Proceedings of the First International Conference on the Culture of Penaeid Prawns/Shrimps

Editors
YASUHIKO TAKI
JURGENNE H. PRIMAVERA
JOSE A. LLOBRERA

AQUACULTURE DEPARTMENT
SOUTHEAST ASIAN FISHERIES DEVELOPMENT CENTER
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on the Culture of Penaeid Prawns/Shrimps

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Edited by

Yasuhiko Taki
Jurgenne H. Primavera
Jose A. Llobrera

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Foreword

Penaeid research at the Aquaculture Department of the Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center is as old as the Department itself, covering close to a decade of experimental studies, field trials, training courses, and extension and information work. The Department has major research stations located in Panay Island, the center of penaeid R & D in the Philippines. Northern Panay boasts of some two dozen hatcheries and nurseries, around 20,000 hectares of brackishwater farms and one processing plant, in ever increasing numbers.

Moreover, the tradition and practice of aquaculture has spanned the centuries in the Philippines, among other Asian countries.

It was within this framework that the Department sponsored the First International Conference on the Culture of Penaeid Prawns/Shrimps from 4 to 7 December 1984 in Iloilo City with the co-sponsorship of the Government of Japan and the American Soybean Association.

The following pages record the efforts of some 300 research workers from 36 countries who have attempted to update information about the culture of penaeid prawns and shrimps, share insights, and propose solutions to gaps in knowledge. This effort complements work that brings to bear the suitable application of observations resulting from scientific inquiry to advance human development.

We wish to thank our co-sponsors for funding support that enabled the Department to host this important conference as well as publish the proceedings.

A.C. SANTIAGO, JR.  
Chief  
Aquaculture Department  
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
Introduction

Among various crustaceans, the marine prawns and shrimps of the family Penaeidae constitute the dominant aquaculture group at present. Although culture contributes only 3 to 5% of current total world production of 1.75 million metric tons of prawns and shrimps, this is expected to increase given full or close to full exploitation of wild stocks, rising fuel costs of trawlers, and coastal pollution.

Most of the early information on penaeids was related to fisheries statistics and research. Only a handful of the papers presented during the 1967 FAO World Conference on the Biology and Culture of Shrimps and Prawns in Mexico City dealt with culture. With the growing interest in aquaculture, a workshop on shrimp farming in the Western Hemisphere was convened in 1975.

Since then, enormous strides have been made on both research and industry levels in captive maturation and seed production, feed development, and grow-out, particularly for the seven commercially cultured species — *Penaeus monodon*, *P. indicus*, *P. merguiensis*, *P. japonicus* and *P. orientalis* in Asia, and *P. vannamei* and *P. stylirostris* in Latin America. Thus, there was a need to consolidate recent achievements and identify new bottlenecks in penaeid culture. Moreover, past symposia and meetings have either covered a wide range of aquaculture commodities or addressed specific aspects, e.g. hatchery or diseases or specific regions, e.g. Southeast Asia. An international forum transcending the limits of geography and cutting across disciplines while focusing sharply on penaeid culture was clearly in order.

The Conference

In December 1984, the First International Conference on the Culture of Penaeid Prawns/Shrimps (FICCPPS) brought together more than 300 researchers and culturists from all over the world to assess the state-of-the-art of penaeid culture, exchange information on latest developments, and chart research directions to the solution of remaining problems. To attain these objectives, the Conference was organized into seven sessions on General Aspects and Country Papers; Biology, Ecology and Physiology; Broodstock Development and Gonadal Maturation; Larval and Postlarval Rearing; Grow-out; Nutrition and Feed Development; and Economics, Marketing and Processing. Each session was introduced by one to three invited review or special papers by pioneers and authorities in their respective fields. Contributed oral and poster presentations were also classified according to session topics.

The Papers

To start off, Alain Michel of Aquacop gives a comprehensive review of the impact of penaeid culture research on commercial activity. With the need for more applied as well as fundamental research, the rate of industry development will depend on how closely researchers will work with producers and farmers. Pinij Kungvankij describes the status of shrimp culture in Asia: hatchery, pond culture, production and investment. Gilberto Escobar does the same for the various regions in America -- North, Central and South America, and the Caribbean -- in terms of species, facilities and status. Prospects for shrimp culture in each region should be improved by such favorable factors as available technology and support services, cheap land and labor, and negatively affected by hurricanes, political instability and economic crises.

Hiroshi Motoh recommends measures to conserve nursery grounds of *P. monodon*, the most important culture species in many Asian countries, and to increase production. Yutaka Uno proposes the application of shrimp ranching, a technique that combines both capture and culture, to the shallow coastal waters of Southeast Asia. He correlates releases of postlarval *P. japonicus* in Hamana-ko Lagoon by the Shizuoka Prefecture! Government since 1978 with increased and stabilized fisheries production.
Seed supply is a major bottleneck in prawn and shrimp culture and many hatcheries are plagued by inadequate and erratic supply of spawners. The state-of-the-art for most penaeid species is the production of larvae and postlarvae from wild spawners or wild females matured in captivity. In her review of maturation in closed thelycum penaeids, J.H. Primavera stresses the need to improve reproductive performance of captive pond broodstock, to develop alternatives to eyestalk ablation, and to define the environmental and nutritional requirements for maturation and other phases of reproduction. Interestingly, I-Chiu Liao observes that the most suitable species for grow-out, *P. monodon*, is relatively difficult to rear, hatchery-wise. Instead of antibiotics, Liao advocates natural selection in the hatchery so that surviving postlarvae are assured of good growth in subsequent culture periods. In contrast, Donald Lightner emphasizes the need to improve chemotherapy for many penaeid diseases, in addition to prevention and control; to identify and catalog diseases in the major culture areas; and to standardize diagnostic procedures.

Already, microcapsules for penaeid larvae are making the jump from experimental tanks to field-testing in private hatcheries. Akio Kanazawa points to the need to study the nutritional requirements of larvae to hasten the development of artificial diets for partial or total replacement of natural foods. For grow-out, information on the nutrition of other penaeid species is fragmentary, in contrast to the well-studied *P. japonicus*. Kunihiko Shigueno predicts a complete shift from natural food to compounded feeds for kuruma shrimp culture in Japan in the next few years. He expresses reservations about the economic viability of the intensive or “Shigueno” system he developed before the increases in power costs brought about by the oil crisis and agrees with Yutaka Hirasawa and Florentino Apud that the extensive and semi-intensive systems will be dominant in the future. To optimize pond use and increase productivity, Hirasawa recommends stocking of different sizes to allow staggered harvesting, and movement of stock from small, high-density compartments to larger grow-out ponds.

In the Americas, production cost is lower in countries with a long growing season such as Ecuador. If market prices for shrimp decrease, Wade Griffin predicts a poor return on investment for U.S. farmers compared to Ecuadorian investors.

The sixty-five contributed and oral presentations proved as excellent and as stimulating as the reviews. Invited review papers on penaeid biology and maturation in open thelycum penaeids could not be available due to unforeseen events.

To expedite publication, a decision was made at the outset to exclude the full text of contributed papers from the *Proceedings*. Moreover, manuscripts were edited only to improve grammar and scientific clarity while retaining the colorful nuances of non-native users of the English language.

We hope that this volume will serve as a useful and informative reference on the present state prawn and shrimp culture for aquaculturists, researchers, students, entrepreneurs and policy-makers.

**Acknowledgements**

In our capacity as Conference organizers, we wish to acknowledge the wholehearted cooperation and sustained enthusiasm of the various FICCPPS committees and subcommittees. We would like to thank all those who helped in the preparation of the *Proceedings*. Special mention goes to Ma. Cecilia Baticados, Nieves Aquino and Marubeth Ortega for some bibliographical research; Teresita Cansancio, Alma Tribo, Nancy Villanueva and Emerita Jayme for typing the manuscripts; Jojo Legaspi for the figures; and Sid Tendencia for the group photo.

The Editors
PART I

REVIEW PAPERS
Overview of Penaeid Culture Research: Impact on Commercial Culture Activity

Aquacop
Centre Oceanologique du Pacifique
B.P. 7004, Taravao, Tahiti, French Polynesia

Abstract The paper gives a comprehensive review of the state of penaeid culture research, its impact on commercial activity, and the major research efforts required to solve remaining problems. After providing a brief historical perspective and describing the dominant penaeid species under culture, the paper discusses the major components or phases of a production system: constitution of broodstock and maturation, larval and postlarval rearing, pregrowing in nursery systems, and grow-out. The extensive, semi-intensive and intensive grow-out systems are described including applied research on fertilization, water management, feeding, etc. needed to support these systems.

Artificial diets (pellets, microcapsules) in relation to basic nutritional requirements and diseases (nutritional, environmental or caused by pathogens) in the larval rearing, grow-out and other production phases, and their respective research priorities are discussed. Lastly, the need for fundamental research in shrimp physiology, digestion, ecdysis, maturation, hormones, pheromones and genetics to complement applied research is highlighted.

Introduction

Shrimp culture has shown tremendous development in the last ten years due to a constant increase in shrimp demand and limited supply in the world market. It has appeared clearly to many investors that the gap could not be filled by fishery catches which are on the decline due to overfishing and increasing operating costs. Shrimp farming is becoming a new agricultural industry for both developed and developing countries. Of total shrimp production estimated to be around 1.7 million tons, shrimp culture which produced under 1,000 tons in the late sixties increased to around 58,000 tons (3% of world supply) in 1983 with projections of over 400,000 tons (18% of world supply) in 1990 (Branstetter, 1983; Vondruska, 1984).

If traditional extensive culture in Southeast Asia has emerged from the skill of the local people, recent developments in different countries derive from or are dependent on research results and technological breakthroughs.

The work of Fujinaga in 1933 (Hudinaga, 1935) opened the way to modern shrimp farming but it was only in the early sixties that the first commercial farms were built in Japan. In the beginning, the culture technique was entirely dependent on wild-caught postlarvae or gravid females, water exchange by tidal action, and natural productivity. We are now able to control the whole system — complete constitution of broodstock in captivity through successive generations, mass production of postlarvae at low cost, pregrowing of high quality juveniles, water management control by pumping and aeration, feeding with artificial diet using local products and byproducts, and medium- to high-density growing systems. All the forms of culture exist worldwide from the extensive to the highly intensive ones and yields range from 100 kg to more than 40 ton/ha/yr. At present, most of the commercial production is harvested from semi-intensive culture in earth ponds with mean yield of around 2 ton/ha/yr relying largely on wild-caught postlarvae.

In most cases the first commercial projects in the seventies demonstrated a lack of reliability in the culture technique, the difficulty of integrating different components of the system, and have brought back to research many new questions and problems. The rate of development of this new activity and success or failure of many projects will depend on the capacity of the research sector to take charge of these problems through strong cooperation with the producers.

This review deals with the state of the research, its existing input on commercial activity and tries to identify the remaining problems to be solved and the major research efforts in the next few years.

The main steps in a complete production system are: constitution of broodstock in captivity, reproduction, larval rearing, pregrowing and grow-out to commercial size (15-40 g). For each of these phases, research has to answer the same basic questions about feed, water quality control and management, disease control, physiological problems, technology of rearing systems, and harvesting.

Dominant cultured species

Almost all the different penaeid species of commercial importance have been tried under culture conditions by groups of researchers or producers worldwide (Wickins, 1976). There is no clear relationship between natural growth rates in the wild and growth performance in culture. Some species which are dominant in a fishery just disappear or do not grow when in ponds, while others of minor importance have good survival and rapid growth.

Until recently, shrimp farming was completely dependent
on the presence of native species for wild postlarvae or wild-caught gravid females but the possibility of constituting broodstock in captivity now allows the rearing of species far from their natural area of distribution.

Culture conditions are different for each species in terms of water salinity (10-40 ppt) and temperature tolerance (18-33°C), soil substrate conditions, tolerance to high density, and protein level requirement in the feeds. The final commercial size varies from 10 to 45 g according to species and rearing techniques. The present dominant cultured species are numerous and reflect mostly the presence of native species (Japan, Korea, Southeast Asia, Central and South America). Shrimp culture is now appearing in countries with no local species (France, Hawaii, Tahiti, Caribbean Islands) and some exotic species are replacing local species because of better economic prospects and growth performance (USA, Spain, Italy, Brazil, New Caledonia). This recent trend will increase and in the future, it is possible that only three or four species will be cultured.

For temperate waters, the best species are *Peneaus japonicus* (Shigueno, 1975), *P. orientalis* and *P. setiferus* which are mainly cultured in Japan, Korea and USA, respectively. *P. japonicus* is also reared under extensive conditions in Brazil, France, Spain and Italy where it has been introduced. This species has received much attention from different groups of researchers and most of the data on penaeids under culture conditions have come from its study. For the tropical zone, the dominant species are different in the Southeast Asian countries (ASEAN, 1978) and the Americas (Rosenberry, 1983, 1984). The giant Indo-Pacific tiger prawn, *P. monodon* (Liao, 1981), *P. indicus, P. merguiensis* and some species of *Metapeneaus* (*M. monoceros, M. ensis*) are the dominant cultured species in India, Taiwan, the Philippines, Indonesia, Thailand and Malaysia. *P. vannamei* and *P. stylirostris* are the two cultured species in Ecuador and Panama (Pretto, 1983). *P. semisulcatus* is tolerant to high salinity and reared in the Middle East countries (Farmer, 1979).

Three species now form the bulk of world production: *P. monodon, P. vannamei* and *P. japonicus*. Other species like *P. schmitti* in South America or some Australian species which could tolerate low temperature conditions should be tested.

According to the environmental conditions, rearing techniques, production economics, and market, it is then possible to select the best species. In some cases two could be chosen, one for winter time and the other for summer, since optimum growth is strictly correlated with temperature.

In the next few years, it seems necessary to define for each species the optimum culture conditions according to the rearing phase and to test new species to increase the geographical range of culture. For some species with wide distribution, the characteristics of different strains must be investigated to select the best one. Recent results obtained by US researchers on intraspecific or even interspecific hybridization (Lawrence et al., in press) could also produce interesting hybrids for growth potential or disease resistance. It could also be useful to apply to shrimps the polyploidy techniques already used experimentally in fish culture.

**Seeding the rearing systems**

Commercial shrimp farms rely on the availability of seeds and the research contribution has been of major importance in developing techniques for mass production of postlarvae first from wild-caught gravid females and more recently from wild-caught adults (Lumare, 1979; Liao and Chen, 1983) induced to mature and mate in captivity all year round. The last achievement has been the controlled constitution of broodstock in captivity through successive generations (Aquacop, 1975, 1979, 1983; Santiago, 1977; Primavera, 1978; Beard and Wickins, 1980; Lumare, 1981) which has extended the possibility of shrimp culture to countries where native species are lacking. Unfortunately, these breakthroughs in techniques have not yet solved the general problem of lack of seed in many countries as the transfer of such technology to the commercial production sector has just begun.

Wild-caught postlarvae are intensively utilized when present in the surrounding waters but there are many constraints such as seasonal availability, large yearly variations in quantity and price, and complaints from fishermen who fear a depletion in the natural recruitment of their fisheries.

Following the work of Dr. Fujinaga (Hudinaga, 1935; Hudinaga and Kittaka, 1967) who was the first to reproduce the species *P. japonicus* from wild females, a large research effort has been developed to identify the fishing grounds where gravid animals can be caught. This sourcing technique developed in Japan has allowed the establishment of many commercial projects in Central and South America and also in Southeast Asia. The constraints are also: seasonal catching, insufficient quantities and large variations in price. For example, during certain periods of the year, gravid females caught in Malaysia are sold for some hundred dollars apiece on the Taiwan market.

To overcome this problem, researchers have developed techniques to control maturation and subsequent spawning from adult size animals caught in the wild and maintained in tanks. The first routine records of such results on a commercial scale are recent (Panama, Ecuador, Mexico). They are obtained by a careful control of rearing conditions. Temperature and photoperiod (Laubier-Bonichon and Laubier, 1976) must be in the range of natural maturation requirements of the species, salinity around 33 ppt and food must be of high quality composed mainly of a variety of fresh food (squid, mollusks, marine worms, etc.). Under these conditions, some species mature and spawn but for others the technique of unilateral eyestalk ablation (Chamberlain and Lawrence, 1981) must be employed to release the action of the gonad-inhibiting hormone. For all species, this last technique dramatically increases the spawning rate. In optimum conditions, the maturation process is very rapid and one female is able to spawn three to four times in one intermoult period, sometimes every three days without reduction in the number and quality of spawned eggs. Variations in light intensity and different pheromones are involved in male behavior and initiate the swimming, chasing and copulation act. For closed thelycum species, sperm deposition is achieved naturally in captivity with a high rate of success for newly molted females and the quantity of sperm is sufficient for the dif-
ferent spawnings. For open thelycum species, copulation takes place in the last hours before spawning and must be renewed with each spawning. As the rate of success is often erratic for some species like *P. vannamei*, artificial spermatophore transfer (Persyn, 1977; Aquacop, 1983) can be practiced. Some large commercial shrimp hatcheries in Ecuador and Panama are producing *P. vannamei* and *P. stylirostris* on a routine basis using these techniques. The constitution of broodstock in complete captivity through successive generations is routinely achieved in Tahiti, New Caledonia, France, Brazil, and Italy for the most important species including *P. monodon, P. vannamei, P. stylirostris, P. indicus, P. merguiensis* and *P. japonicus*. The selection of broodstock can be undertaken when harvesting a pond by sorting the fast-growing animals which are then cultured at low density to ensure maximum growth. Another method is to use particular ponds to fully control the animals from postlarvae to reproductive size. For *P. vannamei*, broodstock can even be produced in intensive systems giving surprisingly high quality spawners.

If the techniques to control reproduction of different penaeid species in captivity are sufficiently known to be transferred to commercial scale, a lot of improvements remain. Research must now be focused on defining the optimum environmental parameters for maturation of each species, developing a maturation feed to replace fresh food, and determining the best rearing conditions to obtain healthy broodstock. It should lead in the future towards complete seed control including the possibility to develop if necessary virus-free broodstock.

**Larval rearing: Postlarval mass production in hatcheries**

To solve the major limiting factor of insufficient availability of postlarvae, mass production in hatcheries has received much attention from researchers and the techniques are now well known although results are not always satisfactory. Three main methods are used (Mock and Neal, 1974). The Japanese method (Hudinaga and Kittaka, 1967) is characterized by low density of around 10 postlarvae (PL)/ℓ, large tanks up to 200 m³, a need for numerous wild-caught gravid females, direct water fertilization by inorganic nutrients to promote algal bloom and production of 20- to 30-day-old postlarvae. This method is well adapted to temperate conditions when it is necessary to produce the seed in a short period of time. But in tropical conditions, these large-volume tanks are difficult to control and results are dependent on variations of water quality and light. If disease occurs, a curative treatment is almost impossible with such large volumes. In contrast, the Galveston method (Cook and Murphy, 1969; Mock, 1974; Aquacop, 1983; Fox, 1983; McVey, 1983) is characterized by high density (100 PL/ℓ), small tanks between 1 to 10 m³, few gravid females, phytoplankton or *Artemia* production (Fox, 1983; Liao et al., 1983) in separate culture systems and production of 1- to 5-day-old postlarvae. It allows accurate control of rearing for water quality, food quantity and quality, and diseases by preventive and curative treatments. The intermediate method (Villaluz et al., 1972) is a combination of the first two with mean density (30 PL/ℓ), medium-size tanks (30 to 50 m³), use of fertilization in the tanks to bloom an algal inoculum cultured separately.

These three methods differ mainly in degree of control and, when practised by experienced hands, give good results. However, it must be mentioned that many existing hatcheries suffer from a lack of reliability in results due to site conditions, inadequate control of algal quality and lack of knowledge of the necessary sanitary procedures like regular dry-out to eliminate the resistant pathogenic bacterial strain problem which is always the most limiting factor in a hatchery operating all year round in tropical conditions. All these results have led in recently established hatcheries to the physical separation of the different steps of the system in rooms which have their independent water pipes, nets, and which can be closed and dried regularly. At the commercial level, the result has been the development of large-capacity production hatcheries (10-20 million PL/month) in Japan, Ecuador, Panama as well as small-scale hatcheries in Taiwan, Thailand and the Philippines. The present problem is not to be able to produce postlarvae, but to optimize the techniques.

To reach the necessary reliability and decrease product costs, research priorities must be focused on:
- characterization of algal quality according to culture techniques;
- replacement of algae and *Artemia* by inert feeds (micro-particles, microcapsules);
- optimization and automation of the procedures; recirculation systems (Wickins, 1983);
- development of strict sanitary procedures like those routinely used for pig husbandry; and
- cryopreservation of sperm, eggs or nauplii to be able to run the hatcheries by sequential period.

**Pregrowing in nursery systems**

Young postlarvae especially PL5 reared in hatcheries are very sensitive to water conditions and predators. High mortality can be observed in the first days when direct stocking is practised in ponds where these two parameters are not controlled. Also, it seems better to have a pregrowing phase (Pretto, 1983) in nursery systems which are developed for receiving postlarvae with water conditions similar to the hatchery and to avoid predators by filter devices. This method allows the accurate counting of animals which will be later reared in grow-out ponds and determination of the right feeding rates. Two methods are used or under development.

Pregrowing for 30 to 60 days in earth ponds of hundreds to thousands of square meters at a density of 50-200 animals/m² is routinely used in semi-intensive production farms (Ecuador, Taiwan). Food is provided by the natural productivity with or without organic or inorganic fertilization and by supplemental compounded feed. Water renewal is done by pumping with a daily exchange rate between 10 and 40%. In these conditions, survival is high (around 80%) and the postlarvae reach a mean weight of 0.5 to 2 g according to the species and site conditions. The problems encountered are mainly benthic (blue-green and green) algal and uni-
cellular algal control, variations in natural productivity and soil conditions, feed quality, harvesting and transfer to grow-out ponds.

Pregrowing in intensive tanks of ten to hundreds of cubic meters at high density (more than 1,000/m³) can be achieved with large water renewal (400%) or low renewal (5%) combined with strong aeration. Food is provided in the form of a high quality pellet and, in the case of low water renewal, by manipulation of the induced bacterial floc. It gives juveniles with an average of 0.1 g size which are very easy to harvest and transfer to the grow-out ponds. These procedures look promising and are being developed on the pilot scale.

The pregrowing phase appears necessary for an optimum management of the semi-intensive or intensive system as a proper transfer of juveniles can be done without losses. Knowing the exact biomass, an accurate feeding plan can be determined for the grow-out phase which is the most food-consuming. It might also be interesting to increase the yield of traditional extensive ponds by a better control of the seeding.

Research needs in earth pond systems include pond design for easy control and harvesting, benthic algal control to avoid the trapping of postlarvae, quantification of the role of natural productivity according to soil preparation, fertilization and water management, and harvesting. For intensive systems, better feeds are needed and recirculating systems should be developed. For both, efficient counting systems will be of great use.

**Grow-out systems**

The grow-out of shrimps (Shigueno, 1975; Liao, 1981; Liao and Chao, 1983; Pretto, 1983; Lawrence et al., 1983) to commercial size in four to five months is the most important phase from an economic point of view because it includes the major costs of labour and feeding. Three different approaches exist: extensive, semi-intensive and intensive.

The extensive method is practised in large earth ponds or lagunas where the density is less than 1 shrimp/m² and gives yields of 50 to several hundred kg/ha. It relies on water exchange by tidal action and feeding through the natural productivity of the ponds which can be enhanced by organic or inorganic fertilization. The major constraints are the variations and availability of water, predator control, inability to drain and dry the ponds, low dissolved oxygen content due to limited water control, and accumulation of organics on the pond bottom. Extensive culture is developed where large areas are available which need only a small input of energy.

Semi-intensive culture is practised in earth ponds of different sizes ranging from thousands of square meters to 50 ha. The smaller ones can be built with cement walls. The densities are 5-15 animals/m² and the yields are 1-6 ton/ha/yr. Water renewal is done by large volume sea water pumping systems and in some cases by both fresh and sea water to control water salinity for optimum growth (e.g. *P. monodon* in Taiwan). The rate of exchange is between 5 and 15% according to density and feeding practices but it is necessary for good management to be able to renew 50% of the water in one pond in case of eutrophication or collapse of phytoplankton blooms. Predators are controlled by filtering devices and by regular bottom drying after each harvest.

Fertilization is done before stocking to promote phytoplankton growth. Daily feeding is by compounded feeds with or without supplementary trash fish according to the estimated shrimp biomass in the pond. Feed conversion rates range from 1.2 to more than 3 according to density, natural pond productivity and feed quality. Right now, this is the most common production technique. It demands accurate control of the water to keep the right level of phytoplankton which maintains water quality and adequate light intensity. If the rate of exchange is too high, the water becomes clear and promotes the growth of blue-green and green benthic algae. With strong photosynthesis and wind action, these benthic algae come to the surface and pile up in corners leading to large reduced organic deposits. If the water renewal is too low, phytoplankton density can increase dramatically with a subsequent rapid collapse which will completely deplete oxygen levels in the early morning hours. Control of phytoplankton balance is thus of primary importance and some aeration devices like aerators or paddlewheels are used in case of emergency during critical periods. A large water exchange must be used from time to time to accelerate and synchronize the molting cycle of the animals. Feed is distributed by hand or by blowers and the feeding schedule varies from one to five times a day with some farmers not feeding one or two days a week. The large variations encountered in final mean weight of the shrimps and in total yield are often due to feed quality. Regular samplings done by cast net or small trawl generally every two weeks are necessary to adjust the quantity of feed. Each farmer has his own feeding curve expressed in percent of estimated biomass decreasing from 10% for the juvenile stage to 2 to 4% before harvest.

All the intensive systems (Shigueno, 1975; ERL, 1978; McVey, 1980) derive from research results. Density is high at around 100 animals/m² or more and the yields are between 1 and 4 kg/m²/crop for tanks of small capacity. The feed must be of high quality to sustain good growth under such conditions. Two approaches have been used or are being developed. The first one needs a huge renewal of water to maintain the optimum level of dissolved oxygen and to discharge rapidly metabolic products like ammonia. The second is based on low renewal of water with strong aeration to maintain organic particles in suspension. These particles colonized by nitrifying bacteria act as a built-in biological filter in the water mass. The Japanese method developed by Dr. Shigueno (Shigueno, 1975) utilizes outdoor circular tanks (1,000 to 2,000 m²) with a double bottom covered with a sand layer to fit the burrowing need of *P. japonicus*. The water renewal generates a circular motion of the water mass and solid organic waste particles are concentrated in the middle of the tank where they are drained out by the outlet flow. Yields reach 2-4 kg/m² but mass diseases can occur and this system is only viable under Japanese market conditions where *P. japonicus* is sold live at a high price. The second method developed by the Coca-Cola and F.H. Prince groups (ERL, 1978) uses flowthrough raceways where water is exchanged several times each day. The tanks are under greenhouse covers for more complete environmental control and the species *P. stylirostris* gives the best results. Production
on the pilot scale reaches 4 kg/m². The third method being developed in Tahiti by Aquacop uses circular tanks with a low water renewal of around 5% and aeration devices to maintain organic particles (un eaten food, feces, etc.) in suspension creating a bacterial floc which changes ammonia to nitrate. A circular motion can be maintained regularly to eliminate part of the solids through a center outlet. Yields of more than 1 kg/m² have been obtained for P. indicus, P. monodon and P. vannamei. This last species appears to have the optimum capacities for such a system.

There are no strict limits between these systems which differ mainly in the degree of control of water quality and feeding. The present tendency everywhere is to increase the control capacity to obtain more reliable results with maximum feeding efficiency.

Many applied researches in the following fields are needed to support grow-out techniques:

— improvement of traditional extensive fish ponds in terms of water management and predator control;
— development of shrimp polyculture to utilize the whole range of natural productivity;
— aspects of organic and inorganic fertilization to manage benthic and plankton productivity which remain essential for good growth;
— control of benthic algae;
— improvement in water management (continuous or sequential) by pumping or aeration devices;
— developing low-cost commercial feeds using local products and byproducts;
— feed management: feeding frequency, distribution techniques, adjustment of feeding rate according to pond conditions; and
— modelling of the systems for optimum management purposes.

Artificial diets

Fresh food remains of major importance either for larvae with the use of unicellular algae and Artemia or for grow-out with the large input of natural productivity and the utilization of trash fish or mollusks.

A major contribution of research has been the development of water-stable pellets of different shapes and sizes (worm-like or crumbles) by using finely ground ingredients and different kinds of binders (gluten, alginate, etc.) prepared by cooking-extrusion, dry or wet pelletizing. Most of these pellets stay physically stable for hours but the leaching of some water-soluble components like vitamin C can be very rapid, preventing sufficient intake to cover shrimp requirements. As already noted, there is a strong need to develop appropriate microcapsules or microparticles to replace algae and Artemia for larval stages. Some commercial products have already appeared but are not easily adaptable to commercial operations. The secondary problem of water pollution which causes bacterial disease is not adequately controlled in most existing hatcheries.

Advances in feed formulation have been important in recent years and many different commercial products are available on the market. They have been developed more by trial and error than through a scientific approach. Some of them give promising growth results in tanks equal to those obtained when feeding fresh food (squid, mussel, etc.). However, the growth is still less than that obtained in ponds where natural productivity is high, indicating the absence of some growth factors. This is mainly due to insufficient knowledge about the basic nutritional requirements for each species in each of the rearing phases (larvae, juveniles, adults). Most of the existing basic data are derived from the various works on P. japonicus (Deshimaru and Shigueno, 1975; Kanazawa, 1983) and have to be extended to other species. For proteins, 10 amino acids are essential (Colvin, 1983; Deshimaru, 1983) but the quantitative requirements have to be determined as the optimum total level varies with each species. The nutritional value of free amino acids or peptides are for example inferior to that of intact protein-bound amino acids. The way to develop feed by simulating the amino acid profile of the best natural food has not always been satisfactory as the combination of protein sources appears to play a role even if the resulting amino acid profile is similar. There is also a requirement in the feed for sterols (Teshima, 1983) and some fatty acids of the linoleic and linolenic series as their de novo synthesis is non-existent in crustaceans (Castell, 1983). The exact role of phospholipids in the promotion of growth is still obscure. The level of total lipid must not exceed 8% and must be provided mainly by fish oils with high levels of polyunsaturated fatty acids. Insufficient data exist about the quantitative requirements for each of the vitamins and minerals (Conklin, 1983). Most of the time, mineral and vitamin premixes are systematically added to the feed. Many improvements are needed particularly to maintain water-soluble components like vitamin C in the feed. The results of recent studies show an important role of unknown growth factors identified in a protein part of squid meal, for example. Incorporation of these growth factors at a low level in a feed leads to dramatic increase in growth.

Much progress has been achieved in the last few years by researchers and food producers in developing different formulated feeds which are sufficient to sustain present activity. Still many improvements can be achieved in the future and research priorities must be focused on:

— determination of quantitative basic nutritional requirements for each species in each phase;
— reducing leaching of water-soluble products by incorporation in a protected form;
— determination of specific growth factors;
— development of adequate feeds for larvae and brood stock;
— development of low-cost feeds from locally available ingredients (least-cost formulation) for semi-intensive culture to supplement natural productivity;
— replacement of costly animal protein by plant protein;
— partial hydrolysis or precooking of complex carbohydrates to improve digestibility; and
— standardization of nutritional tests.

Disease problems

With increasing density and production level, diseases (Sindermann, 1970; Couch, 1978) have rapidly appeared. Records of fungal infections (Lagenidium and Sirolpididum)
(Bland et al., 1976), bacterial attacks (Vibrio and Aeromonas) and even viruses (Baculovirus) are frequent in hatcheries (Lightner, 1983). Most of these problems are due to insufficient control of the rearing systems and absence of sanitary procedures as in terrestrial husbandry (disinfection, regular dry-out, separate equipment for each tank, separate rooms for maturation, spawning, hatching and larval rearing). The combination of minor errors generally leads to a weakness of the larvae which become more sensitive to disease. Antifungal products like Treflan or malachite green and antibiotics used at low levels in the tanks can achieve consistent results. However, after six to eight weeks of production, it seems necessary to have a dry-out to eliminate bacterial strains which have become increasingly resistant and pathogenic. Special care must be focused on potential toxicity or subtoxicity of some components of the system by biological tests on nauplii which are very sensitive to the pollutants.

In the grow-out phase, fungus (Fusarium) (Shigueno, 1975), parasitic protozoa (Microsporidia), various bacterial attacks, and diseases often due to nutritional, environmental or toxic problems (ascorbic acid deficiency, cramped tail, muscle necrosis, toxic blue-green algae, black gill disease) are recorded (Lightner et al., 1977; Lightner, 1983). An infectious hypodermal and hematopoietic necrosis (IHHN) due to a virus has been recently discovered in the juvenile stages of P. stylirostris leading to high mortalities. It could explain the poor survival of this species in Central and South America but its appearance could also be related to stress under culture conditions.

It now seems important to distinguish between true pathogens which have an infectious character and ubiquitous ones which are opportunistic and become dangerous only when the dynamic balance between host and pathogen is disrupted by culture conditions. The accurate characterization of bacterial strains involved in shrimp culture, mainly in hatcheries is needed.

**Basic research**

If the preceding applied researches will have a significant impact on commercial production in the short term, they need to be sustained by more fundamental researches in the field of shrimp physiology (Waterman, 1960), basic knowledge about feeding and digestion (Gibson, 1983), growth phenomena, hormonal control of ecdysis, endocrine control of vitellogenesis, characterization of sex pheromones involved in the mating behaviour, influence of sublethal culture parameters on growth performance (low dissolved oxygen, excess of ammonia and nitrates, etc.), effect of feeding on quality product (geosmin for example), and cryopreservation of sperm and eggs. In genetics, the characterization of different species and populations must be analysed by enzymatic electrophoresis and polyploidy techniques must be developed.

**Conclusion**

Many research and development projects have emerged in different parts of the world creating a new industry with bright prospects. The demand for shrimp is continuously growing while catches from traditional fisheries are near their maximum sustainable yields. Estimates indicate that production will have to increase by 55,000 ton/yr starting from 1990 to satisfy the three main markets of Japan, USA, and Europe (Vondruska, 1984).

Considerable progress has been attained in the last years. During the meeting on shrimp farming in the Americas held in Galveston in 1977, three research priorities were identified: completing the life cycle, nutritional requirements, and developing economical commercial feeds. In 1984, many of these goals have been achieved and have begun to have major impact on commercial activity.

The ability to rear broodstock of the most important species allows independence of local species and has considerably enlarged the potential geographic zone for shrimp culture. It is thus possible to choose the best species according to environmental and socio-economic conditions and to start trials on genetic selection.

Increased reliability in seed production with a decrease in production costs and the transfer of larval rearing technology to many places of the world is solving the most immediate limiting factor of insufficient seed quantities.

The different grow-out techniques will continue to improve. The debate between extensive versus intensive is in fact a question of land availability and production costs which vary considerably with each country. Extensive culture uses more land and water, requires less feed with reliance on natural productivity but is more sensitive to environmental conditions, predators and competitors, and needs more labour. On the contrary, the intensive system demands less land and water, requires a well-balanced costly feed but is less sensitive to variations in external parameters. It also has better control of predators and potential diseases and needs less labour for routine work and harvesting as most of the work can be mechanized. The choice between the two systems is essentially an economic one.

The pregrowing and grow-out techniques are evolving rapidly in the direction of better control of water management, predators and feeding. Research has increasingly defined the limits of the major environmental parameters and has developed in collaboration with the feed producers different formulations that are regularly tested and improved. Feed development has been more by trial and error than by scientific approach but present results are sufficient to demonstrate the technical and economical feasibility of culture under different conditions.

Looking at the major constraints that remain, it is easier to focus on the research effort. For the short term, there is a need to optimize the different phases of the culture system to gain consistency in results and to decrease production costs. This effort must be developed mainly in broodstock maintenance, mass production of postlarvae in hatcheries, efficient commercial feed for larvae, juveniles and adults, and improvements in extensive and semi-intensive techniques. Long-term research must be developed in hormonal control of reproduction, genetics, cryopreservation of sperm and eggs, basic nutritional requirements in vitamins and vitamin-like growth factors, diseases and physiology to have a better understanding of individual internal mechanisms and
to gain better control of culture.

Shrimp culture techniques are far from their optimum at a time when commercial operations are already profitable under different socio-economic conditions. We can also look forward to major improvements which will lead to increased productivity with a parallel decrease in costs which in turn will broaden the market.

It is important to analyse the reasons not only for success but also for failure. Technology can succeed only if applied under the right conditions. Many failures have been due to introduction of technology inadequate according to site constraints and logistic availability.

The management of production units is also essential. Too often investors have focused their action on biological and technological problems, forgetting the importance of routine decisions and procedures in any business.

Shrimp culture activity is just emerging from its infancy. The success of the broiler industry was achieved only after more than 20 years of intensive scientific and commercial effort, and the shrimp industry will undoubtedly follow the same way.

The rate of development will depend on how closely researchers will work with producers to identify the constraints and to integrate available techniques according to the socio-economic conditions of each country.

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Overview of Penaeid Shrimp Culture in Asia

Pinij Kungvankij
FAO/UNDP NACA
Aquaculture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

Abstract  Marine shrimp farming is a century-old practice in some Asian countries. Past sluggish development of the industry is mainly due to the inadequacy of hatchery technology resulting in inconsistent and insufficient supply of shrimp fry hence offsetting large scale development of the industry. Recent success in hatchery techniques coupled with high market demand have generated world-wide interest in developing shrimp farms in Asia. This paper attempts to make an in-depth review of the various aspects confronting the development and expansion of the shrimp farming industry.

The cultural significance of the various penaeid shrimps cultivated in Asia (Penaeus monodon, P. japonicus, P. indicus, P. merguiensis and P. orientalis) is critically reviewed in relation to other subtropical species such as P. stylirostris and P. vannamei successfully cultivated in South America. The major constraints confronting large scale cultivation of P. monodon and other commonly important species are discussed and research gaps outlined. Present status of hatchery techniques is discussed and the need for standardization of viable techniques for technology packaging and verification is highlighted to ensure reliable source of seed supply. The various problems in hatchery development, including development of artificial larval feeds, are emphasized. This paper attempts to compare the technological and financial inputs in high technology with traditional farming practices in the region. The grow-out technology in relation to farming intensity and level of investment are outlined with special reference to the socio-economic condition in Asia. The need to develop viable and appropriate shrimp farming technology within the technical and financial capabilities of the rural small shrimp growers is discussed.

Introduction

Marine shrimp farming is a century-old practice in many Asian countries. Until a decade ago, this commodity was still generally considered a secondary crop in traditional fish farming practices. In Thailand, Malaysia, Singapore and India, shrimp fry were accidentally trapped in the salt beds and paddy fields around estuarine areas, whereas in Indonesia and the Philippines, marine shrimps enter milkfish ponds during tidal exchange. Only recently have farmers eventually converted these fields into shrimp farms due to the higher income derived from the shrimp harvest compared to the principal crop.

In traditional shrimp farming, wild shrimp fry either enter during tidal water exchange or are intentionally gathered from the wild and stocked directly in ponds. Production is dependent on the seasonal abundance of wild fry which fluctuates widely from year to year. In addition, water depth in rearing ponds is generally shallow which often leads to extreme fluctuations in water temperature and salinity causing large-scale mortality. Predation by carnivorous fishes gaining entrance to the ponds also accounts for considerable loss of shrimps. Production relies almost entirely on natural pond fertility since fertilizers and feeds are not generally used. Consequently, yields are low in the range of 100-300 kg/ha/year.

Over the years, some improvements in the traditional methods of culturing shrimp have gradually evolved. For instance, stocking density could be increased with the aid of a water pump. Furthermore, increasing water depth in the pond favors shrimp growth since temperature can be maintained and mortality is reduced. Production can also be raised by increasing stocking density in the pond with fry collected from the wild. However, supply of seed from the wild is still inconsistent and insufficient so that large scale development of the industry cannot be realized.

In 1934, Dr. Fujinaga, the world’s acknowledged father of shrimp culture, successfully spawned and partially reared larvae of Penaeus japonicus in Japan (Hudinaga, 1942). The success in larval rearing and subsequently in the grow-out of shrimp had brought the art to a point where mass culture was possible. In 1963, Mr. Harry Cook of the Galveston Laboratory in Texas, U.S.A. in collaboration with Dr. Fujinaga, successfully spawned and reared the larvae of two American species, P. setiferus and P. aztecs (Cook and Murphy, 1966). The technique was later adopted in Taiwan, Philippines, Thailand and Malaysia for local species such as P. monodon, P. merguiensis, P. indicus and P. orientalis.

However, recent developments have shown that, with proper management, yield in traditional ponds can be increased to 500-800 kg/ha/year without supplementary feeding. In the meantime, yields equivalent to 5 ton/ha/year have been obtained in Thailand with supplementary feed (Kungvankij et al., 1976) and 10 ton/ha/year in Taiwan with artificial feed and aeration (Liao, 1977).

The long gestation period in shrimp farming development is partly due to insufficient technical and financial input to demonstrate its commercial viability. Shrimp farming on a commercial scale has been developed into an important food industry through long years of trial and error by shrimp farmers.
farmers in such countries as Japan, Taiwan, Indonesia, Thailand, India, Malaysia and Philippines. However, it is new in other Asian countries such as China, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka and many countries in the Indo-Pacific region. High market demand and export price, growing opportunities in shrimp farming, and generation of employment and foreign exchange earnings have encouraged many countries rich in aquatic resources in the region to place high priority on the development of the shrimp culture industry.

**Species cultured**

The shrimp species cultured in Asian countries belong to the genera *Penaeus* and *Metapenaeus* of the family Penaeidae. Among the dozen species of these genera, *Penaeus monodon*, *P. japonicus*, *P. merguiensis*, *P. indicus*, *P. orientalis* and *Metapenaeus ensis* are the important ones.

**Penaeus japonicus and P. orientalis**

Aquafarming of *P. japonicus* is well established in Japan and Taiwan. Spawners are readily obtained in large numbers from the wild. It is hardy and can withstand handling. Survival rate for long distance transport of live adult shrimp is high. However, it cannot tolerate low salinity and high temperature and requires sandy bottom for grow-out ponds as well as high protein (about 60%) feed for best growth. The other temperate species, *P. orientalis*, is cultured in China and Korea. It has a single pronounced spawning season during spring. Since both shrimps are temperate species, the period of hatchery operation is relatively limited.

**Penaeus monodon**

Known as the tiger or jumbo shrimp, *P. monodon* is the most common or well-known species in Southeast Asian countries. It is the fastest growing of all shrimp species tested for culture. In ponds, fry of 3 cm have been grown to a size of 75-100 g in 5 months at the stocking density of 5,000/ha. Forster and Beard (1974) were able to grow *P. monodon* to 25 g in 16 weeks in a tank stocked at 15/m². Kungvankij et al. (1976) grew it to 42 g in 210 days in earthen ponds. Liao (1977) grew it to 35 g in three months in a tank stocked at 15/m². It is euryhaline and grows well at a salinity range of 15-30 ppt. It is hardy and not readily stressed by handling. Presently, the major source of fry for stocking still comes from the wild but the supply is sparse. Although several hatcheries have been established notably in the Philippines Taiwan and Thailand, fry production is not steady due to dependence on spawners which are difficult to obtain in sufficient numbers from the wild. *P. monodon* females are more difficult to mature in captivity than those of other penaeid species, although excellent progress on this aspect is being achieved. Reliable techniques for maturation are also being developed.

**Penaeus indicus and P. merguiensis**

Generally, the characteristics of these species are the same. Based on actual field surveys, there are many fish farmers who cannot distinguish the two species from each other. However, there are some indications of behavioral differences between these two species. *P. indicus* prefers sandy substratum and is difficult to harvest by draining the pond, while *P. merguiensis*, found most frequently in ponds with muddy bottom, moves out of the pond readily when water is drained. Gravid females of these species are easily obtained in large quantities from the wild and can mature in captivity. Larval rearing techniques are well developed. However, larvae of these species are found to be weaker than other species and juveniles and adults cannot stand rough handling. Large quantities of fry can be obtained from natural grounds and growth rate is relatively high, reaching 12-15 g within the first three months of culture. With the present technology, great difficulty has been encountered after three months of culture in rearing this shrimp without incurring heavy mortality.

**Metapenaeus ensis**

This species is very tolerant to low salinity ranging from 5 to 30 ppt and high temperature of 25 to 45°C. Wild fry are abundant, have short growing periods and survival in ponds is usually high. This shrimp usually does not grow to a large size and has a low market price compared to other species. However, studies on the culture of this species are limited. Production usually comes from a trapping pond or as a by-product species in other shrimp farms.

**Penaeus vannamei and P. stylirostris**

There are two neo-tropical species which have been successfully cultivated in America. In the U.S.A., yields obtained within a culture period of 144 days were 1,320-2,180 kg/ha/crop and 1,722 kg/ha/crop in intensive culture and 747 kg/ha/crop and 776 kg/ha/crop in extensive culture of *P. vannamei* and *P. stylirostris*, respectively (Chamberlain et al., 1981). These species show a fairly fast growing rate in ponds, particularly in countries like Panama and Ecuador. Many farmers and researchers want to adopt their culture in the Southeast Asian region as a substitute for *P. indicus* or *P. merguiensis* because of heavy mortality normally encountered for these two species after a culture period of three months. The possibility of transplantation of these animals should be carefully considered as a new environment may not be suitable to allow continuous propagation of such species. Introduction of new pathogenic organisms may also occur and could affect endemic species.

**Present status**

**Hatchery design**

Basically, there are two hatchery systems: the large-tank hatchery which was originally developed in Japan and is still popularly used in many countries in the Southeast Asian region (China, Taiwan, Thailand, Philippines, Indonesia, etc.) and the small-tank hatchery that originated from Galveston, Texas, U.S.A. and has been applied in the Philippines and, to some extent, Malaysia and Thailand.

Big-tank hatchery. The big-tank hatchery system was established in Japan by Kittaka in 1964. This was based on the idea of utilizing naturally occurring diatoms in the rearing
Fig. 1A. Lay-out of medium scale hatchery.

Fig. 1B. Lay-out of combined hatchery system.
water as food for the larvae. To ensure the growth of diatoms, water in the larval rearing tanks is enriched with fertilizer daily. The concrete tanks used are either rectangular or square with a capacity ranging from 40 tons to 2,000 tons, located outdoor or indoor. The depth of the tanks ranges from 1.5 to 2 m. For indoor tanks, transparent roofing is provided to allow sunlight penetration. In this system, spawning, larval rearing and nursery operation are done in the same tank. Technical grade fertilizers are applied directly to the tanks after removal of spawners and hatching of eggs. This operation minimizes the manpower and technical input such as provision for an algal culture room and algal specialist.

**Small-tank hatchery.** This system was developed in the National Marine Fisheries Service in Galveston, Texas, U.S.A. in late 1960. It utilizes separate algal or diatom cultures for controlled feeding of larvae. Due to inconsistent supply of spawners, the design of the hatchery is much smaller in size than the Japanese system. Spawning tanks are separated from larval rearing tanks and both are usually made of plastic or fiberglass. The sizes of larval rearing tanks range from 1000 to 2000 ℓ and the spawning tanks from 100 to 250 ℓ. The stocking density per tank is high (200-300 nauplii/l) so that larvae can be reared only up to P₁-P₃. Thus, an earthen pond or concrete nursery tank is necessary for further rearing of juvenile size before stocking in grow-out ponds.

Combined hatchery system. Both hatchery systems mentioned above have their advantages and disadvantages in terms of environmental requirements, availability of spawners, etc. (see Table 1). In Japan and China, for instance, where the commonly cultured species are *P. japonicus* and *P. orientalis*, respectively, there are no problems in the availability of spawners and water supply. The capacity of a hatchery tank can be as big as 2,000 m³. On the other hand, in some Southeast Asian countries, the supply of *P. monodon* spawners is limited. In addition, farmers prefer bigger-sized larvae for stocking in grow-out ponds. Therefore, a hatchery design for this species has been developed with the combined advantages of both systems to meet the requirements of farmers and maximize tank utilization (Kungvankij, 1982). This system makes use of spawning tanks with capacities of 1,000-2,000 ℓ, larval rearing tanks with capacities of 1,000-3,000 ℓ and nursery tanks with capacities of 30-100 tons capable of rearing the larvae up to P₃₀ (Fig. 1).

**Hatchery operation**

**Spawners.** Spawners are collected by professional fishermen from coastal waters. Although spawning occurs throughout the year, there are distinct periods when majority of the shrimps spawn. There are two pronounced spawning seasons for *P. monodon* in Southeast Asian waters, December to March and June to September. For *P. merguiensis* and *P. indicus*, it is from June to September and for *P. japonicus*, April to August.

In Japan, hatchery operators can easily procure spawners from fish markets because shrimps are sold live to consumers who prefer live over dead ones. In contrast, hatchery operators in some Southeast Asian countries must deal directly with fishermen to secure live spawners. In most cases, they provide the fishermen with necessary facilities such as aerators, tanks, etc. and teach them proper handling techniques to ensure getting quality spawners.

**Hatchery management**

**Big-tank hatchery.** Once the spawners arrive in the hatchery, they are kept in holding tanks and then placed in the hatchery tank just before sunset. The volume of rearing water for spawners in the spawning tank varies from species to species. The normal practice for *P. japonicus* is one spawner/2 m³; *P. monodon*, one spawner/5 m³; *P. indicus* or *P. merguiensis*, one spawner/m². An initial water level of 100 cm (half of total depth) is generally maintained. Spawning usually occurs the night of transfer from holding to larval rearing tank. Spawners are then removed in the early morning of the following day. Often, the number of eggs or nauplii is few, and the spawners may be maintained in the tank for one more night. Soon after hatching, 3 ppm KNO₃ and 0.3 ppm Na₂HPO₄ are added to fertilize the rearing water. The amount of fertilizers applied thereafter depends on the density of the plankton present in the rearing water. Shrimp larvae begin to feed on plankton when they reach the protozoa stage. During this stage, about 10-20 cm of fresh filtered water is added daily depending upon the density of plankton. If the density of plankton is not enough to feed the larvae, soybean cake, soybean curd, egg yolk, or fertilized eggs of oyster are usually given as supplementary feed. During the mysis stage, rotifer (*Brachionus plicatilis*) or brine shrimp (*Artemia salina*) nauplii are fed. In the early postlarval stage, brine shrimp is usually given as feed. Once the postlarvae reach the sixth day (P₆), they are fed with minced mussel,

### Table 1. Comparison between big- and small-tank hatchery systems.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>System</th>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>Disadvantages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Galveston system</strong></td>
<td>i) Low initial investment.</td>
<td>i) Not able to raise larvae up to P₂₂ at the same density.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ii) Only small number of spawners required for one operation.</td>
<td>ii) Nursery ponds required.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>iii) Larvae from nauplius (N) to postlarva 1 (P₁) could be reared at high density.</td>
<td>iii) More manpower required (in the case of mass production).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>iv) Easy to control diseases.</td>
<td>iv) High cost of maintenance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1.1 Advantages</strong></td>
<td>i) Larvae can be raised up to P₂₂ in the same tank.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ii) Less manpower used for operation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>iii) Less manpower used for operation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>iv) Low cost of maintenance.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1.2 Disadvantages</strong></td>
<td>i) Larvae can be raised up to P₃₀ in the same tank.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ii) Nursery tanks or ponds not required.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>iii) High cost of initial investment.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Japanese system</strong></td>
<td>i) Larvae can be raised up to P₂₂ in the same tank.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2.1 Advantages</strong></td>
<td>ii) Nursery tanks or ponds not required.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>iii) Larvae can be raised up to P₂₂ in the same tank.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>iv) Low cost of maintenance.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2.2 Disadvantages</strong></td>
<td>i) High cost of initial investment.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ii) Difficult to control diseases.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>iii) High cost of initial investment.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
clam meat or formulated larval feeds with a corresponding decrease in ration quantity of brine shrimp nauplii until they reach Pa. Beyond this stage, the larvae are fed solely with minced mussel, clam meat or artificial diets 3 to 4 times daily. To ensure sufficient amount of algae in the rearing tank, an improvement of this system makes use of pure cultures of diatom before application of fertilizer.

**Small-tank hatchery.** In this system, the algae are cultured separately and fed to the larvae at a pre-determined quantity. *Skeletonema costatum* and *Tetraselmis* sp. are produced generally in 300-ℓ to 1-ton tanks at a density of $3.5-5 \times 10^6$ cells/ml or at $3.3-4 \times 10^6$ cells/ml (Mock and Murphy, 1974) in algal culture rooms.

The spawners are placed individually in spawning tanks. Separately spawned egg batches are selected and distributed to larval rearing tanks or discarded as required. Individual spawning also facilitates the removal of dead spawners and unfertilized eggs after hatching of nauplii and the transfer of nauplii to larval rearing tanks. In the larval rearing tanks, algal cells are added daily during the protozoea stage while newly-hatched *Artemia* are given during the mysis and early postlarval stages.

**Combined system.** In the combined system, spawners are placed individually in spawning tanks. The spawner is removed from the tank the morning after spawning. Prior to cleaning, the eggs are either collected and washed or 2/3 of the water is drained from the spawning tank through filter nets and then replenished with new water, thus allowing the eggs to hatch in the same tank. The number of hatched nauplii is estimated, then nauplii are transferred to a bigger tank (20-100 tons) if the count after hatching averages more than 0.5 million (20-30 nauplii/ℓ). In this tank, the larvae are reared until P25. On the other hand, if the number of nauplii is less than the minimum requirement for big tanks, stocking is carried out in small larval rearing tanks at the rate of 100-200 larvae/ℓ. The larvae are reared either to P2 or P6 after which they are transferred to the big tank and reared to P25 (Fig. 1A, B).

Both pure algal culture and direct fertilization of rearing water are used in this system. This practice is typical in Taiwan, Thailand and the Philippines.

**Pond culture system**

Although shrimp farming has been developed for more than a century in Southeast Asian countries, most shrimp farmers still follow the traditional method of extensive farming. Such traditional practice is characterized by low production of about 100-300 kg/ha/year, irregular pond size and shape, and relatively low technical and financial input. Due to a high market demand, high export price and low acquisition cost of land, these traditional farms are still commercially profitable despite low production.

Shrimp yield in ponds can be increased by applying modern farming techniques such as intensification of culture operations through regularization of pond sizes, increasing stocking density, employment of aeration, application of formulated feed, etc. This will mean a considerable increase in financial and high technology inputs which most small farmers in developing countries may not be able to afford.

![Fig. 2. Typical extensive pond in Thailand.](Image)

**Traditional or extensive shrimp farming.** This type of farming system is characterized by irregular shapes and sizes of ponds which range from 3 to 20 ha. Usually, each pond has a peripheral ditch 10-20 m wide and 30-60 cm deep. In Thailand, the middle portion of the pond is slightly elevated to about 40 cm (Fig. 2) while the pond bottom is entirely flat in the Philippines.

Extensive farming has been considered the simplest culture approach. Seedstock normally comes from the wild and supply is seasonally dependent. Shrimp fry found in these farms either accidentally gain entrance during water exchange or are intentionally stocked by the farmer with fry collected from the wild. Extensive farming employs very low stocking density, in the range of about 3,000 to 5,000 fry/ha.

In this grow-out scheme, supplementary feed is not given and water management is by tidal fluctuations. Typical examples of traditional shrimp farming are found in Thailand, Indonesia, Philippines and Malaysia.

In Thailand, Indonesia and Malaysia, shrimps occur in ponds by mere opening of the pond gates during high tide. The natural stocks of shrimp seeds are brought in by the incoming water. The gates are then closed at low tide. Trapped fry are allowed to grow inside the pond for two months before harvest. In contrast, shrimp farmers in the Philippines do not rely on natural shrimp seed that come in with the tide water but stock their ponds with fry collected from the wild usually in polyculture with milkfish. The average stocking density ranges between 2,000 to 5,000 fry/ha. In both culture approaches, yield per unit area is very low.
During the past decade, improvement and innovations in the extensive shrimp culture method have appreciably increased production. Among these improved techniques are application of lime prior to stocking to condition the soil, use of pesticides to control or eradicate pests and predators, application of organic or inorganic fertilizers to enhance natural food production, increased pond water depth, and increased stocking density either through pumping water daily or direct stocking. These innovations generate higher and more consistent yields. The extensive culture approach, despite many drawbacks, is still the most profitable enterprise for subsistence fish farmers with very low capital.

**Improved traditional or semi-intensive system.** In this farming method, the improvement over the traditional method is the systematic lay-out of ponds. Ponds are generally rectangular in shape with size of about 1-3 ha and depth of 0.8-1.2 m. Each pond has separate inlet and outlet gates to facilitate water exchange, pond preparation and harvesting. A diagonal ditch, 5-10 m wide and 0.3-0.5 m deep extending from inlet to outlet is also constructed to facilitate draining of water and collection of shrimp during harvest (Fig. 3). This also serves as hiding place for shrimp during daytime. This method involves higher stocking rates, use of supplementary feed, and a regular water management scheme. Current practices vary from country to country and within each country, the normal practice of stocking "seeds" in the semi-intensive system varies from 28,000 to 50,000 fry/ha. Feed, either formulated or fresh, are given daily to the stock as supplemental feed in addition to the existing natural food produced through application of fertilizers. This system also requires the use of a water pump to maintain good water quality.

While this approach would substantially increase yield per cropping, the use of supplemental feeds entails additional cost that generally accounts for the biggest share in operational expenditure. Hence, this deters most subsistence farmers from actually venturing into such level of farming operation.

The Amakusa type or pen culture in Japan can be classified under this level of culture. It is an artificial enclosure constructed along shallow bays and intertidal areas for holding and raising shrimps. It consists of a rectangular or square vertical wall of concrete, constructed to a height of 1 m for holding water during low tide and a wooden frame with nylon netting set on top of the concrete wall to prevent escape of shrimp and facilitate water exchange during high tide. This culture method takes advantage of a large body of water that is constantly renewed through tidal fluctuations and by water current (Fig. 4). The dimensions of the enclosure range from 2,000 to 10,000 m$^2$ with a depth of 1.0-1.5 m. Stocking rate is between 20 and 30/m$^2$. Average production is about 300-400 g/m$^2$ or about 3-4 ton/ha/year.

**Intensive culture.** This culture operation is the most sophisticated system and requires very high financial and technical inputs. Rearing facilities are either earthen ponds or concrete tanks. The distinct features of this system include the use of hatchery-produced seed, high stocking density, use of formulated diets, application of aeration to increase dissolved oxygen level in ponds, and an intensive water management scheme.

Sizes of pond or tank vary from 500 to 5,000 m$^2$ as found in Japan, Taiwan, Philippines and Thailand. Dikes may be of pure earthen material, earth coated with plastic sheets or concrete. Most designs include separate inlet and outlet gates or small water inlets for flowthrough purposes. Drain-out system is provided in the form of a centrally located drain pipe, a drain gate (sluice or monk type) or a combination of both (Fig. 5).
An excellent intensive culture method for kuruma shrimp called the "Shigueno type" has been developed in Japan. Culture facilities consist of circular concrete tanks with capacities ranging from 1,000 to 2,000 tons and an average height of 2 m. Tank bottom is provided with a sand substrate and water circulation is effected by a flowthrough system (Fig. 6). Shrimp are fed daily with a high protein formulated diet. Stocking density ranges from 200 to 250/m² and average production ranges from 1.5 to 3 ton/crop in a 1,000-ton tank and about 10-20 ton/ha/year in earthen ponds with concrete dikes.

Aquaculture production of shrimps in Asia

Various hatchery and nursery techniques have been developed over the decade and are being adopted by both private and government hatcheries. However, hatchery seed production of tiger shrimp is still inconsistent and erratic. Meanwhile, 80% of shrimp farms in Asia still operate on the traditional or extensive method which relies on wild fry or fry collected from trapping ponds.

Over 1.5 billion postlarvae of *P. japonicus* and *P. monodon* are produced annually in Taiwan and Japan. The farmer in these countries uses entirely hatchery-bred postlarvae for stocking the pond. In Japan, only 50% of postlarvae produced are used for grow-out ponds while the rest are stocked in open waters.

Among Southeast Asian countries, Philippines, Indonesia and Thailand are the main producers of *P. monodon* postlarvae. The Philippines leads in seed production of tiger shrimp with 300 million per annum, while Thailand and Indonesia produce only about 100 million each per annum. However, there is need for a larger amount of fry to support the growing needs of shrimp farmers. The recent development of shrimp farming techniques and the consequently upgraded traditional shrimp farming in the region have created the need for more fry.

At least 0.12 million tons of crustaceans were produced through aqua farming in 1983 (Table 2). This represents only 1.2% of total world aquaculture production of about 10 million tons (Table 3). Crustacean production has increased by 73% from 1980 to 1983 (Table 3).
Over 61.1% (Fig. 7) of total crustacean production through aquaculture is produced in Asia (Table 4). Indonesia caps the world’s top 10 shrimp producers. Six Asian countries, namely Indonesia, India, Thailand, Taiwan, Philippines and Japan contribute at least 60% of world production of crustaceans. About 123,000 tons of crustaceans were produced from aquafarming in 1983. Shrimps are the main crustaceans cultured. Almost 62% of total world crustacean production is produced by nine Asian countries. The main species of shrimp cultured in Asia are *P. monodon*, *P. merguiensis*, and *P. indicus* in the warm waters of Southeast Asia, India and Taiwan and *P. japonicus* and *P. orientalis* in the cold waters of Japan, China and Korea.

**Investment in shrimp aquaculture in Asia**

Earlier investments in the shrimp industry were confined to the development of small-scale shrimp farms mostly using the fish farmers’ personal resources with little or no external financial support. Since shrimp farming is considered a lucrative industry, investment by the private sector has increased considerably in recent years as evidenced by the number of new farms established under various levels of operation. In the last few years, many large-scale multi-million shrimp farms have been developed especially in China, Thailand, Philippines and Malaysia.

On the other hand, investment from the public sector has also increased due to the growing confidence in many countries in shrimp farming as a source of foreign exchange earnings, and as an important component for rural development. However, public investments either through government input or through external aid focus more on small-scale shrimp farming practices. Despite worldwide interest in the shrimp farming industry, large-scale investments in shrimp culture projects are still relatively limited. Investors are hesitant to venture in large-scale shrimp culture projects mainly because relatively few of these projects have proven to be financially successful in the long-term. Some of the major constraints in attracting private ventures in shrimp culture particularly in countries where there are no traditional shrimp culture practices are the lack of: 1) technicians and scientific personnel with hands-on practical experience in shrimp farming and farm management; 2) relevant technical and economic information on pilot farms; and 3) supply and distribution services of seeds, feeds, fertilizers, etc. The major consideration for private investment is economic viability and the internal rate of return while public venture may place emphasis on social benefits instead of profitability alone.

The non-availability of insurance for aquaculture farms may reflect the instability of the industry. High risk and unstable technology have made it extremely difficult to propose bankable projects which can be accepted by insurance companies. Although insurance schemes are now available in Japan for some technologically advanced, large-scale fish-farms, this is not a common practice in most countries in Asia.

The main financial input in aquafarming is the initial capital needed for the procurement and development of shrimp aquafarming facilities as well as operational costs for feeds, fertilizers and seed which usually amounts to more than 70% of total operational cost.

Successful shrimp culture ventures are dependent on numerous technical, biological and economic factors. Apart from management skill, proper choice of culture sites and suitable technical personnel with hands-on practical experience in shrimp farming practices, are perhaps the most important considerations to ensure success and adequate financial inputs. Experience in most developing countries in Asia seems to demonstrate that at the family level, low

**Table 2. World aquaculture production in 1983.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Crustacean production</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Total aquaculture production</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>43,865</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia and Pacific</td>
<td>75,644</td>
<td>61.29</td>
<td>8,412,131</td>
<td>82.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe and Near East</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>1,221,511</td>
<td>11.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America</td>
<td>20,188</td>
<td>16.35</td>
<td>220,505</td>
<td>2.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North America</td>
<td>27,425</td>
<td>22.27</td>
<td>312,691</td>
<td>3.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>123,445MT</td>
<td>10,210,730MT</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3. World production of aquaculture commodities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1975</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>1980</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>1983</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Finfish</td>
<td>3,980,492</td>
<td>(65.23)</td>
<td>3,233,326</td>
<td>(37.13)</td>
<td>4,447,946</td>
<td>(43.56)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mollusk</td>
<td>1,051,341</td>
<td>(17.23)</td>
<td>3,196,308</td>
<td>(36.71)</td>
<td>3,245,530</td>
<td>(31.79)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crustacean</td>
<td>15,663</td>
<td>(0.25)</td>
<td>71,245</td>
<td>(0.82)</td>
<td>123,445</td>
<td>(1.21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seaweed</td>
<td>1,054,793</td>
<td>(17.29)</td>
<td>2,206,484</td>
<td>(25.34)</td>
<td>2,393,782</td>
<td>(23.44)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6,102,289MT</td>
<td></td>
<td>8,707,363MT</td>
<td></td>
<td>10,210,703MT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Capital aquafarms are economically feasible instead of large-scale, capital intensive shrimp farms. However, through sufficient farm management and technical inputs, remarkable success with optimum economic production has been attained in large-scale shrimp farms in many countries in Asia.

Constraints to shrimp culture development in Asia

Spawners

Inadequate supply of wild spawners remains one of the major constraints in the development of the shrimp farming industry notably that of farming the tiger shrimp *P. monodon*). To ensure consistent supply of spawners of this species, many hatcheries in Southeast Asian countries have been developing techniques for maturing *P. monodon* in captivity but so far results are not consistent. Thus, techniques for gonadal maturation of captured and pond-reared adult tiger shrimp need to be improved.

Larval feeds

Natural food still remains the major feed in shrimp larval rearing operations. One of the key factors ensuring success in shrimp hatchery production is the timely supply of the needed food organisms in sufficient quantity. Majority of the hatcheries usually have algal cultures and zooplankton areas to maintain pure stocks of the needed live food such as *Chaetoceros*, *Skeletonema*, *Tetraselmis*, *Chlorella* and *Brachionus*. Algal stocks can be easily maintained in standard culture media whereas pure rotifer stock must be sustained through year-round culture. Very often, contamination by undesirable species occurs as well as failure in diatom bloom especially during the rainy months resulting in lack of food supply for the larvae. Maintenance is not only costly but also requires a specialist for this purpose. On the other hand, in the big-tank hatchery system which utilizes natural diatoms, the major problem encountered is the overbloom of diatoms, of which some such as *Nitzschia* sp. are undesirable species which cannot be eaten by the larvae and may normally attach to their appendages. This makes molting impossible and high mortality occurs particularly in outdoor hatcheries. Failure in diatom bloom may also occur especially during the rainy season leading to lack of food in the larval rearing tanks.

Both private and government sectors have attempted to develop pelleted artificial feeds or microencapsulated diets for larval rearing. It will be advantageous to the shrimp hatchery industry if artificial larval feeds become reliable. Nevertheless, supplemental live food is still needed.

Table 4. Asia and Pacific countries with crustacean production through aquaculture.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Production (MT)</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Main species</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>21,797</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td><em>Penaeus monodon, P. merguiensis,</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>20,700</td>
<td>27.4</td>
<td><em>P. monodon, P. indicus</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>14,931</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td><em>P. monodon, P. merguiensis</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>1,431</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td><em>P. monodon, P. japonicus,</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>3,920*</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td><em>P. monodon, P. indicus</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>2,500</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td><em>P. japonicus</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td><em>P. monodon, P. merguiensis</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td><em>P. japonicus, P. orientalis</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td><em>P. monodon, P. merguiensis</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mauritius</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>75,644</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

been developed and commercially produced in some countries. Some of these feeds appear to have better conversion efficiency compared to fresh feeds. However, the prices may be high and supply is insufficient. Since the formulations for these diets are considered trade secrets, manufacturers generally limit production in order to increase market demand especially if the diet shows good feed conversion efficiency. As a result of these conditions, feed cost has hampered the development of intensive shrimp culture.

To offset these problems, more research must be done on the nutritional requirements of shrimp as well as their physiology and biology in order to improve existing formulated diets and develop new ones. Suitable cheap feedstuff must be found and incorporated into the diets. Testing of these diets must be done not only on an experimental scale but also on small commercial scale to ascertain conversion efficiency. Once found to be efficient, production techniques must be standardized, packaged and made freely available to any interested small- or large-scale manufacturing company for commercial production. This will minimize monopoly of feed supply and thus lower the cost and increased feed availability to shrimp farmers thereby paving the way to intensive shrimp farming.

### Diseases

Disease is a serious problem both in hatcheries and rearing ponds. The most serious disease-causing organisms in the larval stages are *Zoothamnium*, fungi (*Lagenidium*) and bacteria (*Vibrio*) which may contaminate the intake water, or may result from a collapse of *Artemia* population in the pond. General signs of infection include increased opaqueness of abdominal muscle, expansion of chromatophores (usually appearing reddish in color), and occasionally a dorsal flexure of the third abdominal segment.

It is very difficult and expensive to treat infected larvae. Prevention is always better than cure. The best remedy is to prevent the onset of fungal and bacterial infection. This can be done by separating the spawning tank from the rearing tank and using clean or purified rearing water.

In rearing ponds, black gill disease caused by *Fusarium* spp. also occurs when the bottom of the rearing pond is in bad condition. Body cramps has also been noted in pond-reared *P. monodon* and *P. japonicus* when these were caught in daytime under a hot sun. High mortalities usually follow. Intensive culture using high stocking densities should be avoided until an effective treatment for this disease is found.

### Technology packaging

Although various techniques in shrimp farming have been developed as a result of more than 50 years of research studies, these techniques have yet to be refined, standardized, packaged and tested in different environmental conditions so that appropriate technology can be disseminated to shrimp farmers. The techniques that have been established...
in one country may not be applicable to other countries. Hence, shrimp farming techniques are not disclosed and will remain untold until such time that aquaculturists and researchers are confident that research results can be packaged into a standard technology.

