

Preliminary Observations on the Effect of Temperature and Food Concentration on the Egg Production Rate and Hatching Success of *Acartia amboinensis* from the Central Red Sea

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The effect of temperature and food concentration on the egg production rate (EPR) of a tropical calanoid copepod *Acartia amboinensis* were studied from the coastal waters of the central Red Sea during March 2017. In the first experiment, adult females were incubated in glass bottles that pre-filled with screened seawater containing a natural assemblage of phytoplankton. In the second experiment, the species were incubated in glass bottles that enriched with different concentrations of *Chaetoceros muelleri* along with natural assemblage of phytoplankton. Both the experimental setups were then exposed to different temperatures (21, 24, 27, 30 and 33°C). The daily EPR was significantly varied both in between different temperatures as well as the various food concentrations ($p < 0.05$). Within the natural food assemblage (Exp. 1), the EPR increased gradually to a maximum mean of 13.7 eggs female⁻¹ d⁻¹ at 27°C, then declined with increasing temperatures (at 30 and 33°C). In the second experiment when water enriched with algal culture, EPRs were significantly greater (maximum EPR: 63.9 eggs female⁻¹ d⁻¹ at 27°C) than that incubated in ambient water with natural food (maximum EPR: 17.4 eggs female⁻¹ d⁻¹ at 21°C). The hatching rate fluctuated between 42.4% and 88.6%. The study revealed that EPR of *Acartia amboinensis* responded rapidly to change in food availability, suggesting the extreme food limitation in the central Red Sea.

Key words: *Acartia amboinensis*, Copepods, Egg production rate, Hatching rate; Red Sea.

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BACKGROUND

In the marine ecosystems, copepods function as the key primary consumers that play a crucial role in the proper functioning of various biogeochemical cycles and helps further in the energy transfer from the producers to the secondary consumers (Harris et al. 2000). The population dynamics of these organisms are mainly affected by their ability to produce eggs and its successful hatching (Kimmerer et al. 2005; Nakajima et al. 2019). Several studies have focused on the variation in the reproductive potentiality of the copepods showed that the fecundity is strongly influenced by the availability of various food sources (Durbin et al. 1983; Rodriguez et al. 1995; Calbet et al. 1999; Ara 2001; Burdloff et al. 2002), as well as various physico-chemical conditions such as temperature (Ambler 1986; Landry 1978; Sekiguchi et al. 1980; Kim 1995; Milione and Zeng 2008), salinity (Castro-Longoria 2003; Milione and Zeng 2008; Holste and Peck 2006) and wind speed and turbulence (Gómez-Gutiérrez et al. 1999). It is thus necessary to study the influence of such environmental factors in the egg production rate (EPR) of copepods in order to predict their pattern of reproduction and population dynamics within various natural environments. In general, there are many studies from the temperate regions that dealt with the egg production and feeding habits of many *Acartia* species (e.g., White and Roman 1992; Rodriguez et al. 1995; Calbet and Alcaraz 1996; Gómez-Gutiérrez et al. 1999; Dvoretsky and Dvoretsky 2014; Nogueira et al. 2018; Cruz et al. 2020), while the similar studies from the tropical and subtropical regions are comparatively low (e.g., Hopcroft and Roff 1998; Ara 2001; Palomares-García et al. 2003; Yoshida et al. 2012b; Jo et al. 2019). Most importantly, there are hardly any studies that happened for any of the copepod species from the Red Sea waters. As a complex ecosystem that consists of hot and high saline waters, the Red Sea acts as a perfect platform for studying the impact of global warming on various aquatic habitats on the earth (Chaidez et al. 2017). Moreover, the oligotrophic nature of the system provides more challenges to the inhabitants in terms of limited food availability (Sommer 2000, Devassy et al. 2017).

Acartiid copepods are known to be the most common inhabitants of the coastal and estuarine environments in the marine ecosystems worldwide (Liu et al. 2010; El-Sherbiny and Al-Aidaros 2014). From the Red Sea, until now there are about nine species of the genus *Acartia* have been recorded (Al-Aidaros et al. 2019b). They are namely: *Acartia (Acanthacartia) fossae*, *A. (Acartia) danae*, *A. (Acartia) negligens*, *A. (Acartiura) clausi*, *A. (Acartiura) longiremis*, *A. (Odontacartia) centrura*, *A. (Odontacartia) erythraea*, *A. (Odontacartia) amboinensis* and *A. (Odontacartia) bispinosa*. Among them, the present experimental species, *Acartia (Odontacartia) amboinensis*, which recorded recently in the Red Sea (Al-Aidaros et al. 2016), has a common distribution in the

tropical and subtropical waters (*e.g.*, Achuthankutty et al. 1989; Naz et al. 2012; Rezai et al. 2004; Revis 1988; Salakij et al. 2008; Tanaka 1965; Zuraire et al. 2018). This species is recorded in the coastal waters of the Arabian Sea and the Indian Ocean with affinity towards high saline and warm waters (Achuthankutty et al. 1989; Revis 1988; Zuraire et al. 2018). Furthermore, there was no investigation on the egg production rate that has been carried out worldwide for *A. amboinensis*. Hence, the present study was designed to understand the effects of temperature and food concentration on the EPR and hatching success of the *A. amboinensis* in the laboratory. The results obtained in this study can be considered as a model one for predicting the abundance of *A. amboinensis* in the tropical seas, where in future the surface waters tend to be hotter due to global warming.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Live specimen collection

