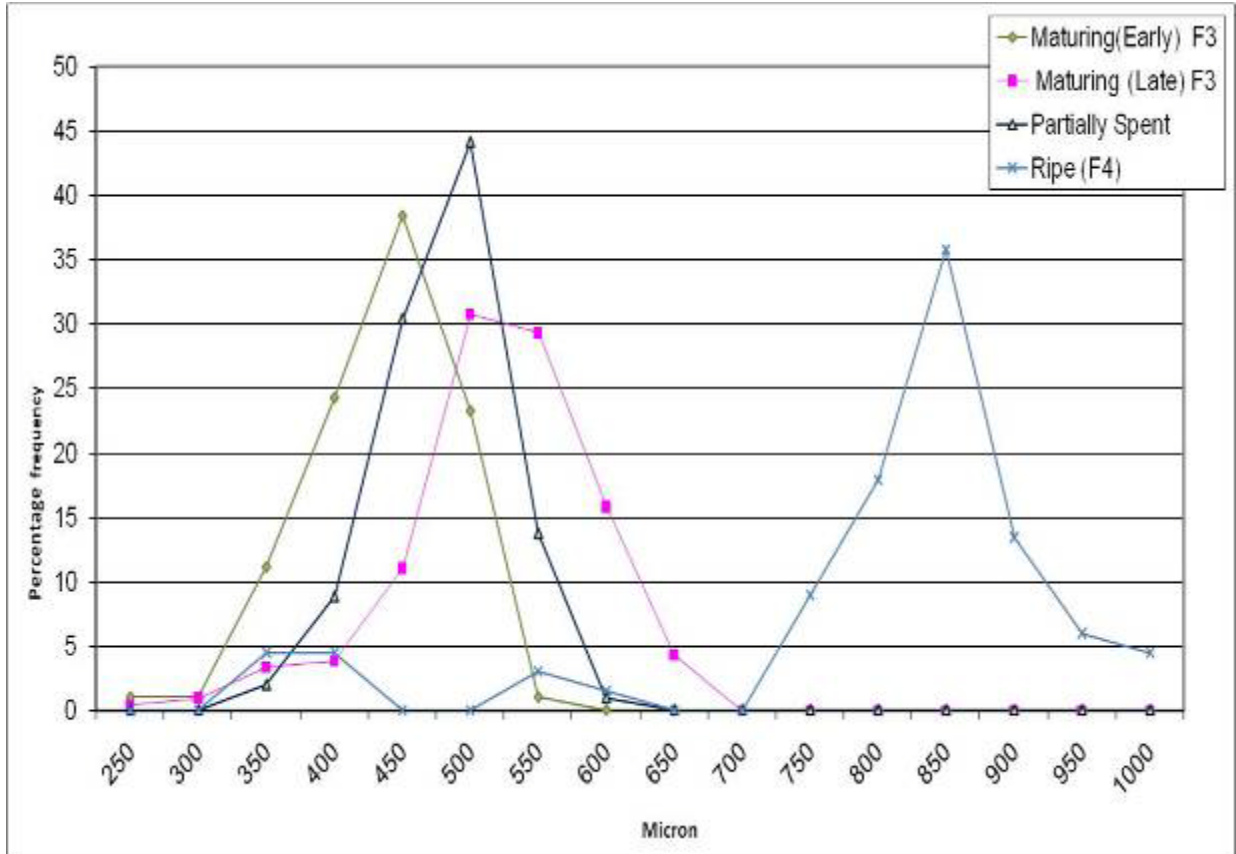


Fig. 2.4. Pooled oocyte diameter frequency distribution of mackerel in Maturing (early) n=16; Maturing (late) n= 14; Ripe (n= 12) and partially spent (n=15) stages. (n = no. of fishes in pooled sample)

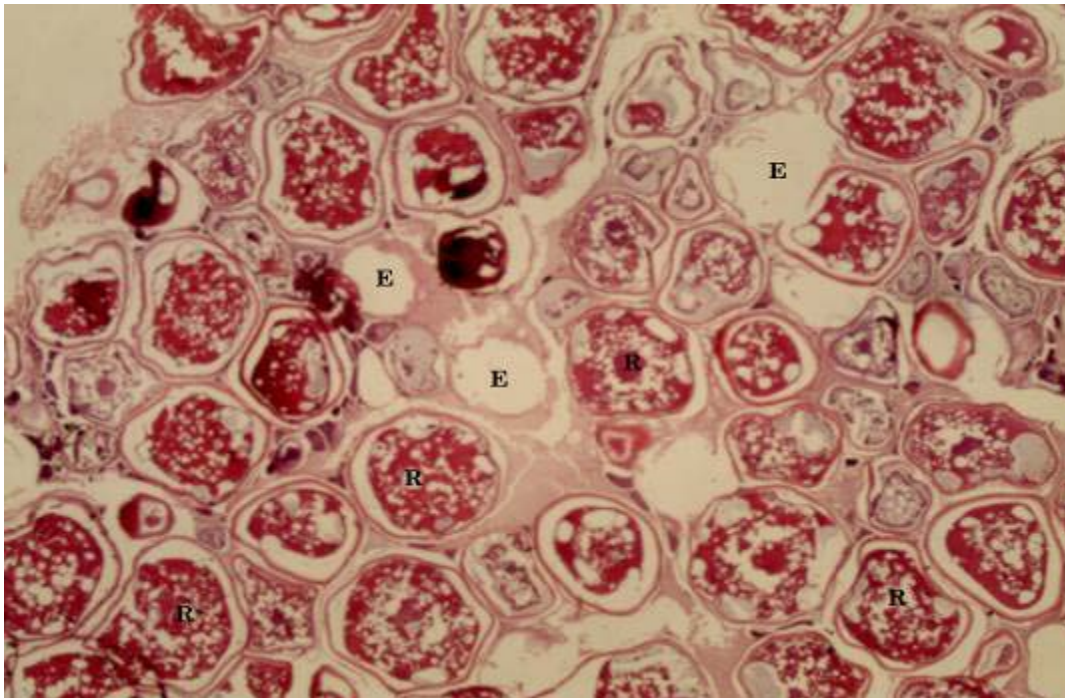


Fig.2.5 A. Ripe ovary (stage F3) with mature oocytes (R ) and a few empty follicles (E) indicating ovulated eggs.

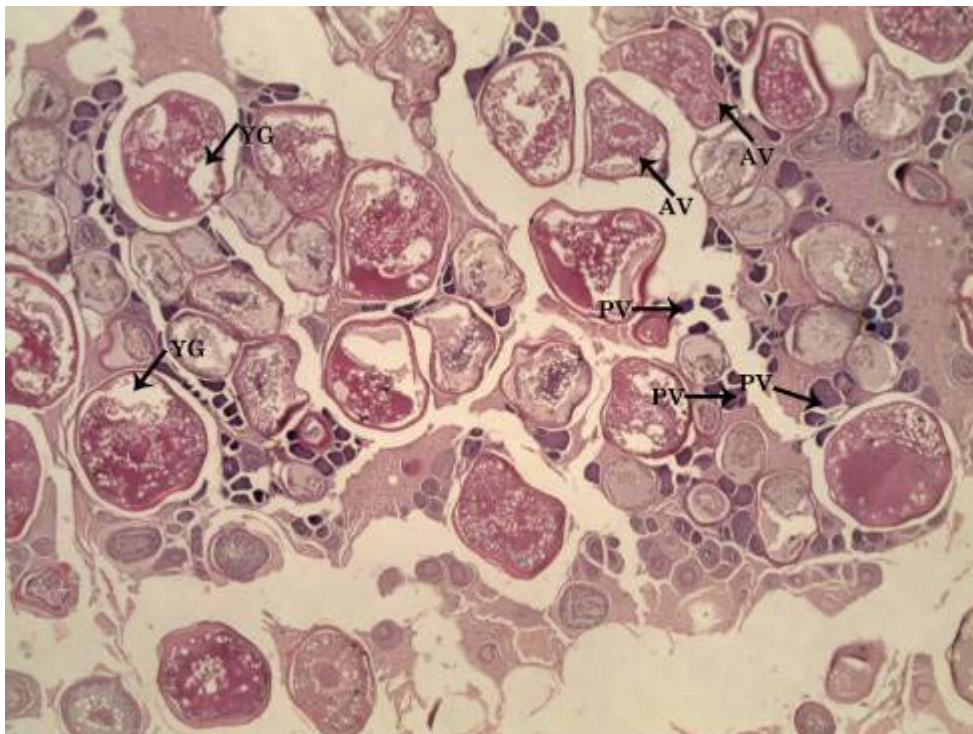


Fig 2.5 B. Spent ovary characterized by very small perinucleolus stage and pre-vitellogenic (PV) stage oocytes and atretic vitellogenic (AV) oocytes

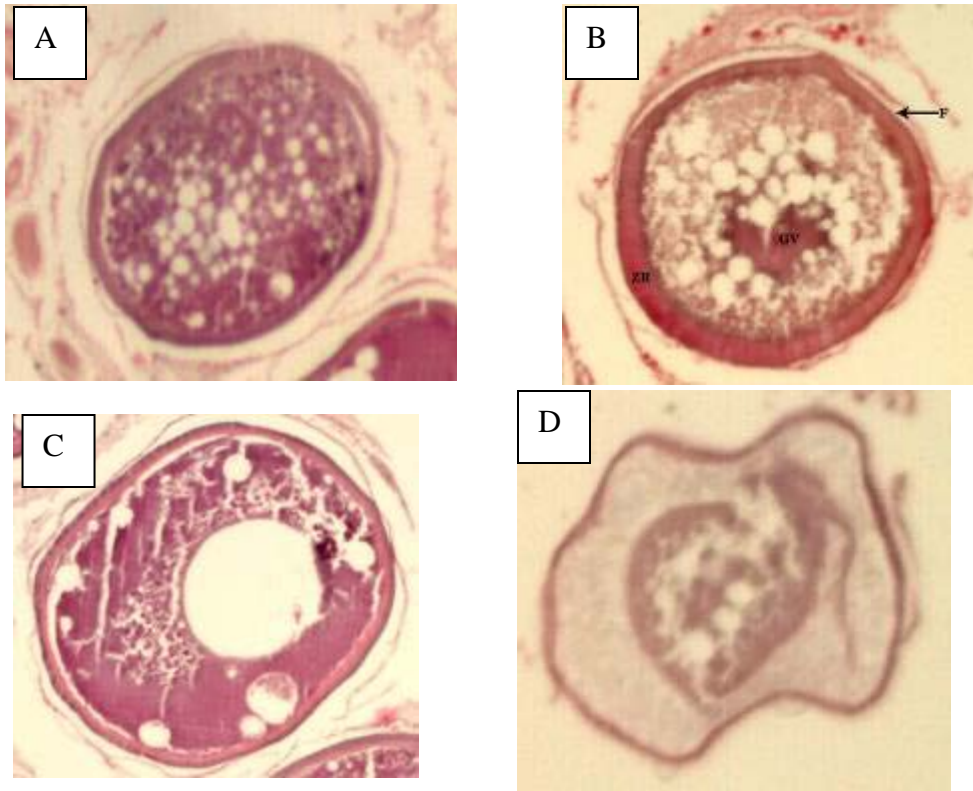


Fig. 2.6. Various stages in oocyte development.

- A. Early vitellogenic oocyte with appearance of lipid droplets
- B. Oocyte in late vitellogenesis with follicle layer (F), lipid droplets increasing in number and size, zona radiata (ZR) clearly visible and germinal vesicle (GV)
- C. Mature oocyte characterized by coalescence of yolk granules and a big lipid droplet
- D. Atretic vitellogenic oocyte with irregular shape



Fig. 2.6a. Characteristic hydrated oocyte (HY) and vitellogenic (LD, YG) oocytes in a ripe ovary



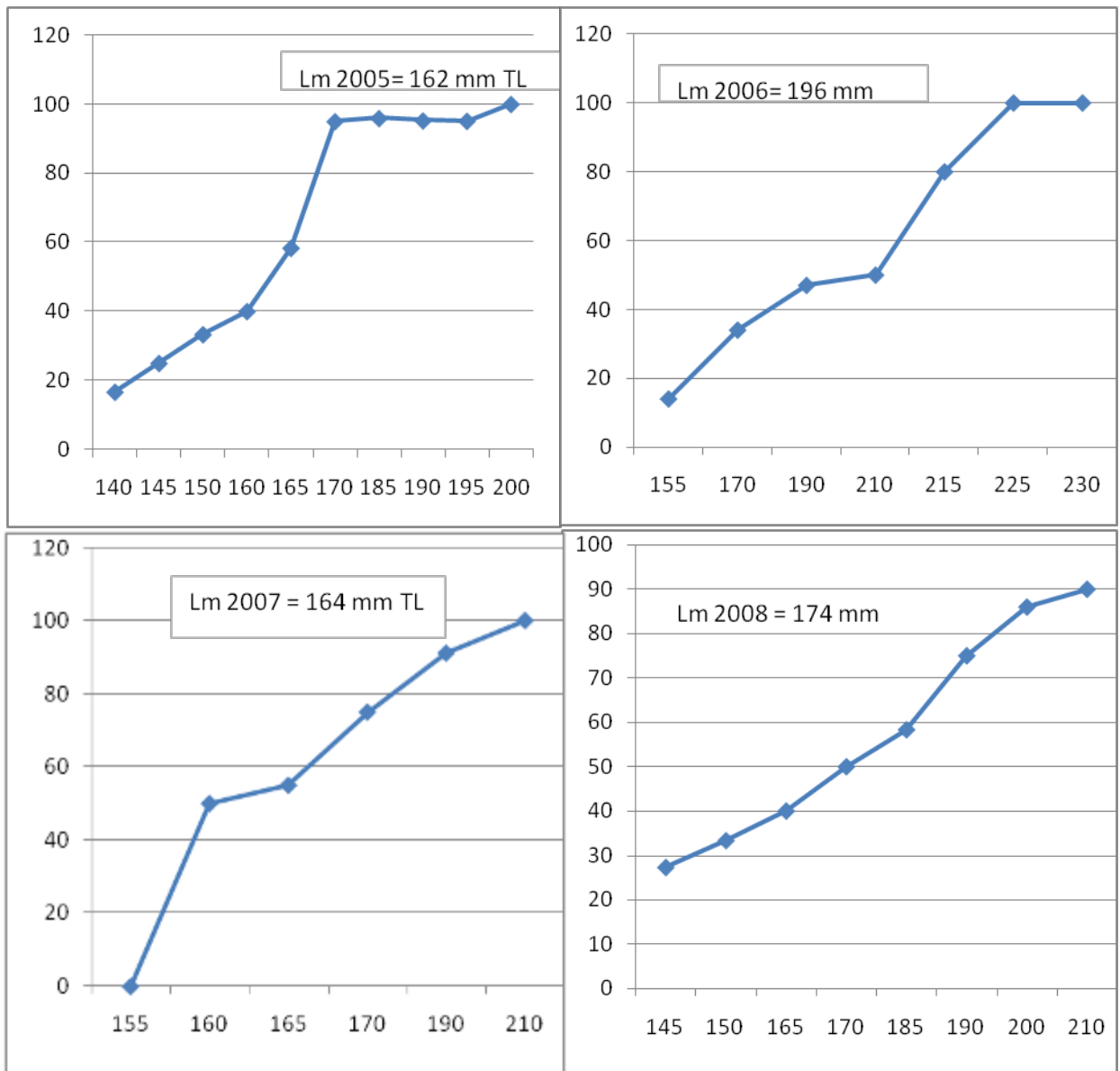


Fig.2.7. Estimated Length at first maturity ( $L_m$ ) during the different years 2005 to 2008.

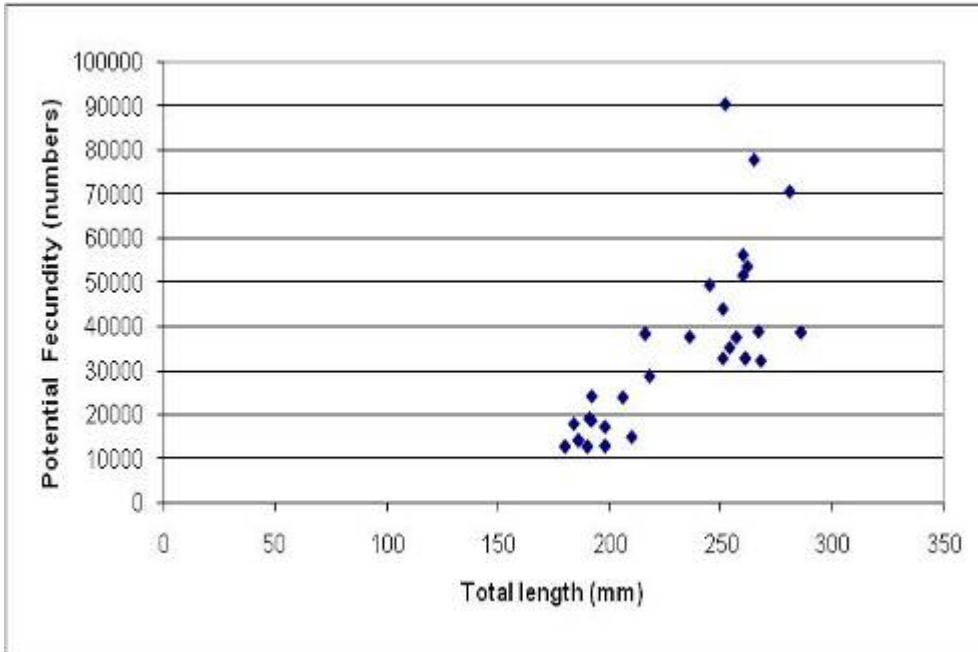


Fig. 2.8. Scatterplot showing relationship of fecundity to total length in *R.kanagurta*

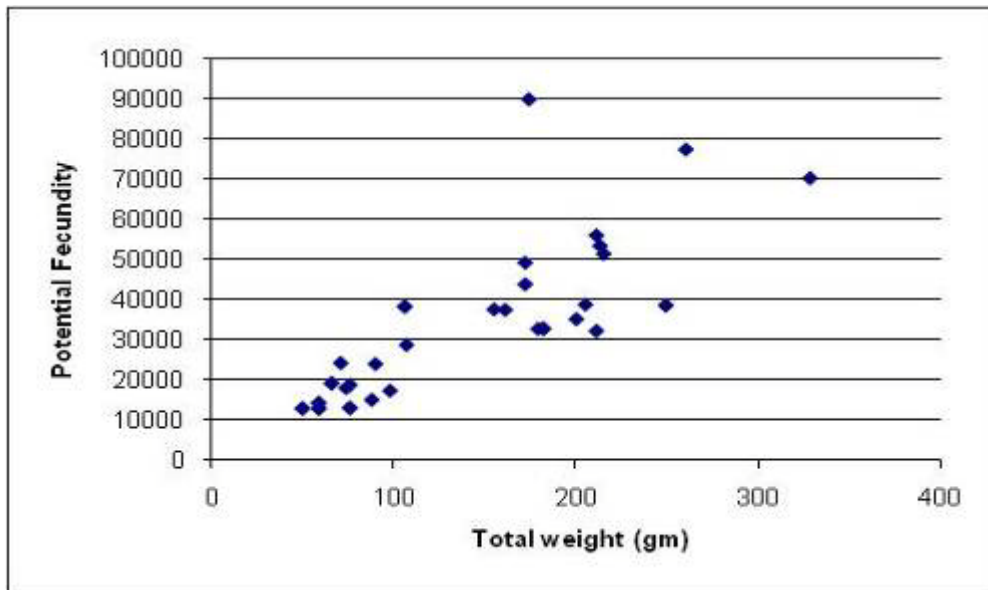


Fig.2.9. Scatterplot showing relationship of fecundity with total weight in *R. kanagurta*

## 2.5. Discussion

**2.5.1. Gonad indices and maturity stages:** The gonadosomatic index (GSI) has been used as a measure of maturation in fishes by June (1953). With maturation progressing, the gonadosomatic index (GSI) of mackerel increased more prominently in females than males and could be used as one of the criteria for differentiating among the “maturing” “spent” and the “ripe” maturity stages on a 4 stage scale. The rapid increase in GSI is because of the growth of ovaries due to accumulation of yolk, the nutritional reserve for the embryo, by the oocytes (Wiegand, 1996). Females invest more energy for reproduction compared to males (Henderson *et al.*, 1984) agreeing with the higher GSI values in females compared to males in this study. The final stage of maturation (hydration) could be easily recognized by the presence of translucent ova which is reported to be due to the rapid secretion of a fluid of low specific gravity into the advanced eggs by the granulosa cells of the follicle that causes fusion of the yolk granules resulting in the translucent appearance of the hydrated eggs (deVlaming, 1983; Forberg, 1983). The GSI of a partially spent ovary closely resembled a maturing ovary but could be differentiated by its flabby bloodshot appearance and a narrower oocyte distribution (300 – 550  $\mu$ ) compared to a ripe ovary which had a broader (250 – 1000  $\mu$ ) oocyte size range with a definite peak of larger sized oocytes (> 700  $\mu$ ) clearly separated from oocytes < 500  $\mu$ .

The mackerel ovary has been classified into 6 stages with subdivision of stage 6 into 6A, 6B (Pradhan and Palekar, 1956) and even 6C (Rao, 1967) and it basically follows the maturity scale developed for herrings in the temperate

waters by the International Council for the Exploration of the Sea (Holt, 1959). This scale which mainly used gonad appearance and oocyte diameter for maturity stage classification did not find differences in diameter distribution among stages VIA and VIB (Rao, 1972; Yohannan and Abdurahiman, 1998). Similar observations were made in lizardfish (Rao, 1983) also which raises the question for necessity of so many sub-stages. This scale is still being followed for routine macroscopic staging in Indian mackerel as well as several other fishes (Murty, 1983; Sivadas *et al.*, 2006; Zacharia and Jayabalan, 2007). Only rarely has maturity classification using fewer stages been attempted as done for the seerfish by Devaraj (1983). The present study confirms the earlier observations regarding ova-diameter distribution in ripe ovaries and also indicates the non-necessity of so many fine stages for the macroscopic staging system. Because the subjective nature of macroscopic judgement of too many fine maturity stages gives rise to lot of variability making comparisons among studies difficult several studies have stressed the importance of simpler but more precisely identified maturation stages fixed using macroscopic as well as histological criteria (Qasim, 1973; Gerritsen and McGrath, 2006; Costa, 2009). Presently there is no histologically validated macroscopic maturity scale for any marine fish of commercial importance from Indian waters for comparison. This simplified 4 scale (immature, maturing, ripe, spent) staging method taking into consideration GSI and oocyte diameter which was validated using histological analysis of representative gonads of the various maturity stages can therefore be evaluated further *vis –a vis* the older maturity scale which consists of 7- 8 stages (Pradhan

and Palekar, 1956) that appears more applicable to temperate water species (Qasim, 1973). Based on this study it is suggested that an ovary with oocytes  $>750 \mu$  predominant and GSI  $> 4$  can be assigned as “ripe” and uniformly selected for fecundity estimates making comparisons among studies easier .