References


Liao, I.C. A culture study on grass prawn, Penaeus monodon, in Taiwan — the patterns, the problems and the prospects. J. Fish. Soc. Taiwan, 5 (2): 11-29.


Overview of Penaeid Culture in the Americas

Gilberto J. Escobar
COSEMAR C.A.
P.O. Box 1230, Guayaquil, Ecuador

Abstract The paper discusses the reasons behind the farming success of Ecuador, as well as the limitations associated with farming throughout the rest of the Americas. Emphasis is given to specific farming practices, management techniques, and physical design characteristics. Through improved techniques the farmer is approaching the point where he can reliably manage his crop size and harvest time as dictated by market trends and postlarval supply.

Until recently, pond production has been characterized by relatively small-scale operations often experimental in origin. Due to the farming success in one country, production output has risen from 4,800 tons in 1978 to 23,390 tons in 1983. As evidenced by this dramatic rise in production, Ecuador is in a period of expansion and increasing technical awareness, the combined results of which have led it to become the production leader in pond-grown shrimp.

The economic pull towards Ecuador is now slowly giving way to shrimp development in other parts of the Americas. Owing to the technical gains brought about by government programs, universities and private industries, shrimp farming has become a potential activity in many areas previously thought inadequate. Production methods have progressed from the traditional extensive method to sophisticated closed system raceways. All but the latter method are exemplified by the techniques used throughout Ecuador.

Presently, Ecuador has in production 50,000 ha of ponds. Of these, 30,000 ha are farmed using the extensive method characterized by low cost and low output. The successful approach referred to as the semi-extensive method occupies approximately 15,000 ha. This style of farming, while requiring increased cost, leads to a proportionately higher production output. The third approach is the semi-intensive method under which an estimated 5,000 ha are in production. Increasingly higher production rates are being achieved through improvements in physical pond design, pond maintenance and preparation, feeding and fertilization regimes, technical management, and control.

Table 1. Status of shrimp and prawn production in North America.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Facilities</th>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Prospects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>Marine shrimp (<em>Penaeus vannamei</em>)</td>
<td>Farms (200 ha) Raceways</td>
<td>In production</td>
<td>Limited due to cost of land and available area High technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hawaii</td>
<td>Intensive marine shrimp</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freshwater shrimp (<em>Macrobrachium</em>)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>Marine shrimp (<em>P. vannamei</em>)</td>
<td>Farms (100-200 ha)</td>
<td>In production</td>
<td>Limited due to cost of land and labor Limited season</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida and the Carolinas</td>
<td>Marine shrimp</td>
<td>Small area</td>
<td>In production</td>
<td>Very limited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>Freshwater shrimp (<em>Macrobrachium</em>)</td>
<td>Very small area</td>
<td>Projected and under construction</td>
<td>Great potential Need to change laws</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>P. vannamei</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
of farming in these countries. What were accidental observations early in the sixties have grown to a multi-million dollar industry. The introduction of technology and management has improved the yield, reliability and profitability of the farms into sophisticated operations which involve careful planning.

Table 2. Status of shrimp and prawn production in Central America.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Facilities</th>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Prospects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Belize</td>
<td>Marine shrimp</td>
<td>Very small</td>
<td>Projected or under construction</td>
<td>With potential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costa Rica</td>
<td>Marine shrimp, Freshwater shrimp (Macrobrachium)</td>
<td>Farms (130 ha)</td>
<td>Not very good, closed in 1982</td>
<td>Uncertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Some interest due to government stability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>Marine shrimp (P. vannamei), Freshwater shrimp</td>
<td>Farms' (260 ha)</td>
<td>In production</td>
<td>Small potential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honduras</td>
<td>Marine shrimp</td>
<td>Farm (100 ha)</td>
<td>In production</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hatchery closed in 1981</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panama</td>
<td>Marine shrimp (P. vannamei and P. stylirostris)</td>
<td>Farms (50 ha)</td>
<td>In production since 1978</td>
<td>Suitable areas limited to 5,000 ha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Limited supply of postlarvae</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Status of shrimp and prawn production in the Caribbean Islands.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Facilities</th>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Prospects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Antigua</td>
<td>Farm (about 10 ha)</td>
<td>Under construction</td>
<td>Uncertain, dependent on imported postlarvae</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahamas</td>
<td>Marine shrimp</td>
<td>Limited production (one crop harvested)</td>
<td>Imported postlarvae</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freshwater shrimp</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Limitation due to winter influence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuba</td>
<td>P. schmitti</td>
<td>Farm (8-20 ha)</td>
<td>Top priority, Ministry of Fisheries</td>
<td>Uncertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominica</td>
<td>Freshwater shrimp</td>
<td>Farm (small) for demonstration</td>
<td>Limited</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominican Republic</td>
<td>Marine shrimp, Freshwater shrimp</td>
<td>Farm (50 ha)</td>
<td>Under construction</td>
<td>No marine shrimp hatcheries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grenada</td>
<td>Freshwater shrimp</td>
<td>3 hatcheries</td>
<td>In production</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guadalupe</td>
<td>Freshwater shrimp</td>
<td>For demonstration</td>
<td>Under construction</td>
<td>Limited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marine shrimp</td>
<td>Ponds (11 ha) since 1978</td>
<td>More ponds projected</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3 hatcheries (with very small production)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>Freshwater shrimp</td>
<td>Farm (10 ha) Hatchery</td>
<td>In production</td>
<td>Small</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martinique</td>
<td>Freshwater shrimp</td>
<td>Farm (100 ha) Hatchery</td>
<td>In production since 1976</td>
<td>For local consumption</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puerto Rico</td>
<td>Freshwater shrimp</td>
<td>Farm (10-50 ha)</td>
<td>One project, another closed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S. Virgin islands</td>
<td>Marine shrimp (P. vannamei)</td>
<td>Hatchery</td>
<td>Fry production for Bahamas</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 4. Status of shrimp and prawn production in South America.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Facilities</th>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Prospects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td><em>P. japonicus</em></td>
<td>Farms (1,000-2,500 ha)</td>
<td>In production</td>
<td>Large potential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>P. vannamei</em></td>
<td>10-20 companies</td>
<td>Problems with fry supply, salinity and rain</td>
<td>Difficulties: Access, financing, fish meal packing plants and government are near South</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>P. schmitti</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecuador</td>
<td><em>P. vannamei</em> and other marine shrimp</td>
<td>Very large involvement</td>
<td>In production since 1970</td>
<td>Areas available for expansion 70,000 ha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Machala</td>
<td></td>
<td>Farms (=50,000 ha)</td>
<td>20-40% yearly increase in production since 1978</td>
<td>Limited availability of postlarvae led to decreased production in 1984</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahia</td>
<td></td>
<td>4 hatcheries, several in planning stage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guayas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esmeraldas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td><em>P. vannamei</em></td>
<td>Farms (2,000-3,000 ha)</td>
<td>Production from wild fry</td>
<td>Potential 6,000 ha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Peru</td>
<td></td>
<td>Limited to border with Ecuador</td>
<td></td>
<td>No hatcheries</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 5. Factors affecting the growth of the shrimp industry in the Americas.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Favorable factors</th>
<th>Constraints</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North America</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>1. U.S. market</td>
<td>1. Short growing season</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Technology and technicians available</td>
<td>2. High cost of land, labor and energy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Excellent support services</td>
<td>3. Limited areas available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>— roads, transportation, telephone, electricity, equipment, parts, services</td>
<td>4. Hurricane threats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5. Cultured species are exotic, hence the need for hatcheries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>1. Market proximity</td>
<td>1. Laws limit export of shrimp to cooperatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Extensive areas available with year-round growing season</td>
<td>2. Difficulties in obtaining resident visa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Availability of native species for culture</td>
<td>3. Economic crisis which devalues foreign investments by paying export dollars in pesos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Relatively stable government</td>
<td>4. Complicated country to deal with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central America</td>
<td>1. Availability of wild fry</td>
<td>1. Political instability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Cheap land</td>
<td>2. Past failures make financing more difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Cheap labor</td>
<td>3. Limited areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Closer than South America to U.S.A. and Europe</td>
<td>4. Limited skill and knowhow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Existing shrimp trawling industry and processing plants, with knowhow in packing and marketing</td>
<td>5. Limited support services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Some countries are complicated to work in</td>
<td>6. Some countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caribbean</td>
<td>1. Sometimes with local shrimp market (tourists)</td>
<td>1. Exotic species</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Proximity to U.S. market</td>
<td>2. Hurricane-prone areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Air transportation available</td>
<td>3. Limited available land</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Nice area to live in</td>
<td>4. No processing plants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South America</td>
<td></td>
<td>5. Limited facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>1. Large country with all types of land and climates</td>
<td>6. Unstable governments in some cases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Existing processing plants and post-harvest facilities</td>
<td>1. Native species not suitable for farming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Cheap electric energy</td>
<td>2. Suitable areas far from main cities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Interest in promoting exports</td>
<td>3. Unstable climate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Shrimp farming already initiated</td>
<td>4. Limited support in Northern area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Pleasant country to live in</td>
<td>5. Lack of knowhow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6. No fish meal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecuador</td>
<td>1. Successful experience which facilitates promotion</td>
<td>1. Inadequate postlarvae cannot meet demand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Some wild postlarvae available</td>
<td>2. Available land limited and costly (US$1,000-2,000/ha)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Existing processing plants</td>
<td>3. Overcharging of shrimp farmers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Some experienced people</td>
<td>4. Too much government control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Year-round good weather with no hurricane threat</td>
<td>5. Poorly trained manpower out of school and universities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Good clay soil</td>
<td>6. Difficult areas live in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Limited rain</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
and execution of the several phases of production. From simple farming the process has grown to include hatcheries, nurseries, grow-out, feeding, fertilizing, harvesting, processing and exporting. The coordination of all phases has to be accomplished for the successful production of shrimp.

The outstanding quality of farmed shrimp is slowly being recognized in the most demanding markets. It is principally achieved due to freshness in processing, considerably less handling compared to common boat operations, and constant year-round supply. Farming is becoming a serious threat to boat operators who will be forced to reduce the number of boats to improve their catch per boat, and to stay in step with the rising cost of energy and the lowering of prices for shrimp.

The involvement of different countries can be individually observed in Tables 1-4 which summarize some of the information.

**Ecuador**

Ecuador has three major production areas:

1. Machala (south) — Where shrimp farming originated; has maintained its tradition of extensive, low-yield production.

2. Bahia (north in Manabi Province) — Second area where shrimp farming developed very rapidly with the introduction of some technology and farm rationalization.

3. Guayas (central near Guayaquil) — Largest of all three areas and also has largest potential. Mixed results when technology was copied from other two areas. Better results from large farms where advanced technology in design, construction and management has been applied with very good results.

The reasons for the successful farming experience in Ecuador may be traced to ecology, agriculture, politics and economics. Ecology has been the most important factor, providing postlarvae of the species *Penaeus vannamei* and *P. stylirostris* year-round, salinity between 6 and 33 ppt, temperature between 23 and 32°C, and sufficient land with high clay content and pH of 8.

Ecuador is a country of agricultural workers forced out of agriculture due to land reform implementation and political prices for its products. It was easy to convert the equipment and workers from agriculture to a similar activity — aquaculture — with limited skill required.

Politically, poor government management of the oil resources produced inflation and an economic crisis which practically stopped commerce, housing construction and industry, on top of the semi-paralyzed agricultural activities. People who wanted to work and produce legally had no other choice but to start a shrimp farm taking advantage of a non-labor intensive operation, with some financing available.

Last but not the least factor was profitability due to good shrimp prices and good revenues in dollars which was the kind of money everybody wanted.

**Future of shrimp in the Americas**

There will be individual problems in each country (Table 5) but, on the whole, shrimp culture will grow very fast due to the following factors:

1. Development of hatcheries and technology
2. Strong dollar-oriented activity and belief in its profitability
3. Non-labor intensive
4. Techniques which can be easily copied
5. Availability of coastal land in areas not suitable for agriculture.
Biology and Ecology of *Penaeus monodon*

Hiroshi Motoh
Central Laboratory, Marine Ecology Research Institute
Onjuku, Isumi-gun, Chiba-ken 299-51, Japan

**Abstract**

The giant tiger prawn, *Penaeus monodon*, the largest and most commercially important species among penaeids reaching 270 mm in body length or 260 g in weight, is suitable for culture in ponds and offers high market prices. This species occurs mainly in Southeast Asian waters, though it is quite widely distributed from 30°E to 155°E longitude and 35°N to 35°S latitude. Mating and spawning generally take place at night. The maximum number of eggs spawned at a time is more than 800,000. The life history is classified into six phases: embryo, larva, juvenile, adolescent, Subadult, and adult. The biological minimum size is 37 mm carapace length for males and 47 mm CL for females. The food consists mainly of small crustacea, mollusks and annelids. The adult is a predator of slow-moving benthic macroinvertebrates, or opportunistic in feeding behavior. This prawn is relatively eurythermal and euryhaline, growing rapidly to a large size. The life span may be one and a half to two years, and the female may live for a longer period than the male. In general, the female is larger than the male.

**Introduction**

The giant tiger prawn, *Penaeus monodon* Fabricius, is one of the largest penaeid prawns in the world, reaching some 270 mm in body length, and is of commercial importance in markets.

Recently in Southeast Asian countries, enthusiasm for natural and artificial propagation of both fry and adult giant tiger prawn has been growing rapidly among government and private agriculturists due to strong demand with higher prices in the national and international markets. On the other hand, their habitats such as shore areas and mangrove waters are under destruction in several areas. Therefore, it is important to understand the principal characteristics of the species.

The world crustacean catches in recent years have been about 1.6 million tons. Shrimps and prawns comprise about 1 million tons, of which almost 75% appear to be penaeids.

**Identity**

*Penaeus* (*Penaeus*) *monodon* Fabricius, 1798

**Synonyms**

*Penaeus* *carinata* Dana, 1852
*P. tahiensis* Heller, 1862
*P. semisulcatus* *exsulcatus* Hilgendorf, 1879
*P. coerulus* Stebbing, 1905
*P. monodon* var. *manillensis* Villalluz and Arriola, 1938
*P. bubulos* Kubo, 1949
*P. monodon monodon* Burkenroad, 1959

**FAO names**

Giant tiger prawn (English)

**Crevette géante tigrée** (French)

**Camarón tigre gigante** (Spanish)

**Description**

The rostrum, extending beyond the tip of the antennular peduncle, has 6 to 8 (mostly 7) dorsal and 2 to 4 (mostly 3) ventral teeth, and is sigmoidal in shape. The adrostral carina reaches almost to the epigastric spine. The carina reaches to the posterior edge of the carapace. The gastro-orbital carina occupies the posterior one-third to one-half distance between the post-orbital margin of the carapace and the hepatic spine. The hepatic carina is predominant and the anterior half is horizontal. The antennular flagellum is sub-equal to, or slightly longer than the peduncle. The 5th pereopod has no exopod.

The abdomen is carinated dorsally from the anterior one-third of the 4th to 6th somites. The 4th and 5th somites each has a small lateral cicatrice, and the 6th, 3 lateral cicatrices. The telson is unarmed (Fig. 1).

Color in life is as follows: Carapace and abdomen are transversely banded with red and white. The antennae are greyish brown. Pereopods and pleopods are brown and fringing setae red. Upon entering shallow brackish waters or when kept in ponds, the color changes to dark brown and often to blackish.

**Distribution**

The giant tiger prawn is widely distributed throughout the greater part of the Indo-West Pacific region: South Africa, Tanzania, Kenya, Somalia, Madagascar, Saudi Arabia, Oman, Pakistan, India, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Indonesia, Thailand, Malaysia, Singapore, Philippines, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Korea, Japan, Australia, and Papua New Guinea (Fig. 2). In
Fig. 1. A: Adult female of *Penaeus monodon*; B: External anatomy of *P. monodon*; C: Methods of measurement of *P. monodon* (RL, rostrum length; CL, carapace length; TL, total length; BL, body length; 6th AS, length of 6th abdominal segment).

general, *P. monodon* is distributed from 30°E to 155°E longitude and from 35°N to 35°S latitude. However, the main fishing grounds are mostly located in tropical countries, particularly in Indonesia, Malaysia and the Philippines.

The fry, juveniles and adolescents inhabit surface waters such as shore areas and mangrove estuaries, while most of the adults inhabit waters down to about 160 m.

**Bionomics and life history**

**Reproduction**

*Sexuality.* *Penaeus monodon* is heterosexual. The sexes can be distinguished by external characters (genital organs): petasma and a pair of appendix masculina in male and thelycum in female (Fig. 3). The petasma is situated between the 1st pleopods and the appendix masculina on the exopods of the 2nd pleopods, while the thelycum is between the 4th and 5th pereopods.

A pair of genital openings in the male is situated on the coxae of the 5th pereopods (walking legs) and in the female on the coxae of the 3rd pereopods.

Females attain a relatively larger size than males.

**Morphological development**

*Embryo* (Fig. 4). Viable eggs of *P. monodon* are spherical, yellowish green in color and somewhat translucent, ranging from 0.27 to 0.31 mm with an average of 0.29 mm in dia-
Fig. 2. Geographic distribution of Penaeus monodon.

Fig. 3. Genital organ of Penaeus monodon.

meter. In still water, the eggs sink slowly to the bottom. The 2-celled, 4-celled, morula and embryonic nauplius stages develop approximately 0.5, 1, 1.8 and 11 hours, respectively, after spawning. Before hatching, the embryonic nauplius is observed to move intermittently inside the egg.

Larva (Figs. 5, 6). The larval stage of *P. monodon* consists of 6 nauplius, 3 protozoa, 3 mysis, and 3 or 4 megalopa substages, and the time required for each stage are about 1.5 days, 5 days, 4 to 5 days, and 6 to 15 days, respectively. Swimming is by antennal propulsion in the nauplius, antennal and thoracic propulsion in the protozoa, thoracic propulsion in the mysis, and abdominal propulsion in the megalopa. Occurring offshore, they are planktonic in behavior. The protozoa and mysis are collectively called zoea. Furthermore, the megalopa as well as earlier juvenile stages are called postlarvae traditionally or fry for commercial purposes. The body of the megalopa is transparent with a dark brown streak from the tip of the antennular flagellum to the tip of the telson. The 6th abdominal segment is relatively longer than the carapace length. The carapace length of the megalopa varies between 1.2 and 2.2 mm. *P. monodon* enters nursery grounds during the last substage of the megalopa.

Juvenile (Fig. 6). During the earlier juvenile stage, the body is partly transparent with a dark brown streak on the ventral side similar to the megalopa. For convenience, they are traditionally called postlarvae or fry in the earlier stage and fingerlings in later stages.

They differ from the megalopa as follows: relatively shorter 6th abdominal segment compared to the carapace length, greater body size, completion of rostral spines and gill system, and benthic behavior. The ratio of the length of the 6th abdominal segment to the carapace length is still greater (about 0.65) than that in the adolescent (about 0.58).

In the middle stage reaching about 2.7 mm in carapace length (CL), the body becomes blackish in color and the rostrum has 6 dorsal and 2 ventral spines. When it reaches about 3.7 mm CL, the body becomes more blackish and bulky and the rostrum has 7 dorsal and 3 ventral spines which is the same in adults. The carapace length varies from 2.2 to 11.0 mm. They crawl using pereopods and swim using pleopods; the former become the main locomotive organ and the latter may be regarded as supplementary and used for rapid movement, both functioning through to the adult stage in the same manner. Juveniles inhabit brackish water areas as nursery grounds.
Adolescent. The body proportion is almost the same as that in the adult or slightly greater with the ratio of the length of about 0.58. The sexes can now be identified, beginning at 11 mm CL. The carapace length of the adolescent varies between 11 to 34 mm. The minimum size of males possessing a jointed petasma is about 30 mm CL, and the minimum size of females possessing adult-like thelycum is about 37 mm CL.

Subadult. This stage begins at the onset of sexual maturity i.e., minimum-sized males possessing spermatozoa in terminal ampoules, and minimum-sized females possessing spermatozoa inside the thelycum through copulation. A sex size disparity occurs at almost 30 mm CL, and hereafter the size of females becomes greater than males. They migrate from nursery to spawning grounds. During this stage, first copulation takes place between males with minimum CL of 37 mm and females of 47 mm in the estuarine or inner littoral areas before migrating to deeper water.

Adult. This stage is characterized by the completion of sexual maturity. Males possess spermatozoa in the paired terminal ampoules, and in fact there are no sexual differences from Subadult males apart from size increment and different habitat. Females start to spawn mostly offshore, whereas some spawn in shallow water. A second and other copulations may occur in majority of individuals. Their major habitat is the offshore area at depths of about 160 m.

The maximum size of males recorded is 71 mm CL, whereas the maximum recorded length of females is 81 mm CL, reaching 270 mm in body length or 260 g in weight. Carapace length varies between 37 and 71 mm in males and 47 and 81 mm in females.

The life history phases of *P. monodon* are summarized in Table 1, and the diagram of its life history is shown in Fig. 7. As mentioned earlier, the nursery ground of the giant tiger prawn is in the estuaries which include wide brackish water rivers (mostly upstream and middle portion), mangrove swamps and interior portions of enclosed bays. These areas are exposed to wide fluctuations of physico-chemical conditions, such as water temperature and salinity, so that juveniles and adolescents should have high tolerance to those conditions for their survival. Within those nursery

| Table 1. Life history phases of the giant tiger prawn, *Penaeus monodon*. |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------|-----------------|-------------------|---------------------|
| **Phase** | **Begins at** | **Duration** | **Carapace length (mm)** | **Mode of life** | **Habitat** |
| | | | **Male** | **Female** | | |
| Embryo | Fertilization | 12 hours | 0.29<sup>a</sup> | Planktonic | Outer littoral area |
| Larvae | Hatching | 20 days | 0.5-2.2 | Planktonic | Outer/inner littoral area |
| Juvenile | Completion of gill system | 15 days | 2.2-11.0 | Benthic | Estuarine area |
| Adolescent | Stability of body proportion, development of outer genitalia | 4 months | 11-30<sup>b</sup> | Benthic | Estuarine area |
| Subadult | Commencement of sexual maturity, first copulation | 4 months | 30-37<sup>d</sup> | 37-47<sup>e</sup> | Benthic | Inner/outer littoral area |
| Adult | Completion of sexual maturity | 10 months | 37-71<sup<f</sup> | 47-81<sup>f</sup> | Benthic | Outer littoral area |

<sup>a</sup>Egg diameter, <sup>b</sup>Minimum size with jointed petasma, <sup>c</sup>Minimum size with adult-like thelycum, <sup>d</sup>Minimum size with spermatozoa in terminal ampoules, <sup>e</sup>Minimum size with spermatozoa in thelycum, <sup>f</sup>Maximum size ever found
grounds, however, the pressure of predators, particularly big finfishes, is generally not strong unlike in the open sea, and more nutrients are available. The mean monthly temperatures fluctuate between 26.3 and 31.2°C, and salinities between 20.0 and 28.9 ppt; both are extremely and suddenly decreased to about 20°C and 4 ppt, respectively, after a heavy rain.

**Longevity**

Based on data from pond-rearing experiments and size composition of wild specimens, the longevity of *P. monodon* is arbitrarily estimated to be about one and a half years for males and about two years for females. The higher female to male ratio of 1.5 in offshore waters compared to 1.0 in the nursery areas may be a result of the greater longevity of the female. However, more studies on this aspect are highly needed.

**Mating**

Mating generally takes place at night, following molting of the female. The courtship and mating behavior may be observed in three distinct phases (Primavera, 1979):

Phase 1: Female above-male below in parallel swimming (Fig. 8A). From a moving or stationary position on the tank

*Descriptions and figures are all cited from Primavera (1979).
bottom, the female swims upwards to a height of 20-40 cm. It moves in a slightly curved line over a distance of 50-80 cm, then changes course, either completely reversing direction or turning at a right angle. These swimming movements are interspersed with rests on the bottom lasting from seconds to a few minutes. While either swimming or resting, the female is approached by one to as many as three males after some kind of initial attraction, the males trailing behind the female as it swims. Eventually the male, or one particular male, in case of many initially attracted to the female, catches up with the female and positions its body directly below the latter. The pereopods of the female hold on to the carapace of the male and help to keep it in position while swimming continues; even later, the pereopods of both partners actively help to maintain the desired positions in the succeeding phases. This phase is the longest and can last up to 2 hours if the male is dislodged from its position below the female by another male or if lengthy rests on the tank bottom intersperse with the swimming activities. It may be as quick as 20 minutes if the male immediately attains the position described in phase 2 below.

Phase 2: Male turns ventral side up and attaches to female (Fig. 8B). Swimming in tandem with the female, the male turns abruptly to a ventral side up position, attempting to align the thoraco-abdominal junction with the posterior thorax of the female. Once the ventral-to-ventral position is achieved, it is difficult for other males to displace the first male and copulation is certain. If unsuccessful, the male immediately returns to the former upright position, still trying to swim parallel to the female, following the latter's every change in direction.

Phase 3a: Male turns perpendicular to female (Fig. 8C). Once the male succeeds in attaching ventrally to the female, it turns perpendicular to the latter, rotating at the point of the posterior end of the thorax. At this junction, the pair may either maintain their position in the water or slowly settle to the bottom.

Phase 3b: Male arches body around female and flicks head and tail (Fig. 8D). Immediately after assuming a position perpendicular to the female, the male curves its body in a U-shape around the thorax of the female and flicks both head and tail simultaneously, as in a squeezing action, up to three times in quick succession. Soon after, the male separates from the female and moves or swims away. The female may also move away.

Progress from ventral attachment (phase 2) to head- and tail-flicking (phase 3b) is very quick, lasting a few seconds. The whole process from the initial upward swimming move-
Fig. 7. Diagrammatic representation of the life history of *Penaeus monodon*.

Fig. 8. Courtship and mating behavior of *Penaeus monodon*. A: Female above—male below in parallel swimming (phase 1); B: Male turns ventral side up and attaches to female (phase 2); C: Male turns perpendicular to female (phase 3a); D: Male curves body around female and flicks head and tail simultaneously (phase 3b) (Primavera, 1979).
ments of the female to the separation of the pair may last from half an hour to 3 hours.

Spawning

Spawning generally takes place at night. While resting on the sandy bottom, the spawner suddenly becomes active, swimming in the water for about one minute, and then starts to spawn while swimming very slowly in the upper or middle part of the water. During spawning, the last three pairs of pereopods are held tightly together and flapped with an open and close movement, presumably to help discharge eggs and spermatozoa, while strongly moving the pleopods for swimming. The eggs are extruded from the paired genital pores located at the base of the 3rd pereopods at the same time as spermatozoa from the thelycum located at the base of the 5th pereopods, looking like greenish smoke and whitish smoke, respectively, blowing backward. It is believed that these discharged eggs are fertilized in the water owing to turbulence generated by the forward and backward movements of the pleopods. As a result, the movement of the pleopods seems to aid not only in swimming but also in fertilizing the eggs spawned. The fertilized eggs remain suspended in the water for a few minutes making the water turbid, and then gradually sink to the bottom. The time required for each spawning is approximately 2 minutes.

Fecundity

The carapace of spawners varies from 53.1 to 81.3 mm, and the number of eggs from 248,000 to 811,000. It may be said that the number of eggs spawned increases with carapace length.

Food and feeding habit

The food of *P. monodon* consists mainly of crustacea (small crabs and shrimps) and mollusks, making up 85% of ingested
food. The remaining 15% consists of annelids and others. *P. monodon* is more of a predator of slow-moving benthic macroinvertebrates rather than a scavenger or opportunistic in feeding habit. The feeding habit appears to be associated with the tidal phase (Marte, 1980).

**Identification of postlarvae (fry)**

It has been observed that fry collectors and concessionaires sometimes mistakenly identify the postlarvae of *P. monodon*. However, identification of the postlarvae can be made based on their morphological characteristics such as shape of the rostrum, number of rostral teeth, relative length of antennular flagella, antennal spine, and presence of dorsal spinules on the 6th abdominal segment. The chromatophore patterns on the 6th abdominal segment and on the telson and uropods are also useful (Figs. 9-11, keys).

**Key to the postlarval *Penaeus* appearing at shore waters, based on morphological features**

1) Rostrum stout and inferior to tip of eye, spinules on the 6th abdominal segment present*, antennal spine prominently present, carapace slightly longer than 6th abdominal segment ........................................... *P. japonicus* group

Rostrum slender and exceeding tip of eye, spinules on the 6th abdominal segment absent, antennal spine absent or minute, carapace slightly or distinctly shorter than 6th abdominal segment ........................................... 2

2) Inner (lower) antennular flagellum nearly 1.6 times the outer (upper), exceeding the latter by its distal one segment ........................................... *P. merguiensis* group

Inner antennular flagellum 1.6 to 2.0 times the outer, exceeding the latter by its distal two segments ........................................................................... *P. semisulcatus*

Inner antennular flagellum more than 2.0 times the outer, exceeding the latter by its distal three segments ........................................................................... *P. japonicus* group

**Key to the postlarval *Penaeus* appearing at shore waters, based on chromatophore patterns**

1) Number of chromatophores on the 6th abdominal segment less than seven. Anterolateral chromatophore of the 6th abdominal segment present ........................................... *P. merguiensis* group

Number of chromatophores on the 6th abdominal segment more than seven. Anterolateral chromatophore of the 6th abdominal segment present or absent ........................................... 2

2) Number of chromatophores on the 6th abdominal segment less than 12. Anterolateral chromatophore of the 6th abdominal segment present, chromatophores on the middle portion of telson and inner uropods absent ........................................................................... *P. semisulcatus*

Number of chromatophores on the 6th abdominal segment more than 12. Anterolateral chromatophore of the 6th abdominal segment absent, chromatophores on the middle portion of the telson and inner uropods present ........................................................................... 3

3) Chromatophores on the 6th abdominal segment dense and thickly continuous ........................................... *P. monodon*

Chromatophores on the 6th abdominal segment discontinuous or confluent ........................................... *P. japonicus* group

*When the number of rostral teeth is less than four, the spinules are sometimes poorly present or absent. In this case, other criteria are useful.*
Recommendations

For the conservation of the nursery grounds and for increasing production of the giant tiger prawn, the following are recommended:

a) Avoid conversion of nursery grounds (brackish water areas) into fishponds or human settlement areas.

b) Ban spreading of chemicals for killing predators in fishponds and nursery grounds.

c) Introduce postlarval *P. indicus* as well as *P. merguiensis* into prawn ponds in addition to *P. monodon* for their cultivation.

d) Keep statistical data on the population of fry and adults of *P. monodon* and other penaeids in relation to their habitat and growth stages.

e) Artificial fertilization to utilize dead or weak spawners and genetic study to produce more suitable prawns might be necessary in the near future.

References


An Ecological Approach to Mariculture of Shrimp: Shrimp Ranching Fisheries

Yutaka Uno
Tokyo University of Fisheries, 5-7 Konan-4, Minato-ku, Tokyo 108, Japan

Abstract

Mariculture production in Japan has grown recently to nearly one million tons per year. Mariculture production in the shallow coastal waters of Japan mainly consists of eight species of finfish, six species of shellfish, and three species of algae.

Kuruma shrimp culture techniques are highly developed. Nevertheless, only 1,800 tons of kuruma shrimp can be produced yearly. There is a demand for this species but culture grounds have become limited and there is not enough space to raise shrimp. In 1980, 600 million postlarvae were produced but one-half had to be released to the sea. The released shrimp that survived and grew have formed a new basis for the "Sea Ranching Fisheries" industry. The trial releases of postlarvae have proven that sea ranching of shrimp can be successful.

To strengthen the foundation of sea ranching fisheries, there must be future research on ecological impact, as well as on physico-chemical water parameters. The life cycle, feeding habits, and predators of the shrimp must also be studied. Recent releases in Hamana-ko Lagoon, Shizuoka Prefecture, made by the research group of the Hamana-ko Substation of the Shizuoka Prefectural Fisheries Research Station have demonstrated the possibilities of sea ranching. This report discusses the research studies obtained at Hamana-ko Lagoon and the main problems of the use of this sea ranching method in mangrove swamp areas of Southeast Asia.

Introduction

Recent commercial mariculture production in the shallow coastal waters in Japan has grown to nearly one million tons per year. It is about 8.2% of total production or 940 x 10⁴ tons and consists of yellowtail, sea bream, oyster, scallop, "nori" (Porphyra), and Undaria (Fig. 1; Table 1). There are more varieties of species cultivated as compared to Southeast Asian countries, for example: Philippines—milkfish, Malaysia—blood cockle, and Thailand—blood cockle and mussel. In Japan, the number of species for culture has been increasing. In the commercial mariculture of various species, the basic thing is to establish mass production techniques for seed supply. In hatcheries, techniques are studied and progressively being developed for various species. In 1981, the Japan Sea Farming Association and prefectural governments produced more than 2,400 million seed of finfish and shellfish to stock the open sea as shown in Table 2.

In the case of kuruma shrimp, Penaeus japonicus, techniques have been stabilized at a high level with production of about 513 million postlarvae in 1981, of which 60% were released to the sea. The released postlarvae that have survived and grown have formed a new basis for sea ranching fisheries. Many trial releases of postlarvae have proven that sea ranching of shrimp can be successful. To strengthen the foundation of sea ranching fisheries, much ecological knowledge is needed about the distribution, food habits, predation, population dynamics, etc. of the species to be restocked.

In this report, some problems in shrimp ranching fisheries are described based on results of trial releases of P. japonicus postlarvae in the Hamana-ko Lagoon, Shizuoka Prefecture, made by the research group of the Hamana-ko Substation, Shizuoka Prefecture Fisheries Research Station.

Fishing area

A brief topography of Hamana-ko Lagoon is shown in Fig. 2. It is one of the largest lagoons on the coast of Honsyu, main island of Japan. The water system is very simple in comparison with many mangrove areas in the Philippines (Motoh, 1981) and the Mexican coastal lagoon complex (Edwards, 1978a). Directly connected with the sea through a narrow neck 200 m wide, the lagoon has a surface area of 6,900 ha and maximum depth of 12 m in the inner part. Tidal range varies from 30 cm in the bottom part to 180 cm near the sea mouth. The water exchange due to tidal current is estimated to be about 42.3 million ton/day.

Subjected to tidal influence, salinity ranges from 18.56 ppt in January to 15.17 ppt in July near the sea mouth of the lagoon and from 16.98 to 14.22 ppt in the center. Water temperature ranges between extremes of 3.8 to 29.2°C in the center, and from 8.8 to 25.8°C near the sea mouth.

The lagoon bottom is silty clay mud in depths of more than 5 m and predominantly sand or muddy sand in shallower areas. These shallower sandy waters support a shrimp fishery of commercial importance. Recently, shrimp fisheries in the lagoon have developed steadily with production reaching 100 tons in 1984 due to restocking of the shrimp postlarvae. Shrimp fishing gear consisting of three types, drift gill net, traditional cover net, and small set net, contributes to the shrimp catches. The fishing grounds for set nets are shown in Fig. 3.
Table 1. Annual mariculture production (in tons) by species in Japan (after Fisheries Agency, Japan, 1984).

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<tr>
<td>1977</td>
<td>279,031</td>
<td>125,798</td>
<td>27,260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>350,471</td>
<td>102,665</td>
<td>21,890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>325,686</td>
<td>103,788</td>
<td>25,291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>357,672</td>
<td>113,532</td>
<td>38,561</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>263,312</td>
<td>118,338</td>
<td>42,978</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Grand total (finfish, invertebrates and algae)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Porphyra</th>
<th>Undaria</th>
<th>Laminaria</th>
<th>Others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>217,906</td>
<td>105,695</td>
<td>3,340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>311,410</td>
<td>113,211</td>
<td>7,681</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>339,314</td>
<td>153,762</td>
<td>10,201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>278,127</td>
<td>101,937</td>
<td>15,759</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>291,050</td>
<td>126,701</td>
<td>22,096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977</td>
<td>279,031</td>
<td>125,798</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>350,471</td>
<td>102,665</td>
<td>21,890</td>
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<tr>
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<td>325,686</td>
<td>103,788</td>
<td>25,291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>357,672</td>
<td>113,532</td>
<td>38,561</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>263,312</td>
<td>118,338</td>
<td>42,978</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Life history

There are many reports on the life history of penaeid shrimps, e.g., *Penaeus vannamei* (Lopez, 1967; Chavez, 1973), *P. japonicus* (Kurata, 1972), *P. monodon* (Motoh, 1981), *P. setiferus* and *P. aztecus* (Mock, 1966). *P. japonicus* (Kurata, 1972) and *P. monodon* (Motoh, 1981) have six life cycle history phases: embryo, larva, juvenile, adolescent, Subadult and adult. Each stage has its preferred habitats. Penaeids exhibit typical migratory behaviour—postlarvae migrate towards inshore waters on tidal currents and spend juvenile and adolescent phases in brackish waters like lagoon complexes, estuarine areas including mangrove and swamp areas, and interior portions of bays. At the end of the juvenile and adolescent phases, they migrate back downstream to the outside coastal waters.

*Penaeus japonicus* in Hamana-ko Lagoon also shows a typical life cycle pattern. The postlarvae metamorphose outside the lagoon, then move to the mouth part and enter the lagoon. The abundance of postlarvae (Fig. 4) was determined by plankton net sampling at approximately monthly intervals over a 12-month period in 1955-56. The postlarvae enter the lagoon mostly from July to September. The inshore movement of postlarvae continues during flood tides, noticeably decreases during ebb tides, and stops three hours after the commencement of ebb tide. *P. japonicus* spends juvenile,
adolescent and Subadult phases in the lagoon. There is no evidence of occurrence of mature adults more than 37.5 g in body weight and 180 mm in body length. Migratory routes of the shrimp are shown in Fig. 5.

**Growth and recruitment**

Trial releases of postlarval *P. japonicus* in Hamana-ko Lagoon have been carried out by the Shizuoka Prefectural Government since 1978. The number of postlarvae released reached a total of 17.6 million over a period of five years. Table 3 shows the postlarvae released at the Shirasu area from August 1981 to November 1984. The method of release consists of three steps: hatchery production, nursery culture and release. Hatchery-produced postlarvae of 14-15 mm body length are cultured in an enclosure with an average area of 6,000 m² at a stocking rate of 270 individuals/m² fed on artificial diets for 16.8 days. They grow to 29.6 mm body length with 49.7% survival rate. Some 9.7 million postlarvae have been released at the Shirasu area over three years (Table 3).

To obtain growth estimates of the released stocks and naturally recruited populations, continuous sampling at 5-day intervals during the fishing season (April to early December) was done. Specimens were collected from shrimps caught in set nets in offshore Shirasu, Shonai-ko as shown in Fig. 3. The length frequency distribution was analyzed by Cassie's method (1954). Each population could be extracted from these polymodal length frequencies in spite of continuous recruitment and release. Weight (W) in grams was calculated using the formula:

\[ W = 1.9001 \times 10^{-5} \times L^{2.8927} \]  
\[ W = 2.0239 \times 10^{-5} \times L^{2.2748} \]  
\( R = 0.9984 \) for females  
\( R = 0.9992 \) for males

The results are shown in Fig. 6 and Table 4. The potential stocks of 1983 in the lagoon consisted of five populations

---

**Table 2.** Annual seedling production (× 10³ individuals) for mariculture in Japan (after JASFA, 1984).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Species</th>
<th>No. of seedlings produced</th>
<th>No. of seedlings released in the sea</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fish</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Pagrus major</em></td>
<td>6,942</td>
<td>11,594 13,457 16,120 15,109 8,600 10,359 12,044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Acanthopagrus schlegelii</em></td>
<td>443</td>
<td>2,113 2,386 2,867 407 1,267 1,314 1,955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Gadus macrocephalus</em></td>
<td>1,100</td>
<td>1,834 1,209 2,350 1,100 2,113 1,209 2,350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Limanda yokohamae</em></td>
<td>1,755</td>
<td>1,601 1,693 1,727 1,215 401 733 815</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Paralichthys olivaceus</em></td>
<td>379</td>
<td>1,051 3,203 3,688 297 898 2,370 1,156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Fugu rubripes</em></td>
<td>602</td>
<td>1,615 445 454 550 615 442 454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Sebastiscus marmorata</em></td>
<td>68</td>
<td>325 75 127 48 25 75 57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Seriola quinqueradiata</em></td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>105 230 216 — 21 120 63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Lateolabrax japonicus</em></td>
<td>85</td>
<td>36 325 104 53 31 25 104</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Invertebrates            |                           |                                     |
| *Penaeus japonicus*      | 448,864                   | 534,634 599,853 513,111 280,075 337,229 297,842 302,138 |
| *Metapenaeus ensis*      | 10,960                    | 32,516 29,301 39,144 10,595 25,141 12,483 19,193 |
| *Neptunus trituberculatus* | 10,280                   | 18,070 16,041 18,352 7,870 12,171 11,519 11,212 |
| *Patinopucen yessoensis* | 1,798,315                 | 1,822,143 2,131,713 2,855,439 1,566,655 1,699,127 1,525,333 2,127,447 |
| *Anadara bromptontii*    | 1,490                     | 11,932 11,854 6,766 651 2,764 5,187 3,137 |
| *Halosia spp.*           | 10,863                    | 11,724 16,471 18,881 7,205 8,597 10,690 12,485 |
| *Meretrix luzoria*       | 590                       | 1,500 2,530 35 395 2,158 10,348 2,860 |
| *Babylonia japonica*     | 65                        | 109 177 3,240 50 109 212 2,627 |
Table 3. Release of postlarval Penaeus japonicus (ave. body length 14.1 mm) at Shirasu area, Hamana-ko Lagoon (after data from Hamana-ko Substn., Shizuoka Pref. Fish. Res. Stn.).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year and group</th>
<th>Nursery culture</th>
<th>Release</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No. stocked</td>
<td>Period</td>
<td>Survival rate (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981 RS₁</td>
<td>2,567</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>43.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS₂</td>
<td>2,500</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>32.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS₃</td>
<td>1,742</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982 RS₁</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS₂</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>57.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS₃</td>
<td>2,092</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>49.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983 RS₁</td>
<td>2,038</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>42.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS₂</td>
<td>377</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>42.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS₃</td>
<td>4,388</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>52.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total/Ave.</td>
<td>14,704</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>49.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

derived from natural recruitment (groups 82N₁ and 83N₁₋₄) and five released populations (groups 82RS₁₋₃ and 83RS₁₋₂). The females released in August 1982 (group 82RS₁) were caught in set nets, attaining 5.4 g average body weight in early October and 20.2 g in mid-December (Table 4). Some appeared to emigrate to the outside sea but those that remained in the lagoon contributed to the next year's catches with average body weight of 27.2 g after overwintering in the lagoon. The groups of 82RS₂ and 82RS₃ released in October and November 1982, respectively, were not found in the 1983 catches due to smaller size. All of them overwintered in the lagoon and contributed to the 1983 catches with sizes of 6.6-15.9 g in early April to early June for group 82RS₂ and 4.1-13.5 g in late April to late June for group RS₃.

Shrimp from the population originating from the fourth recruitment in 1982 (group 82N₁) attained 3.6 g body weight in mid-October and 11.9 g in mid-December 1982. All of them appeared to winter and were caught with the size group 14.7-21.6 g from early April to late May 1983. Shrimp from the first to third natural recruitments in 1983 (groups N₁₋₃) were not found in the 1983 catches due to smaller size. All of them overwintered in the lagoon and contributed to the 1983 catches with sizes of 6.6-15.9 g in early April to early June for group 82RS₂ and 4.1-13.5 g in late April to late June for group RS₃.

Table 4. Estimated growth of Penaeus japonicus in Hamana-ko Lagoon in 1982-83 based on statistical analysis of samples caught in set nets in Shonai Inlet. N₁₋₄: population from natural recruitment; RS₁₋₃: population from postlarvae released at Shirasu area, Shonai Inlet (after data from Hamana-ko Substn., Shizuoka Pref. Fish. Res. Stn.).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>1982</th>
<th>1983</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Start</td>
<td>End</td>
<td>Start</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female 1982 82N₁</td>
<td>4.6 g late Aug.</td>
<td>27.6 g mid-Dec.</td>
<td>27.2 g mid-Apr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82RS₁</td>
<td>5.4 g early Oct.</td>
<td>20.2 g mid-Dec.</td>
<td>14.7 g early Apr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82N₁</td>
<td>3.6 g mid-Oct.</td>
<td>11.9 g mid-Dec.</td>
<td>6.6 g early Apr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82RS₂</td>
<td>Released early Oct. (W)</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.1 g late Apr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82RS₃</td>
<td>Released early Nov. (W)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983 83N₁</td>
<td>3.6 g late Jun.</td>
<td>14.4 g mid-Aug.</td>
<td>5.7 g late Jun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83N₂</td>
<td>5.7 g mid-Aug.</td>
<td>26.3 g mid-Oct.</td>
<td>5.2 g mid-Aug.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83N₃</td>
<td>5.4 g early Sep.</td>
<td>16.3 g early Dec.</td>
<td>6.4 g late Sep.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83RS₁</td>
<td>Released mid-Aug. 1983</td>
<td>4.9 g late Oct.</td>
<td>9.5 g early Dec.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83RS₂</td>
<td>Released mid-Aug. 1983</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83RS₃</td>
<td>Released mid-Aug. 1983</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male 1982 82N₁</td>
<td>4.7 g late Aug.</td>
<td>17.7 g mid-Dec.</td>
<td>11.9 g early Apr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82RS₁</td>
<td>5.4 g early Oct.</td>
<td>19.4 g mid-Dec.</td>
<td>6.8 g early Apr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82N₁</td>
<td>4.1 mid-Oct.</td>
<td>12.2 g mid-Dec.</td>
<td>4.3 g late Apr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82RS₂</td>
<td>Released early Oct. 1982 (W)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82RS₃</td>
<td>Released early Nov. 1982 (W)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983 83N₁</td>
<td>6.5 g mid-Jun.</td>
<td>10.6 g early Aug.</td>
<td>5.7 g late Jun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83N₂</td>
<td>6.1 g mid-Aug.</td>
<td>18.2 g mid-Sep.</td>
<td>5.6 g early Sep.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83N₃</td>
<td>5.6 g early Sep.</td>
<td>13.1 g early Dec.</td>
<td>6.1 g late Sep.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Fig. 2.** Topography of Hamana-ko Lagoon showing bottom conditions and depth. 1, site of enclosure for nursery culture; 2, mouth of lagoon (Imakiriguchi).

**Fig. 3.** Fishing grounds of kuruma shrimp, *Peneaus japonicus*, in Hamana-ko Lagoon. Figures denote depth in m.
were caught with the sizes 3.6-14.4 g from late June to mid-
August for N₁, 5.7-12.5 g from late June to late August for
N₂, and 5.2-26.3 g from mid-August to mid-October for N₃.
The remaining shrimp appeared to emigrate to the outside
sea. The group 83N₁ could not be caught in this year due to
smaller size. They could contribute to the catches for next
year as described in the case of 82N₁.

Estimated growth in body length based on size distribu-
tion data is 0.62 ±0.16 mm/day with a range of 0.41-0.87 mm
for females and 0.53 ± 0.17 mm/day with a range of 0.26-0.80
mm for males. Growth rate of 0.87 mm for females and 0.80
mm for males were derived from group 83N₂ and 83N₃,
respectively, which were caught in summer. Minimum
growth rate of 0.41 mm for females and 0.26 mm for males
were derived from groups 82RS₁ and 82RS₂ caught in spring
after overwintering.

There are many reports on growth rates of Penaeus spp.
— P. aztecus (Cook and Lindner, 1970), P. setiferus (Wil-
liams, 1955), P. vannamei (Sato, 1979; Edwards, 1977) and
P. stylirostris (Menz and Bowers, 1980). Direct comparison of
growth rates of P. japonicus with those of other species is dif-
ficult because of different ways of data presentation. The
present results indicate that the sizes of P. japonicus that
immigrate to the lagoon in summer are greater than those in
spring and autumn with differences between males and
females.

The catch curve (Ricker, 1975) was obtained according to
the variation of catch per unit effort calculated at 5-day inter-
vals throughout the 1983 fishing season and the annual
catch for each naturally recruited and released population.
Results are shown in Table 5.

A total of 6.98 million postlarval P. japonicus (30 mm size)
were stocked in the Shirasu area (fishing ground ca. 200 ha)
and production was 2.4 times greater than catches in natural
waters.

Application of sea ranching to Southeast Asia

The activity of releasing postlarval P. japonicus has
recently become extensive in Japan, reaching 302 million
postlarvae released in 1983. The main sites for releases are
inlets and open or semi-open waters. The trial in the
Hamana-ko Lagoon is the first successful one. After many
studies on the feasibility of stocking open waters with
shrimp postlarvae, it has been proven that this system pro-
vides three advantages: 1) increased production, 2) stabilized

---

Table 5. Estimated annual catch for each population of Penaeus japonicus in the Shirasu area, Shonai Inlet, Hamana-ko Lagoon. 1983.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Annual catch</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Wt. (kg)</td>
<td>Body wt. (g)</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural population</td>
<td>82N₄</td>
<td>24,048</td>
<td>370.1</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>5.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>83N₁-₄</td>
<td>276,192</td>
<td>2,533.5</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>35.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>300,240</td>
<td>2,903.6</td>
<td>40.39</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Released population</td>
<td>82RS₁-₃</td>
<td>386,483</td>
<td>4,030.0</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>56.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>83RS₁-₂</td>
<td>29,551</td>
<td>256.1</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>3.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>416,083</td>
<td>4,286.1</td>
<td>59.61</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand total</td>
<td>716,278</td>
<td>7,189.7</td>
<td>10.9*</td>
<td>100.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Average
production through adjustment of the time postlarvae are released, and 3) addition of shrimp not caught to the natural breeding population. In the case of the Hamana-ko trials, it becomes clear that the released postlarvae survived and grew, contributing to fishery catches and forming a new basis for sea ranching fisheries.

The author proposes the application of this sea ranching system to the shallow coastal zones of Southeast Asian countries for the development of large-scale prawn culture. There are very large areas suitable for commercially important penaeid prawn species such as *Penaeus monodon*, *P. merguiensis*, *P. indicus*, *P. brevicornis*, *P. semisulcatus*, *Metapenaeus ensis*, etc. Among all these species, *P. monodon* has been most closely investigated as a suitable species for culture. Pond cultivation of prawns in coastal zones is rapidly developing in the countries of Southeast Asia. In other words, the traditional method of building ponds in mangrove swamps now causes the destruction of mangrove areas and the gradual disappearance of the mangrove ecosystem.

It is well known that mangroves have both a land-building and coast-protecting function (Davis, 1940). These backwater areas are a complex combination of swamps, creeks, rivers and mangrove forests where salt water and fresh water gradually mix. They are an important buffer zone between freshwater and marine environmental conditions.

From the ecological point of view, these mangrove areas are natural nursery ponds for juveniles of many organisms including penaeid prawns (MacNae, 1974). This brackish-water zone has abundant shelter and the decomposition of leaves and other organic matter, and inorganic nutrients carried by river floods provide a rich supply of detritus as food for the benthic community.
In order to preserve the mangrove ecosystem and still make use of this large productive coastal area, a new approach to culture like sea ranching is needed. Penaeid prawns come into mangrove and estuarine areas as juveniles and remain there until they reach Subadult size. Then they emigrate offshore to deeper waters where they mature and reproduce. In the case of \textit{P. monodon}, they remain in the coastal area up to a size of about 30 g in body weight. This means that the mangrove coastal habitat is most suitable for this stage of their life cycle. It is possible to enclose large coastal areas, \textit{P. monodon} and other penaeid species could be kept in such enclosures of several hundred hectares. This type of enclosure could be constructed in the same way as the fish pens in Laguna de Bay (Delmendo and Gedney, 1974). They could be used to enclose shallow water areas along the coast and river estuaries as well as mangrove areas. Harvesting would be done by trapping prawns as they try to emigrate offshore after growing to Subadult size. Trapping methods are well documented for the Pacific coast of Mexico (Edwards, 1978b) and Adriatic coastal lagoons (Ravagnan, 1978). The process of harvesting would be continued and stocking of hatchery-produced fry would be timed through adjustment of release dates to stabilize and increase the potential stock relying on natural fry which enter the enclosed areas. With such a stocking system, some supplementary feeding may be necessary. In this way, coastal areas could be used for prawn production without the need to construct ponds thereby preserving the basic mangrove areas.

In order to develop large-scale prawn culture based on the system of sea ranching, much basic ecological information is needed about population dynamics, life history, and biotic and abiotic parameters of the ecosystem. Furthermore, several engineering and biotechnical points need investigation for the layout of such large-scale enclosures. These include the most suitable enclosure area, optimum water level within the enclosure, construction of a low dike to maintain water level at low tides, and increasing the tidal pool water area within the mangrove swamp to act as nursery pools.

It will be necessary to establish some legal framework such as fishing rights and licenses to promote large-scale aquaculture using mangrove areas while preserving their natural conditions by not building fishponds. As the utilization of mangrove areas for this kind of culture will greatly affect the villager's small-scale fisheries and community life in general, some form of administration is needed to settle conflicts of interest. Moreover, if the use of mangrove areas is limited to just a few individuals, the disparity of income among villagers may increase to the extent of disturbing the peace of communities. In order to prevent such negative results, it is advisable to work out a legal system with fixed rules for the use of mangrove areas that will benefit large sections of coastal communities.
References


A Review of Maturation and Reproduction in Closed Thelycum Penaeids

Jurgenne H. Primavera
Aquaculture Department, Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

Abstract  Commercially important penaeids of the closed thelycum group belong to five subgenera of the genus Penaeus — Penaeus, Fenneropenaeus, Marsupenaeus and Melicertus that are almost exclusively Indo-West Pacific and Farfanteanm that is predominantly Western Atlantic. Since the ablation of Penaeus duorarum more than a decade ago, the first for any penaeid, around 23 species have been matured in captivity, 17 of them belonging to the closed thelycum subgenera (P. aztecus, P. brasiliensis, P. californiensis, P. duorarum, P. esculentus, P. indicus, P. japonicus, P. kerathurus, P. latisulcatus, P. mer- guiensis, P. monodon, P. notialis, P. orientalis, P. paulensis, P. penicillatus, P. plebeius, and P. semisulcatus).

The complete spectrum of controlled reproduction in penaeids covers maturation, spawning, hatching of eggs into viable larvae, and the production of postlarvae to constitute the next batch of broodstock. The full closing of the cycle has been achieved in at least six closed thelycum species whereas gaps, e.g. inability of mature females to spawn or nonhatching of eggs, remain for the others.

Spawners or mature females used in commercial hatcheries and research laboratories are either wild-caught or matured in captivity with human control ranging from nil to a regular closing of the cycle. Wild spawners may be spawned directly after capture and transport or subjected to environmental manipulation, e.g. thermal control to induce or inhibit spawning. Females matured in captivity may come from wild broodstock (adults and subadults caught from estuaries or "sourced" by trawlers from offshore waters) or captive (pond- or tank-reared) broodstock. Introduced or exotic penaeid species must depend on a pond- or tank-reared broodstock whereas indigenous penaeids may be constituted from wild or captive broodstock.

There are three basic approaches employed singly or in combination to induce ovarian maturation in penaeids — endocrine, dietary or nutritional and environmental. Endocrine manipulation has so far been synonymous with unilateral eyestalk ablation, a technique with far-reaching impact on penaeid aquaculture. Closed thelycum penaeids may be classified into those that require ablation in order to mature and those that do not. To a third group belong species that have been experimentally induced to mature with and without ablation.

Diet for maturation include fresh and frozen animal sources (mussel, clam, oyster, squid, marine worms, shrimps, fish) and formulated pellets given in any combination. The choice of marine worms and mollusks is based on their high levels of arachidonic, eicosapentenoic and docosahexaenoic acid, the dominant fatty acids found in mature ovaries and testes. Environmental parameters studied in relation to maturation include light (intensity, quality and photoperiod), temperature, salinity and pH.

Although a regular closing of the cycle has been achieved for some, the state-of-the-art for most penaeids is the successful production of larvae and postlarvae from either wild spawners or wild immature/spent females matured/rematured in captivity. The improvement of reproductive performance including larval quality from captive broodstock remains a major area for future research and includes the determination of minimum age and size for maturation. The complete description of the nutritional and environmental requirements for maturation should lead to the development of alternatives to ablation such as photoperiod manipulation or the use of reproductive hormones.

The present focus on characterizing the physicochemical and dietary requirements for maturation should be extended to other phases of reproduction: mating, spawning, fertilization and hatching. Studies on biology (molting, mating, fertilization including the cortical reaction) and biochemistry (maturation stages) provide baseline information for designing maturation tanks and formulating broodstock pellets. Investigations of wild stocks complement laboratory studies in elucidating the interrelationships among molting, mating, maturation and spawning.

Manual spermatophore transfer is being developed to solve the problem of nonmating in closed (and open) thelycum species. This technique will also be useful in future hybridization work, together with in vitro fertilization.

Introduction

Seed supply in the culture of penaeids had its beginnings in the tidal entry of wild fry into milkfish ponds as in the Philippines or in the pokkali (paddy) fields of Kerala, India (Fig. 1). This progressed to the stocking, first, of wild-caught fry from the coastline or estuaries, and then of hatchery-reared fry. The spawners used in hatcheries are either wild-caught or matured in captivity from wild “broodstock” or immature females. The final stage in this evolution — the regular closing of the cycle with the use of spawners from broodstock reared in ponds or tanks — completely eliminates dependence on the wild.

In penaeids, the thelycum or structure that receives the spermatophores during mating may be of the open type with ridges and protruberances for spermatophore attachment or closed featuring lateral plates that lead into a seminal receptacle where the spermatophores are inserted. Commercially important species of the genus Penaeus belong to six subgenera: a single open thelycum subgenus, Litopenaeus.
and five closed thelycum subgenera. Among the latter, *Penaeus*, *Fenneropenaeus*, *Marsupenaeus* and *Melicertus* are almost exclusively Indo-West Pacific in distribution while *Farfantepenaeus* is predominantly Western Atlantic (Table 1).

Although the first captive spawning of a penaeid (a wild *Penaeus japonicus* spawner) was by Fujinaga in 1934 (Hudinaga, 1942), it was not until 1970 that maturation was first obtained in ablated *P. duorarum* (Caillouet, 1972) and unablated *P. latisulcatus* (Shokita, 1970). Almost 30 years earlier, Panouse (1943, cited by Adiyodi and Adiyodi, 1970) observed precocious maturation and egg deposition in a palaemonid that had undergone ablation. Since 1970, around 23 penaeid species have been matured (and 14 spawned) in captivity, 17 of them belonging to the closed thelycum group (Table 6). Two interesting points are highlighted in Table 1 — the worldwide interest in *P. monodon* as a species for culture based on number of studies, and the introduction of penaeids outside their natural range of distribution, e.g. *P. japonicus* to France and Italy and *P. monodon* to the U.K.

**Ovarian maturation**

Studies on reproduction have predominantly focused on female maturation. Stages of ovarian maturity described for various closed thelycum species generally fall into five groups — early maturing, late maturing, mature and spent (Tuma, 1967; Rao, 1968; Villaluz et al., 1972; Brown and Patlan, 1974; Gehring, 1974; Duronslet et al., 1975; Aquacop, 1977a).

Ovaries have been classified in vivo or dissected using such criteria as size, outline, texture, color and gonadosomatic index (GSI); measuring lipid and fatty acid levels; and under light and electron microscopy describing oocytes (diameter, staining, nuclear appearance, cortical rods, etc.) and follicle cells. Given the need to keep female prawns alive for spawning, most penaeid workers use the in vivo classification by looking at the ovaries externally through the dorsal exoskeleton.

There are three basic approaches employed singly or in combination to induce ovarian maturation in penaeids — endocrine, nutritional and environmental.

**Endocrine**

Reproductive hormones. It was Panouse (1943, cited by Adiyodi and Adiyodi, 1970) who first demonstrated that removal of the eyestalk during sexual quiescence in *Leander serratus* led to ovarian development and egg deposition. In the eyestalk of decapod crustaceans, a gonad-inhibiting hormone (GIH) is produced by the neurosecretory cells of the X-organ and transported to the sinus gland for storage and release (Adiyodi and Adiyodi, 1970). In *Parapeneopsis hardwickii*, the activity of the ovary-(gonad)-inhibiting hormone was highest in the eyestalk of females with inactive and spawned ovaries whereas it was negligible in those at full vitellogenesis (Kulkarni and Nagabhushanam, 1980).

Earlier, the target organs of the GIH were postulated to be the brain and/or thoracic ganglionic mass with the GIH preventing their synthesis of a gonad-stimulating hormone (Adiyodi and Adiyodi, 1970). More recent studies however, suggest the fat body or the ovary (Meusy and Charniaux-Cotton, in press).

The ovaries of the amphipod *Orchestia gamarella* have been demonstrated to produce the vitellogenin-stimulating ovarian hormone (VSOH) which controls the synthesis of vitellogenin (Meusy, 1980). Vitellogenin is a lipoprotein complex found in the hemolymph during reproduction, synthesized outside the ovaries but used by the oocytes to constitute the yolk during secondary vitellogenesis in malacostracans (Meusy, 1980; Meusy and Charniaux-Cotton, in press). During reproductive rest, the GIH inhibits the synthesis of vitellogenin (Meusy and Charniaux-Cotton, in press). Ongoing trials in CNEXO-COB (Centre Oceanologique du Brest) in France are testing the effect of ovarian extract injections on immature *P. japonicus* and *P. vannamei* (C. Cahu, pers. comm.).

In *Parapeneopsis stylifera*, Joshi (1980, cited by Kanzawa, 1982) observed a greater GSI and egg diameter in
females injected with the mammalian hormone progesterone (4.74 and 106.48 µm, respectively) compared to ethanol-injected females (2.46 and 48.59 µm, respectively) and un.injected controls (0.70 and 18.26 µm, respectively).

**Eyestalk ablation.** Other than the few studies mentioned above, endocrine manipulation has so far been synonymous with unilateral eyestalk ablation, a technique first performed in penaeids on *P. duorarum* (Caillouet, 1972) and with far-reaching impact on crustacean aquaculture.

Penaeids in captivity may be divided into a difficult-to-breed group that requires ablation to mature, *e.g.* *P. aztecus*, *P. duorarum*, *P. monodon*, and *P. orientalis* and those that have matured without ablation, *e.g.* *P. californiensis*, *P. indicus*, *P. japonicus*, and *P. merguiensis* (Table 3) among the closed thelycum species. *P. monodon* is classified as a difficult species because the proportion of females that have matured without ablation is so far very low (Santiago, 1977; Primavera et al., 1978; Aquacop, 1979; Emmerson, 1983).

For either easy- or difficult-to-breed species, the effect of ablation is to increase maturation and spawning rates. Unablaged controls did not mature or had a lower maturation rate than ablated females of *P. aztecus* (Aquacop, 1975), *P. esculentus* (P.J. Crocos, pers. comm.), *P. monodon* (Aquacop, 1977b; Santiago, 1977; Primavera and Borlongan, 1978; Hillier, 1984) and *P. plebejus* (Kelemec and Smith, 1980). Ablated *P. indicus* produced 10 times the number of spawns, 8 times the number of eggs and 6 times the number of nauplii as unablated controls (Primavera et al., 1982). Ablation also increased the spawning rate up to 8-17 spawns/♀/month in one run for *P. kerathurus* (Lumare, 1979) and 4-6 spawns/♀/molt cycle for *P. monodon* and *P. orientalis* (Arnstein and Beard, 1975; Beard and Wickins, 1980; Hillier, 1984) (Table 2). In contrast, unablated females have a rate of 0.38 spawns/♀/month for *P. japonicus* (Laubier-Bonichon and Laubier, 1979), 0.38 spawns/9/month and 1 spawn/♀/molt cycle for *P. merguiensis* (Beard et al., 1977; Crocos and Kerr, 1984; Lin and Ting, 1984; Millumena et al., 1984).

Table 1. List of closed thelycum subgenera and species of the genus *Penaeus* matured in captivity including distribution.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distributiona</th>
<th>Subgenus</th>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Countryc</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indo-West Pacific</td>
<td><em>Penaeus</em></td>
<td><em>esculentus</em></td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>P. Crocos, pers. comm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indo-West Pacific</td>
<td><em>Fenneropenaeus</em></td>
<td><em>indicus</em></td>
<td>French Polynesia, India, Philippines, South Africa</td>
<td>MSU-IFRD, 1975; Muthu and Lasiminarayana, 1977; Muthu et al., 1984, Emmerson, 1980; Emmerson et al., 1983; Primavera et al., 1982; Aquacop, 1983a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>merguiensis</em></td>
<td>French Polynesia, Indonesia, U.K.</td>
<td>Alikunhi et al., 1975; Aquacop, 1975, 1983; Nurjana and Won, 1976; Beard et al., 1977</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>orientalis</em></td>
<td>China, U.K.</td>
<td>Arnstein and Beard, 1975; Liang et al., 1983</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>penicillatus</em></td>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>Liao, 1973</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indo-West Pacific</td>
<td><em>Marsupenaeus</em></td>
<td><em>japonicus</em></td>
<td>France, French Polynesia, Italy, Japan</td>
<td>Aquacop, 1975: Caubere et al., 1979; Laubier-Bonichon and Laubier, 1979; Lumare, 1981; Kanazawa, 1982; Yano 1984</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indo-West Pacific</td>
<td><em>Melicertus</em></td>
<td><em>latisulcatus</em></td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Shokita, 1970</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>plebejus</em></td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>Kelemec and Smith, 1980, 1983</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>kerathurus</em></td>
<td>Italy, Spain</td>
<td>Lumare, 1979</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Atlantic and Mediterranean Sea</td>
<td><em>Farfantepenaeus</em></td>
<td><em>aztecus</em></td>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>Aquacop, 1975; Duronslet et al., 1975</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>brasiliensis</em></td>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>Martino, 1981; Barros et al., 1982</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>duorarum</em></td>
<td>U.S.</td>
<td>Idyll, 1971; Caillouet, 1972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>paulensis</em></td>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>Martino, 1981; Marchiori and Boff, 1983</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern and Western Atlantic</td>
<td><em>Marsupenaeus</em></td>
<td><em>notialis</em></td>
<td>Cuba</td>
<td>Ramos and Gonzales, 1983</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Pacific</td>
<td><em>Penaeus</em></td>
<td><em>californiensis</em></td>
<td>Honduras, U.S.A.</td>
<td>Broom, 1972; Moore et al., 1974</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

aHolthuis, 1980
b*P. chinensis* is the accurate but less familiar name (Holthuis, 1980)
cWhere maturation work was done in alphabetical order
1983 and a maximum of 3 spawns/♀/2 months for *P. indicus* (Primavera et al., 1982).

Consequently, the interval between consecutive spawnings is reduced to only 3 to 15 days in ablated females compared to a minimum of 10 days up to 2.7 months in unablated controls and females in the wild (Table 2). This gap of 1-2 months (Fig. 2) probably represents the length of time for eggs to fully mature during a reproductive season (Rao, 1968). By reducing it to as short as three days with rapid maturation and overstimulation of spawning, ablation may lead to insufficient reserves in the hepatopancreas (Aquacop, 1977b; Lumare, 1979; Beard and Wickins, 1980). A decline in fecundity, hatch rate and egg viability has been observed with successive spawns in a single intermolt or with successive molt cycles in *P. monodon* (Beard and Wickins, 1980) and *P. indicus* (Primavera et al., 1982) and an increase in the proportion of partially developed ovaries and partial spawnings in successive spawnings of *P. kerathurus* (Lumare, 1979).

Given this reproductive decline, *P. monodon* broodstock are replaced 6-8 weeks after ablation (Simon, 1982; Primavera, 1983). Emmerson (1980) obtained viable spawns from ablated *P. indicus* for up to 7 months and from unablated females for one year. Ablated females gave lower fecundity and hatch rates compared to nonablated females due to a greater number of poor spawns which may be traced to a rapidity of egg development. However, spawning frequency of ablated females (2.24 spawns/molt cycle of 19.1 days) was not much higher than for unablated *P. indicus* (1.98 spawns/molt cycle of 20.1 days). Therefore, the lower hatch rates may be due to inherently poor egg quality in ablated females and not the rapidness of ovarian development.

In addition to the exhaustion of female reserves, this decline in reproductive performance could also be attributed to a decrease in quantity if not quality of sperm (Beard and Wickins, 1980) considering that sperm from a single mating will need to fertilize up to six spawns within a single molt cycle (Fig. 2). However, Emmerson (1980) concluded that decreased hatchability of successive spawns within a molt cycle from ablated *P. indicus* females was not due to insufficient sperm but a decline in egg quality because the two spermatophores deposited during a single mating could fertilize up to three successive spawns.

Many commercial hatcheries that use broodstock for part or all of their spawns’ requirement prefer to do eyestalk ablation even for penaeid species demonstrated to mature unablated in captivity. Ablation leads to predictable peaks of maturation and spawning which facilitates the setting up of production schedules, in contrast to scattered spawns from unablated females. For production purposes, this predictability in availability and number of nauplii compensates for the trend towards decreased fecundity and hatch rates with successive spawns from ablated broodstock.

The various techniques used to ablate penaeids may be classified into two. The first method results in the total removal of the eye and the partial/total removal of the eyestalk by cutting with scissors; cautery using clamps or soldering iron or electrocautery; tying with a string; or manual pinching (Caillouet, 1972; Arnstein and Beard, 1975; Duronslet et al., 1975; Aquacop, 1977a). The second method partially destroys the eyestalk but retains the outer (corneal) layer of the eye. It is performed by first incising the eye, pressing the contents outwards then crushing the eyestalk (Primavera, 1978). The important thing is to prevent excessive loss of fluids and infection either by cauterizing the open wound and applying antibiotics as in the first method or by means of the remaining corneal layer that contains the bleeding and also forms a scar in the second method.

The term “ablation” meaning removal of a part especially by cutting strictly applies to the first method, so with “extirpation” meaning the rooting out or complete destruction.

