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# Equilibrium reproductive strategy of the peacock bass Cichla kelberi facilitates invasion into a Neotropical reservoir

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## Abstract

The reproductive strategy of the non-native predator cichlid Cichla kelberi was determined to explain its success after more than 60 years of being introduced into an isolated reservoir in southeastern Brazil. This was one of the first-known translocations of the genus Cichla out of its natural range. Macro- and microscopy characteristics of the gonadal development stages and the maturation phases, along with the reproductive features (size at first maturation size, gonado-somatic index and sex ratio), were described. It was hypothesized that the stable conditions of the reservoir, with low connectivity, weakly defined spatial gradient and slight seasonal changes in environmental variables, favour the equilibrium strategy that enables predators to have high offspring survivorship because of great parental investment in individual progeny. Sex ratio was well balanced, with males and females reaching first maturity between 30.0 and 28.6 cm total length  $(L_T)$ , respectively. The stages of oocyte (primary and secondary growth, vitellogenic and atresia) and spermatocyte (spermatogonia, spermatocytes, spermatids and spermatozoa) development were identified. Five phases of gonadal development (immature, developing, spawning capable, regressing and regenerating) were described for both sexes. A long reproductive season was found, with spawning peaks in August/September and, to a lesser extent, in April/May. Parental care and spawns in parcels (batch spawns) corroborated the raised equilibrium strategy that was effective in this isolated reservoir. This species developed reproductive mechanisms that fit to different environmental conditions, with multiple spawning being associated with lentic environments and asynchronous development of oocytes, which are released over long periods. The reproductive plasticity in reservoirs may be one of the main factors inherent to the successful of colonization and establishment of the peacock bass in the environments in which they were introduced.

#### KEYWORDS

Cichlidae, gonadal development, histology, reproductive plasticity

The ichthyofauna of the Neotropical region is the most diverse on Earth, with remarkable variation in morphology, habitats, physiology, behaviour and life history (Reis et al., 2016). Although fish reproductive traits vary considerably, three general strategies (periodic, opportunistic and equilibrium) are recognized, which reflect trade-offs among the basic demographic parameters of survival, fecundity and duration of reproduction (Winemiller, 1989; Winemiller & Rose, 1992). Man-made environmental changes in recent centuries, such as the fragmentation of rivers by dams, posed challenges to which fish are not naturally adapted (Poff et al., 1997). Species with periodic strategy, e.g., indicated by large body size, late maturation, high fecundity and low offspring survivorship, are likely to be favoured in highly periodic (seasonal) environmental conditions, many of them reophilics and long-distance migrators, and are the most impacted by river fragmentation. Opportunistic strategists (smallbodied species with early maturation and low offspring survivorship) are favoured in environments with frequent and intense disturbances (Winemiller & Rose, 1992). The species with equilibrium strategy (small-to-medium body size, low fecundity per spawning event and high offspring survivorship mainly because of high parental care) can take advantage of river fragmentation by dams due to flow regulation, the creation of lentic zones and greater water stability, which are advantageous in nest building and offspring protection (Mims & Olden, 2012). Therefore, fragmentation of rivers by dams can influence a whole set of characteristics of fish life history, especially those related with reproduction (Agostinho et al., 2004).

Fish of the genus Cichla Bloch & Schneider, 1801, are among the main top predators of the family Cichlidae in Neotropical river basins (Kullander & Ferreira, 2006; Willis et al., 2007; Winemiller et al., 1997). Attributes such as meat quality, lush colours, control of forage species and value to sport anglers have led to Cichla species being widely translocated to South America and introduced in various regions of the globe, such as Central America (e.g., Sharpe et al., 2017), North America (Shafland, 1999), Asia (Chong et al., 2010), Africa (Welcomme, 1988), Oceania (Maciolek, 1984) and, most recently, the Middle East (Golani et al., 2019). A main concern is that Cichla spp. easily settled in the new environments in which they were introduced, causing severe impacts on the native communities, including changes in the food web, reduction in prey stocks and local extinctions (e.g., Menezes et al., 2012; Pelicice & Agostinho, 2009; Sharpe et al., 2017). Therefore, it is important to know the characteristics of life history, such as how the reproductive aspects determine how species establish self-sustaining populations outside their native range of distribution, as well as try to predict the likely impacts of invasion.