**2.5.2. Maturation and Spawning:** The results indicate maturation and spawning to occur throughout the year as witnessed by the occurrence of mature fishes in all the months. However, the main spawning period is during May – June and a minor peak occurs during November as indicated by the consistently higher percentage of mature ones in the monthly landings during the entire period of study. Earlier studies have also indicated high abundance of advanced spawning stages of pelagic fish during May – June along the south west coast of India (Devanesan and Chidambaram, 1948; Pradhan, 1956; Noble, 1974; Anon., 1976; Yohannan and Abdurahiman, 1998a). This study indicates that apparently there has been no major change in the spawning /maturation schedules of Indian mackerel along the southwest coast of India unlike in some other resources such as the threadfin bream (*Nemipterus* spp.) along the Chennai coast which showed shifts in the peak spawning period which was attributed to recent climate-change effects, mainly the increase in sea water temperatures (Vivekanandan, 2009). It is probable that spawning season has remained stable for the Indian mackerel because it is already placed in a favorable environmental window (temperature, salinity) on the west coast as compared to the *Nemipterus* spp. on the east coast which could have taken advantage of the newly formed, more favourable environmental conditions caused by climate-change.

Another possible explanation is that most teleost species exhibit an annual rhythm of breeding largely synchronized or controlled by environmental factors (Lam, 1983; Murty and Vishnudatta, 1976). Thus, the two peak periods of reproductive activity noticed in this study can be said to be coinciding with the monsoon season, when abundant food supply makes it a generally favourable period for larval survival which agrees with observations made by earlier workers (Anon., 1976; Madupratap *et al.*, 1994; Yohannan and Abdurahiman, 1998a). Similar conclusions have been drawn by Devaraj *et al.* (1988) and Yohannan and Nair (2002) of a single major brood originating sometime during the February to May period and a secondary smaller brood arising sometime in November that contributes to the mackerel fishery of the west coast of India. The presence of spawners throughout the year but in low percentage compared to the peak spawning season may only be indicating lack of population synchrony in terms of gonad development as noted in other fishes (Rajasilta, 1992; Plaza *et al.*, 2002; Shirashi *et al.*, 2005).

The  $L_m$  varied among the years (2005 -2008) and ranged from 162 (2005) to 196 mm (2006) and 164 and 174 mm during 2007 and 2008 respectively showing no particular trend. Earlier workers have reported  $L_m$  for the species as 190 - 220 mm (Sekharan,1958; Rao, 1967; Yohannan and Abdurahiman, 1998) while studies conducted during a later period reports it as around 170 mm (Prathibha and Gupta, 2004; Sivadas *et al.*, 2006). The macroscopic staging method which is mostly applied for assessment of  $L_m$  has problems while differentiating among post-spawning and early vitellogenic stages and therefore

Hunter *et al.* (1992) recommends caution when differences between maturity studies are observed especially when done by different people, or with different methods or when sampling at different times of the year. The effect of such operator errors, if any, in the estimation of  $L_m$  is unknown. Nevertheless, independent studies during two different periods, namely prior to 1980s and during the late 90s by different authors have come to similar conclusions, with studies during the latter period all reporting slight lowering in  $L_m$  (Prathibha and Gupta, 2004; Sivadas *et al.*, 2006). The present study shows inter-annual variations but is closer to estimates during the latter period indicates that analysis of historic data may be relevant. This is important because population density- dependant effects on  $L_m$  has been reported (Adams, 1980; Helser and Almeida, 1997; Silva *et al.*, 2006). Incidentally, peak catches of *R. kanagurta* were made during the 1989 – 1999 period (annual catches of 2-2.8 lakh tons) and there was a significant decline (annual catches of 1 - 1.5 lakh tons) during the 2000 - 2006 period (Yohannan *et al.*, 2002; Pillai *et al.* 2007) which are showing slight increase since. This decrease in  $L_m$  can be because of less competition for food at reduced population densities which facilitates greater food intake per individual, enabling them to grow fast and achieve maturation at younger ages /sizes as suggested by Jorgensen (1990). Therefore, if any stock dependant mechanisms may be operating is to be looked into with historic data over a longer period of time.

Another point which can also effect the  $L_m$  which has to be considered is the role of environmental factors. Changes in  $L_m$  has been attributed to changes

in water temperature and resulting changes in habitat preferences and species distribution patterns (Helsel and Almeida, 1997) which is similar to the shifts in distribution and abundance that is being reported in the Indian mackerel recently due to rising sea water temperature and climate-change effects (Asokan *et al.*, 2009). Antony Raja (1964) also has reported that  $L_m$  in oil sardine, another pelagic fish, has a close positive relationship with the prevailing ecological conditions during the previous year (oil sardine matures at about 1 year of age, similar to mackerel) when they recruited to the commercial fishery in the immature state. Thus this study indicates that a rigorous analysis of historic databases on the maturity and spawning of Indian mackerel may throw light on the population dynamics of the resource.

**2.5.4. Oocyte development and Fecundity:** The present study indicated that the mackerel ovary development may be considered group synchronous based on the classification by de Vlaming (1983) where three clutches of oocytes could be distinguished in the ripe stage. This is considered to be the most common type of ovarian development in teleost fishes (de Vlaming ,1983).

In the ripe ovaries, one pronounced batch of advanced vitellogenic oocytes in the size range 0.75 – 1.0 mm with peak at 0.85 mm was observed in this study. This is similar to the earlier reports of Radhakrishnan (1965) who recorded a maximum size of 0.94 mm for ripe ova with modal group between 0.62 and 0.75 mm and Vijayaraghavan (1965) who reported it to be between 0.67 - 0.74 mm. It thus appears that egg size in mackerel does not show much variations over temporal scales and thus oocyte diameter measurements can be



used for making rapid estimates of potential fecundity in mackerel. For this, the oocyte stages validated using histological methods indicated oocytes  $> 520 \mu$  to be vitellogenic and hence considering that the most advanced clutch in a ripe ovary is  $> 700 \mu$ , this size can be used as a cut-off point to make rapid estimates of potential fecundity. Egg sizes are reported to be characteristic for various species (Rao, 1962; deVlaming, 1983) and considering that size of mackerel egg is relatively stable, in conjunction with other morphological characters it can even be used for identification of mackerel eggs in the plankton samples.

The observation of nearly 90% of the developing oocytes in the size range of 750-1000  $\mu$  with a single mode at 850  $\mu$  and a considerable gap with smaller oocytes is indicating a batch spawner with determinate fecundity as classified by Hunter and Goldberg, (1980) and de Vlaming (1983). A distinct hiatus in oocyte size frequency between pre-vitellogenic and vitellogenic oocytes is characteristic of determinate spawners (Hunter *et al.*, 1992; Gordo *et al.*, 2008) as was observed in this study. Similar observations have been reported in the mackerel off Mangalore coast (Rao, 1967) and lizardfish on the east coast (Rao, 1983) (Rao, 1983) of India. However it is in contrast with the pattern of many modes of developing eggs and a single advanced mode observed by Yohannan and Abdurahiman (1998a) in the mackerel population off the Malabar coast which is a distinctive upwelling ecosystem.

It is still unknown how many times the individual fish spawns over an annual cycle as final oocyte maturation (FOM) process in fishes is reported to

proceed in a rather asynchronous fashion first and later after a period of inactivity on favourable environmental cues in synchrony (Mylonas *et al.*, 1997, 1997a; Kathirvelu *et al.*, 2003). Therefore to know spawning frequency of mackerel experiments using individual spawners in captivity may have to be taken up. The relatively short peak spawning period of 2-3 months in May-June period, the pronounced peak of mature oocytes in ripe ovaries which contains nearly 90% of the total oocytes and the other modes being such small sized that it may take some time to develop into hydrated oocytes indicate that the possibility of a secondary spawning in the same season is very remote and chances appear to be more in favour of degeneration and resorption than maturation in case of unspawned ova. Antony Raja (1964, 1971a) has also arrived at a similar conclusion for oil sardine, another small pelagic species. Occurrence of atretic vitellogenic oocytes alongwith pre-vitellogenic oocytes in spent mackerel ovaries lend further support to this conclusion. Besides, the length frequency of mackerel catches indicate only two to three well defined broods in the fishery (Rao, 1962; Rao, 1967; Yohannan and Abdurahiman, 1998a; Yohannan *et al.*, 2002) which also supports the conclusions drawn in this study . Thus, taking into consideration the well defined peak spawning season and a pattern of determinate fecundity, it should be possible to make reasonable estimates of annual recruitment strength for stock assessment purposes in mackerel along the central Kerala coast.

The number of eggs in ovaries classified as “Ripe” in the present study varied from 39,600 eggs to 73,781 eggs while the relative fecundity was

estimated as  $476 \pm 163$  eggs per gram body weight. Absolute fecundity estimates of mackerel in earlier studies range from 94,000 eggs (Devanesan and John, 1940); 20,911 to 111,000 eggs (Rao, 1967) and about 38,000 eggs (Antony Raja and Bande, 1972). Several workers felt that fecundity of mackerel is much higher than these reports (Sekharan, 1958; Yohannan and Abdurahiman, 1998) though no estimates were given, citing the need for more information on spawning frequency. Because the spawning frequency of each individual has not been studied, the fecundity count in this study only indicates the range of available mature oocytes (absolute fecundity) at the moment of observation only and are within the range reported by earlier studies. Estimations of absolute fecundity in multiple spawner fishes are complicated as there can be biases by factors such as incomplete ovulation (de Vlaming, 1983), effects of previous spawning activity (Plaza *et al.*, 2002), continuous addition of oocytes to stock of mature eggs in indeterminate spawners (Hunter and Goldberg, 1980) and atresia (Macer, 1974). Yet, this study does not indicate much variation in absolute fecundity from those reported by earlier workers. However, the relative fecundity of mackerel estimated in this study is much lower than the range of 701 - 866 eggs reported by Rao (1967) in mackerel off Mangalore coast. It is not clear if any geographical and ecological factors are responsible for these variations as has been reported in certain other fishes (Bagenal, 1966; Silva *et al.*, 2006) as no estimates of relative fecundity has been reported by other workers to enable a comparison. Some fishes are known to adjust clutch size in response to proximate environmental conditions such as food availability and

food quality (McDowall and Eldon, 1997) and whether changed environmental conditions such as increased temperature which affects plankton production is affecting fecundity through dietary modulation of reproduction (Masuda, 2009) in mackerel is yet to be assessed. Taking into consideration above factors, only with direct observations on spawning of mackerel in captivity, or sampling of fish in known spawning grounds in well defined intervals it may be possible to further improve these estimates.

Compared to fecundity estimates (3.66 - 6.88 lakh eggs) of mackerel of the genus *Scomber* (Ciechomski and Capezzani, 1966), fecundity estimates of the Indian mackerel *Rastrelliger kanagurta* are low. The results of the present study also suggest that ovarian weight and total length are most important in determining fecundity of Indian mackerel. Similarly, Johnson (1971) has reported that fecundity and weight of mature ovaries are an exponential function of standard length. The present study indicates that in mackerel larger sized fish can produce more eggs which is in contrast with the observations of Schaefer (1998) who noticed high variation in batch fecundity estimates in similar sized yellow fin tuna, which is another scombroid fish. However, several studies have noted a linear relationship between fecundity and fish length (James and Vasudevappa, 1978; Coates, 1988). Thus the observations in the present study are pertinent for the implementation of length-based fishery management measures. Presently more emphasis is placed on conservation of juveniles and a minimum legal size (MLS) of around 160 mm to ensure that mackerel can spawn at least once (Yohannan and Nair, 2002; Pillai *et al.*, 2009). Considering that

fecundity is related to its length, it would be profitable to evaluate the impacts of conserving spawners in the larger size range of 230-270 mm as indicated by this study.

To summarise, the life span of mackerel is less than two years (Devaraj *et al.*, 1998) and its life history traits such as relatively short life span, small size at maturity, multiple spawnings are in all probability aimed at maximizing reproductive output within its life span as pointed out by Tyler and Dunn (1976). High inter-annual variations in recruitment and catches of mackerel has been observed. As the present study indicates fecundity of Indian mackerel may be limited by its size but nutritional condition which plays a major role in the reproductive success of wild fish populations (Lambert *et al.*, 2000) may also be another important factor. Gonad development is to a large extent dependant on food energy (Lambert and Dutil, 1998; Darriba *et al.*, 2005) and hence studies on the feeding dynamics of mackerel are also very pertinent to assess the diet preferences and variations in utilization of food resources as the fishes grow through their lifecycle to mature, reproduce and recruit to the fishery, which is addressed in the following chapter.

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CHAPTER 3  
FOOD AND FEEDING DYNAMICS

## CHAPTER 3

# FOOD AND FEEDING DYNAMICS

### 3.1. Introduction

Food intake is the major factor controlling fish production. Quantitative assessment of food habits in fishes is therefore an important aspect of fisheries management and a study of food and feeding of fishes can shed light on the behaviour, habitat use, energy intake of the various fish species and inter / intraspecific interactions that occur in the aquatic ecosystem (Walters *et al.*, 1997). The diet of fishes changes with a number of factors which are extrinsic (biotope, region) or intrinsic (species, size, behaviour) and thus information on diet of fishes is important to understand the basic functioning of fish assemblages which are important for developing Ecosystem Based Fisheries Management (EBFM) models (Hanson and Chouinard, 2002; Kublicki *et al.*, 2005). The concept of “critical feeding period” has been found to be useful in understanding the variations in recruitment of wild fish stocks (Keast *et al.*, 1985) and also an understanding of how the various fish species utilize available food resources allows identification of factors that affect their distribution and abundance (Ellis and Musick, 2007). In the aquaculture sector also, broodstock nutrition plays a critical role in the reproductive performance of many fish species (Bromage and Roberts, 1995; Brooks *et al.*, 1997; Izquierdo *et al.*, 2001).

The Indian mackerel is an important fishery resource in the Indian EEZ especially along the southwest coast of India as well as an important forage item for the highly valued food fishes such as seerfishes and tunas occupying higher trophic levels (Vivekanandan *et al.*, 2009). During the 90s there was a dramatic

increase in catches of Indian mackerel along the Kerala coast due to introduction of an innovative fishing gear, the ring seine but over the next few years catches showed decline and remained low until the mid-half of this decade (Pillai *et al.*, 2007). Recently, climate-change induced impacts such as extension of its distribution range and increasing catches along the north-west coast of India is also reported (Asokan *et al.*, 2009). According to Link and Garrison (2002) although it is debatable whether food type or quantity influences spawning, fecundity, juvenile survival and consequent recruitment to the fishery, understanding the feeding preferences in relation to physiological cycles, prey availability and population dynamics will be an important step that can throw light on the ecosystem dynamics and responses of fish stocks to human perturbations. Most studies of food and feeding habits of mackerel are at local scales, mostly from the Malabar upwelling ecosystem in the northern part of Kerala or the Karnataka coast and in scattered time periods especially during the 60s and 70s (Noble and Geetha, 1992). These studies have reported mainly only on the occurrence of the various food items in the gut contents. Hence a more detailed study of the feeding ecology of mackerel along the central Kerala coast in conjunction with studies on maturation and lipid dynamics was attempted.

## **3.2. Review of Literature**

**3.2.1. Fish diet studies:** As food intake is the major factor controlling fish production, studies of food intake and growth of the various species is expected to yield valuable information for assessing the role of the particular species in the marine food web, predator- prey interactions and production efficiency which can



be usefully employed in developing EBFM models (Walters *et al.*, 1997; Gascuel *et al.*, 2005). Qualitative (diet composition), semi-quantitative (prey proportions) and quantitative (consumption rates) information can be got from fish stomach content datasets (Berg, 1979; de Crespín *et al.*, 2000). When combined with information about rates of evacuation, diet information can be used in assessments of the total food consumed by fish populations (Durbin *et al.*, 1983; Penczak, 1985; Vivekanandan, 2001).

Diet composition studies are thus an integral part of EBFM models which require knowledge on energy transfer and species interactions through the food web (Langton, 1982; Penczak *et al.*, 1984; Walters *et al.*, 1997; Garrison and Link, 2000). Most studies on fish diets rely on examination of stomach content to quantify prey abundance usually to a coarse taxonomic resolution where the main aim of the study is ecology-based (Robichaud *et al.*, 1991; Liao *et al.*, 2001; Hovde *et al.*, 2002; Griffiths *et al.*, 2007).

Several methods have been proposed to study fish diet, which has been reviewed by Hyslop (1980), Pillay (1952) and Windell and Bowen (1978). Traditional indices used for stomach content analysis which include percent composition by number ( $N_i$ ), weight/volume ( $W_i$  or  $V_i$ ) and frequency of prey occurrence ( $O_i$ ); the stomach fullness index (SFI) and the Points method where food items are awarded points proportional to their estimated contribution to stomach volume (Hynes 1950; Pillay, 1952 ) as well as modifications of the standard methods (Natarajan and Jhingran, 1962; Pinkas *et al.*, 1971; Fritz, 1974; Strauss, 1979; Jensen, 1980; Wallace, 1981; Mohan and Sankaran 1988;

Costello, 1990; Cortes, 1997; de Crespín *et al.*, 2000; Lima and Golteín, 2001) are still widely used to evaluate diet of various fish species. The usage of compound indices which combine two or more diet measures into a single index such as the Index of Relative Importance (IRI) (Cortes, 1997) has been criticized for providing little or no additional information than that provided by single indices (Macdonald and Green, 1983; Hansson, 1998).

Qasim (1972) while providing a critical appraisal of the existing knowledge of food and feeding habits of marine fishes in Indian waters, emphasized the importance of chemical analyses of food of fishes as it is of crucial importance in understanding dynamics of energy and its channelling to various trophic levels. Qasim and Jacob (1972) studied diet of fishes such as oil sardine, mackerel and mullet in terms of energy units as determined by organic carbon content while Salonen *et al.* (1976) studied the relation of energy and organic carbon in aquatic invertebrates. Sterner and George (2000) investigated the carbon, nitrogen and phosphorous levels in whole fish and gut samples of several cyprinid species and used it to build nutrient flux models. Assessment of nutritional benefits of feeding in fishes through analysis of stomach contents has been expressed in bio-energetic terms (Probst *et al.*, 1984; Keast and Eadie, 1985; Cunjak and Power, 1987) while stable isotope analysis of fish gut contents have been made to arrive at a time-integrated diet picture that also aided understanding of energy transfer in marine food webs (Sholto-Douglas *et al.*, 1991; Hesselsein *et al.*, 1993; Monteiro *et al.*, 1991; Zanden *et al.*, 2001; Yoshi *et al.*, 1999). Promising new techniques such as fatty acid tracers have also been used to understand trophic

ecology of the various ecosystems incorporating fatty acid analysis of tissues of the various animals in the ecosystem which are either prey and/or predators (Iverson *et al.*, 2002).

Feeding habits of several coastal marine fishes of India (Venkataraman, 1960; Qasim, 1972; Jacob and Rajagopal, 1980; Vivekanandan *et al.*, 2009) have been reported. Feeding habits of scombroids which includes the Indian mackerel have been reported (coastal species of tunas- Kumaran, 1962; spanish mackerel, *Scomberomorus* spp.– Vijayaraghavan, 1955; Jenkins *et al.*, 1984; bullet tuna *Auxis rochei*- Mostardo *et al.*, 2007; mackerel tuna *Euthynnus affinis*- Griffiths *et al.*, 2009 ). From Indian waters most of the studies on food have described only qualitative/quantitative aspects of diet composition (Qasim, 1972) and studies to estimate food consumption and production efficiency of the wild fish stocks are very few (Devaraj, 1999; Vivekanandan, 2001).

**3.2.2. Food resources and their nutritive value:** Kublicki *et al.* (2005) noted that biotope complexity and home range of the species is a significant factor affecting the variability of prey items observed in fishes. Rating and comparing of prey taxa in the diets of fish on an importance scale is based on the assumption that some taxa are more important than others to the growth, survival, recruitment, size structure, condition, reproductive success or other aspects of the ecology of the predator species (Liao *et al.*, 2001). Invertebrate prey are reported to provide the highest food quality in terms of both protein and energy compared to the primary food resources of algae, macrophytes and detritus (Bowen *et al.*, 1995; Persson, 1983). However, detritus based food webs are also

important in planktonic marine systems and it has been hypothesized that more phytoplankton carbon is probably processed by detritus pathways than by grazing pathways (Pomeroy, 1980; Bowen, 1984). Microbes are reported to make detrital carbon available to animals and play an essential part in overcoming the nitrogen deficiency of detritus (Mann, 1988). According to Newell (1984) the role of bacteria as a potential food resource for higher trophic levels in the marine pelagic systems is as important as phytoplankton to herbivores, especially when they are associated with aggregated particulate material and can be retained by the filtration structures of larger consumer organisms. The utilization of dissolved organic matter (DOM) from the plants through its physicochemical precipitation as amorphous particulate organic matter (POM) which is utilized by finfishes and shellfishes has been well documented in freshwater environments (Bowen, 1981). On the other hand, marine phytoplankton such as diatoms, dinoflagellates and other algae are very important sources of polyunsaturated fatty acids such as docosahexaenoic acid (DHA), eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) and arachidonic acid (AA) which is passed on to copepods, fishes and other higher trophic levels through the marine food chain (Tocher, 2003).

**3.2.3. Seasonal and Ontogenetic diet shifts:** Ontogenetic diet shifts which are linked to maximizing energy inputs have been noted in several species of teleosts, elasmobranchs and crustaceans (Lowe *et al.*, 1996- tiger shark *Galeocerdo cuvier*; crayfish *Procambrus clarkia*- Correia, 2002; Houde *et al.*, 2002 halibut *Reinhardtius hippoglossoides*; Galarowicz *et al.*, 2006- walleye

*Sander vitreus*; McElroy *et al.*, 2006- sandbar shark *Carcharhinus plumbeus*; Graham *et al.*, 2007- yellow fin tuna *Thunnus albacares*; Mahe *et al.*, 2007- Hake *Merluccius merluccius*). Various reasons have been attributed to the observed shifts such as, (i) seasonal variations in the availability of the prey types; (ii) size related shifts in morphological factors such as an increased mouth gape size of the predator and its agility and (iii) habitat shifts caused variations in foraging ground selected by the predator during its life cycle driven primarily by its inherent behaviour (Winemiller, 1989; Schaefer *et al.*, 2002; Szedlmayer and Lee, 2004; Figueirido *et al.*, 2005; Graham *et al.*, 2007; Mahe *et al.*, 2007). In the ontogenetic diet shifts associated during larval to juvenile phases, mouth size, development of swimming abilities and increased visual sensitivity are believed to play important roles (Blaxter, 1986; Kawakami and Tachihara, 2005) while in diet shifts associated with habitat shifts, availability and ease of capture of the different prey items play a key role (Szedlmayer and Lee, 2004). Ontogenetic changes in foraging patterns have also been linked to prey profitability which has significant impact on growth processes and population dynamics in fishes (Galarowicz *et al.*, 2006).

