

1 **Effects of feeding copepod and *Artemia* on early growth and behaviour of the self-**  
2 **fertilizing fish, *Rivulus marmoratus*, under laboratory conditions**

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25 **Abstract**

26

27 Growth and survival have often been used as parameters to assess the effects of live  
28 feeds on marine finfish, however, behavioural effects, which entail energy cost and may  
29 have consequences on fish growth have been given less emphasis. Thus, a 20-day  
30 feeding experiment was conducted to determine the effects of copepod *Acartia tsuensis*  
31 (104-732  $\mu\text{m}$ ), unenriched, and docosahexaenoic acid, DHA-enriched, first instar  
32 *Artemia franciscana* nauplii (656-906  $\mu\text{m}$ ) on growth and behaviour of the mangrove  
33 killifish *Rivulus marmoratus*. Growth was significantly higher in *Acartia*-fed larvae  
34 compared with larvae fed *Artemia* (unenriched and DHA-enriched) until day 10. On day  
35 20, *Acartia*-fed larvae had significantly lower growth than fish fed DHA-enriched  
36 *Artemia*. Feeding success was highest in larvae fed *Acartia* on day 1. Ingestion rate and  
37 satiation time did not differ among fish fed different types of feeds until day 20.  
38 Swimming activity before feeding was significantly lower in larvae fed *Acartia*  
39 compared with larvae fed *Artemia* (unenriched and DHA-enriched) until day 10. Higher  
40 growth in *Acartia*-fed fish on day 10 is probably due to the suitable size and high DHA  
41 content of *A. tsuensis*, and lower swimming activity of the larvae. However, on day 20,  
42 lower growth observed in *Acartia*-fed fish may be attributed to the shift in the food size  
43 preference of the fish. The present study was able to demonstrate the effects of  
44 copepods on growth and behavioural development of marine finfish using *R*  
45 *marmoratus* as a model animal.

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48 **Keywords:** Feeding behaviour; Growth; Mangrove killifish; Swimming activity; n-349 **HUFA**

## 50 1. Introduction

51 Copepods have been recognized as the most suitable feed for early stages of fish  
52 larvae because of their nutritional advantage (high essential fatty acids) compared with  
53 other live feeds such as rotifers and *Artemia* (Nanton and Castell, 1998; Evjemo et al.,  
54 2003; Støttrup and McEvoy, 2003). Interest on copepod culture started as a result of the  
55 discovery that they have better nutritional value compared with commonly used rotifers  
56 and *Artemia* (Støttrup and McEvoy, 2003). Copepods have been mass-cultured as early  
57 as 1970s and 1980s in Japan and have been used as feed for Pacific cod larvae in rearing  
58 trials in fisheries stations (Hagiwara et al., 2001). In the early 1990s, intensive culture of  
59 different species of copepods expanded due to the increasing diversity in the marine  
60 finfish culture, particularly those with small larvae, such as grouper and red snapper,  
61 and the shortage of commonly used live feed *Artemia* (Doi et al., 1997; Støttrup and  
62 McEvoy, 2003). Since then, research on copepod culture (Barthel, 1983; Berggreen et  
63 al., 1988; Ohno and Okamura, 1988; Davis, 1993; Abu-Rezq et al., 1997; Hernandez  
64 Molejon and Alvarez-Lajonchere, 2003) for the main purpose of utilizing them as feed  
65 for commercially important marine fish species, led to their widespread use in larval  
66 rearing trials (Kraul et al., 1992; Nanton and Castell, 1998; Shields et al., 1999; Evjemo  
67 et al., 2003) as well as in European hatcheries (Støttrup, 2000). Although copepod  
68 culture in intensive indoor systems has been successful, its mass production at a  
69 commercial scale has not been attained due to technical constraints, and is still in  
70 progress (Støttrup, 2000; Hagiwara et al., 2001).

71 Positive nutritional effects of copepods on marine finfish have been reported such  
72 as increased growth and survival (Doi et al., 1997; Nanton and Castell, 1998; Støttrup et  
73 al., 1998; Copeman et al., 2002; Skalli and Robin, 2004), improved pigmentation (Bell

74 et al., 2003), retinal morphology (Shields et al., 1999), broodstock reproductive  
75 performance, and egg and larval quality (Mazorra et al., 2003). However, less emphasis  
76 has been given on the effects of copepods on the behavioural development of fish,  
77 particularly on their feeding and swimming behaviour (Hunt Von Herbing and Gallager ,  
78 2000). Behavioural observations are useful in understanding patterns of prey selection  
79 and have important implications on metabolic energy costs. Increased efficiency in  
80 foraging has been shown to increase net energy gain and consequently growth and  
81 survival (Dill, 1983; Wahl et al., 1995). In this study, three types of diets using *Acartia*  
82 *tsuensis* and *Artemia franciscana*, with different nutritional composition were used to  
83 determine their dietary effects on growth and behavioural development using mangrove  
84 killifish, *Rivulus marmoratus*, as a model animal.