Live copepod samples were collected during early morning from the coastal waters of the central Red Sea, Saudi Arabia (21°42'32.45"N, 39°5'41.76"E) during March 2017 by vertical tows from a depth of 25 m to surface with a WP2 plankton net (150 µm mesh size) fitted with a 20 L non-filtering plastic bag as cod end to minimize damage to organisms. After collection, the plastic bags with the plankton were kept in an isothermal cooling box that was filled with ambient seawater and immediately transferred to an environmental chamber (ESPEC walk-in) within 15 minutes, where they were provided with gentle aeration to minimize oxygen deficiencies. Meanwhile, surplus subsurface seawater was collected from the same area and gently sieved (to prevent deterioration of microzooplankton) through a 45 µm mesh sieve to remove metazoan zooplankton and other copepod eggs. The temperature of the environmental chamber was set to that observed in the coastal waters (26.4–27.1°C). For each experiment, about 300 individuals of *A. amboinensis* were sorted under a stereoscopic microscope with a wide-mouth sterilized Pasteur pipette, and maintained in 2 L glass beakers with proper aeration until the beginning of the experiment.

Experiment 1: Effects of temperature on egg production rates of *A. amboinensis* during March (with natural food assemblage)

We evaluated the effect of different temperatures [21, 24, 27, 30 and 33°C, which is comparable to seasonal variations observed by Alsaafani et al. (2017)] on the egg production rate of

female *A. amboinensis* in March during their high abundance. To do that, sets of copepods were acclimatized for 24h through moving the organisms from *in situ* temperature ($\sim 27^{\circ}\text{C}$) into 3°C higher every 3h until reaching the target experimental temperature in 2L jars filled with seawater. Whereas lower treatments (21 and 24°C) were obtained through a gradual acclimation to the laboratory room conditions (ca. 21°C). After 24h of acclimation, ten intact and healthy adult females and two males (to ensure the natural fertilization processes) from each group were transferred to 1L screw-capped glass bottles filled with pre-screened ($45\ \mu\text{m}$) natural seawater collected in the field, containing the natural food assemblage, and kept at the corresponding temperatures for another 24h. All the bottles were then carefully closed by placing a plastic film over their mouth to prevent bubbles formation. Groups of four bottles were incubated at each of five different temperatures (21 , 24 , 27 , 30 and 33°C), for a period $\sim 24\text{h}$; four additional bottles, with only the pre-screened water, was set at each temperature as control. Light in the experimental chamber was kept at a 12h light:12h dark pattern throughout the experiment period. To prevent the settling of the natural food present in the seawater, the bottles were turned upside down several times every 4h. At the end of the experiment, EPRs (eggs female $^{-1}$ day $^{-1}$) was calculated as the sum of eggs and nauplii divided by the total number of females in each bottle subtracted the number of eggs and nauplii in control ones. In our experiment, the average cannibalism rate was 0.9 % after adjusting by including the crumpled membranes in the egg counts.

Experiment 2: Effects of food concentration and temperature on egg production rates of *A. amboinensis*

This experiment was designed to study the influence of different food concentrations on the egg production rates of *A. amboinensis* at different temperatures. The copepod individuals were fed with either the natural food assemblage or with suspensions of the diatom *Chaetoceros muelleri* at different carbon concentrations (108 , 231 and $492\ \mu\text{g C l}^{-1}$). The range of *C. muelleri* concentrations used was determined assuming *Acartia* satiates at $\sim 500\ \mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$ (Kjørboe et al. 1985). For comparative purposes, we assumed a carbon-chlorophyll ratio of 51 (White and Roman 1992) to estimate from chlorophyll the equivalent carbon concentration in the natural food assemblage. The diatom *C. muelleri* used in this experiment was inoculated from starter cultures supplied by the National Aquaculture Group (NAQUA), Al-Lith, Saudi Arabia. This diatom species was grown in f/2 medium (Guillard and Ryther 1962), with added silicate supplements, and maintained at a temperature of $25 \pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$ and a salinity of 39–40. The cultures were grown with continuous aeration and a light intensity of 5000 lx, 12h light:12h dark photoperiod. The algal culture was maintained in the exponential growth phase by diluting ca. 30% every other day. Before the start of each