### Table 2. Effect of ablation on maturation and spawning in closed thelycum penaeids.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Spawning rate</th>
<th>Interval between spawnings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unablated</td>
<td>Ablated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. japonicus</em></td>
<td>0.37 sp./♀/mo</td>
<td>2.7 mo*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. merguiensis</em></td>
<td>0.38 sp./♀/mo</td>
<td>2.6 mo*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 sp./♀/molt cycle</td>
<td>10.2 days*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. indicus</em></td>
<td>3 sp./♀/2 mo (max.)*</td>
<td>2 mo*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.98 sp./♀/molt cycle</td>
<td>5 days*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. kerathurus</em></td>
<td>8 sp./♀*</td>
<td>5 days*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. paultensis</em></td>
<td>17 sp./♀*</td>
<td>5 days*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. monodon</em></td>
<td>1 sp./♀/mo*</td>
<td>5 days*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-6 sp./molt cycle</td>
<td>5 days*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. orientalis</em></td>
<td>4 sp./molt cycle</td>
<td>5 days*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. latisulcatus</em></td>
<td>1.13 sp./♀*</td>
<td>5 days*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2-4 sp./♀/molt cycle (max.)*</td>
<td>5 days*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*a* Laubier-Bonichon and Laubier, 1979; *b* Beard et al., 1977; *c* Crocos and Kerr, 1983; *d* Primavera et al., 1982; *e* Emmerson, 1980; *f* Lumare, 1979; *g* Marchiori and Boff, 1983; *h* Aquacop, 1977a; *i* Beard and Wickins, 1980; *j* Hillier, 1984; *k* Arnstein and Beard, 1975; *l* Rao, 1968; *m* Penn, 1980; *n* Nurjana and Won, 1976; *o* Primavera and Borlongan, 1978; *p* Primavera et al., 1979; *q* Aquacop, 1980; *r* Poernomo and Hamami, 1983; *s* Browdy and Samocha, in press; *t* Browdy and Samocha, 1985.
"Enucleation" or the removal from a sac or capsule more appropriately describes the second method, although ablation has become the generally accepted term for most penaeid workers. Other terms used are the French ablation and épédonculatíon and the Spanish ablación and oculotomía.

At present, the standard procedure is unilateral ablation of either left or right eyestalk. Arnstein and Beard (1975) and Santiago (1977) observed that ablation of a single eyestalk was sufficient to induce maturation in P. orientalis and P. monodon, respectively, contrary to the findings of Alikunhi et al. (1975). In addition to the high mortality rates experienced in these species, bilateral ablation also leads to a loss of balance, swimming in spiral motion near the water surface, and other abnormal behavior in P. duorarum (Caillouet, 1972) and P. merguiensis (Alikunhi et al., 1975) and to lack of copulation in P. paulensis (Marchiori and Boff, 1983).

The latency period from ablation to the onset of maturation and subsequent spawning ranges from three days up to two months depending on the age and source of broodstock, stage of the molt cycle, and other factors at the time of ablation. Wild Subadult P. monodon caught in mangroves took 40 days to mature and 69 days to spawn after ablation (Hillier, 1984) compared to a minimum of only three days for wild adults from offshore waters (Primavera and Borlongan, 1978; Simon, 1982). Similarly, wild P. monodon from offshore Indian Ocean took only 4-5 days to spawn after ablation in contrast to 20-30 days for females from brackishwater Songkhla Lake (Ruangpanit et al., 1984). Lumare (1979) observed a longer latency period for captive P. kerathurus compared to wild stock.

Correlating events in the reproductive cycle with the molt cycle in P. indicus and P. merguiensis, respectively, Emmerson (1980) and Crocos and Kerr (1983) conclude that ovarian maturation proceeds through the intermolt and early premolt followed by spawning during the intermolt or premolt and that mating occurs immediately after ecdysis when the females have undeveloped ovaries. Ideally, ablation should be undertaken during the intermolt for maturation to follow in less than a week. Ablation during the premolt leads to molting with a subsequently longer latency period of 2-4 weeks before maturation in P. monodon (Aquacop, 1979; Primavera et al., 1979). On the other hand, ablation during the postmolt leads to mortality because of added stress on the female and excessive loss of hemolymph (Aquacop, 1977a).

Mortality associated with ablation may be immediate or of a long-term nature. Ablation did not affect survival of P. monodon (Aquacop, 1977a; Vicente et al., 1979) and P. plebejus (Kelemec and Smith, 1980) whereas initial mortality due to ablation was observed in P. kerathurus (Lumare, 1979) and P. monodon (Primavera et al., 1978). Survival rates of 0, 38 and 49% for bilaterally ablated, unilaterally ablated and unablated P. monodon, respectively, were obtained after 196 days (Santiago, 1977). Higher survival of unablated females was also observed in P. duorarum (Caillouet, 1972) and P. indicus (Primavera et al., 1982). Other causes of broodstock mortality could be nutritional deficiency, stress due to molting, spawning, handling, etc. P. monodon males generally show a higher survival rate due to the absence of ablation, spawning and handling stress (Primavera et al., 1979; Pudadera et al., 1980b).

Environmental

The life cycle of most penaeids consists of an estuarine phase with the shoreward movement of postlarvae and a marine phase with the offshore migration of adolescents and subadults. The postlarvae grow into juveniles in mangroves, rivers and other brackishwater nurseries. Ovarian development may start in the estuaries but it is only after returning to the sea that full maturation and spawning take place. Attendant to this return migration are changes in physicochemical factors that may provide the stimuli for the lowering of GHI levels. Among the parameters so far studied, temperature and light appear to play a role in maturation. Tables 3 and 4 give details on various physicochemical parameters in maturation tanks.

Light. The deeper offshore waters where adult penaeids breed is characterized by reduced light intensity and greater

Fig. 2. Frequency of maturation and spawning in unablated and ablated closed thelycum penaeids.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Ablation*</th>
<th>Broodstock source</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Stocking density (no/m²)</th>
<th>Sex ratio (♀:♂)</th>
<th>Daily water exchange rate</th>
<th>Water management</th>
<th>Temp. (°C)</th>
<th>Salinity (ppt)</th>
<th>pH</th>
<th>Light intensity &amp; quality</th>
<th>Photo-period (hr light)</th>
<th>Food</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P. aztecus</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>captive</td>
<td>9 mo</td>
<td>16-24</td>
<td>1:1</td>
<td>200-300%</td>
<td>flow-through</td>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>10-40%</td>
<td>natural</td>
<td>art. diet &amp; bonito</td>
<td>Aquacop, 1975</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. brasiliensis</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>wild</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1:1</td>
<td></td>
<td>200-300%</td>
<td>flow-through</td>
<td>23.5-27</td>
<td>34-35</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>reduced</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>fresh mussel</td>
<td>Barros et al., 1982</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. californiensis</td>
<td>wild</td>
<td>water spray</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>22-28</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>8-8.3</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>natural</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>commercial flake, shark &amp; art. food</td>
<td>Moore et al., 1974</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. duororum</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>wild &amp; captive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>30-35</td>
<td></td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>commercial trout food &amp; squid</td>
<td>Caillouet, 1972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. esculentus</td>
<td>±</td>
<td>wild</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>14.5 hr</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>P. Crocos, pers. comm.</td>
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<tr>
<td>P. indicus</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>pond &amp; wild</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>recirculating</td>
<td>24.5-30.2</td>
<td>natural</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>fresh clam, live mysids</td>
<td>Muthu &amp; Laxminaraya, 1977</td>
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<tr>
<td>P. japonicus</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>captive</td>
<td>11 mo</td>
<td>16-24</td>
<td>1:1</td>
<td>200-300%</td>
<td>flow-through</td>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>10-40%</td>
<td>natural</td>
<td>art. diet &amp; bonito</td>
<td>Aquacop, 1975</td>
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<tr>
<td>P. kerathurus</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>captive</td>
<td>10-15</td>
<td>1:1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1/3 daily</td>
<td>recirculating</td>
<td>24-26</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>500-1,500 lux</td>
<td>14.75-16 hr</td>
<td>mussel</td>
<td>Laubier-Bonichon &amp; Laubier, 1979</td>
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<tr>
<td>P. merguiensis</td>
<td>pond</td>
<td>4-5 mo</td>
<td>16-24</td>
<td>200-300%</td>
<td></td>
<td>recirculating</td>
<td>25.5-30</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>squid, mussel, troca &amp; pellet</td>
<td>Aquacop, 1975, 1983a</td>
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*a+ with eyestalk ablation; — without eyestalk ablation*
### Table 3. (continued).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Ablation</th>
<th>Broodstock source</th>
<th>Age Stocking density (no/m²)</th>
<th>Sex ratio (♀:♂)</th>
<th>Daily water exchange rate</th>
<th>Water management</th>
<th>Temp. (°C)</th>
<th>Salinity (ppt)</th>
<th>pH</th>
<th>Light intensity &amp; quality</th>
<th>Photo-period (hr light)</th>
<th>Food</th>
<th>Reference</th>
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<td><em>P. merguiensis</em></td>
<td>— pond</td>
<td>1:1</td>
<td>27.8-30.6</td>
<td>24-31</td>
<td>mysid, pellet &amp; shrimp</td>
<td>Alkunhi et al., 1975</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>— wild</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.6:1</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>replacement</td>
<td>Nurjana &amp; Won, 1976</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pond</td>
<td>6-7 mo</td>
<td>5-15</td>
<td>1:2:1</td>
<td>50%/wk</td>
<td>mysid &amp; shrimp</td>
<td>Alkunhi et al., 1975</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P. monodon</td>
<td>+ pond</td>
<td>1:1</td>
<td>25.5-30.6</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>10%, 100 lux</td>
<td>natural</td>
<td>squid, mussel &amp; art. pellet</td>
<td>Aquacop, 1977a, b, 1979, 1980, 1983a</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ pond</td>
<td>1-2 yr</td>
<td>5-6</td>
<td>1:2:1</td>
<td>30%/3 days</td>
<td>natural</td>
<td>salted mussel</td>
<td>Primavera et al., 1979</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ pond</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2:1</td>
<td>200-400% flow-through</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>natural</td>
<td>mussel, squid</td>
<td>Primavera et al., 1979</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ wild</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>2:1</td>
<td>200-400% flow-through</td>
<td>40-60%</td>
<td>natural</td>
<td>brown mussel &amp; pel &amp; shrimp</td>
<td>Pudadera et al., 1980</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ wild</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1:1</td>
<td>200-400% flow-through</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>natural</td>
<td>mussel &amp; pel &amp; shrimp</td>
<td>Pudadera et al., 1980b</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ pond</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1:1</td>
<td>200-400% flow-through</td>
<td>1,210-3,500 lux; blue, red, natural</td>
<td>mussel &amp; pel &amp; shrimp</td>
<td>Pudadera &amp; Primavera, 1981</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ wild &amp; pond</td>
<td>7.5/ton</td>
<td>3.3:1</td>
<td>26-32.3-28.5-34.1</td>
<td>natural</td>
<td>mussel, pel &amp; fish</td>
<td>Vicente et al., 1979</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ captive</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1:12</td>
<td>15%/week</td>
<td>recirculating</td>
<td>40-70 lux</td>
<td>19 hr</td>
<td>mussel &amp; shrimp</td>
<td>Beard &amp; Wickins, 1980</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ wild</td>
<td>13/ton</td>
<td>1:1</td>
<td>26-28-30</td>
<td>natural</td>
<td>squid, cockle &amp; prawn &amp; prep. feed</td>
<td>Ruangpanit et al., 1981</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ wild</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1:1</td>
<td>100-200% flow-through</td>
<td>natural</td>
<td>mussel &amp; cow liver</td>
<td>Emmerson, 1983</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ pond &amp; 5.8 mo wild</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1:1</td>
<td>100-250% flow-through</td>
<td>fluorescent light</td>
<td>14 hr</td>
<td>squid &amp; clams</td>
<td>Simon, 1982</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ pond</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>1:1</td>
<td>20-50%/2-3 days</td>
<td>replacement</td>
<td>70 µW cm² (reduced)</td>
<td>natural</td>
<td>squid, cockle &amp; prep. feed</td>
<td>Poernomo &amp; Hamami, 1983</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ wild</td>
<td>2.2/ton</td>
<td>1:1</td>
<td>30%/2 days</td>
<td>replacement</td>
<td>70 µW cm² (reduced)</td>
<td>pel &amp; prawn</td>
<td>Emmerson, 1983</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ wild</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>3:1</td>
<td>26-31</td>
<td>green</td>
<td>natural (12 hr)</td>
<td>Hillier, 1984</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><em>P. notialis</em></td>
<td>+ wild</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>24-30</td>
<td>35-37.3-7.8</td>
<td>fish</td>
<td>Ramos and Gonzalez, 1983</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><em>P. orientalis</em></td>
<td>+ tank</td>
<td>8 mo</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>1:1</td>
<td>50%/wk</td>
<td>recirculating</td>
<td>8 hr</td>
<td>mussel &amp; shrimp</td>
<td>Arnstein &amp; Beard, 1975</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><em>P. paulensis</em></td>
<td>— wild</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mussel &amp; white fish</td>
<td>Agarez &amp; Barros, n.d.</td>
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</table>
penetration of blue and green light compared to other wave-
lengths (derlov, 1970). Various studies have tried to approxi-
mate light conditions in the natural habitat inside matura-
tion tanks.

**Light intensity.** Decreasing levels to 10-60% of incident light through the use of covers made of plastic, cloth, etc. dis-
courages algal growth in tanks and decreases the solar ener-
gy which may inhibit maturation in nonburrowing species such as *P. merguiensis* (Aquacop, 1983a). Reduced light levels
led to fast maturation in nonablated and ablated *P. monodon*
(Emmerson, 1983; Hillier, 1984). Covered tanks also mini-
mimize disturbance of broodstock (Primavera, 1983).

**Light quality.** Unablated *P. duorarum* did not mature in
tanks provided with blue, green and white light (Caillouet,
1972). Similarly, unablated *P. monodon* attained only partial
maturation under blue and natural light but not under red
light (Pudadera and Primavera, 1981). However, nonablated
*P. indicus* kept under dim green and blue light showed
improved growth and condition and increased spawning activi-
ity after a depression of all three during the initial 'settling
down' period (Emmerson et al., 1983). In contrast, initially
high spawning levels of females in the control (natural light)
tank decreased after the second month as a consequence of a
steady decline in broodstock (Primavera, 1983).

**Photoperiod.** Unablated *P. duorarum* failed to mature
under varying light-dark combinations including continuous
light and continuous darkness (Caillouet, 1972). Similarly,
increasing photoperiod to 19 hr (light) failed to induce matura-
tion in unablated *P. monodon* (Beard and Wickins, 1980). In
contrast, both ablated and unablated *P. plebejus* produced
more maturations and spawnings with daylength of 14.5 hr
compared to 12 hr (P.J. Crocos, pers. comm.).

Unablated *P. japonicus* produced the greatest number of
spawnings over a 7-month period when daylength was gra-
dually increased from 12.75 to 14.75 hr compared to shorter
and longer photoperiods (Laubier-Bonichon and Laubier,
1979). Slightly different results were reported by Caubere et
et al., (1979) with nonablated *P. japonicus* producing more
nauplii when photoperiod was gradually increased to 16 hr
over a 6-month period compared to an abrupt increase to 16
hr over 3 months. However, for the duration of both studies,
temperature was also increased from 15°C to 28°C so that
maturation cannot be attributed solely to photoperiod.

Table 3. (continued).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Ablation</th>
<th>Brood-</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Stocking density (no./m²)</th>
<th>Sex ratio (♀:♂)</th>
<th>Daily water exchange rate</th>
<th>Water management</th>
<th>Temp. (°C)</th>
<th>Salinity (ppt)</th>
<th>pH</th>
<th>Light intensity &amp; quality</th>
<th>Photoperiod (hr light)</th>
<th>Food</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>P. paulensis</em></td>
<td>wild</td>
<td>10-15%</td>
<td>recirculating</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>33-35</td>
<td>7.8-8.2</td>
<td>2,500 lux</td>
<td>16 hr</td>
<td>clam, fish &amp; annelid worms</td>
<td>Primavera &amp; Boff, 1983</td>
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<tr>
<td><em>P. plebejus</em></td>
<td>wild</td>
<td>11-17</td>
<td>7:1</td>
<td>2.5-5%</td>
<td>recirculating</td>
<td>26-28</td>
<td>32-35</td>
<td>8.0-8.5</td>
<td>dim, blue</td>
<td>12 hr</td>
<td>prawn tail</td>
<td>Kelemec &amp; Smith, 1980</td>
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<td><em>P. semisulcatus</em></td>
<td>captive</td>
<td>16-24</td>
<td>1:1</td>
<td>200-300%</td>
<td>flow-through</td>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>10-40%</td>
<td>art. diet</td>
<td>Aquacop, 1975</td>
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<td></td>
<td>wild</td>
<td>12-15/m³</td>
<td>1.8-2.5:1</td>
<td>250%</td>
<td>flow-through</td>
<td>19.5-27.3</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>0.1-0.3</td>
<td>µE/m²/sec</td>
<td><em>Artemia</em> biomass, fish, shrimp &amp; squid</td>
<td>Browdy &amp; Samocha, 1985</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pond</td>
<td>18/3/m³</td>
<td>2.6:1</td>
<td>250%</td>
<td>flow-through</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>7.8-2-0.1-0.3</td>
<td>8.08</td>
<td>green</td>
<td>Browdy &amp; Samocha, in press</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Most maturation tank systems rely on natural photoperiod
(Table 3). Controlled photoperiod in tanks may have longer
daylengths of 12-16 hr for *P. monodon* (Simon, 1982), *P. paul-
ensis* (Marchiori and Boff, 1983) and *P. plebejus* (Kele-
 mec and Smith, 1980) and shorter periods of 8 hr for sub-
tropical and temperate species such as *P. japonicus* and
*P. orientalis* (Arnstein and Beard 1975; Kanazawa, 1982).
The role of photoperiod in the control of maturation is prob-
ably not as critical for species distributed along the equator
and therefore not exposed to significant differences in day-
light hours as it is for subtropical penaeids.

Temperature. A comparison of temperature regimes main-
tained in maturation tanks shows an upper range of 26-32°C
for most penaeid species and a lower one of 16-28°C for sub-
tropical species such as *P. japonicus* and *P. orientalis* (Tables
3 and 4). For the latter group, ablated females mature even at
the lower temperature limits, suggesting a greater need for
fine tuning of environmental parameters in the absence of
ablation. Nonablated *P. orientalis* had a mean ovarian
weight of 1.56 g at a higher temperature of 18°C in contrast
to ablated females with 10.31 g mean ovarian weight at only
11°C (Liang et al., 1983). Similarly, ablated *P. japonicus*
started to mature even at 18°C (Kanazawa, 1982) whereas
unablated females produced more spawnings and more eggs
and larvae per spawning at higher temperatures of 24°C and
26°C compared to 20°C (Laubier-Bonichon and Laubier,
1979). In the latter study, however, photoperiod was also
manipulated so the effect of temperature on maturation is
not clearcut. In reproductively active ablated *P. japonicus*, a
rest period was induced by decreasing temperature to below 17.5°C (Lumare, 1979). In both ablated and nonablated *P. indicus* kept in tanks at 22, 32 and 42 ppt although females maturing at 32 ppt showed significantly higher fecundity and hatch rates (A. Openiano, pers. comm.). Similarly, manipulation of o f salinity of di no t induce m aturation in unabl a ted *P. duor ar um* (Caillouet, 1972). On the other hand, Ruangpani et al. (1984) observed a higher maturation rate and proportion of *P. monodon* females with fertile egg s after r ablation i n prawns s collecte d from m the Indian Ocean which is a spawning ground with 33 ppt salinity compared to those from Songkhla Lake, a nursery area of the species with h 22-2.8 ppt salinity. However, the difference s in depth (20-30 m in the Indian Ocean and 1-1.5 m in Songkhla Lake) and other environmental factors make this observation inconclusive.

Most maturatio n system s depend on available seawate r with ambient salinity of 24-36 ppt (Table 4) with lower levels experienced during typhoons or heavy rains.

**pH.** Ablate d *P. indicus* female s reach e d early ma turation then resorbe d thei r ovarie s whe n p H of recirculate d water w as allowed. t o o declin e from 8. 2 to 7. 2 i n plastic-lined d pools (Muthu et al., 1984). Successfu l maturation , spawning g a nd hatching of viable naupli i were obtaine d only fr o m abl ate d female s kept in pools where pH was maintained at around 8.2 by dail y addition of sodium carbonate.

**Nutrition.**

Recent studie s on nutri tional requirement s fo r penaeid d maturatio n have focused o n lipid s which provide energy, a s well as essential nutrients such as sterols and phospholipids.

Nutritional studies. I n wil d *P. japonicus*, Teshim a an d Kanazawa (1983) observe d a n increa se i n ovar ia n lipi d concen tration fr om slightl y mature e to yello w ovar ia n stages , reaching constan t level s i n matu r ovarie s an d decline i n g after spawning. I n contrast, lip i d level s i n th e hepato pana creas decline d in mature ovarie s after r eaching a maximum i n th e yello w ovarie s suggestin g a poss i ble movemen t o f lipi ds from the hepatopancreas to ovaries during maturation. Ov arian lipid concentration in wil d *P. aztecus* showed a n increa se fro m early developing to ripe stage s and a decline i n spent females (Chamberlain and Lawrence, 1983). There was also a n increa se i n ovar ia n carbohydrat e e lev els fr om n ear ly ripe t o ripe stage s but n o changes i n protein concentra tion for all maturation stages.

Ovarian lip i d concentration i n immatur e *P. monodon* increased up on reaching full maturity from 5.8 to 17.0% in wild (unabl a ted) females (Millama n et al., 1984) and fr om 7.5 to 21.9% i n wil d ablated d female s (O. Millama n, pers. comm.). The f att y aci d profile e showe d d 12.14-24.87 % an d 11.81-24.50% fo r r to ta l f att y aci d s i n wil d (unabl ate d) an d d wild abl ate d female s , respectively , t o o consis t o f 20:4a 6 (arachi donic aci d) , 20:5ω 3 (eicosa pentane o i c aci d ) an d 22:6ω 3 (docosahexaenoic aci d). Th e sum e of polysaturated d f atty acids (PUFA’s) were re flected i n th e spaw ne d egg s, indicating their importance i n the reproductive process. Simil arly, high lev els of these PUFA’s were found in wil d *P. set i ferus*, *P. s tylirostris* an d *P. vannamei* (Middledite h et al., 1979, 1980).

**Food sources.** Mollusk s includ e gland musse l , clam , cockl e and squi d ar e th e most c ommon f oo d source s for r penaeid broodstock (Tables 3 and 4). Other food items used are fresh or frozen marine worms, mysids, shrimp and fish, and dried pellets. Thes e various items m ay be given alone o r i n com bination. The broodstock are fed ad libitum or according to a daily feeding rate of approximately 5-7% for dry feed (pellets) and 10-30% for wet (fresh or frozen) feed. Feed d is given once u p t o four r times a day and the daily ration divide d accordingly.

A mussel-pelle t an d a n all-musse l feeding combinatio n gave better maturation and hatchi ng rates than a squid-pellet or all-pellet feeding for ablated *P. monodon* (Primaver a et al., 1979). Aquaco p (1979) obtained d bes t result s usin g a squid-containing pellet with 60% protein. However, the feed ing of fresh troca univalves to early maturing ablated *P. monodon* ha s a positive e ffect on maturation an d egg g via-bility (Aquacop , 1977b). Female s tha t mat ur e e n o n pellet s alone spaw n unfertilize d egg s although h e y un derg o sucess ful mating and are positive for sperm.

These finding s point to the need fo r natural food sources, particularly those r ic h in PUFA’s, e. g. mollusk s and marine worms, for r penaeid maturation.

**Maturation systems.**

Majority o f penaeid maturatio n system s use t e atank s in corporated within the hatchery complex whereas a few h ave experimented with pens an d cages (Fig. 3). Th e advanta ges offered b y land-base d tank s includ e eas y e monitorin g an d

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**Fig. 3.** Broodstock source , maturatio n system s an d retriev al i n penaeid species.
spawner retrieval, convenience in cleaning and maintenance, and better security against poachers (Primavera and Gabasa, 1981).

Tanks

Construction. Tank size ranges from 500 l to 50 m³ and construction materials include cement, ferrocement, fiberglass and aluminum lined with plastic sheets. Size of the tanks is a compromise between biological requirements of the animals and convenience of the hatchery staff.

Maturation rates of various penaeids were higher in bigger tanks (Vicente et al., 1979; P.J. Crocos, pers. comm.) although Beard and Wickins (1980) obtained maturation in _P. monodon_ in only 125 l of water (0.83 × 0.72 × 0.2 m). Better maturation of ablated _P. monodon_ in large round tanks compared to smaller rectangular tanks may have been due to less disturbance in the large tanks during routine procedures (Hiller, 1984).

Similarly, mating is more successful in larger and deeper tanks (section IV, C) although very deep water presents practical difficulties for daily operations. The popularity of a 10-12 m³ circular tank with 0.8-1.0 m water depth is due to the convenience in maintenance and daily monitoring of broodstock for ovarian development as well as satisfactory maturation performance.

Physicochemical parameters. Except for manipulation of light and temperature, physicochemical parameters in maturation tanks are dependent on incoming seawater (Tables 3 and 4). Ranges are 24-36 ppt salinity; 26-32°C and 16-28°C temperature for tropical and subtropical/temperate species, respectively; 7.5-8.5 pH; and dissolved oxygen at saturation levels of 5-7 mg/l with flowthrough water or continuous aeration.

As discussed earlier (section II, B), most maturation tanks depend on a natural light source with intensity reduced to 10-60% of incident light through the use of dark covers. If artificial light is used, photoperiod and spectral quality can also be controlled in addition to intensity. Tanks are generally located inside a roofed structure, with or without walls.

Water quality. Good water quality with excellent maturation results can be achieved with a flowthrough water system which gives a daily exchange rate of 100-400% of total water volume. However, it needs an unlimited supply of clear, unpolluted seawater. Where natural sources are limited, during typhoon months when seawater is turbid or when heated water is used for temperature control, there is a need to recirculate water through filters, often with the aid of air-water-lifts.

Filters may be biological and/or mechanical to remove metabolites, e.g. ammonia and particulate matter, respectively. They are often installed external to the tank but they may also be built-in as a sand-gravel substrate. The water quality and exchange rate in recirculating tanks will depend on the efficiency of these filters.

In addition to flowthrough and recirculating water, maturation tanks may use simple aeration to circulate water in conjunction with regular or periodic water replacement (20-50% of total volume every 1-7 days). Of the three management systems, the last requires the least input but is the most vulnerable to fouling.

Muthu and Laxminarayana (1977) had negative results with ablated _P. monodon_ and _P. indicus_ in plastic-lined pools with airstones. Only after seawater quality improved with the addition of a subgravel filter with air-lift recirculation were ovarian maturation and spawning observed. In another experiment, however, ablated _P. indicus_ failed to attain full maturation in recirculating pools where pH was allowed to decline to 7.2 in contrast to successful maturation, spawning and hatching when pH was maintained at 8.2 (Muthu et al., 1984). Aquacop (1975) stresses the importance of oceanic water with a low level of organic and inorganic particles for the successful maturation of various penaeid species in flowthrough maturation tanks.

Prophylactics such as 2.5 ppm furanace, 50-25 ppm formalin, and 1.5-2 ppm streptomycin are used initially and/or regularly after stocking to disinfect tanks and broodstock, control disease and reduce mortality (Simon, 1982; Poernomo and Hamami, 1983).

Substrates. As earlier discussed, a sand-gravel substrate in flowthrough and recirculating tanks can improve water quality by acting as filter. A substrate is also required for burrowing species such as _P. japonicus_ whether the water is static, flowing or recirculating.

A comparison of black and white sand substrates showed significantly greater nauplii production and hatch rates from

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**Table 4.** Summary of maturation requirements in tanks for closed thelycum penaeids.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Requirement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eyestalk ablation</td>
<td>Required for some species, optional for others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Light intensity</td>
<td>Reduced: 10-60% of incident (natural) light</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100-500 lux, 50-70 µW/cm² (artificial)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Light quality</td>
<td>Blue or green light</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photoperiod</td>
<td>Natural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Artificial: 12-16 hr light</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temperature</td>
<td>Tropical spp.: 26-32°C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subtropical and temperate spp.: 16-28°C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salinity</td>
<td>24-36 ppt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pH</td>
<td>7.5-8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water exchange rate</td>
<td>Flowthrough water: 100-400%/day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recirculated and/or replaced water: 5-50%/l-7 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stocking density</td>
<td>50-150 g body wt.: 2-7/m³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(=300-400 g/m³)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex ratio</td>
<td>1-2♀:1♂</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feed</td>
<td>Mussel, clam, squid and other mollusks; marine worms; shrimp; mysids; fish; cow liver; formulated diets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fresh, fresh/frozen or dry (pellets)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In combined or single diets given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-4X/day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily feeding rate</td>
<td>a) Wet feeds: 10-30% of total biomass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dry feeds: 3-5% of total biomass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b) <em>Ad libitum</em> or to satiety</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Penaeid Maturation and Reproduction

ablated *P. monodon* in tanks with white sand (Pudadera et al., 1980a). Moreover, white sand provides greater contrast and is therefore more convenient for regular monitoring of females and daily cleaning of tanks. On the other hand, non-ablated *P. indicus* kept in tanks with inner walls painted black (without substrate) produced more spawns, greater average fecundity and hatch rates than females in white tanks (Emmerson, 1980).

For maturation of nonboring penaeids, substrates are optional. However, necrosis and injuries to appendages as a result of crawling and other benthic activities may be more frequent on a bare tank particularly if broodstock are maintained for a long time. Such damage can be minimized if the tank bottom has a smooth finish.

**Stocking density.** In general, lower stocking densities produce better maturation and survival rates in broodstock. Stocking density depends on water quality and exchange rate and on the size of the animals.

Larger species such as *P. monodon* weighing 50-150 g are stocked at 2-7/\text{m}^2 (Aquacop, 1977a, 1983a; Primavera, 1978, 1983; Simon, 1982; Poernomo and Hamami, 1983; Hillier, 1984). Smaller-sized species such as *P. indicus*, *P. japonicus*, *P. murguiensis* and *P. plebejus* with a body weight of 10-60 g have a density of 10-35/\text{m}^2 (Aquacop, 1975, 1983a; Lumare, 1979, 1981; Kelemec and Smith, 1980; Primavera et al., 1982). Whether few or many animals, the biomass should not exceed 300-400 g/\text{m}^2 (Table 4).

Tank area is more important than volume because of the benthic nature of penaeids. However, water depth may be critical for such activities as mating (section IV, C).

**Sex ratio.** In penaeid hatcheries, males are required for mating and spermatophore transfer but not for maturation. All-female ablated populations of *P. monodon* (Beard and Wikins, 1980; Pudadera et al., 1980b) and *P. notialis* (Ramos and Gonzales, 1983) matured in the absence of males. However, the spawned eggs of *P. monodon* were not fertilized and did not hatch indicating a lack of sperm (Pudadera et al., 1980b).

Generally, sex ratios are maintained at 1 ♀:\(♂\) to ensure mating success in tanks. However, a 2 ♀:1 ♂ ratio produced the highest spawning rate, fecundity and total number of nauplii compared to 1:0, 1:1 and 4:1 female to male ratios (Pudadera et al., 1980b). Higher sex ratios in favor of females (1.5-3 ♀:1 ♂) are more economical because they maximize egg and larval production per tank. If female broodstock mortality is high, the ratio gradually evens out.

**Tank monitoring and retrieval.** The end-products of maturation may be retrieved from the tank as gravid females, spawned eggs or hatched nauplii (Fig. 3). The main advantage of female retrieval is that it allows individual records including data on fecundity, hatching and spawner measurements which are important for experimental work.

Monitoring light-colored species such as *P. indicus* for ovarian maturation can be done during the day by directly looking at the prawns if the water is clear enough. In the case of *P. monodon* and other dark-shelled species, a source of light is needed to show off the outline of the ovaries for mature females. This can be done by scooping out the females and holding against the light or by the less stressful method of flashing the beam of an underwater light against the female thereby avoiding unnecessary handling.

Efficiency in spawner retrieval depends on tank size and frequency of sampling. Smaller tanks of less than 20 m\(^3\) are more manageable and more frequently sampled than larger tanks of 20-50 m\(^3\). Also, nightly monitoring of a 12 m\(^3\) tank yielded 48 spawners producing 6.8 \(\times\) 10\(^3\) nauplii of *P. monodon* compared to only 3.0 \(\times\) 10\(^3\) nauplii from 29 spawners with thrice weekly monitoring (Pudadera et al., 1980a).

Egg collectors have been installed in tanks for *P. japonicus* (Laubier-Bonichon and Laubier, 1979; Lumare, 1981) and *P. monodon* (Simon, 1982) either alone to minimize the tedium of retrieving numerous females particularly in commercial hatcheries, or to retrieve the eggs of any stray spawners missed out during regular tank monitoring. Nauplii collectors devised for *P. indicus* were found unsatisfactory due to proliferation of bacteria and sea anemones (A.T. Young, pers. comm.).

The observation of individuals through various tags and marks has yielded important information on the maturation and molt cycles of penaeids. Tags of brass, silicone or cellophane around the unablated eyestalk of *P. monodon* (Rodriquez, 1976; Primavera, 1978; Aquacop, 1983a; Poernomo and Hamami, 1983) and aluminum bands around the unablated or ablated eyestalk of *P. plebejus* (Kelemec and Smith, 1980) with coded numbers, letters and colors have allowed the monitoring of maturation in individual females. To chart the molt cycle, however, additional tags attached to the cephalothorax (Aquacop, 1983a) and a coded system of cutting the uropods (Hillier, 1984) have been used for *P. monodon*.

**Pens and cages**

The offshore maturation pen requires a cove or bay protected from wind and wave action and seawater free from industrial and agricultural pollution (Primavera and Gabasa, 1981). The SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department prototype consists of a 16 × 16 × 4 m framework of bamboo posts, braces and mattings and an inner net which holds the *P. monodon* broodstock. Maturation cages made of nylon netting and installed inside a pond (Haider, 1978; B. Pudadera, pers. comm.) are so far experimental.

As earlier mentioned, tanks are preferred over pens and cages because of the greater security and convenience in broodstock monitoring and tank maintenance. Moreover, tanks can be located anywhere a prawn hatchery is put up unlike pens which are site-specific.

**Other aspects of reproduction**

In addition to maturation, the complete spectrum of controlled reproduction in penaeids includes spawning, hatching of eggs into viable larvae and the production of postlarvae to constitute the next batch of broodstock (Fig. 4). In turn, hatching of eggs presupposes incubation, fertilization, mating or spermatophore transfer, and male maturation.

**Constitution of broodstock**

The source of broodstock may be wild immature adults/subadults caught from estuaries or "sourced" by trawlers from offshore, or spent wild spawners recycled from...
The reproductive phase achieved in captivity in closed thelycum penaeids (Duronslet et al., 1975; P. Crocos, pers. comm.; Kelemec and Smith, 1980; Martino, 1981; Barros et al., 1982; Lumare, 1979; Ramos and Flores, 1983; Liang et al., 1983; Marchiori and Boff, 1983; Agarez and Barros, n.d.; Moore et al., 1974; Nurjana and Won, 1976; Ruangpanit et al., 1981, 1984; Caillouet, 1972; Shokita, 1970; Aquacop, 1983a; Broom, 1972; Liao, 1973; Arnstein and Beard, 1975; Santiago, 1977; Beard and Wickins, 1980; Browdy and Samocha, 1983).

Hatchery postlarvae grown to broodstock constitute the first parental (P₁) generation completely reared in captivity when they mature and spawn (Fig. 4). In turn, their offspring become the first filial (F₁) generation that grow to be the P₂ generation when they reproduce. The wild spawners or wild broodstock (matured in captivity) that produce the original hatchery postlarvae are referred to as the P₀ generation, same as wild fry that are reared to broodstock in captivity, because part of their life has been spent in the wild.

In French Polynesia, the rearing of P. monodon broodstock from young postlarvae to 60 g body weight over 9-12 months involves a series of 3-stage pond transfers during which density is gradually decreased from 20/m² to 1-2/m² and various artificial pellets and fresh feeds are given (Aquacop, 1983a). During the last stage (6 to 9 months of age), the supply of fresh feeds to the broodstock in ponds is critical to future maturation performance. P. monodon given fresh feed during this time show adequate serum protein concentration and a high spawning index whereas those fed pellets alone have a low serum protein level and few or no spawnings (Aquacop, 1983b). For P. indicus and P. merguiensis, standard pond grow-out technology is employed at lower stocking densities (MSU-IFRD, 1975; Aquacop, 1983a).

The minimum age at first ovarian maturation of captive broodstock is 4-8 months for P. indicus and P. merguiensis (Aquacop, 1975; Beard et al., 1977; Primavera et al., 1982; Emmerson, 1983), 8-9 months for P. aztecus given fresh feed during this time show adequate serum protein concentration and a high spawning index whereas those fed pellets alone have a low serum protein level and few or no spawnings (Aquacop, 1983b). For P. indicus and P. merguiensis, standard pond grow-out technology is employed at lower stocking densities (MSU-IFRD, 1975; Aquacop, 1983a).

Spawners from captive broodstock are generally smaller than those from the wild. Ablated P. monodon had a minimum size of 32 g (Poernomo and Hamami, 1983) and 45 g (Aquacop, 1977a) compared to 75 g for wild spawners (Primavera, 1978). On the other hand, only female P. monodon with carapace length (CL) of at least 52 mm out of a range of 42-70 mm matured after ablation (Muthu and Laxminarayana, 1977) which is greater than the minimum CL of 48 mm for wild spawners (Motoh, 1981). Minimum size at first ovarian maturation is 23 mm CL for P. semisulcatus (Thomas, 1974) and P. merguiensis (Crocos and Kerr, 1983) and 130.2 mm total length for P. indicus (Rao, 1968). P. indicus with 24-44 mm CL were ablated but only females with 30 mm CL and above matured (Muthu and Laxminarayana, 1977).

The choice of spawner source (wild spawner vs. wild broodstock vs. pond broodstock) depends on a number of factors foremost among which is expense. In the Philippines, a wild P. monodon spawner fetches from P100 to P1,000 (P18:US $1) apiece compared to only P10 to P40 each for wild immature females (Primavera, 1984). Hatchery production target is also important with large hatcheries relying on wild or captive broodstock to fill part or most of their spawner needs while small hatcheries may depend solely on wild spawners.

**Fig. 4.** Reproductive phase achieved in captivity in closed thelycum penaeids (Duronslet et al., 1975; P. Crocos, pers. comm.; Kelemec and Smith, 1980; Martino, 1981; Barros et al., 1982; Lumare, 1979; Ramos and Flores, 1983; Liang et al., 1983; Marchiori and Boff, 1983; Agarez and Barros, n.d.; Moore et al., 1974; Nurjana and Won, 1976; Ruangpanit et al., 1981, 1984; Caillouet, 1972; Shokita, 1970; Aquacop, 1983a; Broom, 1972; Liao, 1973; Arnstein and Beard, 1975; Santiago, 1977; Beard and Wickins, 1980; Browdy and Samocha, 1983; Aquacop, 1977a).
Also, hatcheries rearing native species can rely on wild spawners or wild broodstock whereas introduced or exotic species will have to depend on captive sources, e.g. *P. japonicus* in France and *P. monodon* in Brazil. Hatcheries with proximity to sources of wild spawners or wild broodstock may not need captive broodstock. With no abundant natural populations of *P. monodon*, Taiwan has had to import up to 40% of its spawner needs (Liao and Chao, 1983) mostly from the Philippines (Primavera, 1984). Taiwanese and many Philippine hatchery operators spare no expense to obtain wild *P. monodon* spawners in the belief they are superior to ablated females in terms of quantity and quality of eggs and larvae produced (section IV, F).

**Male maturation**

As with females, male maturity has two aspects — functional maturity or the ability to mate with the completion of the secondary sexual organs and physiological maturity or the ability of sperm to fertilize eggs with the development of the gonads. Male penaeids are functionally mature when their petasmata (accessory structures on the first pair of pleopods) are joined to each other by means of interlocking hooks.

However, more important is gonadal maturation and the presence of fully developed spermatozoa with spikes. These spikes are non-motile with an ultrastructure different from flagella (Clark et al., 1973) and are characteristic of other penaeid species. Because checking for spikes requires microscope work and sacrificing the male, many workers prefer to look for the swelling and whitish coloration of the terminal ampoules near the fifth pair of pereiopods as an indicator of gonadal maturity. Primavera et al. (1984) noted immature males without sperm from both pond and wild *P. monodon*. Alikunhi et al. (1975) reported maturation of male *P. monodon* from ponds 7-8 days after ablation but did not specify criteria for determining maturation. Primavera (1978) reported the presence of mature (spiked) sperm in *P. monodon* of 40 g and more from both wild and ponds although more recently, 10-month-old pond *P. monodon* were observed with immature (spikeless) sperm (Primavera, unpub.), Motoh (1981) reports that sperm from wild *P. monodon* with CL below 37 mm have no spikes. Among wild *P. merguiensis*, the joining of petasmata occurs between 20 to 25 mm CL (Tuma, 1966).

Male maturation should not be taken for granted because nonhatching of eggs may sometimes occur even when mating has taken place with the failure traceable to immature sperm.

**Mating (spermatophore transfer)**

Courtship and mating (precoital and copulatory) behavior has been described for *P. japonicus* (Hudinaga, 1942) and *P. monodon* (Primavera, 1979). In the latter, an elaborate series of stages is involved including parallel swimming, male turning ventral side up, then perpendicular to, and finally making a U-shape around, the female during which the sperm sacs are presumably inserted inside (transferred to) the thelycum. ("Spermatophore transfer" more appropriately denotes mating or copulation among penaeids than the terms "impregnation" or "insemination" which are better applied to mammals.)

The prerequisite to mating in closed thelycum penaeids is the molting of the female (Fig. 2) in contrast to open thelycum species which require ovarian maturation and imminent spawning of the female (Aquacop, 1977a).

In both cases, mating probably depends on one or more pheromones released by the female to attract males (Table 5). Complete darkness (Aquacop, 1980) as well as bright floodlights (Primavera, unpub.) are reported to hinder mating in *P. monodon*. Salinity may have no effect on copulation judging from the presence of sperm in the thelycum of *P. monodon* caught from estuaries and brackishwater ponds.

Mating requires a minimum water volume and depth with success and frequency limited in small tanks for *P. monodon* (Primavera, 1979; Poernomo and Hamami, 1983), *P. japonicus* (Lumare, 1981) and *P. esculentus* (P.J. Crocos, pers. comm.). The absence of (fertilization and hatching possibly due to unsuccessful spermatophore transfer was observed in *P. monodon* (Liao, 1973; Primavera et al., 1979; Emmerson, 1983). Such failure of mating could be traced to absence of males in *P. monodon* (Pudadera et al., 1980b), shallow water depth (25 cm) in *P. orientalis* (Arnstein and Beard, 1976), too few males (7 ± 1♂) and/or crowding due to numerous air-lift pipes and high stocking density (18/m²) in *P. plebejus* (Kelemec and Smith, 1980). Flowthrough water may also dilute pheromonal levels and decrease mating frequency.

**Table 5. Role of various factors in controlled reproduction in closed thelycum penaeids.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Mating</th>
<th>Maturation</th>
<th>Spawning</th>
<th>Fertilization, incubation and hatching</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hormonal/pheromones</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nutritional</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental (temperature, salinity, light)</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Newly-caught wild or pond broodstock are generally mated when stocked in maturation tanks. Hatching and viability of nauplii from initial captive spawnings are dependent on sperm from copulation in the wild or pond environment. However, unsuccessful mating in captivity will eventually lead to nonhatching of eggs due to loss of spermatophores once the female molts as observed in *P. plebejus* (Kelemec and Smith, 1980) and *P. notialis* (L. Ramos, pers. comm.). *P. monodon* spawnings averaged 96% hatch rate up to 10 days after ablation and decreased to 0% 12-66 days afterwards (Muthu and Laxminarayana, 1977).

Completeness of male and female genitalia (minimum age/size), molting of female, light intensity, tank size and depth all appear to play a role in spermatophore transfer. The effect of other factors needs to be studied.
Spawning

The spawning behavior of *P. monodon* has been described by various workers (Villaluz et al., 1972; Aquacop, 1977b; Motoh, 1981). The presence of pinkish to orange scum along the walls of spawning tanks is generally an indication of spawning in penaeids with *P. kerathurus* a notable exception (Lumare, 1979). Very little or no scum has been observed with spawns from ablated *P. monodon* in tanks provided with gentle aeration (Primavera, unpub.) and may be associated with reduced stress on the ready-to-spawn females. Trays or plates are installed on the bottom of spawning tanks to prevent the females of *P. japonicus* (Lumare, 1981), *P. indicus* (Primavera et al., 1982), and other species (Aquacop, 1975) from eating their eggs.

Non-spawning and regression of ovaries due to stress and "overripe" ovaries invaded by haemocytes have been reported for *P. merguiensis* (Beard et al., 1977). On the other hand, regression of ovaries has been observed in both stressed and undisturbed *P. monodon* females (Aquacop 1977b, 1980). Gravid *P. monodon* that do not spawn for 2-3 successive nights but retain the outline of apparently ripe ovaries may have the "milky ovary" disease caused by a microsporidian.

White light and low temperature were found to inhibit spawning in *P. plebejus* (Kelemec and Smith, 1984) whereas temperature shock (abrupt increase) has been used to induce spawning. Spawning activity of wild *P. latissulcatus* appears to be related to water temperature (Penn, 1980). Although Aquacop (1975) mentions a lunar periodicity in spawnings of *P. merguiensis* broodstock in tanks, asynchronous spawning relative to the moon phase has been observed for wild populations of *P. latissulcatus* (Penn, 1980) and *P. merguiensis* (Crocos and Kerr, 1983).

Fertilization, incubation and hatching

The events following spawning have been described by Clark et al. (1984) in detail for *Sicyonia ingentis*, a shrimp closely related to penaeids. These include primary and secondary binding of sperm, a biphasic acrosomal reaction which is $Ca^{++}$-dependent, ovum jelly extrusion, fertilization or sperm-egg fusion and hatching membrane formation. During ovum jelly extrusion, also called the cortical reaction, a stratified corona around the egg is formed with the dehiscence of the cortical rods as observed in *P. aztecus* (Clark et al., 1982), *P. japonicus* (Hudinaga, 1942) and *P. monodon* (Primavera and Posadas, 1981).

The jelly layer or corona formed by the cortical reaction supposedly facilitates capture of the non-motile sperm by the egg in *P. orientalis* (Oka, 1967 cited by Wickins, 1976). In *P. aztecus*, ovum jelly extrusion is $Mg^{++}$-dependent and in penaeid eggs in general, the reaction is stimulated by exposure to seawater and not by fertilization (Clark and Lynn, 1977 cited by Clark et al., 1984). Abnormal spawnings of *P. monodon* eggs laid in masses on the tank bottom remain unfertilized and unhatched (Villaluz et al., 1972) perhaps due to a failure of the cortical reaction (Aquacop, 1977a).

Salinity in spawning tanks has ranged from 28 to 35 ppt for eggs of *P. monodon* (Villaluz et al., 1972; Primavera and Borlongan, 1978; Simon, 1982; Hillier, 1984) and *P. semisulcatus* (Tseng and Cheng, 1981). Among various temperature-salinity combinations, Reyes (1981) obtained highest mean hatch rate of *P. monodon* eggs incubated at 33 ppt at temperatures of 23°C and 33°C, whereas 23 ppt and 28 ppt at any given temperature level produced weak larvae. Similarly, *P. indicus* eggs showed a significantly higher hatch rate and shorter incubation period at 33 ppt compared to 22 ppt and 42 ppt (A. Openiano, pers. comm.). At 20-25 ppt, the eggs of *P. indicus* and *P. semisulcatus* show retarded development and swelling to the point of bursting at 10-15 ppt (Tseng and Cheng, 1981) whereas they shrink at 50 ppt.

A temperature range of 26-29°C has been recorded for incubation of *P. monodon* eggs (Villaluz et al., 1972; Primavera and Borlongan, 1978; Hillier 1984). Increasing temperature levels of 23, 28 and 33°C had no effect on hatch rate of *P. monodon* eggs but significantly decreased incubation period (Reyes, 1981).

In *P. semisulcatus*, incubation water pH of 7-8 gave 40-70% hatch rate while pH of 6 and 9 led to abnormal development with less than 20% hatch rate (Tseng and Cheng, 1981). Ethylene dinitro tetraacetate acid (EDTA), an agent which chelates heavy metals, is added to spawning tanks at 10 ppm (Simon, 1982; Hillier, 1984). Spawning or incubation tank density should not exceed 2,500-3,000 eggs/t otherwise hatching will be poor (Primavera, 1983). A low aeration rate of 4 bubbles/sec increased spawn quality, fecundity and hatch rate of wild *P. indicus* spawners (Emmerson, 1980).

Comparison of fecundity, egg and larval quality

Lower fecundity in females matured in captivity compared to wild spawners has been observed for *P. californiensis* (Moore et al., 1974), *P. indicus* (Emmerson, 1980) and *P. japonicus* (Lumare, 1981). Similarly, ablated *P. merguiensis* produced a mean of 91,000 nauplii/spawn compared to 210,000-446,000 nauplii/spawn from wild spawners (Nurjana and Won, 1976). A range of 60,000 to 600,000 eggs/spawn has been observed for ablated *P. monodon* (Santiago, 1977; Vicente et al., 1979; Aquacop, 1983a; Poernomo and Hamami, 1983; Primavera, 1983) compared to 250,000-800,000 eggs/spawn for wild spawners (Motoh, 1981).

The lower fecundity of captive females may be due to the generally smaller sizes of broodstock compared to wild spawners (section IV, A) and uneven development of right and left ovarian sides in unilaterally ablated females as observed for *P. monodon* (M.N. Lin, pers. comm.). Even with adjustment made for female size, the lower fecundity of domestic unablated *P. indicus* is due to narrower ovary width compared to wild spawners, and to breaks in the ovary caused by collisions with tank walls (Emmerson, 1980).

More important than quantity is the quality of eggs and larvae. Aquacop (1977b) has classified *P. monodon* eggs into unfertilized, normal fertilized and abnormal fertilized eggs. These groupings approximate the egg types described by Primavera and Posadas (1981) based on morphology and hatch rates. A highly linear relationship was established between the proportion of good (A₁) eggs and hatch rate for
P. monodon. Although many Philippine hatchery operators tend to believe that fry from ablated females is weaker than from wild spawners, others have observed both good and poor quality eggs from wild spawners (SEAFDEC, 1984). Half-spent or partial spawnings of P. semisulcatus produced poor eggs with irregular cytoplasmic formation and autolysis (Tseng and Cheng, 1981). On the other hand, Primavera and Posadas (1981) found that wild P. monodon spawners had the highest proportion of good eggs followed by ablated wild females with ablated pond females producing many bad eggs.

Ruangpanit et al. (1984) observed relatively low survival rates (4-8.5%) from nauplii to postlarvae which may indicate a greater susceptibility to bacterial and fungal infection of P. monodon larvae from ablated wild stock. All these point to the need to improve egg and larval quality in both wild and pond broodstock.

Artificial spermatophore transfer; in vitro fertilization

Compared to closed thelycum species, the failure of mating and consequent absence of spermatophores is more frequent in open thelycum penaeids from which spermatophores are more easily dislodged. However, low frequency of mating may also be observed in closed thelycum species, e.g. P. monodon (Lin and Ting, 1984) perhaps due to diseased males or their short supply in captivity.

The artificial transfer of spermatophores developed to solve this problem consists of two processes — extraction and insertion. Extraction of spermatophores may be done by means of manual pressure on the base of the fifth pair of pereiopods; forceps inserted through the genital pores; siphoning out; or by the use of low electrical charges as tried on P. japonicus (Laubier-Bonichon and Ponticelli, 1981; Lumare, 1981; Ponticelli, 1981) and P. monodon (Lin and Ting, 1984; Muthu and Laxminarayana, 1984). The use of electricity prevents injury to the male and permanent damage to the seminal vesicles (Lumare, 1981; Muthu and Laxminarayana, 1984).

The structure of the open thelycum and the pouch-like closed thelycum of P. japonicus makes the insertion of spermatophores easier than with other closed thelycum species. With P. monodon, treatment must be on newly-molted females in contrast to P. japonicus which can be at any molt cycle stage. To reduce stress and mortality, females may be placed in a continuous gill irrigator that allows gas exchange (Tave and Brown, 1981) or anesthesized by lowering the temperature to 10°C for 5 min (Laubier-Bonichon and Ponticelli, 1981). Tave and Brown (1981) report a spawning rate of 80% for various species while Laubier-Bonichon and Ponticelli (1981) claim a fertilization rate of 80% and more for P. japonicus. Out of five P. japonicus tested, four females retained the spermatophores, two spawned and one hatched viable nauplii (Ponticelli, 1981).

In contrast, Lumare (1981) produced very poor results with 7.5% mean fertilization rate and 3.3% mean hatch rate from artificially tested female P. japonicus compared to 67.7% mean fertilization rate and 40.1% mean hatch rate from naturally mated females. Similarly, Muthu and Laxminarayana (1984) obtained nauplii with a low hatch rate of 2.4% from only one out of 10 artificial spermatophore transfers performed on three ablated P. monodon females. Higher hatch rates of 71.87% and 82.35% were obtained by insertion of one and two spermatophores, respectively, in P. monodon by Lin and Ting (1984).

In vitro fertilization has also been tried to solve the problem of lack of mating. Clark et al. (1973) obtained a hatch rate of 10% by mixing ampoules of mature males with gravid ovaries of female P. aztecs. Lin and Ting (1984) obtained successful fertilization with 49.4-63.1% hatch rate only when the sperm homogenate was added right before, and not right after or two hours before, spawning in P. monodon.

Future directions

Out of some 109 penaeid species of present or potential commercial value (Holthuis, 1980), almost a third have been reared in grow-out ponds and tanks (Table 6). Twenty-three species have been matured in captivity but a full closing of the cycle has been achieved for only seven species. This is because the state-of-the-art in most hatcheries is the successful production of penaeid larvae and postlarvae from either wild spawners or wild immature/spent females matured/re-matured in captivity (Fig. 4).

Table 6. Comparison of total number of commercial and cultured penaeid species.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Closed thelycum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. No. of penaeid species of present or potential commercial value (Holthuis, 1980)</td>
<td>109</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. No. of penaeid species cultured</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grow-out (ponds and tanks)</td>
<td>34 (?)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Larval rearing</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maturation</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full closing of cycle (F1 generation)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The improvement of reproductive performance including egg and larval quality from captive pond broodstock remains a major area for future research and includes the determination of minimum/optimum age and size for maturation. The complete characterization of the hormonal, nutritional and environmental requirements for maturation should lead to the development of alternatives to ablation, e.g. photoperiod manipulation or the use of hormones, or should at least enhance the eyestalk ablation technique.

Aside from maturation, the other major bottleneck in controlled reproduction of penaeids is successful spermatophore transfer. The present emphasis on female maturation should be extended to other aspects, particularly mating (Table 5). Studies on biology (molting, fertilization including cortical reaction) and biochemistry provide baseline information for the broodstock and maturation aquaculturist. Investigations of wild stocks complement laboratory studies in elucidating the interrelationships among molting, mating, maturation and spawning.
Lastly, the techniques of artificial spermatophore transfer and in vitro fertilization are useful not only in solving the immediate problem of lack of copulation but also for future genetic studies and hybridization work.

**Addendum**

Since the December 1984 conference, substantial data on maturation and spawning in *P. semisulcatus* have been reported by Browdy and Samocha (1985, in press) bringing to 8 and 6 the total number and the number of closed thelycum species, respectively, whose life cycle has been completed in captivity (Table 6). The *P₂* generation was achieved with both ablated and unablated broodstock of *P. semisulcatus* maintained in 3 m³ tanks with 40 ppt flowthrough water and fed with frozen *Artemia*, fish, shrimp and squid.

The average daily numbers of spawns and eggs produced by an ablated female was double that of uncontrolled controls. Egg production in ablated females was consistent for 70-80 days followed by a decline while that of uncontrolled females were more erratic with a decline after 100-110 days. Ablated females had fewer eggs in an average spawn than uncontrolled ones but the quality as measured by rates of fertilization, hatching and metamorphosis to zoea remained the same.

There was no significant difference in spawn size or quality over the first three spawns of both ablated and unablated females. There was a reduction in spawn size but not in quality of successive spawns in a single molt cycle. Similarly, there was a reduction in fecundity of pond broodstock over successive generations. Ablation did not affect survival of broodstock with relatively high rates attributed to the use of electrocautery, ablation of females during the intermolt, application of prophylactics, and reduced light intensity. Relatively successful spermatophore transfer (84-90%) was achieved at 1.8-2.5 h. Ablation significantly reduced the success of mating and molt cycle duration.

The maximum number of spawns in one molt cycle was 6 and 4 for ablated and unablated females, respectively. A single mating was sufficient to fertilize up to four spawns in a single molt cycle indicating that closed thelycum penaeids have the physiological capability to fertilize several spawns over the molt cycle.

**References**


A Brief Review of the Larval Rearing Techniques of Penaeid Prawns*

I-Chiu Liao
Tungkang Marine Laboratory
Tungkang, Pingtung, Taiwan

Abstract As early as half a century ago, Hudinaga successfully spawned and attempted to rear the larvae of *Penaeus japonicus*. Publications in the 1960 s, 70's and 80's on breakthroughs in larval rearing of one penaeid species after another indicated that practical prawn farming had become a reality. At present, there are 24 *Penaeus* species and seven *Metapenaeus* species whose larval rearing techniques are partially or fully established. Among them, only nine species are propagated on a large commercial scale. The other species are now produced only on a small scale or experimentally.

There are many published papers dealing with larval rearing techniques of penaeid prawns. However, it is recognized that numerous details and problems remain unsolved pending further investigation and improvement. *P. japonicus* is the species which boasts the longest research history and the most successful larval rearing techniques. Nevertheless, there is little which scientists are able to do with the serious "white-turbid midgut gland disease" which has plagued the postlarvae of *P. japonicus* for the past several years. Similarly, *P. monodon* larval culture in the Philippines was once seriously affected by a fungus disease cause by *Lagenidium* sp., which resulted in poor survival rate.

Suitable larval rearing methods differ from one species to another, all showing varying degrees of modification from the major principles of larval rearing techniques of penaeid prawns. For example, a hatchery can easily obtain several hundred spawners of *P. japonicus*, but this is never the case with *P. monodon*. Therefore, the community culture method for rearing larvae in large tanks is preferred for the former species, while the separate tank method, also called the monoculture method, is best for the latter.

In general, larval rearing techniques of prawns is at its rapid growing stage. The status of larval rearing including rearing methods, feeding regimes and rearing systems, are herein summarized and introduced. The high priority problems to be solved, such as 1) selection of spawners, 2) improvement of rearing techniques, 3) larval diseases, 4) shipping methods, and 5) social impact are discussed and the prospects of larval rearing are described.

Introduction

As early as half a century ago, Hudinaga successfully spawned and reared larvae of *Penaeus japonicus* to the mysis stage (Hudinaga, 1935). In 1942, one of his famous papers entitled "Reproduction, development and rearing of *Penaeus japonicus* Bate" was published and became the primary foundation for prawn research. Unfortunately, World War II interrupted further development for more than 10 years. It was not until the late 1950's that several Americans became highly interested in penaeid hatchery work. In collaboration with Hudinaga, two species of American penaeids, white shrimp, *P. setiferus*, and brown shrimp, *P. aztecus*, were spawned and successfully reared in 1963 (Hanson and Goodwin, 1977).

However, two publications of Hudinaga and Kittaka, namely "Studies on food and growth of larval stages of a prawn, *Penaeus japonicus*, with reference to the application to practical mass culture" in 1966 and "The large scale production of the young kuruma prawn, *Penaeus japonicus* Bate" in 1967, contributed to the breakthrough in the mass production of penaeid prawns. It is on these two publications that the fundamentals of the prawn industry were based.

Status

Twenty-four *Penaeus* species and seven *Metapenaeus* species can now be partially or fully artificially propagated (Table 1). Among these 31 species, *P. aztecus*, *P. duorarum*, *P. japonicus*, *P. monodon*, *P. orientalis*, *P. setiferus*, *P. stylirostris*, *P. vannamei* and *Metapenaeus ensis*, are the only nine species on which the practical commercialized propagation is carried out on a large scale.

Larval rearing methods

There are many different larval rearing methods in the modern world in part to the wide variety of prawn species under culture. Other contributing factors are geography, climatic patterns, feeding regimes, and even personal preference (Hudinaga and Kittaka, 1966, 1975; Mock and Murphy, 1971; Salser and Mock, 1974; Shigueno, 1975; Heinen, 1976; Wickers, 1976; Aquacop, 1977; Liao, 1981). Hundreds of *P. japonicus*, *P. aztecus*, *P. duorarum* and *P. setiferus* spawners can be easily collected thus providing the hatchery with the necessary criterion to select the community culture method, whereby it is possible to rear a tremendous number of larvae in a hatchery tank of 100 tons or larger. In the community culture method, fertilizer is added directly to the tank for diatom growth, thus a food chain is formed in the larval rearing
tank. The diatoms become the primary producer, providing food for prawn larvae and zooplankton. The larval prawn also consume these zooplankton. On the other hand, only a limited number of *P. monodon* spawners can be collected at any one time and, in addition, the larvae are slightly sensitive to direct application of fertilizer. Therefore, the community culture method is less suitable than the separate tank (monoculture) method for *P. monodon*. Comparisons between the community culture and separate tank (monoculture) methods are listed in Table 2.

### Feeding regimes

Recent studies on the larval feed of penaeid prawns have made incredible progress (Furukawa et al., 1973; Griffith et al., 1973; Kittaka, 1976; Jones et al., 1979a, b; Liao et al., 1983). Today, even the application of manufactured microcapsules or the so-called microparticulate feed, is very promising (Jones, 1979a, b). Nevertheless, one should not forget the pioneer's hard work in the early history of the prawn industry. As early as 1934, Hudinaga succeeded in inducing the parent prawn of *P. japonicus* to spawn in the laboratory.

### Table 1. List of penaeid prawns partially or fully artificially propagated.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Common name</th>
<th>Status*</th>
<th>Culture area</th>
<th>Distribution</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Penaeus aztecus</em> Ives</td>
<td>Northern brown shrimp</td>
<td>+ USA</td>
<td>W.A.</td>
<td>Cook &amp; Murphy, 1966</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. brasiliensis</em> Latreille</td>
<td>Red-spotted shrimp</td>
<td>+ Taiwan</td>
<td>E.A.</td>
<td>Lumare et al., 1971</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. californiensis</em> Holmes</td>
<td>Yellow-leg shrimp</td>
<td>+ USA</td>
<td>W.P.</td>
<td>Shokita, 1970</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. canaliculatus</em> (Olivier)</td>
<td>Northern pink shrimp</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>I.W.P.</td>
<td>Gopalakrishnan, 1976</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. duorarum</em> Burkenroad</td>
<td>Brown tiger prawn</td>
<td>+ Indonesia, Malaysia</td>
<td>I.W.P.</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. indicus</em> Milne Edwards</td>
<td>Indian white prawn</td>
<td>+ S.E. Asia</td>
<td>I.W.P.</td>
<td>Muthu et al., 1974</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. japonicus</em> Bate</td>
<td>Kuruma prawn</td>
<td>+ Brazil, Italy</td>
<td>I.W.P.</td>
<td>Hudinaga, 1942</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. kerathurus</em> (Forskal)</td>
<td>Caramote prawn</td>
<td>+ Italy</td>
<td>E.A.</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. latisulcatus</em> Kishinouye</td>
<td>Western king prawn</td>
<td>+ —</td>
<td>I.W.P.</td>
<td>Liao, 1973</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. marginatus</em> Randall</td>
<td>Aloha prawn</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>I.W.P.</td>
<td>Keleme &amp; Smith, 1990</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. merguensis</em> De Man</td>
<td>Banana prawn</td>
<td>+ Indonesia, Malaysia</td>
<td>I.W.P.</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. monodon</em> Fabricius</td>
<td>Giant tiger prawn</td>
<td>+ India, Indonesia, Philippines, Taiwan</td>
<td>I.W.P.</td>
<td>Liao et al., 1969</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. occidentalis</em> Streets</td>
<td>Western white shrimp</td>
<td>+ Panama</td>
<td>E.P.</td>
<td>Oka, 1967</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. orientalis</em> Kishinouye</td>
<td>Oriental shrimp</td>
<td>+ China, Korea</td>
<td>W.P.</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. paulensis</em> Perez-Farfante</td>
<td>Sao Paulo shrimp</td>
<td>+ —</td>
<td>W.A.</td>
<td>Liao, 1970</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. penicillatus</em> Alcock</td>
<td>Red-tail prawn</td>
<td>+ Taiwan</td>
<td>I.W.P.</td>
<td>Heegaard, 1953</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. plebejus</em> Hess</td>
<td>Eastern king prawn</td>
<td>+ Australia</td>
<td>S.W.P.</td>
<td>Liao, 1970</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. schmitti</em> Burkenroad</td>
<td>Southern white shrimp</td>
<td>+ South America</td>
<td>W.A.</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. semisulcatus</em> De Haan</td>
<td>Green tiger prawn</td>
<td>+ Kuwait, Taiwan</td>
<td>I.W.P.</td>
<td>Liao, 1970</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. setiferus</em> (Linnaeus)</td>
<td>Northern white shrimp</td>
<td>+ USA</td>
<td>W.A.</td>
<td>Heegaard, 1953</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. stylirostris</em> Stimpson</td>
<td>Blue shrimp</td>
<td>+ Colombia, Ecuador, Panama</td>
<td>E.P.</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. teraoi</em> Kubo</td>
<td>White-beared shrimp</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>I.W.P.</td>
<td>Liao, 1970</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. vannamei</em> Boone</td>
<td>White-leg shrimp</td>
<td>+ Colombia, Ecuador, Panama</td>
<td>E.P.</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Metapenaeus affinis</em> (H. Milne Edwards)</td>
<td>Jinga shrimp</td>
<td>+ India</td>
<td>I.W.P.</td>
<td>Thomas et al., 1974</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>M. bennetae</em> Racek and Dall</td>
<td>Greentail prawn</td>
<td>+ Australia</td>
<td>S.W.P.</td>
<td>Racek, 1972</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>M. brevicornis</em> (H. Milne Edwards)</td>
<td>Yellow shrimp</td>
<td>+ India</td>
<td>I.W.P.</td>
<td>Sudhakaro, 1978</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>M. dobsoni</em> (Miers)</td>
<td>Kadal shrimp</td>
<td>+ India</td>
<td>I.W.P.</td>
<td>Enomoto &amp; Makino, 1970</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>M. ensis</em> (De Haan)</td>
<td>Greasyback shrimp</td>
<td>+ S.E. Asia</td>
<td>I.W.P.</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>M. joyneri</em> (Miers)</td>
<td>Shiba shrimp</td>
<td>+ —</td>
<td>I.W.P.</td>
<td>Liao, &amp; Huang, 1973</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>M. monoceros</em> (Fabricius)</td>
<td>Speckled shrimp</td>
<td>+ S.E. Asia</td>
<td>I.W.P.</td>
<td>Funada, 1966</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>M. stebbingi</em> Nobili</td>
<td>Peregrine shrimp</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>I.W.P.</td>
<td>Hasan &amp; Haq, 1975</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*a*Status (of development): E — Experimental; S — Small scale; C — Commercial scale.


*c*Unknown: Origins presently being verified but cannot be substantiated at this time.
for the first time, but it was not until 1940 that he was able
to get a considerable number of larvae to metamorphose into
mysis (Hudinaga, 1935, 1942). It was found that larvae in
their nauplius stage were not difficult to keep alive, but upon
reaching the zoea stage they became weak and died. Larvae
in the mysis stage, however, were much stronger than in the
zoea stage and could easily be kept alive for a long time.
After the mysis stage, the postlarvae became even stronger,
rendering their handling much easier and simpler. Therefore,
in the culture of P. japonicus, and especially in order to raise
the desired number of postlarvae, the most important matter
is to rear them successfully through the zoea stage. The
same was found to be true with many other penaeid prawn
species through practical experience. One of the major fac-
tors that contributed to Hudinaga’s breakthrough in suc-
cessful rearing of zoea was the culture method of Skele-
tonema established by Matue. Hudinaga himself was greatly-
indebted to Matue for valuable information with regards to
the pure culture of Skeletonema costatum (Hudinaga, 1942,
1969).

As the zoea stage of penaeid prawns is the most difficult
rearing period, it is believed that the smooth rearing means
giving suitable feed in order to guarantee high survival of
zoea and subsequent stages. In view of this, many research
papers focused on the availability of a variety of feed for each
larval stage (Table 3).

Larval sizes differ among species of penaeids and espe-
cially between those of the genera Penaeus and Meta-
penaeus, and therefore they feed on food particles of dif-
ferent sizes. In general, as shown in Fig. 1, zoea larvae prefer
phytoplankton or tiny vegetable feed, but start to consume
zooplankton when they reach the last substage of zoea.
Mysis larvae prefer zooplankton, as do postlarvae (P1-P5).
Postlarvae older than P5 no longer pay attention to small
food particles but actively start to search for larger food.