85 *R. marmoratus*, recently recognized as a synonym of *Kryptolebias marmoratus*  
86 (Costa, 2004), has been used as an experimental animal because it is capable of self-  
87 fertilization (produce clones) and it is easy to culture (Kallman and Harrington, 1964;  
88 Harrington and Kallman, 1968; Koenig and Chasar, 1984). *R. marmoratus* will be  
89 highly useful in investigating the effects of different types of diets since individuals are  
90 homozygous clones, thus, any observed variations in traits or characters can be  
91 attributed to nutritional effects and not to individual variations. Also, the early life  
92 history of this species has been studied in detail (Grageda et al., 2004) but the  
93 nutritional requirements during the early stages of its development have never been  
94 investigated.

95 With the aim to compare the effects of feeding different types of live feeds on  
96 early growth and behavioural development in *R. marmoratus*, a 20-day feeding

97 experiment was conducted using three types of diets namely: *A. tsuensis* (D1),  
98 unenriched (D2), and DHA-enriched (D3) first instar *A. franciscana* nauplii.

99

## 100 **2. Materials and methods**

101

### 102 *2.1 Culture and size measurement of live feeds*

103 *A. tsuensis* were collected from the Yukinoura River of Ooseto in Nagasaki,  
104 Japan using a plankton net (45  $\mu\text{m}$  mesh size). They were cultured in 5 l plastic  
105 containers with 4 l of 17 g l<sup>-1</sup> brackish water (prepared by mixing 2 l of distilled water  
106 and 2 l of natural seawater, filtered in 47 mm glass microfibre filter) with mild aeration,  
107 at a density of 2-10 ind. ml<sup>-1</sup>. Copepods were fed daily with 1 x 10<sup>5</sup> cells ml<sup>-1</sup> of  
108 *Chaetoceros* sp and 2 x 10<sup>5</sup> cells ml<sup>-1</sup> of *Isochrysis* sp. The amount of feed left was  
109 checked daily and the amount of food fed was adjusted accordingly. Culture water was  
110 totally replaced every 2-3 days.

111 About 1 g of *A. franciscana* cyst was incubated in 3 l white plastic container  
112 with about 1.5 l of 17 g l<sup>-1</sup> brackish water with strong aeration. After 1 day, newly  
113 hatched nauplii were collected using a 100  $\mu\text{m}$  sieve and distributed equally to two, 2 l  
114 plastic containers (for D2 and D3) half-filled with 17 g l<sup>-1</sup> artificial brackish water  
115 (Marine Art Hi, Tomita Pharmaceutical Co. Ltd., Naruto, Japan), provided with strong  
116 aeration and placed in a water bath maintained at 25  $\pm$  1 °C. For D3, *A. franciscana*  
117 were enriched (0.3 g l<sup>-1</sup>, Aquaran plus, BASF, Japan) for 12-16 h prior to feeding.

118 *A. tsuensis* (n = 95) and *A. franciscana* (n = 30) were randomly sampled and  
119 preserved in 5 % formaldehyde. Size (expressed in  $\mu\text{m}$ ) was measured using a digital  
120 microscope (VH 6300, Keyence Corp., Japan). Body sizes of nauplii, copepodites and

121 adult copepods were measured as body length and prosome length (from the anterior  
122 end of the prosome to the posterior lateral end of the prosome), respectively (Mauchline,  
123 1998).

124

## 125 2.2 Dietary treatments

126 Three types of diets (D1: *A. tsuensis*, D2: unenriched first instar *A. franciscana*  
127 nauplii, and D3: DHA-enriched first instar *A. franciscana* nauplii) were used in the  
128 feeding experiment. Details of the nutritional composition of each of the diet, with  
129 emphasis on their highly unsaturated fatty acid (HUFA) components are shown in Table  
130 1.

131

## 132 2.3 Experimental fish and general rearing conditions

133 The killifish (*Rivulus marmoratus*) used in this study were the PAN-RS strain  
134 derived from reared broodstock, which originated from Bocas del Toro, Panama and  
135 obtained from W.P. Davis (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Florida). This strain  
136 was collected in 1994 and has been reared in our laboratory for over 5 generations since  
137 1998.

138 Ten fish for each dietary treatment were individually reared from hatching (day  
139 0) in 1 l aquarium filled with 700 ml of 17 g l<sup>-1</sup> artificial brackish water, with mild  
140 aeration and under natural photoperiod for 20 days. Aquaria were arranged randomly in  
141 150 l water bath maintained at 25 ± 1 °C using a cooling thermo pump (CTP 201, Eyela,  
142 Japan). The daily feed for each tank was as follows: 100-1500 individuals of mixed  
143 stages (nauplius, copepodite, and adult) of *A. tsuensis* for D1, and 12 to 365 individuals  
144 of 2-day old *A. franciscana* nauplii for D2 and D3, depending on the age of fish. In

145 order to feed the fish to satiation and to minimize the remaining feed in each tank, the  
146 amount of feed remaining was counted daily for each aquarium and the amount of feed  
147 fed was adjusted accordingly. *Chaetoceros* sp and *Isochrysis* sp were added at a density  
148 of  $1 \times 10^5$  cells  $\text{ml}^{-1}$  and  $2 \times 10^5$  cells  $\text{ml}^{-1}$ , respectively to each aquarium every 2 days.  
149 The amount of microalgae left was checked and the amount fed was adjusted  
150 accordingly to maintain the same density. Culture water was not replaced throughout  
151 the experiment.