Many aspects of *Cichla* spp. reproduction have been extensively studied (*e.g.*, Jepsen *et al.*, 1999; Muñoz *et al.*, 2006; Winemiller *et al.*, 1997). The etymological origin of the word "Tucunaré," the popular name of the species of the genus *Cichla* in Brazil, provides a first clue about the reproduction of these species. "Tucunaré" is a word derived from the Tupi-Guarani indigenous language and is formed by

the prefix "Tucun," meaning "tree" (Amazonian palm), and "aré." meaning "friend," which can be translated into "friend of tree" (Dictionary Tupi-Guarani, 2019). The affinity of these cichlids for trees may be associated with their reproductive behaviour, as the peacock bass build nests and lay their adhesive eggs preferentially on submerged branches (Muñoz et al., 2006). Both sexes of Cichla exhibit parental care, and during the spawning period, males have secondary sexual characteristics, observed by Darwin (1889, p. 340): "I hear from Professor Agassiz, that mature males have a conspicuous protuberance on the forehead, which is wholly wanting in the females and in the young males." Professor Agassiz adds, "I have often observed these fishes at the time of spawning when the protuberance is largest, and at other seasons when it is totally wanting, and the two sexes show no difference whatever in the outline of the profile of the head. I never could ascertain that it subserves any special function, and the Indians on the Amazon know nothing about its use." These protuberances resemble, in their periodical appearance, the fleshy caruncles on the heads of certain birds: but whether they serve as ornaments must remain at present doubtful (Chellappa et al., 2003)." In addition to the possible ornamental function cited by Darwin (1889), the postoccipital protuberance is formed by an accumulation of adipose tissue and, unlike birds, can function as a lipid allocation to be used in the period of parental care.

Aspects of the history of the peacock bass, such as sedentary local populations, prolonged breeding seasons and parental care, are associated with an equilibrium strategy (Winemiller, 1989). Empirical evidence suggests that equilibrium strategies are also related to more stable environments, with less hydrological variability and increasing stability (Mims & Olden, 2012). Nevertheless, the very global spread of Cichla indicates that these populations are subjected to contrasting climatic and hydrological conditions. Invasiveness capability seems not to be influenced by genetic diversity and hybridization (Carvalho et al., 2014). Persistence in new environments seems to be linked to phenotypic plasticity in reproductive traits such as fecundity (Normando et al., 2009), size at first maturation (Chellappa et al., 2003; Gomiero et al., 2009) and spawning season (Jepsen et al., 1999; Marto et al., 2015; Vieira et al., 2009). The variability in reproductive traits shown between different populations of Cichla demands that accurate local information be generated to support the correct management of these species, which are today one of the principal invasive piscivores in the world.

This study evaluated whether an equilibrium strategy (sensu Winemiller, 1989) and reproductive aspects such as gonadal histology, sex ratio, reproductive period, size at first maturation and other biological features could have facilitated the establishment of *Cichla kelberi* Kullander & Ferreira, 2006, in the Lajes Reservoir, southeastern Brazil. This species was introduced into this reservoir in the 1950s to control forage fish overpopulation and to improve local angling, one of the first-known translocations of the genus *Cichla* out of its natural range. It is hypothesized that the stable conditions of the Lajes Reservoir, an isolated reservoir, with low connectivity, weakly defined spatial gradient and slight environmental changes, favour the equilibrium strategy that enables non-native predators to colonize stable environments.

## 2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

## 2.1 | Study area

Lajes Reservoir  $(22^{\circ} 42' \text{ N}-43^{\circ} 53' \text{ W}, 22^{\circ} 50' \text{ N}-44^{\circ} 05' \text{ W})$  is a 30 km<sup>2</sup> impoundment, located 415 m a.s.l. in Rio de Janeiro State, in southeastern Brazil (Figure 1). This reservoir was filled between 1905 and 1908 mainly for hydroelectric purposes (Araújo & Santos, 2001). It is located in the upper slopes of the Serra do Mar (Sea Mountains) in the East Hydrographic Basin and off the main channel of a medium or large river with its outflowing and discharged waters draining into the Guandu River basin.