Several studies have also indicated seasonal variation in diet composition of fishes (Labropoulou *et al.*, 1997; Flavia *et al.*, 2000; Link and Garrison, 2002; Sever *et al.*, 2005). The importance for predators that shift diet to synchronize their lives with fluctuations in resource availability such as pulses of new cohorts of prey fish/ zooplankton / phytoplankton blooms was highlighted by Persson and Bronmark (2002). According to Link and Garrison (2002) the major determinants

of cod diet as a hierarchical sequence are, firstly, cod size which determines what can be eaten, secondly, preference for specific prey and third, abundance of all available prey.

**3.2.4. Feeding dynamics and maturation:** Feeding has been observed to reduce during maturing in certain fishes which is attributed to the body cavity being smaller just prior to spawning with ovaries filling the body cavity (Milton *et al.*, 1994) while in certain other species active feeding is reported during the gonad maturation process also (Hynes, 1950; Krishnamoorthi, 1971; Goncalves and Almada, 1997). In those species where maturing fish are observed to become anorexic indicates that final stages of gonadal growth are dependant on energy reserves (Jorgensen *et al.*, 1997) whereas increased feeding during maturation and spawning indicate energy needs are largely met by increased dietary intake and not depending on body reserves (Hasek and Felder, 2006). Selective predation on larger high energy prey by maturing fish which enables them to continue to grow rapidly while developing gonads has been reported (Milton *et al.*, 1994). The costs of parental care in teleosts and ways in which males and females differ in their investment of energy resource in reproduction has been studied (Childress *et al.*, 1980; Miller, 1984; Henderson *et al.*, 1984; Jonsson *et al.*, 1991; Goncalves and Almada, 1997). Clarke and Holmes (1986) reported that variations in lipid content and composition with sex and season in mid-water decapods was mostly influenced by the pattern of food availability. Food dependant variation in stored lipid energy has been found to influence the reproductive potential of individual fish (Rajasilta, 1992; Milton *et al.*, 1994;

Henderson *et al.*, 1996; Henderson and Wong, 1998; Yamada *et al.*, 1998) and at stock level found to constrain recruitment (Barents sea cod - Marshall *et al.*, 1999; chub mackerel- Yamada *et al.*, 1998). Wootton (1977) studied the effect of food limitation on the size, body components and egg production in stickle back *Gasterosteus aculeatus*. Wootton (1979) opined that when food resources are abundant the reproductive output of adult fish increased due to energy surplus.

**3.2.5. Diet of Indian Mackerel:** Studies on food and feeding of mackerel have been done through periodical examination of stomach contents and indicated a planktonic diet with dominance of copepods and presence of diatoms, dinophyids, crustaceans, molluscan larvae, algae, amphipods and miscellaneous items (Bhimachar and George, 1952; Pradhan, 1956; Rao and Rao, 1957; Noble, 1962; Venkataraman and Mukundan, 1970; Sivadas and Bhaskaran, 2008). Rao (1962) indicated a primarily planktivorous diet for mackerel but varying depending on the exigencies of the environment to include detritus and bottom algae also. Devanesan and Chidambaram (1948) suggested that the mackerel supplements its planktonic diet with dead and decaying fishes while according to Kuthalingam (1956) mackerel is piscivorous. However piscivory has not been observed in fishes caught along the east coast (Rao, 1962; Luther, 1973) compared to studies on the west coast (Kuthalingam, 1956; Kutty, 1965; Sivadas and Bhaskaran, 2008). Selectivity in feeding habits has been attributed to the Indian mackerel by some workers (Bhimachar and George, 1952; Pradhan, 1956). Madhupratap *et al.* (1994) concluded that in species such as mackerel spawning may be occurring in inshore waters with abundant food

but the microbial loop of the food chain is likely to be important in determining the maternal effects on egg quality especially in those years with weak / episodic monsoon upwelling and which probably acts as a safety valve with regards to recruitment of mackerel. Bhimachar and George (1952) reported that in inshore waters the diet of mackerel was dominated by copepods (50%), followed by cladocerans, larval/adult decapods, phytoplankton, lamellibranch larvae and fish eggs/larvae. Rao (1962) studied the food habits of mackerel (24 –32 cm size ) from more offshore areas in drift nets operated off Vizhinjam found feeding to be lowest during October to December coinciding with peak spawning activity. Qasim and Jacob (1972) noted that the ratio of body carbon to food carbon in *R.kanagurta* was 1 compared to a ratio of 5-7 in phytoplankton and detritus feeders like oil sardine and mullet. However little information is available on the feeding dynamics of Indian mackerel in relation to maturation and ontogenetic variations, if any.

### **3.3. Materials and Methods**

The mackerel samples were collected weekly from mackerel landings by ring seine and trawl nets during January 2005 to June, 2006 at various landing centers such as Kalamukku / Cochin Fisheries Harbour. The fishing grounds of these fishing units are along the Central Kerala coast. Freshly caught fish samples were transported to the lab in ice and individual fish were evaluated for the following: Total length (mm), total weight (gm), maturity stage (immature, maturing, ripe and spent) and stomach fullness (empty, traces to 1/4 full, 1/2 full, 3/4 full or full). To study the variations in food intake individual fish were cut open



and depending on the state of distension of the stomach were assigned as poorly fed (empty to 1/4 full), moderate ( 1/2 full) and actively fed (3/4 to full). Qualitative analysis was done using guts of actively fed specimens (almost full (3/4) to full stomachs) which were preserved in 5% formalin with labels indicating all biological details of the individual fish such as length, weight, sex, maturity stage and date of capture.

The formalin preserved actively fed stomachs were cut open and stomach contents were identified into broad but exclusive categories such as copepods, diatoms, dinoflagellates, crustaceans (excluding copepods), foraminifera, tintinnids, fish eggs, chaetognaths, sand and detritus. Fine greenish or brownish coloured organic matter that could not be attributed to any category was classified “detritus” as differentiated from “sand” which had grainy texture. Digested tissue remains probably of fish/shrimps occurring as a whitish pasty mass which could not be identified were classified as “digested”. The frequency of occurrence of each food item was calculated as given by Hynes (1950) as  $F_i = 100 * N_i / N$  where  $F_i$  is the frequency of occurrence of the  $i$  food item in the sample;  $N_i$  = number of stomach in which the  $i^{th}$  item was found and  $N$ = total number of stomachs with food examined.

Percentage volume (%  $V_i$ ) of each of the various food items was calculated using the Points (volumetric) method as given by Hynes (1950).The Index of Preponderance ( $I_p$ ) was assessed (Marshall and Elliott , 1997) as given below:

$I_p = (V_i O_i / \sum (V_i O_i)) * 100$  where  $V_i$  and  $O_i$  are percentage volume and occurrence of particular food item  $i$ . Percentage Preponderance index ( $\% I_p$ ) was arrived as  $\% I_p = (I_p / \sum I_p) * 100$

To obtain information on the seasonal diet variations, data was analysed according to seasons which based on ecological characters were classified (Menon *et al.*, 2000) as follows – Pre-monsoon (February to May), Monsoon (June to September) and Post- monsoon (October to January). Ontogenetic diet variations were studied using a size based classification into 5 size groups such as < 140, 141 – 170, 171 – 200, 201 – 230 and >230 mm taking into consideration its life history where first maturation is reached around 170 - 190mm (Chapter 2). Diet similarities among seasons was compared using Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient ( $R_s$ ) as given in Fritz (1974) using 12 prey categories that occurred in all the seasons and excluding “molluscs” and “chaetognaths” which was observed only during the monsoon and post-monsoon seasons respectively. The graphical method of Costello (1990) was used to plot percentage occurrence against percentage volume and relative importance of each item interpreted with respect to the positions in the graph. Diet breadth was calculated for each size group using the formula by Cailliet *et al.*, (1986) as given below:

$B = 1 / \sum (p_i)^2$  where  $p_i$  is the proportion of the  $i^{th}$  of the  $N$  items in the diet.

Food limitations are identical with energy limitations and according to Omori and Ikeda (1984) in the marine food web nutrient transfer can be expressed either in terms of energy, or, of any of the chemical elements (C, H, N) of the animal and even a combination of these two indices. As the elements such as C and N are of dietary origin and indicate the biochemical composition as well as energy storage pattern (Anderson and Pond, 2000) it was studied in relation to maturity stage and diet factors. The energy content of the muscle tissue of mature and ripe stages of male and female mackerel was estimated using a CHN analyzer. For this, 3 individuals of each sex and stage collected during May 2005 were used. The “ripe” stages were differentiated from “mature” stage in having predominantly translucent oocytes in hydrated stage, visible even without the aid of microscopy. Muscle tissue of the specimens was dried in an oven at 60<sup>0</sup> C overnight to remove moisture till constant weight was attained and then ground to fine powder using mortar and pestle. Pre-weighed powder was used for determination of ash content by ashing in muffle furnace (450 °C for 12 hours). Elemental analysis of Carbon (C), Hydrogen (H) and Nitrogen (N) was done in a CHN elemental analyser Vario ELIII CHNS. The elemental composition data were expressed as ash-free dry weight (AFDW) following the formula given by Gnaiger and Bitterlich (1984) as

$$W_c = \text{tot}W_c - \text{ash} W_c * W_{\text{ash}} / 1 - W_{\text{ash}}$$

where  $\text{tot}W_c$  is the total carbon mass in the total dry biomass (g total C/g<sub>dW</sub>);  $\text{ash} W_c$  is the inorganic carbon fraction in the ash (g inorganic C/ g<sub>ash</sub>); and  $W_{\text{ash}}$  is the mass fraction of ash in the dry weight (g<sub>ash</sub>/ g<sub>dW</sub>).

The caloric content was calculated using a formula of Gnaiger and Shick (1985) as given by Ikeda (1996):  $(4.436 W_N + 66.265 W_C - 11.2)/4.18$  where  $W_N$  and  $W_C$  are fractions of N and C respectively on an AFDW basis. To supplement these observations, differences if any, in food preferences among sexes was evaluated using a sub-sample of 39 specimens (190 – 240 mm TL size group) having full stomachs collected during April to August 2005, which covered the pre-monsoon and monsoon seasons. The volumetric percentage composition of the prey groups in 21 males and 18 females was analysed using ANOVA in SPSS software.

### **3.4. Results**

**3.4.1. Feeding intensity:** Empty stomachs were observed throughout the seasons while active feeding was highest during monsoon (Fig. 3.1). Among maturity stages, feeding activity was high even in ripe and spent stages (Fig. 3.2). The feeding intensity declined in the largest size groups (>231 mm) during the monsoon and post-monsoon seasons but in the pre-monsoon season even larger size groups were found to be actively feeding (Fig. 3.3a-c). Among size groups, irrespective of seasons, feeding intensity was highest in the <140 mm size class which abruptly declined in the 141 – 170 mm size class with only poor to moderate feeding activity. Further feeding increased rapidly in the 171 – 230 mm and was most prominent during the post monsoon season (Fig. 3.3 C & D).

**3.4.2. Seasonal variations:** Most of the food items were present throughout the seasons with copepods and diatoms most commonly observed in the stomachs examined in all the seasons. The frequency of occurrence ( $F_i$ ) of crustaceans

was highest during monsoon and post-monsoon seasons while foraminifera, algae, sand and detritus were most frequently occurring in the guts during the pre-monsoon season (Table 3.1).

The Preponderance Index ( $I_p$ ) however indicated differences in proportions of the various prey consumed among the seasons (Table 3.2 & Fig. 3.4.) Detritus ranked first during the pre-monsoon season only while copepods and 'digested matter' complex dominated during the monsoon and post-monsoon period (Table 3.3). Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient ( $R_s$ ) indicated no significant differences among the monsoon and post-monsoon seasons but significant differences when compared to the pre-monsoon season (Table 3.4).

Table 3.1: Percentage occurrence ( $F_i$ ) of various food items during the different seasons

<b>Item/Season</b>	<b>Pre-monsoon</b>	<b>Monsoon</b>	<b>Post-monsoon</b>
<b>Copepods</b>	64.3	89.9	95.3
<b>Diatoms</b>	64.3	69.6	72.1
<b>Dinoflagellates</b>	13.1	30.4	32.6
<b>Fish eggs</b>	10.7	5.1	2.3
<b>Crustaceans</b>	15.5	69.6	44.2
<b>Foraminifera</b>	67.9	25.3	7.0
<b>Tintinnids</b>	16.7	5.1	9.3
<b>Algae</b>	54.8	26.6	34.9
<b>Detritus</b>	78.6	36.7	11.6
<b>Sand</b>	63.1	7.6	9.3
<b>Digested</b>	66.7	100.0	86.0
<b>Molluscs</b>	0.0	7.6	0.0
<b>Chaetognaths</b>	0.0	0.0	11.6
<b>Total</b>	100	100	100

Table 3.2: Percentage Preponderance Index (%  $I_p$ ) of various food items during the different seasons

Prey items	Pre-monsoon	Monsoon	Post-monsoon	All seasons (combined)
<i>Copepods</i>	16.89	43.86	39.29	33.3
<i>Digested</i>	15.13	28.70	41.48	28.4
<i>Detritus</i>	28.48	1.91	0.82	10.4
<i>Diatoms</i>	8.58	9.47	5.78	7.9
<i>Crustaceans</i>	0.67	12.67	10.45	7.9
<i>Foraminifera</i>	11.87	0.13	0.13	4.0
<i>Algae</i>	8.12	1.54	1.19	3.6
<i>Sand</i>	9.31	0.14	0.02	3.2
<i>Dinoflag</i>	0.29	1.46	0.80	0.9
<i>Tintinnids</i>	0.53	0.03	0.02	0.2
<i>Fish eggs</i>	0.14	0.01	0.01	0.1
<i>Molluscs</i>	0.00	0.10	0.00	0.0

Table 3.3. Ranking based on season-wise Preponderance Index ( $I_p$ )

Prey Item/season	Pre-monsoon	Monsoon	Post-monsoon	Average ranking
<i>Detritus</i>	1	5	6	3
<i>Copepods</i>	2	1	2	1
<i>Digested</i>	3	2	1	2
<i>Foraminifera</i>	4	9	8	6
<i>Sand</i>	5	8	9	8
<i>Diatoms</i>	6	4	4	4
<i>Algae</i>	7	6	5	7
<i>Crustaceans</i>	8	3	3	5
<i>Tintinnids</i>	9	11	10	10
<i>Dinoflag</i>	10	7	7	9
<i>Fish eggs</i>	11	11	11	11
<i>Molluscs</i>	12	10	11	11
<i>Chaetognaths</i>	-	-	6	12

Table 3.4. Seasonal variations in diet composition assessed using Spearman's Rank correlation coefficient ( $R_s$ )

Season/ $R_s$	<i>Pre-monsoon</i>	<i>Monsoon</i>	<i>Post-monsoon</i>
<i>Pre-monsoon</i>	1.0	0.482	0.181
<i>Monsoon</i>		1.0	0.778*
<i>Post-monsoon</i>			1.0

\*significant correlation

**3.4.3. Ontogenetic variations:** Among size groups, the  $I_p$  indicated dominance of detritus (0.376) followed by copepods (0.193) in the largest (>230 mm) size group. Copepods, diatoms and dinoflagellates predominated in the 171 – 230 mm size range while in < 140 mm size group, “copepods” item (0.622) was dominant followed by digested matter (0.249) (Table 3.5, Fig. 3.5). Diet breadth was highest in the size class > 230 mm indicating more generalized feeding habits compared to < 140 mm size groups (Fig. 3.6).

Table 3.5: Preponderance Index ( $I_p$ ) for the various size groups of mackerel

Prey/size group (mm)	<140	141 -170	171- 210	211 - 240	>241
<b>Copepods</b>	0.622	0.473	0.704	0.723	0.193
<b>Diatoms</b>	0.129	0.006	0.251	0.104	0.042
<b>Dinoflag</b>	0.000	0.000	0.029	0.064	0.000
<b>Fish eggs</b>	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.004
<b>Crustaceans</b>	0.000	0.172	0.000	0.008	0.002
<b>Foraminifera</b>	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.146
<b>Tintinnids</b>	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.004	0.005
<b>Algae</b>	0.000	0.001	0.012	0.008	0.162
<b>Detritus</b>	0.000	0.000	0.004	0.001	0.376
<b>Sand</b>	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.039	0.044
<b>Digested</b>	0.249	0.347	0.000	0.048	0.025

**3.4.4. Diet composition and Energy content.** Costello Analysis (Fig. 3.7) which indicates the general feeding preferences of the fish indicated copepods and diatoms to be the most important. Diet composition among both sexes indicated copepods, diatoms and digested matter dominant but contribution of crustaceans, algae and detritus was higher in females compared to males (Table 3.6, Fig. 3.8). While no significant differences in energy composition among sexes was observed ( $F=0.011$ ,  $P > 0.05$ ) significant differences ( $F=31.8$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ) were observed among the mature and ripe stages within each sex (Fig. 3.9).

Table 3.6. Volumetric diet (%  $V_i$ ) composition of mackerel (male and female)

<b>Prey item</b>	<b>Females (<math>V_i</math>)</b>	<b>Males (<math>V_i</math>)</b>
<b><i>Copepods</i></b>	31.6	41.2
<b><i>Diatoms</i></b>	6.1	14.3
<b><i>Dinoflagellates</i></b>	1.6	5.8
<b><i>Fish eggs</i></b>	0.2	0.0
<b><i>Crustaceans</i></b>	21.7	5.2
<b><i>Foraminifera</i></b>	0.8	0.0
<b><i>Tintinnids</i></b>	0.7	0.2
<b><i>Algae</i></b>	7.1	0.8
<b><i>Detritus</i></b>	5.9	2.5
<b><i>Sand</i></b>	3.0	0.0
<b><i>Digested</i></b>	20.2	26.4
<b><i>Molluscs</i></b>	1.2	0.9
<b><i>Chaetognaths</i></b>	0.0	2.8



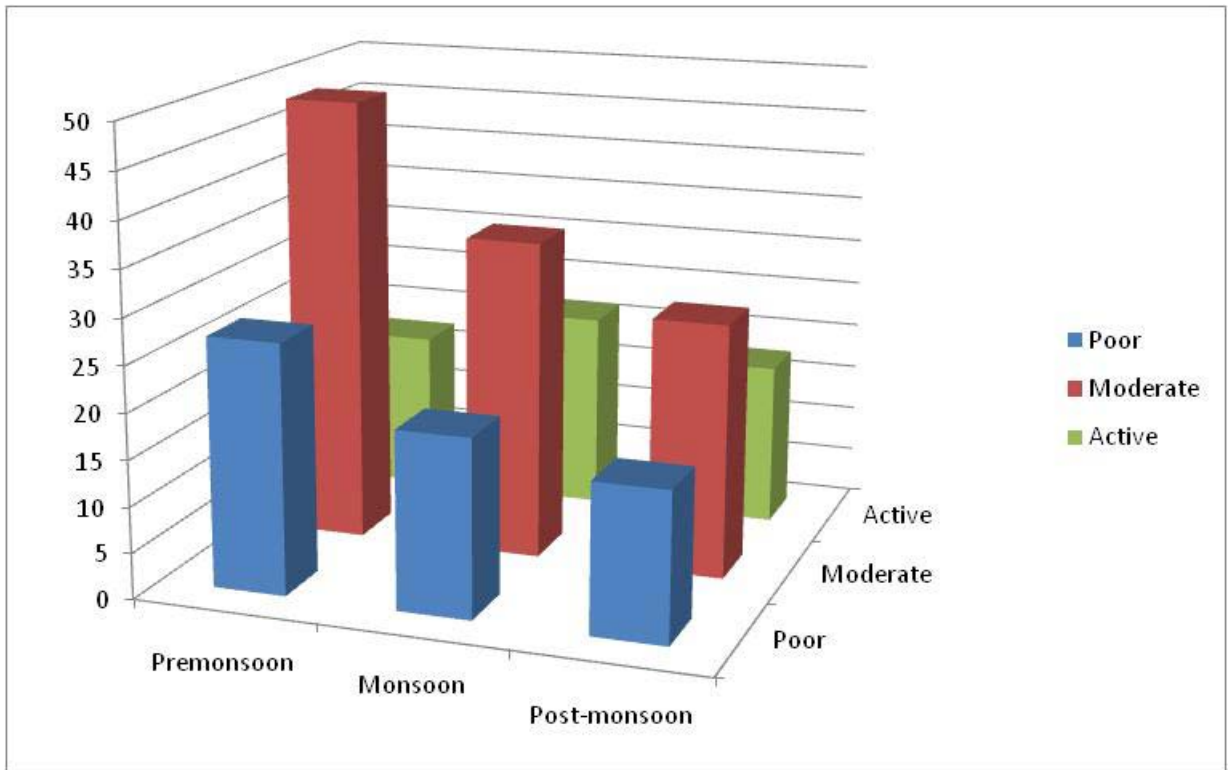


Fig.3.1 Feeding intensity (% numbers) in relation to seasons

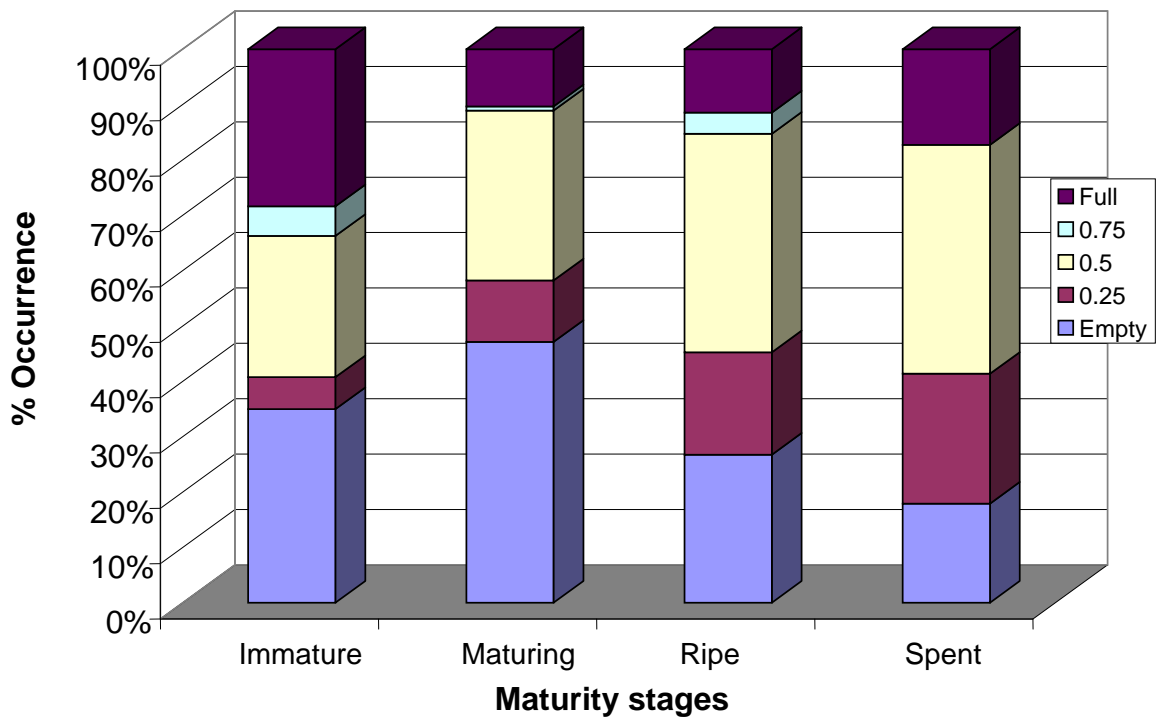


Fig. 3.2. Percentage occurrence of stomachs of various feeding activity in the different maturity stages