152

#### 153 2.4 Growth and behavioural experiments

154 Growth measurements and behavioural observations were made on fish on days  
155 1, 10, and 20. All fish were starved 24 h prior to observation. The observation container  
156 (7.5 cm x 10 cm) was placed in a water bath, which was maintained at  $25 \pm 1$  °C. Fish  
157 were transferred to the observation container with a depth of 2 cm of  $17 \text{ g l}^{-1}$  artificial  
158 brackish water. Fish were acclimated for 10 min prior to observation. Behaviour was  
159 recorded 10 min before and 10 min after feeding from above using a video camera  
160 (TRV 50, Sony Corp., Japan). At each observation period, the same amount of feed was  
161 fed to all individuals of the same age. For D1, fish were fed 100-185 individuals of *A.*  
162 *tsuensis*, and for D2 and D3, 11-35 individuals of 2-day old *A. franciscana*, depending  
163 on the age of fish. After each observation, fish were anaesthetized with  $100 \text{ mg l}^{-1}$  of  
164 MS 222 (3-aminobenzoic acid ethyl ester, Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO) for a  
165 few seconds. Then, growth (standard length, SL) was measured to the nearest 0.01 mm  
166 using a digital microscope. Immediately after measurement, fish were allowed to  
167 recover in 1 l of aerated  $17 \text{ g l}^{-1}$  artificial brackish water for 10 min, before being  
168 returned to the rearing aquaria.

169           The behaviours observed were as follows: focus (fish turns and orients toward  
170 the prey), attack (movement of fish towards the prey prior to ingestion), ingest (fish eats  
171 the prey), and fail (fish is unable to ingest prey). These data were used to calculate the  
172 following indices: feeding success (number of prey ingested over the number of attacks)  
173 and ingestion rate (number of prey ingested  $\text{min}^{-1}$ ). Satiation time (min), the time the  
174 fish fed until satiation, was also recorded. The total time the fish spent at rest and  
175 swimming, 10 min before and 10 min after feeding were also observed (Almazan-Rueda  
176 et al., 2004).

177           Condition factor (CF), which is based on the final weight and length of fish fed  
178 the different diets was calculated using the formula: [wet weight (g)/standard length  
179 (cm)]  $\times 10^3$ .

#### 180 *2.5 Fatty acid analysis*

181           Samples of *A. franciscana* (unenriched and enriched) and *A. tsuensis* were  
182 concentrated separately in a sieve (100  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and washed with distilled water. All fish fed  
183 the different live feeds were starved 24 h prior to sampling and were also washed with  
184 distilled water. All samples were weighed (mg), pooled for each treatment, immediately  
185 frozen and stored at  $-80\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  for fatty acid analysis. Samples were analyzed for fatty acid  
186 composition by a commercial laboratory (Chlorella Industry Co., Ltd, Fukuoka, Japan),  
187 and for total lipid content by the method of Folch et al. (1957).

188

#### 189 *2.6 Statistical analysis*

190           Comparison of growth and behavioural parameters among fish fed the different  
191 diets at each age group was done using one-way ANOVA and further analyzed using  
192 Fisher's PLSD posthoc test. Analysis was done using a statistical software program



193 (StatView ver. 5, SAS Inst. Inc.). Size of live feeds was compared using Student's  $t$ -test  
194 (Minitab, release 13.31, Minitab, Inc.). Final wet weight (mg) and CF of fish fed the  
195 different diets were compared using one-way ANOVA and further analyzed using  
196 Fisher's PLSD posthoc test.

197

### 198 **3. Results**

199 The size frequency of mixed stages of *A. tsuensis* used in this study is shown in  
200 Fig. 1. The sizes (mean  $\pm$  S.D.) of *A. tsuensis* ( $454 \pm 228 \mu\text{m}$ ) and *A. franciscana* ( $762 \pm$   
201  $59 \mu\text{m}$ ) differed significantly (Student's  $t$ -test,  $t = -11.93$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). Size ranges of *A.*  
202 *tsuensis* and *A. franciscana* were  $104\text{-}732 \mu\text{m}$  and  $656\text{-}906 \mu\text{m}$ , respectively.

203 Early growth in D1-fed larvae was significantly higher than D2- and D3-fed  
204 larvae on day 10 (Fisher's PLSD,  $P < 0.05$ ). On day 20, D3-fed larvae had a  
205 significantly higher growth than the D1- and D2-fed larvae (Fisher's PLSD,  $P < 0.0001$ ;  
206 Fig. 2). Similarly, final weight of D3-fed fish was significantly higher than fish fed D1  
207 and D2 ( $P < 0.01$ ). However, condition factor did not differ among fish fed the different  
208 diets.