experiment, the cell abundance of the diatom stock culture and was determined using a Sedgwick-Rafter counting chamber under an inverted microscope (Leica DMI 3000B). Carbon content of *C. muelleri* was estimated from biovolume [according to geometric shape and corresponding equation proposed by Olenina et al. (2006)] using the equation provided by Montagnes et al. (1994): Cell carbon (pg) = 0.109 [cell biovolume (μm^3)]^{0.991}. The diatom stock culture was then diluted with 0.2 μm filtered seawater to make the various food concentrations required for the experiment (see above). Experimental bottles (1L) were then filled with the corresponding algal suspensions. Before starting this experiment, groups of the target species were acclimatized for 48h at each temperature (21, 24, 27, 30 and 33°C) with different food concentrations of *C. muelleri*. After 24h, the bottles contents were gently filtered, and animals were transferred to a new algal suspension previously adjusted to the corresponding concentrations. In case of using natural food assemblages, the copepods were acclimatized as in experiment 1. After transferring the preconditioning copepods to the experimental bottles (1L), they were incubated for 24h in the environmental chambers at the five mentioned temperature regimes with a 12h dark:12h light photoperiod. Five replicates were set for each combination of food concentration and temperature. For each treatment, five additional bottles containing only screened seawater (without copepods) were used as control. At the end of the experiment, bottle contents were sieved through 45 μm sieve. The retained eggs were then transferred into a Petri dish and counted under a stereoscopic microscope.

Experiment 3: Egg hatching success experiments

To study the hatching success of the eggs produced by *A. amboinensis*, about 20–30 groups of females were transferred to sets of screw-capped 1L glass bottle filled with the 45 μm pre-sieved seawater (maintained at 27°C). The eggs that were obtained within the first 2-3 hours (approximately, 100-150) were collected using a sieve (45 μm mesh), and then transferred to 6-well plates (five replicates) filled with about 15ml of filtered seawater and maintained at different temperatures (21, 24, 27, 30 and 33°C; i.e. one plate for each temperature). For each temperature, the hatching rate of the eggs was checked and counted under a Wild stereoscopic microscope after a period of 48h. Egg hatching success rate (%) for each replicate well was then calculated as percentage in relation to the initial number of eggs introduced in each replicate well. Hatched eggs were calculated as the difference between the initial number of eggs and the number of eggs unhatched after 48h.

Statistical analysis

One-way ANOVA was used to determine the differences in the effects of various temperatures on egg production rates with the natural food assemblage (Exp. 1) and on egg hatching success (Exp. 3). For the egg hatching success, the data were arcsine transformed prior to analysis. Two-way ANOVA was used to study the combined effects of temperatures and food concentrations on egg production rate (Exp. 2). Tukey's post-hoc tests were conducted to assess differences between treatments. All data were statistically analyzed at confidence levels of 95% using CoStat (Version 6.303, CoHort, USA, 1998–2004). All values are presented as mean \pm standard deviation (SD). Multiple regression model was used to predict egg production rate as a function of food concentration and temperature. The regression analysis was carried out using XLSTAT. Also, the functional response data were fitted to Holling type II models (equation 1), using nonlinear regression by MATLAB Statistics toolbox.

$$\text{EPR} = aC / (1 + haC) \quad \text{Eq. (1)}$$

where EPR is the egg production rate (eggs female⁻¹ d⁻¹), a is the searching or attack coefficient and h is the handling time, and C is the food concentration ($\mu\text{g C l}^{-1}$).

Estimates of food concentration at which 90% of the maximum EPR was reached (C_{90}), maximum egg production (EPR_{max}), a and h were obtained directly from the Holling Type II model.

RESULTS

Exp. 1: Effects of temperature on EPR

The daily egg production rate (EPR) of *A. amboinensis* in the various experimental temperatures varied significantly ($d.f. = 4, f = 135.92, p < 0.05$) between 3.2 and 15.7 eggs female⁻¹ d⁻¹. The average EPR values showed a gradual increase from 4.4 ± 0.9 eggs female⁻¹ d⁻¹ at 21°C to the highest value of 13.7 ± 2.5 eggs female⁻¹ d⁻¹ at 27°C. Then, it showed a substantial decrease in their mean values at 30°C and 33°C (9.4 ± 1.4 and 6.3 ± 0.9 eggs female⁻¹ d⁻¹, respectively). Due to the non-linear response of such biological processes with changing environmental factors, the relationship between the egg production and temperature was better represented by a polynomial function (Fig. 1). The obtained relationship was expressed as:

$$\text{EPR} = -0.1841 T^2 + 10.122 T - 127.52$$

$$(R^2 = 0.645, p < 0.0001, n = 20)$$

where EPR is the egg production rate (eggs female⁻¹ d⁻¹) and T is the temperature (°C).