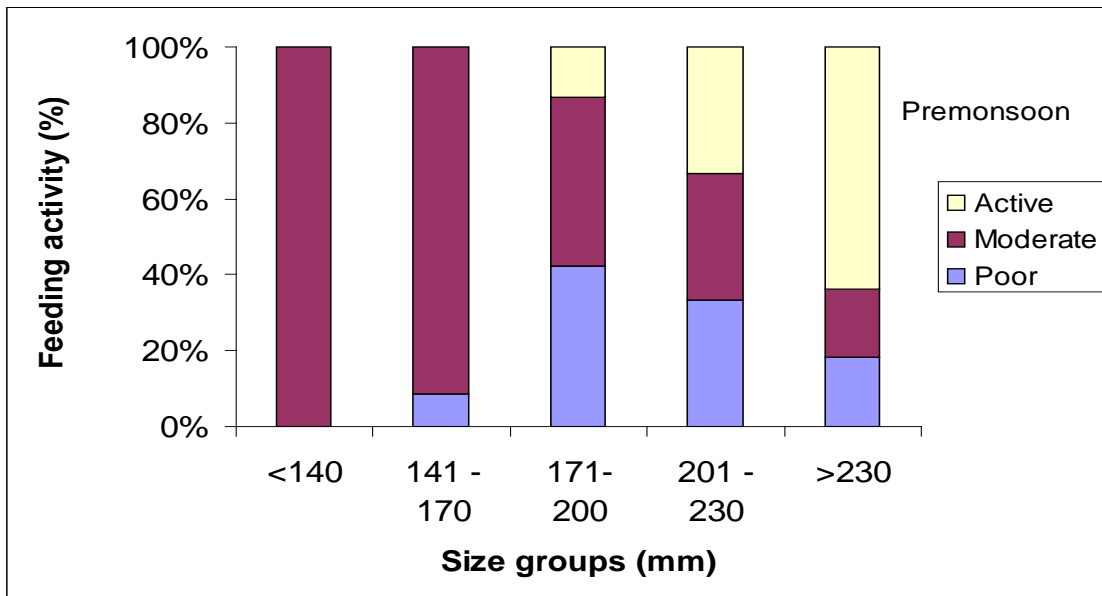


Fig. 3.3 A. Size-based feeding activity during pre-monsoon season

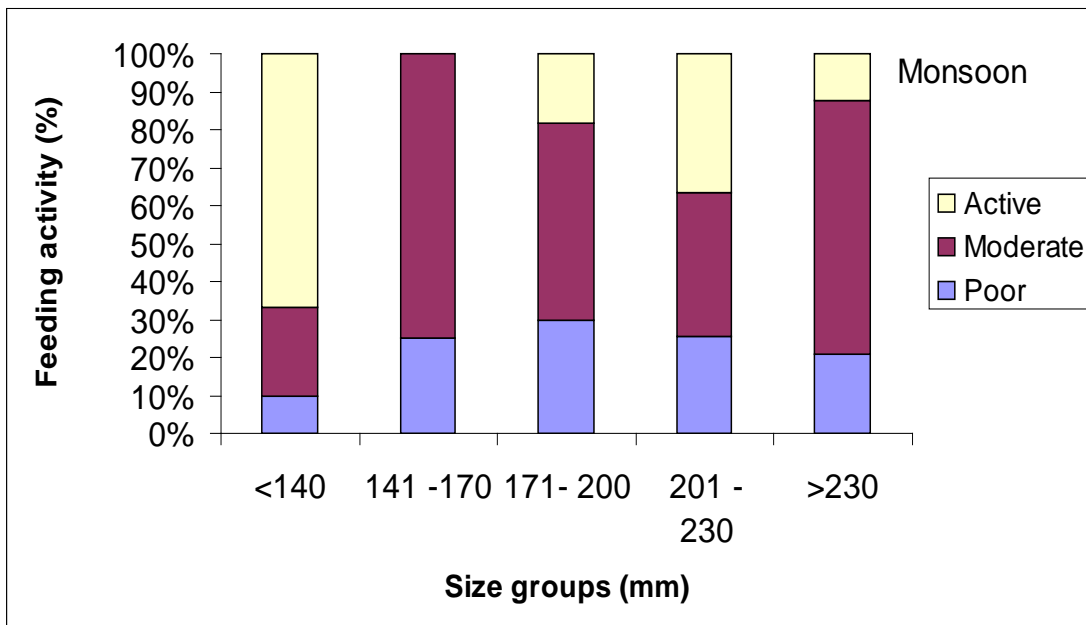


Fig. 3.3 B. Size-based feeding activity during monsoon season

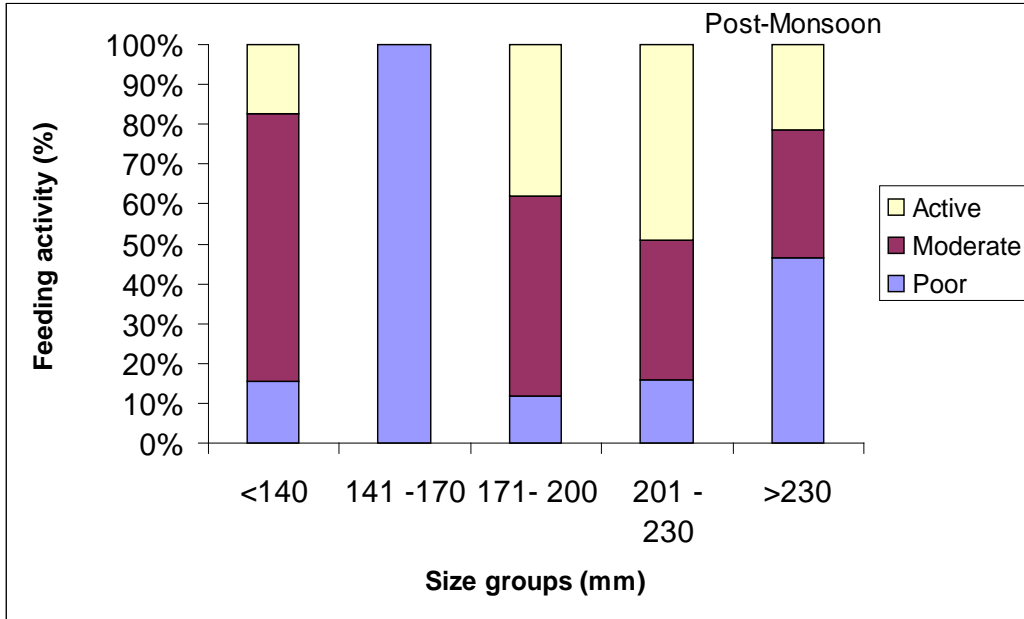


Fig. 3.3 C. Size-based feeding activity during post monsoon season

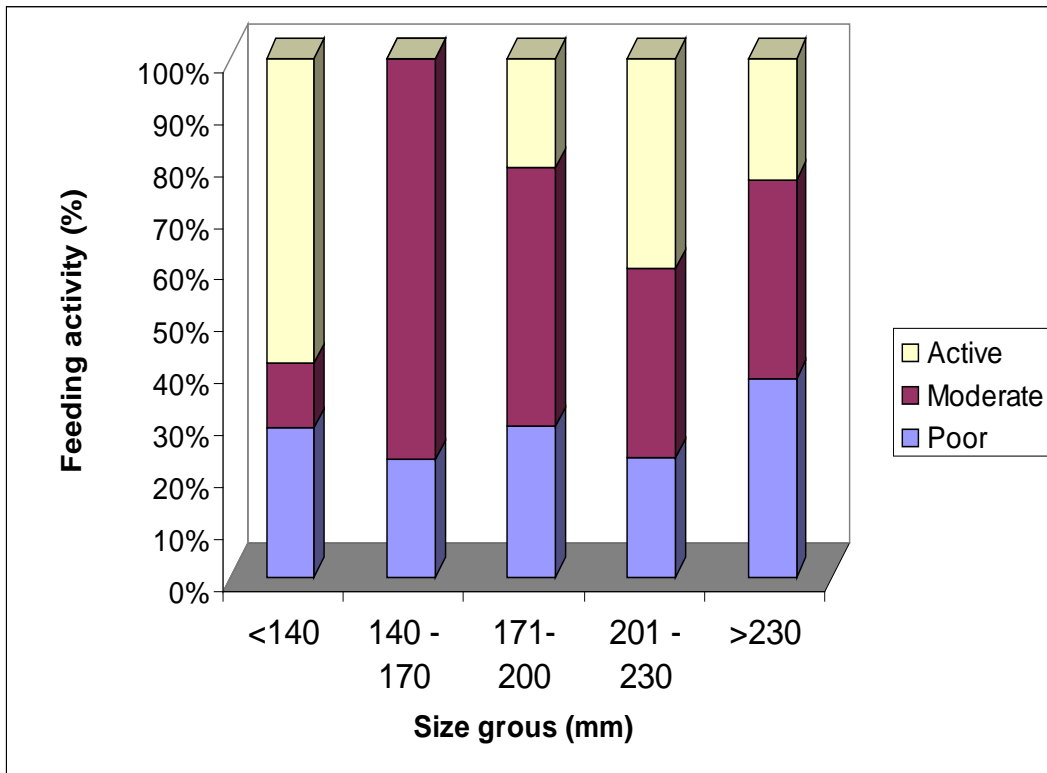


Fig 3.3 D. Size- based feeding activity combined for all seasons

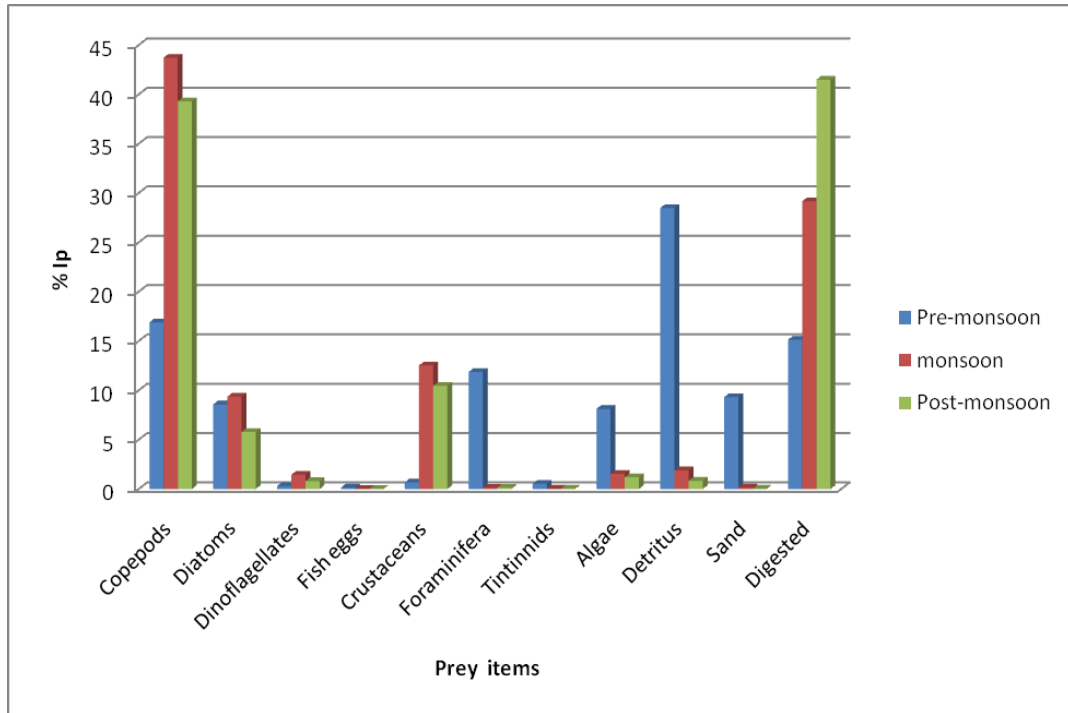


Fig. 3.4. Seasonal percentage Preponderance Index (% Ip) showing dominance of various food items

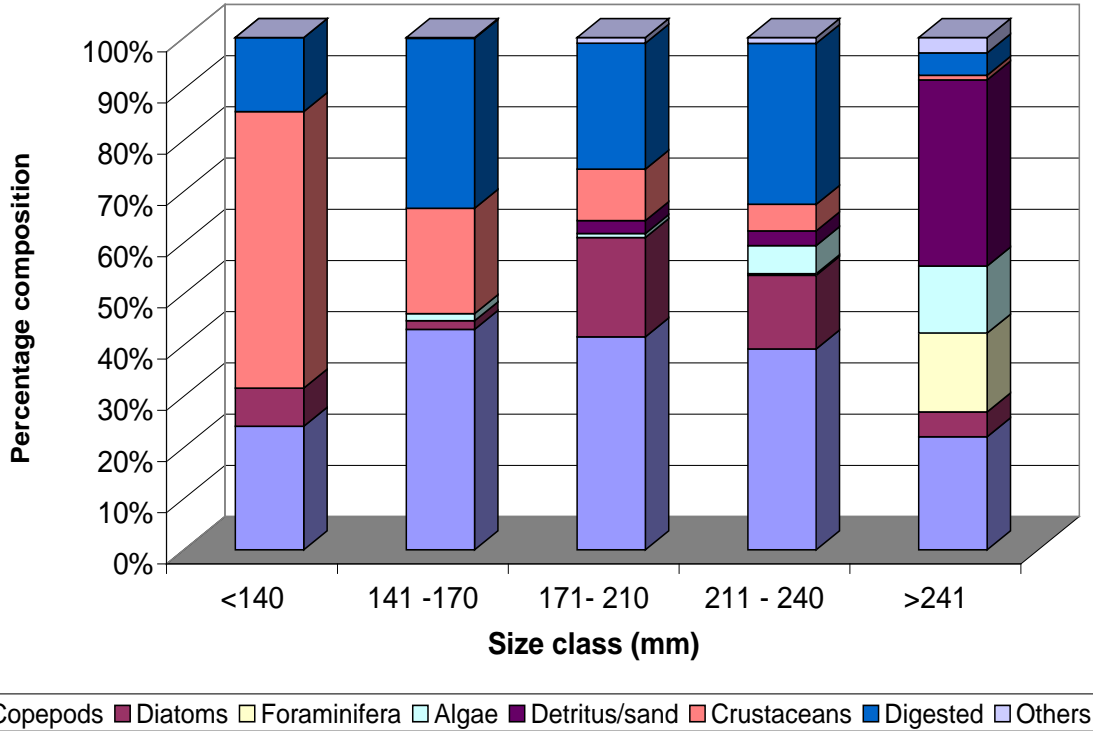


Fig. 3.5. Percentage composition of diet items in the various size groups of Indian mackerel

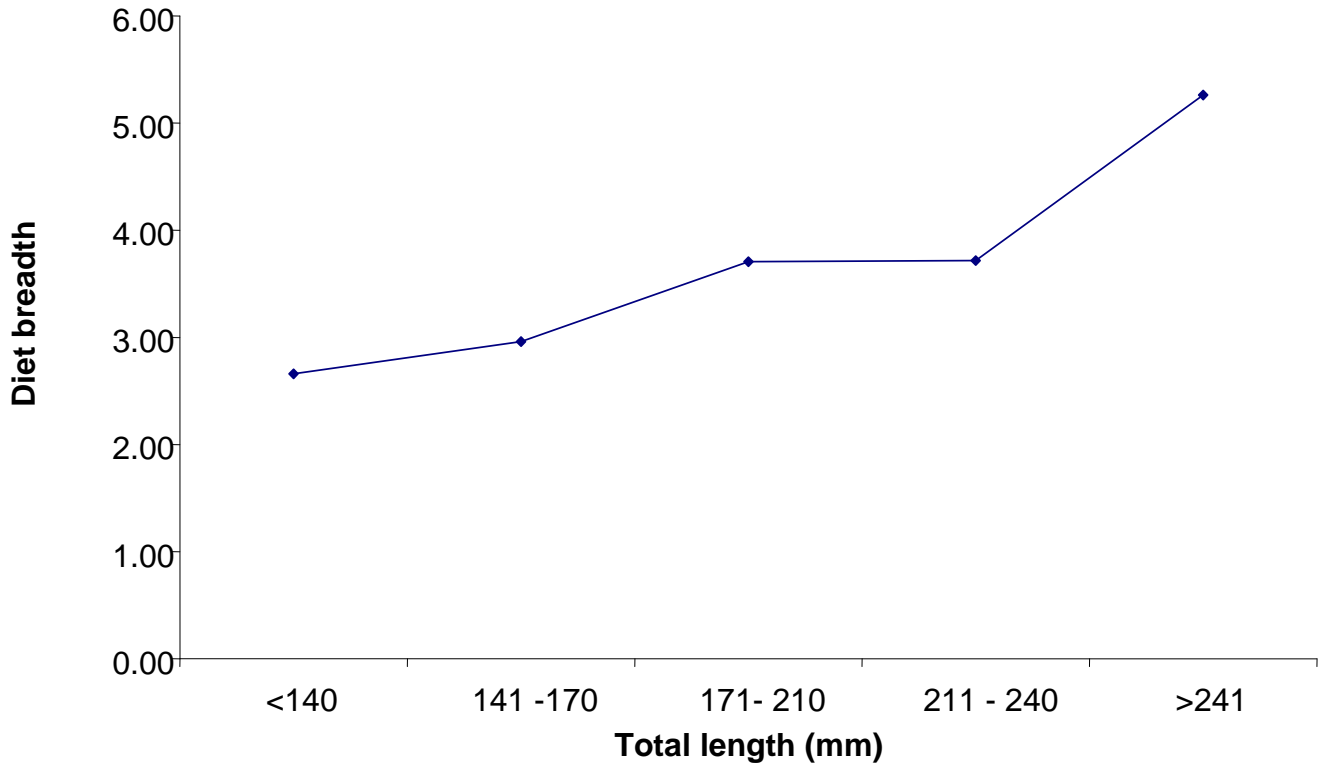


Fig. 3.6 Diet breadth (B) among various size groups of mackerel

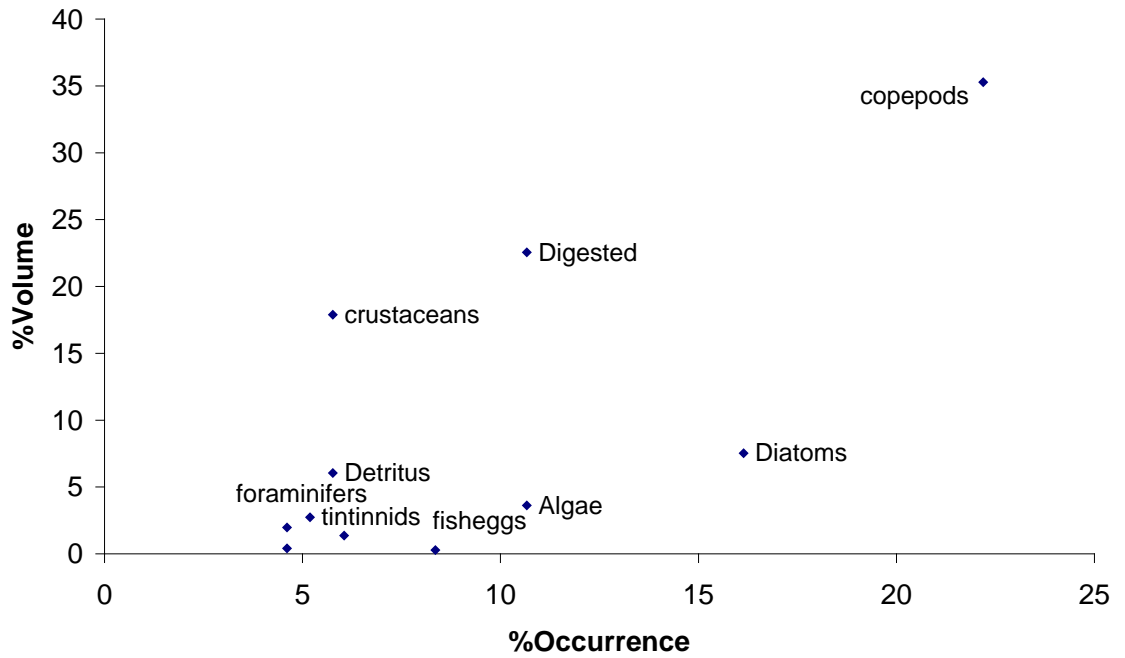


Fig. 3.7. Costello analysis indicating the occurrence and dominance of different prey items

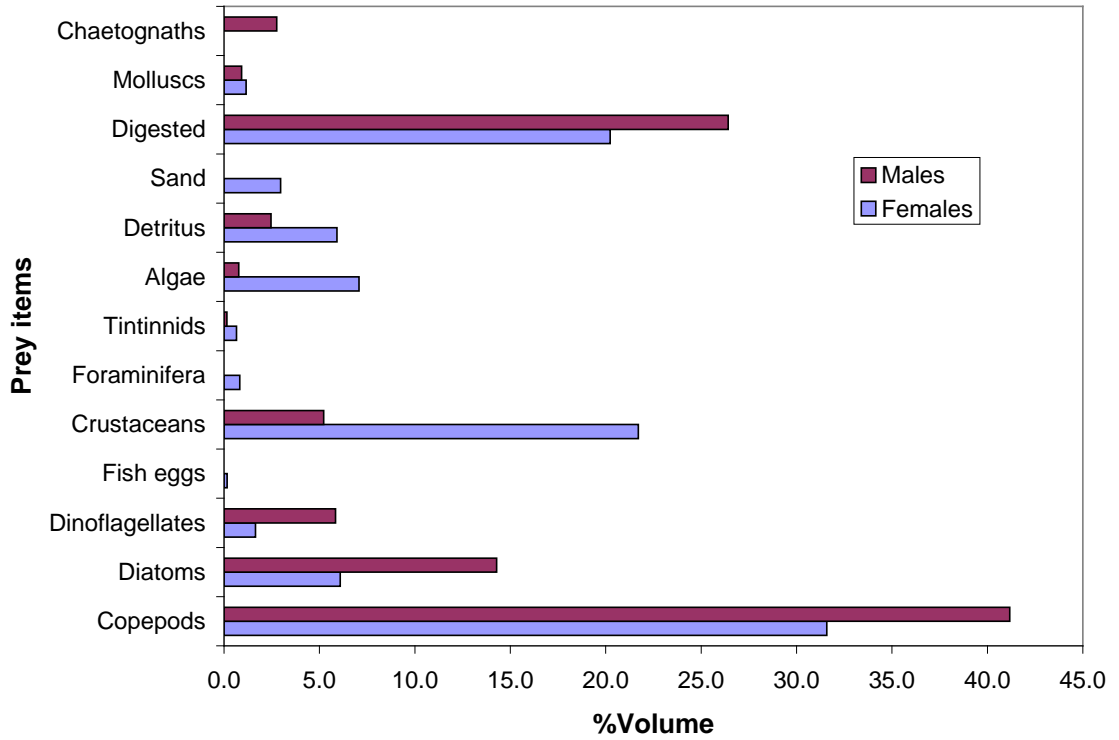


Fig. 3.8. Volumetric indices of various food items among sexes in *R. kanagurta*.