209 One-day old larvae had significantly higher feeding success with D1 than D3  
210 (Fisher's PLSD,  $P < 0.05$ ). Feeding success among larvae fed the different diets did not  
211 differ on days 10 and 20 (Fig. 3). Both ingestion rate and satiation time did not differ  
212 among larvae fed the different diets at all age groups.

213 Swimming activity before feeding was significantly higher in larvae fed D2 and  
214 D3 compared with D1 on day 10 (Fisher's PLSD,  $P < 0.05$ ). However, swimming  
215 activity among larvae fed the different diets was of the same level on day 20 (Fig. 4a).

216 With food present, swimming activity did not differ among larvae fed the different diets  
217 at all age groups (Fig. 4b).

218 Eicosapentaenoic acid, EPA (mg 100 g wet wt<sup>-1</sup>) levels in fish fed all dietary  
219 treatments increased from 0.2 - 3 fold compared to the diets. Despite the absence of  
220 DHA in the diets, an increase of 120.9 mg 100 g wet wt<sup>-1</sup> was detected in fish. DHA  
221 (mg 100 g wet wt<sup>-1</sup>) in D1- and D3-fed fish increased from 3 - 8 fold compared with the  
222 diet (Table 1 and 2).

223

#### 224 **4. Discussion**

225 The present study was able to demonstrate the successful culture and use of  
226 copepods in a small-scale experiment to investigate their effects on early growth and  
227 behaviour of *R. marmoratus*. Most studies on the effect of copepods on marine finfish  
228 have reported improvement in larval growth and survival in yellowtail flounder,  
229 (Copeman et al., 2002) and red-spotted grouper (Doi et al., 1997), growth of European  
230 sea bass (Skalli and Robin, 2004), larval haddock and American plaice (Nanton and  
231 Castell, 1998), dorsal pigmentation of turbot and halibut (Bell et al., 2003), and  
232 broodstock reproductive performance and egg and larval quality of Atlantic halibut  
233 (Mazorra et al., 2003), which have been attributed to its nutritional effects. Copepods  
234 have been reported to contain higher amounts of highly unsaturated fatty acids (n-3  
235 HUFA) content, particularly EPA (20:5n-3) and DHA (Watanabe et al., 1983; Evjemo  
236 et al., 2003; Hernandez Molejon and Alvarez-Lajonchere, 2003). The present study did  
237 not only confirm the positive effects of copepods on growth similar with previous  
238 reports, but also reports its effect on behavioural development in marine finfish using *R.*

239 *marmoratus*. It is also the first attempt to correlate growth with behavioural  
240 observations.

241 Higher growth observed in *Acartia*-fed fish on day 10 may be due to lower  
242 swimming activity of the larvae. Swimming activity is energy-costly especially for  
243 larvae with poor energy-saving mechanisms (Kamler, 1992). This activity involves  
244 consumption of high amounts of oxygen, ranging from 2 to 15 times above the resting  
245 level in some species of fish larvae, such as brown trout, Pacific sardine, whitefish, and  
246 in some cyprinids (Kamler, 1992).

247 Our results showed that the effects of the live feeds were mainly due to the type  
248 and size of live feed species rather than their nutritional composition. Despite the  
249 absence of DHA in the feed, DHA was detected in *R. marmoratus* indicating that they  
250 are capable of synthesizing DHA. Thus, higher growth in *Acartia*-fed fish on day 10  
251 may be related to the suitable size (composed mainly of 55 % of 500-600  $\mu\text{m}$   
252 copepodites and adults and 34 % of 100-200  $\mu\text{m}$  nauplii) of *A. tsuensis* rather than their  
253 DHA content. On the other hand, the positive nutritional effect of *Acartia* containing  
254 high amounts of DHA on larval growth still remains a possibility. Lower growth  
255 observed on day 20 may be due to the shift in food size preference of the fish. Also, it  
256 may be possible that EPA exerted a positive effect on the growth of fish fed DHA-  
257 enriched *Artemia*.