**Larval rearing systems**

Like larval rearing methods, the larval rearing systems dif-
fer according to species cultured and personal preference.
The Japanese or Shigueno system is characterized by
100-ton or larger tanks, which are mainly used for larval rear-

**Table 2. Comparison between community culture and separate
tank (monoculture) methods.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Community culture method</th>
<th>Separate tank (monoculture) method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Species</td>
<td>Penaeus aztecus, P. duorarum, P. japonicus, P. setiferus</td>
<td>P. monodon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Size of rearing tank for spawning and hatchery</td>
<td>Large tank (100-200 tons)</td>
<td>Small tank (0.5-20 tons)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Number of spawners</td>
<td>Many</td>
<td>Few</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Fertilizer</td>
<td>Used</td>
<td>Not used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Light intensity</td>
<td>Normal sunlight</td>
<td>Subdued light</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Production costs</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Risk</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Prospect for future development</td>
<td>Promising</td>
<td>Limited</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ing of *P. japonicus* (Hudinaga and Kittaka, 1967; Shigueno, 1975). The Galveston system of 1- to 2-ton conical tanks is used for *P. stylirostris, P. vannamei* and *P. monodon* (Mock and Neal, 1974; Aquacop, 1975; Platon, 1978; Mock et al., 1980) and the Taiwanese system of 0.5- to 2-ton round tanks with flat bottom is used for *P. monodon* (Liao et al., 1969; Liao and Huang, 1973; Liao, 1981). There are both advantages and disadvantages of each system. For example, tanks of the Japanese system are very suitable for the community culture method, but there is a high risk of losing a great number of larvae if diseases occur. When the supply of spawners is unsteady, the larger size tanks are sometimes wasteful and inconvenient for rearing a limited number of larvae. They are also less flexible than smaller tanks for purposes of discarding larvae, cleaning tanks, and disinfecting equipment.

Two recently developed systems of larval rearing are shown in Fig. 2A and B. First, a ladder system hatchery is designed to take advantage of sloping ground and water level. Second, a hatchery of separate, medium-sized covered tanks with the advantage of being able to discard limited quantities of larvae is designed to suit warm tropical areas where prawns are easily exposed to epidemic disease and abandonment may be necessary. Additionally, three kinds of aeration set-up are shown for comparison (Fig. 2C).

**Larval rearing practices**

Among the penaeid prawns cultured today, *P. japonicus* is by far the most studied and therefore its larval rearing techniques are best established. It is the most important cultured prawn species in Japan where 500 million postlarvae are used each year for sea ranching and only 200 million postlarvae are used for aquaculture purposes. *P. japonicus* is also propagated in Brazil, Korea, Italy and Taiwan. The advantages of its hatchery work are (1) the availability of sufficient number of spawners at one time, (2) the established hatchery techniques, and (3) the strong tolerance of larvae to environmental factors.

The hatchery technique for *P. monodon* is more difficult than that of *P. japonicus*. However, *P. monodon* is the most treasured species in Southeast Asia and the most suitable species for culture worldwide (Forster and Beard, 1974; Liao, 1977, 1981; Motoh, 1981; Liao and Huang, 1982; Liao and Chao, 1983). It is now cultured mainly in Taiwan, Philippines, Indonesia, Thailand and India. In Taiwan, the total

---

**Table 3. Food items and feeding regimes for various developmental stages of penaeid prawn.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Food item</th>
<th>Zoea</th>
<th>Mysis</th>
<th>Postlarvae (early: P1–P10)</th>
<th>Postlarvae (later: P11–P25)</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vegetable sources</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Skeletonema</em> sp.</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hudinaga, 1942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Tetraselmis</em> sp.</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Beard et al., 1977</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Isochrysis</em> sp.</td>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Beard &amp; Wicks, 1980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Chaetoceros</em> sp.</td>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hirata et al., 1975</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Dunaliella</em> sp.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>SEADEC, 1981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Spirulina</em> sp.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Tang, 1977</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Chlamydomonas</em> sp.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hudinaga &amp; Kittaka, 1975</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marine Chlorella</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hudinaga &amp; Kittaka, 1975</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soy bean residue</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hirata et al., 1975</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Animal sources</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eggs or fertilized eggs of oyster</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Liao, 1969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eggs of <em>Mytilus</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Kittaka, 1975</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rotifer</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Liao, 1969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Artemia salina</em></td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hudinaga, 1969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brine shrimp flakes</td>
<td></td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Unknown*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Unknown*: Origins presently being verified but cannot be substantiated at this time.

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Note: ++ Good; + Available; — Poor.
number of commercial hatcheries is more than 1,200 with an annual production of postlarvae as high as 600 million, more than enough to satisfy total domestic demand. The culture of *P. monodon* has great potential and bright prospects. The people in Malaysia, Sri Lanka, Japan, South Africa and Brazil are eager to try the culture of this prawn.

*Penaeus stylirostris* and *P. vannamei* are naturally abundant in Central and South America. The center of their culture is Ecuador. In 1976, there were only two farms with a total area of 63 ha. In 1984, the number of farms had increased to 465 and the total area to 59,350 ha. Before 1980, 100% of the prawn fry used for culture were collected from the wild. As a result of the rapid expansion of prawn culture and the destruction of the mangrove ecosystem, only one-third of the total fry demand could be met during the dry season of 1984. To further develop the prawn industry of Ecuador, artificially propagated larvae are absolutely needed. For the present, three recently established hatcheries are able to produce not more than 180 million *P. vannamei* contributing only 5.5% of the estimated annual need of 3.3 billion fry. It is believed that five hatcheries under construction will soon be able to supply part of the remaining fry requirement by the end of 1985 (T.L. Huang, pers. comm., 1984).

*Penaeus aztecus*, *P. duorarum* and especially *P. setiferus*...
have comparatively easy larval rearing techniques (Kittaka, 1977). The small size of otherwise marketable adults and some lingering culture problems have kept the rearing of these three species at an early developmental stage. With mainland China as its culture center, probably 300-400 million postlarvae of *P. orientalis* are produced yearly, when estimated from the annual production of 3,000-4,000 tons. There is a possibility that *P. indicus*, *P. merguiensis*, *P. brasilienis* and *P. schmitti* rank as potential aquaculture candidates for the near future.

Table 4 lists the distinctive characteristics of three major sizes of hatcheries i.e., large, medium and small hatcheries. Tables 5 and 6 list the number of postlarval prawns needed for desired harvest at various market sizes and survival rates and the number of postlarval prawns needed for various scales of grow-out ponds at different stocking densities for convenient reference.

**Existing problems**

Although research on prawns is far behind that of fishes, the development of the prawn industry is progressing well, even better than other aquaculture industries, mainly because prawns are a precious cosmopolitan food item. However, there are existing problems that need to be studied and solved before a truly successful prawn industry can be attained.

### Table 4. Distinctive characteristics of three major sizes of hatcheries.

| Size          | Ownership Company Family or | Medium Ownership Family or | Small
|---------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------
| Personnel     | Consultant, supervisor, technicians and workers | Owner and experienced workers | Owner and worker
| Size (unit of pond) | 600-800 m² plus accessory tanks (40-60 tons) | (1-20 tons) | (1-5 tons)
| Electricity (generator power) | 100 kw | 50 kw | 5 kw
| Water storage | 600 tons | 200 tons | 10-50 tons
| Water treatment | Filtered at the source or UV light-treated | Filtered at the source or UV light-treated | Filtered at the hatchery
| Number of spawners/yr | 500 spawners | 200-300 spawners | 40-50 spawners
| Sources of spawners | Private shrimp trawler or broker | Fishermen or broker | Fishermen or broker
| Length of active operation (mo/yr) | 11 | 10-11 | 6-8
| Maximum capacity (× 10⁶ fry/yr) | 10 | 5 | 1
| Nursery | Necessary | Necessary | Not necessary
| Shipping | Airplane, truck or exfarm | Truck or exfarm | Truck or exfarm

### Selection of spawners

There is a close relationship between the physiological condition of a spawner and the quality of its eggs, survival of larvae and health during its subsequent culture period. The criteria for selecting the best spawners with good genetic makeup and perfect physical condition should be determined.

Many uncertain descriptions about unilaterally eyestalk-ablated spawners have been made, e.g. 1) there is a maximum of 2-3 or 4-5 spawnings after each ablation, 2) larvae obtained from the later spawnings are poorer in health than those from earlier ones, and 3) larvae obtained from eyestalk-ablated spawners are weaker and have lower survival rates than those of non-ablated spawners. There should be some scientific evidence to accept or reject each of the above-mentioned statements.

Another observation that merits further investigation is that certain stimuli, such as transfer from one place to another or even from one tank to another, usually cause spawners to release their eggs during that same night. Based on this fact, spawning in captivity generally results in a premature release of eggs which is believed to be the cause of the poor survival rate of larvae. The problem is how to bring about a natural spawning when the eggs are ripe instead of stimulating a premature release of eggs to ensure optimum survival.

In summary, the appropriate methods for obtaining healthy and non-ablated spawners with the guarantee of getting ripe eggs and thus, high larval survival need to be precisely and promptly studied.

### Improvement of rearing techniques

There has been established no standard larval rearing method for each cultured species of penaeid prawn. Taking *P. monodon* as an example, some culturists in Taiwan have adopted the dark-room type hatchery, where the newly hatched eggs are successfully reared in darkness through all the larval stages, while others, making use of the common open type hatcheries for prawn larval rearing, cover the rearing tanks only during the light-sensitive zoea stage. These two methods are quite different as far as suitable light intensity for larvae is concerned, yet both produce postlarvae at comparable rates. It would be more logical if the ranges of tolerance to light intensity, water salinity and other parameters for each larval stage are well studied, so that a standard rearing method could be established. The advantageous community culture method is a common milestone for which the culturists should strive in the culture of various prawn species.

Generally speaking, a large majority of hatchery owners prefer to aim for high survival rates of larvae using a policy of overprotection i.e., an overdose of drugs is administered regardless of the state of health. It is suggested that hatcheries should not concentrate only on high survival rates but should try to follow the principle of natural selection. Unhealthy larvae, which in any case will die if no special treatment is undertaken, should preferably be removed. Such a wise decision will ensure good growth of the survivors.
Larval Rearing Techniques of Penaeids

Table 5. Number of postlarvae (× 10^**n**) needed to attain desired harvest levels at various market sizes and survival rates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Harvest (× 10<strong>n</strong> mt)</th>
<th>Market size (g)</th>
<th>Survival rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2,000,000</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3,000,000</td>
<td>1,500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4,000,000</td>
<td>2,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>5,000,000</td>
<td>2,500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>6,000,000</td>
<td>3,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>7,000,000</td>
<td>3,500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>8,000,000</td>
<td>4,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>9,000,000</td>
<td>4,500,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*For example, if the harvest level is 15,000 mt, that is 1.5 × 10^4 rat (n = 4), market size of 30 g and survival rate 80%, then the number of postlarvae needed is 62,500 × 10^4, that is 625 million.*
in subsequent culture periods (Liao, 1981). Besides, now that many crops are desired in each pond per year, one should stock the pond with postlarvae of a larger size than is currently used, to shorten the cropping time. Of course, there are additional advantages in shortening each cropping time, such as avoiding poor pond bottom conditions and increasing annual production. The existing problem is to improve nursery techniques for juvenile prawns on a large production scale.

As mentioned previously, many breakthroughs in larval feeding, including the accurate establishment of mass culture of phytoplankton, progressive development of mass culture of zooplankton, and primary development of microencapsulated feed, have been achieved. However, they all need further studies before ideal feeding regimes can be declared. Furthermore, the use of modern equipment in the hatchery facility should be encouraged. Aquaculture engineers should design functional, labor- and energy-saving devices to further improve hatchery production.

Larval diseases

In the initial period of the development of the prawn industry, unsuitable and insufficient food, resulting in substandard nutrition and starvation, were major causes of larval mortality. Occasionally, non-lethal or low mortality diseases caused by protozoan infections occurred, but no serious larval diseases or high mortalities were encountered, hence no papers were written on the subject. In contrast, with increasing popularity and profitability of prawn culture in recent years, hatcheries are often overcrowded with larvae, and this is generally accompanied by the occurrence of diseases. White-turbid midgut gland disease has been reported in *P. japonicus* (Shigueno, 1975), as well as *Lagenidium* infection in all penaeid prawns (Couch, 1942; Cook, 1971; Lightner and Fontaine, 1973; Lightner, 1977; Lightner and Redman, 1981; Lightner, 1983), *Baculovirus penaei* (BP) disease in *P. aztecus*, *P. duorarum*, *P. setiferus*, *P. stylirostris* and *P. vannamei* (Laramore, 1977; Couch, 1978; Overstreet, 1978), and recently also baculoviral midgut gland necrosis (BMN) in *P. japonicus* (Sano et al., 1981), *Monodon baculovirus* (MBV) disease in *P. aztecus*, *P. duorarum*, *P. setiferus*, *P. stylirostris* and *P. vannamei* (Laramore, 1977; Couch, 1978; Overstreet, 1978), and finally infectious hypodermal and hematopoietic necrosis (IHHN) in *P. stylirostris* and *P. monodon* (Lightner, 1983). All of these have proven to be a serious threat to hatchery business, with possibly one exception — it is not yet known if MBV is an important disease. Table 7 summarizes the major diseases in the larval and postlarval stages of penaeid prawns and the corresponding treatments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pond area (× 10^n ha)</th>
<th>Stocking density (postlarvae/m^2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>285</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* *n = -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, . . . n. For example, if the total area of grow-out ponds is 15 ha (1.5 × 10^0 ha) (n = 1) and the stocking rate is 25 postlarvae/m^2, then the number of postlarvae needed is 375 × 10^1 thousand, that is 3.75 million.
attain normal growth. For the present, MBV is known to exist in Taiwan and the Philippines, but the extent of its range in other areas is unknown. Being an enzootic virus, MBV should be eradicated. To avoid further contamination, strict quarantine and burning of the infected larvae should be carried out (Lightner et al., 1983).

In summary, the concept that prevention is more important and effective than cure in controlling a disease is absolutely accurate. Reducing stress due to crowding and application of quarantine measures are as necessary as the continuing research on viruses and determination of the etiology of other diseases.

**Shipping methods**

Even if the three above-mentioned problems of rearing, spawners and diseases are solved, the large quantities of prawn larvae produced in a hatchery still face the problems of shipping before they can be stocked in culture ponds. Transport may be international which usually takes more than 30 hours and also entails expensive shipping costs. The lack of basic biological knowledge and related transport information makes this procedure difficult and a waste of resources. The failure of live transport is not fair to the billions of tiny creatures, each with the dignity of life for which it has struggled seriously and successfully in the hatcheries. Since the relevant research is weak in both quantity and quality, only limited transport data are summarized in Table 8.

It is known from available data that the nauplius stage is ideal for shipping. Nevertheless, there are two limiting factors. First, great quantities of nauplii are requested within a short time frame, often within as short as one to two days. Second, shipping is limited to as short a time as possible i.e., before the larvae molt into zoea, in order to avoid mortality owing to absence of food for zoea and high consumption of oxygen during metamorphosis.

In general, a polyethylene or PVC bag inflated with oxygen and placed in a styrofoam box, has been adapted for convenient and functional shipping. Additional studies on the proper ratio of larvae, water and oxygen; suitable temperature; proper use of substrate; chemical and live diet organisms; etc. during shipping have to be done one by one in order to determine their practical applications to the prawn industry.

**Social impact**

As the prawn industry continues to progress, more and more hatcheries are being established. In Taiwan for example, there was only one hatchery in 1968 and then a rapid development occurred over the last 15 years. By 1983, there were more than 1,200 hatcheries. The supply of postlarvae is now greater than the demand, causing the price of postlarvae to plummet making it now far below the break-even point with some hatchery owners losing their capital investment. Although low price of postlarvae is advantageous to the culturist, imbalance of supply and demand has a social impact because of the waste of manpower and resources.

This is a warning for people in Southeast Asia, and Central and South America not to repeat the overproduction model, but to maintain a steady and well coordinated industry.

**Prospects**

Judging from the above-mentioned status and existing problems, the science of larval rearing techniques for penaeid prawns, although still a “state-of-the-art,” is in a stage of rapid development. Nevertheless, there are optimistic and promising prospects for penaeid prawns in most of the countries currently undertaking prawn culture as well as in some countries with great potential. It is believed that this industry will continue to grow at a fast rate for the reasons discussed below.

**High requirement for technologies**

Since the natural resources of prawns are diminishing, there is a genuine demand for cultured prawns. In turn, the supply of wild postlarvae is insufficient for culture purposes because of the destruction and pollution of their environment, as accurately and vividly exemplified by the Ecuadorian prawn industry. Steady development in the past had totally relied on wild prawn larvae for seed supply but it is becoming more and more dependent on hatcheries, the most reliable source for the future. There is no doubt that hatchery production is the best model for fry supply in many other countries where people realize that natural resources can not be relied upon forever.

The penaeid prawn is an ideal animal for sea ranching. A much greater number of larvae is needed for ranching purposes than for culture. Hereafter, as sea farming fisheries or resource managing fisheries develop, there will be an increasing need for postlarvae and thus a high requirement for larval rearing techniques.

**Diversification of cultured species**

Food for human consumption will require more variety as the standard of living increases in the world. Although prawns were considered a luxury food item when they first appeared on the table, species diversification is far below that of fish. There are three possible ways towards diversification. First, more indigenous species should be explored and studied to determine the feasibility and advantages of their propagation and culture. Second, selected exotic species should be introduced. For example, the introduction of *P. japonicus* and *P. monodon* to Brazil and *P. brasiliensis* to Taiwan is proving to be very promising. Lastly, trials in producing hybrids by cross-breeding or use of genetic alteration should be considered. People are now looking forward to pioneering trials in this significant area. The more the variety of cultured prawn species, the brighter the prospects.

**Specialization of propagation procedure**

Hatchery business is complex and complicated. Specialization of each propagation procedure for an ideal cooperative model is suggested. For example in Taiwan, the hatchery business has been divided into six specialized sub-businesses; 1) suppliers of locally harvested or imported spawners; 2) suppliers of hatchery-produced nauplii; 3) brokers for buying and selling nauplii; 4) suppliers of early postlarvae (*P.11-13*); 5) suppliers of late postlarvae (*P.20-30* and
Table 7. Diseases found in the developmental stages of penaeid prawn larvae and their control methods.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disease</th>
<th>Affected parts</th>
<th>Symptoms</th>
<th>Treatment</th>
<th>Life stages affected</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bacteria</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bacterial necrosis</td>
<td>Appendages</td>
<td>Appearing as localized necrosis or discoloration on any appendage, causing high mortality of zoea and mysis stages, affects postlarva to a lesser extent.</td>
<td>Furanace 1.1 ppm, Erythromycin 1.5 ppm, Achromycin 1.2 ppm</td>
<td>Z, M, PL</td>
<td>Tareen, 1982, Lightner, 1983</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filamentous bacteria</td>
<td>Gills, pleopods</td>
<td>Commonly found attached to the gill filaments and the pleopods, turning blackish when bacteria mix with dirt. If severely affected, the respiratory function of the gill suffers damage.</td>
<td>Cutrine plus malachite green 0.5 ppm, Potassium permanganate 8.5 ppm, Cuprous chloride 1.0 ppm Malachite green and formalin combined 0.9 ppm</td>
<td>10 ppm PL</td>
<td>Delves-Broughton and Poupard, 1976, Streenbergen and Schapiro, 1976, Johnson, 1978, Solangi et al., 1979, Lightner et al., 1980, Tareen, 1982, Lightner, 1983</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shell disease</td>
<td>Exoskeleton, muscles</td>
<td>If infected by chitinoverous bacteria, the exoskeleton will display eroded blackened areas. The edges or tips of the exoskeleton parts are typically attacked. Also bacteria can rapidly enter the body through surface breaks to cause internal damage.</td>
<td>Malachite green and formalin combined 0.9 ppm</td>
<td>22 ppm PL</td>
<td>Cook and Lofton, 1973, Delves-Broughton and Poupard, 1976, Johnson, 1978, Tareen, 1982, Lightner, 1983</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black gill disease</td>
<td>Gills</td>
<td>In initial stages, gill color turns dull orange-yellow or light brown. When advanced, the area darkens until it is finally black.</td>
<td>Malachite green 3.0 ppm, Methylene blue 8-10 ppm</td>
<td>PL</td>
<td>Shigueno, 1975, Tareen, 1982</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fungi</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lagenidium infection</td>
<td>Body cavity, appendages</td>
<td>Only thin-cuticled prawns can be infected, thus larval prawns are highly sensitive. The hyphae appear inside the body of zoea and continue into mysis stage, resulting in massive muscle destruction, and heavy mortality of zoea and mysis.</td>
<td>Treflan® 0.1 ppm, Malachite green 0.01 ppm</td>
<td>Z, M</td>
<td>Hubschaman and Schmitt, 1969, Lightner and Fontaine, 1973, Lightner, 1977, Johnson, 1978, Gopalani et al., 1980, Tareen, 1982, Lightner, 1983</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ectocommensal protozoa</td>
<td>Gills, eyes, exoskeleton</td>
<td>Heavy infestation by Zoothamnium sp. of gills and eyes of larval prawn results in high mortality. Epistyliis sp. seems to prefer exoskeleton as attachment site and is less harmful. When abundant on gill surface, both can cause hypoxia and death. Additionally, their abundant presence on general body surface of larvae may interfere with locomotion, feeding, molting, etc. Parasite burden increases until ecdisis provides relief.</td>
<td>Malachite green and formalin combined 1.0 ppm, Quinacrine hydrochloride 0.8 ppm, Chloramine-T 5.5 ppm, Methylene blue 8.0 ppm Saponin 10% 0.8 ppm</td>
<td>Z, M, PL</td>
<td>Johnson et al., 1973, Overstreet, 1973, Johnson, 1974, Delves-Broughton and Poupard, 1976, Lightner, 1977, Liao et al., 1977, Johnson, 1978, Lightner et al., 1980, Tareen, 1982, Lightner, 1983</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*References for treatment efficacy and confirmation of disease identification.*
Table 7. (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disease</th>
<th>Affected parts</th>
<th>Symptoms</th>
<th>Treatment</th>
<th>Life stages affected*</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Viruses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infectious hypodermal and hematopoietic necrosis (IHHN)</td>
<td>Hypodermis, hematopoietic organs</td>
<td>Prawns dying from acute IHHN show massive destruction of cuticular hypodermis and often of the hematopoietic organs, of glial cells in the nerve cord, and of loose connective tissues such as the subcutis and gut serosa. Only prawns within a size range of 0.05-1.0 g have been observed to have these epizootics, resulting in massive mortalities (often 80 to 90% within 2 weeks of onset).</td>
<td>PL Lightner, 1983</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous diseases</td>
<td>Abnormal nauplii Appendages</td>
<td>Occur as a result of poor quality of spawner.</td>
<td>N Tareen, 1982</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Amoebiasis of larvae Subcutis, muscles</td>
<td>Invasion of muscles and subcuticular tissues located in the abdomen, cephalothorax, antenna, and eyestalks, by unclassified amoeba.</td>
<td>Z Laramore and Barkate, 1979 Lightner, 1983</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Larval encrustation Exoskeleton</td>
<td>Brown to black encrusted deposits which contain iron salts affect larval penaeids.</td>
<td>Z, M, PL Lightner, 1983</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 8. Shipping record of penaeid prawn larvae.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Larval stage shipped</th>
<th>Origin</th>
<th>Destination</th>
<th>Duration (hr)</th>
<th>Container</th>
<th>Aeration</th>
<th>Water (ℓ)</th>
<th>Number (larvae/bag)</th>
<th>Survival rate (%)</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Penaeus stylirostris Nauplius</td>
<td>Panama</td>
<td>Tungkang</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>Plastic bag in polystyrene foam box</td>
<td>O₂</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>125 × 10³</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>Totalled 500,000 in 4 bags</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. monodon P₁₁-₁₃</td>
<td>Tungkang</td>
<td>Rio de Janeiro</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Portable plastic tank</td>
<td>Air from battery pump</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4 × 10³</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Stopped at Tokyo 2 days</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. monodon P₁₅</td>
<td>Tungkang</td>
<td>Salvador (Brazil)</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>Plastic bag</td>
<td>O₂</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15-25 × 10²</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. penicillatus P₆-₈</td>
<td>Tungkang</td>
<td>Salvador (Brazil)</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>Plastic bag</td>
<td>O₂</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15-25 × 10²</td>
<td>60-70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Brokers for buying and selling either P₁₁-₁₃ or P₂₀-₄₀. Joint ventures and linkages among these six sub-businesses are very functional.

The more detailed the breakdown of a business, the more progressive it becomes. Not only in Taiwan, but also in the world, there seems to be an increasing number of subsidiary businesses surrounding the prawn larval rearing operation. Due to high specialization, there are more job opportunities and a better chance of improving techniques. All these factors combined point towards a very bright future for larval rearing techniques.

Modernization of facilities and international exchange of knowledge

There is a great need for experts in zoology, botany, biochemistry, mechanics, engineering, electronics, veterinary medicine, pharmaceutics, marketing, etc. to start joining the prawn industry and contributing their specialized knowledge. The goal is to modernize facilities and hence larval rearing techniques. Recently, the gradual popularity of related journals, handbooks, proceedings and digests, and the increasing frequency of workshops, colloquia, symposia and
conferences act as a functional tool for international collection and exchange of knowledge and techniques. Therefore, it is deeply believed that there are very promising prospects for larval rearing techniques and the prawn farming industry.

Acknowledgments
The author wishes to express his deep appreciation to Nai-Hsien, Jing-Yi, Chin-Chu, Li-Lan, Mao-Sen, Yi-Peng, Richard and Yun-Liang, without them it was impossible to complete this manuscript within such a short time. At the same time, the author would also like to thank Dr. Y. Tuki, Chairman, F ICCPPS Steering Committee, for his sincere invitation to attend this Conference.

References


A Review of the Diseases of Cultured Penaeid Shrimps and Prawns with Emphasis on Recent Discoveries and Developments

Donald V. Lightner
Environmental Research Laboratory, University of Arizona
Tucson International Airport, Tucson, Arizona 85706, U.S.A.
and
E.R.L. Marine Culture Facility, Laie, Hawaii 96762, U.S.A.

Abstract The development of the commercial culture of penaeid shrimps and prawns has been accompanied by the occurrence of diseases of infectious and noninfectious etiologies. Many of the important penaeid diseases are caused by organisms that are part of the normal microflora and fauna of penaeids. These organisms are opportunistic pathogens that cause disease only under conditions that favor them over the host. Many organisms in this category are ubiquitous, and most have been recognized and/or reported from each of the major penaeid culture areas of the world. Included among this category of pathogens are the filamentous bacteria Leucothrix mucor, Flexibacter sp., and Cytophaga sp. (agents of filamentous gill and surface fouling diseases); the peritrich protozoans Zoothamnium sp., Epistylis sp., and Vorticella sp. (surface epibionts that cause protozoan gill disease and surface fouling diseases), the invasive bacteria Vibrio alginolyticus and V. parahaemolyticus (agents of various bacterial disease syndromes); and the fungi Lagenidium callinectes, Sirolpidium sp., and Fusarium solani (agents of the most common fungus diseases of penaeids).

Among the most important disease-causing agents are the penaeid viruses. These penaeid viruses may once have been limited in their geographic distribution in wild stocks, but they have become widespread in penaeid culture facilities. With the advent of commercial penaeid hatcheries, the shipment of broodstock and postlarvae from these culture facilities to others in different geographic regions has often resulted in the spread of these agents outside their normal range in wild populations. Included in this category of the penaeid viruses are the baculoviruses: Baculovirus penaei (BP), P. monodon baculovirus (MBV), baculoviral midgut gland necrosis virus (BMN); the hepatopancreatic parvo-like virus (HPV); the probable picornavirus infectious hypodermal and hematopoietic necrosis virus (IHHNV), and a reo-like virus in P. japonicus.

The final group of important diseases of cultured penaeids are the nutritional, physical, and toxic disease syndromes. The ascorbic acid deficiency syndrome called "black death" is the best understood nutritional disease of penaeids. Among the physical diseases occurring in penaeid culture, gas bubble disease and tail cramp are probably the most common. Important toxic disease syndromes include aflatoxicosis and red disease (which may be due to mycotoxins); hemocytic enteritis (due to certain species of filamentous blue-green algae, especially Schizothrix calcicola) and toxic syndromes due to toxic algal blooms.

There are five areas of research that should receive emphasis in the next several years in penaeid disease research: 1) Appropriately equipped laboratories in each of the major penaeid culture areas should identify and catalog those diseases occurring in culture facilities in their region; 2) Penaeid diagnostic laboratories should use, or strive to develop for general use, "standardized" diagnostic procedures whenever possible, especially for highly infectious agents such as the penaeid viruses; 3) Penaeid cell culture methods for primary cultures or cell lines must be developed to aid in the development of much needed rapid, sensitive diagnostic tests for the penaeid viruses; 4) Improved methods of disease prevention, control, or chemotherapy are needed for many of the penaeid diseases now adversely affecting the penaeid culture industry; and 5) Approval is needed from those government agencies (such as the U.S. Food and Drug Administration and the Environmental Protection Agency) for the drugs and chemicals used as chemotherapeutics in penaeid culture that may pose a health risk to humans.

Introduction

The rapid growth of the penaeid shrimp culture industry has been accompanied by an increased awareness of the negative impact of disease on the industry. The development of the industry has been accompanied by the occurrence of diseases of infectious and noninfectious etiologies. The relative importance of disease is somewhat dependent on the type of culture system employed. Neal (1973) defined the two general methods of shrimp culture that were practiced a decade ago as intensive and extensive. Today these two types of culture systems may be subdivided into three general types of culture systems: Systems that raise shrimp in high-density, intensively managed tanks and raceways are defined as intensive culture systems. Systems producing moderate densities of shrimp in cages, ponds or tanks are considered to be semi-intensive, while extensive culture is the culture of shrimp in low-density ponds or pens in which little or no management is exercised or possible. Generally, culture systems that include a hatchery for "seed" (postlarvae) production are semi-intensive or intensive, whereas those relying on "wild seed" typically fall into the extensive or semi-intensive class. It is in most semi-intensive and intensive culture systems that the recognition, prevention, and treatment of disease is possible whereas in extensive and many semi-intensive systems, treatment of diseases is impractical even if they are diagnosed. Furthermore, except for certain types of parasitic diseases, it is the very nature of intensive and semi-intensive culture systems (i.e., high shrimp density per unit volume of water used) that encourages the development and transmission of many shrimp diseases. The
same economic incentives for using semi-intensive and intensive culture systems dictate that disease be understood and controlled.

Knowledge of the diseases of penaeid shrimps and prawns has been reviewed a number of times within the past 12 years (Overstreet, 1973, 1982; Sindermann, 1974; Johnson, 1975a, 1978; Lightner, 1977; Couch, 1978, 1983). This review emphasizes recent developments and recent discoveries in shrimp pathology made since the most recent review.

Infectious diseases

Virus diseases

Six virus-caused diseases of cultured penaeids have been reported (Table 1) and several additional diseases have been noted to have associated with them virus-like or chlamydia-like structures (Table 2). Included among the penaeid viruses causing disease in penaeids and documented in the literature are: the three baculoviruses Baculovirus penaei or BP (Couch, 1974), baculoviral midgut gland necrosis or BMN (Sano et al., 1981), and Peneaus monodon baculovirus or MBV (Lightner and Redman, 1981); the probable picornavirus infectious hypodermal and hematopoietic necrosis virus or IHHNV (Lightner et al., 1983a); the small DNA-containing virus named hepatopancreatic parvo-like virus or HPV (Lightner and Redman, in press a); and a reo-like virus in the hepatopancreas of P. japonicus (Tsing and Bonami, 1984).

Baculoviruses. The three known penaeid baculoviruses infect the epithelial cells of the hepatopancreas of protozoal through adult life stages and the midgut epithelium of larvae and postlarvae. Baculovirus infections may result in disease in cultured penaeids that is accompanied by high mortality rates. In hatcheries, BP and BMN often cause serious epizootics in the larval and early postlarval stages of their principal host species (Tables 1 and 3) (Couch, 1981; Sano et al., 1981), and BP may cause disease and mortalities in juvenile and Subadult animals (Couch 1981). Disease epizootics due to MBV in hatchery-reared P. monodon are known to occur from late postlarval (PL25 to PL50) through the juvenile and adult life stages, although the most serious losses have been observed in the late postlarval stages (Lightner et al., 1983c).

The geographic distribution of these baculoviruses in cultured penaeid shrimp suggests that some are problems to shrimp culturists only in those areas where the virus is apparently enzootic in local wild populations. This appears to be the case for BMN which has only been observed in P. japonicus in hatcheries in Japan (Table 3). MBV and BP, however, have been documented to have been introduced into new geographic regions by the transfer of infected postlarvae or broodstock to areas outside the normal range of the host species (Table 3).

Patent acute BP and MBV infections may be readily diagnosed by demonstration of their characteristic occlusion bodies (specialized inclusion bodies of type A baculoviruses) in either wet mounts or histological preparations of the hepatopancreas and midgut (Lightner et al., in press a,b). BP occlusions are distinctive tetrahedral bodies easily detected by bright field or phase microscopy in unstained wet mounts of tissue squashes (Fig. 1), while MBV occlusions are spherical and therefore difficult to distinguish from lipid droplets, secretory granules, etc. The use of a stain like 0.1% aqueous malachite green in preparing wet mounts for MBV diagnosis aids in demonstration of the occlusions. Presumably, the pro-

### Table 1. Penaeid viruses and their known natural and experimentally infected hosts*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subgenus</th>
<th>BP</th>
<th>MBV</th>
<th>IHHN</th>
<th>HPVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Litopenaeus:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Penaeus vannamei</td>
<td>+ + +</td>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
<td>(e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. stylirostris</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. setiferus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>+ + +</td>
<td>(e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peneaus:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. monodon</td>
<td></td>
<td>+ + +</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>+ + +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. esculentus</td>
<td>+ + +</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. semisulcatus</td>
<td>+ + +</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Penneropenaeus:</td>
<td></td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td></td>
<td>+ +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. merguiensis</td>
<td>+ + +</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. orientalis</td>
<td>+ + +</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farfantopenaeus:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. japonicus</td>
<td>+ + +</td>
<td>+ + +</td>
<td>+ (e)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. aztecus</td>
<td>+ + +</td>
<td></td>
<td>(e)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. duorarum</td>
<td></td>
<td>+ + +</td>
<td>+ (e)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. kerathurus</td>
<td></td>
<td>+ (?)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. marginatus</td>
<td>+ + +</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*aAbbreviations:  
BP = Baculovirus penaei  
MBV = P. monodon baculovirus  
BMN = Baculoviral midgut gland necrosis  
IHHN = Infectious hypodermal and hematopoietic necrosis  
HPV = Enteric parvo-like virus  
REO = Reo-like virus  
+ = Infection observed in species, but no signs of disease.  
++ = Infection may result in moderate disease, mortalities.  
+++ = Infection usually results in serious epizootic with high mortality rate.  
e = Experimentally infected; natural infections not yet observed.

### Table 2. Additional penaeid diseases of possible viral or chlamydial etiology, and possible orphan viruses observed in penaeids.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agent, condition or disease</th>
<th>Host species</th>
<th>Organ</th>
<th>Associated with disease</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IHHT-like inclusions</td>
<td>Penaeus japonicus</td>
<td>HEO &amp; foregut</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Brock (unpub.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picorna or Parvovirus</td>
<td>P. aztecus</td>
<td>Heart</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Foster et al., 1981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Togavirus</td>
<td>P. duorarum</td>
<td>HP</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Lightner (unpub.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picorna or Parvorivirus</td>
<td>P. japonicus</td>
<td>Whole body</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Bonami (pers. comm., Sept. 1984)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chlamydia-like agent</td>
<td>P. japonicus</td>
<td>HP</td>
<td>Yes, with BMN</td>
<td>Lightner (unpub.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
tein making up the occlusion absorbs the stain more rapidly than do most of the host tissue components, making the occlusions distinct within a few minutes (Fig. 2). BP and MBV occlusions distinct within a few minutes (Fig. 2). BP and MBV occlusion bodies in histological preparations appear as prominent eosinophilic (with H&E), usually multiple occlusion bodies within the hypertrophied nuclei of hepatopancreatic tubules or midgut epithelial cells.

Unlike BP and MBV, which are Type A baculoviruses because they produce occlusion bodies, BMN is a Type C baculovirus that does not produce an occlusion body (Fig. 3). Hence, diagnosis of BMN infections is dependent upon the clinical signs of the disease, histopathology and transmission electron microscopic (TEM) demonstration of the baculovirus in affected hepatopancreatocytes (Lightner et al., in press b). Sano et al. (1983) have developed a rapid fluorescent antibody test for BMN that reportedly simplifies the diagnosis of BMN.

*For all figures, unless otherwise noted, wet mounts are unstained; histological sections are stained with hematoxylin and eosin; TEM sections are stained with lead citrate and uranyl acetate, and SEM preparations are coated with gold.

The cytopathology of BP, MBV, and BMN is generally similar when studied by light microscopy, differing principally by the lack of occlusion bodies in BMN. Often the affected hepatopancreatocyte nuclei have a peripherally displaced compressed nucleolus and marginated chromatin, giving affected nuclei a "signet ring" appearance (Figs. 1-3), even before occlusion bodies become well developed. Brown and Brenn histologic gram stain (Luna, 1968), although not specific for baculovirus occlusion bodies, tends to stain occlusions more intensely than the surrounding tissue, aiding in demonstrating their presence in low-grade infections.

TEM of BP and MBV-infected cells shows large numbers of rod-shaped baculovirus particles both free and occluded within the proteinaceous crystalline matrix of the occlusion body (Figs. 1 and 2), but only free virus in the nuclei of BMN-infected hepatopancreatocytes (Fig. 3).

**IHHN virus.** This probable picornavirus (Fig. 4), named IHHNV for infectious hypodermal and hematopoietic necrosis virus, was first recognized in 1981 in Hawaii, in populations of cultured *P. stylirostris* that had been imported from a number of commercial penaeid hatcheries (Lightner et al., 1983a, 1983b). Since its discovery in *P. stylirostris*, IHHNV
has been found to infect a variety of other penaeid species either in natural infections or in experimentally-induced infections (Table 1). IHHN causes serious epizootics in intensively or semi-intensively reared *P. stylirostris*, with accumulative mortalities typically exceeding 90% of the affected populations within 14 to 21 days of onset in 0.05 to 2 g juveniles (Lightner et al., 1983a, 1983b). IHHN has also been documented to cause disease and serious epizootics in larger juvenile and adult *P. stylirostris* and in juvenile and adult *P. monodon* reared in intensive or semi-intensive culture systems (Brock et al., 1983). While IHHNV has been shown to infect and to be carried asymptomatically by *P. vannamei* (Lightner et al., 1983b; Bell and Lightner, 1984), significant mortalities due to IHHNV infection in *P. vannamei* have not been documented. However, more study of IHHN disease in *P. vannamei* may indeed show that under stressful culture conditions, some mortality losses and/or reduced growth rates may occur (Lightner, unpub.).

IHHNV has been detected in penaeid shrimp sampled from a number of shrimp culture facilities located in widely separated geographic locations (Table 4; Bell and Lightner, in press). These observations suggest that IHHNV has become widely distributed in penaeid culture facilities (Bell and Lightner, in press; Table 4) probably as a result of the difficulty of detecting infection by the virus in asymptomatic carrier hosts such as *P. vannamei* or because losses due to the virus in pond-reared stocks are difficult to detect. IHHN is a disease of juvenile or older shrimp; apparently it does not adversely affect the larval or postlarval stages and, hence, its effect does not occur in hatcheries where it would be readily detected. Instead, IHHN produces its most serious epizootics in (*P. stylirostris* and probably *P. monodon*) shrimp of 0.05 to 2 g, the size by which shrimp have typically been moved to nursery or grow-out ponds. Water turbidity and the small shrimp size at this time in the life cycle makes detection of the disease in extensive or semi-intensive cul-
Fig. 3. Baculoviral midgut gland necrosis (BMN): 3a) Histological section of the hepatopancreas of a postlarval *P. japonicus* with BMN, showing a hypertrophied hepatopancreatocyte nucleus (N). Occlusion bodies are not present in BMN-infected cells, × 1,520. Bar is 5 μm; 3b) TEM of a BMN-infected hypertrophied nucleus. Virions nearly fill the nucleus, × 16,800. Bar is 0.5 μm; 3c) Higher magnification of packets of rod-shaped BMN virions in cross-section (X) and longitudinal section (L), × 39,600. Bar is 250 nm.

Table 3. Range of the penaeid baculoviruses in captive and cultured host species.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Virus</th>
<th>Host species</th>
<th>Geographic location</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BMN</td>
<td><em>Penaeus japonicus</em></td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>Sano et al., 1981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>P. vannamei, P. stylirostris</em></td>
<td>Panama, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Texas*</td>
<td>Lightner 1983; Lightner (unpub.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>P. marginatus</em></td>
<td>Hawaii</td>
<td>Brock (in press)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MBV</td>
<td><em>P. monodon</em></td>
<td>Philippines, Taiwan, Malaysia, Singapore, Mexico*, Hawaii*, Tahiti*</td>
<td>Lightner et al., 1983c; Lightner (unpub.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>P. merguiensis</em></td>
<td>Singapore, Malaysia</td>
<td>Brock et al., 1983; Lightner (unpub.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>P. kerathurus</em></td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>G. Bovo (pers. comm., 1984)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>P. semisulcatus</em></td>
<td>Persian Gulf</td>
<td>Lightner (unpub.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Denotes known example of the introduction of virus to a new geographic region with transfer of infected host species.

Diseases of Penaeids

Diagnosis of infection by IHHNV is dependent upon histological demonstration of prominent eosinophilic (with H&E), Feulgen-negative intranuclear inclusion bodies (Fig. 4a) within chromatin-margined, hypertrophied nuclei of cells in tissues of ectodermal (epidermis, hypodermal epithelium of foregut and hindgut, nerve cord, and nerve ganglia) and mesodermal origin (hematopoietic organs, antennal gland tubule epithelium, mandibular organ, connective tissue, and striated muscle). Usually the midgut, midgut caeca and the hepatopancreas (endoderm-derived tissues) are

Table 4. Known geographic distribution of IHHNV in cultured penaeid shrimp.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Host species</th>
<th>Culture locations positive for IHHNV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Penaeus stylirostris</em></td>
<td>Hawaii, Tahiti, Florida,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. vannamei</em></td>
<td>Texas, Cayman Islands,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. monodon</em></td>
<td>Israel, Panama, Costa Rica,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. semisulcatus</em></td>
<td>Belize, Ecuador, Philippines,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. japonicus (exp.)</em></td>
<td>Singapore, and Guam,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. aztecus (exp.)</em></td>
<td>Probable: Taiwan, Brazil, France,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. duorarum (exp.)</em></td>
<td>Jamaica, and Honduras,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. setiferus (exp.)</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*"exp." denotes experimentally induced laboratory infection by the virus. Natural infections are not known to occur in species.
unaffected, except in severe cases where hepatopancreatic involvement has been observed. These inclusions match closely the characteristics of the Type A intranuclear inclusion body class described by Cowdry (1934). Basophilic chromatin strands are occasionally visible by light microscopy within IHHN intranuclear inclusion bodies. These chromatin strands are a prominent feature of IHHN intranuclear inclusion bodies by TEM (Fig. 4b). IHHN intranuclear inclusion bodies are common early in acute infections, later decreasing in number, and are followed by necrosis and inflammation of target tissues. Affected cells may also have highly vacuolate cytoplasm and small cytoplasmic basophilic inclusions (Fig. 4c). Although the prominent intranuclear inclusions present in shrimp infected with IHHNV are evidence of nuclear involvement, assembly of the virus occurs in the cytoplasm of affected cells (Fig. 4c). The size of the virus (17 to 26 nm in tissue sections and 20 to 22 nm in purified preparations), its morphology, and its replication within the cytoplasm support the tentative classification of IHHNV with the picornaviruses.

**HPV.** This probable parvovirus named HPV, or hepatopancreatic parv-like virus (Fig. 5), was first recognized in cultured *P. merguiensis* in Singapore and Malaysia in 1983 (Lightner and Redman, in press a). HPV (or a very similar agent) was subsequently recognized in four additional penaeid species (*P. orientalis*, *P. semisulcatus*, *P. esculentus*, and presumed *P. monodon*) in either captive wild populations or in cultured populations (Table 5). Individual shrimp with HPV displayed nonspecific signs including poor growth rate, anorexia, reduced preening activity, increased surface foulage, and occasional opacity of tail musculature. Mortalities accompanied by these signs occurred during the juvenile stages, after apparently normal development through the larval and postlarval stages. Accumulative mortality rates in HPV epizootics in *P. merguiensis* and *P. semisulcatus* reached as high as 50% to 100%, respectively, of the affected populations within four to eight weeks of disease onset.

**Table 5.** Known geographic distribution of HPV in captive and cultured penaeid shrimp.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Host species</th>
<th>Geographic location</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Penaeus merguiensis</em></td>
<td>Qingdao (Yellow Sea region), China</td>
<td>Lightner and Redman (in press)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. orientalis</em></td>
<td>Persian Gulf</td>
<td>Paynter et al. (in press)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. semisulcatus</em></td>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. monodon</em></td>
<td>Queensland, Australia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. esculentus</em></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The principal lesion in HPV disease, common to all affected species, is a necrosis and atrophy of the hepatopancreas, accompanied by the presence of large prominent basophilic, PAS-negative, Feulgen-positive intranuclear inclusion bodies in affected hepatopancreaticocytes (Fig. 5a). These inclusion bodies are diagnostic for HPV, and presumably developed from small eosinophilic intranuclear bodies that were also present in the affected tissues. Electron microscopy of affected hepatopancreaticocytes revealed aggregations of 22 to 24 nm diameter particles within the electron-dense granular inclusion body ground substance (Fig. 5b). The virus-like particle size and morphology, the close association of the nucleus with the developing inclusion body, and the presence of intranuclear bodies within developing inclusion bodies are similar to cytopathological features reported for parvovirus infections in insects and vertebrates.

**Reo-like virus.** A reo-like virus was present in large viral areas in the cytoplasm of hepatopancreatic R-cells of diseased laboratory-reared *P. japonicus* from the Mediterranean city of Palavas in France (Tsing and Bonami, 1984). Purified virions were non-enveloped, icosahedral particles of about 60 nm in diameter. The disease was reproduced in healthy *P. japonicus* by inoculation with purified virus or by feeding animals pieces of hepatopancreas from infected shrimp. Disease developed slowly in reo-like virus-exposed animals, requiring about 45 days to develop. Secondary infections by agents such as *F. solani* were common in reo-like virus-infected *P. japonicus* (Tsing and Bonami, 1984).

**General procedures for virus screening.** Three basic diagnostic procedures have been developed for screening penaeid shrimp for virus infections: 1) direct samplings for microscopic (wet mount) examination and/or histopathology; 2) enhancement of infection followed by microscopic examination and/or histopathology; and 3) bioassay of a suspect shrimp population with a sensitive indicator species followed by sampling and histopathology (Lightner et al., in press b).

Nonrandom samples of shrimp are selected in direct sampling procedure from culture tanks, ponds, or cages and examined directly for signs of BP or MBV in wet mounts, or they may be preserved in Davidson’s AFA or 10% buffered formalin (Humason, 1967) for histological evaluation. The sensitivity of this procedure is limited, and it will only demonstrate shrimp with viral infections that are acute or subacute in a population with a high incidence rate. We have been able to diagnose IHHN, BP, MBV, and HPV with direct samples, but such samples have also produced false negative diagnoses on populations later shown by enhancement or bioassay diagnostic procedures to be positive for one of these virus diseases (Lightner et al., in press b).

A quarantined population in the enhancement procedure is reared under relatively crowded and stressful conditions. Postlarvae are best used for this test, which normally require 30 to 60 days. Random samples are taken at intervals throughout the test period, or nonrandom samples are selected as moribund animals are observed. Samples may be prepared for wet mount microscopic examination for BP or MBV, or preserved for histological evaluation. The enhancement procedure is far more sensitive than the direct sampling procedure for BP and MBV-caused diseases, and for IHHN disease in *P. stylirostris* (Lightner et al., in press b). Paynter et al. (in press) have found that diagnosis of HPV in captive wild *P. esculentus* in Australia may also lend itself to the enhancement procedure. Enhancement is not a suitable procedure for demonstration of IHHNV in asymptomatic carriers. For example, enhancement will not readily demonstrate IHHN to be present in Subadult or adult *P. stylirostris* that are IHHN epizootic survivors, or in species such as...
*P. vannamei* which are readily infected by the virus, but seldom show diagnosable infections (Lightner et al., 1983b).

Carriers of IHHNV may be detected by bioassay with sensitive "indicator" shrimp. Indicator shrimp in this procedure known as IHHNV-free (juvenile *P. stylirostris* of 0.05 to 4 g body weight) may be exposed to samples of suspect carrier shrimp by one or more of three methods: 1) injection with a cell-free filtrate prepared from a homogenate of suspect carrier shrimp (the indicator shrimp will show signs of IHHN disease within 5 to 15 days if the suspect shrimp were infected with IHHNV); 2) rearing in the same tank suspect carrier shrimp with indicator shrimp (the indicator shrimp will show signs of IHHN disease within 15 to 60 days); and 3) feeding chopped carcasses of suspect carrier shrimp to indicator shrimp (the indicator shrimp will show signs of IHHN within 15 to 60 days) (Lightner et al., 1983b, in press b).

**Fig. 4.** IHHN: 4a) Histological section of a typical IHHN intranuclear eosinophilic inclusion body (I) in a gill epidermal cell of a juvenile *P. stylirostris*, ×1,100. Bar is 5 µm; 4b) TEM of an IHHN intranuclear inclusion body in a circulating hemocyte in the gills. Nuclear chromatin (C) has been displaced against the inner surface of the nuclear membrane, while the center of the nucleus has become filled with a proteinaceous granular (G) matrix that contains electron-dense spheres and strands (arrowheads), × 15,000. Bar is 0.5 µm; 4c) Histological section of gills showing cells with eosinophilic IHHN intranuclear inclusions (I) and a basophilic cytoplasmic inclusion body (which is an IHHN virus paracrystalline array) in a gill epidermal cell, × 1,520. Bar is 5 µm; 4d) TEM of a gill epidermal cell with masses of IHHN virus (V) and a paracrystalline array of virions (C) in the cytoplasm. The nucleus (N) contains no virions, ×25,200. Bar is 250 nm; 4e) Higher magnification TEM of IHHN virions in a paracrystalline array, × 124,800. Bar is 50 nm; 4f) Negative-stained purified preparation of 20 to 22 nm diameter IHHN virus from particles cesium chloride density gradient centrifugation (2% PTA), ×410,000. Bar is 20 nm.
Fig. 5. Hepatopancreatic parvo-like virus (HPV): 5a) Histological section of a hepatopancreas tubule of *P. merguiensis* that is heavily infected with HPV. Dense basophilic HPV inclusion bodies (I) are present within markedly hypertrophied host cell nuclei, × 1,880. Bar is 5 µm; 5b) TEM of an HPV-infected hepatopancreatocyte of *P. orientalis* that contains a developing intranuclear inclusion body (I). The inclusion body is composed of a granular virogenic stroma that is intimately associated with the host cell nucleoli (No), ×6,120. Bar is 1 µm; 5c) TEM of a more advanced HPV inclusion body (I) which contains two intranuclear bodies (B) embedded in the virogenic stroma. The host cell nucleolus (No) has been displaced by the developing inclusion body, × 12,600. Bar is 0.5 µm; 5d) A high magnification of the virogenic stroma of 5c in which masses of HPV virions are present. Profiles of some HPV particles are clearly angular (arrowheads), × 147,000. Bar is 50 nm.

Actual diagnosis of infection by BP, MBV, BMN, HPV, and IHHNV is dependent on microscopic or histologic demonstration of the particular cytopathology that is unique to each disease. Gross signs and behavior are usually not sufficiently specific in shrimp with infection by these penaeid viruses to be used reliably in diagnosing these diseases.

**Bacterial and fungal diseases**

**Bacteria.** A number of bacteria have been implicated as causes of disease and mortality in cultured penaeids, especially in the larval, postlarval and juvenile stages (Johnson, 1978; Lightner, 1983). Bacterial infections in shrimp may take three general forms: erosions of the cuticle covering the general body surface, gills, and appendages (bacterial necrosis and shell disease), localized lesions within the body, and generalized septicemias. Recent reports on the occurrence of bacterial diseases in cultured penaeids in Kuwait (Tareen, 1982), and China (Meng and Yu, 1980, 1982a, 1982b, 1983) are similar to previously reviewed reports from other shrimp culture groups (Lightner, 1977, 1983). While bacterial diseases of a probable primary bacterial etiology have been
reported from penaeid shrimp (Nickelson and Vanderzant, 1971; Cook and Lofton, 1973), the majority are of a secondary etiology, occurring as a result of syndromes due to such things as ascorbic acid deficiency, toxins, wounds, extreme stress, etc. (Lightner, 1983). A number of reports in the literature support this observation. Many laboratory attempts have been made to complete Koch's postulates with bacterial isolates obtained from penaeids, and in each study a relatively massive inoculum had to be administered to overcome the natural defenses of the host and to produce disease and death in the experimental animals (Vanderzant et al., 1970; Lewis, 1973b; Lightner and Lewis, 1975; Corliss et al., 1977; Huang et al., 1981). One study showed that cell-free solutions of crude extracts of endotoxins and exotoxins of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* and *V. alginolyticus* injected into *P. setiferus* produced significant mortalities with gross signs similar to those observed in actual bacterial infections (Leong and Hanrahan, 1980).

In every reported bacterial infection in penaeid shrimp reviewed up to 1983 (Lightner, 1983), motile, gram-negative, oxidase-positive, fermentative rods have been isolated from lesions or host hemolymph. Most isolates have been *Vibrio* spp., usually *V. alginolyticus*, *V. parahaemolyticus*, or *V. anguillarum*. Certain other gram-negative rods, including *Pseudomonas* spp., and *Aeromonas* spp. may occasionally be involved in bacterial disease syndromes in penaeid shrimp (Lightner, 1983). All of these genera and species have been reported to be among the normal microflora of penaeids (Vanderzant et al., 1970, 1971; Hood and Meyers, 1977; Yasuda and Kitao, 1980; Lewis et al., 1982). Although a variety of gram-positive cocci, including the etiological agent (*Aerococcus viridans*) that causes highly lethal Gaffkemia disease in *Homarus* lobsters, have been isolated from shrimp, none have been linked with disease in penaeids (Stewart and Rabin, 1970; Vanderzant et al., 1971; Vanderzant et al., 1972). Hence, it would appear that shrimp have only opportunistic pathogens that are part of their normal microflora. A possible exception to this was the discovery earlier this year of a gram-negative, acid-fast rod causing disease in adult *P. vannamei* (Lightner, unpub.). Shrimp infected with this microorganism were moribund when collected, but showed no externally apparent abnormalities. Histopathology, however, revealed that the acid-fast bacterium was present in very large numbers either encapsulated in melanized hemocyte nodules or in the tissues surrounding such granulomatous lesions in the host hepatopancreas, antennal gland, and mandibular organ (Fig. 6). The latter two organs were severely affected. Further studies on penaeid bacterial diseases should include tests for acid-fast microorganisms in the event that this pathogen has been overlooked in penaeids.

Several groups have reported effective therapy of these diseases using antibiotics such as Furanace, Furacin, Terramycin, Aureomycin, and Chloramphenicol, and antibacterial chemotherapeutics such as formalin, malachite green, and methylene blue (Aquacop, 1977; Tareen, 1982; Lightner, 1983). Vaccines against *Vibrio* sp. have been reported by Lewis and Lawrence (in press) to be potentially effective in preventing losses due to *Vibrio* spp. infections in aquarium and pond-reared *P. setiferus*, but the efficacious use of this vaccine in penaeids remains to be documented.

**Fungi.** Several species of fungi infect penaeids, and some are major pathogens of these animals. No new species of fungi parasitic to penaeids have been recognized since Lightner (1981, 1983) reviewed the subject, although several more reports have been published recently that expand the documented geographic and host range of *Lagenidium* sp., *Sirospidium* sp., and *Fusarium solani* (Figs. 7, 8, 9). Members of these genera were reported to cause disease losses in cultured *P. semisulcatus* in Kuwait (Tareen, 1982), and in *P. orientalis* cultured in the Yellow Sea region of China. Large-scale hatchery losses of eggs and larvae to *Lagenidium* sp.

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**Fig. 6.** Acid-fast bacteria: Histological section of the mandibular organ of an adult *P. vannamei*. Present in the section are melanized hemocyte nodules that contain masses of gram-positive rod-shaped bacteria (B), × 1,880. Bar is 5 µm; 6b) The masses of acid-fast bacteria (B) and a few isolated rods (arrows) are acid-fast positive, × 1,560. Bar is 5µm. (Stains: 6a, Brown and Brenn histologic gram stain and 6b, Ziehl-Neelsen.)
Fig. 7. *Lagenidium callinectes*: 7a and 7b) A larval *P. setiferus* with an advanced infection of *Lagenidium*. Hyphae (arrows) nearly fill the body of the larva; 7c) Discharge tubes (D) with terminal vesicles (V) that contain maturing zoospores of *Lagenidium*. (Magnifications: 7a, ×20. Bar is 0.5 mm; 7b, ×44. Bar is 100 µm; 7c, × 78. Bar is 100 µm.)

and *Sirolpidium* sp. were reported (Meng and Yu, 1980, 1982a), and *Fusarium* sp. was reported to infect juvenile *P. orientalis* in grow-out ponds in the same area of China (Meng and Yu, 1982b, 1983). As was the case in most of the bacterial species reported from cultured penaeid shrimp, the imperfect fungus *Fusarium* sp. (all isolates that have been identified are *F. solani*) and the phycymycetous fungi *Lagenidium* sp. and *Sirolpidium* sp. appear to be present in virtually all shrimp culture facilities throughout the world. This is not surprising because each of the fungi has a wide host range or can exist as a free-living saprophyte (Johnson and Sparrow, 1961; Moss and Smith, 1984). While no effective chemotherapeutants have been found for treatment of *F. solani* infections in penaeids (Hatai et al., 1974; Lightner, 1981, 1983; Tareen, 1982), a number of effective chemotherapeutants have been identified and tested against *Lagenidium* sp. (Bland et al., 1976; Lio-Po et al., 1982).

The histopathology (Bian and Egusa, 1981) and pathogenesis (Hose et al., 1984) of *F. solani* infections in penaeids (Hatai et al., 1974; Lightner, 1981, 1983; Tareen, 1982), a number of effective chemotherapeutants have been identified and tested against *Lagenidium* sp. (Bland et al., 1976; Lio-Po et al., 1982).

Protozoan parasitic diseases

**Microsporidians.** Microsporidians (Protozoa, Microspora) cause a group of diseases in penaeids that are collectively called "cotton" or "milk shrimp disease." At least three genera of microsporidia, *Ameson* (=*Nosema*), *Agamasoma* (=*Thelohania*), and *Pleistophora*, are known to infect captive wild and cultured penaeids, especially in ponds or in enclosed natural bodies of water (Overstreet, 1982; Lightner, 1983). Tissues infected by these parasites include striated and smooth muscle, and the gonads. Infection prevalences in penaeid culture ponds have approached 10% (Couch, 1978). Severe infections in cultured penaeids may cause chronic disease mortality (Couch, 1978; Lightner, 1983), parasitic castration (Enriquez et al., 1980), and frequently failed to coagulate (Hose et al., 1984).
Gregarines. Gregarines (Protozoa, Apicomplexa) are common inhabitants of the guts of wild and pond-reared penaeids (Johnson, 1978; Overstreet, 1978; Couch, 1983). Two genera, *Nematopsis* and *Cephalolobus*, are known in penaeids (Lightner, 1983). These organisms use a mollusk for completion of their life cycle and, hence, may be excluded from tank and raceway culture systems (Johnson, 1978). Even when present in such large numbers as to occlude the midgut or hindgut lumen (Fig. 12), gregarines appear not to cause significant disease in penaeids.

Noninfectious diseases

Diseases caused by epicommensals

Among the more serious diseases of cultured penaeids are those caused by noninfectious epicommensal organisms. These organisms are common and apparently ubiquitous in shrimp culture facilities. All life stages may be affected, but the most serious losses are encountered in juvenile and adult stages when the gills of the host become fouled (resulting in various forms of gill disease) by heavy infestations of epicommensal organisms such as filamentous bacteria, peritrich protozoans, and pinnate diatoms. Table 6 lists the more commonly observed and reported epicommensal organisms that alone, or with other epicommensals, cause “gill disease” and surface fouling in cultured penaeids. The more important diseases are discussed here.

Bacterial epicommensals. *Leucothrix mucor* (Fig. 10) is a very common ubiquitous estuarine marine bacterium, reported from every penaeid culturing area of the world (McKee and Lightner, 1982; Lightner, 1983). Consistent with this are recent reports of losses due to *L. mucor* in penaeids.

**Fig. 8.** *Sirolpidium* sp.: Wet mount of a larval *P. aztecus* infected with *Sirolpidium* sp. that shows sporangia (S) with short discharge tubes (D) that are developing from hyphae within an appendage, ×160. Bar is 50 μm.

**Fig. 9.** *Fusarium solani*: 9a) *P. californiensis* with well-developed *Fusarium* lesions on the carapace and in the gills (arrows); 9b) Wet mount of conidiospores of *F. solani* from the gills of *P. californiensis*. Both canoe-shaped macroconidia and a microconidium (arrow) are present, ×400. Bar is 20 μm; 9c) Histologic section of a *Fusarium* lesion in the body wall and muscle of a *P. californiensis*. Masses of necrotic melanized hemocytes (H) and unmelanized hemocytes (h) encapsulate *Fusarium* hyphae (arrows) in the lesion which is invading the adjacent muscle (M), ×132. Bar is 50 μm; 9d) PAS-stained histological section of a *Fusarium* lesion showing the abundance of viable hyphae within a granulomatous lesion similar to that shown in 9c, ×400. Bar is 25 μm.
cultured in Kuwait and China (Meng and Yu 1980, 1982b, 1983; Tareen 1982). *L. mucor* attaches to living and nonliving substrates, and in penaeid culture systems it readily attaches to the body surfaces of shrimp. In juvenile and older penaeids, *L. mucor* favors attachment to the gills and accessory gill structures (Fig. 10). Larval and postlarval penaeids may become so fouled by *L. mucor* filaments that respiration, feeding, locomotion, and molting may be seriously impaired, resulting in mortalities. *L. mucor* is noninvasive and it causes no demonstrable pathology to the surfaces to which it attaches (Lightner et al., 1975; Lightner, 1978a). Severity of disease due to *L. mucor* in shrimp is related to organic loading of the culture system, to its oxygen content, and to the added stress of molting. Mortalities due to *L. mucor* surface and gill infestations are due to hypoxia.

Several other species of bacteria have been implicated in bacterial gill disease and surface fouling diseases of cultured penaeids (Table 6). Included among the filamentous forms are *Thiothrix* sp., *Cytophaga* sp. and *Flexibacteria* sp. (Lightner, 1983). Unlike *L. mucor*, inflammation and melanization of the gills often accompanies high levels of infestation by certain of these filamentous bacteria (Lightner, 1978a).
Table 6. Epicommensal organisms observed or reported to cause disease in cultured penaeids.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bacteria</th>
<th>Ciliates (Protozoa)</th>
<th>Blue-Green Algae</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leucothrix mucor</td>
<td>Zoothamnium spp.</td>
<td>Spirulina subsalsa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thiothrix spp.</td>
<td>Epistylis spp.</td>
<td>Schizothrix calcicola</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibacter spp.</td>
<td>Vorticella sp.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vibrio spp.</td>
<td>Lagenophrys sp.</td>
<td>Amphora sp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pseudomonas spp.</td>
<td>Apostome ciliate</td>
<td>Nitzschia sp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flavobacteria sp.</td>
<td>Suctoria (Protozoa)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aeromonas formicans</td>
<td>Acanthae spp.</td>
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</table>

Lewis et al. (1982) reported aggregation of hatchery-reared P. stylirostris larvae by surface fouling due to infestations of Pseudomonas piscicida, Aeromonas formicans, and Flavobacteria sp.

Protozoan epicommensals. A number of species of protozoa have been reported to cause surface fouling and/or gill disease in all life stages of cultured penaeids (Table 6; Overstreet, 1982; Couch, 1983; Lightner, 1983). The most commonly reported protozoans include the peritrich ciliates (Fig. 11) Epistylis spp., Zoothamnium spp., and Vorticella spp.; the loricat ciliate Lagenophrys sp.; an undescribed apostome Ciliate; and the suctoria Acineta spp. (Couch, 1978, 1983; Overstreet, 1978, 1982; Meng and Yu, 1980, 1983; Lightner, 1983). As was the case with bacterial epicommensals, these protozoans, when abundant on the body surfaces, appendages, or gills, can cause difficulties to the host in locomotion, feeding, molting, and respiration (Fig. 11). Like L. mucor, most of the protozoans cause no appreciable internal damage to the host surfaces or gills. The exception to this is the unidentified apostome Ciliate, which caused melanized hemocytic lesions in the gills of P. aztecus (Lightner, 1975; Overstreet, 1978, 1982).

Algae. A number of species of blue-green algae and diatoms (Table 6) have been reported to be among the epicommensal organisms causing surface fouling and gill disease in cultured and captive penaeids (Lightner, 1983). Amphora sp. has even been observed growing internally in the gills of P. setiferus reared in a shallow, nonturbid, well-lighted tank (Overstreet and Safford, 1980).

Nutritional, toxic and environmental diseases

Nutritional diseases

Although a number of the nutritional requirements of cultured penaeids have been identified and such nutrients as the essential amino acids, cholesterol, linoleic acid, β-carotene and potassium are needed in the diet of Penaeids, diets containing the essential nutrients are necessary for optimal growth, survival, and appearance (New, 1976; Kanazawa, 1984). Only the nutritional diseases and syndromes of cultured penaeids have been described in detail. The disease, called black death or shrimp scurvy (Lightner et al., 1977, 1979), occurs in penaeids which are reared in culture systems lacking algae and receiving diets with insufficient ascorbic acid (Fig. 13). The disease has not been observed in shrimp cultured in systems where the diet contains at least 1% algae. Shrimp with black death possess melanized hemocytic lesions in the epithelial and supportive connective tissues of the general body cuticle, the foregut and hindgut, the eyestalks, and the gills. The lesions are most prominent in tissues with a high collagen content (Hunter et al., 1979). Addition of L-ascorbic acid to the shrimp's ration or rearing shrimp in the presence of algae effectively prevents black death disease (Lightner et al., 1979).

Toxic diseases

Hemocytic enteritis (HE): Blooms of certain filamentous blue-green algae, all belonging to the family Oscillariaceae,
have been implicated as causing the disease syndrome HE in primarily young g juvenile e penaeids. Th e occurrence e of HE seems to be ubiquitous, and examples of the disease exist from marine and freshwater shrimp aquaculture facilities in North America, Hawaii, Brazil, Philippines, and Israel (Table 7). On some specie s of blue-green algae, show n experimentally to cause this syndrome, is Schizothrix calcicola (McKee, 1981). S. calcicola occurs in both fresh water and sea water, and has been reported to possess a potent endotoxin (Kelet i e t al., 1979). While HE is most commonly observed in early juvenile penaeids, it has been observed in subadult t penaeids as well.

The principal lesion of HE, which occurs as the result of algal endotoxin released in the gut from ingested algae, is a necrosis and marked hemocytic inflammation of the mucosal epithelium of the midgut an d it s caec a (Fig. 14; Lightner, 1978b), accompanied by necrosis s an d degeneration of the hepatopancreas (Lightner and Redman, 1984). The cause of death in shrimp with HE may be due to osmotic imbalances, poor absorption of nutrients, or to secondary bacterial infections. Species of Vibrio, usually Y. alginolyticus, are the organisms most commonly isolated from midgut and septi c e hemolymph of shrimp with HE (Lightner, 1983). Mortality rates in raceway-reared P. stylirostris with HE have reached 85% (Lightner, 1978b), but these are usually less than 20%. Running of shrimp affected with HE is a chronic effect in animals that survive the disease (Fig. 15) apparently due to midgut dys-fu nction and t o t h e length of time required for the midgut mucosa to regenerate.

Dinoflagellate poisoning. Dinoflagellate e blooms (red tides) have been reported in a number of serious mortalities of cultured penaeids d shrimp in Mexico (Lightner et al., 1984), but a cause-and-effect relationship is not s e pectic species s of dinoflagellate s ha s not bee n experimentally demonstrated (Lightner, 1983). The occurrence of a toxicity syndrome called BSX, “Blue E Shrimp Syndrome Unknown” in P. californiensis and P. stylirostris culture d in Mexico (Lightner, 1983) ha s bee n correlate d with the occurrence of red tides. Shrimp with BSX die of molting failure or following handling stress, and in an a affecte d population, a large percentage of the shrimp d has bee n observed to develop “blunt tubed” or “blunthead heads” (Fig. 23). This condition was thought to develop from damage to the hea d appendage s from m the convulsive behavior pattern t ha t occurs in the syndrome (Lightner, 1983). Dinoflagellate e toxins s are though t to be non-toxic t o crustaceans (Sievers, 1969), but only y short-term m toxicit y tests have been run on shrimp. However, during those tests, the few shrimp that mol ted also died. That observation and th e circumstantial association of red tides and the BSX syndrome in Mexico indicate that the importance of e HE e toxins to penaeids m ay be significant.

Aflatoxicosis and red disease. Aflatoxicosis s an d red disease are discussed together here because of the close similarity of their histopathology (Lightner et al., 1982; Lightner and Redman, in press b). However, the etiology of red disease is unknown, and while it may have a toxic cause, the possible role of a n infectious agent in its etiology has not been completely explored. Both a and e shrimp e have e a s the principal feature a necrosis of the hepatopancreas that is accompanied by marked intertubular e hemocytic e inflammation, tubule encapsulation, and melanization (Figs. 16, 17).