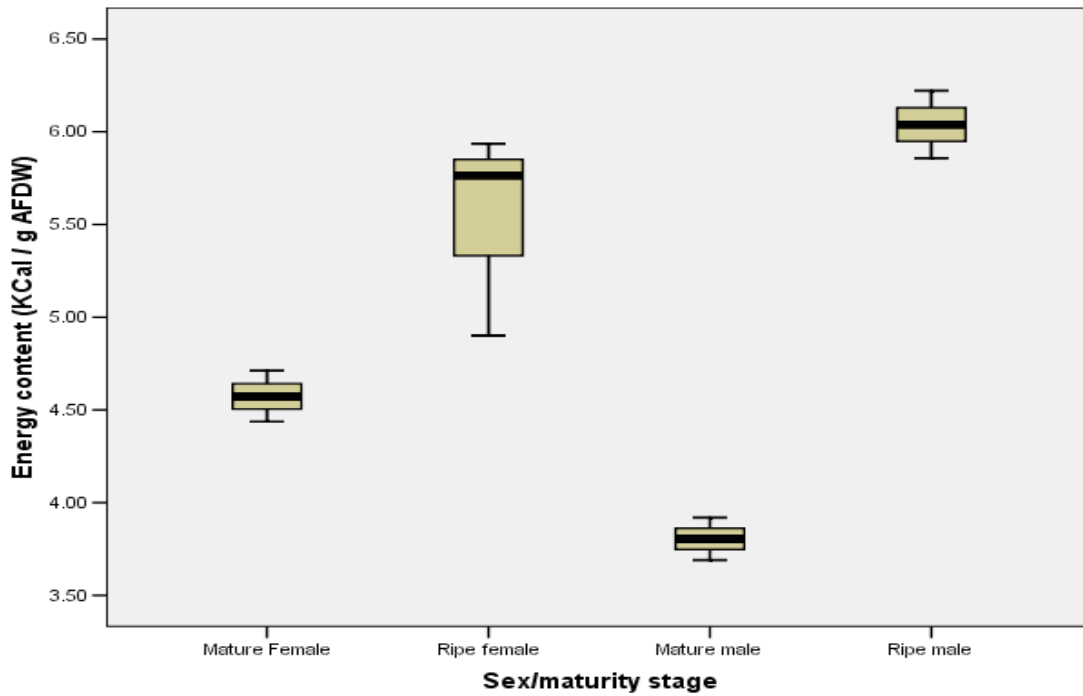
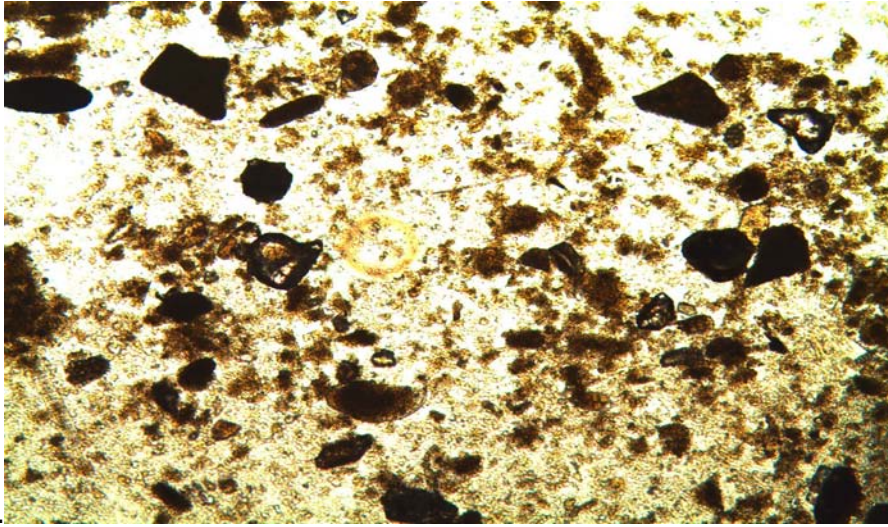
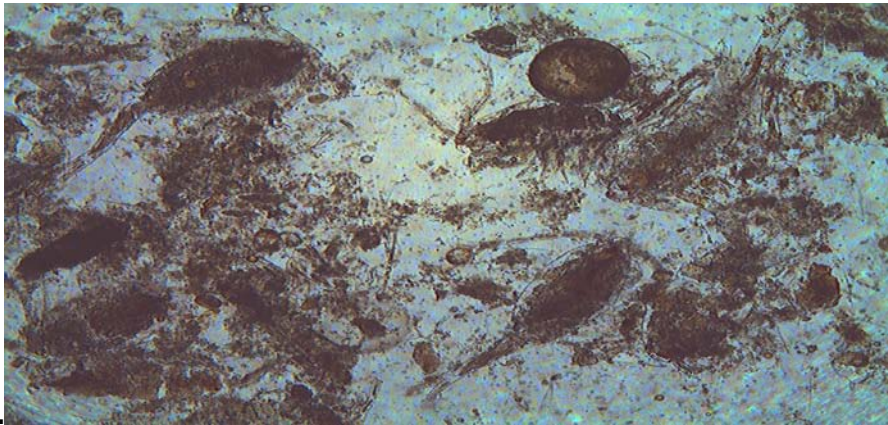


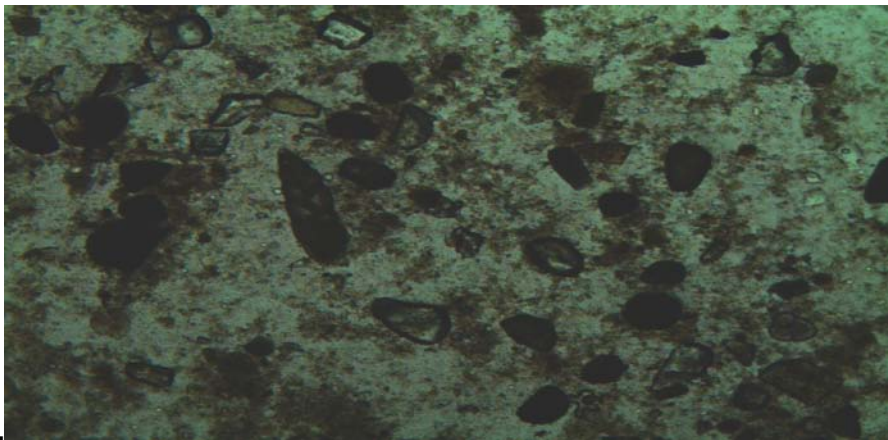
Fig.3.9. Box plot indicating the variations in energy content in muscle tissue of different sex and maturity stages of mackerel



A.



B.



C.

Plate 4. Snapshots of mackerel diet indicating dominance of: (A) phytoplankton, (B) copepods and (C) detritus

### 3. 5. Discussion

**3.5.1. Feeding Intensity:** It is reported that fish metabolism has an influence on feeding behavior and feed intake by fish is such that it meets their energy requirements (Bowen *et al.*, 1995). Thus if a diet has low energy value, fish will compensate by eating more within the limits of its stomach capacity (Mittelbach, 2002). Therefore, this may be one reason why during the pre-monsoon season when the low energy value food constituted by detritus was predominant, the occurrence of stomachs with moderate to active feeding activity was the highest.

The rapid increase in the feeding intensity in the 171 – 230 mm size group and progressively thereafter was coinciding with the length at which maturation is initiated and spawning activities predominate in this species (Yohannan, 1979, 1995; present study Chapter 2). Typically, when fishes approach maturity they are found to increase the energy devoted to gonad development by increased feeding intensity (Iles ,1974; Lambert and Dutil, 1998) which supports the observations in this study.

Although intensity of feeding in mackerel has been reported to vary with maturity and spawning conditions, being minimal during spawning, high in the maturing group, and maximum during post-spawning period (Bhimachar and George, 1952; Chidambaram *et al.*, 1952; Noble, 1962; Rao, 1965) no such decline in feeding activity of maturing or ripe fishes was observed in the present study. This agrees with the observations recorded by Kuthalingam (1956) and Krishnamoorthi (1971) in the Indian mackerel and threadfin bream respectively. The observation that egg production in many fishes depends more on the energy



intake during the spawning season than on the energy reserves accumulated earlier (Dominguez-Petit and Saborido-Rey, 2009) and increased feeding during maturation which enables development of gonadal growth without slowing of somatic growth (Milton *et al.*, 1994) supports the observation of intensive feeding by ripe spawners in Indian mackerel. Feeding intensity declined in the largest size groups (>231 mm) probably in tune with the reported slowing down of growth as it reaches its asymptotic age/length (Yohannan, 1979) which is a common phenomenon in all fishes.

### **3.5.2. Diet composition**

**3.5.2.1. Diet composition in relation to seasons:** The ranking of various food items based on the Index of Preponderance ( $I_p$ ) indicated seasonal variations in diet composition with detritus ranked first followed by copepods during the pre-monsoon season. Copepods, 'digested matter' complex and crustaceans dominated during the monsoon and post-monsoon period (Table 3.3). This observation agrees with the findings of Schaefer *et al.* (2002) and Kulbicki *et al.* (2005) that many fishes are opportunistic feeders eating what is available within a more or less restricted range of items and changes in number of prey types reflect only this plasticity as well as the variability of prey in the particular biotope where the fish is feeding. The dominance of detritus during the pre-monsoon is probably a habitat-shift associated diet change and indicative of bottom feeding habits (Kutty, 1965) that occurs during its "demersal phase" coinciding with the declining of thermocline during the pre-monsoon period (Murty and Vishnudatta, 1976; Yohannan and Abdurahiman, 1998). Opportunistic demersal feeding has

also been noted in several other scombroids such as tunas (Manooch *et al.*, 1985; Griffiths *et al.*, 2007). The observations are supported by several reports which indicate that digestion of detritus can supply the consumer with energy and therefore detrital aggregates which are not a normally acceptable food resource may serve as a short-term food resource if the consumer can tolerate a temporary nutritional deficiency (Peters and Kjelson, 1975; Bowen, 1979; Peters and Schaff, 1981; Ahlgren, 1996) which may be applicable in the Indian mackerel also.

**3.5.2.2. Diet composition in relation to size groups:** In the present study the feeding habits of the different size groups indicated differences in their prey preferences agreeing with the observations made by some earlier workers (Chidambaram, 1944; Rao and Rao, 1957; Rao, 1962). The ontogenetic diet variations indicated in the present study are also supported by the observations of Kapoor *et al.* (1975) that the length of the alimentary canal is indicative of the food preferences of the fishes with carnivores having the smallest gut length and detritivores the highest and that by Rao and Rao (1957) who observed differences in the relative length of the alimentary tract of juvenile and adult mackerel and attributed it to differences in their feeding habits. The occurrence of macroalgae in relatively large sized bottom feeding specimens during the pre-monsoon was observed. This observation is supported by the fact that larger fish have the capability to digest even low-quality food and therefore often meet their energetic demands by consuming macroalgae (Benavides *et al.*, 1994).

Ontogenetic changes in foraging patterns are linked to prey profitability and have consequences for the growth process of the fish (Galarowicz *et al.*, 2006). There is tendency for fish size to increase with depth (MacPherson and Duarte, 1991) and in the case of the Indian mackerel which migrates to deeper waters, diet shifts are probably tuned for utilization of energy from all possible sources. Thus, Diet breadth (B), as an indicator of diet diversity was highest in the size class > 230 mm indicating that the larger individuals are capable of exploiting a broader range of prey and have more generalized feeding habits compared to < 140 mm size groups. According to Mohamed *et al.* (2005) ontogenetic shifts in trophic levels of animals must be considered in mass-balance ecosystem modeling studies. This study was confined to the Indian mackerel which is the second largest marine fishery resource contributing to the annual fish catches of the Kerala state. Very few reports of ontogenetic diet shifts, if any, are available for marine fishes in Indian waters and this study indicates that it may have to be assessed for other species as well to understand the energy flow of the marine ecosystem off Kerala coast and make meaningful fishery projections through trophic modelling.

**3.5.2.3. Diet composition and energy variations:** Observation of copepods as an important food item irrespective of seasons or size in the Indian mackerel agrees with earlier studies (Bhimachar and George, 1952; Noble, 1962; Pradhan, 1956; Rao and Rao, 1957; Sivadas and Bhaskaran, 2008). Prokopchuk and Sentyabov (2006) also have reported that calanoid copepods are the favored food items of mackerel. Prey availability is the key factor in determining feeding

behavior in fishes (Dorner *et al.*, 2003) and the diet composition of fishes is often related to temporal fluctuation in the zooplankton assemblage in the environment (Mostardo *et al.*, 2007) or availability of other prey fishes (Persson and Bronmark, 2002; Galarowicz *et al.*, 2006). Thus the preference to copepods by all size groups indicated in the present study may be due to availability as they are the most abundant item in the zooplankton of the Arabian Sea along the southwest coast of India (Raymont, 1983; Gopinathan *et al.*, 1984; Madhupratap, 1999; Mohamed *et al.*, 2006; Smith and Madhupratap, 2005). Besides, the preference for copepods can be justified because invertebrate prey is reported to provide the highest food quality in terms of both protein and energy compared to the primary food resources of algae, macrophytes and detritus (Qasim *et al.*, 1973; Bowen *et al.*, 1995). Selective predation on copepods and crustaceans, by maturing fish which enables them to continue to grow rapidly while developing gonads has been reported (Milton *et al.*, 1994) which is another reason it might be a preferred food item. Hunter and Leong (1981) reported that anchovy *Engraulis mordax* required a daily ration of copepods equivalent to 4-5% of female wet weight per day to support the annual cost of growth and reproduction. Therefore it may be concluded that copepods abundant in the Arabian Sea ecosystem are an important link in the energy transfer to fishes, especially mackerel, an important fishery resource of the region.

The Indian mackerel is classified as predominantly plankton feeder but detritus was observed to be the most important diet item during the pre-monsoon period coinciding with its peak spawning period. Several studies have suggested

that organic detritus which consists of all types of biogenic material in various stages of decomposition and settled detritus (chitinous material, plant fibres, phytoplankton cell remains, remnants of exoskeleton of zooplankton, sponge spicules, stems of hydrozoans, foraminiferans, broken shells of clams, gastropods, fish scales/bones and large quantities of silt, sand and clay along with micro and meiobenthos) are a significant resource for those consumer organisms which are capable of exploiting bacterio-organic complexes in the water (Rajan, 1968; Qasim, 1972; Jacob and Rajagopal, 1980; Newell, 1984; Wilson, 2002). Rajan (1968) who studied the food spectrum of fishes from the Chilka lake found even some well known carnivorous fishes to feed on detritus even while other food organisms were readily available. The seasonal dominance of detritus in the diet observed agrees with the observations by Mann (1988) that although fresh algal sources are a superior source of energy compared to detrital particles, the fact that phytoplankton production is seasonal while detrital particles are available around the year makes it a supplementary food source during the periods of low algal abundance. In the Cochin backwaters, peak phytoplankton production occurs mostly during monsoon and post-monsoon season caused by monsoon induced upwelling and winter cooling effects as compared to pre-monsoon season which has very low primary production (Gopinathan *et al.*, 1984; Madhupratap *et al.*, 2001) while detritus is reported to be maximum during the April –June period with its nutritive value in terms of C : N ratio ranging from 5 - 10.5: 1 (Qasim and Sankaranarayanan, 1972).

Galloop *et al.* (1999) has reported that detrital material is a source of monounsaturated (C14:1 – C18:1) fatty acids (MUFAs) as well as saturated fatty acids (SFA) such as C20:0. The major source of energy in fishes are monoenes and saturates among fatty acids and selective ingestion of detritus by fish has also been reported (Ahlgren, 1996). Therefore it is quite possible that detritus is being ingested purposefully by mackerel depending on the exigencies of the environment. Wilson (2002) had indicated that because of an increase in microbial activity during the summer season due to elevated temperatures there is an increase in protein levels of detritus during this period. Incidentally the summer or pre-monsoon period was the period when increased detritus consumption was observed in mackerel indicating the importance of detritus in the diet of mackerel. Madhuratap *et al.* (1994) hypothesized the importance of detritus food chain in determining the success of mackerel fisheries *vis-à-vis* oil sardine during periods of adverse environmental conditions resulting in less than optimum plankton production. However, detritus is seldom mentioned in earlier diet composition studies of mackerel except as an incidental food item (Vivekanandan *et al.*, 2009) and it thus appears that the role of detritus as a feed component has not been properly evaluated for Indian mackerel. Studies by Madhuratap *et al.* (1994) have indicated that the microbial loop may be a significant factor in ensuring energy supply in the marine food web, which is reiterated in this study. Therefore a more detailed evaluation from different regions/ecosystems along the coast may be rewarding to understand the dynamics of energy transfer in the marine food web.

Because of its varied diet that includes plant and animal matter the Indian mackerel may be considered as an omnivore. Omnivory is a feeding strategy that enables fish to complement protein from invertebrate prey like copepods with energy from the more abundant primary foods such as detritus and algae, especially when their favored food items are scarce (Bowen *et al.*, 1995). No differences in the energy levels among the sexes was observed in the study indicating it as an opportunistic feeder where diet broadly reflects availability and habitat characteristics. However the higher energy levels observed in ripe stages compared to mature stages in both sexes is probably due to the intensity of feeding being higher as maturity progresses.

The present study was confined to studying the food items available in the guts at the time of analysis which revealed that there are seasonal variations in diet and physiological factor like maturation are also influencing feeding patterns. However a time-integrated diet picture is not available for any species including mackerel in Indian waters, and may be gainfully by employing more advanced techniques such as stable isotope studies there will be a more clear elucidation of the energy flow in this ecosystem which will also facilitate an understanding of the factors influencing the annual variations in the fishery.

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CHAPTER 4  
LIPID DYNAMICS



## CHAPTER 4

# LIPID DYNAMICS

### 4.1. Introduction

Lipids and specifically their constituent fatty acids play an important role in the life histories and physiology of fishes as they are an important source of energy for their growth, reproduction and movement, including migration (Sargent, 1989). Lipids in fishes are typically constituted by triacyl glycerols which are an energy reserve, and phospholipids which are more important as part of cellular structure. Fatty fishes (> 2% lipid) such as mackerel, sardines and herring store fat in their muscle mostly as triglycerides while lean fishes such as cod and haddock are reported to store fat in their livers (Ackman, 1980). As lipids and their constituent fatty acids play a crucial role in ensuring reproductive success, enhanced larval survival and growth have been studied in detail for many species of aquaculture importance to develop improved diets especially in their early stages (Bromage and Roberts, 1995; Sargent *et al.*, 2002; Tocher, 2010). However, only few studies have been conducted in species which are mostly caught from the wild but are yet of commercial importance. Tocher (2003) comments that molecular technologies are being applied in the area of fish lipid metabolism presently for aquaculture purposes such as increased production or value-addition of nutrient (EPA and DHA) composition of fish for balanced diets but ultimately they may also be used for assisting efforts to understand and possibly reverse the ongoing decline in wild fish populations.

The biochemical composition of Indian mackerel with regard to food processing technologies has been reported earlier but few studies relating it to its biological cycles such as feeding, growth and reproduction which could possibly improve the understanding of the dynamics of the resource have been made. Lipids play an important role in the life-history dynamics of fishes, especially regarding reproduction and are mostly sourced from their natural diet. Hence this study focused on the fatty acid profile of mackerel in relation to its maturity stage, spawning cycle and feeding habits.

## **4.2. Review of Literature**

**4.2.1. Role of lipids and fatty acids in fish:** The major role of lipids in fish is for the storage and provision of metabolic energy in the form of ATP provided through  $\beta$  oxidation of fatty acids (Sargent *et al.*, 2002). Lipids can be broadly divided into two groups- polar lipids composed principally of phospholipids and neutral lipids composed principally of triacylglycerols (Tocher, 2003) and are stored in muscle, skin or liver in fishes. Ratnayake and Ackman (1979) reported that skin and muscle are the most important fat storage organs in mackerel compared to other species where it is stored in the liver (capelin); and muscle tissue (herrings). Lipid mobilization is reported to be very active in fish during the period of gonad growth and maturation (Henderson and Wong, 1998). While in females the mobilization increases the gonad weight and deposition of fat in certain parts of the body, in males it is more associated with behavioural aspects of reproduction including development of secondary sexual characters and enhanced swimming activity (Henderson *et al.*, 1984). Lipids are composed of fatty acids that are

designated on the basis of their chain lengths, degree of unsaturation and the position of ethylenic bonds into 3 major groups, namely, saturated fatty acids (SFAs), monounsaturated fatty acids (MUFAs) and polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) (Ackman, 1982).

Fatty acids (FA) have three major role in fishes, namely, i) as fuels, ii.) as membrane components and iii.) as precursors of eicosanoids that produce prostaglandins which have a critical role in mediating reproductive activities (Bell *et al.*, 1986). Thus, FA play a critical role in the maturation and reproductive success, hatching and enhanced larval survival as well as growth patterns and hence have been used to understand maturation, spawning and recruitment dynamics of many finfish and shellfish species worldwide (Appa Rao, 1967; Rao, 1967; Nikolskii, 1969; Henderson *et al.*, 1984; MacFarlane *et al.*, 1992; Ballantyne *et al.*, 1996; Bell and Sargent, 1996; Jong *et al.*, 1997; Galap *et al.*, 1999; Kas'yanov *et al.*, 2002; Mourente *et al.*, 2002).