258 The decrease in growth from day 10 to 20 in *Acartia*-fed fish and conversely, the  
259 increase in growth in *Artemia*-fed fish may be attributed to the shift in food size  
260 preference. The shift in size preference can be related to morphological, physiological,  
261 and behavioural changes occurring at these phases, which were previously described  
262 (Grageda et al., 2004; unpublished observations). Based on the size, larvae fed *Acartia*

263 on day 10 can be classified under the shift to exogenous feeding phase while the fish fed  
264 enriched *Artemia* on day 20, under the juvenile phase. During the shift to exogenous  
265 feeding, higher growth was observed in larvae feeding on smaller-sized prey (*A.*  
266 *tsuensis*; 104-732  $\mu\text{m}$ ), however, as it approached the juvenile phase, higher growth was  
267 observed in fish feeding on larger-sized prey (*A. franciscana*; 656-906  $\mu\text{m}$ ). During the  
268 shift to exogenous feeding, *R. marmoratus* have been reported to possess complete fin-  
269 ray counts in the majority of the fins, and to undergo increased ossification in the skull,  
270 vertebrae and fin rays (Grageda et al., 2004), which coincided with increased swimming  
271 activity similar with observations in sea breams (Faustino and Power, 2004) . These  
272 features may have contributed to increased efficiency in catching *A. tsuensis*, which has  
273 been reported to swim in an irregular and zigzag motion (Shuvayev, 1978 as cited in  
274 Govoni et al., 1986). However, digestive enzyme activities in the digestive tract (such as  
275 esterase and alkaline phosphatase) at this phase are still low (Kolkovski, 2001),  
276 indicating that the larva has limited absorptive capacity, thus, it prefers smaller-sized  
277 and easily digestible prey. As the fish approached the juvenile phase, it shifted to a prey  
278 with a more regular swimming movement, complementing with the unchanged  
279 swimming activity of the fish at this phase. Since a positive effect in growth was  
280 observed among fish feeding on *A. franciscana*, larger-sized prey may be preferred at  
281 the juvenile phase. This indicates that the fish is physiologically capable of digesting  
282 and absorbing larger prey, as evidenced by efficient transformation of food to somatic  
283 growth. This could be attributed to increased digestive and absorptive efficiency, as  
284 evidenced by a significant increase in digestive enzyme activities such as alkaline  
285 phosphatase and esterase, and increased mucosal folds and goblet cells in the digestive  
286 tract at the juvenile phase, as observed in developing seabream larvae (Moyano et al.,

287 1996). Also, zymogen granules, known precursors of proteolytic enzymes (Gisbert et al.,  
288 2004), are distinctly visible at this phase (unpublished observations), indicating active  
289 pancreatic secretions. Positive correlation between gape size and body size of fish and  
290 the size of prey has been reported (De Vries, 1998). In *R. marmoratus*, gape size  
291 increases with age, however, gape size relative to standard length decreases with age at  
292 the early stage of development (Grageda et al., 2004). A similar observation has been  
293 reported in both field-caught and laboratory-reared red drum larvae and juveniles,  
294 showing that the size of prey consumed was not constrained by gape size (Krebs and  
295 Turingan, 2003). This suggests that other prey-capture mechanisms such as the  
296 development of feeding apparatus (such as hyoid apparatus) may influence a shift in  
297 prey size preference (Krebs and Turingan, 2003). Moreover, this observed increase in  
298 consumption of larger prey with growth is consistent with previous findings on  
299 greenback flounder, long-snouted flounder and red drum (Jenkins, 1987; Krebs and  
300 Turingan, 2003). Apart from prey size, characteristics of prey have also been identified  
301 as an important factor in prey selectivity (Checkely, 1982). Other factors affecting prey  
302 selection have been identified related to the characteristics of the larvae. Meng and Orsi  
303 (1991) demonstrated that learning and swimming behaviour of striped bass larvae and  
304 their interaction with their prey strongly affects prey selectivity. Moreover, the  
305 importance of learning behaviour and innate preference by the percoid and flounder  
306 larvae has been suggested (Jenkins, 1987; Wahl et al., 1995). Similarly, a positive  
307 preference for familiar prey has been observed in greenback flounder larvae (Cox and  
308 Pankhurst, 2000).

309         The importance of copepods in the early larval nutrition of *R. marmoratus* was  
310 also demonstrated in this study. This species performed better when fed with *A. tsuensis*

311 during the early larval stage as evidenced by higher feeding success compared with *A.*  
312 *franciscana* on day 1, and a positive effect on larval growth on day 10. Higher density  
313 of *A. tsuensis* compared with *A. franciscana*, may have contributed to this effect,  
314 however, these densities had to be maintained to be able to feed the fish to satiation and  
315 to reduce the remaining feed in each tank. Higher feeding preference for *Acartia* may be  
316 indicative of the innate preference of the larvae for copepod prey as previously  
317 suggested by Jenkins (1987). Also, our study confirmed previous observations  
318 regarding food preference of *R. marmoratus*, revealing the presence of an unidentified  
319 harpacticoid copepod based on indirect observation through gut analysis of specimens  
320 collected from the field (Taylor, 1992). Copepods are commonly present in mangrove  
321 estuaries, thus, calanoids, another order of copepods to which *Acartia* belongs, may  
322 play an important role in early larval feeding of *R. marmoratus*. Previous studies on  
323 food habits of this species have reported gastropods, insects, amphipods, isopods,  
324 crustacean parts, fragments of annelid worms, and fish scales as their food (Harrington  
325 and Rivas, 1958; Huehner et al., 1985; Taylor 1992). It is possible that calanoids would  
326 constitute a significant part of their diet during the larval stage in their natural habitat,  
327 although this needs further confirmation in the field. *A. tsuensis* belongs to the family  
328 Acartiidae, a group composed of species found in estuarine and neritic environments  
329 throughout the world (Mauchline, 1998).