Aflatoxicosis. Necrosis s an d inflammation n of th e ehepa- topancreas, mandibular organ, and hematopoietic organs are the principal 1 feature s o f artificiall y y induce d aflatoxicosis s (Fig. 16; Lightner et al., 1982). Although h a aflatoxicosis s ha s bee n not bee n prove n t o b e an importan t d eese en culture d penaeids, the mechanism f or its being an important disease is in place. Penaeid s re are d in m semi-intensiv e e or intensiv e e systems are fed artificial diets that may contain ingredients, which c a occasion, ca n contai n aflatoxi n in sufficien t t amounts to result in aflatoxicosis (Arafa et al., 1979; Wiseman et al., 1982). Aflatoxin could also be produced “in situ” in penaeid feed s improperly store d under war m and d humid conditions typical of penaeid culture regions (Wiseman et al., 1982).

The principal lesions of aflatoxicosis in penaeids (Lightner et al., 1982) occur in the hepatopancreas and the mandibular organ. In n th e hepatopancreas, acute e an d subacute e aflatoxi- cosis is expressed as necrosis of the hepatopancreatic tubule epithelium that t proceed s f rom m th e proximal portion of the tubules t o the peripheral tubule tips (Fig. 16). A marked intertubular hemocytic inflammation n follows d b y encapsula- tion and fibrosis of affected tubules follows in subacute and chronic aflatoxicosis, but it does not develop in acute aflatoxicosis. The mandibular organ in aflatoxicosis displays a necrosis of the peripheral epithelial cells of cords within the gland that progresses proximally to the central vein (Fig. 16). Only a slight hemocytic inflammation accompany s the degenerative changes in the mandibular organ (Lightner et al., 1982).

Red disease. Re d discolorati on o r re d disease e was a firs t noted d in Taiwan n (Liao, 1977; Liao et al., 1977) in culture d P. monodon. Th e disease a s als o bee n observed in captive wild adult t P. monodon an d in juvenile e an d adult culture d P. monodon in the Philippine s (J.F. LeBittoux and C. Emerson, pers. comm., 1982) and in pond-reared P. stylirostris in Hawaii (Lightner and Redman, in press b). Liao (1977) noted that red disease in some years in Taiwan was “quite serious” especially in cultured adult P. monodon. Th e ehepatopancreases of normal l decapod d crustacean e contain s a vari ety o f caro- tenoid pigments, with m most of the total body content of δ-carotene being store d in the hepatopancreas (Goodwin, 1960).
Fig. 12. Gregarines: 12a) Histological section of the anterior midgut (M) of a *P. monodon*. Numerous trophozoites (T) of a cephaline gregarine nearly fill the gut lumen, ×52. Bar is 100 µm; 12b) Section of the hindgut of the same *P. monodon* showing several gametocysts (G) in a crypt of the hindgut lumen (H), ×265. Bar is 25 µm.

Fig. 13. Ascorbic acid deficiency syndrome ("black death disease"): 13a) Juvenile *P. californiensis* showing melanized subcuticular lesions that are typical of black death disease; 13b) Histological section through a cuticular lesion. Melanized hemocytic nodules and granulomas are present in the cuticular epidermis (E) and subcutis (SC) at this site where the cuticle of two abdominal segments overlap, ×265. Bar is 25 µm.
**Fig. 14.** Hemocytic enteritis, (HE): 14a) Histological section of the anterior midgut (MG) and hepatopancreas (HP) of a juvenile *P. stylirostris* with HE. The mucosal epithelium lining the midgut (×60; Bar is 100 nm); 14b) the anterior midgut caecum (AC), (×150; Bar is 50 µm); and 14c) the posterior midgut caecum (PC), have undergone necrosis and have been replaced by masses of hemocytes (arrowheads) which provide a multilayered barrier to the midgut cecal lumens, ×60. Bar is 100 µm; 14d) TEM of a hepatopancreatocyte, with polyhedral intranucleolar bodies (PNB) and a cytoplasmic autolysosome (L), from a juvenile *P. stylirostris* with HE. The PNB's nearly fill the nucleolus, but are not present in the surrounding karyoplasm. Membranes of smooth endoplasmic reticulum (SER) and autolysosomes (L) characterize the cytoplasm of affected cells, ×13,500. Bar is 1 µm; 14e) Higher magnification TEM of the PNB's from 14d, ×23,260. Bar is 250 nm.

Atrophy and necrosis of the hepatopancreas result in release of stored β-carotenoids and other carotenoids into the hemolymph. Distribution and deposition of hepatopancreatic carotenoids by the hemolymph into the tissues explains the red tissue discoloration that characterizes this disease.

The observations of Liao et al. (1977) of *P. monodon* with red disease indicate that the development of red disease is due to subacute or chronic, without evidence of an infectious etiology. An infectious etiology was considered unlikely because: 1) the disease was refractory to antibiotic therapy, 2) the
Fig. 15. Histogram of tail weight (in grams) of *P. stylirostris* from a population with chronic HE. The tendency for HE to reduce growth rate of affected shrimp to below that of the whole population is evident.

Fig. 16. Aflatoxicosis: 16a) Histological section of the hepatopancreas of a juvenile *P. stylirostris* with subacute experimentally induced aflatoxicosis. Degeneration and necrosis of the organ has proceeded distally (D, at top) from the proximal (P, at bottom) portion of the organ's tubules. The distal tubule tips are only slightly affected, while the medial and proximal portions of the tubules have been destroyed, ×50. Bar is 150 µm; 16b) Higher magnification of the medial portion of several hepatopancreatic tubules undergoing necrosis. Degeneration is proceeding from proximal (left) to distal (right). The tubule epithelium in the proximal region has been sloughed (SE) into the tubule lumen, while the more distal epithelium (E) remains attached. An intense intertubular inflammatory response consisting of hemocytes (H) and fibroblasts (F) is present surrounding the affected tubules, ×285. Bar is 25 µm; 16c) Histological section of the mandibular organ of a *P. stylirostris* with subacute aflatoxicosis. Normal epithelial cells surround the central vessels (V), but peripheral cells show extensive vacuolization, diminution of cytoplasm, and pyknotic nuclei, ×130. Bar is 50 µm.
disease was observed only in *P. monodon*, even when polycultured with *P. penicillatus* and *P. semisulcatus*, and 3) because attempts failed to transmit the disease to unaffected *P. monodon*. Liao et al. (1977) suggested a link between feeding rancid fish and red disease, because the disease was not observed when care was taken to insure that only fresh fish were fed. However, C. Emerson (pers. comm.) noted that red disease in the Philippines occurred in pond-reared and captive wild *P. monodon* fed exclusively artificial diets. Emerson indicated, however, that in his experience red disease was most common in manure-fertilized ponds with thick anaerobic detritus deposits.

Liao et al. (1977) described the sequential development of red disease in *P. monodon*: Affected shrimp passed through four stages, with the earliest detectable signs of the disease being a yellowish-green discoloration of the shrimp body. Otherwise shrimp so affected remained active and displayed normal behavior. During the next two to four days affected shrimp became reddish, with the normally white gills and the pleopods also becoming reddish. Finally after five to seven days, affected shrimp became distinctly red and totally lost their normal brown and tan pigment (banded) pattern. Shrimp in the final stages of the disease were lethargic, anorectic and showed a tendency to excessive surface fouling by epimicrobrial organisms. The amount of body fluid in the cephalothorax increased over normal shrimp and had a foul odor. The hepatopancreas was reported to be yellow or "pale."

Histological examination of *P. monodon* and *P. stylirostris* with red disease revealed a marked atrophy of the hepatopancreas and the presence of numerous melanized inflammatory lesions in the hepatopancreas, antennal gland, mandibular organ, gonads, midgut and gills (Lightner and Redman, in press). Hepatopancreatic inflammatory lesions were the most consistently observed lesion type (Fig. 17). Affected hepatopancreata were atrophied (reduced by as much as 50% of expected normal size), usually contained multiple hemocyte-encapsulated hepatopancreas tubules with necrotic or sloughed epithelial linings, and possessed a marked hemocytic infiltration in the intertubular spaces (Fig. 17). Brown and Brenn gram-staining of affected hepatopancreata

**Fig. 17.** Red disease: 17a) Histological section of the hepatopancreas of a juvenile *P. monodon* with red disease. Most hepatopancreatic tubules are heavily encapsulated with hemocytes, melanized and contain masses of necrotic tissue debris and bacteria. Only a few normally appearing hepatopancreatic tubules (T, in upper right) are present in this section, ×50. Bar is 150 µm 17b) A higher magnification photomicrograph of a portion of the same section shown in 17a. Several stages of hepatopancreatic tubule degeneration are shown. A nearly normal tubule (T), with its brush-bordered simple columnar lining epithelium, is separated by two degenerating tubules (D) from the remnants of another hemocyte-encapsulated (H) and melanized hemocyte-lined tubule (M) that has lost its lining epithelium and now contains a mass of tissue debris and bacteria (B), ×265. Bar is 25 µm; 17c) Gram-positive cocci are commonly present in the hepatopancreas of *P. monodon* with red disease. These cocci are seen either free in the lumen of the hepatopancreas tubules or in cytoplasmic vacuoles (arrows) of tubule epithelial cells (Brown and Brenn tissue gram stain), ×1,320. Bar is 5 µm.
of *P. monodon* and *P. stylirostris* showed the tubule lesions to contain masses of gram-negative rod-shaped bacteria and in *P. monodon* occasional prominent clusters of large (1.0 to 1.5 μm diameter) gram-positive cocci or short rods (Fig. 17c). Unlike the gram-negative rods that were always present in tissue debris in the lumen of hemocyte-encapsulated tubules, the gram-positive organisms in *P. monodon* were observed in clusters within cytoplasmic vacuoles of tubule epithelial cells, as well as in the lumen debris.

The significance of the relatively large numbers of gram-positive bacteria present in many of the *P. monodon* hepatopancreata with red disease is not known. Gram-positive bacteria do not typically make up a significant part of the normal microflora of penaeid shrimps and prawns (Vanderzant et al., 1970; Vanderzant et al., 1972; Lewis, 1973a; Yasuda and Kitao, 1980) or the known pathogens of penaeids (Lightner, 1983). The absence of these gram-positive bacteria in the Hawaii-reared *P. stylirostris* with red disease suggests either that they are not the etiological agent of red disease or that red disease may be a generalized syndrome, with more than one cause, resulting from a necrosis of the hepatopancreas and release of its content of carotenoid pigments into the hemolymph (Lightner and Redman, in press b).

**Gut and nerve syndrome.** This idiopathic proliferation condition affecting the midgut and ventral nerve cord has only been observed in populations of postlarval and juvenile *P. japonicus* reared in ponds, tanks, and raceways in Hawaii (Lightner et al., 1984). It has apparently not been observed in *P. japonicus* reared in Japan or elsewhere. The disease was named gut and nerve syndrome (GNS) to reflect its idio-

pathic nature and the principal organs affected. The severity and high prevalence of GNS in virtually all populations of cultured *P. japonicus* studied since 1980 in Hawaii had precluded the successful rearing of this species in Hawaii, particularly in high density culture (Fig. 18; Lightner et al., 1984). Although there is no evidence to support the hypothesis, GNS is hypothesized to be caused by a toxin, possibly an algal toxin, that is unique to Hawaii (Lightner et al., 1984). The principal lesions observed in *P. japonicus* with GNS are a hypertrophy of the anterior midgut mucosal epithelium basement membrane (BM) and a hyperplasia of the epineurium that covers the ventral nerve cord and segmental ganglia in the gnathothorax (Figs. 19, 20). There seemed to be a positive correlation between increased thickness of the BM and disease (i.e. poor growth, anorexia, extreme surface fouling, abdominal muscle necrosis, and opportunistic bacterial and fungal, usually *F. solani*, infections), and a possible relationship between ataxia, lethargy, and reduced escape response and the degree of hyperplasia of the epineurium (Lightner et al., 1984).

**Black gill disease.** A number of disease syndromes of cultured penaeids are accompanied by the presence of black (melanized) inflamed lesions in the gills (Fig. 21; Lightner, 1977; Lightner and Redman, 1977). In fact, black gills may accompany many of the syndromes described earlier in this review (Table 8), and are also frequently a sign of toxic syndromes caused by chemical irritants including certain heavy metals, oil, ammonia and nitrite, and ozone.

**Gas-bubble disease.** Gas-bubble disease has been reported to occur in penaeid shrimp as a result of supersaturation of
Fig. 19. Gut and nerve syndrome (GNS): 19a and 19b) Cross-section of the midgut from a *P. japonicus* with GNS. The mucosal epithelium (E) rests on a hypertrophied basement membrane (BM). The circular and longitudinal muscle layers (M) and the serosa (S) are normal in appearance (PAS staining) (19a, ×180. Bar is 50 µm; 19b, ×530. Bar is 20 µm); 19c) TEM of a hypertrophied basement membrane (BM). The mucosal epithelium (E) surface of the BM shows a slightly hypertrophied apical layer (A) that is more electron dense than the greatly hypertrophied proximal layer (P), which lies adjacent to smooth muscle cells (M), ×6,000. Bar is 1 µm; 19d) A higher magnification TEM of the proximal portion of hypertrophied BM that shows it to be composed of fine fibrils embedded in a finely granular matrix, ×65,000. Bar is 100 nm.

Fig. 20. Gut and nerve syndrome (GNS): 20a) A sagittal section of the ventral nerve cord (N) and a segmental ganglion (G) in the gnathothorax of a juvenile *P. japonicus* with GNS. The epineurium (E) is composed of multiple repeating layers, rather than the normal single layers, ×86. Bar is 100 µm; 20b) A higher magnification of a multi-layered epineurium covering the ventral nerve cord is shown with seven repeating PAS-positive fibrous bands (F) that alternate with layers of granulocytes (G) that contain prominent PAS-negative granules, ×340. Bar is 25 µm; 20c) TEM of two fibrous layers (F) separated by a granulocytic layer (G). The nuclei of fibrocytes (N) are present in the fibrous layers, which are composed of bundles of collagen fibers arranged at oblique angles, ×3,300. Bar is 2 µm.

Fig. 21. Black gills: 21a) A juvenile *P. stylirostris* with black gills due to an intense hemocytic inflammatory response to damaged or necrotic gill tissues. Melanization of hemocytes and surrounding tissues results in the black color; 21b) Wet mount of a gill process from a juvenile *P. californiensis* with severe gill melanization, ×32. Bar is 250 µm.

Fig. 22. Gas-bubble disease: 22a) A juvenile *P. stylirostris* with gas-bubble disease. The gills of this shrimp appear white due to numerous gas bubbles within the gill lamellae; 22b and 22c) Wet mount of a gill process from a *P. stylirostris* with gas-bubble disease. At low magnification (22b, ×36. Bar is 250 µm), hemocoel rami in the gill process are outlined by gas emboli that, at a higher magnification (22c, ×86. Bar is 100 µm), are shown to block all hemolymph circulation, thereby stopping respiration.

Fig. 23. Dinoflagellate toxicity syndrome: Juvenile *P. stylirostris* with gross signs of the disease syndrome BSX that has been circumstantially linked to red-tide toxins. Blunting of the head (of top two, bottom shrimp is normal) is due to erosion of the antennae, antennules, rostrum, antennal blades, and portions of the eyes.
Table 8. Biological and chemical agents reported to cause black gills in penaeid shrimp.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agent</th>
<th>Reference</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Virus</td>
<td>Lightner et al. (in press)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IHHNV</td>
<td>Lightner et al. (in press)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bacteria</td>
<td>Lightner, 1978a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibacter sp.</td>
<td>Lightner, 1978a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cytophaga sp.</td>
<td>Lightner, 1978a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vibrio (Beneckea)</td>
<td>Lightner, 1978a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fungi</td>
<td>Egusa and Ueda, 1972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fusarium solani</td>
<td>Egusa and Ueda, 1972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protozoa</td>
<td>Lightner et al., 1979</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apostome Ciliate</td>
<td>Lightner et al., 1979</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nutritional Deficiency</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black Death (shrimp scurvy)</td>
<td>Lightner et al., 1979</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemical</td>
<td>Lightner, 1978a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cadmium, copper</td>
<td>Lightner, 1978a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potassium permanganate</td>
<td>Lightner, 1977</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ozone</td>
<td>Lightner, 1978a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ammonia and nitrite</td>
<td>Lightner, 1978a</td>
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atmospheric gases and oxygen (Lightner, 1983). Shrimp are similar to fish in their sensitivity to supersaturation of atmospheric gases. Although the level of nitrogen or atmospheric gas supersaturation required to cause gas-bubble disease in penaeids has not been formally studied, a threshold of about 118% saturation is assumed (Lightner, 1983). Oxygen-caused gas-bubble disease in penaeids was reported to occur when oxygen reached or exceeded 250% of normal saturation in seawater (Supplee and Lightner, 1976). Regardless of the gas causing gas-bubble disease in shrimp, the clinical signs are the same. The most obvious sign of gas-bubble disease is that shrimp with it, float. (in all other diseases, dead or dying shrimp sink.) Examination of fresh preparations of gills or whole tissue by microscopy reveals the presence of gas bubbles (Fig. 22).

Cramped tail. This occasionally observed condition of penaeid shrimp has been reported to occur in the summer months, when both air and water temperatures are high (Johnson, 1975b; Lightner, 1977; Liao et al., 1977; Meng and Yu, 1980). Penaeids with cramped tails (while still alive) have a dorsal flexure of the abdomen that cannot be straightened. The condition typically follows handling, although shrimp have been observed with cramped tails in undisturbed ponds (Johnson, 1975b). The cause of cramped tail is unknown, but its occurrence only during summer suggests that elevated water and air temperatures, the handling of shrimp in air that is warmer than the culture system water, and other stresses may contribute to the cause of the condition.

Muscle necrosis (spontaneous necrosis). Muscle necrosis is the name given to a condition in all penaeid species that is characterized by whitish opaque areas in the striated muscle, especially in the distal abdominal segments (Rigdon and Baxter, 1970). The condition follows periods of severe stress (from low oxygen, sudden temperature or salinity changes, severe gill fouling, etc.) (Lakshmi et al., 1978; Lightner, 1983). It is reversible in its initial stages, but it may be lethal if large areas are affected. "Tail rot" is the name given to the chronic and usually septic form of the disease when the distal portion of the abdomen (or appendages) becomes necrotic, turns red, and begins to slough.

Summary

There are five areas of research that should receive emphasis in the next several years in penaeid disease research: 1) Appropriately equipped laboratories in each of the major penaeid culture areas should identify and catalog those diseases occurring in wild populations and in culture facilities in their region; 2) Penaeid diagnostic laboratories should use or strive to develop for general use "standardized" diagnostic procedures whenever possible, especially for highly infectious agents such as the penaeid viruses; 3) Penaeid cell culture methods for primary cultures or cell lines must be developed to aid in the development of a much needed rapid, sensitive diagnostic test or tests for the penaeid viruses; 4) Improved methods of disease prevention, control, or chemotherapy are needed for many of the penaeid diseases now adversely affecting the penaeid culture industry; and 5) Approval is needed from those government regulatory agencies (such as the U.S. Food and Drug Administration and the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency) for drugs and chemicals used as pesticides and chemotherapeutics in penaeid culture that may pose a health risk to humans.

Acknowledgements

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Extensive and Semi-Intensive Culture of Prawn and Shrimp in the Philippines

Florentino D. Apud
Aquaculture Department, Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

Abstract
Various farming systems for prawn and shrimp are compared, with emphasis on the extensive and semi-intensive culture of tiger prawn *Penaeus monodon* and white shrimp *Penaeus indicus* in monoculture or in polyculture with milkfish (*Chanos chanos*). The bases of comparison include pond design characteristics, stocking density, food supply, water management, average production, technical, and other major input requirements. Common factors that may influence production for each system are also discussed.

It is observed that prawn and shrimp production has been mainly characterized by the extensive system. Of the 200,000 ha of brackishwater fishponds in the Philippines, about 25% (50,000 ha) are stocked with prawns and shrimps in monoculture or in polyculture with milkfish. Only a relatively small portion (less than 500 ha) of the area is utilized for semi-intensive culture. The dramatic increase in area utilization for extensive prawn production in recent years can be attributed to high market demand, increased hatchery-bred fry production, minimum technical requirements, and lower production cost and risks.

The trend towards intensification among existing large fishfarms is hampered by rising capital costs for fishpond improvement and increasing operational expense and risks. However, intensification is gaining some attention and progress in limited areas, primarily to maximize utilization and production to avoid high investment cost of land for expansion. Further development and progress in the industry will be dependent on such factors as market price, availability of fry and feed at reasonable cost, supply of trained technicians, technical problems, financial situation, and economic viability of the operation.

Introduction

Prawns and shrimps* are among the food items with high demand in Japan, U.S.A. and some European countries. Tan (1984) reported that Japan's imports of frozen prawn and shrimp in 1983 was 148,589 tons. The Philippine export of the same product for that year was only 4,321 tons or barely 2.9% of Japan's total imports.

U.S. consumption of tropical shrimp in 1983 was 216,400 tons, of which 155,180 tons were imported. In effect, the total market demand for frozen prawn and shrimp in U.S.A. and Japan alone is about 300,000 tons annually excluding the demand of Europe and other countries.

The potential for prawn and shrimp production in the Philippines has been very promising. The country has a warm tropical climate, ideal soil for culture, and unpolluted estuarine areas considered to be the natural habitats of these species. Also, a good portion of the vast existing brackishwater fishponds presently devoted to milkfish culture is suitable to the culture of various penaeid prawns and shrimps. Among the commercially important species now being cultured in the Philippines are the jumbo tiger prawn, *Penaeus monodon*; white shrimp, *P. indicus* and *P. merguiensis*; and the sand shrimp, *Metapenaeus ensis*.

Highlights of development

Prawn and shrimp farming in the Philippines has evolved from a traditional and crude polyculture method to an improved monoculture farming system. In earlier decades, farmers were largely dependent on the entry of wild fry into their ponds during spring tide. The fry brought inside the pond by tidal inflow were grown on natural food often together with milkfish. Since the occurrence of fry is seasonal and the quantity unpredictable, the production of prawn and shrimp during this period was unreliable.

To be assured of better production, farmers thought of intentionally stocking a certain number of fry in monoculture. Prawn and shrimp fry were then collected using various gears such as lures made of grass and twigs, filter net and fry raft, fry seine and scissors net depending on whether the collecting site is along the shore, mouths of rivers or estuaries, etc. (Motoh, 1981). Since information on pond culture of prawn was inadequate at the time, farming attempts often failed.

The increasing demand for prawn and shrimp in the international market in the early sixties triggered the interest of both the government and private sectors in developing the prawn industry. Upon gaining some information from printed materials and from fishery scientists and officials who have observed prawn culture activities in Taiwan and Japan, some farmers ventured seriously into prawn production. Most if not all ventures, however, did not prosper due to various problems such as inadequate and seasonal fry supply, lack of technical knowhow and skill, and the high rate of

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*Prawns and shrimps in this paper refer to the jumbo tiger prawn *Penaeus monodon* and the white shrimps *P. indicus* and *P. merguiensis*, respectively.
mortality in ponds (Delmendo and Rabanal, 1956; Caces-Borja and Rasalan, 1968).

Breakthroughs in the mass production of penaeid fry under controlled conditions at the Mindanao State University Institute of Fisheries Research and Development, in Naawan, Misamis Oriental and SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department in Iloilo, in the late sixties and early seventies marked the take-off point in the development of the prawn and shrimp industry in the Philippines. The impact on industry was the venturing into prawn culture of more farmers because of greater assurance of fry supply.

With the proliferation of hatcheries all over the country in the late seventies and the development of nursery techniques (Apud, 1979), more fishponds were converted to, or constructed for, prawn culture. A privately-owned multimillion peso prawn culture complex was in fact established in Negros Occidental in 1979. A number of entrepreneurs followed and established different types of prawn culture facilities whose sizes varied according to level of investment.

In 1983, there were about 60 government and privately-owned hatcheries in the country with an estimated total production potential of 500 million fry annually (Primavera, 1984). This quantity can supply about 50,000 ha at a stocking density of 5,000/ha at two croppings/year. Even if only 40% (200 million fry) of estimated potential capacity is achieved, the hatcheries are still capable of supplying some 20,000 ha.

The rapid increase in fry supply as a result of continuous progress in hatchery operations has greatly increased the hectare for prawn production during the last five years. To date, it is estimated that about 30,000 to 50,000 ha of the 200,000 ha of brackishwater ponds in the Philippines are devoted to prawn production utilizing various culture systems.

Classification of culture systems

Prawn and shrimp culture systems are classified into three, namely, extensive, semi-intensive, and intensive. The classification is based mainly on pond facilities, stocking density, food supply, water management, yield, technical knowhow and skill and other major inputs. While semi-intensive and intensive farming have gained some progress in recent years, the extensive system still remains the major practice possibly because of the relatively large landholdings (50-300 ha) per farmer. In order to shift to the semi-intensive or intensive system, large areas will require greater amount of inputs, risk, high-level technical knowhow, and supervision.

On the other hand, increasing acquisition and development costs per unit area has led farmers with small landholdings to go into intensive operation. Intensified farming virtually increases the yield per hectare thereby absorbing the relatively higher capital investment and risk. Further progress and development of any farming operation will largely depend on the supply and cost of fry, technical knowhow, quality and cost of feed, and economic viability of the operation. For purposes of this paper, discussion is confined to extensive and semi-intensive farming operations.

Basic considerations

Site suitability

The major environmental factors that influence prawn and shrimp production in extensive and semi-intensive operations include climatic conditions, source of water, and type of soil. Better production is observed in areas having short and not so pronounced dry season with moderate rainfall distributed almost throughout the year and having sufficient source of good water free from pollutants, with salinity of 10-20 ppt and pH above 7. Desirable types of soil for digging purposes are either clay loam, silty clay or silt loam. Sandy clay suits the creeping and burrowing habit of *P. monodon*. The favorable soil pH is between 7.0 to 8.3. It is desirable to have pond bottom elevation easily reached by ordinary high tides to enhance water replenishment and to easily maintain desirable water depth of 1 m. Accessibility of areas also facilitates supervision and transport of input materials and products. Support facilities such as electricity and an ice plant, if available, are beneficial.
Pond design characteristics

At present, most prawn farmers utilize ponds originally designed for milkfish culture. In extensive farming where prawn and shrimp are mainly dependent on natural food, minimal improvements are introduced depending on the existing conditions of the milkfish pond. In contrast, more improvements in terms of depth, gate and canal system are required for semi-intensive operations.

In extensive ponds, existing compartments range from 2 to 20 ha. Such large sizes lead to difficulties in water management, pest and predator control, and retrieval during harvest. Hence, pond sizes ranging from 1 to 5 ha are more appropriate for the extensive system. In semi-intensive ponds where the stock is provided with supplementary feeds in addition to natural food, more efficient water exchange is needed. Smaller pond areas ranging from 1 to 2 ha are ideal. Ponds capable of holding water at least 80 cm deep are desirable for both extensive and semi-intensive operations. If this is not met, the yield is affected. Otherwise a bottom trench, 5-10 m wide and 0.5 m deep, is excavated along the dikes or across the pond to provide a deeper portion covering at least 25% of the total area. Both extensive and semi-intensive ponds require dikes that are structurally strong and high enough to provide free board of at least 30-40 cm for division dikes and 50-60 cm for secondary dikes.

A single gate and canal system to serve both water supply and drain requirements is adequate for ponds of not more than 3 ha in extensive operations. However, the single gate-canal system is inadequate for larger ponds. In semi-intensive ponds, supply gate and canal system is separate from the drain gate and canal (Fig. 1) to allow more efficient water exchange and to operate on a flow-through basis. The traditional screening facilities (bamboo screen) used for milkfish culture are not applicable. These are replaced by fine-mesh screen (0.2 mm mesh) installed singly either as bagnet or as a circular screen or a combination of both (Fig. 2).

Fig. 2. Combined use of circular screen and bagnet to effectively control pests and predators.

Extensive and semi-intensive culture operations

Pond preparation

Pond preparation in the extensive and semi-intensive culture systems includes the following activities: drying of pond bottom, eradication of pests and predators, repair of pond facilities and propagation of natural food through pond fertilization and water management.

Drying the pond bottom can take a week or two. Undrainable portions of ponds such as water pools require pesticide application to eliminate unwanted species. Most insecticides commonly used contain chlorinated hydrocarbons which are non-biodegradable and may have some residual effects, leading to soil sterility and stunted growth in animals, and mortalities.

Some organic-based pesticides are safe and effective materials for pest and predator control. Rotenone powder preparation (5-8% rotenone) at a 5 ppm concentration or derris root at 20-40 kg/ha at 10 cm water depth can eliminate pests and finfishes. Tobacco dust or shavings are also effective at 200-400 kg/ha in eliminating pests, fishes and even snails. Nicotine and saponin, if available and cheap, are effective in eliminating predatory fishes at 10-15 kg/ha and 1 ppm, respectively.

A cheap and easily available material is lime, in combination with ammonium sulfate at 500-1,000 kg/ha and 100-200 kg/ha, respectively, or a ratio of 5:1. If the above materials are mixed, the ammonia released from ammonium sulfate becomes toxic when pH is raised above 9 because of lime. The pond may be flooded and stocked with fry immediately after application.
Other chemical compounds recommended for use are sodium hypochlorite (active chlorine 5%) which is available as a bleaching solution and calcium hypochlorite, a commercial powder with 75% active chlorine. Both compounds are effective at 5 ppm concentration.

The most commonly used fertilizer in the industry is chicken manure applied at 1-2 ton/ha. Pig and cattle manure, mud press and, to some extent, rice bran and rice straw are also utilized. The organic and inorganic fertilizer combination used depends largely on soil and water conditions as well as type of food. Normally, organic fertilizer application is followed by inorganic fertilization at 75-150 kg/ha of 16-20-0 and 25-50 kg/ha of urea (46% N). The propagation of *Ruppia maritima* requires 15 kg N/ha plus 15 kg P/ha applied every 2 weeks (P. Subosa, pers. comm.).

**Stocking**

Juveniles reared in a nursery pond or in a net enclosure (Fig. 3A, B) adjacent to or within the grow-out pond area are merely transferred or released without acclimation or without packing while tank-reared juveniles require acclimation to pond conditions. Failure to acclimate fry during stocking has been a common mistake committed by fishfarmers. In many cases, farmers do not even measure salinity and temperature of transport water and pond water. At present, prawn farmers may specify to hatchery or nursery sources their salinity preference based on condition of the pond prior to packing and transport of fry. This practice eliminates the need for salinity adjustment during stocking.

Stocking density is dependent on the culture system including food availability, water depth, and efficiency in water management. Fishfarmers engaged in extensive operations stock 2,000-6,000 *P. monodon* fry/ha or 20,000-30,000/ha in the case of *P. indicus*. When natural food is abundant, about 500-2,000 milkfish fry/ha are added. The presence of prawn or shrimp together with milkfish is favorable to both species. Results obtained from various polyculture studies of milkfish and prawn or milkfish, prawn and shrimp (Pudadera, 1980; Eldam and Primavera, 1981; Apud et al., 1983) confirmed several beneficial effects. Eldani and Primavera (1981) specifically pointed out that one of the important benefits of prawn in polyculture with milkfish is their control of the population of chironomid larvae. These can occur at very high density (40,000-50,000/m²) and compete with the favored stock for food, oxygen and space. Gundermann and Popper (1977) reported the disappearance of *Chironomus* larvae in Fiji ponds several weeks after stocking with *P. merguiensis* and *P. indicus*.

Stocking densities in semi-intensive operations may vary from 20,000 to 50,000/ha for *P. monodon* and 50,000 to 100,000/ha for *P. indicus*. These density levels are based on industry experience and the results of various studies on the intensification of prawn grow-out at the SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department Leganes Research Station (Mochizuki, 1979; Apud et al., 1981; Norfolk et al., 1981). At these density levels, it is possible to obtain survival rates ranging from 70 to 80% for *P. monodon* and 60 to 70% for *P. indicus*. Growth however, is highly dependent on water management and depth as well as the quality of supplementary feed.

**Rearing**

Extensive farming of prawn and shrimp relies heavily on natural food grown in the pond. Supplementary feeds are provided only occasionally when natural food production is low and stocking density is higher than 5,000 *P. monodon*/ha or 20,000 *P. indicus*/ha. In contrast, densities ranging from 20,000-30,000 *P. monodon*/ha and 50,000-100,000 *P. indicus*/ha in semi-intensive culture require regular supplementary feeding in addition to natural foods.

The natural food growing in prawn and shrimp ponds varies according to pond condition and location. Extensive culture as practised in northern Panay, parts of Bataan, Bulacan, Pangasinan, Samar, Leyte and some areas in Mindanao depends to a great extent on aquatic plants. The two most important species are *Najas graminea* and *Ruppia maritima*. Both plants normally occur in lower salinity (10-20 ppt) areas. *R. maritima* has a crude protein content of 15% (Apud et al., 1983). Both grow well in water 50-100 cm deep. Prawns

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**Fig. 3.** *Hapa* prawn nurseries: A, *hapa* nursery in pond and B, net enclosure.
and shrimps graze on the soft parts of the plants, associated small animals (copepods, ostracods, insect larvae, nematodes, snails, etc.) and particularly on the decaying remains of the plants on the pond bottom (Primavera and Gacutan, 1984). The plants likewise provide shelter or substrate and improve water quality as silt and other particles are deposited on their leaves and stems.

Filamentous green algae such as Chaetomorpha constitute another natural food grown in ponds. Chaetomorpha grows in low salinity at water depth of 60 cm or more. It is also a refuge for various animals which are eaten by prawns and shrimps. The excessive growth of algae can cause harm by entangling the fry. This can be remedied by stocking milkfish at recommended polyculture rates. In some cases, ponds heavily loaded with these algae are drained completely by fishfarmers prior to stocking. Inorganic fertilizers are then broadcast directly into the mat of algae to soften the plants on the pond bottom (Primavera and Gacutan, 1984). The plants likewise provide shelter or substrate and refuge for various animals which are eaten by prawns and shrimp. Also, the pond bottom easily deteriorates with excessive growth of lablab whose decomposition produces sulfides and other toxic gases and at the same time depletes oxygen on the pond bottom. Prawns and shrimps lose appetite at oxygen level of 3 ppm and below, hence lablab is not considered a good natural food for prawns unlike milkfish (Apud et al., 1983).

Although the stock in extensive ponds relies greatly on natural food, some farmers provide various kinds of supplementary feeds such as trash fish, mussel meat, toads, chicken entrails, cattle hide, snails, etc. In semi-intensive culture, processed feeds (formulated diet) and/or trash fish (Apud et al., 1981) are stored to provide adequate and ready supply of feeds in case unprocessed feeds are not available.

The amount of feeds and frequency of feeding are not yet well established. However, the daily recommended rates which decrease with time are 15-10% of estimated total biomass of prawns and shrimps for wet feeds and 10-4% for dry pellets. Forty percent of the feed is given in the morning and 60% in the evening. Feeds are placed in feeding trays and inspected a few hours after feeding to check whether the feeds are consumed or not.

There are relatively few cases of disease problems reported in extensive and semi-intensive operations. The most common complaint of fishfarmers is soft-shelling of prawns, a condition which inhibits molting and therefore results in retarded growth. Soft-shelled prawns are weak compared to those who undergo normal molting. Soft-shelling is attributed to possible factors like presence of microbes, nutritional deficiency and poor environmental conditions (C. Baticados, pers. comm.). This may also be caused by trace amounts of insecticides applied to adjoining agricultural areas. Proper water management and adequate food supply could prevent the occurrence of these problems.

Other diseases infrequently observed are the "black gill" disease caused by fungi or protozoa and a condition indicated by necrosis of appendages characterized by the browning of pleopods, pereiopods, telson and uropods at the earlier stages. This browning usually spreads progressively from the focus of infection towards the base of the appendages and finally leads to the erosion of some areas. According to Gacutan (1979), the etiology of this disease has not yet been determined; however, shell disease of this nature as in other penaeids can be caused by chitinoclastic bacteria such as Be necea, Vibrio and Pseudomonas (Cook and Lofton, 1973). The progressive destruction of the exoskeleton provides areas for the entry of secondary infection which may cause death.

Fig. 4. Bamboo trap (bakikong) commonly used for partial harvesting.

Body cramp is another problem usually encountered during handling, transfer or harvesting during hot days. The body of a cramped prawn curves and becomes rigid, often times leading to death. This may be avoided if prawns are handled or transferred during cool days. Fuzzy growth of algae on the exoskeleton is another disease. It may be caused by bacteria, protozoans or algae. These are associated with poor water quality and high organic matter content. Molting is inhibited and growth is retarded.

The occurrence of pests and predators cannot be totally avoided during the culture period. Most common are tilapia, gobies, small crabs, tarpon (Megalops cyprinoides), ten-pounder (Elops hawaiensis), seabass (Lates calcarifer), etc. The elimination of predators during the culture period is a difficult problem encountered in the industry. So far, minimizing the population of tilapia is being done by the use of cast net. In the case of gobies, collection by feeding trays or traps are resorted to. Both measures may help at best but do not completely solve the problem.

Some fishfarmers have tried using selective pesticides such as rotenone or saponin to eradicate unwanted species during the culture period. However, supply of these products is scarce. The possibility of developing techniques for selective elimination with locally available derris root is promising. A bioassay of powdered derris root (Tumanda, 1980) indicated its selective effect. At 5-10 ppm, the powdered material kills tilapia, tarpon, ten-pounder, milkfish and other finfishes while leaving P. monodon unaffected.
Harvesting and postharvest handling

In extensive and semi-intensive operations, most fish-farmers usually synchronize harvest with the spring tide during New Moon. It has been observed that prawns are more active during this time. Likewise, there is a greater percentage of hard-shelled shrimps two or three days after the peak of spring tide. If the timing is off, a greater percentage (20-50%) of harvest is soft-shelled. If soft-shelling is caused by normal molting, such can be avoided by inducing them to molt almost at the same time (V. Mancebo, pers. comm.). This is done by abruptly changing pond water four to five days before the scheduled harvest (during spring tide) preferably two days before peak of the highest tide. If the prawns are successfully induced to molt by brief exposure to stressful conditions such as sudden water change, only 5% may be soft-shelled, four to five days after such change.

Partial harvesting is undertaken when there is a wide range of sizes in ponds. Harvest gear popularly utilized for this purpose are bamboo traps (Fig. 4) and cast nets. The most effective gear recently introduced by the SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department is a pound net (Fig. 5) developed in Japan. This is a selective type of gear where smaller shrimps can easily pass through the net mesh used in this trap.

Farmers also attract prawns to traps by placing light over them in the evening. Cast net harvesting is made more effective by placing feed in certain areas where the net is cast. Partial harvest is convenient and can demand better prices for small batches of 20-100 kg per delivery to buyers. Partial harvesting is resorted to by some farmers in Bataan, Pampanga and Bulacan to meet the daily prawn and shrimp requirements of hotels and restaurants in Metro Manila. The advantage of this practice is that the total yield per hectare increases by about 20% (M. Suemitsu, pers. comm.) while the product gets consistently higher prices than when sold in the market at one time.

Total harvest is commonly done using a bagnet (Fig. 6) positioned so that it collects prawns that go with the current while draining the pond. As in partial harvesting, the prawns are initially stimulated to move by partial draining of the pond (30-70%) in the daytime a few hours before the incoming high tide after which the pond is flooded to maximum level during high tide.

In wide extensive ponds (10-20 ha), harvest by this method is oftentimes difficult especially when prawns are not so active. Considering the relatively large area, water manipulation is not effective in stimulating prawn movement. In many cases, the farmers resort to total draining or seining of trenches, and handpicking. While it takes much effort and time to pick up prawns from the pools and mud, prawns harvested this way easily deteriorate and therefore are not accorded the best price in the market. In semi-intensive ponds, the prawns can be easily stimulated to move. Thus harvest is more convenient, whether partial or total.

Another harvesting method that is practised by farmers in Bulacan and some other provinces is the use of a large suspension net (Fig. 7) installed at the drain portion of the gate. Its advantage over the bagnet is that prawns can be accumulated in the nets either by allowing them to swim against the current when flooding with tidal water or allowing them to go with the current when draining the pond. The large area
(50-60 m²) of the net allows the fishfarmer to keep the harvested prawns or shrimps alive until a sufficient number is collected.

A recommended method of handling newly harvested prawns or shrimps is to transfer them from any harvesting gear into small bagnets in quantities not exceeding 10 kg. They are then washed thoroughly in the pond or in a tank after which the prawns inside the bags are immediately immersed in chilled freshwater (10°C) preferably while still alive. After 10 minutes or more in chilled water, the bags can be retrieved and the prawns are spread on the table or in baskets for classification.

Depending on the preference of the buyer, prawns, particularly *P. monodon*, are classified into different size groups, e.g., 6-18, 19-25, 26-40, and 41-45 pcs/kg. All prawns with sizes of at least 41 pcs/kg and those that are soft-shelled are bought at a much lower price or completely rejected. Another classification practised by buyers in Negros is 20 and below, 21-30, 31-40, and 41-50 pcs/kg. The last group plus the soft-shelled prawns are also rejected or bought at a much lower price. Prices fluctuate every now and then. White shrimp, e.g., *P. indicus* are usually classified into three categories, namely: large, 50-70 pcs/kg; medium, 80-100 pcs/kg; and small, 110 pcs and above/kg.

**Problems and prospects**

**Problems**

There are various problems confronting the industry today. A common problem is associated with marketing. Many fishfarmers complain about the classification and pricing pattern adopted by some exporters. It is alleged that there is a big disparity in pricing between first class prawns whose price is P120-150/kg, second class at only P90/kg and third class at P70/kg. The bulk of the processed products fall within the second and third classes.

Despite the proliferation of hatcheries, fry supply especially in Luzon is inadequate during some cropping periods. Lack of fry results in late and staggered stocking, thus adversely affecting production. Hatchery operators who own farms give priority to their own requirement before selling fry to others. Also, production in hatcheries is seasonal like wild fry supply so that prices also fluctuate according to demand.

Feed and feeding requirements have not yet been standardized. Many food sources and feeding practices have been tried but the results are as varied as the kind of feed and feeding scheme used. Likewise, the selling price of prawn has not kept up with the increase in imported and even local ingredients for processed feeds and cost of production.

There is a serious shortage of technical manpower in the industry. Big entrepreneurs usually employ the services of Taiwanese and Japanese technicians who are paid high rates. Local technicians who are as capable as foreign ones are employed by farmers who can hardly afford to offer better incentive. The major source of hatchery technology and technicians in the country is the SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department.

Another source of complaint are inconsistent yields caused by various technical problems. These include retarded growth and high mortality caused by any or a combination of several factors such as soft-shelling, diseases, nutritional deficiency, low pH, extremely high or low salinities, low dissolved oxygen, high H₂S and NH₃ levels, pollution, inadequate or inappropriate pond facilities (shallow ponds and defective screening), presence of pests and predators in large quantities, mishandling, lack of proper acclimation during stocking or transfer, and inefficient water management.

Fig. 6. Bagnet in operation.
Prospects

There is a high market demand for frozen prawn and shrimp in the international market particularly in Japan, U.S.A. and Europe. It is evident that the potential for prawn and shrimp production in the Philippines is promising. The indigenous species, tiger prawns and white shrimps, have a bright prospect for intensified production. The Philippines has a warm climate, soil types and water quality all conducive to prawn and shrimp farming. A good portion of brackishwater ponds is also suitable for conversion into prawn and shrimp culture. The rapid progress and development of hatchery and nursery techniques will eventually solve the problem of inadequate fry supply, while the development of broodstock production and maturation techniques will solve inadequate spawner supply, a serious problem in hatcheries.

Conclusion and recommendations

Extensive farming is largely practised in many provinces of the country with consistent production in some areas. More expansion and improvements are expected within the next few years. Semi-intensive farming, on the other hand, is practised to a limited extent. Its further development will be dictated by the availability of fry at reasonable cost, supply of feed at lesser cost, availability of technical manpower, financial credit facilities, and cost of other inputs and improvements.

Market demand has not yet been saturated; however, there is a need to develop marketing strategies, methods of post-harvest handling, and transport of product to maintain high quality and command better price.

White shrimp farming has yet to be improved in order to achieve more profitable results. One aspect that should be studied is how to grow them bigger (15-25 g) in order to penetrate the international market. There is a high demand for white shrimps in the world market, and the market price is attractive. Local price for white shrimps is low, hence farmers are not as interested in its culture as compared with tiger prawn.

Although fry production has greatly increased due to the proliferation of hatcheries, fry supply is still inadequate to meet the increased demand resulting from expansion and improvements in pond culture. Thus, there is a need to produce fry all year round. Hatcheries should not be dependent on seasonal supply of spawners. Broodstock and maturation tanks should be maintained to meet spawner requirements.

The industry generally lacks supply of appropriate feeds, equipment, and other supplies. Both researchers and fish-farmers agree that food is one major limiting factor in the success of production. The kind of food and frequency of feeding, however, is not well established. To a large extent, feeding is looked upon by the industry as an added major input. The economics of feeding needs to be looked into and research on satisfactory local substitutes of imported ingredients should be continued.
There is a need to develop other support activities such as feed milling and storage, formulation and preparation of fertilizers, propagation of organic pesticides such as derris roots, and fabrication of blowers, paddlewheel, water pumps, different types of harvesting gear, and transport facilities.

The research, training and extension activities of various institutions involved in the development of prawn culture should be reviewed and restructured to suit the needs of industry.

The government should provide credit facilities at low interest rates and marketing incentive or protection so that producers will not be at the mercy of exporters. Strong fish-farmers' association or cooperatives are important in order to have collective bargaining power. Inputs can be acquired and marketing can be done through cooperatives for better profit.

References


Abstract

The economic feasibility of shrimp culture with high productivity of over 10 ton/ha/crop is still under evaluation in some research institutes. However, there is one exception. In a limited area in Japan, there are 63 tanks that are actually in operation and are commercially productive. One of the trials to grow *Penaeus japonicus* is herewith introduced to represent the intensive culture of penaeid shrimp. Tank design, feeding, growth, survival, water management, cost analysis and disease are described. In addition, an illustration of successful semi-intensive culture in earthen ponds is shown to help explain how to intensify and stabilize production.

Introduction

It seems that there is no definition for the term "intensive culture." Previous papers use the word for convenience in contrast to the term "extensive culture." In 1976, Wickins classified shrimp culture into three categories, namely traditional, semi-intensive and intensive, depending on productivity, source of larvae and feed (Table 1). The economic feasibility of shrimp culture with a high productivity of over 10 ton/ha/crop categorized by Wickins is still under evaluation in many research institutes in some developed countries. An efficient closed system or flow-through system is still under consideration. In Japan, however, 63 round-shaped concrete tanks are actually in operation.

The two major projects of the Fisheries Research Station of Kagoshima since 1968 have aimed to develop an intensive culture system for *Penaeus japonicus* and to develop a special artificial diet for this system. The two projects resulted in experimental success two years before the oil crisis. Adopting this intensive system, three pilot farms were established, with the booming Japanese economy as background. The business sector was then eager to explore new fields, and tanks and related facilities could be constructed at a low cost. However, the ensuing oil crisis dramatically increased power costs three- to four-fold. Accordingly, these farms had difficulty in surviving during the days of serious stagflation.

Sometimes, this intensive system is called "Shigueno system" as a compliment, but it brings some mixed feelings. Before presenting this paper following Wickins' (1976) categorization, the writer wishes the reader to bear in mind that the system was planned and found successful for *P. japonicus* in Japan under an economic situation before the oil crisis. The writer would like to use this system as an example of the intensive culture of penaeid shrimp. A typical successful semi-intensive pond culture of shrimp in earthen ponds will also be described to show some effective measures for intensification of production.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Culture</th>
<th>Productivity</th>
<th>Postlarvae</th>
<th>Feed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>0-1 ton/ha/yr</td>
<td>Wild-caught, frequently with fish or a variety of prawn species.</td>
<td>Mainly on naturally produced food in the pond, enhanced by organic or inorganic fertilizers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi-intensive</td>
<td>1-10 ton/ha/yr</td>
<td>Hatchery-reared postlarvae.</td>
<td>Controlled feeding with compounded feedstuffs, little reliance on natural production of food in the pond.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intensive</td>
<td>10 ton/ha/yr</td>
<td>Hatchery-reared postlarvae.</td>
<td>Compounded diets.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 1 presents the side view of a round-shaped concrete tank built three years ago in the writer’s laboratory. A false sand bottom 10 cm above the concrete bottom offers an aerobic bed for the shrimp. The agitator in the center creates a gentle circular movement of water which slowly carries unconsumed feed, cast shells, feces and detritus towards the center. Such undesirable material is swept away through the outlet opening at the center. Four inlet openings located on the peripheral wall jointly work to accelerate a circular movement of the tank water. The water mainly overflows through the outlet pipe standing at the center providing a flow-through system. The outlet valve (8 in Fig. 1) is fully open most of the time and the sand drain valve (9) slightly open to keep the sand bed aerobic and soft. This system is well capable of complete water change in 24 hours. As one of the leading shrimp food manufacturers, the company deemed it necessary to demonstrate the high quality of the feed it produces by culturing shrimp itself rather than through culture by other shrimp farmers.

On 29 May 1984, the tank accommodated about 200,000 postlarvae (P27) weighing an average of 10 mg. The area of the tank is about 2,000 m². The population density at the beginning of this experiment was about 100/m². The shrimp were exclusively fed the compounded feed once every day after sunset. The amount of diet given every 10 days as well as the growth is presented in Fig. 2. The operator dives in the tank every morning to check for remaining food. This also gives a chance to observe the health and vigor of the shrimp and the condition of the sand bed. Care is taken to satisfy the shrimp but not to exceed its needs such that there is remain-
ing food the next morning. The estimated population of the existing shrimp as of the middle of September revealed high survival of over 90%.

Seawater salinity is lowered with fresh water by about 2 to 5 ppt throughout the culture period. Physico-chemical parameters of the tank water monitored at 3 o'clock in the afternoon are depicted in Fig. 3. By the beginning of October 1984, the tank water was dark brown except when there were two typhoons and a week-long rainy days. The bad weather apparently made the water transparent and light in colour. Fig. 3 indicates the trend of increased transparency, total ammonia nitrogen, as well as reversed pH and dissolved oxygen in the water during these days. Through repeated experience, the writer believes that dark brown water is a sign of good environment for cultivating *Penaeus japonicus* regardless of the size of shrimp and culture system. The brown colour is known to be affected mainly by varied species of propagated diatoms or micro-organisms which help to purify the water. Care is also taken not to allow algae to grow in the tank by scouring the bottom with chain links. This is done with a small boat such that the entire bottom is scoured at least once a week. The estimated high survival and rapid growth seem to indicate good results. Conversion ratio by this time is estimated to be about 2.1. The artificial diet should not only satisfy the nutritional requirements of the shrimp, but should also be well prepared so as not to pollute the environmental water.

Since 16 October 1984, partial harvest has been undertaken. The amount of marketed shrimp by the end of November was 1.1 tons. Total production is expected to be around 3 tons, which is equivalent to 15 ton/ha. Maximum feeding in one month in mid-summer amounted to 2,400 kg. This means a maximum feeding of 1.2 kg/m²/month, about six times that of semi-intensive pond culture.

With regards to water quality, salinity was kept slightly lower than the sea water. Lower salinity is believed to be one of the favorable conditions for propagation of diatoms. The intake water is fairly influenced by the city effluent, thus vitamin B₁₂, iron, molybdenum, and some essential rare elements needed to grow diatoms are probably present in the water. Except for continued bad weather during the summer months, the bloom of diatoms kept the water dark brown and helped minimize total ammonia concentration. The calculated concentration of the toxic unionized ammonia has been kept below the safe level of 0.1 ppm (Wickins, 1976).

Through the culture period, the number of dead or moribund shrimp found gathered at the center every morning was 20 to 60. No *Vibrio* disease was observed. However, in November there was a slight increase in individuals with fungal infection among the dead shrimp observed. Fortunately, the infection did not affect the majority that were harvested. The harvest will be finished by the end of December without apparent disease.

A detailed cost analysis of the shrimp farms that have adopted such an intensive culture system is as follows: feed cost, 30%; staff wages, 17%; power cost, 12%; interest of

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**Fig. 3.** Water quality (at 1500 hrs) in an intensive culture tank of *Penaeus japonicus* (1984).
Fig. 4. Population, growth, water temperature, amount of food given, and average % daily feeding rate (in figures) every 10 days in a semi-intensive culture operation of *Penaeus japonicus* (1980). This operation was in a nursing and growing pond (pond 1, see text) of 5.09 ha with survival of 85.94%, gross production of 35,713.4 kg, net production of 35,584.7 kg and food conversion ratio of 1.61.

Semi-intensive culture in earthen ponds

Most cultured shrimp in the market are produced by the semi-intensive method. According to previous reports, the production of *P. monodon* in Taiwan, *P. japonicus* in Japan, *P. merguiensis* and some tropical species in some Asian countries, is largely by the semi-intensive method in earthen ponds. An example of commercial production of *P. japonicus* in Japan is shown in order to discuss ways of intensifying and stabilizing the productivity in this system. Results obtained in one of the successful shrimp farms in 1980 are illustrated in Figs. 4-7.

There are two patterns of growing shrimp in Japan. In the first pattern, the culture operation including marketing starts in April and is terminated by the end of the year. Shipping of shrimp is concentrated from September to December, hence cultured shrimp compete with wild shrimp for a good market price.

The second pattern is adopted by farms located in the southern part of Japan where the climate in winter is temperate enough for shrimp to grow. In this pattern, the culture operation starts in May and lasts until the next spring. Marketing is done in the cold season when shrimp fishing is not operational and the market is short of shrimp. It may be safe to say that the average market price for the latter is about 30% higher than for the former pattern.

One of the four ponds was first used to nurse the post-larvae to juveniles and then was continuously used as a growing pond (pond 1). The juveniles transferred from pond 1 into newly prepared growing ponds (2-4) were raised to adult size. The remainder of the juveniles in pond 1 were kept and grown to marketable size in the same pond. Figs. 4-7 present existing shrimp population, population density, total feed given every 10 days and growth curve of shrimp in each

### Table 2. Production record of *Penaeus japonicus* in Mitsui Shrimp Farm, Inc.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Harvest (ton)</th>
<th>Area (ha)</th>
<th>Productivity (ton/ha/yr)</th>
<th>Food conversion rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
pond. The postlarvae released from hatchery tanks into pond 1 were nursed to juveniles of around 0.6 g by the beginning of June and repeatedly transferred to growing ponds 2-4 by means of electric shockers. This was continued until October. A remarkable increase in growth of the transferred juveniles in the newly prepared growing ponds as compared with those that were retained in the nursery pond was noticed. This is very important in determining the production schedule. Partial harvest for marketing usually starts in August. Partial harvest of small shrimp weighing 12-15 g was repeatedly done from one pond to another. It is well established that the repetition of the thinning procedure stimulates the growth of the remaining shrimp and ultimately maximizes total production. Partial harvest is followed by ordinary harvesting of adult shrimps usually by January of the next year. This shrimp farm ultimately recorded a total net production of 98 tons from 17 ha of ponds. This is equivalent to 5.79 ton/ha/year. The food conversion rate throughout the culture period for pond 1 was 1.61, whereas it varied from 2.02 to 2.64 in the three growing ponds. This is a result obtained in one of the typical successful shrimp farms in 1980.

Through the years, some technical knowledge has accumulated in order to maximize production of shrimp by the semi-intensive method. Most of these are also commonly considered in the intensive culture system.

1) Deepening of the pond. Deep ponds offer a more stable environment and therefore hold more shrimp. A depth of more than 2 m is recommended for *P. japonicus*.

2) Water agitation. To augment the productivity of the pond, agitators should be provided to destroy stratification of pond water. A 1.5 kw paddlewheel agitator for every 3,000 m² is recommended. The structure and use of agitator should allow efficient mixing of available oxygen in the water. An informative report is given by Busch and Goodman (1981).

3) Prevention of algal growth in the pond. Frequent and periodical scouring of the bottom area with a chain prevents algae from growing. For this purpose, some culturists use a specially devised tool which is pulled by a boat with ease.

4) Confirmation of number of juveniles after the nursery stage. Juveniles grown in the nursery ponds should be transferred to well prepared grow-out ponds. Number of juveniles should be confirmed during the transfer operation. This stepwise use of ponds will not only offer a well prepared

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**Fig. 5.** Population, growth, water temperature, amount of food given, and average % daily feeding rate (in figures) every 10 days in a semi-intensive culture operation of *Penaeus japonicus* (1980). This operation was in a growing pond (pond 2) of 4.10 ha, survival of 88.56%, gross production of 28,425.8 kg, net production of 25,023.8 kg, and food conversion ratio of 2.08.
and clean environment to the shrimp but also prevent predation by fish.

5) Partial harvest. Repeated partial harvest midway through the culture period eventually contributes to maximizing total production.

6) Low salinity. Past experience shows that a slightly lower salinity than sea water is suitable for growing shrimp. This is supported by the fact that wild shrimp migrate from the estuaries where salinity is a little low to offshore areas of higher salinity as they grow older. This is also confirmed by the study of osmoregulatory changes in the hemolymph of growing shrimp.

7) Brown water. Keeping the pond water brown reflects blooming of mixed diatoms as a key to penaeid shrimp culture in ponds. According to a recent report by Manabe et al. (1979), *Skeletonema costatum* grows better in diluted sea water containing sodium silicate, vitamin B\textsubscript{12}, iron, and molybdenum. High temperature (30°C), low salinity (15 ppt) and moderate brightness (50,000 lux) jointly offer the best growing conditions for the diatoms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ingredient</th>
<th>Moisture (%)</th>
<th>Crude protein (%)</th>
<th>Total lipid (%)</th>
<th>Non-polar lipid (dry matter) (%)</th>
<th>Polar lipid (%)</th>
<th>EPA + DHA (in fatty acids) (%)</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Squid meal</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>66.4</td>
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<td>White fish meal</td>
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<td>7.9</td>
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<td>1.3</td>
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<td>Shrimp head meal</td>
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<td>2.2</td>
<td>3.0</td>
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<td><em>Euphausia</em> meal</td>
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<td>45.8</td>
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<td><em>Candida</em> yeast</td>
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<td>—</td>
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<td>Scallop viscera meal</td>
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<td>52.3</td>
<td>39.9</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>9.9</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Fig. 7. Population, growth, water temperature, amount of food given and average % daily feeding rate (in figures) every 10 days in a semi-intensive culture operation of *Penaeus japonicus* (1980). This operation was in a growing pond (pond 4) of 3.68 ha, survival of 81.8%, gross production of 18,808.5 kg, net production of 13,493.5 kg and food conversion ratio of 2.64.

8) Use of electric shocker and crab trap in harvesting of shrimp. Electric shocker is ideal for use in the transfer operation of juveniles from nursery ponds to growing ponds. Recently, a kind of crab trap was found ideal for the selective harvesting of bigger and vigorous individuals.

9) Proper nutrition. There are many shrimp farms in the Kagoshima and Okinawa areas where compounded feeds are the only feed used. Proper use of reliable diets is gradually disseminated among the culturists. However, there are still many who use frozen trash fish, *Euphausia*, and *Mysis* whenever available and cheap. Repeated use of such materials is feared to cause thiamine and ascorbic acid deficiency especially during the hot season.

Feed development

In 1968, a study team was organized in the Kagoshima Fisheries Research Station to develop an artificial diet for *P. japonicus*. However, the members were stymied because there was no fundamental knowledge about the nutritional requirements of the shrimp. Since past experience confirms that the freshly preserved meat of squid is an excellent feed and is comparable to clam meat, the study was first directed towards the utilization of this food source. The swimming arms and fin of the common squid (*Ommastrephes sloani pacificus*) discarded in processing are made into a meal by boiling, drying and pulverizing. To improve protein quality,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compounded feed</th>
<th>Moisture (%)</th>
<th>Crude protein (%)</th>
<th>Total lipid (%)</th>
<th>Non-polar lipid (dry matter) (%)</th>
<th>Polar lipid (%)</th>
<th>EPA + DHA (in fatty acids) (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>55.3</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>54.9</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>53.2</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>54.7</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Fig. 8. Amino acid composition in eight kinds of materials and feeds relative to 16 amino acids.

the following ingredients are added to the squid meal: shrimp head meal, *Euphausia* meal, *Candida* yeast, fish meal, activated sludge, wheat gluten, soy bean flour, skipjack testis meal, salmon testis meal, scallop viscera meal, cuttlefish meal, etc. in proper proportions. The compounded feed mentioned above is enriched with vitamins, minerals, refined pollack liver oil, carotenoid pigments, antioxidants, etc. in proper concentration. The compounded material is moistened with 30% water and then expressed through a 2 mm die and cut into pellets of proper length. This is dried to less than 10% moisture. The product, 20 kg each, is packed together with a deoxidizing agent in a kraft paper bag lined with a laminated plastic film to prevent leakage of oxygen and to retard oxidation.

Reports of nutritional requirements of crustaceans are reviewed by New (1976) and Sandifer (1982). Close to 1,000 formulated diets containing different combinations of the components were tested on the shrimp for their effect on quality, growth and food value. Each nutrient and feed thus prepared was analyzed qualitatively for crude protein, polar and non-polar lipids, and fatty acids. Tables 3 and 4 present the results of the analyses of some ingredients and recent products by different manufacturers. In the search for new protein sources, local materials rich either in proteins containing basic amino acids or in polar lipids were examined.

Some important findings obtained in the repeated experiments of the test diets can be summarized as follows:

1) The increased intake of the diet with a high content of palatable items does not necessarily produce faster growth; rather, the proper amount of daily rations correlates most effectively with growth. The quantity of food eaten increased when food was lacking in some nutritive elements, while less food was eaten when the same nutrients were present in the diets in proper amounts, thus bringing about faster growth.

2) Young animals show higher efficiency than older animals for the same food. This suggests that total efficiency of the food being tested decreases as the rearing period is prolonged.

3) Amino acid analyses of many test feeds which were graded into four classes of feed efficiencies (below 60%, 60-80%, 80-90%, over 90%) indicate that feeds with efficiencies below 60% contain more acidic amino acids, whereas feeds with efficiencies over 60% show higher content of basic amino acids like lysine, histidine and arginine. The amino acid composition of feeds with higher efficiency approximates that of the shrimp. Furthermore, the short-necked clam, the most common feed given to shrimp, as well as squid meal, has an amino acid pattern similar to that of the shrimp as illustrated in Fig. 8.

4) The requirements of the shrimp for four essential fatty acids and phospholipids in the diet as recommended by A. Kanazawa and O. Deshimaru were taken into consideration in the formulation and compounding of the diets. This certainly contributed to the improvement of the food value of the diet.

Annual production of compounded shrimp food in Japan today totals about 2,200 tons, which is below the level of the Taiwan production of more than 10,000 tons for *P. monodon*. Due to the short period of development and various food values in the products made by different feed manufacturers, majority of shrimp farmers in Japan are not yet fully aware of the importance of using artificial diets. In the past 13 years, about 50% of the raw or frozen natural materials used as food has been gradually replaced with compounded feed. Among culturists, it is believed that the shift from natural foods to entirely compounded feeds will be realized in the next few years and only one or two manufacturers will survive the competition.

References


Nutrition of Penaeid Prawns and Shrimps

Akio Kanazawa
Faculty of Fisheries, Kagoshima University
4-50-20 Shimoarata-cho, Kagoshima-shi 890, Japan

Abstract Since Hudinaga succeeded in the artificial hatching and subsequent culture of larvae of the prawn, *Penaeus japonicus*, techniques for rearing this prawn from hatching to commercial sizes have been improved in Japan and applied to other penaeid species in Asia and other countries. The nutritional requirements of *P. japonicus* juveniles started to be investigated about 15 years ago. As a result, this prawn is found to require proteins, lipids, carbohydrates, minerals, and vitamins for normal growth, indicating the deficiency disease, poor growth, and high mortality when reared with diets lacking some nutrients. On the basis of this knowledge, compounded artificial diets are used practically for commercial production of *P. japonicus* as substitutes for traditional live food such as the short-necked clam and mussel.

However, seed production of peneaids has depended on live food such as diatoms, *Chlorella* and *Artemia*. Mass culture of planktonic organisms not only requires much manual help and expensive equipment but also fluctuates with climatic conditions. Also, the nutritive value of planktonic organisms is occasionally variable and this makes the use of live food for mass culture restrictive. Therefore, the development of artificial diets for larval peneaids is one of the most important research areas in the field of penaeid culture. We have prepared microparticulate diets for larval peneaids for use both as substitutes for live food and for nutritional studies. In this presentation, I intend to deal with the overview of penaeid nutrition.

Introduction

Techniques for the artificial culture of crustaceans such as the prawn, *Penaeus japonicus*, the shrimp, *Macrobrachium rosenbergii*, and lobster, *Homarus americanus*, from hatching to commercial size have been established. However, some problems related to artificial diets and disease still remain. The nutritional requirements of *P. japonicus* have been manifested by the introduction of refined test diets by Kanazawa et al. (1970) and Deshimaru and Kuroki (1974a), and the prawn has been shown to necessitate adequate levels of proteins, lipids, carbohydrates, minerals and vitamins as do other aquatic animals. However, nutritional studies on other prawns and shrimps are few or fragmentary (Forster, 1976; New, 1976, 1980; Wickins, 1976; Hanson et al., 1977a, b; Cecaldi, 1978; Kanazawa, 1980, 1982; Castell, 1982; Teshima, 1984).

This paper presents an overview of the nutritional requirements of penaeid prawns and shrimps.

Protein and amino acid requirements

Proteins are indispensable nutrients for growth and maintenance of life of all animals. Deshimaru and Yone (1978c) have pointed out that the prawn, *P. japonicus*, requires 52-57% protein for optimum growth and food efficiency. Kanazawa et al. (1981) have demonstrated that the shrimp, *Metapenaeus monoceros*, gave best growth with a diet containing 55% casein. Several groups of workers have reported the optimum protein levels in diets for *Penaeus indicus* (43%: Colvin, 1976), *Penaeus monodon* (46%: Lee, 1971; 40%: Aquacop, 1977; 40%: Khanapara, 1977; 35%: Bages and Sloane, 1981), *Penaeus aztecus* (23-31%: Shewbart et al., 1973; 40%: Venkataramiah et al., 1975), *Penaeus setiferus* (28-32%: Andrews et al., 1972), *Penaeus californiensis* (31%: Colvin and Brand, 1977), *Penaeus vannamei* (30%: Colvin and Brand, 1977), *Penaeus stylirostris* (35%: Colvin and Brand, 1977), and *Penaeus merguiensis* (50%: Aquacop, 1978; 34-42%: Sedgwick, 1979). Thus, the optimum protein levels in diets for prawns and shrimps are different among species. I assume that the diversity of optimum protein levels for crustaceans is likely to come from a variety of factors, namely, the discrepancy in food habits, ages of specimens, and protein sources used. In fact, Sick and Andrews (1973) have shown that soybean proteins are good protein sources for *Penaeus duorarum*. The content of essential amino acids (EAA) and balance of amino acids could be related to the nutritive value of proteins used (Kitabayashi et al., 1971b; Deshimaru and Shigueno, 1972; Deshimaru, 1982; Hew and Cuzon, 1982).

Kanazawa and Teshima (1981) have clarified by tracer techniques using radioactive acetate that *P. japonicus* requires 10 amino acids, i.e., arginine, methionine, valine, threonine, isoleucine, leucine, lysine, histidine, phenylalanine, and tryptophan, all of which are also EAA for various fish. The essential amino acids have also been demonstrated for other penaeids such as *P. monodon* (Coloso and Cruz, 1980) and *P. aztecus* (Shewbart et al., 1972). On the other hand, Deshimaru and Kuroki (1974c, 1975a, b) and Deshimaru (1982) showed that diets containing only amino acids instead of protein brought about a very poor growth and high mortality in feeding trials of *P. japonicus*.

Recently, the effects of dietary protein, lipid, and carbohydrate levels on the growth and survival of larvae of *P. japonicus* were examined by feeding trials using purified diet with carrageenan as a binder (Teshima and Kanazawa, 1984). As a result, the effects of protein levels on growth and sur-
vival of *P. japonicus* larvae varied with dietary carbohydrate levels but not with dietary lipid levels. The optimum protein levels for *prawn* larvae were estimated to be around 45%, 45-55%, and 55% or more when the diet contained 25%, 15%, and 5% levels of carbohydrate, respectively.

**Cholesterol and other sterol requirements**

Crustaceans require essential fatty acids (EFA) as also found for many fish species. However, the unique aspect of lipid nutrition in crustaceans is that they require dietary sources of sterol for normal growth and survival because of the absence of *de novo* sterol-synthesizing ability from acetate and mevalonate (Teshima and Kanazawa, 1971; Teshima, 1982). Feeding experiments using artificial diets (Jones et al., 1979a; Kanazawa et al., 1982; Teshima et al., 1982a) with best growth and survival using a diet containing 1.0% cholesterol (Teshima et al., 1982b). Furthermore, we demonstrated that the dietary value of sterols other than cholesterol is inferior to cholesterol, but 24-methylenecholesterol, 24-methylcholesta-5, 22-dienol, and isofucosterol had a high dietary value (Teshima et al., 1983) (Table 1). Based on the dietary value of various sterols examined, we suspect that the dealkylation of C28- and C29-sterols to cholesterol (C27-sterol) proceeds via the following pathways: β-sitosterol → isofucosterol → 24-methylenecholesterol; ergosterol → 24-methylcholesta-5, 22-dienol → 24 methylecholesterol-5-enol → 24-methylenecholesterol → desmosterol → cholesterol (Fig. 1).