SFAs function as important oxidative substrates for a variety of tissues including red muscles whose activity is high during spawning migrations (Shulman and Love, 1999). The ratio of PUFAs like docosahexaenoic acid (DHA, 22:6n3), eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA, 20: 5n3) and arachidonic acid (AA, 20:4n6) are critical for normal growth and reproduction in fishes (Furuita *et al.*, 1996; Sargent *et al.*, 1999, 2002). Stacey and Goetz (1982) and Henderson *et al.* (1985) reported conversion of PUFAs to prostaglandins which are essential for ovulation in all vertebrates including fish (Murdoch *et al.*, 1993). Certain fishes are reported to use prostaglandins to synchronize spawning behaviour between sexes (Bell *et al.*,

1986). Certain lipid classes such as phospholipids are important constituents of fish egg yolk and selective utilization of monoenoic and polyenoic fatty acids has been reported during process of yolk deposition and oocyte maturation in fishes (Henderson *et al.*, 1984, 1984a; Wiegand and Idler, 1985; Navas *et al.*, 1997; Sorbera *et al.*, 2001; Johnson, 2009). Mckenzie *et al.* (1998) noted maximal swimming speed of salmon positively correlated with muscle levels of C18 FA and suggested that monoenoic FA rather than PUFA are preferred fuels in swimming muscles.

It is now sufficiently established that fatty acid compositions of the neutral lipids in animal depot fat are dictated by the products of the animal's metabolic activity as well as the fatty acid components of its dietary lipids (Ackman, 1980). In most marine species of fish, natural diets are a good source of fatty acids (Tocher, 2003) and Ackman *et al.* (1980) reports that in many marine fishes, fatty acid biosynthesis essentially follows the chain elongation route C16:0 → C18:0 → 18:1n9 when food supply is adequate and additional unsaturated acids are not required. However, fishes lack the  $\Delta 12$  and  $\Delta 15$  (n3) desaturase enzymes and hence cannot form 18:2n6 and 18:3n3 fatty acids from 18:1n9 thereby making these FA essential fatty acids that have to be provided through the diet which will be desaturated further and elongated to form the physiologically essential C20 and C22 PUFAs (Tocher, 2003). Thus, fishes acquire PUFAs in two ways- a) through the food chain and b) synthesis of long chain FA from shorter carbon chains through enzymes known as desaturases and elongases (Shulman and Love, 1999). In fishes, besides the significant contribution of PUFAs from dietary

sources, monoenes and saturated fatty acids are also synthesized *de novo* (Watanabe, 1982; Shulman and Love, 1999). The essential fatty acid (EFA) requirements of fishes have been extensively studied and known to vary qualitatively and quantitatively (Sargent *et al.*, 1995; Bell and Sargent, 2003).

**4.2.2. Fatty acid composition in fishes:** The specificity of fatty acid oxidation regulated by enzyme systems is the critical factor determining the species level fatty acid composition of fishes (Tocher, 2003). Nordgarden *et al.* (2003) attributed the seasonally changing fatty acid composition in fishes due to metabolic changes in the  $\beta$  oxidation capacity. The polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) of the n3 family associated with fish and fish oils are shown to have beneficial effects on prevention of heart diseases in humans and hence many studies have addressed the total lipid and fatty acid composition of fish which have revealed profound variation among species (Exler *et al.*, 1975; Exler and Weihrauch, 1976; Gooch *et al.*, 1987; Kryznowek and Murphy, 1987; Kryznowek *et al.*, 1989; Gopakumar, 1993). Many species have been studied for fatty acid variations in relation to seasons, size groups or maturity and it has been observed that fatty acid composition of fish differs due to climatic conditions, diet, age, maturation and also among various species (Knipparath and Mead, 1966; Gopakumar, 1969; Culkin and Morris, 1970; Hardy and Keay, 1972; Toyamizu *et al.*, 1976; Ueda, 1976; Hayashi and Takagi, 1977, 1978; Kinsella *et al.*, 1977; Nair and Gopakumar, 1978; Ota *et al.*, 1980; Linko *et al.*, 1985; Clarke and Holmes, 1986; Nichols *et al.*, 1986; Gallagher *et al.*, 1984, 1989; Vlieg and Body, 1988; Henderson and Almatar, 1989; Kharlamenko *et al.*, 1995; Schwalane *et al.*, 1993; Belling *et al.*, 1997, 2001; De

Silva *et al.*, 1997; Gunasekera *et al.*, 1999; Saito *et al.*, 1999; Bandarra *et al.*, 2001; Budge *et al.*, 2002; Lea *et al.*, 2002; Osako *et al.*, 2003; Robin *et al.*, 2003; Halilogulu *et al.*, 2004; Rosa *et al.*, 2004, 2005; Velansky and Kostetsky, 2008). Gruger *et al.* (1964) reported the fatty acid composition of oils from 21 species of marine fish, fresh water fish and shell fish. Nair and Gopakumar (1978) reported on fatty acid composition of fifteen species from Indian waters while Osman *et al.*(2007) reported on lipid content and fatty acid composition of thirteen marine fish species of Malaysia including the Indian mackerel. Yamada and Hayashi (1975) reported the FA composition of 22 species of finfish and molluscs from the Japanese seas. Turan *et al.* (2007) reported on the fatty acid profile of the thornback ray *Raja clavata*. Saito *et al.* (1997) reported on the differences in the FA composition of bonito tuna in tropical and temperate localities. Hazra *et al.* (1998) reported seasonal variation in lipid and FA composition of 3 species of puffer-fishes from Indian waters while Saito *et al.* (1999) investigated influence of diet on FA composition of certain caesionid and siganid fishes. Wiegand (1996) reports that in fishes there is selection pressure to maintain levels of DHA in eggs within a species-specific range. The physiological selective accumulation of DHA in muscle tissues of active fishes such as mackerel and tunas (Saito *et al.*, 1995; Osako *et al.*, 2006) and low DHA content (<20% of total lipids) in several non-migratory fishes such as *Solea solea* (Goekce *et al.*, 2004) and *Pagrus major*, *Lateolabrax japonicus*, *Seriola dumerili*, *Paralichthys olivaceous* and *Caranx delicatissimus* (Aoki *et al.*, 1991) are reported. High levels of AA (7.4 – 14.9%) in muscle lipids of

several species of marine fishes of Australia (Dunstan *et al.*, 1988) has also been reported.

**4.2.3. Lipids and maturation dynamics:** Lipid mobilization is reported to be very active in fish during the period of gonad growth and maturation (Nikolskii, 1969; Mourente *et al.*, 2002). While the mobilization increases the gonad weight in females and deposition of fat in certain parts of the body, in males, it is more associated with behavioural aspects of reproduction including development of secondary sexual characters and enhanced swimming activity (Henderson *et al.*, 1984; Ballantyne *et al.*, 1996). Marshall *et al.* (1999) investigated usage of lipid energy as a proxy for total egg production by fish stocks. Jong *et al.* (1997) studied lipid accumulation and fatty acid composition during the maturation process of three pelagic fishes belonging to family Comphoridae in Lake Baikal. Gallagher *et al.* (1989) reported that in the striped bass *Morone saxatilis* fatty acid composition varied significantly in relation to size. Gopakumar (1969) observed that there was a rapid increase in the lipid content in muscle of oil sardine *Sardinella longiceps* during the months preceding maturation of the ovaries and a sharp decline after spawning. Chidambaram *et al.* (1952) reported that mackerel along the Calicut coast are fatty during March - May and while the fat in muscle tissue of immature mackerel was always below 3%, in mature ones it is as high as 8.5% with fish becoming lean after spawning.

Changes in lipid content and its fatty acid composition during the sexual maturation and spawning process in capelin, *Mallotus villosus* (Henderson *et al.*, 1984) and northern bluefin tuna *Thunnus thynnus* (Mourente *et al.*, 2002) were

reported. Environmental temperature is another important factor determining fatty acid composition in fishes (Farkas *et al.*, 2001) and the combined effect of environmental temperature and diet on formation and deposition of fatty acids in carps has been reported by Farkas *et al.* (1980). Lasker and Theilacker (1962) described the FA composition of lipids of tissues of Pacific sardine in relation to ovarian maturation and diet. Rosa *et al.* (2004, 2005) studied changes in the lipid profile of the cephalopods such as *Illex coindetii* and *Todaropsis eblanae* (ommatrephid squids) as well as *Octopus vulgaris* and *O. delfilippi* (octopus) in relation to sexual maturation. Ballantyne *et al.* (1996) who investigated sex-specific changes in plasma non-esterified FA of sock eye salmon (*Oncorhynchus nerka*) during their spawning migration found sex related differences in the proportion of four fatty acids namely 16:0, 18:1, 20:5 n 3 and 22:6n3 while n:6 series of FA were significantly higher in males than females. Henderson *et al.* (1984) demonstrated increased utilization of MUFA in the muscles of the male capelin *Mallotus villosus* associated with enhanced physical activity and migration for spawning as compared to females. Cejas *et al.* (2003) reported lipid and FA composition of ovaries from wild fish and eggs from captive fish of white sea bream *Diplodus sargus*. According to Tocher (2003) eicosanoid production which is critical in influencing reproductive activities in fishes is influenced by the cellular ratio of arachidonic acid (AA, C20:4n6) and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA, C20:5n3). The ratio of the fatty acids DHA: EPA: AA is found to be critical in determining egg quality of fishes (Bruce *et al.*, 1999; Bell and Sargent, 2003). Varljen *et al.* (2004) related seasonal variation in AA levels of *Diplodus vulgaris* to the process of active



vitellogenesis occurring during summer. Ballantyne *et al.* (1996) found increased levels of AA which was higher among males in the plasma of salmon mobilized from muscle reserves for spawning migration. Kozlova and Khotimchenko (1993) noted that DHA content in liver tissue of several species of fishes of Lake Baikal decreased during spawning presumably being mobilized for egg production.

**4.2.4. Fatty acids in relation to feeding dynamics:** In spite of diet and environment induced variations in fatty acid profiles among individual fishes, the fatty acid signatures of each species is unique and this has been effectively used to understand their foraging ecology and marine food web dynamics (Kirsch *et al.*, 1998; Iverson *et al.*, 1997, 2002; Turner and Rooker, 2005; Recks and Seaborn, 2008). It is reported that microscopic algae produce a number of fatty acids that animals are incapable of synthesizing and these are usually conserved when passed through the food web (Ackman, 1980; Cripps *et al.*, 1999). Gatten *et al.* (1983) observed that during larval development in herrings the saturated fatty acid (SFA) component remained constant whereas the polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) and monosaturated fatty acids (MUFA) components changed, progressively favoring the latter group which was in tune with a shift in their feeding preferences for calanoid copepods from algae. Predominance of 16:1n7 FA in diatoms (Ackman *et al.*, 1968) and bacteria (Wilkinson, 1988) has been reported. According to Anderson and Pond (2000) diatoms contain relatively higher levels of EPA (20:5n3) compared to DHA (22:6n3) while the converse is true in dinoflagellates which are richer in DHA. Ackman *et al.* (1981) observed that wax esters from a diet of copepods are potentially the major sources of docosenoic

acids in fish. While most marine fishes acquire DHA, EPA and other HUFA which are critical to their growth and survival through the marine food chain, some are also reported to be capable of acquiring it through symbiotic bacteria that live in their intestine (Yano *et al.*, 1994; Yazawa, 1996) and such inter-specific differences in DHA acquisition routes have been hypothesized to contribute to population changes among pelagic fish species (Masuda, 2003). FA profiles of apex predators such as sharks, sea-birds and seals have been used to match it with the most likely combinations of prey FA signatures (Iverson *et al.*, 1997; Raclot *et al.*, 1998). Mayzaud *et al.* (1999) recommended caution while considering use of fatty acid markers in omnivorous species where there is simultaneous ingestion of phytoplankton and zooplankton. Phillips *et al.* (2003) used a combination of stomach contents data and fatty acid composition of various tissues of Southern Ocean squid *Moroteuthis ingens* to study the ecological variations in its diet. Kharlamenko *et al.* (1995) used fatty acid ratios such as sum of branched FA, concentration of 18:1n7, 20:5n3 and 22:6n3 FAs and the sum of C18 and C20 PUFAs to understand food web dynamics. Interspecies differences in fatty acid composition of myctophids have been related to dietary differences (Saito and Murata, 1998; Lea *et al.*, 2002). Bishop *et al.* (1976) related lipid composition of slender tuna as related to their food. Recks and Seaborn (2008) reported exclusive levels of short chain saturated fatty acids such as C14:0 and C15:0 related to its omnivorous diet including microalgae, macrophytic detritus and inorganic sediments rich in absorbed microorganisms. However few studies on the

above aspects are available for the multitude of commercially important fishes from the Indian waters.

**4.2.5. Lipids and fatty acid composition of Indian mackerel:** The Indian mackerel *Rastrelliger kanagurta* is an important food fish in India and an important forage item for top predators such as tunas in the marine food web. Based on the lipid composition mackerel can be classified as a medium fatty fish whose mean fat content is about 3.29% and varies between 0.97 – 6.3% ( Venkataraman and Chari, 1951; Gopakumar and Nair, 1971; Mathew *et al.*, 1999; Osman *et al.*, 2001, 2007). Venkataraman and Chari (1951) noted fat variations in mackerel had a strong relationship with feed availability (plankton) and more variations in fat content among the individuals belonging to larger size groups. Chidambaram *et al.* (1952) studied fat variation in Indian mackerel in relation to biological parameters such as size, seasons, food/feeding and spawning. Seasonal variation in fat content the Indian mackerel reportedly occurs with highest levels during October to November and March to May period along the Calicut coast coinciding with its spawning peak (Devanesan and John, 1940; Chidambaram *et al.*,1952; Venkataraman and Chari, 1953). However no information is available on the variations in the fatty acids constituting the lipids in relation to biological processes.

The biochemical composition of Indian mackerel with regard to food processing technologies has been reported earlier (Gopakumar and Nair, 1971; Nair *et al.*, 1976; Nair and Gopakumar, 1978, 1984; Mukundan *et al.*, 1981). The compilation of biochemical composition of major Indian food fish and shellfish from marine, brackish water and fresh water (Gopakumar, 1993) refers to, among

various fishes, the total lipid content of mackerel but does not mention its fatty acid composition. Osman *et al.* (2001, 2007) reported lipid and fatty acid composition of Indian mackerel *R. kanagurta* found in Malaysian waters.

### **4.3. Materials and Methods**

**4.3.1. Fish sampling:** Fresh mackerel caught in ring seines and trawls operated off Cochin and landed at Cochin Fisheries Harbour in the months of January and May 2007, representing the post-monsoon and pre-monsoon seasons respectively were used in the study. The freshly caught specimens were transported using ice to the laboratory where the following parameters were recorded for the individual fishes: total length (mm), weight (g), sex and gonad weight (g). A random selection of mackerel of both sex classified into immature and mature stages based on the appearance of the gonads as given below was used,

Immature: Gonads not fully developed, small in size being less than half of the body cavity. Ovary pinkish and tubular, most advanced oocyte diameter < .15 mm; Testes small whitish and leaf-like.

Mature: Gonads well developed. In females, ovaries are bright yellow to orange-red colour, blood vessels well developed and opaque/transparent ova with ova diameter range >0.5mm; in males testes whitish and occupying more than half body cavity.

**4.3.2. Muscle tissue sample preparation:** Fishes were grouped according to sex and maturity stage for the study and muscle tissue (with skin) weighing about 30 g from each fish cut from just below the first dorsal fin was used for the extraction of lipids and preparation of methyl esters (Table 4.1).

Table.4.1. Biological details of mackerel selected for fatty acid profiling

Sampled month	Mean TL (mm) /weight (g)	Male Immature	Female Immature	Male Mature	Female Mature
January	TL	178 ± 12	184 ± 11	197 ± 5	205 ± 12
	Weight (g)	63 ± 5	79 ± 14	105 ± 9	155 ± 16
May	TL	179 ± 22	171 ± 27	220 ± 15	242 ± 25
	Weight (g)	72 ± 6	76 ± 8	167 ± 8	190 ± 14

**4.3.3. Lipid extraction and preparation of methyl esters:** Samples of muscle tissue (including skin) cut from below I dorsal fin base were minced and homogenized using chloroform and methanol (2:1, v/v) following Folch *et al.* (1957) were prepared in triplicate. Fatty acid methyl esters (FAMES) were obtained from the lipid extract by using BF<sub>3</sub>-methanol (Metcalf *et al.*, 1966).

**4.3.4. Gas chromatography:** FAMES were separated by gas-liquid chromatography (Varian CP 3800 U.S.A) equipped with a capillary column (Elite 225, 30 m long and 0.25 mm diameter) and a Flame Ionization Detector (FID) in the presence of hydrogen and air. The carrier gas was nitrogen and the flow rate was 0.5 ml per minute. The chromatograph temperature started at 150<sup>0</sup>C and was increased 4<sup>0</sup>C min<sup>-1</sup> until a temperature of 250<sup>0</sup>C was attained. Fatty acids separated were identified by the comparison of retention times with those obtained by a separation of a mixture of standard fatty acids. Measurement of peak areas and data processing was done using Star WS software package and the individual

fatty acids were expressed as weight percent of the total fatty acids. Initially one way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was performed on the FA composition in relation to sex, season and also the maturity stages within the sexes. To ascertain the impact of these three factors simultaneously along with their interactions in the cases selected based on the above ANOVA, comparison was made using GLM univariate analysis in the statistical package SPSS version 13.0.

#### **4.4. Results**

**4.4.1. Lipid components and their variations:** The polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) formed the largest component followed by saturated fatty acids (SFA) and monounsaturated fatty acids (MUFA) with a mean of 46.9%, 41.8% and 11% respectively of the total fatty acids in samples pooled irrespective of sex, maturity stage or season (Table. 4.2). None of these three components showed any significant temporal variations ( $P > 0.05$ ). However significant variations ( $P < 0.05$ ) were observed with regard to sex where female mackerel had higher levels of SFA compared to males while PUFA levels were higher in males. Among sexes, MUFA level were higher in females but not statistically significant ( $P > 0.05$ ). (Table.4.3, Fig.4.1). Within females, significant variation ( $P < 0.05$ ) in MUFA content in relation to maturity stages occurred with only 9.1% in immature female compared to 14.1% in mature stages while in males it ranged between 10.2 - 10.7% (Table. 4.4).

Although there were no temporal differences in the total SFA, MUFA and PUFA content of Indian mackerel, certain individual fatty acids within these groups showed variations either in relation to season, sex or maturity stages indicating the dynamics of fatty acid metabolism.

**4.4.1.1. Saturated fatty acids (SFA):** The average total SFA component of Indian mackerel in the present study was 41.8 % and the dominant fatty acids were Palmitic acid (C16:0, 24.88 %) followed by Stearic acid (C18:0, 9.81 %) and Myristic acid (C14:0, 3.45%) while minor fatty acids included C15:0 and C17:0. The C14:0 and C 16:0 acids were present in significantly ( $P < .05$ ) higher amounts in females as compared to males (Table 4.5; Fig. 4.3 a & b) but did not show any significant differences among the seasons (Table 4.6). However C 15:0 (Pentadecanoic acid) and C17:0 (Heptadecanoic acid) showed significant seasonal differences (Table 4.6; Fig. 4.4 a & b). The SFAs C16:0 and C18:0 did not differ significantly ( $P > 0.05$ ) among the maturity stages (Table 4.7).

**4.4.1.2. Monounsaturated fatty acids (MUFA):** The average total MUFA component of Indian mackerel in the present study was 11.03%. The major MUFAs were oleic acid (C18:1, 6.9%) and Palmitoleic acid (C16:1, 2.9%) while minor components included Eicosenoic (C20:1) and Docosenoic (C22:1) fatty acids.

C 18:1 fatty acid content ranging between 2.03 and 12.34% with a mean of 6.99% was observed (Table 4.2). This FA did not show any significant difference ( $P > .05$ ) among sexes (Table 4.5) but occurred in significantly higher levels ( $P < .05$ ) among mature specimens in both sexes (Table 4.7; Fig. 4.2).

The mean content of C16:1 was 2.95% with significantly higher levels of C16:1 during January (post-monsoon) compared to May (pre-monsoon) period (Table 4.6). Significantly higher levels of C16:1 were observed in females as well as among mature stages of both sexes compared to immature stages (Table 4.7).

The 20:1 and 22:1 FA occurred only in little amounts and did not show any significant seasonal or sex related variations.

**4.4.1.3. Polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA):** Among PUFAs, Docosahexaenoic acid (C22:6n3, DHA- 29.57%), Eicosapentaenoic (C20:5n3, EPA- 6.19%) and Arachidonic acid (C20:4n6, AA- 4.51%) were the major constituents besides Linoleic acid (C18:2n6, 1.92 %) (Table 4.2).

Among PUFAs, DHA which was the single largest component showed significant variations among sex ( $P < .05$ ) (Table 4.5, Fig. 4.3 c) but no significant ( $P > .05$ ) seasonal differences (Table 4.6). EPA was significantly ( $P < .05$ ) lower in females (Table 4.5; Fig. 4.3 d). Among maturity stages, mean levels of both DHA and AA were lower in mature stages compared to immature stages of males and females (Table 4.7).

EPA and AA showed significant ( $P < .05$ ) seasonal variations. While EPA content was higher during January (post-monsoon) compared to May (pre-monsoon), AA levels showed a reverse trend with higher levels during May and lower in January were observed (Table 4.6; Fig. 4.4 d & e). Linoleic acid did not show any significant differences among seasons, sex or maturity stages.



Table.4.2. Mean fatty acid content (%) with standard error (SE) of Indian mackerel of varying maturity stages and all seasons combined.

Fatty acid	mean (%)	Range	
		Minimum	Maximum
C14	3.45 (0.19)	1.84	5.11
C15	1.15 (0.19)	0.64	2.03
C16	24.88 (0.59)	19.9	31.01
C17	1.52 (.08)	0.98	2.43
C18	9.81(0.27)	7.37	12.54
<b>TOTAL SFA</b>	<b>41.8 (0.66)</b>	<b>40.42</b>	<b>43.23</b>
C16:1	2.95 (0.16)	1.72	4.6
C18:1	6.99 (0.54)	2.03	12.34
C20:1	0.39 (0.02)	0.2	0.61
C22:1	0.13 (0.08)	0.07	0.23
<b>TOTAL MUFA</b>	<b>11.03 (0.18)</b>	<b>10.64</b>	<b>11.42</b>
C18:2n6	1.92 (0.018)	1.36	2.46
C20:4n6	4.51 (0.28)	2.05	7.45
C20:5n3	6.19 (0.23)	4.42	8.54
C22:6n3	29.57 (0.80)	22.17	37.64
<b>TOTAL PUFA</b>	<b>46.9 (0.77)</b>	<b>45.32</b>	<b>48.59</b>

Table 4.3. Variations in SFA, MUFA and PUFA levels in relation to seasons and sex

Fatty Acid Group	Post-monsoon (January)			Pre-monsoon (May)			Mean	
	Male	Female	Mean	Male	Female	Mean	Male	Female
SFA	39.9	43.1	41.5	39.5	45.1	42.1	39.7*	44.1*
MUFA	9.3	12.3	10.8	11.7	10.9	11.3	10.5	11.6
PUFA	50.3	44.2	47.4	49.1	43.9	46.5	49.7*	44.1*

(\* significant)

Table 4.4. Variations in SFA, MUFA and PUFA levels in relation to maturity stages and sex in *R.kanagurta*

Fatty Acid Group	Male		Female		Mean	
	Immature	Mature	Immature	Mature	Immature	Mature
SFA	40.0	39.1	43.5	44.7	41.8	41.9
MUFA	10.2	10.7	9.1 *	14.1 *	9.7	12.4
PUFA	49.6	50.0	47.2	40.1	48.4	45.5

(\* significant)

Table 4.5. Variations in mean content of major fatty acids (% of total fatty acids) of Indian mackerel *R.kanagurta* according to sex.