330

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338

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476 Table 1. Highly unsaturated fatty acid (HUFA) composition (mg 100g wet wt<sup>-1</sup>) of  
 477 different diets (D1: *Acartia tsuensis*; D2: unenriched *Artemia franciscana* and D3:  
 478 DHA- enriched *A. franciscana*).  
 479

HUFA	D1	D2	D3
Eicosapentaenoic acid	14.2 (4.7)	17.3 (2.1)	71.4 (5.3)
Docosahexaenoic acid	26.1 (8.6)	0 (0)	57.9 (4.3)
Arachidonic acid	1.5 (0.5)	5.8 (0.7)	14.8 (1.1)
DHA/EPA	1.8	-	0.8
Σ n-3 HUFA	41.8 (13.8)	23.1 (2.8)	144.1(10.7)

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481 Number in parenthesis indicates % of total fatty acids.

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490 Table 2. Highly unsaturated fatty acid (HUFA) composition (mg 100g wet wt<sup>-1</sup>) of  
 491 mangrove killifish fed different diets (D1: *Acartia tsuensis*; D2: unenriched *Artemia*  
 492 *franciscana* and D3: DHA- enriched *A. franciscana*) at 22 days after hatching.  
 493

HUFA	D1	D2	D3
Eicosapentaenoic acid	20.4 (1.7)	69.5 (2.3)	87.7 (2.1)
Docosahexaenoic acid	233.2 (19.4)	120.9 (4.0)	213.0 (5.1)
Arachidonic acid	19.2 (1.6)	33.2 (1.1)	66.8 (1.6)
DHA/EPA	11.4	1.7	2.4
Σ n-3 HUFA	272.8 (22.7)	223.6 (7.4)	367.5 (8.8)

494  
 495 Number in parenthesis indicates % of total fatty acids.

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505 Figure captions

506

507 Fig. 1. Size frequency (%) of mixed stages (nauplius, copepodite, and adult) of *Acartia*  
508 *tsuensis* used in the feeding experiment.

509

510 Fig. 2. Growth expressed as standard length (mean mm  $\pm$  S.D.) of mangrove killifish  
511 fed different diets (D1: *Acartia tsuensis*, triangle with short broken lines; D2:  
512 unenriched first instar *Artemia franciscana* nauplii, circle with solid line; D3: DHA-  
513 enriched first instar *A. franciscana* nauplii, square with long broken lines) for 20 days.  
514 Different letters indicate significant difference among fish fed different diets at each age  
515 group (Fisher's PLSD,  $\underline{P} < 0.05$ ,  $a > b$ ).