**Essential fatty acid requirements**

We have also shown the absence of *de novo* synthesis of linoleic (18:2ω6), linolenic (18:3ω3), icosapentaenoic (20:5ω3), and docosahexaenoic (22:6ω3) acids from acetate-14C or palmitic acid-14C in *P. japonicus* (Kanazawa and Teshima, 1977; Kanazawa et al., 1979b), in *P. monodon* (Kanazawa et al., 1979c), and in *P. merguiensis* (Kanazawa et al., 1979c) (Table 2). These data suggest that crustaceans

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dietary sterol</th>
<th>Feeding period (day)</th>
<th>Survival rate (%)</th>
<th>Number of larvae</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Sterol-free</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>29, 15, 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cholesterol</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-cholesterol</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>30, 7</td>
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<td>22-dehydrocholesterol</td>
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<td>60</td>
<td>49, 6, 18</td>
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<tr>
<td>24-methylenecholesterol</td>
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<td>19</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ergosterol</td>
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<td>68</td>
<td>6, 56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24-methylcholesta-5, 22-dienol</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>37, 16</td>
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<tr>
<td>β-sitosterol</td>
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<td>Stigmasteryl</td>
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<td>61</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lanosterol</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
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</table>
may require some of these fatty acids as essential nutrients. In fact, Kanazawa et al. (1977b, 1978, 1979d, 1979f) have shown by feeding experiments that juveniles of *P. japonicus* gave a higher weight gain with diets containing 18:2ω6, 18:3ω3, 20:5ω3, or ω3 fatty acids, indicating their necessity. Different fatty acids, especially ω3-highly unsaturated fatty acids (HUFA). The optimum levels of 20:5ω3 and 22:6ω3 for *P. japonicus* juveniles were found to be about 1% in diets (Kanazawa et al., 1979a, Fig. 2). Shewbart and Miles (1973) also revealed that due to ω3-HUFA such as 20:5ω3 and 22:6ω3 can be used as good lipid sources for prawns and shrimps. Other lipids such as phospholipids (see section 5) and sterols should be considered in evaluating the dietary value of lipids for prawns and shrimps.

Nutritive value of various lipids

Studies on EFA requirement have suggested that the type and content of EFA are related to the types and content of dietary lipids, particularly cholesterol, in the hemolymph. Therefore, the necessity of ω3-HUFA for growth and survival of the larval stages of *P. japonicus* is indisputable, as demonstrated with 1% dipalmitoylphosphatidylcholine, a highly nutritive phospholipid containing choline or the inositol moiety. Effective phospholipids are thought to pass through the smooth transport of the gut wall, followed by the cephalin fraction (Kanazawa et al., 1979e). Recently, Teshima et al. (1982b), using microparticulate diets containing carrageenan as a binder, noticed that the inclusion of phospholipids in diets is indispensable to growth and survival of larval *P. japonicus*. When not supplemented, larvae suffer 100% mortality before reaching the mysis stage. Hence, Kanazawa (1982, 1983) further examined the effects of various phospholipids on growth and survival of larval *P. japonicus*. Growth and survival of larvae were found to be improved by the addition of 1% soybean lecithin, bonito egg lecithin, and soybean phosphatidylcholine, whereas no beneficial effect was observed with 1% dipalmitoylphosphatidylcholine, phosphatidylethanolamine, phosphatidylserine, phosphatidylycerine, phosphatidylserine, and phosphatidylserine, indicating that the requisite for effective phospholipids is to possess choline, or a related compound.

Fatty acids from polar lipid fractions were subjected to argentation TLC as methyl esters, and then the methyl esters of saturated, monoene, diene, triene, tetraene, pentaene, and hexaene fatty acids were subjected to preparative GLC on 10% DEGS followed by radioactive measurements of trapped samples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fatty acid % Distribution of radioactivity*</th>
<th><em>P. monodon</em></th>
<th><em>P. merguiensis</em></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14:0</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
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<td>15:0</td>
<td>0.8</td>
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<td>16:0</td>
<td>13.6</td>
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<td>20:0</td>
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<td>20:1ω9</td>
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<td>22:4ω3</td>
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<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22:5ω3</td>
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<td>18:3ω3</td>
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<tr>
<td>20:4ω3</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20:5ω3</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22:5ω3</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22:6ω3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Fatty acids from polar lipid fractions were subjected to argentation TLC as methylesters, and then the methylesters of saturated, monoene, diene, triene, tetraene, pentaene, and hexaene fatty acids were subjected to preparative GLC on 10% DEGS followed by radioactive measurements of trapped samples.

Effects of dietary phospholipids on growth and survival

Since short-necked diets contain 1% of ω3-HUFA, phospholipids may be required due to a specific requirement for some phospholipids. In contrast, phospholipids are effective in enhancing growth and survival of larval *P. japonicus*. Little is known about the dietary value of phospholipids as for *P. monodon* and *P. merguiensis*. In this case, *P. japonicus* seems to be the best source of phospholipids.
**Nutritive value of carbohydrates**

The addition of large amounts (more than 10%) of glucose to diets generally reduces growth of prawns such as *P. azteicus* (Andrews et al., 1972), *P. duorarum* (Sick and Andrews, 1973), and *P. japonicus* (Deshimar u and Yone, 1978b; Abdel-Rahman et al., 1979). Abdel-Rahman et al. (1979) have shown that *P. japonicus* juveniles had a better weight gain on diets containing disaccharides such as sucrose, maltose, and dextrose, and polysaccharides such as dextrin and starch, than on diets containing monosaccharides such as glucose, galactose and fructose. They thought that the reason why dietary disaccharides were effective in raising the nutritive value of carbohydrates compared with monosaccharides is that dietary disaccharides are not absorbed from the stomach, but are digested to monosaccharides such as sucrose, maltose, and trehalose in the midgut and hepatopancreas where they are released gradually into the hemolymph. Therefore, when large amounts of glucose were added to diets, blood glucose levels were elevated to abnormally high levels. Disaccharides are not absorbed from the stomach, but are digested to monosaccharides such as sucrose, maltose, and trehalose in the midgut and hepatopancreas where they are released gradually into the hemolymph.

### Table 3. Mean survival rate and weight gain of *Penaeus monodon* juveniles fed various carbohydrate-containing diets after 6 weeks of rearing. Numbers in parentheses represent initial stock.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Carbohydrate</th>
<th>Level (%)</th>
<th>% Survival</th>
<th>Ave. % Weight gain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dextrin</td>
<td>(23)</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maltose</td>
<td>(23)</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sucrose</td>
<td>(23)</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Molasses</td>
<td>(22)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sago palm starch h</td>
<td>(22)</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cornstarch</td>
<td>(23)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cassava starch h</td>
<td>(23)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are conflicting results on the effect of supplemental glucosamine on growth in *Penaeus monodon*. Kitabayashi et al. (1971a) have demonstrated that addition of 0.52% glucosamine to diets improved growth but that of chitin inhibited growth. On the other hand, Deshimaru and Kuroki (1974b) have pointed out that the addition of glucosamine to diets prevents the growth-promoting effect of cholesterol. Thus, the role of dietary glucosamine is still not clear.

### Mineral requirements

Prawns and shrimps may absorb some minerals from the water to some extent, but the nature of their requirements is not clear. Shewbart et al. (1973) considered that dietary calcium, potassium, and sodium chlorides are not necessary for *P. monodon* juveniles to be optimum for growth and survival. Abdel-Rahman et al. (1979) have shown that the Ca/P ratio, indicating an optimum ratio of calcium-phosphorus (1:1) in diets, although growth of *P. japonicus* on diets without calcium supplement is comparable. Kitabayashi et al. (1971a) have also pointed out the importance of the Ca/P ratio, indicating an optimum ratio of 1:1 for *P. japonicus*. Huner and Colvin (1977) have shown that *P. japonicus* requires phosphorus (2.0%), potassium (1.0%), and trac e metals (0.2%). Kanazawa et al. (1983) have shown that *P. azteicus* species require calcium (1.0%), phosphorus (1.0%), magnesium (0.3%), potassium (0.9%), and copper (0.6%) in dried diets. As mentioned above, there is some conflict on the published values for the requirement of prawns for calcium and magnesium. Since calcium is likely that the effect of calcium varies according to types of calcium salts such as primary, secondary, and tertiary salts, the role of calcium in the requirement of prawns should be reevaluated. Th e addition of iron (0.006%) and manganese (0.003%) inhibits growth of *Penaeus japonicus.*

![Fig. 2. Dietary requirement for essential minerals](image)

**Fig. 2.** Dietary requirement for essential minerals for *Penaeus japonicus* juveniles for icosapentaenoic acid.

- ▼ 5.0% 18:1ω9
- ● 4.5% 18:1ω9 + 0.5% 20:5ω3
- ○ 4.0% 18:1ω9 + 1.0% 20:5ω3
- △ 3.0% 18:1ω9 + 2.0% 20:5ω3
Vitamin requirements

Several workers (Kanazawa et al., 1976b; Guar y et al., 1976b; Deshimaru and Kuroki, 1976, 1979) have shown that P. japonicus juveniles require about 300-1,000 mg of ascorbic acid, 60 mg of choline, 200-400 mg of inositol, 6-12 mg of thiamine, and 12 mg of pyridoxine, per 100 g of diet, respectively. Lightner et al. (1977) have found that P. californiensis and P. stylirostris sometimes show an abnormal symptom, named “black death,” with a characteristic blackening of the esophagus wall, cuticle, gastric wall, hind gut wall, and gills. “Black death” has been recognized as a symptom of ascorbic acid deficiency (Magarelli et al., 1979) with a dietary intake of 0.1% sufficient to prevent nutrition-related deaths among these shrimp (Lightner et al., 1979). It has been suggested that juvenile P. californiensis require dietary ascorbic acid to form adequate amounts of collagen from the unhydroxylated precursor, procollagen (Hunte et al., 1979). Also, depletion/repletion of ascorbic acid in whole body tissue was studied in P. californiensis and P. stylirostris (Magarelli and Colvin, 1978). On the other hand, Sedgwick (1980) has reported the requirements of P. merguiensis for vitamin and mineral supplementation in diets based on freeze-dried Mytilus edulis meal.

Recently, Kanazawa et al. (unpublished data) also examined the requirement of larval P. japonicus for various vitamins by using a microparticulate diet with carrageenan as a binder. As a result, the prawn larvae were found to require vitamins A, E, niacin, biotin, folic acid, thiamine, and pyridoxine. The shortcoming of one of these vitamins resulted in a cessation of larval development. Further studies have been done on the quantitative requirements of larval P. japonicus for several vitamins. The requirements for som e vitamins such as ascorbic acid were apparently higher for P. japonicus larvae than for juveniles. It is conceivable, however, that some vitamins may have been lost during the rearing period before feeding. This means that the vitamin requirements of larval P. japonicus mentioned above should be regarded as a "practical demand for rearing of the larvae."

Seed production with microparticulate diets

As mentioned above, the nutritional requirement s of P. japonicus larvae are studied by using microparticulate diets. Recently, microparticulate diets were used as substitutes for live foods such as diatoms and Artemia in seed production of P. japonicus (Villegas and Kanazawa, 1980; Kanazawa and Teshima, 1983; Kanazawa, 1985). From zoea 1 stage, the larval prawn reached postlarva 8 using only microparticulate diets. A survival rate of 21,000 postlarvae (survival rate of 70%) were produced in a 16-ton tank (Fig. 3).

Conclusion

The nutritional requirement s of P. japonicus have been well investigated using purified or semi-purified diets. In this species, the requirement s for proteins, lipids, carbohydrates, vitamins, and mineral s have been manifested, and the accumulated knowledge has been useful in the commercial production of prawn diets. On the other hand, there is little information on the nutritional requirements of other prawns and shrimps. Further nutritional studies should be conducted on commercially important species to make formula feeds with a high dietary value. Another important subject is the requirement s of larval P. japonicus for successful mass production with artificial diets.

References


Economics of Shrimp Culture in Asia

Yutaka Hirasawa
Tokyo University of Fisheries
Konan 4-5-7, Minato-ku
Tokyo 108, Japan

Abstract  There is a common belief that the demand for shrimp is so strong that the future of shrimp culture is very bright. However, there is a problem here. The Japanese market for shrimp has been expanding over the past 20 years, and the amount of imported shrimp has reached its ceiling. Since 1980, the amount imported has been 160,000 tons with some allowance. It will be rather difficult to exceed this level with the present price. It is very clear that if imports of shrimp rise above this level, inventory will rapidly increase and price will go down severely. Considering this situation, it is very important to reduce the cost of cultured shrimp because of severe competition in the market.

Various shrimp culture systems in Japan and Southeast Asia are described. They range from extensive to intensive systems. An analysis of their economics reveals some interesting facts. The downward trend of the rate of cost per kilogram in intensive culture is very slow compared to those in extensive and semi-intensive culture while the productivity is rising. This is because in intensive pond culture, the ratio of variable cost to total cost is rather high and variable cost does not change as the productivity rises. In the case of extensive pond culture, the ratio of fixed cost to total cost is rather high, so the decrease in fixed cost per kilogram is very high in accordance with the rise of productivity. Therefore, by simply increasing the productivity slightly, the extensive pond can cut its production cost significantly. If the price of shrimp in the market goes down, the intensive pond system will face extinction since it is difficult to cut production cost.

Cost forecast for cultured shrimp seems to indicate that extensive and semi-intensive methods will become dominant in the Asian region. Presently, productivity of these systems are low but can be greatly improved by using the "continuing method" and "circularizing method" of pond management. The continuing method calls for stocking of different-sized shrimp which will be harvested on a staggered basis. The circulating method employs various sizes of compartments and the stock is moved from densely stocked small compartments to progressively larger grow-out ponds.

There has been a rapid expansion of tiger shrimp culture in Taiwan and Southeast Asia recently for the following reasons: (1) high growth rate; (2) high price and broad market; (3) development of technology for hatching and rearing of seedling; and (4) comparative ease with which technical help in culture is obtained from Taiwan and Japan. However, there is a significant demerit. It is not easy in some regions to obtain seedling due to their high price. The supply of seedling of tiger shrimp is absolutely insufficient because of the shortage of mature shrimp. On the other hand, it is easy to get white shrimp seedling at a low price in these regions. In addition to this, the growth rate of white shrimp is similar up to a body length of 12-13 cm in 80-90 days rearing. Cheap cost and a large supply of seedling will easily compensate for the small size. It is therefore important to expand white shrimp culture in Asia. The bright future of white shrimp due to its low production cost is presented in this paper with some data and calculations.

Demand and supply of shrimp

The total world population of wild shrimp from the sea has increased steadily from 439,000 tons in 1948 to 1.655 million tons in 1977, and has kept about the same production level since then. There is a common belief that due to over-exploitation of shrimp stocks, shrimp production from wild stocks will not increase much in the future. While there may of course be unexploited shrimp resources in the sea, additional shrimp catches from these sources will probably be more than offset by decreases in catches from over-exploited fishing grounds.

In addition, there is a widespread belief that the demand for shrimp is very strong and that it will continue to increase in the future. The basis for this idea is that the price of shrimp will rise due to the shortage of supply. Shrimp culture is expected to fill this gap in supply and demand. The rapid expansion in shrimp culture in Ecuador and Taiwan tends to support this belief.

There is much land suitable for shrimp culture in both tropical and subtropical Asia. Shrimp culture in this region has a long history as a co-product of milkfish culture. More recently, ponds previously specialized for milkfish culture have been converted to shrimp culture. This has resulted in the development of numerous new shrimp pond designs.

There is no problem in this industry’s growth if the demand for shrimp is as strong as popular opinion has it. However, who can tell if this assumption is right? For example, take the situation of the Japanese shrimp market. Japan is an important importer of shrimp. Most of the shrimp exported to Japan comes from Asia.

Prior to examining the relationship between shrimp demand and supply in Japan it may be helpful to examine the relationship between supply and demand of cultured yellowtail (Seriola quinqueradiata) in Japan. The price as well as total production of cultured yellowtail increased from 1967 to 1975. Fig. 1 shows that the demand for cultured yellowtail
was very strong during this period. However, after 1975, increased production resulted in decreases in price. Supply was greater than demand. Production decreases resulted as some culturists had to stop their operations. In addition, yellowtail culturists were asked to cut their production to a suitable level to stabilize the price of this cultured fish.

In the case of kuruma shrimp (*Penaeus japonicus*) culture in Japan, the relationship between supply and price is quite different (Fig. 2). There are three demand curves in the figures: first is from 1965 to 1972, second from 1973 to 1981 and third, after 1982. These three demand curves have been shifting towards the right. This suggests that the demand for kuruma shrimp is very strong. Thus, either the price will keep the same level despite a large production increase or culturists can expect the trend of higher price to continue in spite of production increases.

Total production of kuruma shrimp in Japan is about 2,000 tons. They are shipped to the market live. However, because of its extravagant price, kuruma shrimp is hardly consumed at home.

Since the Oil Crisis, especially the second one, the yearly increase in consumer’s expenditure per capita in real terms has become stable averaging 2-3% and the value of the consumption became stable during the same time. The reason why the demand for cultured shrimp, a luxury food, has been increasing in this economically stagnant period is complex, and is beyond the scope of this review.

The situation as to the supply and demand of imported frozen shrimp is different. Total imports increased from 20,000 tons in 1965 to 164,000 tons in 1979. After that period they became stable at about 160,000-170,000 tons. On the other hand, the price of imported shrimp increased up to 1972 notwithstanding the increase of imports, but dropped considerably from 1973 to 1975 and since then has fluctuated severely (Fig. 3).

Figure 4 shows the monthly relationship between the amount of imports, price and inventory. It is very clear that since 1982, if imports increase, the amount of inventory will also increase and the price will decrease.

The inventory of imported frozen shrimp in the 1970's was under 20,000 tons and would hardly have influenced the price level. However, the inventory has reached a level of 50,000 tons recently. From 1980 to 1984 the amount of imports has been fairly stable, and only the inventory has increased yearly. This shows that it is becoming difficult to sell frozen shrimp in the Japanese market while keeping the same price level during import increases.

Consumption of imported shrimp is divided into two markets, one out-of-home and the other at-home. Out-of-home consumption seems to have reached its quantitative limit recently (Fig. 5). Thus, there may be little possibility of increasing consumption in quantity at the present price and, although at-home demand is strong, it is not expected to expand further due to the present high price compared to other foods. As Fig. 6 shows, the income elasticity of shrimp is very high compared to other animal protein foods. In Fig. 6, 1.0 in elasticity, for instance, means that if income goes up 10%, consumption of food will increase by 10% in value at home. However, quantity of home consumption has been fairly stable since 1980, so shrimp price must be lowered in order to enlarge its consumption in the present food market in Japan. The intake of animal protein per capita in Japan has reached its ceiling, so that an increase in consumption of one food will be at the expense of another. At present, the competition between animal protein foods is very severe. In these market conditions, price becomes very important in promoting shrimp against other foods. Considering the high price elasticity of shrimp at-home, consumption is sure to increase with a little drop of price.

In contrast to the stagnation of the Japanese market, the shrimp market in the U.S.A. has shown rapid expansion since 1982 (Fig. 7). There are two reasons for this: one is a drop in domestic shrimp production (catch fishery) and the other is the increase of exports from Ecuador and Mexico to the U.S.A.

The per capita intake of shrimp has been increasing recently, so exports to the U.S.A. can be expected to increase compared to that of Japan. However, one item to bear in mind is that the intake of fish in the U.S.A. increased in the latter half of the 1960's because of advertisement that fish is better

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**Fig. 1.** Relationship between supply and price (deflated by prices in 1980) of cultured yellowtail in Japan. Source: Association of Marine Ranching.

**Fig. 2.** Relationship between supply and price (deflated by prices in 1980) of cultured kuruma shrimp in Japan. Source: Tsukiji Central Fish Market, Tokyo.
for health. The demand for fish, however, has become stagnant since 1977 due to their high prices. At present, the price of many fishes is higher than beef. On the other hand, the intake of chicken has continued to increase at its stable price. So even in the U.S.A., price competition in the animal protein market has been severe.

In Europe and other areas, the market for shrimp is expanding, but the size of these markets is still small. Despite the probable decrease in the production of shrimp from the sea, the total supply may increase owing to the worldwide development of shrimp culture.

The especially favourable economic situation in which the consumption and price increased simultaneously will disappear in the near future. There has been a seller's market for shrimp for so long that the "shrimp myth" has become ingrained in many people. The myth is that the price of shrimp will go up forever as if the demand is limitless. As a result, the recent severe fluctuations of price in Japan caused by the imbalance of supply and demand during periods of low price, has given rise to the wrong idea that these fluctuations are caused by the intrigues of traders and intermediates in the distribution channels. In fact, this severe fluctuation shows that the market is beginning to saturate, when only a shift of supply will cause a severe drop in price. Considering the situation, in order to increase export to Japan and other markets, it is most important to cut the production cost, as the demand based on the present price is now nearing a stable state.

**Natural productivity in pond culture**

In aquaculture, especially in pond culture, the use of natural productivity is very important in minimizing production cost. The case of kuruma shrimp culture will be illustrated first.

There are three main production centers of kuruma shrimp culture in Japan. In each, the method of culture is different. This results from differences in the growing conditions of shrimp and in economic differences between culture firms in each area. The ponds in the Seto Inland Sea area (type A, pool type on land) have been converted mainly from salt fields no longer in use (Fig. 8). The ponds in the Amakusa area (type B) are constructed in the sea with a concrete dike topped by standing wire-nets. The ponds in the Kagoshima area (type C) are of the circular type on land with water change by pumps.

Although each type of shrimp culture in Japan could be said to be intensive from a general point of view, types A and B are really semi-intensive by Japanese standards. Type C is intensive. The productivity of types A and B is roughly 400-700 g/m². Change of water is produced by tidal movement in types A and B, and rate of change is about 20-90%/day. On the other hand, water in type C is completely changed 3 or 4 times/day. With the large supply of oxygen,
high density culture becomes possible. Moreover, with the development of special artificial feeds about 15 years ago, super-intensive culture has been realized.

Before the 1960's, there were many salt fields in the Seto Inland Sea area which were becoming underutilized due to technical innovations in the salt industry. Many of the culturists in the area were able to procure land at a comparatively cheap price. At present, land price is very high, so the construction of new type A ponds is not economical. The main characteristic of type A ponds is that culture technique is aimed at diatom production. Since diatoms do not grow well with either too much or too little water entering the pond, optimum growth is achieved by regulating the water change. In a pond with good diatom growth, the water colour is dark brown. Production of 40 g shrimp (2 pcs/m²) without any supplementary feed is possible. This is because diatoms supply oxygen, and animal plankton and detritus (feed for shrimp) are produced naturally. In addition, luxuriant diatom growth may prevent the growth of harmful algae in the pond. Good production conditions for shrimp are thus maintained. For these reasons, the food conversion ratio from feed to shrimp is very low compared to the type C culture system (Table 1).

Type B pond is built along the shore. In the Amakusa area, tidal movement is wide (5-6 m). In the past, the construction cost of a pool type pond with a high concrete dike was prohibitive. Therefore, culturists make low concrete dikes and set iron piles on them with a wire-net spread between piles to contain the shrimp. At high and low tide the water flows freely in and out of the pond through the nets. The rate of water change is much higher than type A ponds, but regulation of water is difficult. The supply of oxygen to this pond is greater than to type A due to the large amount of inflowing water. However, diatom growth is not as good due to limited water control. The total supply of oxygen is about the same level as type A, so the productivity per square meter is also similar. As the amount of diatoms in this pond is low, the growth of natural feed is smaller than in type A. Accordingly, the conversion ratio is high in this pond and the production cost is high compared to type A.

In the Kagoshima area, it is not possible to build either type A or B ponds due to geographical features. In order to cope with high land prices and wages, high intensive and labour saving facilities had to be designed. All knowledge and techniques in aquaculture, not only in shrimp culture but also other cultures, were utilized in the design of type C ponds. The type C method leads to high production cost per kilogram compared to types A and B because of the high-priced feed and the high feed conversion ratio. In type C, the use of high quality feed makes high density culture possible, but the high rate of water change limits diatom growth. In addition, feed conversion is not good at a high density. Type C neglects natural productivity and is dependent on artificial feeds. This results in high production cost (Table 2).

It is a common belief that the high production cost of this type is due to the high cost of pond construction and other facilities, but this is not true. Even if the fixed cost per unit area is very high, the fixed cost per kilogram of shrimp is lower in type C than in types A and B due to higher productivity per square meter in type C. The high production cost mainly comes from the high conversion ratio and the high price of feed per unit and high electricity. These costs are a consequence of highly artificial techniques ignoring the benefit of natural productivity.

Thus as the use of natural productivity in aquaculture in temperate areas (Japan) is important, it is very clear that it is especially important in aquaculture in Asia. This is because the natural productivity of ponds in tropical and subtropical areas is higher than in temperate areas.

### Table 1. Three types of kuruma shrimp culture in Japan.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of pond</th>
<th>Dimension (ha)</th>
<th>Rate of water change (%/day)</th>
<th>Present Productivity (g/m²)</th>
<th>Target at present</th>
<th>Feed conversion ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Pool pond on</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>300-500</td>
<td>600-800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>land</td>
<td>0.5-1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>400-600</td>
<td>800-1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type B</td>
<td>Pool pond in</td>
<td>0.5-1</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>300-500</td>
<td>600-800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the sea</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type C</td>
<td>Circular pond</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>1,500-2,000</td>
<td>3,000-3,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>on land</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Note: 1. Some firms are approaching the target productivities.
2. Conversion ratio is based on raw fish. One kg of artificial feed equals 6 kg of raw fish.
Before pursuing this theme, it is best to explain the reason for the existence of different types of culture methods in Japan. In general, a firm operating with a high production cost cannot stay in business in the long run. However, shrimps in ponds in the Seto Inland Sea cannot be overwintered because of low water temperature. Therefore, culturists in this area have to harvest and market shrimp at the end of the year when the price of shrimp is rather low (Fig. 9).

The water temperature in the Amakusa area is a little higher than in the Seto Inland Sea. Here, shrimp can survive the winter in a state of hibernation. Culturists are able to ship shrimps from January to March, having waited for the price recovery after shipments from the Seto Inland Sea. However, the physical strength of these shrimp is poor because the shrimp fast until the middle of March. In addition, shipment of live shrimp requires that shrimp hibernate again. This results in lower survival rates of shrimps transported during this period. Therefore, culturists in Amakusa complete most of their shipments between January and March.

The ponds in the Kagoshima area have a warmer water temperature than those in Amakusa due to the warm Kuroshio current that follows the coast. Thus, shrimp in type C ponds are healthy even in winter since they do not stop feeding. From April to May, the price of cultured shrimp is highest, because at this time of year there are no marketable shrimp from the Seto Inland Sea or Amakusa area and there are no live shrimp caught by fishing boats. The months of April and May are the best time for family outings, and demand for luxury foods becomes high. The supply of live shrimp from Kagoshima fills this market. The type C farms are able to concentrate all their shipment aimed at this period of extra-high price (Fig. 9).

Accordingly, type C ponds can co-exist with types A and B because they enjoy a higher sale price that offsets their higher costs. There is a trend toward constructing new culture ponds due to the high demand for live kuruma shrimp. However, there is no possibility of making ponds of types A or C, as land costs for the former are too high, and the latter is not efficient from an economic point of view. The new ponds which will be built hereafter may be a combination of types A and B. This new pond will have a lower land cost due to construction in the sea just like type B. However, it will have a high dike and will not use wire-netting. Complete control of water flow will result in high utilization of natural productivity as in type A. The construction cost of these new ponds, pool-type in the sea, is of course higher than that of type B, but the production cost per kilogram is lower than type B. There are many suitable places for the new ponds because they can be located in the sea along the shore.

Fig. 7. Amount of imported shrimp (A) and price (B) in the U.S.A. Source: U.S.A. Fisheries Statistics by NMFS.
Fig. 9. Price of kuruma shrimp (¥/kg) and monthly composition of shipment versus total shipment per year (%) from a given area. Source: Hirasawa, Y. and J. Walford, 1979. The economics of kuruma-ebi shrimp farming. Advances in aquaculture, FAO.

Types of shrimp culture in Asia

Although there are many different methods of shrimp culture in Asia, they can be classified into the following (Fig. 10):

A. Trapping pond culture — extensive

B. Pond culture not specialized in any one species — extensive
   B-1. Milkfish pond
   B-2. Salt field pond
   B-3. Paddy field pond
   B-4. Pond in delta area

C. Pond culture specializing mainly in one species — semi-intensive

D. Pond culture specializing in only one species — intensive

Although there are many ways of defining culture methods as extensive or intensive, in this case, the following will be used:

Extensive — Water change, supply of seedling, and feeding are done naturally. Productivity is usually under 200kg/ha including fish.

Semi-intensive — Some human work is involved in the above operations.

Intensive — The above three operations are carried out by artificial means. Productivity is usually over 3,000 kg/ha.

Table 2. Typical example of cost per kilogram in kuruma shrimp culture in Japan, (from field survey).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Type A</th>
<th>Type B</th>
<th>Type C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Selling price (¥)</td>
<td>6,000</td>
<td>6,500</td>
<td>7,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost (¥)</td>
<td>4,500</td>
<td>5,000</td>
<td>5,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>feed</td>
<td>1,540</td>
<td>1,800</td>
<td>2,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seedling</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wages</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shipment</td>
<td>410</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>repair</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>electricity</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>670</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rent</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>depreciation</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>management and others</td>
<td>840</td>
<td>770</td>
<td>570</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Productivity (g/m²)</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>6000</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conversion ratio</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A. Trapping pond culture — extensive

This pond makes use of natural topography and has a sluice gate which can be opened to allow nocturnal shrimp and seedlings into the pond during high tide. After one or two months, when many shrimps have accumulated and have grown a little in the pond, the sluice is again opened fully in the daytime during the lowest tide of the month and shrimp are caught through a trap net behind the sluice. The various species of shrimp and fish caught by this method are mostly of a small size. Many shrimp die and are damaged by the high water pressure and thus their market price is not very high. On the other hand, the operating cost is very small as little manpower is required, once the sluice and pond have been constructed. This method might be described not as aquaculture but as pond-fishing.

At present there are few farms of this type and it is difficult to obtain production data. The exact figures for one farm can be presented. The farm, operated by Dr. Kim C-M., existed two years ago in the southwest part of the Johor Bahru district of Malaysia and had a total of 32 ha of pond area. The average productivity was 167 kg/ha, but this becomes 250 kg/ha when the unused part of the pond is excluded (Tables 3-5). He has stopped his operation and his pond has now become semi-intensive.

B. Pond culture — extensive

B-1. Milkfish pond. This type of pond has a long history as by-product of milkfish culture in the Philippines, Indonesia, Taiwan, etc. The seedlings of shrimp together with milkfish fry enter into the pond through rough bamboo screens at particular times of the year. Although production of 100 kg/ha can be achieved, the productivity of this type of system is usually 50-60 kg/ha.

B-2. Salt field pond. Ponds of this type were made from old salt fields and are very numerous in the southern part of Bangkok, Thailand. The pond beds are flat and there are usually two sluices on opposite sides, an intake and an outflow. The force of outflowing water is not very strong, so shrimp can be caught live in cages at the sluice every day, young shrimp being returned to the pond again. As ponds of this type are generally well prepared for culture, the productivity is comparatively high (100-200 kg/ha). More recently, the practice of pumping water at the sluice has been tried. The productivity of these ponds increases two-fold due to a decrease in predators and their damaging effects. The main product of this type of pond is white shrimp, *Penaeus merguiensis*, in Thailand. Small shrimps produced naturally are often used as feed for larger ones.

B-3. Paddy field pond. After harvest, rice paddy fields are converted to shrimp ponds for the rainy season (November to May), along the southern part of the Indian coast. Sometimes, when culture goes very well, 400 kg/ha can be expected which gives a profit of over two times that of rice culture. However, due to predation the productivity is usually under 200 kg/ha.

B-4. Pond in delta area. This type of pond is constructed in flat delta areas where it is easy to build by construction of an earth dike. There have been many such ponds constructed recently in the estuary of the Ganges River in India due to the bright prospects for shrimp farming. Ponds of this type are rather small in size, but are well arranged for culture. Fig. 11 shows the pond areas in the estuary of the Pontevedra River near Roxas City, Panay Island, Philippines, since 1975. As a result of making ponds, wide areas of the estuary have disappeared. As ponds of this type are located in comparatively good sites, the productivity is fairly high compared to other types of extensive culture. Just as the merit of extensive farming is the ability to save costs and labor, the largest demerit is the difficulty of preventing damage by predators. Often a large population of predators is supported by the shrimp. If predators were prevented from entering the ponds, 400 kg/ha could be expected. Measures to prevent the entrance of predators into the pond are available. Moreover, when the ponds are well managed and are given sufficient fertilizer to grow food-plants before the stocking of seedlings, and the continuing or circulating method of pond use is applied, it may be possible to produce twice as many shrimp a year.

Fig. 10. Map of shrimp culture in Asia. Shaded areas denote location of farms.
C. Pond culture — semi-intensive

A semi-intensive culture, as opposed to an extensive culture, is one in which the seedlings are bought from artisanal fishermen after being caught along the coast. They are put into the ponds where supplementary feed of trash fish is given. Semi-intensive ponds also require a sluice and ditch in order to manage a good rate of water change.

There are many types of semi-intensive culture, varying in the quantity of seedlings, the supply of feeds, and the degree of management of the ponds. Culture types B-1 to B-4 mentioned above may be shifted to semi-intensive culture while retaining basic characteristics. Because a small pond is more easily managed than a larger one, there is a common trend for the size of ponds to become smaller upon entering into the semi-intensive stage. While a pond may easily cover 10 ha when extensively farmed, it usually becomes 3-5 ha when converted to semi-intensive use (as in the Philippines).

In proceeding with the functionalization of the pond, one part becomes specialized as a nursery area. The purpose of the nursery pond is to increase both the survival and growth rates of seedlings by special care. Fingerlings of about 5 cm size become marketable after 3 months in tiger shrimp culture.

As already mentioned for extensive culture, eggs and seedlings of predators may enter the ponds. As their growth rate is faster than that of shrimp, predators will eat the shrimp after 2-3 months rearing. The low productivity of extensive culture is mainly due to this problem. However, this can be improved by dividing ponds into appropriate sections. It is possible to prevent predators in the nursery pond. Fingerlings transferred from the nursery pond first to small growing ponds are fairly safe from small predators. When small predators become big enough to eat the small shrimp, the latter have to be shifted again to a second, comparatively larger growing pond. In this pond, medium- and large-sized shrimp can eat eggs and larvae of predators. Thus, it is very easy to prevent damage by predators by simply dividing ponds into suitable sizes and transferring shrimp from pond to pond.

In semi-intensive culture, if a pond is prepared and managed well, a productivity of 500-1,000 kg/crop is possible. In tropical and subtropical areas there are two seasons, the dry and rainy, of which the rainy season is suitable for culture in many places. If ponds make use of either continuing or circulating methods, it is possible to harvest three times in one culture season.

As farms become more semi-intensive, they tend to specialize in only one species of shrimp. At present, however, when shrimp are cultured with milkfish in semi-intensive ponds as in the Philippines, it is not to increase the production of the fish, but to prevent the over-growth of feed plants, such as lab-lab.

D. Pond culture — intensive

Intensive culture has much variety in its methods and the borderline with semi-intensive culture is not always clear. It is, however, possible to say that a culture is intensive if the change of water, amount of supplementary feeding, and stocking of seedlings are controlled by the operator. These three factors are regulated by the sophistication of techniques available.

The most basic of these three requirements is the change of water. The biomass that can be cultured within a given space is dependent on the dissolved oxygen concentration in water. The number of seedlings and the amount of feed are also dependent on the amount of oxygen available. The relationship is especially clear in pond culture. The continuing and circulating methods of pond use are both designed with the aim of using oxygen in the pond more efficiently.

The Kagoshima type C culture has a productivity of about 25-30 ton/ha despite the growth of shrimps almost stopping during winter. The highest productivity in the Asian area besides Japan is that achieved by culturists in Tungkang, Taiwan. An average production of 15 ton/ha has been achieved.

Table 4. White shrimp production (kg) in Dr. Kim's Farm, Johor Bahru, Malaysia.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration of harvest</th>
<th>Number of harvest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jan. 31-Feb. 3</td>
<td>17.9 38.9 29.7 24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb. 5-8</td>
<td>20.4 37.2 46.5 25.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 3-6</td>
<td>29.1 27.3 19.8 19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 4-8</td>
<td>26.7 40.8 30.0 27.3 40.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May 1-6</td>
<td>21.6 15.3 9.6 14.1 12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jun. 2-8</td>
<td>28.5 27.9 18.9 12.6 7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jul. 19-21</td>
<td>16.5 33.3 39.3 31.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aug. 1-4</td>
<td>69.6 56.7 22.8 37.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sep. 24-30</td>
<td>13.8 20.1 16.5 4.2 16.5 4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct. 25-29</td>
<td>11.4 10.8 5.7 6.3 14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nov. 23-27</td>
<td>10.2 12.6 12.6 24.0 10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec. 23-27</td>
<td>9.6 13.2 12.0 15.9 9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ave.</td>
<td>22.9 27.8 22.9 20.2 15.8 4.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Production of Dr. Kim D-M's trapping pond, Johor Bahru, Malaysia.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1980</th>
<th>1981</th>
<th>1980</th>
<th>1981</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tiger shrimp</td>
<td>1,120</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>1,231</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>18,727</td>
<td>53.7</td>
<td>19,905</td>
<td>47.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White shrimp</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>328</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>3,189</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>3,183</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium-sized</td>
<td>1,311</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>1,549</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>7,801</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>11,015</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small-sized</td>
<td>1,714</td>
<td>37.9</td>
<td>2,139</td>
<td>39.8</td>
<td>4,135</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>5,612</td>
<td>13.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4,527</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>5,375</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>34,855</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>41,923</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The key to reaching such a high level of productivity as in the Taiwan method is the ability to change water in a very short time (Fig. 12). It is necessary to change all the water in a pond within 2 to 3 hours. Sea water is pumped up directly though a pipe and fresh water is pumped from a well in order to lower the concentration of salt water artificially. Using this method of diluting sea water, it is easily possible to create the most suitable salinity for shrimp at any stage of growth. Salinity requirements change with size, especially in tiger shrimp (*P. monodon*).

The most critical time for tiger shrimp culture is the beginning of winter when water temperature falls abruptly. This can cause high mortality as tiger shrimp are particularly weak at low temperatures. At these times of emergency, the speed with which water can be changed is critical. Following an increase in the flow of warm subterranean water, shrimp recover their vitality.

As already shown in Fig. 10, there is a common trend to crowd ponds into specialized areas. In addition to fully utilizing a good environment for shrimp growth, it is often convenient for culturists to crowd together from a socio-economic point of view, especially in developing areas, because of the shortage of infrastructure, the necessity of obtaining seedlings and feeds, and the convenience in selling their products.

### Table 5. Cost and earning (MS) of Dr. Kim’s Farm, Johor Bahru, Malaysia.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1979</th>
<th>1980</th>
<th>1981</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Revenue</td>
<td>20,962</td>
<td>36,809</td>
<td>43,485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shrimp</td>
<td>19,507</td>
<td>34,858</td>
<td>41,881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fish</td>
<td>1,245</td>
<td>1,444</td>
<td>467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>others</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>506</td>
<td>1,137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Cost</td>
<td>15,086</td>
<td>26,990</td>
<td>26,308</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pesticide</td>
<td>1,680</td>
<td>316</td>
<td>2,246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ice</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>feeds</td>
<td>357</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>transportation</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wages</td>
<td>5,527</td>
<td>16,568</td>
<td>15,758</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>basic</td>
<td>2,745</td>
<td>10,470</td>
<td>11,650</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fixed reserve</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>1,629</td>
<td>1,495</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>insurance</td>
<td>452</td>
<td>280</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>temporal</td>
<td>1,840</td>
<td>2,545</td>
<td>2,082</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>foods</td>
<td>876</td>
<td>1,472</td>
<td>261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>others</td>
<td>517</td>
<td>1,887</td>
<td>875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>general management</td>
<td>1,376</td>
<td>5,654</td>
<td>3,838</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>repair</td>
<td>3,330</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tax</td>
<td>2,109</td>
<td>2,565</td>
<td>3,578</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fixed asset</td>
<td>1,573</td>
<td>2,565</td>
<td>2,565</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exports</td>
<td>536</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>1,013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Profit</td>
<td>5,876</td>
<td>9,819</td>
<td>17,177</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Fig. 11.** Distribution of shrimp ponds in the Tinagong Dagat Inlet area near Roxas City, Panay Island, Philippines.

**Fig. 12.** Relationship between productivity and rate of water change in shrimp culture ponds in Taiwan using black tiger conversion (B.T.C.) method. Source: Pers. comm., M. Chu of Tungkang who holds the record for maximum production per hectare in Taiwan.
Table 6. Calculation of Black Tiger Conversion (B.T.C.).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Production (kg)</th>
<th>Price (¥/kg)</th>
<th>B.T.C. (¥/kg)</th>
<th>A X B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tiger shrimp</td>
<td>3,500</td>
<td>707</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White shrimp</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1,800 (100%)</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>1,300 (72.2%)</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>1,000 (55.6%)</td>
<td>278</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other shrimps</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>200 (11.1%)</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>50 (2.8%)</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>30 (1.7%)</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figures in parentheses (B) refer to price of commodity expressed as percent of price of tiger shrimp.

Problems faced in intensive culture include the excessive use of subterranean water that results in the phenomenon of ground water subsidence. Tungkang has experienced this. There is also a general trend to use much more medicine to prevent diseases. In the case of Japanese aquaculture, the use of antibiotic medicine is prohibited, but it is rather difficult to stop usage completely. In addition, there are many cases where sea water and sea beds have been contaminated by leftover feeds and the excrement of cultured fish. There are increasing numbers of previously cultured sea areas no longer suitable for culture in Japan.

Productivity and cost study using the B.T.C. method

Between shrimp culturists in Taiwan and Japan, there is not much difference either in productivity or technical level. However, in Asia there are greater differences. The Asian area is so broad that the existence of many types of culture systems and many kinds of cultured shrimps is inevitable. Moreover, differences in farm scale can be very great even in one area. Many areas have a pyramidal type of succession from small to large farms, so that it is difficult to set a standard scale or average size of farm. At present, there are limited economic statistics on shrimp culture in all Asian countries except Thailand, so that the comparative analysis of productivity, cost, and earning between different culture methods is very difficult. Also there are many kinds of shrimps cultured in various countries. Black tiger shrimp, *P. monodon*, is the main species of one country while white shrimp, *P. merguiensis* or *P. indicus*, may be that of another.

This situation makes it difficult to clarify by economic analysis general trends in shrimp culture in the countries in Asia. To cope with the difficulty, the Black Tiger Conversion (B.T.C.) method is introduced.

Table 6 shows a model of calculating B.T.C. from the production of cultured shrimps and fishes using price per weight. The method can be applied to shrimp culture because the price of cultured shrimps is decided mainly by the international market. A common international producer price throughout the world even in different areas and countries is thus possible. In other cultured species, the domestic market is usually larger than the export one so that the price of the cultured product is decided by the demand and supply relationship in the country. In these situations it is not possible to do comparative analysis on production and cost. Fortunately, shrimp culture is one of the cases suitable for analysis on a worldwide scale. In the following figures and tables, the B.T.C. method is used for rough calculation. It is very difficult to obtain exact data as to the prices and quantities of each species in a limited time, so it is used here only to show a basic idea of the B.T.C. method and its usefulness for more refined analysis in the future.

Table 7 shows results of the B.T.C. method using examples from different types of shrimp culture in Asia. These examples were obtained from field survey, so the number of samples is very limited. In the table, the production figure does not include the small-sized shrimps and trash fishes which become feed for large shrimp or are given to workers as an allowance in kind. Examples of kuruma shrimp culture are excluded from the table, because live kuruma shrimps

Table 7. Comparison of productivity and costs for typical example of each type of culture (based on field survey in 1981, 1982, 1983). Figures for South India and Ganges are from reports of experts and trading companies in Japan.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intensive</th>
<th>Semi-intensive</th>
<th>Extensive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tungkang</td>
<td>Pontevedra (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Production (kg/ha)</td>
<td>15,000</td>
<td>1,050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tiger shrimp</td>
<td>15,000</td>
<td>525</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White shrimp</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small-sized shrimp</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milkfish</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>540</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.T.C. production</td>
<td>15,000</td>
<td>580</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.T.C. price (¥/kg)</td>
<td>1,800</td>
<td>1,995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.T.C. cost (¥/kg)</td>
<td>1,620</td>
<td>1,258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fixed cost</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>650</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variable cost</td>
<td>1,170</td>
<td>608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seedling</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feed</td>
<td>730</td>
<td>184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
have a special domestic market in Japan and imported quantities from outside are few. The price of this shrimp is decided by the domestic production situation. The producer price of B.T.C. is from 1,800-2,000 ¥/kg excluding the examples from India and Malaysia. The price is comparatively low in the case of India due to low wages and inconvenient transport, and in the case of Malaysia due to the large number of shrimp damaged or killed by high water pressure during harvest making up a large part of the total production.

In Asia, it is common for culturists to sell their products to merchants by the pond side, so that the price of shrimp is the producer’s price. There is a comparatively wide range of production costs reflecting different economic situations and types of culture in each country. Generally, the production cost of extensive culture is less than that of semi-intensive and intensive culture in proportion to the degree of intensity.

This phenomenon, seen in Japan too, is a general feature of all shrimp culture except for extensive culture ponds having very low productivity. The production cost is highest in Taiwan and lowest in South Bangkok. The ponds in the South Bangkok area are so well prepared that the natural productivity is high enough to produce many small low quality shrimps and Acetes spp. which make good feed for white shrimp. In addition, small white shrimp are returned to the ponds, so that the productivity is high compared to other extensive culture systems.

The examples of semi-intensive culture in Table 7 were selected from the Pontevedra area, near Roxas City, Panay Island in the Philippines. This area has more semi-intensive ponds than other countries and the production cost is roughly halfway between that of extensive and intensive.

When the production cost is divided into two parts, fixed cost and variable cost, it happens that in proceeding from extensive to intensive culture, the fixed cost tends to fall. The fixed cost per hectare in the intensive culture is much higher compared to extensive, but the fixed cost per kilogram is lower because of high productivity. As the fixed cost is composed of depreciation, interest, fixed wages, etc., the rate of decrease is very distinct in proportion to the increase in productivity.

On the other hand, the variable cost per kilogram becomes higher when proceeding from extensive to intensive culture. Thus, the high level of variable cost keeps the production cost per kilogram high in step with the order of intensity. In the manufacturing industry, the variable cost per unit product may have only small differences even if the productivity is different between factories. In factories having a high efficiency, the production cost per unit product becomes low in proportion to the decrease in fixed cost and the variable cost per unit will remain at the same level.

The big differences in the variable cost of shrimp culture come mainly from the cost of seedlings and feeds. The seedling cost in kuruma shrimp culture in Japan is very low compared to other areas, because it is easy to get enough mature shrimp from the sea, and recently many culturists have built their own hatcheries to supply seedlings whenever they are needed. On the other hand, the seedling cost per kilogram in semi-intensive culture in Asia is very high, because mature tiger shrimp are few and hatchery technology has not yet reached a high level, except for Taiwan (Fig. 13).

The large differences in the feed cost are preeminent, and the feeding cost will increase at a higher rate than the
decrease in fixed cost. Intensive culturists must turn to more feed to compensate for the loss in natural productivity. Fig. 14 shows this relationship. In Taiwan shrimp culture from 1978 to 1982, the feed conversion ratio became higher in proportion to the increase in productivity. This is tied to high feeding cost. In addition to this, a high quality and high priced feed is needed in super-intensive culture. As already shown in Tables 2 and 6, kuruma shrimp culture is no exception.

In Table 7, the other main costs included in variable cost are temporary workers wages, shipments, repairs, electricity, etc. Besides semi-intensive culture, the extensive culture in South Bangkok shows the highest variable cost compared to other countries. This is because culturists there put much effort into preparation, such as levelling the pond bottom and digging a ditch along the earthen dike to make a nice habitat for the shrimp. In addition, they remove the mud that settles on the bottom. If they did not do this work, the pond would become a silted wild field within 2-3 years. Moreover, they use electricity to control the flow of water into the pond. It might be more accurate to say that the culture method in South Bangkok is between extensive and semi-intensive.

It is possible to ascertain two important economic trends from Table 7.
1. The fixed cost per hectare is very high in intensive culture, but fixed cost per kilogram is very small compared to semi-intensive and extensive culture.
2. The percentage of variable cost out of total cost per kilogram is very high in intensive culture. This is due to the high cost of feed and seedling.

In Table 7, the productivities of extensive culture are all above 100 kg/ha. Usually, however, productivity of these ponds are under 100 kg/ha. The cost per kilogram in the extensive system having a productivity of 50-60 kg/ha is higher than that of the intensive systems presently used in shrimp culture.

Although a general trend of the economics of shrimp culture may become clear by this rough comparative study of each country and culture method, it is very difficult to say exactly what are true production costs. There are many problems in general comparisons such as what items to include in production cost, how to estimate the proper cost for each item, how to calculate depreciation, interest, and the evaluation of family labor, etc. In Asia, the condition of lease, land price, and interests often vary individually, so it is not easy to determine standard costs for each item.

Despite these difficulties, the cost per kilogram for each culture system can be compared with different levels of productivity. Fig. 15 shows the change in cost that may result from change in productivity using examples of Pontevedra as a semi-intensive case A and Tungkang as an intensive case B from Table 7.

Production cost per kilogram in this calculation is based on a productivity of 580 kg/ha in semi-intensive case A and 15 ton/kg in intensive case B. It is assumed that the variable cost does not change per kilogram and that the fixed cost per kilogram changes in direct proportion to the productivity change. The production cost per kilogram of A and B both decrease with increased productivity, but the rate of decrease is higher in B than A. In this calculation, production cost per kilogram of A at the productivity of 400 kg/ha becomes equal to B at the productivity of 15 ton/ha. To make the comparison clear, the two horizontal lines in Fig. 15 representing the productivity levels of A and B meet at the production cost of ¥1,600/kg.

The reason type B has a gentle cost curve compared to type A is due to its high percentage of variable cost in the total cost per kilogram. This means the percentage of fixed cost per kilogram is low, so that a decrease in this part does
not heavily influence the whole production cost per kilogram when the productivity increases. Theoretically, production cost per kilogram will eventually approach variable cost per kilogram if productivity is increased to infinity.

It is possible to raise the productivity of A from the level of 400 kg/ha to 1,000 kg/ha in the near future. On the other hand, it would be rather difficult to push up the present level of 15-20 ton/ha in B, because it has already attained a high productivity.

The range in productivity of semi-intensive culture in the Philippines is about 300-500 kg/ha and that of intensive culture in Taiwan is about 15-20 ton/ha. Due to the steep downward cost curve in semi-intensive culture, the production cost per kilogram of over 500 kg/ha in semi-intensive culture cannot be equalled even if the productivity of intensive culture were to increase. On the other hand, at present there are many culturists in Taiwan whose productivity level is over 15 ton/ha, so that semi-intensive culturists having under 400 kg/ha productivity cannot survive in the future when the total production of cultured shrimp from intensive culture continues to increase. From the field survey conducted in 1981-82, productivity in the Pontevedra area (Panay Island, Philippines) is under 200 B.T.C. kg/ha for extensive and 300-400 kg/ha for semi-intensive culture. There are few farms having over 400 kg/ha B.T.C. in that area said to be the most advanced shrimp culture area in the Philippines.

While it is almost certain that the production cost line of extensive culture will be positioned to the lower left part of the semi-intensive line when its productivity is beyond 100 kg/ha, the present level of extensive culture having under 100 kg/ha productivity will be higher than that of intensive culture. These low productivity ponds cannot survive when production from intensive and semi-intensive culture increases.

Costs per kilogram for intensive culture are now lower than those for a large number of the existing semi-intensive and extensive culturists. However, as Fig. 15 indicates, this situation may easily reverse when the productivities of the latter increase a little.

It is assumed in this calculation that the variable cost per kilogram does not change as the productivity level changes. This, however, is not always the case. For example, feed cost will increase following the increase in productivity. As is supported by Fig. 14 and Tables 1 and 2, an increase in the productivity per hectare of high intensive culture is followed by an increase in the food conversion rate. Experience with yellowtail culture in Japan can be used as an example here. The food conversion ratio about 5 years ago was 7-8 and fish grew to about 1 kg during 8 months rearing. Now the conversion is 8-9, and fish only grow to 800 g in the same rearing period. It is said that the reason for this slower growth is due to the deterioration of the sea bottom caused by left-over feeds.

In the case of shrimp culture, good bottom condition in ponds can be maintained if construction allows total water drainage and drying subsequent to the removal of accumulated slime. However, in high density culture, it is difficult to prevent the increase in the feed conversion ratio. On the other hand, in semi-intensive and extensive culture it is possible to grow adequate feed plants provided that ponds are properly fertilized after the pond bed is completely dried. In these ponds the growth of natural food is rather good, and an increase in seedling number up to a certain point will not cause an increase in the food conversion ratio.

In kuruma shrimp culture, the colour of ponds in which diatoms have grown very well becomes dark brown and the transparency of water falls below 30 cm. High intensive culture in such a pond may show the possibility of rearing large numbers of shrimp at a faster growth rate than in other ponds. Culturists are now trying to produce the dark brown colour of water. Thus, with proper management, it is surely possible to enhance the natural productivity of ponds in Asia.

Intensive culture firms can remain in business only if they have a good selling price to compensate for high costs. Even if the profit per kilogram is small, the intensive culturists will still get adequate profit per hectare from the high intensive ponds due to the high production of shrimp. Fig. 16 illustrates this relationship by productivities and profit. In the figure, the upper graph shows profit per kilogram in A
and B. Both horizontal lines were set to meet at the productivity level of 300 kg/ha in A and 10 ton/ha in B where there is a break-even point for both. Of course, profit per kilogram in A is larger than in B. However, profit per hectare in B is very much greater than in A, even where productivity per hectare is beyond this break-even point.

The object of culturists has always been to gain a large profit and not to gain the high profit rate per kilogram. The intensive firms are capable of achieving much profit by the sheer quantity of production even if the profit per kilogram becomes small. Due to these conditions, culturists are eager to improve their culture methods from extensive to semi-intensive, and from semi-intensive to intensive.

This path has been pursued by intensive culturists as long as the selling price has exceeded the cost. However, the situation will change as soon as the price of shrimp decreases due to an increase in future production. When this happens, the intensive culture firms will not stay in business, because there are no ways to cut down production cost per kilogram in intensive culture due to high percentage of variable cost. Fig. 17 shows the changes in profitability in A and B in cases where the producer price changes by 10 and 20%. Present producer price of tiger shrimp is about ¥1,800/kg. It is clear that the profit in intensive culture will soon disappear with a small reduction in selling price. On the other hand, semi-intensive culture can remain profitable with a little effort to raise productivity.

The future situation of shrimp culture will be decided by the contribution of each type of culture method to the total production change. Intensive culture will be forced to drop out when the production of extensive and semi-intensive culture becomes dominant. After the dropping out of intensive culture, semi-intensive culture firms may have severe competition from extensive culture. However, semi-intensive firms can survive because there is plenty of room for them to raise productivity. On the other hand, production from extensive culture may not be dominant in the market, even if many new areas suitable for culture are found, because of low productivity.

Continuing and circulating methods of pond use

Cost forecast for cultured shrimp seems to indicate that extensive and semi-intensive methods will become dominant in the Asian area once they can raise their productivities a little. At present, however, these methods only result in small profit due to their low productivity levels. Therefore, this section deals with how to increase the productivity in extensive and semi-intensive culture without an increase in supplementary feeds. As in the case of extensive culture, it is difficult to raise productivity to a high level as supply is dependent on natural conditions, the only management being practised is to prevent predators and to selectively catch large shrimp.

Results of cage culture experience in Japan are presented in Fig. 18. The relationship between the amount of water per piece and the body length of fish in high intensive culture indicates that small fish require a small amount of water and vice-versa. This seems to be a very ordinary phenomenon. However, it is important to show the direct proportion in the relationship. The total weight of fish reared in a cage is solely dependent on the amount of dissolved oxygen, independent of any distinction in fish size.

In shrimp culture, the weight of shrimp in the Seto Inland Sea pond is about 500 g/m² at the time of harvest in December. This is the limit to which culturists can stock. In the traditional single harvest method of shrimp culture, seedlings are stocked into ponds in May or June and harvested once in December at the level of 500 g/m².

In this operation, culturists were limited to under 20 pieces of seedling per square meter in the pond as the marketable size is about 25 g per piece. Considering 20% mortality, the number of seedling stocked should be about 25/m². Initially, shrimp are small and there is more than adequate dissolved oxygen in the pond. However as they grow larger, their requirement becomes greater, until reaching over 25 g per piece or 500 g/m². Thus, in the traditional Seto Inland Sea
operation there was no alternative other than to ship all the shrimp by December. However, the recent expanding market for live kuruma shrimp may allow a great change in the operation. As a result of the growing market, harvests are carried out many times a year, and culturists are able to raise shrimp throughout the year, and to ship them regularly every month.

Culturists stock early seedlings into the ponds in March, and ordinary seedlings in May or June (Fig. 19). These early seedlings reach a marketable small size of 13-15 g apiece in August or September. Previously, there was no market for such a small size. Culturists have also started to stock seedlings into the pond in August or September as winter seedlings in some particular ponds. Winter seedlings can grow to a size of 5-6 cm before the winter hibernation. In the Seto Inland Sea, however, it is necessary to build special nursery ponds for them. It is possible to market these seedlings in July or August the following year when they reach 19-20 g in size. Thus, the harvest period in the Seto Inland Sea area has extended to July through December.

Even with pond capacity stable at 500 g/m², expected production is about twice that of the old culture method. This is possible if seedlings are stocked into ponds to the limit of pond capacity, and are harvested regularly every month. Selective harvest of large shrimp allows additional room for smaller shrimp. Ponds can be restocked again with young seedlings in some particular ponds. Winter seedlings can grow to a size of 5-6 cm before the winter hibernation. In the Seto Inland Sea, however, it is necessary to build special nursery ponds for them. It is possible to market these seedlings in July or August the following year when they reach 19-20 g in size. Thus, the harvest period in the Seto Inland Sea area has extended to July through December.

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Fig. 19. Recent changes in pond use in the Seto Inland Sea (% composition refers to proportion of monthly shipment to total shipment from a given area).

Fig. 20. Typical use of circular pond, Amakusa or type C (% composition refers to proportion of monthly harvest to total harvest of a given crop, e.g. I, II, etc.). Lines show time of stocking in the pond, culture period and growth; numerals refer to crops.
Fig. 21. Change in harvesting period of large (A) and small (B) firms in Japan before and after 1980 (% composition refers to proportion of monthly harvest to total yearly harvest of a given firm.)

The circular ponds in Kagoshima are a typical example of this operation (Fig. 20). Kuruma shrimp in the ponds here do not hibernate in winter, so it is possible to use a pond throughout the year. Culturists in Kagoshima had been stocking ponds only once a year just as in the Seto Inland Sea. But recently they have started stocking their seedlings into ponds several times a year. Culturists may have planned for peak production in May and April when the highest price occurs. However, the balance or allotment of production for each month becomes important in maximizing profit. Important factors to consider include: managerial techniques of how to use the pond efficiently; expected price every month: periods of restocking seedlings; and growth rate of shrimp.

In the traditional operation, harvest and shipment were concentrated in a particular month. Culturists hired a small number of full-time workers and hired many part-time workers during the harvest period. In the new operation, culturists will ship a small fixed quantity of product regularly. Good pond management is achieved by increasing the number of trained full-time workers and hiring fewer part-time workers. In the traditional operation, culturists bought seedlings from the outside due to the shortage of full-time employees. In the new operation, there are enough skilled hands. With more full-time workers, many culturists have started hatcheries. It has become cheaper to produce seedlings than to buy them. In addition, the number of seedlings stocked and the frequency has been increasing so that it is critical to have adequate seedlings at the appropriate time.

This new way of operation may be called the "continuing method" of pond-use. That is, culturists put in different-sized shrimp approaching the limit of pond capacity and harvest the marketable ones daily. Young shrimp are stocked in the available space. Using this method, the productivity of the pond will almost double.

However, the continuing method is possible only in large-scale farms, because many ponds or many sections of ponds are needed for the distribution of the many sizes of shrimp. Small-scale culturists cannot distribute their shrimp efficiently among a small number of ponds. Thus, they cannot apply this new method.

Recently, small-scale culturists have started to use another strategy. Shrimp are produced for private demand to be sent live as gifts at the end of the year. The shrimp for this demand have a good price of about 10,000 ¥/kg while the ordinary market price is now about 6,500 ¥/kg. However, to sell shrimp like this, culturists have to pack 500 g to 1 kg into every package. This is time-consuming work. Large-scale culturists do not attempt it as they prefer to ship to the big city markets where large amounts of shrimp are accepted at a lower price than in the private gift market. On the other hand, small-scale culturists can adjust to this time-consuming work, as they can easily gather part-time workers from nearby as required.

Figure 21 shows recent changes in marketing periods between large and small firms. Just 3 to 4 years earlier, both types of firms shipped at similar times, but now have clearly changed and followed different patterns.
Besides the "continuing use," another new operating method has been developed. It is called the "circulating use" of ponds. This operation was developed to raise productivity. In the Philippines, culturists have been dividing their ponds into three parts: nursery, intermediate and main growing pond. The nursery pond and intermediate pond allow for better care of small-sized shrimp. This method has been introduced to increase the survival rate of seedlings and juveniles.

In Taiwan, the reason for the high productivity relates to the use of this culture system with effective water change. Fig. 22 illustrates a schedule of pond usage. Two and a half or three harvests are possible when shrimp can be reared all year round. In contrast, in the traditional method of pond-use in South Asia, only one or one and a half harvests are possible in places where shrimp are now reared only in the rainy season. With proper use of the circulating method, it may be possible to harvest three or four times a year.

Culturists in Taiwan stock their seedlings after finishing the previous harvest (Fig. 22). Thus, the pond capacity is not utilized fully while shrimp are small at the beginning and middle of the rearing period. To use a pond more efficiently, it may be best to divide it into several sections of different sizes and to put small shrimp into small sections first. After some growth, they can be shifted into larger sections. Immediately after moving the first batch of shrimp, the small section should be completely cleaned and restocked with another batch of small shrimp to repeat the process. After three months or so, every section of the ponds will be full of different-sized shrimp. In other words, all sections of the ponds are utilized to the upper limit of capacity. Thus, culturists can ship shrimp every month from the main growing section (Fig. 23). The main growing pond area is about half the total pond area. About five harvests in eight months can be expected from a main growing pond during the rainy season. Therefore, two and a half harvests from the whole pond complex can be obtained. If it is possible to raise shrimp throughout the year, it should be possible to harvest six times or so.

Nursery and intermediate ponds are rather small, and do not require much water. Fresh subterranean water can be supplied to these ponds in the same way as in Taiwan, and juvenile shrimp can be supplied at the beginning of culture periods as seedlings can be raised even in the dry season in small well prepared ponds. When this is done, the main growing pond can be used from the start, and more harvests can be achieved.

There are two important conditions in realizing this circulating use of pond. First, the pond must be prepared sufficiently. Nothing can be done with extensive or rough ponds.

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**Fig. 22.** Present schedule of pond use by month in the Tungkang area, Taiwan. Size of shrimp; S, small (32-35 g); L, large (35-40 g).

**Fig. 23.** A model of circulating pond use. Individual stocking or crop (as identified by number of horizontal lines) may be followed through the various production phases.
Ponds with thick mud deposits are not suitable either. Moreover, some experience in dividing whole ponds into sections of varying dimensions is necessary. Second, it is important to be able to obtain plenty of seedlings when they are needed. Although Taiwan is well-supplied with tiger shrimp seedlings, at present it is very difficult in other Asian areas to procure sufficient tiger shrimp seedlings. It may be necessary to start white shrimp culture and also to develop the stunting method of tiger shrimp seedling production.

Although the merit of using the circulating method is primarily to increase production, it is also a way to raise productivity without any increase in supplementary feeding. Variable cost per kilogram is unchanged. Moreover, ponds can be allowed dormant periods by eliminating one harvest. In addition, by decreasing the number of seedlings put into the pond, disease is minimized and the required quantity of subterranean fresh water is reduced.

Of course, there is high initial investment in preparing existing extensive and semi-intensive ponds for this method. This should easily be recovered due to the decrease in the fixed cost per kilogram as productivity increases. It is very important to have good control of water change and to increase production of more natural food.

The potential for white shrimp culture

In the development of shrimp culture in Asia, one major problem is how to increase the supply of tiger shrimp seedling. Due to the shortage of adults, the high price of seedlings may remain in the near future unless artificial breeding techniques of shrimps are successful. With this situation, there is a possibility that white shrimp culture will expand in addition to tiger shrimp culture.

Shrimp culture in the Asian areas apart from Thailand is directed mainly towards tiger shrimp. Reasons for this include the fact that techniques for larval rearing have already been developed in Taiwan and may soon be available. Secondly, the price of this shrimp is higher than others. In addition, the large size of the shrimp commands a high price and its growth rate is better than that of other species.

The price of tiger shrimp is higher than that of white shrimp in Taiwan, while the prices of tiger shrimp and kuruma shrimp in Taiwan are about the same. But the production conditions for tiger shrimp are better than for kuruma shrimp in Taiwan. Thus, tiger shrimp culture is of great interest there. However, the situation is entirely the reverse in Japan market. The price of tiger shrimp in the Central Fish Market in Tokyo is always cheaper than that of white shrimp at any size (Fig. 24).

Tiger shrimp is a traditional ingredient of Chinese cooking in Taiwan and throughout Southeast Asia. This shrimp commands a special price in the regional market. It is logical to try to culture high-priced fish, so it is also logical that the interest of aquaculturists has been directed to tiger shrimp. However, in the international market, alternatives to tiger shrimp as the object for culture are available. White shrimp is more esteemed than tiger shrimp in the Japanese market. Recently, tiger shrimp export from Taiwan to Japan has increased because of its lower price compared to the same size of white shrimp.

In out-of-home consumption, the black colour of tiger shrimp is not detrimental to marketing, as it is cooked before being served. However, the out-of-home market for shrimp in Japan is now approaching its limit if the price remains the same. The home consumption market, however, is expected to expand.

The weak point of tiger shrimp for home consumption is the difficulty in selling them in retail shops or supermarkets to people who think of shrimps as red or pink. The appearance is the deciding factor for sales, as sashimi, or raw
flesh, is valued at the highest price in Japan. Many supermarkets have in fact tried to sell tiger shrimp, but they have not had any success in expanding sales so far. Importers of tiger shrimp have established a strong base in the out-of-home consumption market, where tiger shrimp is used as a substitute for larger white shrimp because of its comparatively cheap price. However, medium-sized white shrimp is best for home consumption, with its price lower than larger ones and its colour preferred by people.

Figure 25 shows the comparison between the growth rate of tiger shrimp and white shrimp. Starting from $P_{10-P_{15}}$, the growth rate of white shrimp is faster within 70 days rearing, but after that the growth rate of both species diverge greatly. In the case of white shrimp culture, it is best to stop rearing at this point where the growth rate of the shrimp goes down severely.

Table 8 shows a rough economic estimation in culturing both species for 240 days. An assumption is that one rearing period for white shrimp is 70 days giving 3.4 harvests and that for tiger shrimp is 120 days giving two harvests. The number of white shrimp seedlings per hectare stocked into ponds is assumed to be twice that of tiger shrimp due to the availability of seed. Assuming the price of white shrimp is 60% that of tiger shrimp (Thailand), revenues per hectare are about 76% that of tiger shrimp. However, if costs such as seedling costs are considered, profit will be equal or larger in white shrimp culture. Seedling of white shrimp has not been sold due to a good natural supply for extensive culture. At present there is but a small demand for artificial seedling of white shrimp in Thailand or other countries because of richness of natural supply so that there have been no trials to produce white shrimp seedling commercially even in Thailand. Although the price per piece of artificially reared seedling is not clear at present, it is probably about 0.2 to 0.1 times that of tiger shrimp seedling price due to the ease of artificial hatchery rearing from a technical point of view. The ease of rearing white shrimp seedling may provide young shrimp for the main growing pond at the beginning of the culture year. This means that it is possible to harvest over four times a year and to achieve about the same sales as for tiger shrimp culture. Thus, profit will surely be high in white shrimp culture.

There are many adult white shrimp in coastal sea zones and estuary areas. They lay eggs in the ponds and canals naturally. Artificial hatching can be done by laymen. At present in the Philippines, after picking out the seedling of tiger shrimp, the remaining seedlings are discarded. The seedling of tiger shrimp only make up about 10% of the total seedling catch, the rest being mainly white shrimp.

In Thailand, there has been a 50-year history of shrimp culture centered around the white shrimp. Fig. 26 shows a recent development in the shrimp culture of this country. The inner part of the Gulf of Thailand is a main production center of culture. However, new ponds have been sited in the

![Image](image_url)
southern part of the bay recently. While many old ponds were converted from salt fields, most of the new ponds are constructed from mangrove areas.

Table 9 shows some results of extensive culture in the inner part of Thailand. Due to the limited number of samples, it is not possible to point out a general trend in the productivity and cost by farm scale. However, the family farm having a 4.8-9.4 ha pond is the most profitable size based on the profit rate. In Thailand, a government employee who has recently graduated from college or university can earn about 360,000 ¥/year. Culturists can earn about 180,000 ¥/ha in net profit. Thus a person who has a 5-ha pond can live in comfort.

In Thailand, the present average production level is under 200 kg B.T.C./ha. This productivity level is low. However, even extensive culture can reach this level without any supplementary feeds and seedlings. If seedlings can be produced in the hatchery and ponds can be prepared to minimize the entry of predators, it is possible to raise the productivity two-fold. In addition, by use of the circulating or continuing method, productivity can be expected to attain levels of about three or four times present levels.

In addition to the current emphasis on tiger shrimp culture, there are significant opportunities for white shrimp culture in Asia. These must not be overlooked.
Economics of Penaeid Culture in the Americas

Wade Griffin
Department of Agricultural Economics, Texas A&M University
College Station, Texas 77843, U.S.A.

Addison Lawrence
Texas Agricultural Experiment Station, P.O. Drawer 2
Port Aransas, Texas 78373, U.S.A.

and

Michael Johns
Inland Sea, Inc., Roswell, New Mexico 88201, U.S.A.