Fatty acid	Male	Female	Significance F
<b>SFA</b>			
C14:0	2.88	4.02	* F=18.35
C15:0	1.02	1.28	* F=27.38
C16:0	23.20	26.55	* F= 12.52
C18:0	10.07	9.54	NS
<b>MUFA</b>			
C16:1	2.51	3.39	* F=31.30
C18:1n9	6.86	7.12	NS
C20:1	0.41	0.38	NS
C22:1	0.14	0.12	NS
<b>PUFA</b>			
C18:2n6	1.86	1.98	NS
C20:4n6	5.02	4.0	NS
C20:5n3	6.42	5.97	* F= 4.90
C22:6n3	31.68	27.47	* F= 17.3

\* significant difference

Table 4.6. Variations in mean content of major fatty acids (% of total fatty acids) of Indian mackerel according to season

<b>Fatty acids</b>	<b>January (Post-monsoon)</b>	<b>May (Pre-monsoon)</b>	<b>Significance (*)</b>
<b>SFA</b>			
C14:0	3.47	3.43	NS
C15:0	0.8	1.49	* F= 34.69
C16:0	24.6	25.1	NS
C17:0	0.98	2.43	* F= 20.78
C18:0	10.07	9.54	* F= 8.29
<b>MUFA</b>			
C16:1	3.3	2.59	* F= 20.36
C18:1n9	6.4	7.58	NS
C20:1	0.2	0.2	NS
C22:1	0.14	0.13	NS
<b>PUFA</b>			
C18:2n6	1.87	1.98	NS
C20:4n6	3.48	5.54	*F= 29.34
C20:5n3	6.9	5.4	*F= 57.7
C22:6n3	30.4	28.68	NS

\*- significant difference ; NS= no significant difference

Table 4.7. Mean levels and Standard deviation of select fatty acids among the maturity stages of male and female mackerel (Significant differences if any, indicated by different superscript)

Fatty acid	Male		Female	
	<i>Immature</i>	<i>Mature</i>	<i>Immature</i>	<i>Mature</i>
C16	23.57 ± 2.34	22.84 ± 2.03	25.37 ± 2.59	27.73 ± 2.26
C18	10.24 ± 1.67	9.90 ± 0.72	10.56 ± 1.07	8.52 ± 0.82
C16:1	2.34 ± 0.51	2.67 ± 0.97	3.15 ± 0.51	3.62 ± 0.75
C18:1	6.70 ± 2.00 <sup>a</sup>	7.03 ± 1.39 <sup>b</sup>	4.56 ± 2.60 <sup>a</sup>	9.68 ± 2.03 <sup>b</sup>
C20:1	0.39 ± .03	0.43 ± 0.10	0.45 ± 0.13	0.38 ± 0.14
C22:1	0.113 ± 0.14	0.174 ± 0.05	0.10 ± 0.02	0.13 ± 0.02
C18:2n6	1.86 ± 0.14	1.86 ± 0.13	1.88 ± 0.46	2.09 ± 0.15
C20:4n6	5.148 ± 1.96 <sup>a</sup>	4.90 ± 0.74 <sup>b</sup>	4.66 ± 0.80 <sup>a</sup>	3.34 ± 1.23 <sup>b</sup>
C20:5n3	5.87 ± 1.036 <sup>a</sup>	6.97 ± 1.14 <sup>b</sup>	5.26 ± 0.61 <sup>a</sup>	6.68 ± 1.02 <sup>b</sup>
C22:6n3	31.97 ± 3.90 <sup>a</sup>	31.39 ± 2.27 <sup>b</sup>	30.41 ± 2.27 <sup>c</sup>	24.52 ± 1.81 <sup>d</sup>

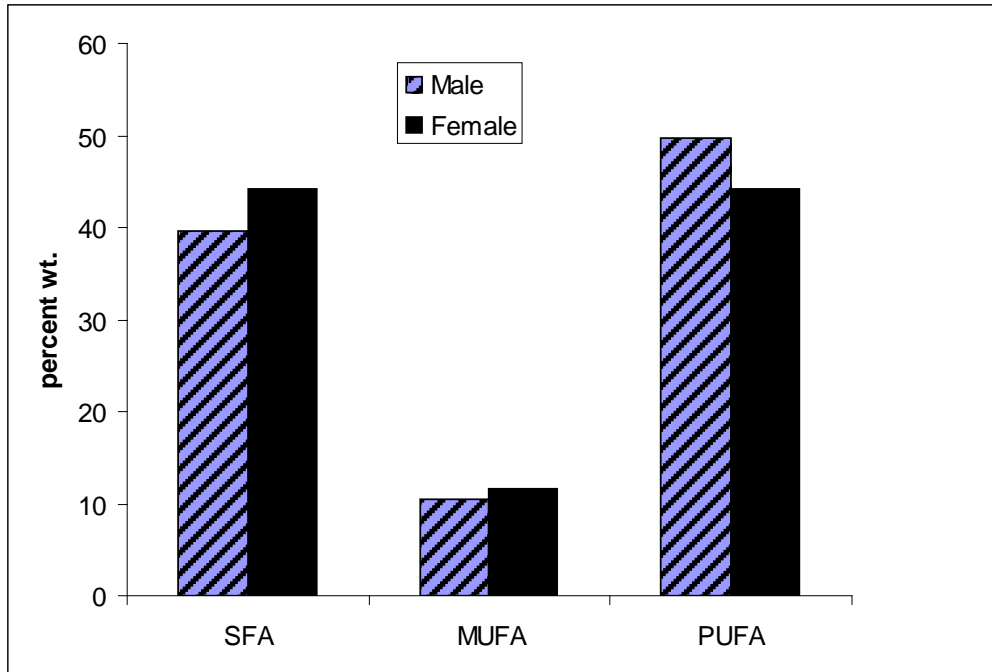


Fig.4.1. Mean Percentage composition of MUFA ( $P>.05$ ), PUFA ( $P<.05$ ) and SFA ( $P<.05$ ) among male and female mackerel

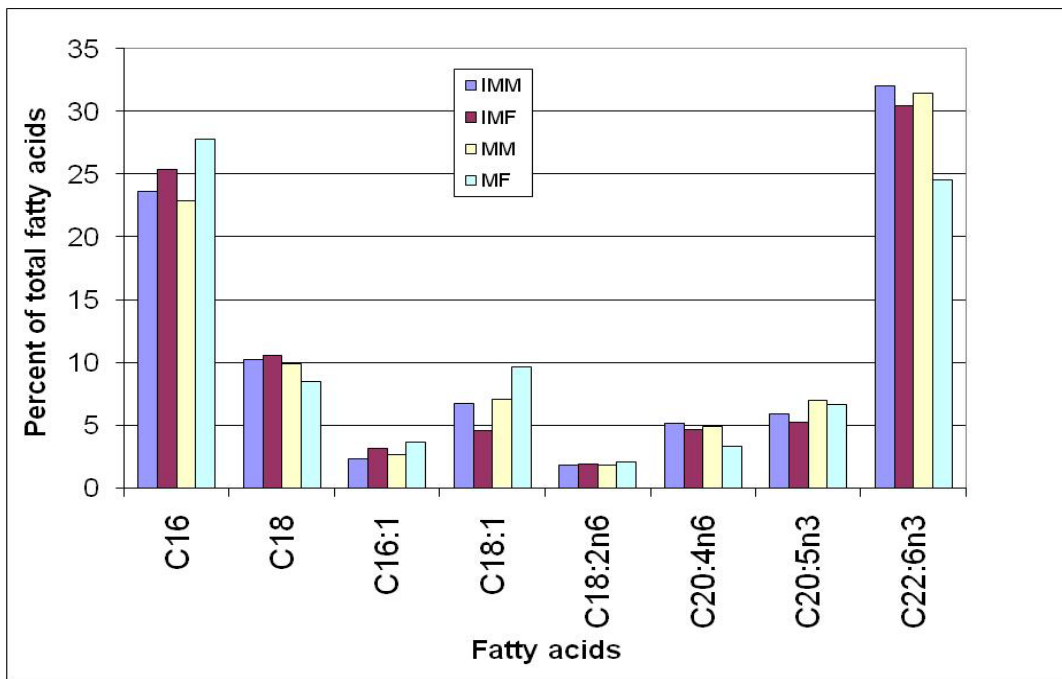


Fig. 4. 2. Relative composition of major SFAs, MUFAs and PUFAs in Indian mackerel (IMM- immature males, IMF- immature females, MM-mature males, MF- mature females)

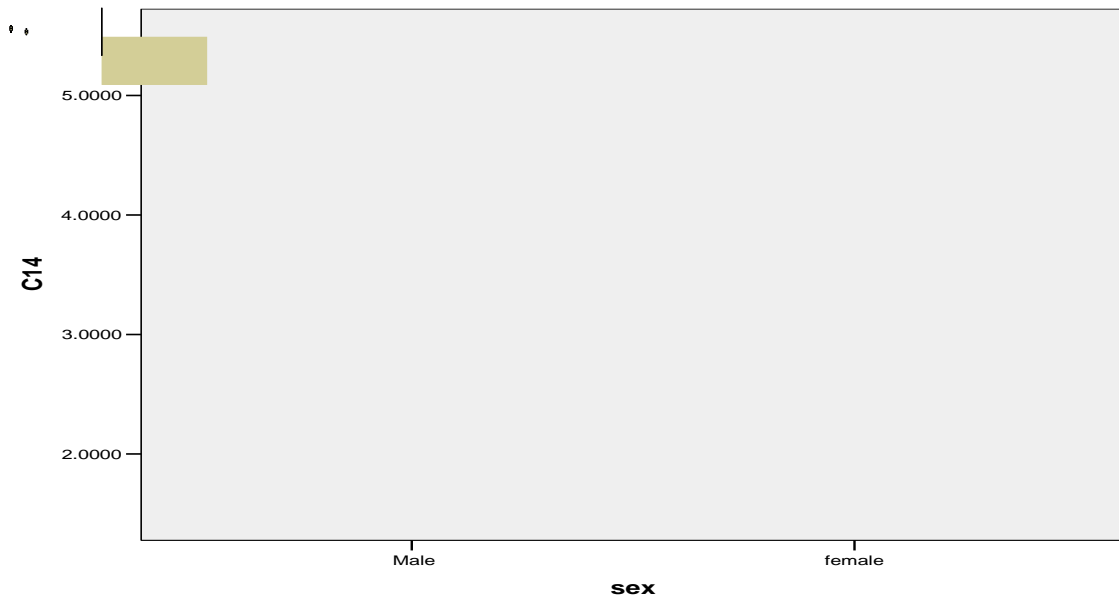


Fig. 4.3a. Boxplots showing median value and standard error of Myristic (C14:0) acid exhibiting significant variations among sexes

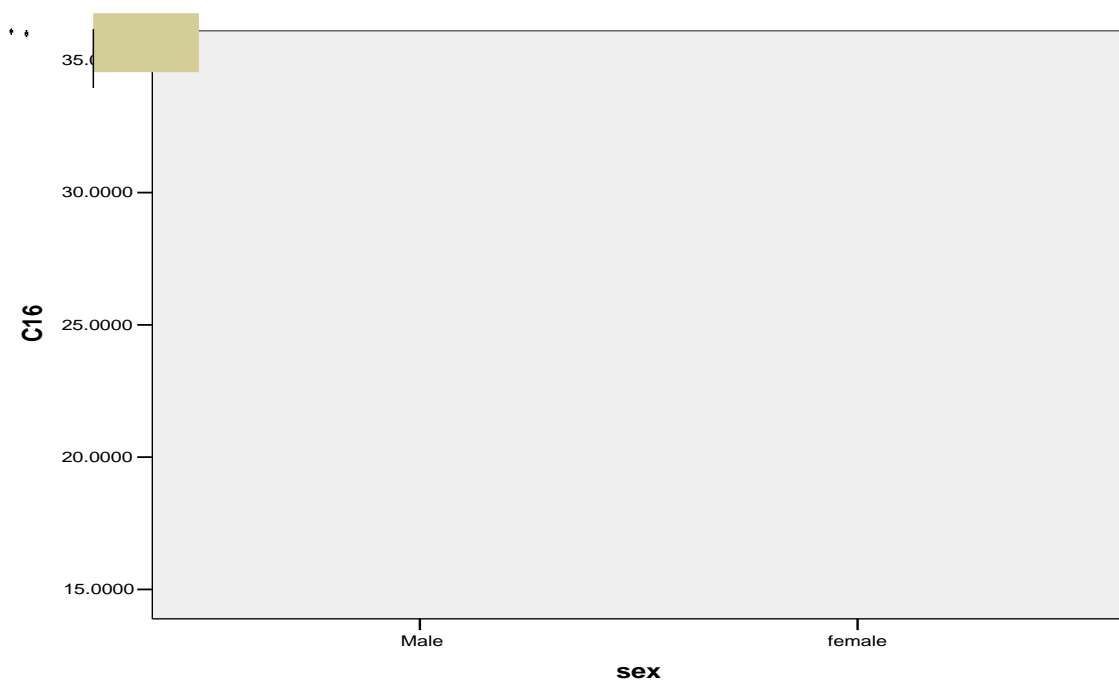


Fig. 4.3 b. Boxplot showing median value and standard error of Palmitic (C16 :0) acid exhibiting significant variations among sexes

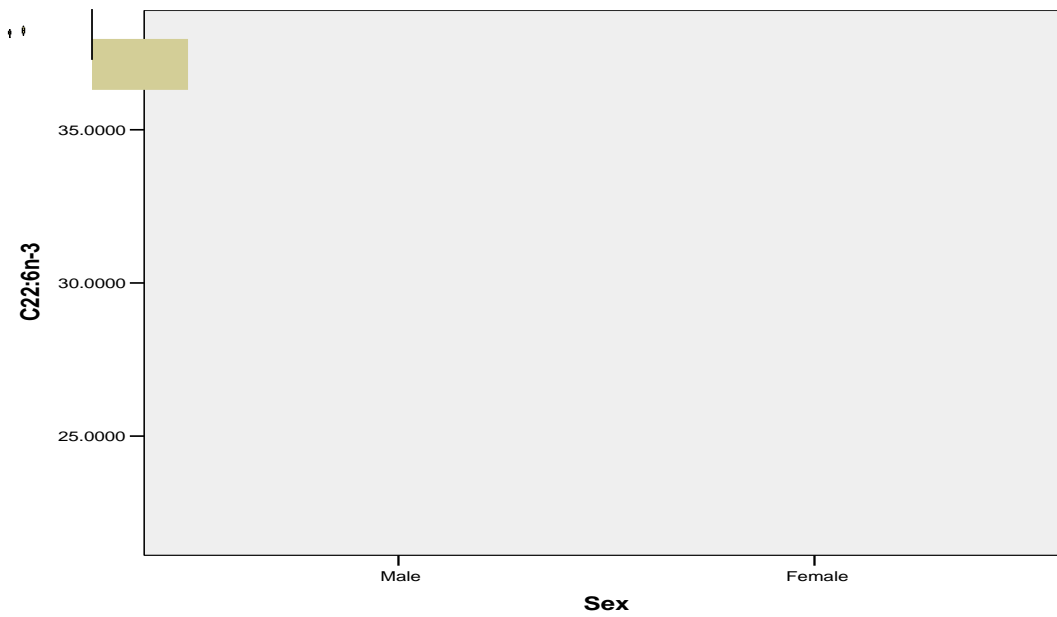


Fig. 4.3 c. Boxplot showing median value and standard error of docosahexaenoic (C 22: 6 n 3) acid exhibiting significant variations among sexes

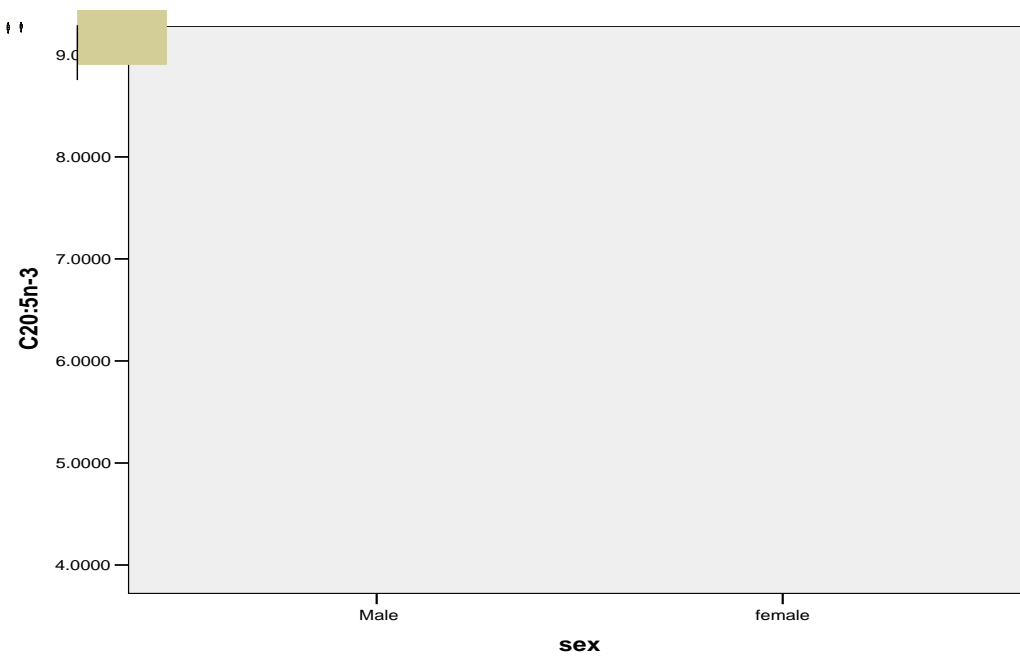


Fig. 4.3 d. Boxplots showing median value and standard error of eicosapentaenoic (C20:5n3) acid exhibiting significant variations among sexes





Fig. 4. 4a. Boxplot showing median value and standard error of pentadecanoic (C15:0) acid exhibiting significant variations among seasons

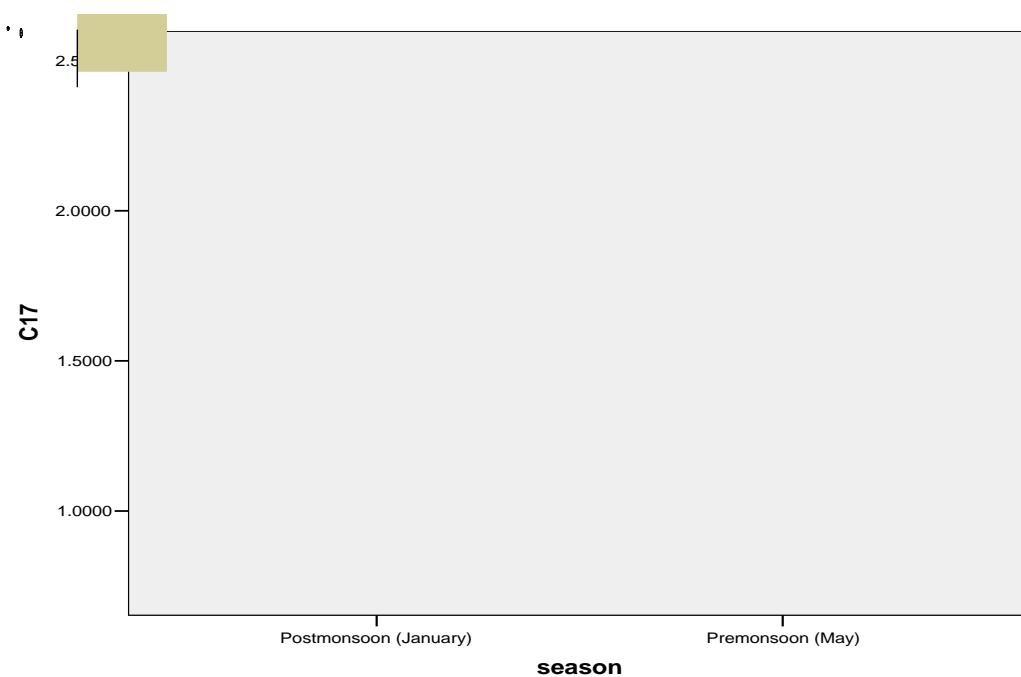


Fig. 4.4 b. Boxplot showing median value and standard error of heptadecanoic (C17:0) acid exhibiting significant variations among seasons

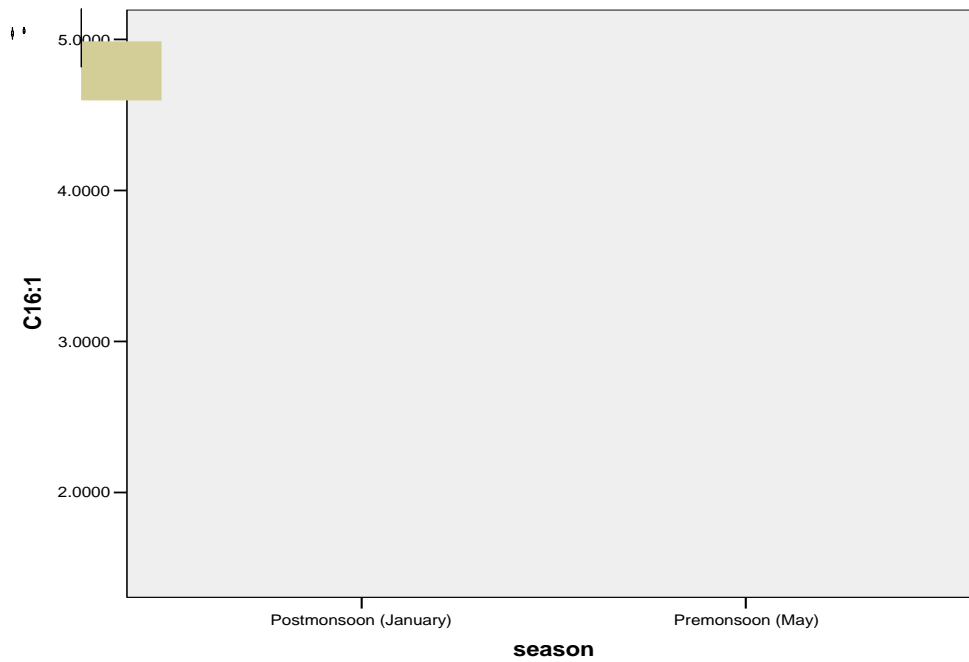


Fig. 4.4 c. Boxplot showing median value and standard error of palmitoleic (C:16n1) acid exhibiting significant seasonal variations