516

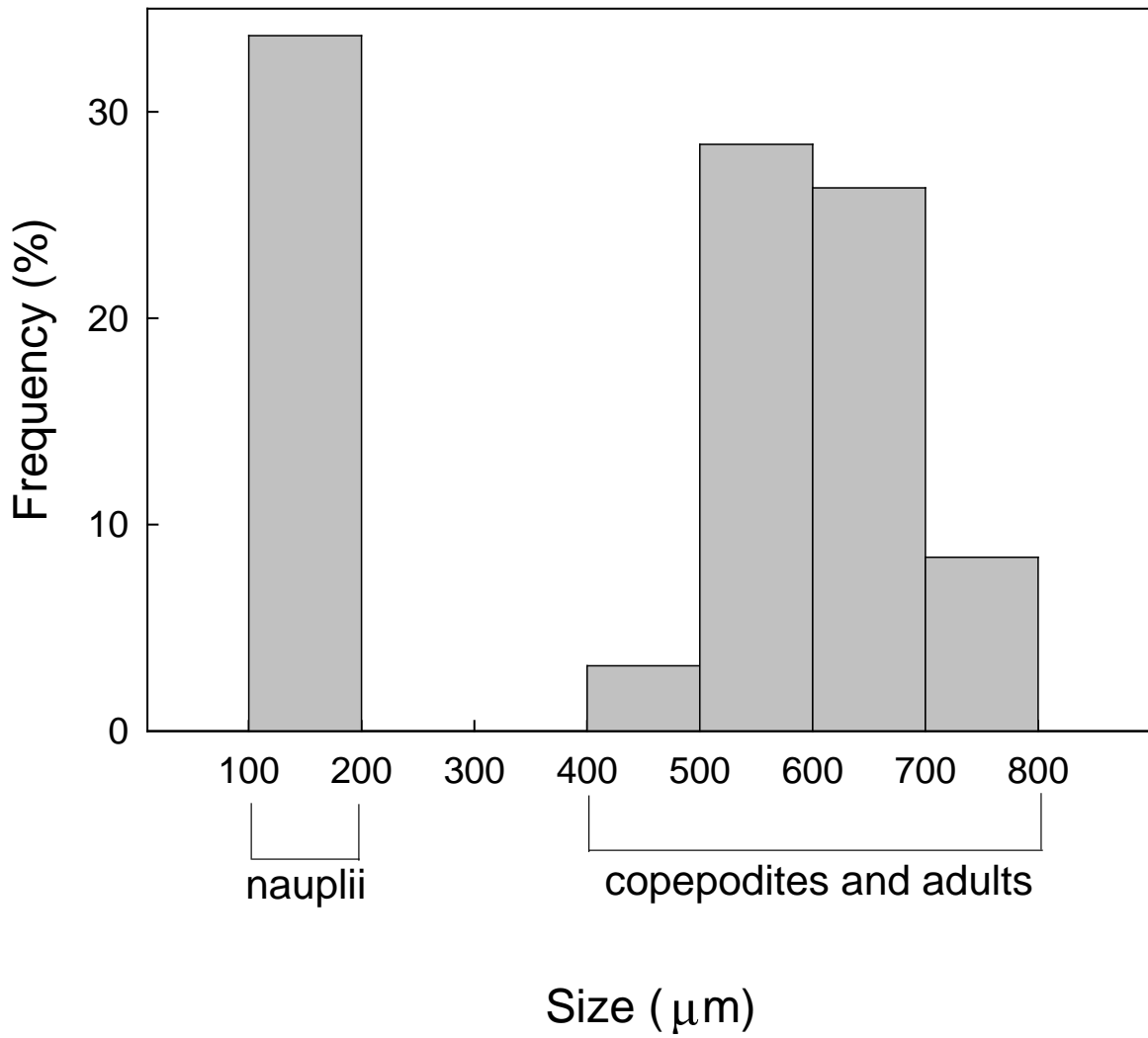
517 Fig. 3. Feeding success (mean %  $\pm$  S.D.) of mangrove killifish fed different diets (D1:  
518 *Acartia tsuensis*, solid bars; D2: unenriched first instar *Artemia franciscana* nauplii,  
519 open bars; D3: DHA-enriched first instar *A. franciscana* nauplii, bars with diagonal  
520 lines) for 20 days. Different letters indicate significant difference among fish fed  
521 different diets at each age group (Fisher's PLSD,  $\underline{P} < 0.05$ ,  $a > b$ ).

522

523 Fig. 4. Swimming activity (mean %  $\pm$  S.D.) of mangrove killifish fed different diets  
524 (D1: *Acartia tsuensis*, solid bars; D2: unenriched first instar *Artemia franciscana* nauplii,  
525 open bars; D3: DHA-enriched first instar *A. franciscana* nauplii, bars with diagonal  
526 lines) for 20 days at (a) 10 min before and (b) 10 min after feeding. Different letters  
527 indicate significant difference among fish fed different diets at each age group (Fisher's  
528 PLSD,  $\underline{P} < 0.05$ ,  $a > b$ ).

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530 Fig. 1.



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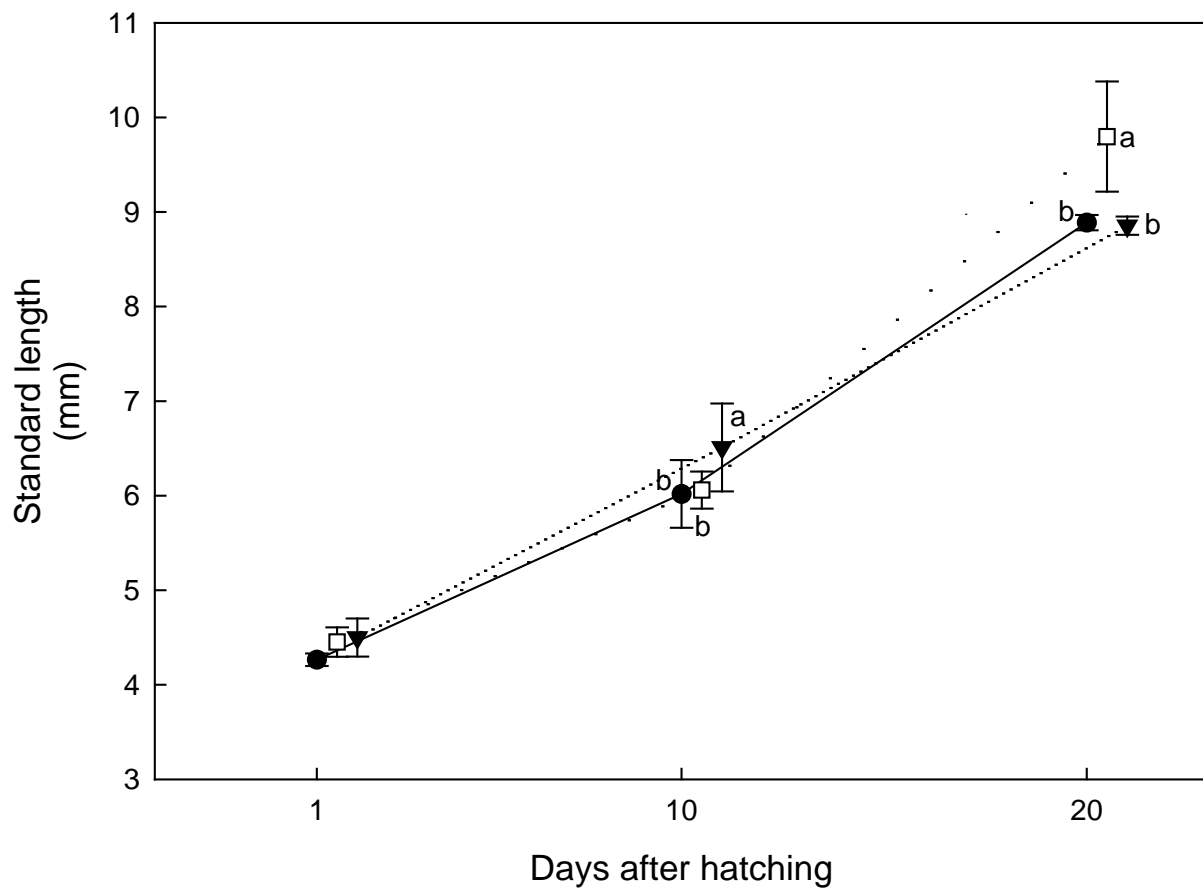