The water balance is mainly regulated by the transposition of water from an adjacent watershed and the contribution of small streams, by the seasonal rainfall with peaks in January–February (149.9 mm per month) and by the controlled discharges of the hydroelectric power plant. The mean inflow of water is  $13.7 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , of which most of the flow ( $8.3 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) is received by transposition from the interbasin diversion (Guedes *et al.*, 2020). As a consequence, extreme differences in the water level annual fluctuation can reach up 12 m (mean  $\approx 3$  m), ranging from lowest values in October–November (409.4 ± 0.1 m a.s.l) to the highest in May–June (412.4 m a.s.l.) (Araújo & Santos, 2001; Santos *et al.*, 2024). Thus, anthropogenic management in the reservoir causes the highest water levels to occur in the period with low rainfall.

The water retention time ( $\approx$ 300 days) and water transparency (euphotic zone = 9.2 m) are high, and oligo-mesotrophic conditions predominate (Guarino *et al.*, 2005; Soares *et al.*, 2008). Lentic conditions predominate in the longitudinal extent of the reservoir because of the low connectivity with tributaries and the dendritic reservoir morphology (Guedes *et al.*, 2020). The climate is seasonal tropical with dry winters (Aw), according to the Köppen–Geiger classification.

## 2.2 | Data collection

Fish specimens and environmental variables were collected monthly between August 2015 and July 2016 as part of the faunal survey. Water temperature (°C) was measured using a U-52 G multiprobe (Horiba, 192 Ltd., Kyoto, Japan). Water transparency (cm) was obtained with a Secchi Disk. Monthly rainfall (mm) and water level (m a.s.l.) data were obtained from the local hydrometeorological station (V-3-485) and provided by the hydroelectric company Light Energia S.A. Averages and standard deviations of the environmental variables are shown in Supporting Information Figure S1.

The collections were performed using monofilament gillnets (20– 50 × 2 m; 25–55 mm stretched knots mesh-size) set at the banks at dusk and collected at dawn after a period of *c*. 12 h. After collection, fish were anaesthetized in benzocaine hydrochloride (50 mg l<sup>-1</sup>) and then killed by immersion in water at 4°C. In the laboratory, fish were identified, measured to total length ( $L_T$ , ±0.1 cm) and weighed to total body mass ( $M_T$ , ±0.1 g). The care and use of experimental animals complied with the ICMBio, the Brazilian Environmental Agency, animal welfare laws (Brazilian Federal Law 11.794 of 8 October 2008), guidelines and policies as approved by the Ethics Council of Animal Use (CEUA/ICBS/UFRRJ) through permission number 12179.

Gonads were extracted and weighed ( $M_{G}$ , ±0.01 g), and a fragment of each gonad was fixed in Bouin's solution for over 8 h and then transferred to 70% ethanol. Subsequently, the gonads were dehydrated and embedded in paraffin wax. Cross-sections (4–6 µm thick) were obtained in a rotary microtome (Leica RM 2135, Wetzlar, Germany), dyed with haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) and mounted on glass slides for light microscopy inspection. Images were taken using a Nikon Coolpix 4300 digital camera connected to a B941 microscope (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan). Voucher specimens were deposited in the Fish Collection of the Laboratory of Fish Ecology, Universidade Federal Rural do Rio de Janeiro, LEP-UFRRJ#1608-1623. Occurrences of *C. kelberi* in the Lajes Reservoir were made available at the Global



**FIGURE 1** Elevation map of the Lajes Reservoir (Rio de Janeiro State, southeastern Brazil) with indication of the drainage basin. SAHR: Southeast Atlantic Hydrographic Region

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Biodiversity Facility (Araújo & Guedes, 2020; gbif.org/occurrence/ 2628729033).

#### 2.3 | Histological characterization

The oocyte stages were defined according to their morphology, affinity to dyes and the occurrence of specific inclusions (*e.g.*, lipid droplets, yolk granules and cortical alveoli). The identification of oocyte stages and postovulatory follicles (POFs) followed Brown-Peterson *et al.* (2011) and adapted to specific histological observations. Accordingly, all vitellogenic and cortical alveolar (CA) oocytes were secondary growth oocytes. Vitellogenesis is a process when important changes occur within the oocyte: size increases noticeably, yolk accumulates in the cytoplasm and several cytoplasmatic inclusions appear. In this study, vitellogenic oocytes were classified into three stages, primary (Vtg1), secondary (Vtg2) and tertiary (Vtg3), based on the oocyte size, the volume of cytoplasm filled with yolk globules and the appearance of the zona radiata.