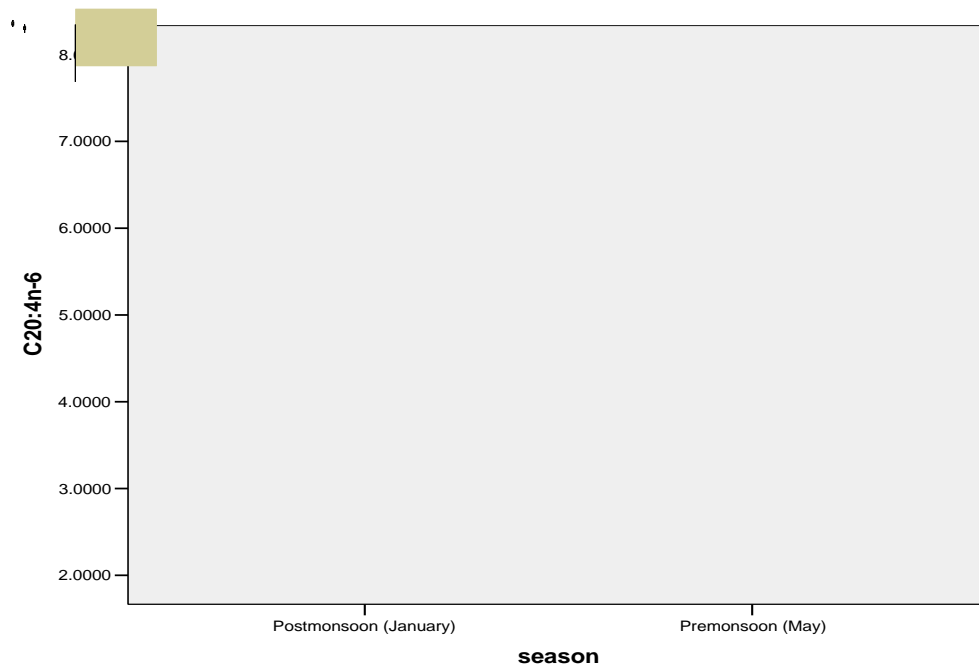


Fig. 4.4 d. Boxplot showing median value and standard error of Arachidonic acid (C20:4n6) exhibiting significant seasonal variations

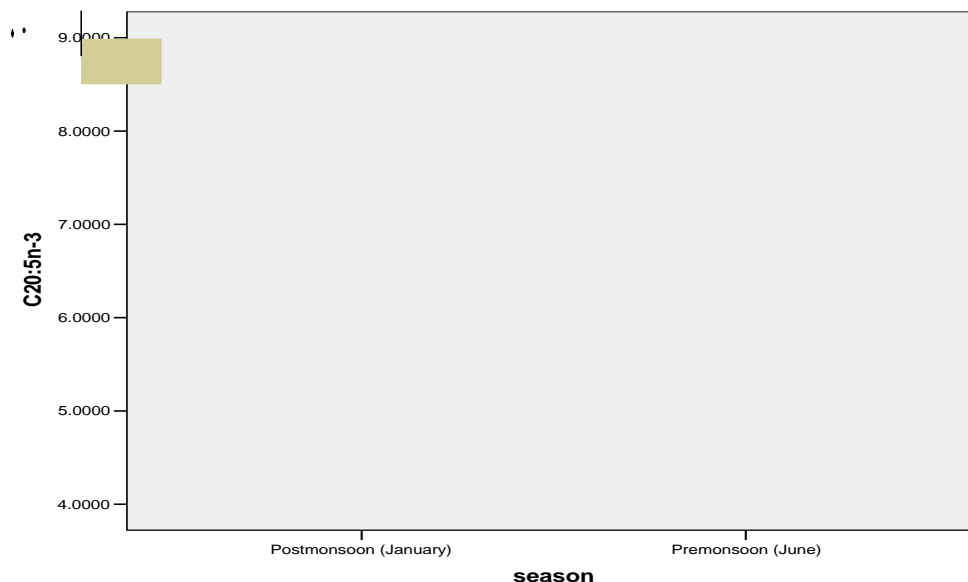


Fig. 4.4 e. Boxplots showing median value and standard error of Eicosapentaenoic (C20:5n3) acid exhibiting significant seasonal variations

## 4.5 Discussion

**4.5.1. Lipid components and their variations:** No significant changes in the SFA, MUFA and PUFA contents during January and May months representing the post-monsoon and pre-monsoon seasons respectively were observed in the present study. It has been reported that environment, especially temperature plays a significant role in determining PUFA levels in fish with increasing levels at lower temperatures while MUFAs and SFAs show little variations (Knipparath and Mead, 1966; Bell *et al.*, 1986; Saito *et al.*, 1997; Farkas *et al.*, 2001). The absence of marked seasonal fluctuations in temperature regimes in a tropical marine ecosystem such as Arabian Sea (Longhurst and Pauly, 1987) from which the fish were caught probably precluded seasonal effects on fatty acid composition.

**4.5.2. Polyunsaturated Fatty Acids (PUFAs):** The PUFA content of Indian mackerel in the present study was high with an average 46.9% although lower than 51.29 % reported for the same species in Malaysian seas (Osman *et al.*, 2007). Similar observations of high PUFA levels have been recorded for several marine wild fish from tropical waters (Saito *et al.*, 1999; Bayir *et al.*, 2006; Osman *et al.*, 2007). Gopakumar (1993) reported higher levels of PUFA in scombroid fishes such as tunas and seerfishes compared with many other common marine food fishes of India. Although the FA of Indian mackerel was not available in this compilation the present study confirms this trend in the Indian mackerel, which also belongs to the family scombridae. Thus, as evident in this study it may be reasonably concluded that although tropical and sub-tropical species are reported to contain lower levels of PUFAs than temperate and sub-arctic species (Ackman, 1989), tropical fishes such as mackerel are also a rich source of PUFAs.

Observations in the present study of high PUFA levels may be indicative of lipid mobilization in Indian mackerel as it is reported that in fishes monoenes and saturated fatty acids are mobilized as energy sources in preference to PUFAs which as a result accumulate in muscle reserves (Kaneko *et al.*, 1966; Jeziereka *et al.*, 1982; Sidell *et al.*, 1995; Tocher, 2003).

**4.5.2.a. Docosahexaenoic acid:** DHA was the largest component (22.17 – 37.64%) of the total fatty acid composition of Indian mackerel irrespective of the seasons or maturity stages. Observations in the present study agrees with Bayir *et al.* (2006) who reported DHA levels of 10.57 to 34.92% in several marine fish

species in Turkish waters. The results of this study indicates that the Indian mackerel is a rich source of PUFAs, especially DHA.

It is widely believed that fishes are unable to synthesize DHA because of lack of the enzyme 4, 5, desaturase and DHA originates from lipids of prey organisms such as phytoplankton especially dinoflagellates (Kanazawa *et al.*, 1979; Sargent *et al.*, 1999; Anderson and Pond, 2000). In highly active fishes such as tunas which belong to the family scombridae it has also been attributed to selective catabolism of EPA relative to DHA that results in very high levels of the latter (Watanabe *et al.*, 1995; Tocher, 2003). Osaka *et al.* (2006) observed that of all the three *Scomber* species, namely *S. australasicus*, *S. japonicus* and *S. commerson* having similar body sizes, feeding habitat and position in the marine grazing food chain, only the spotted mackerel *S. australasicus* contained comparatively very high (28% of total FA) levels of DHA. They attributed this to the higher energy usage and selective consumption of SFA and MUFA for the offshore migration of this species compared to migrations in coastal water for the other two species. The results of this study indicating DHA as the largest component of the total fatty acids are supported by these observations as mackerel is also known for its migration to deeper waters and is often caught in offshore waters by trawlers (Yohannan and Nair, 2002) as well as feeds on phytoplankton assemblages dominated by dinoflagellates and diatoms (Chapter 3).

High levels of DHA in muscle tissue of females which were lower in mature stages as compared to immature stages noted in the present study. Among PUFAs, DHA is reported to be indispensable for larval growth and survival of

marine fishes (Sargent *et al.*, 1999) and selective utilization of fatty acids such as DHA has been reported during the process of yolk deposition in eggs in female gonads (Henderson *et al.*, 1984; Wiegand and Idler, 1985; Wiegand 1982; 1996; Kozlova and Khotimchenko, 1993). Thus the results of the present study suggest the mobilization of this important fatty acid from the muscle tissue to the embryos that will be subsequently hatched. It is also in agreement with the observation by Mourente *et al.* (2002) has reported accumulation of DHA in almost all tissues from the very early stages of sexual maturation in tunas and 42.3 fold increase of DHA levels in the ovaries from stage I (immature) to stage IV (mature spawners) of bluefin tuna which was mobilized from the muscle reserves via liver and serum.

**4.5.2.b. Eicosapentaenoic acid:** EPA constituted 4.42 – 8.54 % of the total FA and was the second largest component among PUFAs. Diatoms which form a significant diet item maybe the source of EPA in mackerel as reported by Brockerhoff *et al.* (1964) especially because seasonal variations were observed that appeared to be related to seasonal diet variations (Chapter 3). The ranking of seasonal food composition based on the  $I_p$  (Table 3.3) had indicated diatoms ranked 4<sup>th</sup> during the post-monsoon season and 6<sup>th</sup> during the pre-monsoon season. Seasonwise comparison of the fatty acid indicated higher levels during the post-monsoon season *vis-s -vis* the pre-monsoon season. Among sexes also, significantly higher levels were observed in males while the volumetric diet data also indicated higher levels of diatom in the food composition in males (14.3%) compared to females (6.1%) as given in Table 3.6 (chapter 3).

**4.5.2.c. Arachidonic acid:** AA constituted 2.05 – 7.45 % of the total FA. In general, n6 series of PUFA such as AA are present in negligible amounts in marine fish lipids compared to n-3 PUFA such as EPA and DHA (Ackman, 1989) agreeing with the results of the present study.

AA occurred in significantly lower levels ( $P < 0.05$ ) in mature specimens of both sexes as compared to the immature stages. This fatty acid plays an important role in fish reproduction as precursors of prostaglandins (PG) (Stacey and Goetz, 1982) which have a critical role in ensuring high hatching and fertilization rates for broodstock eggs, promoting growth and survival and improving resistance to acute stress in marine fish larvae (Bell and Sargent, 2003; Johnson, 2009). The observation is supported by Varljen *et al.* (2004) who related seasonal variation in AA levels of *Diplodus vulgaris* to the process of active vitellogenesis and Ballantyne *et al.* (1996) who noted increased levels of AA in the plasma of migrating salmon mobilized from muscle reserves, which was higher among males. However, no differences among the sexes was observed in the present study. It is probable that AA which is considered the principle PG precursor involved in spawning activity of fishes including ovulation and sperm production (Nomura *et al.*, 1973; Bell *et al.*, 1986; Wade *et al.*, 1994) and reported to be specifically concentrated in fish eggs and sperms after being mobilized from the muscle tissues (Tocher and Sargent, 1984; Bell *et al.*, 1996) is found in lower levels in mature specimens of both sexes indicating its increased mobilization from the muscle tissue.

AA has been identified as a marker of macroalgae and seaweeds in the diets of fishes ( Nichols *et al.*, 1986; Osako *et al.*, 2006a; Saito *et al.*, 1999) . In the present study significant ( $P < .05$ ) seasonal differences in the levels of AA were observed while feeding preferences indicated algae is a significant contributor to the diet composition during the pre-monsoon period (chapter 3) and this may be the reason for the higher levels observed in samples collected in the month of May.

**4.5.2 d. DHA: EPA ratio:** The DHA: EPA ratios indicated higher levels of DHA compared to EPA which was contrary to that observed in sardines (*Sardinella* spp.) where EPA content was higher (Gopakumar, 1993; Njinkoue *et al.*, 2002). This difference in the EPA and DHA content of the two species *R. kanagurta* and *S. longiceps* which share the same pelagic habitats are presumably due to the differences in their diet dominated by zooplankton such as copepods and phytoplankton (mainly diatoms) respectively (Vivekanandan *et al.*, 2009; Sivadas and Bhaskaran, 2009). Diatoms are reported to preferentially synthesize EPA at high levels (Ackman *et al.*, 1968) and various studies have indicated that a fish diet dominated by diatoms is likely to show dominance of EPA over DHA (Ackman *et al.*, 1964; Hayashi and Takagi, 1977; Gooch *et al.*, 1987; Edirsinghe *et al.*, 1998; Sigurgisladottir and Palmadottir, 1993). The DHA: EPA ratio of the Indian mackerel in this study was 4.7. In scombroid fishes such as tunas, ratios of 3.4 to 5.8 for Pacific northern bluefin tuna (Ishihara and Saito, 1996) and 7.4 and 11.3 for the Atlantic northern bluefin (*Thunnus thynnus*) and yellowfin (*T. albacares*) was reported by Medina *et al.* (1995) which is similar to the Indian mackerel, another scombroid fish.



**4.5.3. SFAs:** SFA accounted for 41.8% of the total fatty acids and Palmitic acid (C16:0, 24.8%) and Stearic acid (C18:0, 9.8%) were the major components. The SFAs noted in the present study indicate that it probably originated from the copepod dominated diet of mackerel (chapter 3) which is supported by the observations of Ratnayake and Ackman (1979) that important saturated fatty alcohols of copepods such as C14:0, 16:0, 18:0 as well as minor components such as 15:0 and 17:0 are present in similar proportions in fishes feeding on them indicating the dietary source of these FA. The C18:0 FA showed significant seasonal differences among the two seasons (post- monsoon season and pre- monsoon) coinciding with higher contribution by copepods to the diet of mackerel during the post- monsoon season (% I<sub>p</sub>= 39.29) compared to pre-monsoon season (%I<sub>p</sub>= 16.89) (Chapter 3) which probably results in the differences. However, Palmitic acid which was another major FA component among SFAs did not show pronounced seasonal variations probably because copepods are the major dietary source of this FA and forms a food item in all the seasons, thereby agreeing with observation made by Gallagher *et al.* (1989), Bayir *et al.* (2006) and Recks and Seaborn (2008 ).

The presence of minor FA such as C15:0 and C17:0 which occurred significantly higher (P<.05) during the pre-monsoon season compared to post- monsoon period is probably related to seasonal variations in the detritus content of mackerel diet (chapter 3) as these FA have been used in marine food web studies to identify food sources such as bacterial biomass/detritus (Meziane and Tsuchiya, 2000; Wilson *et al.*, 2001). Madhupratap *et al.* (2001) and Smith and Madhupratap

(2005) have indicated that there is a large build-up of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) in the Arabian sea during the pre-monsoon season which leads to growth of bacterial population as well as microzooplankton which in turn are fed by copepods and these in turn by fishes which confirms and highlights the importance of diet in determining fatty acid composition of mackerel. C15:0 and C17:0 variations were recorded by in his study on fatty acid profiles of detritivorous reef fishes while Recks and Seaborn (2008) related short chain fatty acids such as C14:0 and C15:0 in mullet to its omnivorous feeding habit on microalgae, macrophyte detritus and inorganic sediment rich in absorbed micro-organisms. The results of this study thus indicate that there is significant effect of diet on mackerel FA composition.

**4.5.4. MUFAs:** The study agrees with other studies where comparatively high levels of monoenoic fats are reported in pelagic fishes such as capelin (*Mallotus villosus*), Henderson *et al.*, 1984; herring (*Clupea harengus*) Tocher *et al.*, 1985; Linko *et al.*, 1985; sprats (*Sprattus sprattus*) Hardy and Mackie, 1969; saury (*Cololabis saira*) Ota *et al.*, 1980).

The higher levels of MUFA in female mackerel is in agreement with the observations of Wiegand and Idler (1985) and Ballantyne *et al.* (1996) of progressively higher levels of monoenoic acids coinciding with the development of ovaries and increase in the gonado-somatic index of Atlantic salmon *Salmo salar* and sockeye salmon *Oncorhynchus nerka* respectively during their spawning migrations. Studies on the Arctic charr *Salvelinus alpinus* (L.) by Jorgensen *et al.*, (1997) also suggest gender – related differences in spawning investment which is predominantly the monoenoic lipid reserves. Among MUFAs only C16:1 showed

significant differences among sexes being significantly lower among female mackerel. The conclusions drawn by Henderson *et al.* (1984) that in certain fishes females catabolise more monoenoic fatty acids than males during sexual maturation support this observation in *R. kanagurta*.

Monoenoic fatty acids of Indian mackerel probably originate from the copepods which form the most important food item as studied by diet composition (chapter 3). In most marine species of fish, natural diets are a good source of fatty acids (Tocher, 2003) and it is reported that in fishes such as herring, menhaden and capelin a copepod diet rich in wax esters and triglycerides are assimilated efficiently and directly converted into the monoenoic fatty acids such as C16:1 and C18:1 and C20:1 and C 22:1 FA (Ratnayake and Ackman, 1979) resulting in their high levels in muscle tissues. However in the present study very low levels of 20:1 and 22:1 FA was recorded which was similar to observations of Kas'yanov *et al.* (2002) in the fish Anadyr capelin which also predominantly feeds on copepods.

The observation of omnivorous feeding behaviour and diet composition which indicates inclusion of algal matter, copepods, crustaceans and detritus in the present study (chapter 3) is consistent with fatty acids estimated in muscle tissue in the present study and their potential sources mentioned in the literature. The study by Kirsch *et al.* (1998) on cod fed prey items such as squid and mackerel that differed significantly in their fat content and fatty acid composition indicated that deposition of dietary fatty acids is integrated over a period of two to three weeks and probably holds true for all fishes including the Indian mackerel. The present study also indicated several individual fatty acids showing variations and were

probably influenced by feed consumed as well as physiological factors such as maturation patterns. It is therefore suggested that further detailed investigations of the fatty acid profile of Indian mackerel and also several other commercially important species sharing its habitat will aid in identifying fatty acids which can be used as markers in ecological studies as well as understanding the feeding dynamics of the resource.

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CHAPTER 5  
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

## CHAPTER 5

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The Indian mackerel forms a major fishery resource by itself in the Indian marine fisheries sector. A characteristic of the mackerel fishery is the highly fluctuating nature of the catches over interannual / decadal scales which has been attributed to fishery as well as non-fishery factors. Most of the studies to present date are during the period prior to 80s and from the North Kerala/Karnataka belt. There is intimate relation between feeding, its cycling for gonadal and somatic growth processes and subsequent recruitment success. The present study therefore was aimed at understanding the dynamics of the *R.kanagurta* resource using a holistic approach integrating information on the maturation, feeding and lipid dynamics from a relatively less studied region, namely, the Central Kerala coast.

The present study indicated that there is no population synchrony in spawning of Indian mackerel resulting in the availability of spawners throughout the year. But it is clear that from the availability of the various stages of maturity during the various months maximum spawning activity occurs during the late pre-monsoon and early monsoon period (May -June) and a small minor peak occurs during November which is probably due to the favorable environmental conditions and food availability during these periods. The fishery along the central Kerala coast is thus mainly sustained by the recruits originating around May and November.

The macroscopic gonad staging method is the most simple and rapid method in obtaining data on maturity and spawning which are inputs in routine fish stock assessment studies. Most of the present studies employ a 7-8 stage classification system which are based on maturation keys basically developed for temperate water species. However the reproductive strategies of tropical fishes such as mackerel are found to be much different from temperate water species. A simplified Key using 4 maturation stages of mackerel taking into consideration the GSI and ova-diameter distribution was developed which was validated using histological tools. This scale was found to be more reliable than those based only on either gross appearance or ova-diameter measurements alone. This method therefore can be tested in samples over temporal/geographical scale and modifications if any required, may be included and used subsequently for routine macroscopic gonad staging. Adoption of such a scale can also facilitate comparisons among studies conducted over temporal or geographical scales in future and also enable utilization of historical databases already available.

This study indicates that apparently there has been no major change in the spawning /maturation schedules of Indian mackerel along the southwest coast of India unlike in some other resources where deviations attributed to recent shifts in climate are reported. This may perhaps be due to the fact that the mackerel is already placed in a favorable environmental window and therefore such “shifts” are not evident. However, the  $L_m$  of mackerel showed much variation during the period and was lower than that reported during the period prior to the 90s. In the context of an expanding mackerel fishery attributed to

increasing seawater temperature due to climate-change, the study indicates that an evaluation of the historic database on the maturation/spawning of mackerel may be interesting to evaluate the same with regards to the fishery biology of mackerel.

The study also indicated that the fecundity levels being related to the total length of the fish, the effects of recruitment overfishing (large scale capture of mature spawners) are likely to be a significant factor in determining recruitment variations. At present, capture of juvenile fishes only is discouraged and hence management advisories may also consider conservation of spawners, especially during the pre-monsoon period and those in the size group 200 - 240 mm. It may be mentioned that presently most of the large sized fish (>220 mm) caught in trawls are fishes that are in spent condition and their fishing may not be a threat. However any fishery that specifically targets large spawners such as the seasonal gill net fishery operated during dusk off Calicut coast reported by Yohannan (1997) and similar fisheries elsewhere, if any, are more likely to be an unsustainable method of fishing which can be discouraged.

Generalised, rapid and opportunistic feeding behaviour, strong preference for copepods and the strategic utilisation of all available resources including detritus was indicated in the study. The study revealed that detritus was a major food item during the pre-monsoon period which also coincides with its spawning peak. The early views that detritus is ingested along with other food items accidentally and forms only an insignificant part of diet may thus be partly responsible for oversight of detritus as a food source for omnivores such as



mackerel. Hence more detailed qualitative analysis of gut contents combined with studies using more advanced methods to study time-integrated assimilated diets and energy transfer may be attempted. Such studies for all major fishery resources in the region can be used for developing ecosystem models that can play important role in fisheries management.

The present study indicates that PUFA content of Indian mackerel study was high with an average 46.9% of the total fatty acids and also is a rich source of DHA. The present study also indicated several individual fatty acids showing variations indicating possible relationship with the maturation and feeding patterns. Some of the important observations include significantly higher levels of DHA as compared to EPA related to a feeding preference for copepods rather than diatoms and seasonal variations in SFAs such as C18:0, C15:0 and C 17:0 related to habitat shifts associated diet changes. It is therefore suggested that further detailed investigations of the fatty acid profile of Indian mackerel and also several other commercially important species sharing its habitat will aid in identifying fatty acids which can be used as markers in ecological studies as well as understanding the feeding dynamics of the resources. Changes in certain fatty acids like DHA and AA in relation to maturity stages indicating their mobilization pattern observed in the present study are also likely to be useful in understanding the diet-modulation of reproduction and its possible effects on recruitment to the fishery subsequently.

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