Abstract  Shrimp culture in the Americas began in the early 1970's and has experienced rapid growth in some Latin American countries. Currently, Latin America produces one-third of all cultured shrimp with Ecuador as the leading country in the world. Availability of postlarvae and a favorable year-round climate have been the most important factors causing a “Gold Rush” expansion in Ecuador. The long-term potential for shrimp mariculture in Latin America is promising. Projections for 1990 production of cultured shrimp by Latin American countries are between 60,000-70,000 metric tons (mt). Shrimp culture in the United States has begun with the entry of a few small firms.

In this paper, investment and production costs are examined for a semi-intensive farm that purchases postlarvae and operates in the southern United States. Total investment decreases as pond size increases for a given size facility. Investment per kilogram of annual average production ranges from just under US $20.00 for a 20-surface ha farm using 2-ha ponds to $80.00 for a 400-ha system using 20-ha ponds. Operation costs per kilogram decline as the size of the system and the size of the ponds increase. It costs $10.10 to produce one kilogram of shrimp on a 20-surface ha farm using 2-ha ponds compared to $5.50 on a 400-surface ha farm using 20-ha ponds.

In comparing the operation of a semi-intensive 200-ha farm in Ecuador with a similar farm in the United States, costs of production were $3.12 and $5.83 per kilogram, respectively. The after-tax internal rate of return (IRR) was 59% in Ecuador and 21% in the United States. These IRR’s were calculated under the assumption that production, costs and prices received are constant over the investment period (10 years) considered. When risk and timing of investment are considered, these IRR’s are reduced.

Introduction

Shrimp mariculture is becoming a reality in many countries on the American continent. Some countries which had only a small amount of cultured shrimp are now beginning to report growth of their industry. Other countries that have not been significantly involved are taking steps to encourage shrimp culture. The Branch of the Foreign Fisheries Analysis of the United States reports that of the 16 countries in the world producing cultured shrimp, half are located in Latin America and half are in Asia (Table 1). Latin America produced over one-third of the cultured shrimp in the world in 1982 and Ecuador is the largest producer of cultured shrimp (D.M. Weidner, pers. comm., 1984).

The long-term potential for shrimp culture is promising. Factors affecting the advancement of shrimp culture in the Americas, as well as the world, are economic, technology, environment and politics (D.M. Weidner, pers. comm., 1984). In terms of economics, international demand and supply determine world shrimp prices. Cultured shrimp are only a minor part of total supply which is determined mostly by the harvest of wild stocks. Harvest of wild stocks is at or near maximum sustainable yield (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration. 1980; Robinson, 1982) and any significant increase in world supply will come from cultured shrimp. The expansion of cultured shrimp will depend on its cost of production relative to world shrimp prices.

The major objective of this paper is to examine the cost of producing shrimp in the Americas. A review of shrimp culture in the Americas will first be given. Second, costs of producing shrimp relative to size of pond and total size of facility will be examined. The cost of producing postlarvae will also be briefly examined. Third, cost and returns comparisons will be made between the United States and Ecuador for constructing and operating a 200-ha shrimp farm. Finally, some indication of risk will be discussed.

Review of the Americas

It is reported that shrimp farming in Ecuador began by accident in 1962 (Hirono, 1983). A perimeter berm around a farmer’s plantation, where he had planted coconut palm trees, was damaged by unexpected high tides. When the farmer returned some months later, he noticed birds dining on large shrimp in a pool of water. This gave rise to the idea of shrimp farming in Ecuador. The first shrimp farm was constructed in 1969 (Shrimp Notes, Inc., 1983).
The most important factor leading to the development of shrimp farming in Ecuador was the availability of postlarvae caught from the wild. These postlarvae, predominantly *Penaeus vannamei*, are caught by artisanal fishermen in estuaries and sold to shrimp farmers for stocking in ponds or nurseries. The major limitation to the development of commercial shrimp farming in Ecuador and the Western Hemisphere is maturation/reproduction in captivity with the production of viable larval nauplii (Lawrence et al., 1984). The natural abundant source of postlarvae along with cheap labor and absence of legal restrictions allowed rapid growth of shrimp culture in Ecuador. Other important factors influencing the development of shrimp culture were favorable climate, inexpensive coastal land, fuel, and wage rates (D.M. Weidner, pers. comm., 1984). These conditions plus high prices for shrimp led to a "Gold Rush" fever in Ecuador (Hirono, 1983). In 1982, there were 112 farms in Ecuador ranging from less than 50 ha to more than 200 ha (Table 2). The area in production increased over 13 times and production increased over 18 times from 1977 to 1982 (Table 3).

Other Latin American countries on the Pacific possess favorable conditions similar to Ecuador and culture methods developed in Ecuador and Panama are now spreading to other countries. *P. vannamei*, the dominant species used in these countries is not available on the Atlantic coast and is, at certain times of the year and for some geographical locations, in short supply on the Pacific coast. As a result, companies are building hatcheries to produce postlarvae but they have had problems. Agromarina, S.A., a division of Ralston-Purina, has had the largest hatchery success and supplies approximately 80% of the postlarval requirement for their more than 600 ha of grow-out ponds (D.M. Weidner, pers. comm., 1984).

Brazil, which has the most extensive coastal area for shrimp culture, has been discouraged with native species. The import of exotic species, however, has been encouraging. *P. japonicus* has been cultured in their tropical climate and Brazilian farmers report that this species has reproduced in ponds. Therefore, they can produce their own postlarvae without the necessity of maturation/reproduction in captivity. Other Caribbean countries are now beginning to copy this method of shrimp mariculture (D.M. Weidner, pers. comm., 1984).

Although the long-term potential for the Americas is encouraging, it is not without problems. Shortages of postlarvae slow the growth rate at which the industry can expand. Advances in the technology of larval (nauplii) production with construction of hatcheries will allow significant increases in production.

Some governments promote shrimp culture, but on the whole government policies tend to slow expansion of the industry. Some countries prevent or discourage private domestic or foreign investment. Mexico, which has one of the greatest potentials, has restricted shrimp culture to the fishermen’s cooperatives. Ecuador, as well as other countries, controls the exchange rate which discourages investment. Some countries have complicated shrimp hatchery and farm operations by restricting the import and export of *Artemia*, shrimp nauplii, postlarvae, broodstock and some equipment. Those countries which do not have a culturable native species will not be able to develop a shrimp farming industry until a reliable source of postlarvae can be imported (D.M. Weidner, pers. comm., 1984).

Despite these difficulties, shrimp culture in the Latin American countries will continue to grow. When maturation/reproduction and hatchery technology that can produce healthy postlarvae becomes available, shrimp culture will most likely increase at a rapid rate. This unknown of postlarvae availability, plus the other problems mentioned above, make projecting production difficult. However, projections are that Latin America will produce between 60,000-70,000 mt by 1990 (Table 4). If technical problems are overcome early, then production could exceed this estimate (D.M. Weidner, pers. comm., 1984).

Unlike the Latin American countries, the United States has a limited growing season for culturing shrimp. Shrimp culture has been researched for 15 years in the United States and growing shrimp has been attempted since the early


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<th>Continent/country</th>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>200&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>600&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panama</td>
<td>1,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honduras</td>
<td>250&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>100&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martinique</td>
<td>150&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>24,325</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup>Estimated  
<sup>b</sup>Production in 1981

Table 2. Total numbers of Ecuadorian marine shrimp farms by size in 1982 (Shrimp Notes, Inc., 1983).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Farm size (ha)</th>
<th>No. of farms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;50</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-100</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101-150</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>151-200</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;200</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1970's with limited technical and no economic success. Currently, there are 16 farms in the continental United States or Hawaii that are either in the planning or pilot stage of production. At least six of these have or plan to have hatcheries for postlarvae production. These farms range from a large 60-ha pond extensive system to very small 0.2-ha intensive ponds.

**Investment and operation costs**

This section deals with investment and operating costs for semi-intensive shrimp farms using *P. vannamei* as the cultured species. Farms in this analysis range in size from 20 to 400 ha and use ponds ranging in size from 2 to 20 ha. The major objective of this section is to determine the economies of size associated with total size of the farm and size of the pond. Investment and operating cost are developed in this analysis using the Generalized Budget Simulation Model (Griffin et al., 1983) and research data. Although the generated investment and operating costs are for a farm located in the southern United States, the relative investment operating cost relationship between size of farms will be the same regardless of where a farm is located.

**Investment costs**

Table 5 shows the total investment of major items for a semi-intensive 200-surface ha shrimp farm using 20-ha ponds. This is similar to a typical large farm being constructed in Ecuador today. Notice that land and construction cost are by far the major investment items. Land prices ranged from $1,500 to $8,000/ha. A price of $3,750/ha was used in this analysis. Land is 43% of total investment cost. Pond construction includes earth moving, pipes, gate valves, engineering fees, etc., and is 40% of total investment which for this 200-ha facility is slightly under $2 million.

Figure 1 shows total investment by all size farms considered in this analysis. For the 200-ha system just discussed, the total investment would increase from $1.9 million to $2.2, $2.7 and $3.4 million as the size of the grow-out pond is decreased from 20 to 10, 4 and 2 ha, respectively. Investment cost increases because it requires more land, earth moving and inflow and outflow equipment to maintain 200-surface ha of production as the size of ponds decreases. Clearly, as the grow-out pond increases in size, investment cost per surface hectare will decrease for any given size farm.

Figure 2 shows the same investment cost as Fig. 1, but on a per kilogram of shrimp basis. Production per hectare is assumed to be held constant at 1,159 kg/ha across all size facilities and is based on research data from the Research Facility at Corpus Christi, Texas, U.S.A. Investment cost per kilogram of annual production, assuming a single crop per year in the United States, would be $8.30 for a 200-ha farm using 20-ha ponds. For the same size farm, the investment cost would be $6.00 higher ($14.60) if 2-ha ponds were used. Fig. 2 illustrates that there are significant economies of size to be captured relative to investment cost both by increasing the size of farm and ponds. This analysis is consistent with other aquaculture systems studied (Giachelli et al., 1982).

**Operating costs**

Costs considered in this analysis do not include income tax. The only operating cost (fixed and variable) not included is interest since it is assumed that private investors will provide all capital needed to build the facility (opportunity cost

### Table 3. Total marine shrimp farm harvest (heads-off) for Ecuador, 1977 to 1982 (preliminary) with projection from 1983 to 1986 (Shrimp Notes, Inc., 1983).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Area (ha)</th>
<th>Production (mt)</th>
<th>Productivity (× 10^6 lb)</th>
<th>Productivity (kg/ha/yr)</th>
<th>Productivity (lb/acre/yr)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1977</td>
<td>3,000</td>
<td>818</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>5,500</td>
<td>1,682</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>306</td>
<td>273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>8,200</td>
<td>2,545</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>310</td>
<td>277</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>18,570</td>
<td>5,909</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>318</td>
<td>284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>27,000</td>
<td>9,091</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982*</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>15,040</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>376</td>
<td>335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>45,000</td>
<td>17,818</td>
<td>39.3</td>
<td>396</td>
<td>353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>55,000</td>
<td>24,955</td>
<td>55.0</td>
<td>454</td>
<td>405</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>62,000</td>
<td>34,955</td>
<td>77.1</td>
<td>564</td>
<td>503</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>65,000</td>
<td>48,909</td>
<td>107.8</td>
<td>752</td>
<td>671</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Preliminary data based on 80% aquaculture production.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>1982 Production (mt)</th>
<th>1990 Production (mt)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ecuador</td>
<td>21,500</td>
<td>40,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>200*</td>
<td>4,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>600*</td>
<td>3,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panama</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honduras</td>
<td>250*</td>
<td>2,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>1,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belize</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>1,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahamas</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>1,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>— 100*</td>
<td>1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martinique</td>
<td>— 150*</td>
<td>750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French Guiana</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominican Republic</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puerto Rico</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costa Rica</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haiti</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guadeloupe</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El Salvador</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nicaragua</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominica</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suriname</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>— 25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuba</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guyana</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uruguay</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>— 25</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>24,325</td>
<td>67,110</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Estimate
of capital not included in cost figures). This cost represents the total annual cost of producing shrimp in ponds when under conditions of certainty (no risk).

Table 6 presents the annual variable and fixed costs of operating a 200-ha shrimp farm using 20-ha grow-out ponds. Farms in this analysis are assumed to stock 150,000 postlarvae/ha at a cost of $12/thousand. Only one crop is produced during the growing season of 185 days. After stocking, water is exchanged in the pond from 3 to 5% daily until harvest. Shrimp are fed 3 to 18% of their body weight depending on the average size of animals in the pond. The average food conversion ratio is 2.5:1.

Feed, which costs $440/mt in the United States, is the most expensive item listed in Table 6 and represents 36% of variable cost. Postlarvae is second to feed at 32% of variable cost. Labor is the next highest (12%) followed by harvest cost (10%). Total variable cost is in excess of $1 million and is 83% of total cost.

Depreciation is more than half of total fixed cost (53%) and overhead, which includes a manager and an assistant manager's salary, is 36% of total fixed cost. Total annual cost for producing one crop of shrimp per year is $1.3 million. Cash operating expenses are $1.2 million per year.

Figure 3 shows the variable, fixed and total cost per year for various size systems using four different size ponds. Notice that as size of the system becomes larger, costs (variable, fixed and total) increase. The difference in total cost for using different size grow-out ponds is almost the exclusive result of fixed cost. Thus, once a system is built, it takes basically the same amount of variable cost to operate

**Fig. 1.** Total investment costs for semi-intensive shrimp farms ranging from 20 to 400 total surface ha using 2- to 20-ha ponds producing *Penaeus vannamei* located in the southern United States, 1984.

**Table 5.** Investment cost in a semi-intensive 200-surface ha shrimp farm using 20-ha ponds producing *Penaeus vannamei* located in the Southern United States, 1984.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Cost (US $)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Land</td>
<td>828,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pond construction</td>
<td>764,232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building construction</td>
<td>64,155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equipment</td>
<td>183,529</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Machinery</td>
<td>74,724</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1,914,640</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
the system, regardless of size of grow-out pond used. This is because postlarvae, fuel, fertilizer and harvest cost per hectare are constant across all size facilities. Some small economies of size are available for repairs, labor, utilities and payroll taxes.

Figure 4 illustrates the cost per kilogram (heads-off) to produce shrimp for the various size systems. A 400-ha system using 20-ha ponds can produce shrimp for $5.50/kg (heads-off) where a 20-ha system using 2-ha ponds cost almost twice as much. Increasing the pond size from 2 to 20 ha for a given size system reduces the cost of production by almost $0.70/kg.

**Hatchery costs**

In the above analysis it was assumed that a farmer would purchase his postlarvae from an outside source which is the basic practice in Ecuador. However, in the United States, only two companies have begun to sell postlarvae in limited amounts. Therefore, supply and demand are erratic and uneven. If a farm does not have its own supply of postlarvae, it may not be able to stock its ponds at the beginning of the season. By the time postlarvae are acquired, a significant portion of the limited growing season may be lost.

---

**Table 6.** Annual cost for operating a semi-intensive 200-surface ha shrimp farm using 20-ha ponds producing *Penaeus vannamei* located in the Southern United States, 1984.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Cost (US $)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Variable cost</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postlarvae</td>
<td>360,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repairs</td>
<td>27,729</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fuel</td>
<td>45,093</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feed</td>
<td>408,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fertilizer</td>
<td>10,845</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labor</td>
<td>132,640</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilities</td>
<td>3,912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harvest</td>
<td>109,545</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payroll taxes</td>
<td>20,185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>1,117,949</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fixed cost</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overhead</td>
<td>80,795</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depreciation</td>
<td>118,944</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insurance and taxes</td>
<td>11,023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taxes</td>
<td>14,131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>224,893</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total cost</strong></td>
<td>1,342,842</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

**Fig. 2.** Investment cost per kilogram for semi-intensive shrimp farms ranging from 20 to 400 total surface ha using 2- to 20-ha ponds producing *Penaeus vannamei* in the southern United States, 1984.
Fig. 3. Total fixed cost, total variable cost and total cost for semi-intensive shrimp farms ranging from 20 to 400 total surface ha using 2- to 20-ha ponds producing *Penaeus vannamei* located in the southern United States, 1984.

Table 7. Break-even price (US $) for production of *Penaeus vannamei* postlarvae utilizing an onsite reproduction unit to stock the entire farm in two reproduction unit runs for a farm located in the Southern United States that produces one crop per year, 1984.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pond size</th>
<th>Total fixed cost</th>
<th>20</th>
<th>40</th>
<th>100</th>
<th>200</th>
<th>400</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>15.00</td>
<td>13.83</td>
<td>11.13</td>
<td>11.97</td>
<td>11.38</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>17.00</td>
<td>13.83</td>
<td>11.47</td>
<td>11.97</td>
<td>11.38</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>19.67</td>
<td>13.83</td>
<td>11.13</td>
<td>12.00</td>
<td>11.38</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>22.00</td>
<td>13.83</td>
<td>11.67</td>
<td>12.00</td>
<td>11.40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 shows the break-even price per thousand for producing *P. vannamei* in an onsite farm reproduction unit. It assumes that the farm produces a single crop per year and two 20-day hatchery cycles are required to stock all the grow-out ponds. Shrimp are assumed to spawn at 5% per night with eggs having a 50% hatch rate. Survival in the hatchery is assumed to be 40%.

Postlarvae cost for a pond production system of 100 ha or greater is estimated to be $11.00 to $12.00/thousand. It was assumed in the above cost analysis that farmers could buy postlarvae for $12.00/thousand. If the market price for *P. vannamei* is $12.00/thousand, then farmers would be indifferent between buying or producing their own postlarvae. If the market price exceeds $12.00/thousand, it would be better for farmers to produce their own postlarvae. If the market price is less than $12.00/thousand, farmers would not buy from an assured source of supply.

For farms less than 100 ha in size, the farmer would benefit by purchasing postlarvae if the market price was $12.00/thousand. The price per thousand for producing postlarvae for these smaller farms increases as pond size increases due to restrictions on how fast a pond or hatchery tank must be stocked. A 20-ha farm using a 20-ha pond requires the pond to be filled in one hatchery run causing it to have the highest unit cost for postlarvae production. In countries with year-round growing season, the size of the re-
production unit can be reduced substantially since it could be operated year-round to stock ponds, thus reducing fixed cost. The cost of postlarvae in Ecuador is approximately $4.00/thousand, however, the need for reproduction units in Latin American countries is based more on shortage of postlarvae rather than a high market price.

**Comparison of Ecuador and the United States**

This section will compare the economics of operating a shrimp farm in Ecuador and the United States. For this comparison, a 200-surface ha farm using 20-ha ponds will be used. A semi-intensive farm in the United States (SI-US) will be compared to a semi-intensive (SI-E), semi-extensive (SE-E) and an extensive (E-E) operation currently used in Ecuador.

Although there are several differences between Ecuador and the United States in their ability to produce shrimp in ponds, the two most important differences are availability of postlarvae and length of growing season. Ecuador has wild postlarvae available through fishermen and a year-round growing season. The United States, on the other hand, does not have a ready source of postlarvae and the growing season is limited to 180 to 240 days/year.

Table 8 shows the production specifications for comparing the farms. The United States farm is based on data from research ponds at Corpus Christi, Texas. Ecuadorian farms are based on actual farms as described by Hirono (1983).

Stocking density of the SI-US farm is triple that of the SI-E farm. Stocking density decreases as the intensity of production decreases for the Ecuadorian farms. Percent survival generally increases as the stocking density decreases. A 19 g animal is produced in approximately 190 days on the SI-US farm, whereas a 21 count animal is produced in approximately 175 days (45 days in nursery and 130 days in grow-out ponds) on the SI-E farm. Only one crop is produced per year on the SI-US farm. As the farms in Ecuador become more intense in their operation, the number of crops produced per year increases.

The total number of kilograms produced with one crop on the SI-US farm is only a little less than the SI-E farm that produces 2.4 crops/year. The annual production decreases

![Fig. 4. Fixed cost, variable cost, and total cost per kilogram for semi-intensive shrimp farms ranging from 20 to 400 total surface ha using 2- to 20-ha ponds producing *Penaeus vannamei* located in the southern United States, 1984.](image)
substantially as farms become less intensive in their operation.

Only the E-E farm does not use fertilizer and only uses minimal water exchange. The SI-US farm and the E-E farm do not use nursery ponds. A 5 day-old postlarva is stocked in the SI-US and a 10 to 40 mm shrimp is stocked in the E-E farm. Since nursery ponds are used with the SI-E and SE-E farms, a 1 to 3 g shrimp is usually stocked in the grow-out ponds.

Results of the economic analyses are presented in Table 9. Economic data for a SI-E farm were obtained through personal communication (S. Horton, 1983; C.R. Mock, 1984; B. Price, 1984) and through Shrimp Notes, Inc. (1983). The SE-E and E-E farm cost information was developed by modifying the data for the SI-E farm based on descriptions by Hirono (1983) of each type of farm. All analyses are in United States dollars at the official exchange rate of 54 sucres: US$1. Prices received and unit cost for this analysis are based on beginning 1984 dollars.

Production per hectare is greatest for the two semi-intensive systems (Table 9). The SI-E farm produces 14% more kilograms shrimp per hectare per year than the SI-US farm. The reason is the SI-E farm produces 2.4 crops through a full season of production using a nursery pond system whereas the SI-US farm produces only one crop per year without a nursery pond in a 185-day growing season. Production per crop is much greater in the SI-US since stocking density is three times larger and the crop is growing in the pond almost 50% longer. Production on the SE-E and E-E farms are only 42% and 18%, respectively, of production on the SI-E farm.

The difference in prices received by each type of farm is a result of the different sizes of shrimp produced. As the size of shrimp increases, the price increases. Prices received by Ecuadorian farmers for a given size shrimp are only slightly lower than those received in the United States (Shrimp Notes, Inc., 1983).

The value of the annual production of the SI-E farm is 22% greater than that of the SI-US farm. The production value of the SE-E and E-E farms are only 47% and 21%, respectively, of the SI-E farm.

The most significant variable cost item for the two semi-intensive systems is feed. It is 37% of variable cost on the SI-US farm and 43% of variable cost on the SI-E farm. The unit cost of feed was estimated to be 18% higher in the United States than in Ecuador. Postlarvae cost is the second most significant variable cost in the SI-US farm and ranked third for the SI-E farm. Postlarvae cost per thousand used in this analysis was three times greater ($12.00 vs. $4.00) in the United States than Ecuador and the total shrimp stocked in one year is 25% greater for the SI-US farm than the SI-E farm.

The second most important cost for the SI-E farm is miscellaneous which is composed of miscellaneous, payroll tax (40% of wages) and meals. Wages are the third most important item for the SI-US farm, but rank fifth for the SI-E farm. Even though wages are much higher for the SI-US farm, it has only 11 employees compared to 30 for the SI-E farm.

Table 9 shows the percent value of the crop produced for variable cost, fixed cost and total cost for each type of farm. Cost per value of crop produced is approximately 50% higher for the SI-US farm compared to the Ecuadorian farms.

Income tax is assumed to be 50% for all type farms. The authors are not familiar with the tax rate in Ecuador; however, Ecuadorian farmers have to exchange 70% of their dollars to sucres at the official exchange rate (54 to 1) and 30% can be exchanged at the market rate (approximately 100 to 1) causing a significant tax on all shrimp exported to the United States (Shrimp Notes, Inc., 1983). However, it must be remembered that all costs in this analysis were converted at the official rate making returns above cost a conservative estimate.

The cost to produce one kilogram of shrimp (heads-off) is greatest for the SI-US farm and least for the SI-E farm (Table 9). For Ecuador, the less intensive the farm operation, the higher the cost per kilogram to produce the product. It should be noted that two of the major cost items for the SE-E and E-E farms are repairs and miscellaneous. These values are rather arbitrarily estimated and, therefore, could be significantly over-estimated. However, the cost for maintenance in Ecuador would be greater than the United States because of low availability of replacement parts and skilled labor. If these costs were reduced by half, then the cost to produce shrimp for the SE-E and E-E farms would be approximately the same as the SI-E farm.

The after-tax internal rate of return (IRR) based on a

---

**Table 8. Production specifications for a semi-intensive farm located in the United States and a semi-intensive, semi-extensive and extensive farm located in Ecuador (Hirono, 1983).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>United States</th>
<th>Ecuador</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Semi-intensive</td>
<td>Semi-extensive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stocking density/ha</td>
<td>150,000</td>
<td>50,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survival (%)</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harvest size (g)</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of crops</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total production (heads-off)</td>
<td>1,159</td>
<td>1,323.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(kg/ha/yr)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food conversion ratio</td>
<td>2.5:1</td>
<td>2.5:1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fertilizer</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water exchange</td>
<td>Continuous</td>
<td>Continuous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nursery ponds</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

Griffin, Lawrence and Johns
Table 9. Economic comparison (per hectare) of a 200-surface ha shrimp farm using 20-ha ponds by intensity of system for the United States and Ecuador, 1984.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>United States</th>
<th></th>
<th>Ecuador</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Semi-</td>
<td>Semi-</td>
<td>Extensive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kg/ha/yr (heads-off)</td>
<td>1,159</td>
<td>1,323</td>
<td>554</td>
<td>232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$/kg</td>
<td>8.47</td>
<td>9.00</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>11.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value/ha ($)</td>
<td>9,798</td>
<td>11,908</td>
<td>5,544</td>
<td>2,553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total variable cost ($)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postlarvae</td>
<td>1,800</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wages</td>
<td>663</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fuel</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feed</td>
<td>2,040</td>
<td>1,995</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fertilizer</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repairs</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>311</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Packing</td>
<td>548</td>
<td>448</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>687</td>
<td>339</td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5,588</td>
<td>4,613</td>
<td>1,809</td>
<td>567</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total fixed cost ($)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overhead</td>
<td>404</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depreciation</td>
<td>555</td>
<td>396</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,174</td>
<td>717</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>342</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total cost ($)</td>
<td>6,762</td>
<td>5,330</td>
<td>2,264</td>
<td>909</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revenue before taxes ($)</td>
<td></td>
<td>6,578</td>
<td>3,280</td>
<td>1,644</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taxes ($)</td>
<td>1,518</td>
<td>3,289</td>
<td>1,640</td>
<td>822</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revenue after taxes ($)</td>
<td></td>
<td>4,03</td>
<td>4,09</td>
<td>3,91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B-E price/kg (heads-off) ($)</td>
<td>5.83</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>3.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRR (%)</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total investment</td>
<td>1,915</td>
<td>1,243</td>
<td>937</td>
<td>715</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10-year planning horizon is attractive for all farms considered. It should be noticed that the IRR is much greater for most of the Ecuadorian farms which explains the rapid rise of shrimp culture in Ecuador. Also, the significant increase in the IRR as the intensity of the farm increases explains why investors are putting in more semi-intensive systems.

Risk and time considerations

In the two previous sections, no consideration was given for risk and time consideration. It was assumed that production, prices and unit cost were known with certainty and they did not vary from year to year. In addition, it was assumed that in the year the initial investment was made, the farm would be in full production. When these assumptions are made, the results can lead to over-confidence in the economic feasibility of the investment.

Large shrimp farms are usually built in stages. The first year will, more than likely, not have production. The second year will partially produce while in the third year full production could be realized.

There are many factors that investors will not know with certainty and that will vary over time. Price received, inflation and interest rates will vary and can be rather volatile at times. Production can vary from pond to pond through growth rates and mortality. Temperature variation in the United States can affect the growth of shrimp. Environmental conditions, such as hurricanes in the United States and heavy rainfall in Ecuador, can cause damage and loss of production.

A firm level simulation model (MARSIM) was developed to simulate the annual activities of a shrimp farm taking into account timing and risk. A farm is replicated 50 times over a 10-year planning horizon. Random values for pond growth, pond survival, temperature, hurricanes and prices received in each of 10 years are generated from empirical probability density function for these variables.

When all timing and risk are incorporated into the analysis, it can have a substantial impact on the IRR. Table 11 shows that when producing *P. stylirostris* on a
Table 11. Comparison of after-tax internal rate of return for producing *Penaeus stylirostris* in semi-intensive ponds and operating a postlarvae reproduction unit in the Southern United States, 1984 (Hanson et al., 1984).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total surface ha</th>
<th>Surface ha per pond</th>
<th>IRR: No risk and full production since Year 1 (%)</th>
<th>IRR: Risk and production developed over 2-3 years + (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>40&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>1.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>2.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>3.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>9.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>11.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>15.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>9.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>10.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>11.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>13.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>13.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>14.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup>Developed in two years  
<sup>b</sup>Developed in three years

200-surface ha farm using 20-ha ponds, the IRR is less than half when risk and timing of production are considered. The high IRR in Ecuador allows for a larger margin of error when an investor is performing a feasibility analysis. The United States does not have the luxury of error through overly high returns.

**Conclusions**

Shrimp culture in the Americas is in the infant stages in all countries, except Ecuador and Panama. How fast cultured shrimp production will expand will depend on technology to produce larvae (nauplii). Those countries having a year-round growing season have a much lower cost of production than countries like the United States with a limited growing season. Expansion then will be very dependent on the price received for shrimp. If production is significantly increased by cultured shrimp so as to cause the real price of shrimp to decrease over the next 10 years, development of shrimp culture in the United States will most likely be curtailed. However, prices can fall considerably for countries like Ecuador and investors can still receive a fair rate of return on their investment.

**Acknowledgements**

The authors wish to thank Dr. John Nichols and Mr. Scott Hanson for their critical review and helpful comments of this paper. Also, the authors want to thank the American Soybean Association for their financial support allowing travel to the First International Conference on the Culture of Penaeid Prawns/Shrimps.

**References**


PART II

ABSTRACTS OF CONTRIBUTED PAPERS
Oral Presentations

Advances in Shrimp Culture in China

Ruiyu Liu
Institute of Oceanology, Academia Sinica
Qingdao, China

Shrimp experimental ecology studies and the shrimp farming industry in China developed rapidly in the 1970’s, and great strides have been made in the mass production of shrimp fry and the growing-out of marketable size shrimp since 1978. The total production of artificially reared shrimp fry and cultivated shrimp increased dramatically in the last few years.

The improvement of water quality management and feed supply in larval rearing have resulted in increased production of shrimp fry up to 100,000-200,000 or even 300,000 fry/m³. Advances in the nutritional physiology and biochemistry of the digestive enzymes of juvenile and adolescent shrimp have enabled us to develop different kinds of formulated feeds with high efficiency and low cost. Techniques for the transplantation and propagation of small benthic crustaceans (e.g. Corophium spp.) or polychaetes (e.g. Nereis spp.) to increase the benthos biomass for natural food of juvenile shrimp in nursery ponds have been developed and successfully practised. Improvement of culture techniques including shrimp pond management, has decreased the mortality of juvenile and young shrimp and increased yields of cultivated shrimp in the country. Highest production of 9,000 kg/ha has been achieved in the semi-intensive culture pond.

Culture of the Blue Shrimp, Penaeus stylirostris in Sonora, Mexico

Juan Enrique Ramos and Luis Rafael Martinez
Centro de Investigaciones Científicas y Tecnológicas de la Universidad de Sonora
Aptdo. 79, Puerto Peñasco
Sonora, Mexico

The Centro de Investigaciones Científicas y Tecnológicas de la Universidad de Sonora has been conducting research on the culture of the blue shrimp Penaeus stylirostris since 1972. Most of the programs carried out are related to intensive culture in the Puerto Peñasco facilities. However, some experiments on semi-intensive and extensive culture have been conducted since 1975.

This paper describes the principal aspects of the technology developed; spawners, larval culture, nursery, growth, feed, environmental parameters, water supply and others. While in intensive culture it is possible to attain over 5 kg shrimp/m², in semi-intensive systems about 1 kg/m² is obtained. The intensive system uses raceways for the grow-out of shrimp, the semi-intensive and extensive systems use ponds.

Brackishwater Shrimp Culture in India and its Impact on Socio-Economics

G. Santhana Krishman
Marine Products Export Development Authority
India

Utilization of potential area for shrimp culture in the traditional system was very meager — just 1.8% of total estimated available area of 1.45 million ha. The traditional paddy and fish culture and paddy cum fish culture systems and the return on investment (ROI) are explained. To adopt intensive culture, there is adequate scientific information based on many successful achievements through experimental trials indicating body weight of 16.7 g in 45 days for P. indicus with more than 80% survival rate proving economic viability. Basic studies were also made to find out the seasonal seed availability in different regions. Shrimp production to the extent of 500-700 kg/ha was achieved in many demonstration ponds organized by the Marine Products Export Development Authority indicating commercial reality of shrimp culture in India. As vast potential areas are available, shrimp culture will minimize the present 75% idle capacity of the Indian seafood processing industry which is over-dependent on shrimp as its major product for export.

Furthermore, adding more areas to culture has direct impact on the socio-economic status of the rural population. Three thousand self-employed people are now known to be directly engaged in seed collection. In addition, the shrimp farmer realizes returns two to three times more than his
counterpart in paddy cultivation, in the same field and for more or less the same period of time. In West Bengal, of total export value of 43 crores, up to 25 crores is realized by farmers for their production of shrimp through culture reflecting better unit return for their raw material than that realized by the processor/exporter of the end-product. Therefore, bringing additional areas under shrimp culture will directly affect the socio-economic status of the rural people employing an average of 5 persons/ha, and indirectly affect no less than 15,000 casual workers in the seafood processing industry by additional utilization of manpower and working hours.

As productivity from capture appears bleak, brackish-water shrimp culture has been accorded top priority in India’s national developmental programmes for more harvest from aquatic sources otherwise termed the "Blue Revolution."

Larval Growth and Survival Optima for Four Species of Penaeids from Australia, as Indicated by their Distribution and Abundance in the Field

Peter C. Rothlisberg and Christopher J. Jackson
CSIRO Marine Laboratories
P.O. Box 120, Cleveland, Qld. 4163
Australia

Prawn catches from tropical northern Australia are dominated by four species of prawns: Penaeus merguiensis, P. semisulcatus, P. esculentus and P. latisulcatus. Three of the species (P. merguiensis, P. semisulcatus and P. latisulcatus) are widespread throughout the Indo-Pacific, while P. esculentus is endemic to northern and eastern Australia. The species appear, however, to have well defined and limited distribution on a smaller scale. Surveys of the larvae in the Gulf of Carpentaria, northern Australia, have shown both spatial and temporal heterogeneity in the abundance of all four of these species.

Assessing the temperatures and salinities in which the larvae were caught may be a realistic indicator of conditions suitable for reproduction, as well as growth and survival of the larvae. Means of these distributions may be deemed optima and ranges indicate tolerances.

Most of the larvae of all four species are found in water above 26°C and 31 ppt. However, the mean temperatures and salinities vary significantly between species. P. merguiensis has the lowest salinity optimum (31.8 ppt) and the highest temperature optimum (29.0°C). The other three species are similar for both temperature and salinity optima. P. latisulcatus has the lowest temperature optimum of 27.4°C compared with P. semisulcatus at 27.9°C and P. esculentus at 28.5°C. The salinity optima for these three species are almost identical at approximately 33.2 ppt.

While the ranges of temperatures of all four species are similar (21.5-30.6°C), the ranges of salinities in which the larvae are found coincide with the size of the biogeographic distribution of the species. The three widespread species have large salinity ranges: P. merguiensis, 26.2-34.9 ppt; P. semisulcatus, 27.8-34.9 ppt; and P. latisulcatus, 28.6-34.9 ppt. The Australian endemic, P. esculentus, has the smallest and highest range, 30.1-34.6 ppt. This apparent inability of P. esculentus to tolerate low salinity water may restrict dispersal during the larval stages.

Description of the Embryonic Stages of Penaeus notialis and the Influence of Some Abiotic Factors on the Species

Isis Fernandez and Mario Oliva
Centra de Investigaciones Marinas, Universidad de la Habana
Ave. 1ra No. 2808, Miramar
Ciudad Habana, Cuba

The embryonic development of the shrimp Penaeus notialis Farfante, 1967 is studied. The duration from spawning to hatching of the nauplii was 14-16 hr. As soon as spawning occurs, a sequence of transformations is observed in the characteristic cell mitosis up to the formation of the embryo which breaks the membrane and emerges as the first naupliar stage. The process of development is very similar to other penaeids and the duration of each stage is characteristic of the species. The influence of salinity and pH on spawning, hatching rate and survival, and the optimal values for each factor were determined.

Thermal Tolerance of Larval Greentail Prawn Metapenaeus bennettiae (Racek and Dall) — A Comparison with School Prawn Metapenaeus macleayi

Tadashi Murai
School of Zoology, University of New South Wales
P.O. Box 1, Kensington, 2033 N.S.W.
Australia

The thermal tolerance of four larval stages of Metapenaeus bennettiae was studied in the laboratory. Critical Thermal Maximum (CTM), One hour Median Lethal Temperature (lhLT50), and Median Resistance Time (MRT) were measured. Moulting rate of larvae and hatching rate of embryos were also monitored to study the delayed effect of thermal stress.

Thermal tolerance was shown to be strongly dependent on acclimation temperature (TA) at all larval stages, which
showed ontogenetic development of thermal resistance. Moulting of larvae was hindered at temperatures (37.2°C for nauplius when TA=25°C) well below \( t_{LT50} \) (38.1°C for nauplius when TA=25°C). The embryonic stages were more susceptible to thermal stress than the larval stages. The salinity effects were also significant. Nauplius and protozoea stages showed their highest CTM values at the salinity in which they were spawned.

When compared with another penaeid \( M. \) macleayi (off-shore breeder), \( M. \) bennettae (estuarine breeder) was found to have higher thermal resistance, but was less adaptive to changes in acclimation temperature.

Growth and Productivity of Juvenile Banana Prawns, \( P. \) merguiensis in Natural and Laboratory Systems

Derek J. Staples, David J. Vance and Donald S. Heales
CSIRO Marine Laboratories
P.O. Box 120, Cleveland, Qld. 4163
Australia

Growth and survival of \( P. \) merguiensis juveniles were measured over four years in the Norman River estuary, south-eastern Gulf of Carpentaria. Growth in carapace length for the first 8-9 weeks after settlement was essentially linear and averaged 1.2 mm/week in summer at 29.5°C and 0.45 mm/week in winter at 19.5°C. A comparison of different cohorts under varying temperatures and salinities indicated that growth was temperature- but not salinity-dependent. Survival of newly settled postlarvae varied seasonally and was highest in spring (October-November).

In the laboratory, a study of moulting rate and moul increment at 15, 20, 25, 30 and 35°C demonstrated that the optimal temperature for growth was 25-30°C. Survival of juveniles was also highest at intermediate temperatures. Effects of salinity and food ration amounts are discussed.

Water Quality Criteria for Farming the Grass Shrimp, \( P. \) monodon

Hon-Cheng Chen
Department of Zoology and
Institute of Fishery Biology
National Taiwan University
Taipei, Taiwan

Physiological and growth effects of pH, salinity, temperature, heavy metals, pesticides and others on juvenile grass shrimp \( P. \) monodon have been investigated to determine the biologically safe concentrations. Optimal pH, salinity and temperature are found to be in the range of 8.0-8.5, 15-25 ppt, and 28-33°C, respectively. A dissolved oxygen concentration of 2.7 ppm seems to be the critical oxygen pressure to support the normal life of grass shrimp. To avoid poor survival and retarded growth, the recommended level for each pollutant are: heavy metals, 0.0025 ppm Hg, 0.1 ppm Cu, 0.15 ppm Cd, 0.25 ppm Zn; pesticides, 0.0004 ppb parathion, 0.001 ppb malathion, 0.008 ppb rotenone, 0.01 ppb Azodrin, 0.033 ppb Saturn, 0.01 ppb paraquat, 0.01 ppb Endosulfan, 1 ppb Butachlor; surfactants, 0.1 ppm Dunall OSE, 0.2 ppm BP 1100, 0.5 ppm Seagreen 805; and others, 0.033 ppm \( H_2S \), 0.1 ppm \( NH_3 \).

Genetic Changes During Development of Penaeid Shrimp

L. James Lester
University of Houston
Clear Lake, 2700 Bay Area Blvd.
Houston, Texas 77058, U.S.A.

As penaeid shrimp grow from the earliest naupliar stages, through protozoal and mysis stages, to postlarvae, they develop greater morphological and behavioral resemblance to the adults. Electrophoretic analysis of cytoplasmic enzymes from nauplii, protozoea, mysis, postlarvae, and adults show that each stage has a unique pattern of gene activity. Thirteen enzyme stains and a general protein stain have been used on larval samples from \( P. \) stylirostris, \( P. \) vannamei and \( P. \) aztecus. Some enzymes, such as phosphoglucose isomerase, are produced in the same isozymic form during all of the stages. Other enzymes exhibit changes in the number and position of isozymic bands during development, e.g. glutamate dehydrogenase. Some of these differences among developmental stages can only be explained by changes in the number and/or identity of the genes that are active at each stage. This finding suggests larval and adult responses to selection may be relatively independent.

Osmotic, Total Protein and Chloride Regulation in \( P. \) monodon

Ronaldo P. Ferraris, Fe Dolores P. Estepa
Jocelyn M. Ladja and Evelyn Grace de Jesus
Aquaculture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

The osmotic, total protein and chloride ion regulation in two size groups (10 and 30 g) of \( P. \) monodon Fabricius was investigated. Preliminary experiments showed that osmolality, total protein and chloride concentrations tend to
become stable 24 to 36 hours after molting. Thus, hemolymph values 36 to 240 hours after sampling were not significantly different from each other. Based on these results, only 36 hours (or more) postmortem animals were sampled after transfer from control (32 ppt) to five test salinities (8, 16, 24, 32 and 40 ppt). Hemolymph samples were then taken in 1, 2, 3, 5, 7 and 10 days after transfer. Results showed that in general, osmolarity, total protein and chloride concentrations in the hemolymph did not vary with time within the same salinity.

Both sizes exhibited hyperosmotic and hyperionic regulation in lower salinities and hypoosmotic and hypoionic regulation in higher salinities. The isosmotic values obtained were approximately 676 to 720 mOsm (24 to 28.8 ppt) for the 10 g, and 724 to 792 mOsm (26 to 28.5 ppt) for the 30 g size group. For chloride, the isosionic values ranged from 324 to 339 mM in 10 g prawns. Slope of the regression lines of hemolymph osmolality versus salinity in 10 g prawns were not significantly different from slopes of similar regression lines in 30 g prawns. These results suggest that the ability to regulate osmotic and ionic concentrations in the two size groups.

### Induced Ovarian Maturation and Rematuration by Eyestalk Ablation of *Penaeus monodon* Collected from Indian Ocean (Phuket Province) and Songkhla Lake

Niwes Ruangsri, Sujin Maneewongsa
Thanan Tattanon and Prakit Kraisingdeja
National Institute of Coastal Aquaculture
Kaoseng, Songkhla, Thailand

Because of the difficulty involved in maintaining a supply of sexually mature female shrimp for larval production in hatcheries, experiments on inducing ovarian maturation in tiger shrimp, *Penaeus monodon* by eyestalk ablation were carried out from March to August, 1983. These shrimps were collected from two areas of Thailand: Phuket on the Indian Ocean and Songkhla Lake with entry to the Gulf of Thailand. Every female had one eyestalk pinched before being stocked together with males in various stages of maturity from offshoreshopping grounds in Phuket and Songkhla Lake. The tissue lipid content and fatty acid composition in the hepatopancreas of mature *Penaeus monodon* was determined. Female shrimp at various stages of development were collected in Phuket and Songkhla Lake and were reared in captivity.

The hepatopancreas showed higher levels of lipids than in unisexed females. The tissue lipid content and fatty acid composition in the hepatopancreas of mature *Penaeus monodon* were determined. Female shrimp at various stages of development were collected in Phuket and Songkhla Lake and were reared in captivity.

### Variation in Tissue Lipid Content and Fatty Acid Composition During Ovarian Maturation of Unablated and Ablated *Penaeus monodon* Broodstock

Oseni M. Millamena, Rosario Pudadera and Mae R. Catacutan
Aquaculture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

The tissue lipids and fatty acid composition in the hepatopancreas of mature females of *Penaeus monodon* were determined. Female shrimp at various stages of development were collected in Phuket and Songkhla Lake and were reared in captivity.

The tissue lipids and fatty acid composition in the hepatopancreas of mature females of *Penaeus monodon* were determined. Female shrimp at various stages of development were collected in Phuket and Songkhla Lake and were reared in captivity.

The tissue lipids and fatty acid composition in the hepatopancreas of mature females of *Penaeus monodon* were determined. Female shrimp at various stages of development were collected in Phuket and Songkhla Lake and were reared in captivity.
Studies on the Artificial Insemination and Fertilization of Grass Shrimp, *Penaeus monodon*

Min Nan Lin and Yun-Yuan Ting
Taiwan Fisheries Research Institute
Taiwan

The culture of grass shrimp, *Penaeus monodon* has become a fast-growing enterprise in Taiwan since formulated shrimp feed was successfully developed in 1978. In 1983, the total postlarval production for stocking reached 600 million at the price of 12.5 U.S. cents each. This high price of the postlarvae resulted from (1) limited availability of wild gravid females, (2) undesirable spawnings obtained by using the method of eyestalk ablation, manifested by a low average hatching rate of 20%, and (3) high demand from grow-out farms. The eyestalk ablated females induced to spawn were often found unmated which partly explained the poor spawnings and low hatching rates. Consequently, re-use of ablated females was not practised by farmers in the past.

The present paper describes the results of artificial insemination and fertilization of wild or pond-reared females whose gonadal development was induced by eyestalk ablation. The hatching rates from unmated soft-thelycum females implanted with two spermatophores are 84.7% and 43.7% while those implanted with only one spermatophore, 74.1% and 16.8%, for the first and subsequent spawning, respectively. These results positively confirm that the unmated condition of ablated females is the main reason for low hatching. Through artificial insemination, the spawning and hatching can be improved and ablated females can be reutilized. For unmated hard-thelycum females, artificial fertilization was done by releasing spermatozoa into the spawning tank right before spawning. Out of 15 attempts, three were successful with hatching rates of 63.1, 52.3, and 49.9%.

Induced maturation of pond-reared shrimps was attempted by manipulation of temperature and salinity. Under constant temperature of 22±2°C, salinities ranging between 25 and 37 ppt were experimented. The best results with 67% success were obtained at salinities of 30 and 35 ppt. Continued efforts will be made to improve spawning performance through the technique of artificial insemination under controlled conditions.

Factors Affecting Maturation and Spawning of *Penaeus esculentus* in the Laboratory

Peter J. Crocos
CSIRO Marine Laboratories
P.O. Box 120, Cleveland, Qld. 4163
Australia

Adult tiger prawns *Penaeus esculentus* were held in laboratory tanks under varying conditions of tank size, density, temperature and photoperiod for assessment of ovarian maturation and spawning. Both eyestalk ablated and intact females were studied. Maturation and spawning of intact females was favored by conditions of warm temperature (26°C) and long days (14.5 hr), whereas ovary maturation did not occur at lower temperature (20°C) and short days (12 hr). Tank size was a critical factor with intact females as maturation and spawning required a large tank (4 m²). Spawning did not occur in small tanks (1 m²) despite ideal temperature and photoperiod conditions. Unilaterally ablated females matured and spawned under both short day-cold temperature conditions and in small tanks, but the success rate was greater under long day-warm temperature conditions in large tanks. Intact females required 40-60 days before onset of ovary maturation, whereas ablated females showed maturation to ovary stage III approximately 20 days after ablation. Mating success was severely limited under small tank conditions but occurred normally in the large tanks.

Induction to Ovary Maturation by Ablation in the Pink Shrimp *Penaeus notialis*

Laida Ramos
Centro de Investigaciones Marinas
Universidad de la Habana
Ave. 1ra No. 2808, Miramar
Ciudad Habana, Cuba

A partial unilateral ablation was carried out on immature females of the pink shrimp *Penaeus notialis*. They were maintained in 1,600 l asbestos-cement tanks together with apparently mature males, not submitted to treatment, at a ratio of 2 females: 1 male. A quick development of the ovary was attained, which did not present significant differences in average diameter of the ovocytes in the anterior, median, and posterior lobes, and with similar histological characteristics to those described for naturally mature females. Viable spawnings were obtained three days after the treatment and onwards. The larvae obtained showed normal activity and development.

Observations on the Nauplii Production from Wild, Cultivated and Mixed Populations of the Blue Shrimp (*Penaeus stylirostris*)

Roberto A. Mendoza
Centro de Investigaciones Científicas y Tecnológicas de la Universidad de Sonora
Aptdo. 79, Puerto Peñasco
Sonora, Mexico

Due to low nauplii production from cultivated broodstock and to minimize dependence on wild stock, an experiment was run in which four treatments, consisting of combina-
Nutritional Value of Marine Yeast Fed to Larvae of *Penaeus monodon* in Combination with Algae

**Eva J. Aujero, Elsie Tech and Susan Javellana**
Aquaculture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

*Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and *Rhodotorula aurantica*, two marine yeast species, were fed to *Penaeus monodon* larvae (Ne to Mi) singly and in combination with *Tetraselmis* sp. and *Chaetoceros calcitrans* in varying proportions. Larvae fed combination diets gave survival rates comparable to or higher than those fed algae or yeast alone. Chemical analyses show that the yeasts have low fat, moderate protein and high carbohydrate content. They also contain essential amino acids but are different in the fatty acids found to be essential for prawns. When used in combination with algae, the nutritional value of the yeasts seemed to have been improved.

The use of marine yeasts in larval rearing could reduce economic and technological inputs in the production of natural foods for larval rearing. They are cheaper and easier to mass produce. They can be grown to very high densities using cheap carbon sources like molasses, brown sugar and coconut water with added nutrients in relatively shorter periods of time.

The Growth of a Bialgal Culture and its Use as Food for Shrimp Larvae

**Alfredo de la Cruz, Elvira Alfonso and Sylvia Leal**
Centro de Investigaciones Marinas
Universidad de la Habana
Ave. 1ra No. 2808, Miramar
Ciudad Habana, Cuba

The cultivation of the microalga *Tetraselmis chuii* with the protection of the extracellular products of *Chlorella kessleri*, grown in a bialgal culture, allows its development in outdoor tanks without special conditions of sterilization or aeration. Fish meal and agricultural inorganic compounds are used as fertilizers. The growth of the mixed species is analyzed comparing it with monomicrobial cultures. The best fit of growth data to a logistic curve is performed and the whole curve is compared using a covariance analysis. The stratification of *T. chuii* in the tank favors its harvest at high concentration. A bialgal culture (based on *T. chuii* at 50 cells/mm³) as food for the larvae of the shrimps *Penaeus notialis* and *P. schmitti*, together with hard boiled egg yolk and rotifers, achieves good development and survival.

The Integrated Use of *Artemia* in Shrimp Farming

**Julian Smets**
Artemia Systems N.V.
Francois Laurentplein, 29, B-9000 Ghent, Belgium

**Philippe Leger and Patrick Sorgeloos**
Artemia Reference Center, Laboratory for Mariculture
J. Plateaustraat, 22, B-9000 Ghent, Belgium

The use of freshly hatched *Artemia* nauplii in penaeid hatcheries is a common practice, although a broader application of *Artemia* in shrimp farming is gaining more and more interest. In this regard, an integrated use of *Artemia* in shrimp culture is presented in this paper.

*Artemia* booster in combination with Fleischmann yeast has been proven to be a suitable algal substitute and the early feeding of decapsulated *Artemia* cysts at protozoea I to II stages has been shown to improve larval growth. Freshly hatched *Artemia* nauplii may be introduced at protozoea II to III and the use of enriched nauplii from mysis stage on clearly improves postlarval production. Enriched nauplii, pre-adult and adult *Artemia* can be successfully used in a nursery phase in order to improve weaning success and performance in grow-out ponds. Furthermore, the use of adult *Artemia* in broodstock feeding has been shown to be effective for inducing maturation.

All *Artemia* products mentioned can be purchased from commercial dealers but can be produced as well on the spot in...
most cases. *Artemia* cysts may be harvested from natural or
inoculated populations occurring in adjacent salt works while
decapsulation of the cysts can be done in the hatchery. Enrichment of *Artemia* nauplii can be done routinely using
enriched formulated diets during hatching of the cysts or after separation of the nauplii. Pre-adult and adult *Artemia*
can be produced either extensively in nearby salt ponds or in-
tensively in flowthrough raceway systems using nutrient-
rich effluent water from the hatchery.

In this regard, an integrated use of *Artemia* in shrimp
farming will not only increase postlarval production but will
decrease costs as well by production on the spot of the most
expensive and valuable live food: *Artemia*.

**Heterotrophic Bacteria Associated with Eggs and Larvae of *Penaeus indicus* in a Hatchery System**

I. Singh, P. Laksmanaperumalsamy
and D. Chandromohan

Rice Research Station
Kerala Agricultural University
Vytilla, Cochin 682019, Kerala, India

Total viable aerobic heterotrophic bacteria (THB) associated with egg, nauplius, zoea, mysis and postlarva of *Penaeus indicus* and seawater in a hatchery system were estimated for three years from 1981 to 1984. The bacterial population varied from $1.3 \times 10^4$ to $8.72 \times 10^7$ in egg, $1.5 \times 10^4$ to $6.17 \times 10^7$ in nauplius, $4 \times 10^6$ to $3.14 \times 10^7$ in zoea, $1.35 \times 10^8$ to $1.25 \times 10^9$ in mysis, $1.6 \times 10^7$ to $8.44 \times 10^7$ in postlarva. Water contained a THB population of $1.2 \times 10^5$ to $2.8 \times 10^6/100$ ml.

Species of *Vibrio, Pseudomonas, Aeromonas, Acinetobacter, Maraxella*, members of the family Enterobacteriaceae, *Microccocus, Bacillus*, and Coryneform group were encountered. Gram-negative bacteria were found to be dominant in all stages and showed an increase from egg (81.3%) to postlarva (92.7%). However such an increase was not recorded in the respective water samples even though gram-negative bacteria were found to be dominant. *Vibrio* spp. were found in high numbers in postlarvae and it was to be increasing from egg (10.4%) to postlarva (80%). The number of larvae in culture pools gradually declined as the nauplii metamorphosed to postlarvae through zoea and mysis. In general, coincidence of higher percentage of *Vibrio* spp. and larval mortality was recorded. Physico-
chemical factors such as salinity, temperature, pH, oxygen, inorganic phosphorus, organic phosphorus, inorganic nitrogen and organic nitrogen of water did not show much variation in the same set of pools. Relationship between the physico-chemical parameters, bacterial population and the number of larvae is discussed.

**A New Approach in Intensive Nursery Rearing of Penaeids**

**Aquacop**

Centre Oceanologique du Pacifique
B.P. 7004, Taravao, Tahiti
French Polynesia

The need for a nursery phase between the hatchery and the
growing pond to avoid mortalities of young postlarvae, and
provide a better assessment of stocked animals is general in crustacean aquaculture.

The Centre Oceanologique du Pacifique recently developed
a new culture technique using strong aeration, no water ex-
change and no external filter or artificial substrates. The
technique relies on the development of a phytoplankton and
bacterial medium with both nutritive and purifying qualities. Early postlarvae (PL6) are grown for a month or less up to 0.1
gram mean weight, in 10 to 100 m³ tanks, at densities of 1 to 10
individuals/l. The mean daily growth rates are around 20%
for *Penaeus indicus, P. stylirostris* and *P. vannamei* and only
12-15% for *P. monodon*. For all species tested, density has
little or no influence on growth. The final survival rates are
generally high.

**Floating Cage Nursery Culture System for *Penaeus monodon***

**Dioscoro de la Peña, Alexander Thomas Young**

and **Oscar Q. Prospero**

Aquaculture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

The use of floating cages as nursery for *Penaeus monodon*
postlarvae was tried at the Batan, Aklan Substation of the
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department. The cages were made
of bamboo and measured 2 × 5 × 1.5 m (effective volume 10
m³) with cement-coated styrofoam sheets as floats. Two nets
were installed inside a cage. The outer net (3 mm mesh size)
protects the inner net (0.5 mm mesh size) from floating
debris in the bay. The cages were installed offshore where
water depth was at least 2 m during the lowest tide, and were
attached to bamboo posts by metal rings. Postlarvae were
stocked at ages ranging from PL2 to PL16. Feed consisted of
raw ground fish paste applied to a feeding net which also
served as substrate. Average survival based on 25 produc-
tion runs was 40.98% after 2 to 3 weeks of culture. Stacking
density ranged from 4,000 to 16,885 PL/m³.

Unlike nursery tanks, this system is easier to manage and
needs no aeration and pumping, thus reducing operational
costs. Floating nursery cages should be located in protected
areas; they can also be installed inside fishponds.
The Effects of Stocking Densities on Growth and Survival of *Penaeus vannamei* in Cow Manure-Enriched Ponds

Cheng Sheng Lee, James N. Sweeney and Billy Richards
Oceanic Institute
Makapuu Point, Waimanalo, Hawaii 96795, U.S.A.

Ecuadorian *Penaeus vannamei* were stocked in eight dirt ponds (approximately 163 m²) at four different types of density, i.e., 5 shrimp/m², 10 shrimp/m², 15 shrimp/m², and 20 shrimp/m². The initial body weight ranged between 1.1 and 3.8 g. No commercial feed was given to the shrimp. The only input to the pond was 30 kg of cow manure/week. Shrimp were sampled either weekly or bi-weekly for body weight measurements. Water quality parameters, such as temperature, pH, DO and turbidity were recorded twice daily; nutrients (nitrite, nitrate, ammonium and phosphate) and BOD were measured twice weekly. The chemical composition of the cow manure was analyzed. After 14 weeks’ experiment, the shrimp were harvested, weighed and counted. Survival and total yield were compared among treatments.

The results showed negative correlation between stocking density and growth. The weekly growth of shrimp was between 0.7 and 1.0 g. There was no relationship between stocking density and survival. Survival averaged 68%. The most suitable stocking density should be judged by profit. However, the total yield of shrimp was higher in the higher stocking density.

Role of Bacteria and Meiofauna in the Productivity of Prawn Aquaculture Ponds

David J. W. Moriarty
CSIRO Marine Laboratories
P.O. Box 120, Cleveland, Qld. 4163
Australia

Detrital food chains, based on the use of manures and compost have been used in aquaculture for centuries. Heterotrophic bacteria convert organic detritus into protein and thus constitute an important food source in ponds. Bacterial growth rates, and thus productivity, in natural environments can be calculated from the rate of tritiated thymidine incorporation into DNA. Rates of oxygen consumption by bacteria can be estimated from values for production. The tritiated thymidine method has been used to measure bacterial production in aquaculture ponds where a pelleted food was fed to penaeid prawns. It was found that most of the pelleted food was supporting bacterial growth, with bacterial production ranging from 0.43 to 2.1 mgC·m⁻²·d⁻¹ in the water and 150 to 500 mgC·m⁻²·d⁻¹ in the sediment. Bacterial biomass and growth rates were shown to be regulated by meiofauna, which in turn were eaten by the prawns. Primary production was not significant in the ponds. More oxygen was consumed by bacteria in the water column than was produced by photosynthesis of phytoplankton.

Average shrimp yields at harvest were: chicken manure, 262 kg/ha; cow manure, 218 kg/ha; feed, 387 kg/ha; and control, 160 kg/ha. Average survival for each treatment was 50, 76, 58 and 79%, respectively. The percent yield of *P. vannamei: P. stylirostris: P. occidentalis* by weight for the four treatments was 85:15:0, 87:13:0, 78:22:0, and 92:9:0, respectively. *P. occidentalis* suffered 100% mortality during the production period. Average weights of shrimp at harvest were 8.72, 7.32, 12.07, and 5.98 g for the respective treatments. Ratios of average individual weights for *P. vannamei: P. stylirostris* for the treatments were 2.00:1, 1.99:1 and 2.22:1, respectively. Manures and feed significantly increased yield over the control (*P < .0002*). Feed significantly increased yield over that of the manures (*P < .0001*); while yields for manures did not differ (*P > .05*). Survival was not significantly different among treatments (*P > .05*).

The Effects of Manures and Pelleted Feeds on Survival, Growth and Yield of *Penaeus stylirostris* and *Penaeus vannamei* in Panama

Glenn I. Garson
Department of Fisheries and Allied Aquacultures
Auburn University
Alabama 36849, U.S.A.

Richard M. Pretto
National Directorate of Aquaculture
Panama

and

David B. Rouse
Department of Fisheries and Allied Aquacultures
Auburn University
Alabama 36849, U.S.A.

Brackishwater ponds (0.8 m deep and 600 m²) on the Pacific Coast of Panama were stocked at 5/m² with postlarval shrimp (1 cm, 0.05 g) collected from the wild. Species composition at stocking was 56% *Penaeus vannamei*, 33% *P. stylirostris* and 11% *P. occidentalis*. Experimental treatments received different nutrient inputs consisting of cow manure (4,500 kg/ha dry wt.), chicken manure (4,500 kg/ha), 25% protein pelleted feed (790 kg/ha) and a control (no nutrient input), each replicated five times, in random order. Water was exchanged 5 to 10% per day and the production period was 120 days during the 1982 rainy season.
An Improved Strategy for Building Brackishwater Culture Ponds with Iron Pyrite Soils in Mangrove Swamps

Michael P. Yunker and Edward D. Scura
Aquatic Farms, Ltd., 49-139 Kamehameha Highway Kaneohe, Hawaii, U.S.A.

The problems associated with acid sulfate soil limit the potential utilization of vast coastal areas of mangrove swamps for brackishwater aquaculture. There is an estimated 4.8 million ha of mangrove area in the ASEAN countries alone. Until recently, most attempts to build earthen ponds in these areas have yielded poor results.

Aquatic Farms, as technical consultants for a 250 ha prawn farm in Johore Peninsula, Malaysia, developed a construction technique that utilized the volcano-like burrow mounds of the mud lobster (Thalassina anomala) to cover and seal pond embankments that has minimized the culture problems usually experienced with iron pyrite soil. The strategy, pond design and construction technique are described. Pond dynamics and performance are discussed since the commencement of culture operations and these are compared with a nearby prawn farm that was constructed using conventional techniques. A cost benefit analysis is given in conclusion.

Penaeid Larval Culture Using Microencapsulated Diets

David Ian Jones
Department of Marine Biology, Marine Science Laboratories University College of North Wales Menai Bridge, Gwynedd LL59 5EH, U.K.

Whilst it has been possible for many years to feed postlarval penaeids successfully on artificial diets, problems of nutrient leaching, particle breakdown, and water fouling have prevented the use of such diets for early planktonic larval stages. It has recently been demonstrated that the technique of microencapsulation may be used to overcome these problems. Live foods used for penaeid culture have been successfully replaced by microencapsulated diets, both in the laboratory and at the hatchery level. The technology has now reached the level at which dietary requirements of individual species can be met by the incorporation of specific nutrients. Capsules can be supplied to function either as complete nutrient delivery systems or as food supplements.

The present paper reviews this progress towards the total replacement of live foods in penaeid culture, and assesses the results of recent culture trials.

The Use of Microencapsulated Feeds to Replace Live Food Organisms in Shrimp Hatcheries

Edward D. Scura, Joseph Fischer and Michael P. Yunker
Aquatic Farms, Ltd., 49-139 Kamehameha Highway Kaneohe, Hawaii, U.S.A.

An adequate supply of hatchery produced shrimp fry is the major constraint to the intensification and growth of shrimp culture practices. If even 20% of the more than 500,000 ha of the world’s existing tropical and sub-tropical brackishwater ponds were to stock at the relatively low density of 50,000 fry/ha/year, it would take thousands of new hatcheries to produce the 25 billion fry required. The availability of artificially produced diets to replace cultured live food organisms would alleviate many of the problems currently limiting shrimp hatchery production by: (i) reducing the level of technical skill required to operate a hatchery; (ii) assuring a reliable supply of a nutritionally balanced larval feed; (iii) reducing sources of contamination and larval disease; and (iv) simplifying hatchery design and capital cost requirements, thereby facilitating small scale hatchery development.

Aquatic farms has been working with the Mars Microencapsulation Research Group (MMRG) to develop techniques for adapting current shrimp hatchery technology and design so that MMRG feeds can be used in existing hatcheries as a live feed replacement. Feeding trials have been conducted in commercial hatcheries in Hawaii, Malaysia and Thailand. The results of these trials and the techniques employed are discussed. Growth and survival of larvae fed microencapsulated diets as total or partial replacement of live foods was comparable to larvae cultured in control tanks using the standard operating procedures of the hatchery in which the trials were conducted. In trials to date, larval survival from nauplii to postlarvae has been as high as 70%.

The Response of Penaeus monodon Juveniles to Varying Protein/Energy Ratios in Test Diets

Myrna Bautista
Aquaculture Department Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

The response of Penaeus monodon juveniles (0.71±0.11 g) to varying protein/energy ratios in test diets was determined. Purified diets consisting of different levels of protein, lipid and carbohydrates were formulated. Two sets of experiments were conducted with the following diet combinations: (i) 30, 30, 50% protein, 5, 10, 15% lipid and 0, 10, 20%
carbohydrate and (2) 40, 45, 50% protein, 5% lipid and 20, 25, 30% carbohydrate. Protein and energy ratios ranged from 89-198 mg protein/Kcal while the energy values for all diets were 165-415 Kcal/100 g. The diets were given twice daily at 10% of the body weight.

Results showed that a two- to three-fold increase was observed in the body weight of prawns fed with diet combinations of 40-50% protein, 5-10% lipid and 20% carbohydrate with energy values of 285-370 Kcal/100 g. Reduction in protein content of the diet from 50 to 40% while maintaining the total energy level (285 Kcal/100 g) resulted in a change in growth that was not significant. An increase in energy level, at constant dietary protein level, resulted in improved utilization of protein and feed conversion efficiency.

Effect of Various Levels of Squid Protein on Growth and Some Biochemical Parameters of *Penaeus japonicus* Juveniles

Lucia Elizabeth Cruz Suarez and Jean Guillaume
CNEXO-Centre Oceanologique du Brest
B.P. 337-29273 Brest Cedex, France
and
A. Van Wormhoudt
College de France
B.P. 11-29182 Concarneau Cedex, France

An unknown growth factor previously suspected in squid meal was found in the protein fraction of squid (*Loligo vulgaris*). It is clearly different from hydro-alcohol-soluble feed attractants that are also present in squid meal. This squid protein fraction (SPF) improves the growth of *Penaeus japonicus* juveniles when added either in a semi-purified or in a more complex mixed diet. This growth-promoting effect does not seem to be related to the amino acid composition of SPF. In order to obtain more information on its action, several levels (1.5 to 16.0%) of SPF were added to a mixed diet. The diets were isoproteic (59% D.M.), isolipidic (8.5% D.M.), supplemented with vitamins, cholesterol, gluscosamine, etc. They were fed as wet pellets to 3 replicates of 15 shrimp; blue mussel was used as the control. The growth of shrimp increased with the SPF level and attained a plateau above 6%. Body weight was significantly higher than that of the control group at this level. RNA content and RNA:DNA ratio increased with the SPF level indicating that growth was improved more by hypertrophy than by hyperplasy of the cells.

The hepatosomatic ratio remained unchanged. The assay of two digestive enzymes, proteases and amylases, showed no clear effect of SPF on protease or amylase activities. More experiments are needed to explain the effect of the unknown growth factor of SPF.

Imperatives for the Future Development of Prawn Culture in the Cochin Backwater System (Kerala, India)

David Stephen
Resource Systems Institute, East-West Center
Box 1421, 1777 East-West Road
Honolulu, Hawaii, U.S.A.

A traditional system of prawn culture practised in the Cochin Backwater System, the largest backwater system in Kerala State, has an estimated yield of 4,000 tons from about 4,500 ha. Governmental investments to encourage prawn production on a scientific basis continue to grow with the dual objective of improving the socio-economic conditions of fisherfolks and augmenting prawn exports. A geographic study of land and water uses and an assessment of environmental impact of these uses point to basic incompatibilities of city expansion and semi-intensive prawn culture. Population growth, urban expansion and industrial development projections for Cochin City and its surrounding areas support the view that water quality will deteriorate further making culture of prawns for export a difficult proposition. Functioning horizontal-communications between city and fisheries planning units are essential as are improvements in environmental protection than presently evident. Attention is directed towards examining other options for improving socio-economic conditions of fisherfolks and increasing prawn production and developing public policy for protecting prawn culture areas elsewhere.

The Economics of Different Prawn and Shrimp Pond Culture Systems: A Comparative Analysis

Danilo Israel, Florentino Apud and Nilo Franco
Aquaculture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

The paper aims to present a comparative economic evaluation of different pond culture systems for prawn (*Penaeus monodon*) and shrimp (*P. indicus* and *P. merguiensis*) using standard economic tools and methods of analysis. The different culture systems include extensive and semi-intensive monoculture of prawns and shrimps and the extensive polyculture of these species with milkfish (*Chanos chanos*). Data used in the analysis were taken from both SEAFDEC AQD and industry experience. The technical data were gathered from researchers and private sector experiences in prawn and shrimp farming. Financial estimates were determined after the peculiarities of aquaculture *vis-a-vis* other business ventures in agriculture and industry were taken into consideration.
The study shows that the extensive monoculture of prawns and the extensive polyculture of prawn with shrimp and milkfish are profitable culture systems. Return on investment (ROI) and payback period for prawn extensive monoculture systems range from 10 to 65% and from 1.4 to 8.6 years, respectively. For polyculture systems, ROI ranges from 8 to 85% and payback period from 1.1 to 10.5 years. The semi-intensive culture of prawn shows moderate results. This is largely due to higher capital requirements for semi-intensive culture as compared to extensive culture. The extensive and semi-intensive monoculture of shrimps on the other hand show poor results, with semi-intensive monoculture registering net losses after all costs are considered.

A Preliminary Economic Analysis for Extensive and Semi-Intensive Shrimp Culture in South Carolina, U.S.A.

Paul A. Sandifer  
Marine Resources Division  
S.C. Wildlife and Marine Resources Department  
P.O. Box 12559, Charleston, SC 29412, U.S.A.

and

Larry L. Bauer  
Department of Agricultural Economics  
Clemson University  
Clemson, SC 29631, U.S.A.