Macroscopic analyses of the gonads were assigned to developmental stages, based on form, size, mass, colour and vascularization. In addition, histological identification of the maturity phases was determined according to the presence/absence of different types of oocytes (*i.e.*, whether organized by ovarian lamellae or not) and spermatocytes. Histological analyses are strongly recommended because the changes observed macroscopically do not exactly reflect the biological events (Honji *et al.*, 2009). The classification of ovaries was based on oocyte stage, thickness of the ovarian wall and the occurrence of different stages of POFs. The diameter of the vitellogenic oocytes and the spermatogenic cell nucleus was determined using the computerized image analyser Image-J 1.48, using 20 non-overlapping random fields of the histological slide prepared for each specimen collected.

## 2.4 | Data analysis

Differences in the numbers of males and females were tested with a  $\chi^2$  test using Yates's correction (Hitchcock, 2009). A logistic curve was adjusted to the data set for assessment of the size at first maturation ( $L_{50}$ ) and for size when 99% of the individuals reached maturity ( $L_{99}$ ). Confidence intervals (95%) for  $L_{50}$  and  $L_{99}$  were estimated using bootstrapping data sets. The differences in logistic regressions of maturity between males and females were tested using a generalized linear model (GLM) adjusted to the binomial error distribution. The significance of terms in a GLM was computed using a  $\chi^2$  distribution and summarized in "Analysis of Deviance Table" (for more details: http://derekogle.com/IFAR/supplements/maturity; Ogle, 2016).

The following analyses were achieved considering only the individuals that reached  $L_{50}$ , *i.e.*, adult individuals (spawning capable, regressing and regenerating), because they transfer part of the obtained energy to the reproductive development. The annual development cycle of the gonads was estimated by changes in the gonadosomatic index,  $I_{\rm G} = 100(M_{\rm G} \times M_{\rm T}^{-1})$ , where  $M_{\rm G}$  is the gonad mass and  $M_{\rm T}$  is the total mass. Comparisons of the  $I_{\rm G}$  between the bi-monthly periods were performed using a Kruskal–Wallis non-parametric test. Spearman's correlation coefficient was used to measure the association between  $I_{\rm G}$  (grouped sexes) and the environmental variables (rainfall, water level, transparency and temperature).

## 3 | RESULTS

A total of 183 specimens (87 females and 96 males) were examined for histological analyses and reproductive indicator calculation (Supporting Information Table S1). The total length ( $L_T$ ) ranged from 5.8 to 40.0 cm (female) and from 6.0 to 41.1 cm (male). The total mass ( $M_T$ ) ranged from 0.05 to 1.04 kg (female) and from 0.07 to 1.15 kg (male).

#### 3.1 | Stages of oocyte development

## 3.1.1 | Primary growth

Oogonia, chromatin nucleolar and perinucleolar stages were present in the ovary throughout the entire annual cycle. Oocyte diameter averaged 90  $\pm$  35 s.D.  $\mu$ m and nucleus 40.6  $\pm$  3.8  $\mu$ m (Figure 2a,b).

#### 3.1.2 | Secondary growth

CA and vitellogenic oocytes were present in the ovary in the advanced stages of development. Cortical alveoli formation with small vesicles and alveoli appeared in the periphery of the cytoplasm (previtellogenic). The mean diameter of the oocyte and the nucleus was  $325 \pm 7.8$  and  $144 \pm 6.4 \mu$ m, respectively (Figure 2b).

## 3.1.3 | Vitellogenic

The vitellogenic oocytes were classified into three stages (primary – Vtg1, secondary – Vtg2 and tertiary – Vtg3, Figure 2c,d): primary vitellogenic (Vtg1) – mean oocyte diameter 440 ± 0.8  $\mu$ m and nucleus 10.7 ± 4.5  $\mu$ m (Figure 2c-e); secondary vitellogenic (Vtg2) – mean oocyte diameter 588.0 ± 6.6  $\mu$ m and nucleus 135.0 ± 1.4  $\mu$ m (Figure 2c); and tertiary vitellogenic (Vtg3) – mean oocyte diameter 770 ± 8.1  $\mu$ m and nucleus 138.0 ± 1.3  $\mu$ m (Figure 2d).

## 3.1.4 | Atresia

During this stage, the cells of the granular layer are in the interior of the cytoplasm, absorbing the yolk. At the end of this stage, the zona radiata disappears. The mean oocyte diameter is  $100.0 \pm 5.4 \,\mu m$  (Figure 2e,f).