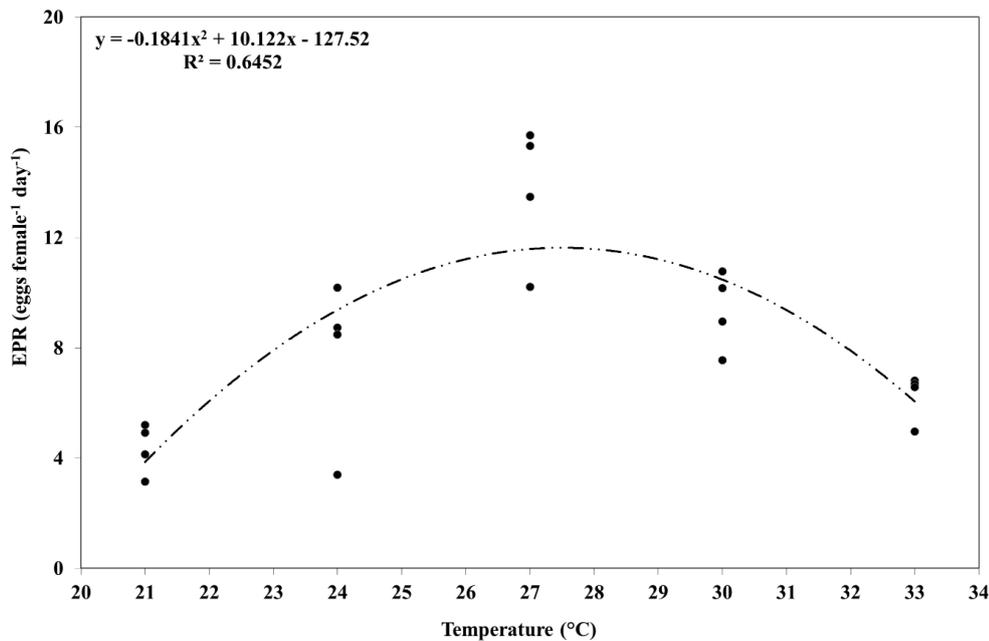


Fig. 1. Egg production rate (eggs female⁻¹ d⁻¹) of *Acartia amboinensis* at different water temperatures.

Exp. 2: Effects of food concentration and temperature on EPR

In the second experiment, *A. amboinensis* was fed with both the natural food assemblage (estimated as 10 $\mu\text{g C l}^{-1}$) as well as different concentrations of *C. muelleri* (108, 231 and 492 $\mu\text{g C l}^{-1}$). The EPR generally increased with increasing food concentration and varied between a minimum of 3.7 eggs female⁻¹ d⁻¹ at 21°C with a food concentration of 10 $\mu\text{g C l}^{-1}$ (natural food) and a maximum 63.9 eggs female⁻¹ d⁻¹ at 27°C with a food concentration of 492 $\mu\text{g C l}^{-1}$. During this experiment, at highest food concentration of 492 $\mu\text{g C l}^{-1}$, the maximum EPRs were recorded at all experimental temperatures (Fig. 2). The maximum EPRs observed at 21, 24, 27, 30 and 33°C were 22.4, 55.0, 63.9, 51.5 and 26.9 eggs female⁻¹ d⁻¹, respectively (Fig. 2). On the other hand, the minimum EPRs was recorded when the copepods were fed with the natural food assemblages. The functional response analysis (Holling type II) proved that EPRs varied significantly with increasing food concentrations at different temperatures ($p < 0.001$) with significant positive correlations ($R^2 = 0.890, 0.906, 0.956, 0.875$ and 0.822 at 21, 24, 27, 30 and 33°C, respectively). Moreover, it was clear that the searching or attack rate (a) was generally higher at 27°C and 30°C (0.142 and 1.407, respectively), while lower rates were observed at 33°C and 21°C (0.045 and 0.032, respectively) (Fig. 2). This resulting in nearly three times higher maximum EPR at 27°C than 21°C. Meanwhile, maximum EPR decreased at the highest temperature of 33°C (Fig. 2). The estimated food concentrations at which 90% satiation occurred were 402 $\mu\text{g C l}^{-1}$ at 21°C, 422.8 $\mu\text{g C l}^{-1}$ at 24°C, 286.6 $\mu\text{g C l}^{-1}$ at 27°C, 253.4 $\mu\text{g C l}^{-1}$ at 30°C and 267.3 $\mu\text{g C l}^{-1}$ at 33°C.