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540 Fig. 2.



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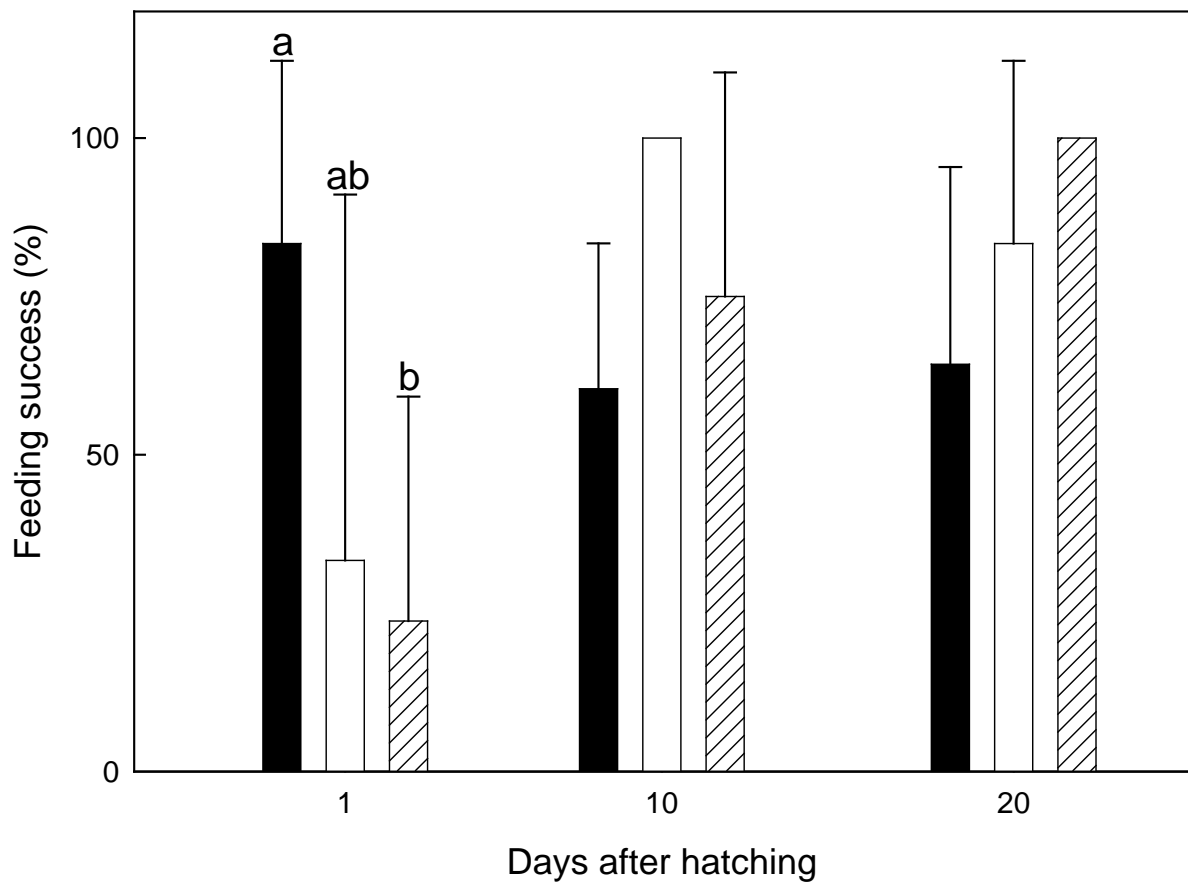
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552 Fig. 3.



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Fig. 4.