South Carolina has some 28,500 ha of impounded coastal wetlands. These impoundments are remnants of the rice culture industry of the 19th century and are now of interest for waterflow management and possibly aquaculture. The purpose of this study was to evaluate and compare the potential for extensive commercial culture of shrimp in salt-marsh impoundments with that for semi-intensive production of shrimp in highland ponds.

A hypothetical farm consisting of four 8-ha impoundments or ponds was chosen as the basis for the analysis, and it was assumed that only one crop of shrimp could be produced per year. Two alternative strategies for stocking the impoundments were evaluated: option 1, stock by natural recruitment via tide gates; option 2, stock at low density (25,000 ha) with hatchery-reared postlarvae. Highland ponds were to be stocked at a density of 75,000 PL/ha with hatchery-reared animals. Major fixed costs other than land purchase were considered, including renovation of existing impoundments by cross-diking to form 8-ha units and addition of extra tide gates. Estimates of annual and variable costs for postlarvae (where applicable), feed, labor, chemicals, pumping, supplies, vehicle use, mowing, interest, overhead, and miscellaneous items were also included in the analysis.

Results indicated that extensive shrimp culture in salt water impoundments is likely to be a break-even or profitable activity for production levels of 90 kg whole shrimp/ha for stocking option 1, while option 2 would require yields ≥225 kg/ha. In comparison, semi-intensive culture in highland ponds is likely to be successful if yields of ≥ 800 kg/ha are obtained. This preliminary analysis suggests that both extensive and semi-intensive culture of shrimp may be economically feasible in South Carolina, but this potential is as yet unproven and shrimp aquaculture must be considered a high risk venture in this area.

Cause of Musty Flavor in Pond-Cultured Penaeid Shrimp

Richard T. Lovell and Emily J. Livant  
Department of Fisheries and Allied Aquacultures  
Auburn University  
Auburn, AL 36849, U.S.A.

In 1983, penaeid shrimp shipped into the United States from culture ponds in Ecuador were found to have an intense earthy-musty flavor which made them unmarketable. High concentrations of geosmin (trans, 1-10-dimethyl-1-9 decalol), a musty odorous compound, were found in the tail muscle of the shrimp. The level of geosmin, 78 mg/kg muscle, was much higher than levels usually found in pond-cultured freshwater catfish of 13±3 mg/kg muscle. Cause of the rare occurrence of off-flavor in the shrimp is hypothesized to be severe reduction in salinity in the coastal culture ponds which allowed growth of odor-producing blue-green algae.
Poster Presentations

The Biology of *Penaeus monodon* in the Capture Fisheries off Orissa Coast, India in the Context of Occurrence of Natural Broodstock

T. Rajyalakshmi, S.M. Pillai and P. Ravichandran  
Puri Research Hatchery Centre  
Central Inland Fisheries Research Institute  
Puri-2, India

The tiger prawn of India, *Penaeus monodon* Fabricius has a differential distribution in the two coasts of India. Density is high in the northeastern part of the Bay of Bengal gradually declining towards the mid-east and becoming quite scarce towards the south. On the west coast, the distribution is more sparse and limited to a few months, off Bombay. The only known inshore areas of capture fisheries are the Godavari estuarine system, and the lagoons off Orissa at Chilka and Madras at Pulicat. The only known offshore capture exists off the Orissa coast at Paradip and Puri extending south to Visakhapatnam and Kakinada Bay. The greatest production comes off the brackishwater "bheri" (wild culture) system in the extensive "sunderbans" of West Bengal on the northeast where millions of seed recruited to the Hooghly estuarine complex are drawn in along with tidal waters and "cultured." The distribution profoundly affects the maturity, breeding and recruitment of this highly euryhaline species.

The distribution can be related to the cyclic currents in the Bay of Bengal which have a profound effect on the salinity and temperature profile. It can also be related to the immense quantity of freshwater inflow from the mighty Hooghly-Matlah-Roopnarayan Padma estuarine complex at the head of the Bay and the other major riverine estuaries on the mid-east coast viz., the Mahanadi, Godavari and Krishna. The pattern of circulation and estuarine flows is such that it might also positively influence the food distribution, both live and detrital, in this region.

Ripe (gravid) and ripening females and males of *P. monodon* in the size range of 100-250 g are captured off Paradip coast in the not very deep (30-40 m) waters where coastal trawlers operate, from October through April corresponding to the post-monsoon stability in the water movement and the increasing salinity. This offers a good augury for setting up hatcheries in adjacent zones using naturally mature forms. Catch records from one major freezing plant are presented to indicate the density and distribution of the species at the Paradip-Puri coast.

Seasonal Abundance of Penaeid Prawn Seed in the Ennore Estuary, Madras in Relation to Hydrography and Lunar Phase

S. Vasudevan and T. Subramoniam  
Unit of Invertebrate Reproduction  
Department of Zoology, University of Madras  
Madras 600 005, Tamil Nadu, India

An estimate of seed resources in the coastline, estuarine, and backwater bodies is an important prerequisite for developing prawn farming. A one-year (1983) survey on penaeid seed, based on tide and lunar periodicity, indicates the following species: *Metapenaeus dobsoni*, *Penaeus indicus*, *P. japonicus*, *M. monoceros*, *P. semisulcatus* and *P. monodon* in order of their abundance. *P. indicus* and *P. japonicus* are predominant in February and March (77.5 and 82.06% of total seed, respectively) when the average salinity ranges from 33.6 to 35.1 ppt followed by *M. dobsoni*. A second peak of *P. indicus* is observed in June when *M. dobsoni* showed its highest peak (47.35%) with continued abundance up to December.

During the northeast monsoon, when the average salinity fell to a lower range of 19.9 to 24.6 ppt, *P. monodon* and *M. monoceros* showed moderate abundance. As the site chosen is very near the bar mouth, most of the seed collected were postlarvae. In *Penaeus* and *Metapenaeus* generas, total size range is 7-15 mm and 3-4 mm, respectively. Afternoon collections showed greater abundance followed by forenoon and night collections. Low tide and Full Moon collections showed greater abundance than those made during high tide and New Moon. Differences in seasonality may reflect breeding intensity of the respective prawn species in the sea. Variations in hydrographic features may also significantly contribute to seasonal abundance. A strong correlation between salinity and seed abundance is seen. The seed potential of these prawns in Ennore estuary is discussed.
Morphometric Studies on Three Penaeid Shrimps, *Penaeus japonicus*, *P. vannamei* and *P. marginatus* in Hawaii

Cheng Sheng Lee and James N. Sweeney
Oceanic Institute
Makapuu Point, Waimanalo, Hawaii 96795, U.S.A.

*Penaeus japonicus*, *P. vannamei* and *P. marginatus* cultured at the Oceanic Institute in Hawaii, were sampled and measured. The shrimps sampled ranged from 1 to 15 g in body weight. The measurements included carapace length (CL), body length (BL), total length (TL) and body weight (BW). The results showed significant linear relationships between TL and CL, BL and CL. The relationships between CL and BW, BL and BW, TL and BW are well expressed by exponential curve. These relationships were found for all three species. However, *P. japonicus* has more similar morphometric characteristics to *P. marginatus* than *P. vannamei*. The carapace portion in *P. vannamei* is smaller than either *P. japonicus* or *P. marginatus*. In other words, *P. vannamei* has a greater edible portion than *P. japonicus* and *P. marginatus*. Equations for length-weight relationships can provide means of converting one characteristic into another.

Diseases, Parasites, Commensals and Fouling of Commercial Penaeid Prawns of the Portonovo Coast of South India

A. Ramasamy and Al. Paul Pandian
Centre of Advanced Study in Marine Biology
Annamalai University
Parangipettai 608 502, Tamil Nadu, India

There are very few reports on the diseases, parasites, commensals and fouling in penaeid shrimps. During the regular collection of marine and estuarine prawns in the east coast of India, a number were found to be infested with various organisms.

The prawn *Penaeus (Fenneropenaeus) indicus*, was infested with a microsporidian which causes a condition known as milk or cotton prawn. The infestation was spread throughout the abdominal musculature of the prawn. The marine prawn *Parapenaeopsis styilfera* had epibiotic growth of athecate hydroidzoans, probably of the genus *Tubularia*, on the dorsal side of the carapace and abdominal segments. This is the first report of athecate hydroidzoans infesting the prawn. The prawn *Metapenaeopsis striolans* was observed to be parasitized by a bopyrid isopod, *Orbione thielemanni* and the prawn *Sicyonia lancifera* parasitized by another bopyrid isopod, *O. kemi*. The bopyrid isopod *O. kemi* infesting the prawn *S. lancifera* is also recorded for the first time. Both bopyrid isopods were found in the branchial cavity of the prawns. The Pontoniid prawn *Chernocaris placunae* is a commensal living in the mantle cavity of the bivalve, *Placenta placenta*. Barnacles were found attached to the carapace and first abdominal segment of the prawn, *Parapenaeopsis uncta*, whereas they were found in the telson region also in the prawn *P. styilfera*. Most of the barnacles were very small with a basal diameter of less than 1.5 mm.

Seasonal and Local Occurrence of Adults and Postlarval Stages of *Penaeus merguiensis* and *Penaeus indicus* in Batan Bay, Philippines

Vicente C. Bañada
Aquaculture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

Studies on seasonal and local occurrence of adults (spawners) and postlarval stages of *Penaeus merguiensis* and *P. indicus* in Batan Bay and Banate Bay, Aklan yielded the following results: 1) small-sized *P. merguiensis* and *P. indicus* dominated the rivers and interior bays, 2) *P. merguiensis* and *P. indicus* spawners appeared throughout the year with varying monthly abundance in Batan Channel and Banate shoreline, and 3) larval stages of penaeids were found in interior bays but were more abundant in the channel and offshore areas. Postlarval stages of penaeids are more abundant along the shoreline than in water edges of mangrove swamps which indicate that channels and offshore waters may be primary spawning grounds while interior bays and rivers are secondary spawning grounds. Moreover, size distribution of carapace length of *P. merguiensis* suggests that the channel and offshore areas are utilized as primary spawning grounds while the inner portions of the bay are nursery grounds and secondary spawning grounds.

Lunar phase did not show a positive correlation with abundance of both spawners and postlarval *P. merguiensis* and *P. indicus*. The minimum size at sexual maturity for both male and female *P. merguiensis* is about 11 mm CL. Female *P. indicus* appear to become sexually mature at a smaller size (13 mm CL) than males (20 mm CL).

Recruitment of Postlarval Penaeid Prawns in the Vellar Estuary, South India

A. Ramasamy and Al. Paul Pandian
Centre of Advanced Study in Marine Biology
Annamalai University
Parangipettai 608 502, Tamil Nadu, India

The northern bank of Vellar estuary (Parangipettai, India) is ideal for postlarval penaeid prawn recruitment. The annual recruitment, distribution and the substratum preference of postlarval immigrants at three different stations in the estuary were studied in detail.
Among the postlarvae of *Penaeus, P. (Fenneropenaeus) indicus* was dominant followed by *P. (Penaeus) monodon, P. (P.) semisulcatus, P. (F.) merguiensis* and *P. (Melicertus) latisulcatus*. In *Metapenaeus*, postlarvae of *M. monoceros* were abundant followed by *M. dobsoni, M. affinis, M. brevicornis* and *M. lysianassa*.

Two peaks were observed in the postlarval penaeid prawn population. In *P(F.) indicus and P. (P.) monodon*, the primary peak occurred from January to April and the secondary peak from July to September. In *M. monoceros and M. dobsoni*, the primary peak was from March to May and the secondary peak from August to September. The postlarvae of *P. (F.) indicus, P. (P.) monodon, M. monoceros and M. dobsoni* were available throughout the year while the others were seasonal. The distribution of postlarvae in the estuary is related to the type of substratum, salinity and temperature. The postlarval population declined during the northeast monsoon (November-December) and in peak summer (May-June). Their abundance decreased in the lower salinity areas of the upper reaches of the estuary.

Environmental Physiology of the Prawn

*Penaeus (Melicertus) latisulcatus*

A. Ramasamy and Al. Paul Pandian
Centre of Advanced Study in Marine Biology
Annamalai University
Parangipettai 608 502, Tamil Nadu, India

There are a number of intrinsic and extrinsic factors which affect the normal routine activity of the prawn. The present study attempts to elucidate the optimum levels of various environmental factors for the culture of prawns.

The salinity tolerance capacity of *Penaeus (Melicertus) latisulcatus* was estimated in 13 different test salinities from 0 to 60 ppt (at 5 ppt increments). The prawns can tolerate a wide salinity range of 20-50 ppt. Maximum survival, however, was between 25 to 45 ppt. The extreme low (0-10 ppt) and high (60 ppt) salinities were highly lethal to the prawns. The change in acclimation temperature from 30 to 35°C increased the upper incipient lethal level from 38.5 to 39.5°C. The prawns acclimated to 30°C tolerated 42°C for 275 sec and 45.5°C for 13 sec, while prawns acclimated to 35°C tolerated 42°C for 505 sec and 46.5°C for 11 sec.

Prawns were acclimated to a salinity of 26 ppt and oxygen consumption was measured at 5, 15, 26, and 38 ppt in a continuous water-flow method. The total oxygen consumption showed an inverse relationship with weight. Oxygen consumption declined with increase in salinity. The resistance of prawns to hydrogen sulphide was tested in 18 different concentrations of sodium sulphide mixed with seawater. The prawns tolerated sodium sulphide concentrations up to 20 mg/l. The dissolved oxygen in the water was found to be reduced to very low levels with the increase in the concentration of sodium sulphide (from 5.9 ml O₂/l to 0.54 ml O₂/l). This may cause heavy mortality of the prawns.

Molt Staging in Adult *Penaeus monodon*

Rosario Pudadera, Jose Llobrera, Rose Marie Caballero and Nieves Aquino
Aquaculture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

Changes and formation of cuticular layers and setae bordering the uropods and endopodites of the pleopods of adult *P. monodon* were examined under a light microscope. Observations and photographs were made at 0, 12 and 24 hours after molting and every 24 hours thereafter until second molting occurred. Results show that the internal structures of the setae and cuticle undergo marked changes throughout the molt cycle. It was possible to identify the molt stages A, B, C and D. Rapid examination of the molt stages allows the proper timing of eyestalk ablation to induce ovarian maturation.

Effect of Temperature and Salinity on the Hatching of Eggs and Larval Development of Sugpo, *Penaeus monodon*

Edgardo P. Reyes
Aquaculture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

Incubation of *P. monodon* eggs and rearing of different larval stages were undertaken at nine temperature-salinity combinations. The eggs, nauplii, zoea and mysis from one spawner kept as stock culture at ambient temperatures of 26-30°C and salinity of 32-33 ppt were exposed to temperature levels of 23, 28 and 33°C and salinity levels of 23, 28 and 33 ppt.

Eggs and nauplii survived the sudden change of temperature and salinity (from ambient to experimental) but the zoea and mysis did not. However, salinities of 23 and 28 ppt in combination with any of the temperature levels produced weak larvae. Highest mean hatching rate was obtained at the temperature-salinity combination of 23°C-33 ppt, followed by 28°C-33 ppt and 33°C-33 ppt. Incubation periods for these treatments were 22, 16 and 14 hr, respectively. Survival rate of nauplii (taken from stock cultures) to first zoal molting occurred. Results show that the internal structures of the setae and cuticle undergo marked changes throughout the molt cycle. It was possible to identify the molt stages A, B, C and D. Rapid examination of the molt stages allows the proper timing of eyestalk ablation to induce ovarian maturation.
stages in 9 to 11 days at 28°C C-33 ppt, 7 to 9 days at 33°C-33 ppt, and 13 to 15 days at 23°C-33 ppt.

Statistical analysis showed that salinity had highly significant effect on rates of hatching of eggs and survival from nauplius to first zoal stage but not temperature although the latter had an apparent effect. However, both factors affected time of hatching of eggs and time of molting from nauplius to zoae. Interaction effect was significant only on rate and time of hatching. Different sources (spawners) of eggs and nauplii did not have significant effect on time of hatching and molting from nauplius to zoae, but significantly affected the hatching rate of eggs and survival rate of nauplii to zoae stage.

The Influence of Temperature and Salinity on Oxygen Consumption of Penaeus monodon Postlarvae

Ma. Suzette Licop
Aquaculture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

The effect of salinity and temperature on oxygen consumption at different developmental ages of Penaeus monodon postlarvae (P2 to P80) was studied. The design was a 2 X 5 factorial, using two levels of temperature (15 and 30°C) and 4 levels of salinity (10, 15, 20 and 30 ppt). One-day old postlarvae (P2) were acclimated to various salinities prior to the start of the experiments. Oxygen consumption was determined after three hours using a YSI dissolved oxygen meter vis-a-vis Winkler titration method.

Respiratory activity as affected by temperature and salinity varies, dependent on the postlarval stage tested. Statistical analyses showed that temperature did not significantly influence oxygen uptake at early stages (P2-P3) until P2-P8. Its effect started to become apparent when the postlarvae were P25-P28 and was most pronounced at P45-P52. In general, the postlarvae consumed more oxygen at higher temperature and the variation in the oxygen consumption of the postlarvae under the two temperatures become less obvious as the postlarvae were older. Salinity seemed to affect the oxygen consumption of the young postlarvae, P2-P8 and P25-P28, more than temperature. Differences in rate of oxygen consumption at various salinities were greater in younger postlarvae (P2-P80) than in older postlarvae (P42-P80). The relationship between rate of oxygen consumption and body weight is nearly linear in the various salinity-temperature treatments. In all cases, the regression was significant at 1% level. P. monodon postlarvae behaved as respiratory conformers in all the salinities tested at ambient temperatures.

The least oxygen consumption rate was noted at salinities of 20 and 30 ppt at low temperature (15°C) and 20 ppt at high temperature (30°C). The importance of these findings is discussed and related to improvement of postlarvae transport methodology.

Effect of Carrageenan Micro-Binded Diet on the Larval Stages of Penaeus indicus

Yoshibumi Yashiro, Myrna Bautista, Elsa Daza
Aquaculture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

At present, most hatcheries depend on live food like diatoms, Chlorella, rotifer and brine shrimp to rear the larval stages of various penaeid species. Mass production of live feed requires much space (tanks) and labor, and is often affected by environmental conditions. The possibility of substituting live food with artificial diet for Penaeus indicus larvae was evaluated. Carrageenan micro-binded diet (C-MBD) was selected as test diet and its composition was modified from C-MBD designed for P. japonicus (about 45% protein).

Larvae stocked at 100/l and fed five times/day at 0.8 mg/larva/day had an average survival rate of 45% from Z to M. Water temperature was 26.5-30.5°C and salinity 32-33 ppt. An average survival rate of 70.2% from M to PL1 was attained when the stocking density was 30/l and feeding was three times/day at 0.3 mg/larva/day (water temperature 25.5-28.5°C, salinity 27-32 ppt). From PL1 to PL8 at stocking density of 20/l with feeding rate of 0.3 mg/larva/day (fed 3 times a day), the average survival rate was 64.9% (water temperature 25.5-28.5°C, salinity 28-32 ppt).

The results show that the present composition of C-MBD is highly effective for myses up to the early postlarval stages of P. indicus.

Effects of Diet on Reproductive Performance of Ablated Penaeus monodon Broodstock

Oseni M. Millamena, Rosario A. Pudadera and Mae R. Catacutan
Aquaculture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

Four practical diets were compared for their effects upon ovarian maturation and spawning of ablated Penaeus monodon broodstock. Diets were formulated based upon the fatty acid profile of wild P. monodon. Diets 1 and 3 were cod liver oil-based while Diets 2 and 4 were soybean oil-based. Experimental treatments consisted of each of the formulated diets given in combination with natural food (squid, mussel, and annelids). An all-natural diet served as control. The fatty
The survival rate for nursing in 12-ton tanks, with stocking density of 12 postlarvae/ℓ was 85.0% and for 30-ton tanks with stocking density of 8 postlarvae/ℓ was 61.7%. These results seem to indicate that the rearing and nursing of shrimp would be more efficient if carried out in separate tanks.

Characterization of Ovarian Maturation Stages in Wild Unablated Penaeus monodon

Josefa D. Tan, Rosario A. Pudadera and Evelyn Grace de Jesus
Aquaculture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

At least five wild-caught Penaeus monodon from various maturation stages (initially classified in vivo as 0, I, II, III, IV, V) were measured, weighed and dissected for histological and histochemical studies. The anterior and posterior parts of the thoracic and abdominal regions of the ovary were sampled and stained with Mallory trichrome, alcian blue-periodic acid-Schiff (AB-PAS) and Sudan black.

Results showed that the ovary is composed of the ovarian wall and its extensions, zone of proliferation, follicle cell layer and oocytes. The proliferating cells are less than 10 μm, have thin rims of cytoplasm, and increase in size as maturation proceeds. Based on histology, the stages were finally classified into groups (1) previtellogenic (stage 0), (2) vitellogenic (stages I and II), (3) cortical rod (stages III and IV), and (4) spent (stage V). The previtellogenic group consists only of perinucleolar oocytes (46-72 μm) which are stained negatively with AB-PAS and Sudan black. Oocytes bigger than 55 μm are enveloped by a single layer of follicle cells. The vitellogenic group is composed mostly of yolky oocytes (121-211 μm) with the following cytoplasmic inclusions: small granules of glycoproteins, medium-size globules of lipoglycoproteins, and few large lipid droplets. The cortical rod group consists mostly of yolky oocytes (288-408 μm) with additional rod-like bodies which contain acid and basic mucopolysaccharides but no lipid. The presence of cortical rods is a characteristic feature of mature penaeid ovaries. The spent group is similar to the previtellogenic group but contains some yolky oocytes, thicker follicle cell layers, or irregularly shaped perinucleolar oocytes. Th GSI ranges of the four groups are 0.899-1.937, 3.099-7.598, 5.631-12.000 and 1.848-2.919, respectively.

The Use of Haptophyceae in Rearing Experiments on Larval Penaeus orientalis

Ming Ren Li, Bo Zhong Bian and Lin Ma
Micro-Algae Culture Center, Department of Fisheries
Shandong College of Oceanography
Qingdao, China

The food value of five clones of Haptophyceae, Coccolithus pelagicus, Dicrateria zhanjiangensis, Isochrysis galbana,
Tahitian *Isochrysis* aff. *galbana* and *Pseudoisochrysis paradoxa* were tested for larval *Penaeus orientalis*. The algae were semi-continuously cultured in 5,000 ml carboys with 4,000 ml of Guillard f2 medium, under 2,000 lux continuous light and under aeration. The algal density was up to 1 × 10⁶ cell/ml. Rearing experiments were conducted in round tanks with diameter of 45 cm. Algal density was controlled at 1 × 10⁵ cell/ml in the course of the experiments. The larval density was 18 individual/100 ml; water temperature, 21-24°C; pH, 7.5-7.7; and sea water specific gravity, 1.019.

The results showed that of five clones used, Tahitian *I. aff. galbana* and *D. zhangjiangensis* proved to be the best. It took 9-11 days for nauplius I to develop into mysis I with survival rate of 73.5% and 73.4%, respectively.

### The Tolerance of *Penaeus monodon* Eggs and Larvae to Fungicides against *Lagenidium* sp. and *Haliphthoros philippinensis*

**Gilda L. Po and Elinor Sanvictores**
Aquaculture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

The *in vivo* effect of mycostatic levels of fungicides against the fungi *Lagenidium* sp. and *Haliphthoros* sp. were tested on *Penaeus monodon* eggs and larvae. Hatching rate and survival of nauplii, zoeae, mysis and postlarvae exposed to 10 mg/l Benzalkonium chloride, 1 mg/l Clotrimazole, 1 mg/l Crystal Violet, 10 mg/l 2,4-D, 10 mg/l Dacolin, 20 mg/l laundry detergent, 1 mg/l Econazole nitrate, 10 mg/l Resiguard, 0.2 mg/l and 10 mg/l Treflan-R, 0.01 mg/l and 0.2 mg/l Trifluralin were monitored daily for 96 hr in a static bioassay in glass aquaria. Results showed that all test chemicals had no inhibitory effect on hatching rate but survival rate of hatched nauplii was significantly reduced in most treatments except that of 0.2 mg/l Treflan-R. Tests with *zoeae, mysis and postlarvae* indicated that 0.2 mg/l Treflan-R and 0.01 mg/l and 0.2 mg/l Trifluralin did not adversely affect survival. In addition, Benzalkonium chloride caused no significant mortalities among exposed mysis.

### Growth and Survival of *Penaeus monodon* Postlarvae with Different Feeding Regimes and Stocking Densities in Earthen Brackishwater Nursery Ponds

**Nilda S. Tabbu**
Aquaculture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

The effect of different stocking densities (50, 100 and 150/m²) and two feeding regimes (natural food, consisting mainly of lablab, and natural food plus artificial diet) on the growth and survival of *Penaeus monodon* postlarvae (PL, to PL₅) were evaluated in eighteen 40 m² earthen brackishwater nursery ponds using tidal water exchange for a period of 45 days.

Results of the experiment indicated that the effect of different stocking densities was highly significant (*P*<0.01) on growth but not on survival for the two feeding regimes. Likewise, no interaction effect was discerned. Shrimps given artificial feed (Treatments II, IV and VI) obtained higher mean weight gains of 1.55, 1.17 and 1.05 g, respectively, than those that were not given artificial feed (I-1.44 g, III-0.92 g, and V-0.66 g). Similarly, those reared with artificial feed attained better survival of 41.62% (II), 67.44% (V) and 52.14% (VI) compared to shrimp that were not given artificial feed (I-42.53%, III-54.61% and V-46.90%).

An exploratory economic study showed that the nursery operation gave promising results in all treatments. High rate of investment (ROI) was obtained to give a safe margin for the risk involved in this kind of business. Among all treatments, treatment V had the highest ROI of 683% and shortest payback period of 0.19 years.

### Intermediate Culture of Chinese Prawn Without Feeding in Nursery Ponds

**W. Zhang and Ming Ren Li**
Institute of Oceanology, Academia Sinica
Qingdao, China

The aim of the experiments is to find a new way to accomplish intermediate culture of the penaeid prawn in nursery ponds. Experiments have been carried out in prawn farms in Haiyang County, Shandong Province. Prawn fry were stocked at high density in a nursery pond. Commercial fertilizer was added to the nursery pond to fertilize the pond water as nutrients for the planktonic and benthic organisms. The prawn fry in the pond fed only on the available natural food organisms without any special feed supply and grew normally. The survival and growth rate of the prawn fry are discussed.

### Survival, Growth and Production of White Shrimp *Penaeus indicus* in Brackishwater Ponds

**Florentino D. Apud, Danilo Javellana and Reynaldo Jomen**
Aquaculture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

This study was conducted in 4 one-ha ponds, 70-100 cm deep and 2 two-ha ponds, 40-70 cm deep to evaluate the survival, growth and production of white shrimp, *Penaeus indicus* stocked at 50,000/ha and cultured within a period of 90 days with supplementary feeding.
It was observed that mean survival and yield per ha obtained were significantly higher in deeper ponds, 70.36% and 343.2 kg/ha, respectively, compared with those in shallow ponds, 37.50% and 180 kg/ha, respectively (P < 0.05). There was no significant difference in mean body weight at harvest for deep ponds (9.80 g) and shallow ponds (9.55 g). Results suggest that white shrimp production is better in deeper ponds than in shallow ponds.

**Effect of Dietary Fatty Acids on the Fatty Acid Composition of Penaeus monodon Juveniles**

**Mae Catacutan**
Aquaculture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

and

**Akio Kanazawa**
Faculty of Fisheries, Kagoshima University
4-50-20 Shimoarata-cho, Kagoshima 890, Japan

Six purified diets containing either pollack liver oil or a combination of dietary fatty acids (18:1ω9, 18:3ω3, 20:5ω3) at 5% level and a control (no lipid) were assessed for their influence on the fatty acid composition of *Penaeus monodon* juveniles (0.2-0.5 g). After a 35-day feeding period, the fatty acid composition of the neutral lipid (NL) and polar lipid (PL) fractions of prawn total lipids was analyzed. All treatments showed that the prawn lipid contained high level of polyenoic acids (20:4ω6, 20:5ω3, 22:6ω3); likewise the sum of ω3 series fatty acids (20:5ω3) and (18:1ω9 + 20:5ω3 + 22:6ω3) were found to be the lowest in the PL of the prawn pollack liver oil.

**Lipids and Essential Fatty Acids in the Nutrition of Penaeus monodon Larvae**

**Oseni M. Millamena and Emilia T. Quinitio**
Aquaculture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

Total lipid levels and fatty acid distribution during larval development of *Penaeus monodon* were determined. Larvae were cultured utilizing standard rearing procedures and feeding schemes adopted by the Crustacean Hatchery of SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department in Tigbauan, Iloilo, Philippines. At each developmental stage (spawned egg, nauplius, protozoea, mysis, postlarva), samples were collected for biochemical analysis.

Lipid content decreased with developmental stage (from egg to postlarva), indicating utilization of lipids as energy source during larval development and metamorphosis. The major fatty acids in the egg lipid were 16:0 (palmitic), 16:1 (palmitoleic), 18:0 (stearic), 18:1 (oleic), 18:3 (linolenic), 20:4 (arachidonic), 20:5 (eicosapentaenoic), and 22:6 (docosahexaenoic) acids. The larvae developed, levels of 16:1 and 18:1 fatty acids decreased with a corresponding increase in polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA), particularly 20:5ω3 and 22:6ω3. These indicate the importance of PUFA as dietary components.

Comparison was made between fatty acid changes during larval development and the fatty acid constituents of commonly used larval feeds (algae, rotifer, brine shrimp, egg yolk) for *P. monodon*. The algae and zooplankton were found to contain 20:5ω3, while egg yolk was high in total lipids but low in polyunsaturates. Most larval diets were deficient in 22:6ω3 fatty acid.

Crustaceans have been shown to have a limited capacity to biosynthesize long-chain PUFA; these have to be provided in their diet. These essential fatty acids must be available in appropriate amounts to ensure successful larval development and survival.

**Lecithin Requirement of Penaeus monodon Juveniles**

**Felicitas P. Pascual**
Aquaculture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

An 8-week feeding experiment was carried out to determine the lecithin requirement of *Penaeus monodon* postlarvae. Six shrimps with initial mean weight of 0.11 g were stocked in oval fiberglass tanks in a flowthrough system with 40 l of seawater. There were 5 replicates or a total of 30 shrimps per treatment. Diets were similar for all treatments except for the source of lipid and levels (0, 1 and 2%) of added soybean lecithin. Cod liver oil (treatments 1 to 3), crude degummed soybean oil (treatments 4 to 6) and refined soybean oil (treatments 7 to 9) were the three sources of lipid.

Differences in mean weight gain due to source among treatments were not significant after the fourth week of feeding but were significant after the sixth week. Mean survival rate was affected by source of lipid after the fourth and sixth weeks. Levels of lecithin significantly affected mean weight gain after the fourth and sixth week of feeding. Mean survival rate was significantly different among treatments after the sixth but not the fourth week. Although feed conversion or feed efficiency was generally poor, a trend is discerned. Feed conversion improved as dietary levels of lecithin increased from 0 to 2%. *P. monodon* juveniles need lecithin but the amount has yet to be defined.
Carbohydrate Requirements of *Penaeus monodon* Juveniles

Veronica R. Alava and Felicitas P. Pascual
Aquaticulture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

*Penaeus monodon* juveniles (initial mean weight=0.62 g) were fed semi-purified diets containing 10, 20 and 30% trehalose, sucrose or glucose for eight weeks. Results showed that shrimps fed 20% trehalose gave the highest growth rate. Of the three types of sugars tested, trehalose promoted the best growth rates, followed by sucrose and glucose. When the level of sugar was considered, 20% gave the best growth rate and 30%, the lowest. The type as well as level of sugar greatly affected the body crude protein and body lipid \((P < 0.01)\), while survival was mainly affected by type of sugar alone \((P < 0.01)\). Trehalose and sucrose diets promoted better survival than glucose diets. A negative linear correlation \((r = -0.70)\) between the body crude protein and body lipid was obtained.

Earthworm, Marine Annelids and Squid as Feed Ingredients in Formulated Diets for Juvenile *Penaeus monodon*

Felicitas P. Pascual
Aquaticulture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

Earthworm and annelids were incorporated in diets for *Penaeus monodon* juveniles (mean weight 0.54 g) either in wet or dry form. These protein sources were added in amounts needed to replace 10% of the animal source of protein. Other sources of protein in the diet were shrimp head meal, fish meal, and defatted soybean meal. Diets were computed such that two-thirds of total protein came from animal sources and one-third from vegetable sources. Other components of the diet were rice bran, sago palm starch, cod liver oil and a vitamin-mineral mixture. Another diet, used as maintenance diet, served as control. Postlarvae were randomly stocked at 6 individuals/tank in a flowthrough system of ambient temperature and salinity. The treatments consisted of a control (complete vitamin mix), a vitamin-free diet and nine other diets, each lacking one of the vitamins in the mixture. At the end of the feeding trial, the survival rates in all treatments ranged from 80 to 100%, while weight gain ranged from 74 to 40%. Significantly lower weight gains were obtained from choline chloride-free diet \((P<0.05)\) and vitamin-free and inositol-free diets \((P<0.01)\) than from control.

**Effects of Some Water-Soluble Vitamins on the Growth of *Penaeus monodon* Juveniles**

Mae Catacutan
Aquaticulture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

and

Akio Kanazawa
Faculty of Fisheries, Kagoshima University
4-50-20 Shimoarata-cho, Kagoshima 890, Japan

The response of *Penaeus monodon* juveniles (ave. wt.= 0.076 g) in terms of survival and growth rates to vitamin test diets was observed in a 35-day feeding experiment. The prawns were reared in 60-L oval tanks containing filtered seawater in a flowthrough system of ambient temperature and salinity. The treatments consisted of a control (complete vitamin mix), a vitamin-free diet and nine other diets, each lacking one of the vitamins in the mixture. At the end of the feeding trial, the survival rates in all treatments ranged from 80 to 100%, while weight gain ranged from 74 to 40%. Significantly lower weight gains were obtained from choline chloride-free diet \((P<0.05)\) and vitamin-free and inositol-free diets \((P<0.01)\) than from control.

**Ruppia maritima and Najas graminea as Natural Foods for *Penaeus monodon* Juveniles**

Jurgenne H. Primavera and Rogelio Q. Gacutan
Aquaticulture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

*Ruppia maritima* (kusay-kusay, Hiligaynon) and *Najas graminea* (digman, Hiligaynon) are macrophytes growing in local brackishwater ponds believed to provide food and shelter to prawns and fishes. Their effect on growth and sur-
vival of *Penaeus monodon* juveniles (PL0; carapace length, 4.01 mm; body weight, 0.053 g) were studied in 80-l glass aquaria. The treatments were: (a) a commercial pellet (40% protein); (b) *live Ruppia*; (c) decaying *Ruppia*; (d) *live Najas*; and (e) decaying *Najas*. The pellet was offered to satiety (approx. 100% of body weight) twice daily. Live *Ruppia* and *Najas* were transplanted in the aquaria using pond soil a week prior to the experiment. Decaying *Ruppia* and *Najas* were transferred from ponds. Salinity was maintained at 15 ppt and 50% of the water was changed regularly.

Highly significant differences (P < 0.01) in mean carapace length (CL) and mean body weight (BW) on the 10th, 20th and 30th days were observed among treatments. Increase in CL was fastest with decaying *Najas* and slowest in live *Ruppia* (14% vs. 17% after 30 days). Growth with decaying *Ruppia* was comparable to pellets on the 10th and 20th days but was faster after 30 days. Body weight on all sampling days was highest in decaying *Najas* and lowest in live *Ruppia*. Percentage increases were 122, 273 and 565% on the 10th, 20th and 30th days, respectively, with decaying *Najas*. Those given live *Ruppia* registered increases of 11, 67 and 94%, respectively. The rapid growth rate of animals on decaying *Najas* was compensated negatively by a low survival rate (31%), significantly lower than on live *Najas* (100%). Other survival percentages were: decaying *Ruppia*, 59% and pellet, 53%.

**Hepatopancreas Cells as Monitor Cells for the Nutritional Value of Prawn Diets in Aquaculture**

**Gunther Vogt**  
Zoologisches, Institut 1  
Im Nevenheimer Feld 230, 69 Heidelberg  
Federal Republic of Germany

**Felicitas P. Pascual** and **Emilia T. Quintino**  
Aquaculture Department  
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center  
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

The hepatopancreas is considered to be the central organ of metabolism in decapod crustaceans. It is a system of blind tubules consisting of four cell types. The E-cells at the summits of the tubules develop into R-cells (for resorption of nutrients), F-cells (for production of digestive enzymes) and B-cells (function unknown).

The ultrastructure of *Penaeus monodon* R-cells changes largely after starvation and feeding different diets. B-cells show slight reactions, while F- and E-cells are rather constant. Thirteen day-starvation results in a large decrease of the cell size and in a significant reduction of all cell organelles. After seven days starvation and four days refeeding with various extreme diets, the R-cells develop completely different food-specific ultrastructures. A distinct proliferation of the endoplasmic reticulum is characteristic of protein diets. Large fat drops are the main feature after refeeding with cod liver oil. Sucrose feeding results in "empty" cells with only few organelles. The most diversified ultrastructure with fat droplets and a high amount of all cell organelles is obtained by feeding a mixed diet.

The study indicates that R-cells are very sensitive to the application of different diets. They could be used as monitor cells for the nutritional value and the availability of a diet for prawns. Particularly poor or badly formulated feed could be detected early by electron microscopy. This method may be very helpful for the development of artificial prawn diets in aquaculture, especially if natural sources will be used as food components.

**Effect of Cholesterol in Artificial Diets for Mediterranean Prawns**

**Marco L. Bianchini**  
P.F. “IPRA,” National Research Council  
Via Nizza, 00188 Roma, Italy

Mediterranean prawn (*Penaeus kerathurus* Forsskal) postlarvae (2 months old) were fed *ad libitum* with previously tested artificial diet (41% D.W., mainly of vegetal origin) supplemented with different percentages of cholesterol (0, 0.1, 0.5, 1.0 and 3.0%) and fresh bivalve mussel. Growth and survival rates were determined twice.

Considering supplemented formulas only, data show that: (a) individual weights were higher with 0.1% cholesterol in the diet; (b) survival sharply dropped in the last week of the experiment, in particular with 0.1 and 3.0% cholesterol diets; and (c) with 1.0% cholesterol, mortality and growth counter-balanced giving over-all better results.

No artificial feed can compete with the natural diet, either for survival rate or for individual growth.

**Evaluation of Artificial Feeds for Shrimp (*Penaeus monodon*) Production in Brackishwater Ponds**

**Nilda S. Tabbu**, **Pinij Kungvankij**, **Gisela Ann Taleon**, **Ihra Potestas** and **Myrna Bautista**  
Aquaculture Department  
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center  
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

The experiment was conducted in fifteen 500-m² brackishwater ponds to determine the response of *Penaeus monodon* juveniles fed with various artificial diets. Five treatments with three replicates each were: two commercial feeds containing 45% and 40% crude protein (treatments I and II), two experimental diets formulated to contain 35% crude protein (treatments III and IV) and control, without
feeding (treatment V). Shrimp were fed twice daily at feeding rates based on shrimp consumption.

Highest mean harvest weight was attained in treatment I (23.47 g) > III (19.25 g) > II (18.86 g) > IV (11.29 g) > V (9.27 g). Statistical analysis showed that differences in growth were significant at 5% probability level. However, growth in treatments I, II and III are comparable, also growth in treatments II, III and IV. Growth in treatments I, II, III and IV was significantly different from treatment V. Highest mean survival was attained in treatment III (91.82%) > I (88.93%) > II (86.95%) > IV (83.62%) > V (82.62%). Statistical analysis showed no significant differences among treatments at 5% probability level.

Projecting on a hectare basis, mean yield for each treatment was: I (628.37 kg) > II (496.35 kg) per crop in 120 days culture. Good yield was attributed to provision of formulated feeds, use of pumps in addition to tidal change for water exchange and control of predators, and pest eradication through proper pond preparation.

**Staggered Harvesting as a Method of Increasing Prawn Production with Supplemental Feeding**

Masanori Suemitsu, Mario Dimaano, Elizalde Jarabejo and Jose Canto, Jr.

Aquaculture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

Prawns, like any other animals, exhibit dissimilarities in growth rates. As they grow, a wide range of body weight distribution from the same population is observed. Staggered harvesting method is commonly practised in cultured animals having this characteristic. Selective or partial harvesting is especially useful in this type of management system. In this case, the larger shrimps are caught earlier than the small ones thus giving chance for the smaller ones to grow bigger.

The study was conducted in four one-ha ponds. Recommended pond preparation was followed. Partial harvesting was employed in experimental ponds by using 2-4 units of 8 knots selective pound nets once a week commencing after three months culture until final harvest. Control ponds were harvested only once at the end of the culture period.

The results show a mean production value of 506 kg from control ponds and 639 kg from experimental ponds. Average survival rate for experimental ponds was higher (92.90%) than for control (77.65%). Final average body weight was higher for experimental ponds (21.8 g) than for control (20.5 g).

Size-wise, production of big size group (30-35 g) is 578.0 kg compared to 434.6 kg for small size group (13.1-13.4 g) from both control ponds with over-all production of 1,012.6 kg. On the other hand, production from the two experimental ponds for big and small size groups is 872.2 and 405.8 kg, respectively. The means of the total weights of marketable size *Penaeus monodon* from control and experimental ponds are 289.0 and 436.1 kg, respectively. That is, 43.5% of the stock reached marketable size in ponds with staggered/partial harvest method compared to only 27.5% from control ponds.

**The Production Economics of an Integrated Prawn Hatchery-Floating Nursery Project**

Renato Agbayani, Nilo Franco, Danilo Israel, Dioscoro de la Peña and Alexander Thomas Young

Aquaculture Department
Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

The paper aims to present an economic evaluation of an integrated prawn (*Penaeus monodon*) hatchery-floating nursery project using standard economic tools and methods of analysis. The data used in the analysis were taken from SEAFDEC AQD experience at the Batan, Aklan Research Substation hatchery-floating nursery project. The technical bases were gathered from researchers after the peculiarities of aquaculture vis-a-vis other business ventures in agriculture and industry were taken into consideration.

The study shows that an integrated hatchery-floating nursery project is a profitable culture system. The rate of return on investment for this integrated project ranges from 29 to 47% while payback period ranges from 1.8 to 2.6 years. A separate economic analysis of a hatchery project and a floating nursery was also undertaken to determine the profitability of independently operating each subsystem. The analysis shows better results for the floating nursery subsystem as compared to the hatchery subsystem. Return on investment and payback period for the floating nursery range from 23 to 78% and 1 to 3 years, respectively, while those for the hatchery range from 20 to 36% and 2.3 to 3.7 years, respectively.
PART III
SESSIONS AND PARTICIPANTS
Sessions

General Aspects and Country Papers
Jurgenne H. Primavera

General Biology, Ecology and Physiology
Patrick Sorgeloos

Broodstock Development and Gonadal Maturation
Victor J. Mancebo

Larval and Postlarval Rearing
Rolando R. Platon

Grow-out
Herminio J. Rabanal

Nutrition and Feed Development
Emmanuel M. Cruz

Economics, Processing and Marketing
Rafael D. Guerrero III

Participants

Abu-Hakima, Randa
McGill University
Montreal, Canada

Agbayani, Renato
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

Akeredolu, Betty
College of Fisheries
Univ. of the Philippines in the Visayas
P.O. Box 138, Iloilo City, Philippines

Akiyama, Dean M.
Texas A&M University
Drawer Q, Port Aransas
Texas 78373, U.S.A.

Alava, Veronica
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines

Alba, Minky M.
Philcite, CCP Complex
Roxas Blvd., Manila, Philippines

Alfonso, Elvira
Centro de Investigaciones Marinas
Universidad de la Habana
Ave. 1ra, 2808 Miramar
Havana, Cuba

Alisjahbana, Iskandar
Sulanjana 11A, Bandung, Indonesia

Alisjahbana, Sofjan
Pt. FEGA Marikultura
36 Jln. Sukabumi, Jakarta, Indonesia

Ando, Hiroyuki
4-21-4 Nakahara
Mitaka-shi, Tokyo, Japan

Andreatta, Edemar Roberto
Univ. Federal de Santa Catarina
CCA-Depto. Aquicultura
88000 Florianopolis SC, Brazil

Angudong, Rupert
Philippine Federation of Aquaculturists
Metro Manila, Philippines
Aplaon, Ben G.
Central Azucarera de la Carlota
La Carlota City
Philippines

Apud, Florentino
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Aquino, Nieves
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Aujero, Eva
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Babalola, Julius
College of Fisheries
Univ. of the Philippines in the Visayas
P.O. Box 138, Iloilo City
Philippines

Balangue, Ernesto
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Balgos, Miriam C.
Phil. Council for Agriculture and
Resources Research and Development
Los Baños, Laguna
Philippines

Bambang, Buai Hendarto
Manyar Kartika IV/34
Surabaya
Indonesia

Banada, Vicente
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
Naujan Substation
Naujan, Oriental Mindoro
Philippines

Barclay, David K.
Box 911, Kapaau
Hawaii, U.S.A.

Bartlett, Peter
Aptdo. 47, San Jose
Costa Rica

Bautista, Myrna
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Bayot, Flores A., Sr.
New Washington, Aklan
Philippines

Benitez, Lita
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Bianchini, Marco L.
c/o IPRA-CNR, Via Nizza 128
00188 Roma, Italy

Bronfenmajer, Ricardo
61058 Chacao, 106 Brop'o'int
Venezuela

Brouillet, Serge
Aquacor
106 Paseo de Roxas, Makati,
Metro Manila, Philippines

Bushman, Donald H.
American Soybean Association
Rm. 1501, 15th Floor, Liat Towers
Orchard Rd., Singapore

Caballero, Rosemarie
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Cadag, Mercedes T.
1189 B. Josefina St.
Sampaloc, Metro Manila
Philippines

Cantera Wong, Ismael
Aptdo. Aereo No. 604210
El Dorado, Panama

Canto, Jose, Jr.
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Carter, Tony
6427 E. Floral
Selma, California 93662
U.S.A.

Castellanos Paez, Maria Elena
Kagoshima University
50 Shimoarata 4-Chome
Kagoshima, Japan

Catacutan, Mae
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Cavanzo, Roberto
Carrera 4, No. 75-35
Bogota, Colombia

Chan Hooi Har
Faculty of Fisheries and Marine Science
Univ. of Pertanian Malaysia
Serdang Selangor, Malaysia
Participants

Chan Seow Chiam
82 Jln. Kilang
Malacca, Malaysia

Chee Chiang Wu
P.O. Box 728, Sandakan
Sabah, Malaysia

Chen Hon-Cheng
Institute of Fishery Biology
National Taiwan University
Taipei, Taiwan

Chen Zong-Yao
30 Jie Fang Rd., Jinan
China

Cheong, Leslie
Aquaculture Unit, Primary Production
Department
Changi Point
Singapore

Chim Thanh Liet
Kagoshima 890
Japan

Chingchai, L.
36 Soi Yenchit Chand Rd.
Bangkok, Thailand

Choo Poh Sze
147, Cangkat Delima Satu
Island Glades, Penang
Malaysia

Chueh Chuang-Ti
Taiwan Fisheries Consultants, Inc.
6 Fl. No. 14, Wenchow St.
Taipei, Taiwan

Clark, John
12 Threiponuir Ave.
Balerno, Midlothian
Scotland

Crocos, Peter
CSIRO Marine Laboratories
P.O. Box 120, Cleveland Qld. 4163
Australia

Cruz, Emmanuel
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Cruz Suarez, Lucia Elizabeth
IFREMER COP
B.P. 7004, Taravao
Tahiti, French Polynesia

Currie, David J.
UTC, Shaw Centre 22-03
I Scott’s Rd.
Singapore

Dadole, Alitha M.
SPU Sdn. Bhd.
P.O. Box 1055, Tawau
Sabah, Malaysia

Danigo, Philippe
Ecuadimnasa-Av. Arosemena
Km. 2½, Guayaquil
Ecuador

Darus, Mansyur
Indonesian Embassy
Makati, Metro Manila
Philippines

Demyer, William
770 Harvard St.
Greenhills, Metro Manila
Philippines

Denvir, Michael
P.O. Box 19
Kaoshiung, Taiwan

Dias, K. Upali
Brackishwater Fisheries Station
Pambala, Kakkapalliya
Sri Lanka

Dieta, Romeo S.
Bureau of Fisheries and Aquatic Resources
Quezon Ave., Quezon City
Philippines

Dimaano, Mario
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Ditching, George B.
Philippine Refining Co., Inc.
P.O. Box 710, ADC, MIA
Metro Manila
Philippines

Doromal, Ramon
Iloilo Fishpond Producers
Iloilo City, Philippines

Drennan, David P.
Aptdo. 10282, Panama 4
Panama

Dueñas, Javier
P.O. Box 13, Bahia de Caraquez
Ecuador

Emberson, Craig
1335 Humuula St., Kailua
Hawaii, U.S.A.

Endo, Taizo
317-2 Nakato, Musa-shi
Murayama-shi, Tokyo
Japan
Participants

Escobar, Gilberto J.
P.O. Box 1230, Guayaquil
Ecuador

Estepa, Fe
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Fast, Arlo Wade
P.O. Box 1056, Kaneohe
Hawaii 96744
U.S.A.

Fegan, Daniel F.
108, Pirniefield Place
Edinburgh
Scotland

Fernandez Rodriguez, Domingo
c/o Nagasaki University
Nomo Fisheries Station
Nomozaki-cho, Nagasaki-ken 851-05
Japan

Finneren, David
Southeast Asia Shellfish Associates, Ltd.
c/o Hilton Executive Club No. 8540
Jln. Jend Gatot Subroto
Senayan, Jakarta
Indonesia

Flores-Tom, Alejandro
P.O. Box 38-B
La Paz, B.C.S. 23080
Mexico

Formoso Garcia, Mario
San Miguel 702
Havana, Cuba

Fortes, Romeo D.
Alta Tierra Village
Jaro, Iloilo City
Philippines

Franco, Nilo
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Fujimura, Takuji
SPU, Sdn. Bhd.
P.O. Box 1055, Tawau
Sabah
Malaysia

Gacutan, Rogelio
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Galinie, Christian
B.P. 3658, Noumea
New Caledonia

Gillespie, Ian
P.O. Box 38855
Winnellie N.T. 5789
Australia

Gillespie, Noel
Southern Fisheries Research Center
P.O. Box 76, Deception Bay, Q. 4508
Australia

Godinez, William S.
24 San Simon St., Capitol-8
Pasig, Metro Manila
Philippines

Goh Kee Seng
Agri Nutrition Asia Pte. Ltd.
33 Gul Drive, Jurong 2262
Singapore

Goh Kwee Tiong
Marine Feed(s) Pte. Ltd.
12 Jln. Kilang Barat
Singapore

Griffin, Wade
Dept. of Agricultural Economics
Texas A&M University
College Station, Texas 77843, U.S.A.

Guerrero III, Rafael
Bay, Laguna
Philippines

Guimaraes Fonseca, Sergio
2-31-1 Ooka, Minamu-ku
Yokohama-shi
Japan

Hallas, Carsten
7 Fernleigh Gardens
Rose Bay, N.S.W. 2029
Australia

Hardin, Mark
P.O. Box 9282
Guayaquil, Ecuador

Hayashida, Hitoshi
16-1 Nishiki-cho, Naka-ku
Yokohama-shi
Japan

Hew, Meng
SPU Sdn. Bhd.
P.O. Box 1055, Tawau
Sabah, Malaysia

Hirasawa, Yutaka
1-25-18 Kamiyoga, Setagaya-ku
Tokyo, Japan

Hong Nyuk Ti
P.O. Box 1055, Tawau
Sabah, Malaysia
## Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Organization / Address</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Iida, Zenzo</td>
<td>Nippai Shrimpfeed, Inc. 3-9 Moriya-cho, Kanagawa-ku</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yokohama-shi, Japan</td>
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<td>Infante, Lea</td>
<td>VITARICH Marilao, Bulacan</td>
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<td>Israel, Danilo</td>
<td>SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Jaleco, Robert D.</td>
<td>Aquaculture Center, San Miguel Corp. Calatrava, Negros</td>
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<td>Oriental Philippines</td>
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<td>Jamandre, Dawn Rhoda</td>
<td>P.O. Box 409, Iloilo City</td>
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<td>Jamandre, Ernesto</td>
<td>Iloilo City, Philippines</td>
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<td>Jarabejo, Elizalde</td>
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<td>Philippines</td>
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<tr>
<td>Jennings, Charles</td>
<td>P.O. Box 5620, Elmwood Station Berkeley, California</td>
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<td>94705 U.S.A.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Jesus, Evelyn Grace de</td>
<td>SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City</td>
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<td>Jomen, Reynaldo</td>
<td>SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City</td>
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<td>Philippines</td>
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<tr>
<td>Jones, David Alan</td>
<td>Dept. of Marine Biology, Marine Science Labs Menai</td>
</tr>
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<td>Bridge, C-Wynedo N. Wales, Bangor, U.K.</td>
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<td>Jumalon, Nepheronia</td>
<td>SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Philippines</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kanazawa, Akio</td>
<td>Faculty of Fisheries Kagoshima University 4-50-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shimoarata, Kagoshima-shi Japan</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kapur, Pritan</td>
<td>c/o Hindustan Lever Ltd. 164/165 Backbay Reclamation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bombay, India</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kariya, Tsuneki</td>
<td>3-1-20 Shimoishishara Chofu-shi, Tokyo Japan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kennedy, Earl F.</td>
<td>2644 S. Bayview Drive, Sunset Village Tambo, Parañaque</td>
</tr>
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<td>Metro Manila, Philippines</td>
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<td>Kennedy, Gloria S.</td>
<td>2644 S. Bayview Drive, Sunset Village Tambo, Parañaque</td>
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<td>Metro Manila, Philippines</td>
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<tr>
<td>Khoo Eng Wah</td>
<td>Lot 1121, Kg. Bg. Lalong Sg. Pelek, Sepang Selangor,</td>
</tr>
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<td>Malaysia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kittel, Carl</td>
<td>c/o Jamandre Industries Iloilo City, Philippines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kobayashi, Tadashi</td>
<td>203-6-206 Takamura Hiratsuka-shi Japan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kongkeo, Hassanai</td>
<td>Saha Marine Products Co., Ltd. 2156 New Petchburi Rd.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bangkok, Thailand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kongkeo, Siripong</td>
<td>2156 New Petchburi Rd. Bangkok, Thailand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kossman, Heinrich</td>
<td>EWOS AB P.O. Box 618, S-15127 Sodertalje, Sweden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Krauss, Eitel</td>
<td>P.O. Box 5738 Guayaquil, Ecuador</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kumeno, Fumio</td>
<td>3-16-3 Kamitsuruma Sagamihara-shi Japan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Kungvankij, Pinij
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Kimimatsu, Isao
4-4-15 Wakamiyacho
Maebashi-shi
Japan

Kuroda, Haruo
262-3 Shioya, Ako-shi
Hyogo-ken, Japan

Kuroda, Takeya
1-7-14 Shoan, Suginami-ku
Tokyo, Japan

Kyoizumi, Nakatoshi
Kogaura, Shirahama-cho
Wakayama-ken, Japan

Ladja, Jocelyn
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Lambert, Glenroy
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Lanier, Verne
American Embassy
Roxas Blvd., Metro Manila
Philippines

Lee Cheng-Sheng
Oceanic Institute
Makapuu Point, Waimanalo
Hawaii 96795, U.S.A.

Lee, Glang
TST P.O. Box 98595
Hongkong

Lee, Johnny R.
Dept. of Research
MSU-SCTO, Bongao, Tawi-Tawi
Philippines

Legaspi, Jesusa A.
Bureau of Fisheries and Aquatic Resources
860 Quezon Ave., Quezon City
Philippines

Leslie, Mark David
Aqualab S.A., Casilla 5738
Guayaquil, Ecuador

Lester, L. James
Univ. of Houston
Clear Lake, 2700 Bay Area Blvd.
Houston, Texas 77058
U.S.A.

Letic, Steven
13 Bartlett Terrace, Semaphore Park
South Australia, Australia

Li Ming-Ren
Micro-Algae Culture Center
Shandong College of Oceanography
Qingdao, Shandong, China

Liao I-Chiu
Tungkang Marine Laboratory
Tungkang, Pingtung, Taiwan

Licop, Ma. Suzette
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Lightner, Donald V.
Environmental Research Laboratory
Univ. of Arizona
Tucson International Airport, Tucson
Arizona 85706, U.S.A.

Lim, Alejandro V., Jr.
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Lim Aun-Luh
P.O. Box 1146, Sandakan
Sabah, Malaysia

Lin Min-Nan
Tainan Fish Culture Station
Taiwan Fisheries Research Institute
San-ku, Chi-ku, Tainan, Taiwan

Liu Mao-Sheng
No. 20, Alley 27, Lane 229
Kuan-Hua St., Tainan City, Taiwan

Liu Ruiyu
Institute of Oceanology
Academia Sinica
Qingdao, China

Liu, Peter V.S.
Ave. Prestes, MAIA 220-13 Anadar
C.P. 4322, Sao Paulo 1, S.P.-E.U.
Brazil

Llobrera, Alcestis T.
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Llobrera, Jose A.
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines
Participants

Lo, Robin
c/o SEDO
P.O. Box 400, Kuching
Sarawak, Malaysia

Locsin, Jose J., Jr.
15 Libertad St.
Jaro, Iloilo City
Philippines

Lovell, R. Tom
Auburn University
Auburn, Alabama, U.S.A.

Maekawa, Tatsukiho
1341-43, Nishijokimune
Onoya, Shimomatsu-shi
Yamaguchi-ken, Japan

Makishi, Ken
2-17-1 Maejima, Naha-shi
Okinawa-ken, Japan

Malecha, Spencer
1800 East West Rd., Honolulu
Hawaii 96822, U.S.A.

Manaois, Cipriano M.
Dagupan City, Philippines

Mancebo, Victor
San Miguel Corporation
6766 Ayala Ave., Makati
Metro Manila, Philippines

Marquez, Virginia F.
Miraflores 320, P.O. Box 38-B
La Pas, BCS, Mexico 23080

Martel, Jose V.
Marsteel Consolidated Inc.
8th Floor, Cougar Bldg. or
114 Valero St., Salcedo Village
Makati, Metro Manila
Philippines

Martinez, Francisco A.
Aptdo. 405, Ed. Cristoforo Colombo
Cartagena, Colombia

Martinez, Jane Ruth F.
53 Jalandoni St.
Jaro, Iloilo City
Philippines

Martino Cavalcanti, Ricardo
Rua Barao de Ipaneda
32/203 Copacabana Rj/Rj-
Brazil

Mason, Alfred U.
17, 1st Floor, Jln. Green Hill
Kuching, Sarawak
Malaysia

Mazurie, Joseph
IFREMER COP
B.P. 7004, Taravao
Tahiti, French Polynesia

Mendola, Dominick
Orca Sea Farms
P.O. Box 137, Hoolhehua
Hawaii 96729, U.S.A.

Mendoza Alfaro, Roberto
Puerto Peñasco, Sonora
Aptdo. 79, C.P. 83550
Mexico

Michel, Alain
IFREMER Headquarters
66 Ave. d’Iena
Paris 75116
France

Millamena, Oseni
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Mombay, Leon Narciso
No. 4, Fourth St., St. Ignatius Village
Quezon City 3005
Philippines

Monfort, Narciso
Batasang Pambansa
Quezon City, Philippines

Moriarty, David J.W.
CSIRO Marine Laboratories
P.O. Box 120, Cleveland, Qld. 4163
Australia

Motoh, Hiroshi
Central Laboratory
Marine Ecology Research Institute
Onjuku, Isumi-gun, Chiba-ken 299-51
Japan

Mranata, Boedi
Jln. Duri Utama Raya 22
Jakarta, Indonesia

Murai, Tadashi
9-1-4 Yamada-cho
Takasaki-shi, Gunmaken 370,
Japan

Nair, Godwin Sekaran
SPU Sdn. Bhd.
P.O. Box 1055, Tawau
Sabah, Malaysia

Nishimura, Hiroyuki
2-11-38-206 I. Kura
Sawara-ku, Fukuoka-shi
Japan
Nozawa, Takuji
3-420-6-106 Fijiwara-cho
Funabashi-shi, Chiba-ken
Japan

Odunwa, Hyacinth I.
College of Fisheries
Univ. of the Philippines in the Visayas
P.O. Box 138, Iloilo City
Philippines

Paludo, Edson Fernando
Ave. Ruben A. Ramos, 556 Aptdo. 801
800 Florianopolis, SC
Brazil

Pantastico, Julia
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
Binangonan Research Station
P.O. Box 7331-M, Pasay City
Philippines

Pascual, Felicitas
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Paul Pandian, Al.
CAS in Marine Biology
Annamalai University
Parangipettai 608502
Tamil Nadu, India

Pedini, Mario
FAO
Via delle Terme di Caracalla
Rome 00100, Italy

Peña, Dioscoro dela
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
Batan Substation, Batan, Aklan
Philippines

Penlington, Brett
Fisheries Research
Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries
Box 951, Rotorea, New Zealand

Perez-Canto, Fernando
Agricultura Marina, S.A.
2nd Ave., Campo Alegre Is.
Caracas, Venezuela

Perez-Dominguez, Gonzalo
61058 Chacao, 1060 Brop’oint
Venezuela

Phillips, Graham
Unilever Ltd., Greyhope Rd.
Aberdeen AB 9 2JA, Scotland
U.K.

Pili, Francisco
San Fernando, Pampanga
Philippines

Platon, Rolando
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Po, Gilda L.
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Ponticelli, Andrea
EWEA-Bioag., Strada P. Anguillarese
Roma, Italy

Poongkumarn, Prawert
36 Soi Yenchit, Chand Rd.
Bangkok, Thailand

Potestas, Ihra
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Price, Bradford H.
P.O. Box 1230
Guayaquil, Ecuador

Primavera, Jurgenne H.
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Pudadera, Beato, Jr.
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Pudadera, Rosario
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Putippayawongsa, Suthep
Bangkok Feedmill Co., Ltd.
36 Soi Yenchit, Chand Rd.
Bangkok, Thailand

Rabanal, Herminio
South China Sea Fisheries Development Program
Arcadia Bldg., Quezon Ave., Quezon City
Philippines

Ramirez, Enrique
P.O. Box 433, San Jose
Costa Rica

Ramos, Mariano de
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Reyes, Edgar
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines
Ricque, Denis
IFREMER COP
B.P. 7004, Taravao
Tahiti, French Polynesia

Rojas, Luis M., Jr.
152 del Carmen
Jaro, Iloilo City
Philippines

Rosario, Manuel del
271 Luna St. La
Paz, Iloilo City
Philippines

Rothlisberg, Peter C.
CSIRO Marine Laboratories
P.O. Box 120, Cleveland, Qld. 4163
Australia

Ruangpanit, Niwes
National Institute of Coastal Aquaculture
Kaосeng, Songkhla
Thailand

Saito, Etsuo
183 Ogumi-machi
Nishiokitama-gun
Yamagata-ken 999-13
Japan

Sandifer, Paul
Marine Resources Division
P.O. Box 12559, Charleston
SC 29412, U.S.A.

Sanford, Gordon A.
Antigua Shrimpery Ltd.
P.O. Box 1339, St. Johns
Antigua, West Indies

Santiago, Alfredo C., Jr.
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City
Philippines

Santos, Ceferino de los, Jr.
MacArthur Drive
Jaro, Iloilo City
Philippines

Sardjono, K.
Gayungsari I/22
Surabaya, Indonesia

Scoura, Edward
49-139 Kam. Hwy., Kaneohe
Hawaii, U.S.A.

Seiji, Nishikawa
Rua Felipe Schmidt, P.O. Box 23
Florianopolis, Santa Catarina
Brazil

Sen, B.P.
Hindustan Lever Ltd.
1 and 3 Brabourne Rd.
Calcutta, India

Shamim, Mohammad-Ali
Pakistan Aquaculture Farms Ltd.
D-73, KDA-I, Karachi-8
Pakistan

Sheeks, Robert B.
Development Management Ltd.
G.P.O. Box 50, Hongkong

Shigueno, Kunihiko
2631 Yoshino-cho
Kagoshima-shi 892
Japan

Singh, I.S. Bright
Rice Research Station
Kerala Agricultural University
Vyttila, Cochin 682019
Kerala, India

Sison, Michael
19855 Wilson St., Executive Heights Subd.
Parañaque, Metro Manila
Philippines

Sorgeloos, Patrick
Artemia Reference Center
State University of Ghent
Plateaustraat 22, 9000 Ghent
Belgium

Soriano, Eduardo J.
San Miguel Corporation
6766 Ayala Ave.
Makati, Metro Manila
Philippines

Staples, Derek J.
CSIRO Marine Laboratories
P.O. Box 120, Cleveland, Qld. 4613
Australia

Staresinic, Nick
12036 Washington No. 4
Los Angeles, CA 90066
U.S.A.

Stephen, David
EWC Box 1421
1777 East-West Rd., Honolulu
Hawaii 96848, U.S.A.

Sugawara, Tatsumi
Fukuki Coop. 503
7-7 Fukuki, Koto-ku
Tokyo, Japan
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Address</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sweeney, James</td>
<td>Oceanic Institute, Makapuu Point, Waimanalo, Hawaii 96795, U.S.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tabbu, Nilda</td>
<td>SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department, Binangonan Research Station, P.O. Box 7331-M, Pasay City, Philippines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taleon, Gilda</td>
<td>SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department, P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tan, Josefina</td>
<td>SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department, P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tan, Manuel M.</td>
<td>MSU Institute of Fisheries Research and Development Naawan, Misamis Oriental, Philippines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tan, Ronnie Kean Hui</td>
<td>Gold Coin Ltd., 14 Jln. Tepong Jurong Town, Singapore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tech, Elsie</td>
<td>SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department, P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teoh Boon Leong</td>
<td>Lembaga Kemajuan Ikan Malaysia, 1st Floor, Johor Tower, 15 Jln. Gereja, Johor Bahru, Johor, Malaysia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thammasart, Sujint</td>
<td>36 Soi Yenchit, Chand Rd., Yanawa, Bangkok, Thailand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tiin, Yolanda R.</td>
<td>College of Fisheries, Univ. of the Philippines in the Visayas, Iloilo City, Philippines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ting Yun Yuan</td>
<td>Tainan Fish Culture Station, Tainan Fisheries Research Institute, Sha-lu, Chi-ku, Taiwan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toya, Fumiaki</td>
<td>Embassy of Japan, Makati, Metro Manila, Philippines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uno, Yutaka</td>
<td>Tokyo University of Fisheries, 4-5-7 Konan, Minato-ku, Tokyo 108, Japan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uribe, Ernesto</td>
<td>Aptdo. Aereo 59379, Bogota, Colombia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uwate, K. Roger</td>
<td>SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department, P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vanagosoom, Ekapol</td>
<td>World Aquaculture Co., Ltd., 606-608 Luang Rd., Pomprab, Bangkok, Thailand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vasudevan, S.</td>
<td>Dept. of Zoology, Univ. of Madras, Madras 600005, Tamil Nadu, India</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Villaluz, Antonio</td>
<td>SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department, P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Villaluz, Domiciano K.</td>
<td>Quezon City, Philippines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Villegas, Cesar</td>
<td>SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department, P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vizcarra, Angelito T.</td>
<td>SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department, P.O. Box 256, Iloilo City, Philippines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wang Chung-Sheng</td>
<td>45 Sha-Tyan Rd., Sha-lu, Taichung, Taiwan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wenz, Jorg</td>
<td>Stephanstr. 5-D1000 Berlin 21, West Germany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wibulkitworakul, Thanad</td>
<td>2140/4-5 Chand Rd., Yanawa, Bangkok, Thailand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widjajanto</td>
<td>Alfa Indah D2/6, Jakarta, Indonesia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woessner, James</td>
<td>College of Fisheries, Univ. of the Philippines in the Visayas, Iloilo City, Philippines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wong Ean See, Nancy</td>
<td>14A Prince George’s Park, Kent Ridge, Singapore</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Participants

Wong Tian Shang
Lot 1121 Bagan Lalang
Sungai Pelek Sepang
Selangor, Malaysia

Wong Yun-Kwong
H67 Lot E5, Taman Pelangi
Luyang Kota Kinabalu
Sabah, Malaysia

Woo, Robert
148 Sri Taman Cecily
Telok Intan, Perak, Malaysia

Wu Chili Hsia
Gold Coin Ltd.
14 Jln. Tepong, Singapore

Yamasaki, Mutsumi
c/o JICA Office
SEAFDEC, Tigbauan, Iloilo
Philippines

Yang Son Der
Roche (Taiwan) Co., Ltd.
2nd Floor, 288 Kuan-fu S. Rd.
Taipei, Taiwan

Yashiro, Yoshibumi
c/o Mr. Masaaki Yamada
3660 Niikura, Wako-shi
Saitama-ken, Japan

Yoshijima, Shigakane
13-11-1-304 Namiki
Kawagoe-shi, Saitama-ken
Japan

Young, Alexander Thomas
SEAFDEC Aquaculture Department
Batan Substation
Batan, Aklan
Philippines

Young, Ronald
Aquaculture Center
San Miguel Corporation
Calatrava, Negros Oriental
Philippines

Yu Lui Kwong
2016 A.S. Denton Ave.
San Gabriel, California 91776
U.S.A.

Yunker, Michael P.
Aquatic Farms, Ltd.
49439 Kam. Hwy.
Kaneohe, Hawaii
U.S.A.

Zayco, Alfonso V., Jr.
Hda. Binitin, Murcia
Negros Occidental, Philippines
Participants and observers of the First International Conference on the Culture of Penaeid Prawns/Shrimps pose for a souvenir picture.
Penaeus monodon harvest (photo by J.H. Primavera)