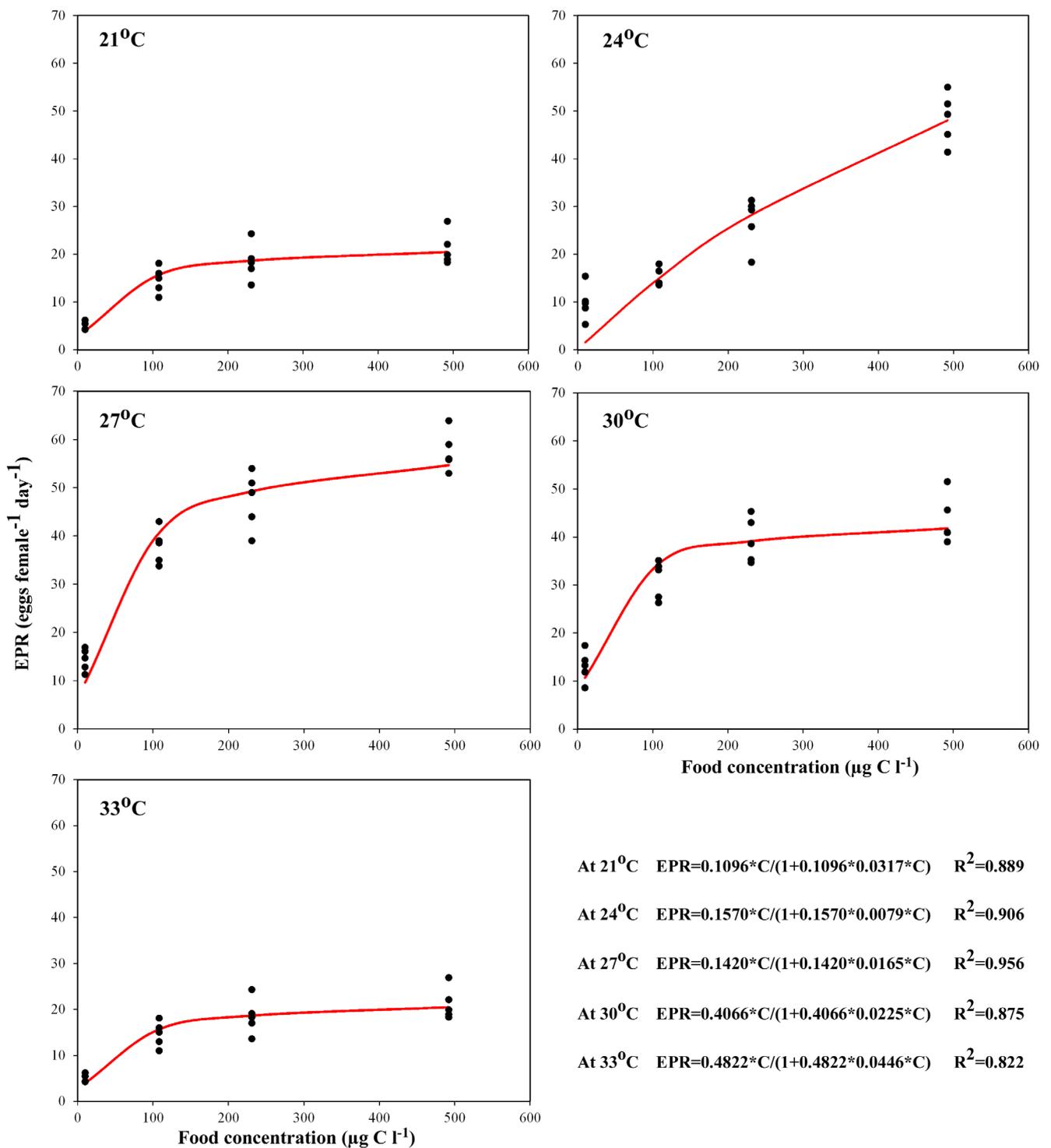


Fig. 2. Egg production rate (EPR) of *Acartia amboinensis* fed with natural food and different concentrations of *C. muelleri* at different temperature regimes. Data from all five replicates are shown. The curves represent the best-fitting functional response model (Holling type II).

Statistically, two-way ANOVA confirmed the significant effects of food concentrations and temperatures on the egg production rate of *A. amboinensis* as well as the possible interactions between these two parameters (Table 1). We have built a predictive model of EPR by stepwise multiple regression using temperature and food concentrations variables (regressors). The effect of temperature and interaction (food concentration X temperature) were not significant ($p > 0.05$) and

were eliminated from the model. Consequently, the best model included only one regressors (food concentrations) which was proven significant ($p < 0.0001$).

Table 1. Two-way ANOVA for egg production rate of *Acartia amboinensis* at different food concentrations and different temperature regimes

Source	<i>d.f.</i>	Sum of squares	Mean squares	<i>f</i>	Pr > F
Food	3	11029.239	3676.413	299.738	< 0.0001
Temperature	4	10503.036	2625.759	214.078	< 0.0001
Food*Temperature	12	2578.296	214.858	17.517	< 0.0001
Error	76	932.171	12.265		

Exp. 3: Egg hatching success

Egg hatching rates varied significantly ($d.f. = 4, f = 140.1, p < 0.05$) at different temperatures and were considerably lower at 21°C and 33°C (averages: $42.4 \pm 5.6\%$ and $45.2 \pm 5.8\%$ respectively). At other temperatures, the mean hatching rates varied between $58 \pm 4.7\%$ and $88.6 \pm 2.1\%$ at 24°C and 27°C, respectively. Statistically a non-linear relation between the temperature and the hatching rate was evident during the study (Fig. 3) and the values are expressed in the following equation:

$$\text{Hatching rate} = -1.1238 T^2 + 61.659 T - 762.15$$

$$(R^2 = 0.822, p < 0.0001, n = 20)$$

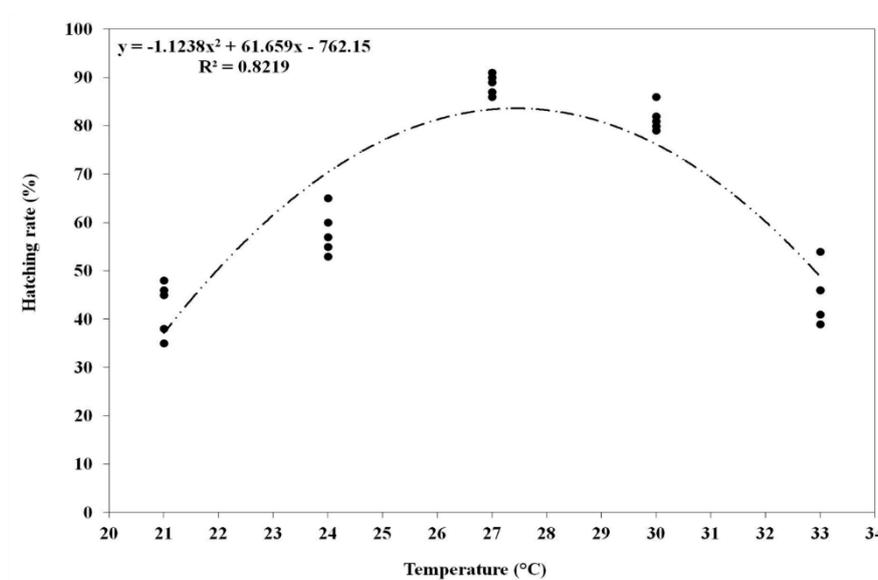


Fig. 3. Egg hatching rate (%) of *Acartia amboinensis* at different temperatures.

DISCUSSION

In the current study, the instantaneous egg production rates of *A. amboinensis* were assessed experimentally for the first time from the oligotrophic warm waters of the Red Sea. The EPR obtained from the first experiment (range: 3.2 and 15.3 eggs female⁻¹ day⁻¹) are analogous with those obtained from other warm water *Acartia* species (Table 2). In comparison to the ecosystems, where all those above-mentioned studies happened, the Red Sea was unique in terms of having higher sea surface temperatures and lack of surplus food availability. This in turn may result in a low egg production rate when compared with temperate *Acartia* species. Moreover, most of the subtropical waters including the Red Sea is expected to have a lower food quality (Kleppel and Hazzard 2000), although in such oligotrophic environment the heterotrophic component can be important (Saiz and Calbet 2011). The lowest egg production of this species at lower temperature 21°C may be due to the loss of costly metabolism and lower production activity (Holste and Peck 2006). It then showed an increasing pattern until the temperature reached to 27°C later declining gradually at further higher temperatures indicating a suitable range of temperature for the Red Sea species. Whereas EPR declined gradually at 30°C reaching a lower value of EPR at 33°C, following a dome-shaped pattern. Such dome-shaped patterns are the result of the optimal temperature thresholds driven by various copepod species-specific physiological tolerance towards the temperature (e.g., Almeda et al. 2010; Ara 2001; Møller et al. 2012), which is clearly noticed in many *Acartia* species where the EPR reaches its maximum at a particular temperature, then declines sharply with further increasing temperatures such as: *A. tonsa* (White and Roman 1992; Holste and Peck 2006; Castro-Longoria 2003), *A. clausi* (Uye 1981, Sekiguchi et al. 1980; Castro-Longoria 2003), *A. bifilosa* (Uriarte et al. 1998), *A. hudsonica* (Sekiguchi et al. 1980), *A. lilljeborgi* (Ara 2001), *A. tsuensis* (Takahashi and Ohno 1996) and *A. discaudata* and *A. margalefi* (Castro-Longoria 2003) and *A. steueri* (Uye 1981; Jo et al. 2019). Our study revealed that the optimal temperature for successful egg production for *A. amboinensis* in the Red Sea waters lies in between 27–30°C, where we observed the maximum EPRs (15.7 eggs female⁻¹ day⁻¹). This particular temperature range for the same species was found suitable for its successful proliferation in the current study as well as, Kenyan and Malaysian waters of the Indian Ocean (Revis 1988; Zuraire et al. 2018).

Table 2. Comparison of egg production rates (eggs female⁻¹ day⁻¹) for different *Acartia* species. (Temp = Temperature and Chl *a* = Chlorophyll-*a*)

Species	Region	Temp (°C)	Range of EPR (mean)	Chl <i>a</i> (mg m ⁻³)	References
<i>Acartia pacifica</i>	Malacca Strait, Malaysia	27	6.2 ± 2.4	0.23–2.89	Yoshida et al. (2012b)
<i>Acartia pacifica</i>	Tioman Island, Malaysia	29.3–31	6.5–13.3 (10.3)	0.24–0.26	Nakajima et al. (2019)
<i>Acartia pacifica</i>	Inland Sea of Japan	22	9	1.5	Checkley et al. (1992)
<i>Acartia fossae</i>	Exmouth Gulf, Australia	21–23	2–9	0.15–0.35	McKinnon and Ayukai (1996)
<i>Acartia erythraea</i>	Inland Sea of Japan	26	12.9	1.5	Checkley et al. (1992)
<i>Acartia erythraea</i>	Tioman Island, Malaysia	29.3–31	7.9–22 (14.7)	0.24–0.26	Nakajima et al. (2019)
<i>Acartia lilljeborgi</i>	Bahia Magdalena, Mexico	19.8–21	2.0–13.0 (6.2)	0.00–5.80	Gómez-Gutiérrez et al. (1999)
<i>Acartia lilljeborgi</i>	Jamaican waters (Hunt's Bay, Kingston Harbour, Lime Cay and offshore)	~28	10.4–88 (69)	1.63	Hopcroft and Roff (1998)
<i>Acartia lilljeborgi</i>	Cananéia Lagoon, Brazil	25.5	13.8–66.8	1.4–13.3	Ara (2001)
<i>Acartia sinjiensis</i>	North Queensland, Australia	23.2	1.3–14.9	1.63	McKinnon and Klumpp (1998)
<i>Acartia steueri</i>	Onagawa Bay, Japan	2.5–22.5	4.1–64.8	-	Uye (1981)
<i>Acartia steueri</i>	Ilkwang Bay, Korea	3.5–24	4.1–13.7	1–9.32	Kang (1997)
<i>Acartia steueri</i>	Busan bay, Korea	8.7–35	10–26	-	Jo et al. (2019)
<i>Acartia steueri</i>	Ilkwang Bay, Korea	12–26	4–10 (7.3)	0.99–11.63	Jung et al. (2004)
<i>Acartia hongii</i>	Kyeonggi Bay, Korea	1.6–26.5	0.8–35	> 1–36.6	Youn and Choi (2007)
<i>Acartia clausi</i>	Ebrie lagoon, Gulf of Guinea	10–28	10–60	7–31	Pagano et al. (2004)
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	Long Island Sound, U.S.A.	24	0–53.2	ND	Kim (1995)
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	East Lagoon, U.S.A.	16–30	23–105 (56)	ND	Ambler (1985)
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	Hunt's Bay, Jamaica	~28	(69.8)	1.63	Hopcroft and Roff (1998)
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	Narragansett Bay, U.S.A.	20	1.6–51.6 (25.3)	1–52.4	Durbin et al. (1983)
<i>Acartia amboinensis</i>	Central Red Sea, Saudi Arabia	27	10.2–16.9 (14.1)	0.2	This study

Table 3. Egg hatching rates (HR) of different *Acartia* species in different parts of the world.

Species	Region	HR (mean)	References
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	East Lagoon, U.S.A.	65–98 (84.3)	Ambler (1985)
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	Long Island Sound, U.S.A.	0–78 (21.1)	Kim (1995)
<i>A. tonsa</i>	Solent-Southampton Water, UK	86–79.3	Castro-Longoria (2003)
<i>Acartia tonsa</i>	Long Island Sound, U.S.A.	0–78 (21.1)	Kim (1995)
<i>Acartia spinicauda</i>	Malacca Strait, Malaysia	11–100 (52.8)	Yoshida et al. (2012a)
<i>A. erythraea</i>	Malacca Strait, Malaysia	10–86 (66.8)	Yoshida et al. (2012a)
<i>A. pacifica</i>	Malacca Strait, Malaysia	18–100 (75.2)	Yoshida et al. (2012a)
<i>Acartia margalefi</i>	Solent-Southampton Water, UK	45.3–54.6	Castro-Longoria (2003)
<i>A. discaudata</i>	Solent-Southampton Water, UK	88–96.6	Castro-Longoria (2003)
<i>A. clausi</i>	Solent-Southampton Water, UK	97.3–98.6	Castro-Longoria (2003)
<i>Acartia lilljeborgi</i>	Cananéia Lagoon, Brazil	69–92 (82.2)	Ara (2001)
<i>Acartia longiremis</i>	Off Newport, U.S.A	20–60	Gómez-Gutiérrez and Peterson (1999)
<i>Acartia amboinensis</i>	Central Red Sea, Saudi Arabia	42.4–88.6 (67.7)	This study

In the second experiment, our results have shown a significant relationship between food concentration and EPRs of *A. amboinensis* at each temperature (after acclimation). The increasing pattern of EPRs at temperature 27°C and food concentration 492 $\mu\text{g C l}^{-1}$ is supporting the fact that the EPRs of *A. amboinensis* can be increased by providing surplus food along with an ambient temperature as seen in other *Acartia* species *in situ* or experimentally (Saiz et al. 1997; Gusmão and McKinnon 2009, 2011; Camus and Zeng 2010; Nogueira et al. 2018; Zhang et al. 2015; Besiktepe and Dam 2020). The average EPR obtained for the present study (with *C. muelleri* as the feed) is comparable to that recorded for *Acartia clausi* (Pagano et al. 2004) and *A. tonsa* (Ambler 1985; Durbin et al. 1983; Kim 1995; Hopcroft and Roff 1998; Pagano et al. 2004). However, it is higher in comparison to those observed by Gusmão and McKinnon (2009, 2011), Isari et al. (2013) and Nogueira et al. (2018, 2019) for *A. grani*, as well as by Gusmão and McKinnon (2009, 2011) for *A. sinjiensis* and by Jo et al. (2019) for *A. steueri*. These inter-specific differences in terms of EPR may be due to the increase of temperature as reported by Durbin and Durbin (1992), Durbin et al. (1983), Lincoln et al. (2001) and Jung et al. (2004) under both natural and experimental conditions and/or the quantity as well as the nutritional quality of the feed used.

In this study, the examined species showed a strong response to availability of food during the 48h. The maximum egg production rates increased nearly three times at 21°C than at 27°C at highest food concentration of 492 $\mu\text{g C l}^{-1}$. This indicates that in the central Red Sea, the EPR of *A. amboinensis* females were extremely limited by the availability of food. This conclusion was based on the observation that the copepods when enriched with high food for 48h resulted in significantly

greater EPR than by copepods kept in ambient Red Sea water (with natural food assemblage) during the same period. Several previous studies demonstrated that the availability of *in situ* surplus food is a pivotal factor in EPR of various copepods, which in turn showed positive relationships between the egg production rates and the phytoplankton biomass (e.g., Durbin et al. 1983; Kiørboe et al. 1988; Calbet and Alcaraz 1996; Gómez-Gutiérrez and Peterson 1999). Our results further indicated that the increasing concentrations of *C. muelleri* had a clear positive effect on EPR of *A. amboinensis*, which are strongly supported by the studies of Gusmão and McKinnon (2009 2011) and Zhang et al. (2015) for different *Acartia* species as well as with the studies of Buttino et al. (2009), Santhanam et al. (2013) and Zhang et al. (2015) for other calanoid species. In the coastal waters and shallow embayment of the study area there are some evidence of change from oligotrophic status toward mesotrophic due to anthropogenic effects such as sewage effluents and other coastal developmental activities (Al-Aidaros et al. 2019a; Al-Amri et al. 2020, El-Sherbiny et al. 2021), which may in turn have a subsequent influence on copepods egg production rate. Finally, our EPRs with natural food assemblages were not saturated, since they improved when supplementary food of *C. muelleri* was provided, which suggests that egg production in the ambient water was limited by food quantity.

In the present study, very similar to other acartiid species (e.g., Laabir et al. 1995; Castro-Longoria and Williams 1999; Ara 2001; Castro-Longoria 2003; Chinnery and Williams 2003), where temperature served as a controlling factor for the successful hatching of the eggs of *A. amboinensis*. Despite of recording lower hatching rates at low temperatures, which is similar to other studies (e.g., Uriarte et al. 1998; Ara 2001; Yoshida et al. 2012a; Jo et al. 2019), the low hatching success in our study at 21°C may be related to the short incubation duration. The low EPR obtained in this study at 24°C and 33°C along with a potential delay in the egg development could partially elucidate why *A. amboinensis* in the central Red Sea waters have lower densities during the winter and summer months. The maximum hatching rate (88.6%) obtained in the current experiment that obtained at 27°C is similar to the results obtained for other warm water *Acartia* species (Yoshida et al. 2012a; Jo et al. 2019; Table 3).

The Red Sea is considered as one of the warmest ecosystems on earth and is fast warming (Chaidez et al. 2017). This may challenge its organisms including copepods that may already lie at their thermal threshold. In this study, even at higher food concentrations, the egg production is negatively affected by temperature. Moreover, in a future warming scenario, the production of *A. amboinensis* will probably be affected even with high primary production in the coastal waters of the Red Sea since the nearshore tropical copepods are relatively close to their upper thermal threshold. In addition, different responses to temperature increase can also cause a trophic mismatch within the ecological community (Richardson 2008) that in turn leads to periods of food shortage for marine copepods and other species.

CONCLUSIONS

This study assessed for the first time the effects of temperature and food concentration on the egg production rate of a tropical calanoid copepod *Acartia amboinensis* collected from the central Red Sea. EPR and hatching rate for *A. amboinensis* increased with temperature from 21 to 27°C but then decreased with further increase in temperature at 30 through 33°C, attaining the highest rates at approximately *in situ* ambient water temperature (26.4–27.1°C) on sampling date. Results confirmed that the food concentration also play an important role in the egg production rate of this particular species. During this study, ambient food concentration showed extremely limitation condition, since they improved when supplementary food of *C. muelleri* was provided; suggesting that egg production in the oligotrophic water of the Red Sea is limited by food quantity. Moreover, this work underlines the need for further studies to increase our knowledge about the effect of different biotic and abiotic variables on the egg production of *A. amboinensis*.

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