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FIGURE 2 Images of ovaries of Cichla kelberi in different phases of gonadal maturation. (a) Atresia Immature: oocytes in primary growth (PG), slender ovarian wall (OW), 40x. (b, c) Developing: presence of oocytes of different sizes [cortical alveolar (CA), Vitg1], OW thick, 200x. (d) Spawning capable: predominance of vitellogenic oocytes (Vtg2, Vtg3), 200×. (e) Regressing: presence of different types of oocytes [A, postovulatory follicle (POF)], OW thicker, 100×. (f) Regenerating: oocytes in PG, CA and POF with ovarian thin wall. 100x. Staining: haematoxylin and eosin (HE). Scale bar: 100 µm



### 3.2 | Stages of spermatocyte development

The different stages of spermatogenic cells were observed in the interior of the seminiferous tubules during spermatogenesis (spermatogonia, spermatocytes, spermatids and spermatozoa), forming cysts (Figure 3). Each cyst is bound by a layer of connective tissue and contains cells at the same stage of development. The seminiferous tubules are filled with spermatozoa in mature testes.

## 3.3 | Phases of gonadal maturation

Five phases of gonadal development were identified for the ovaries and testes (Tables 1 and 2). Macroscopic variations were related to gonadal morphology and microscopic histology of the composition of the oocytes and spermatogenic cells (Figures 2 and 3).

The immature phase of ovarian development was characterized by small, narrow, translucent ovaries, occupying around 10% of the celomatic cavity (Table 1). Only oogonia and primary growth (PG) oocytes were present in this phase. The developing phase was characterized by sack-shaped, opaque ovaries, occupying 15%–20% of the celomatic cavity. Oocytes were present in the different phases of development, mainly CA and Vtg1. Large and voluminous ovaries, yellow to green in colour, characterized the spawning-capable phase, occupying 50% of the celomatic cavity. This phase predominantly had Vtg1 and Vtg2 oocytes. In the regressing phase, the ovaries were flaccid, occupying 40% of the celomatic cavity and showing the presence of follicular atresia and POFs. The regenerating phase was characterized by the presence of small, opaque ovaries, occupying 10% of the celomatic cavity. Most oocytes were in the PG and CA stages.

The immature phase in males (Table 2) was characterized by Sg1 in the germinal epithelium (GE) and by the early formation of testes lobules containing only Sg. The developing phase was characterized by the presence of a continuous GE with spermatocysts undergoing active spermatogenesis and the formation of a lumen in the lobule that is devoid of Sz (Figure 3a,b). The spawning-capable phase consisted of Sz in the lumen of the lobules and in the sperm ducts (Figure 3c,d). The actively spawning subphase for males could be identified only macroscopically and was characterized by the release of milt when gentle pressure was placed on the abdomen (referred to as



FIGURE 3 Images of testes of Cichla kelberi in different phases of gonadal maturation. (a) Regenerating: presence of secondary spermatogonia (Sg2) and melanomacrophage centres (mmc), 100×. (b, c) Developing: various types of spermatocytes evident along lobules (Sg2, Sc1, Sc2, St, Sz) and germinal epithelium (GE) continuous throughout (b - 400x, c, 200×). (d) Spawning capable: predominance of Sz in lumen seminiferous tubules, 200x. (e) Regressing: presence of cysts (Cy), residual spermatozoa (Sz) and GE in regeneration, 200x. (f) Regenerating: proliferation of spermatogonia (Sg1, Sg2) and GE continuous throughout, 200x. Staining: haematoxylin and eosin (HE). Scale bar = 25 µm

"running ripe"). The regressing phase was identified by depleted stores of Sz in the sperm ducts and in the lumen of lobules and by few lobules with spermatocysts (Figure 3e,f), whereas in the regenerating phase, there was a proliferation of spermatogonia (Table 2). Undifferentiated spermatogonia were present along the entire gonad, as well as in the testicular periphery (Figure 3d), where they were isolated among cysts or formed the peripheral clusters, which reappeared in the end of this reproductive phase. At the end of this phase, melanomacrophage centres were observed (Figure 3d).

## 3.4 | Reproductive characteristics

The sex ratio was well balanced, not differing significantly, 1:1 (P > 0.05). The size at first maturation ( $L_{50}$ ) was 28.6 cm  $L_T$  for females (c.i. – c.  $L_{95\%} = 27.1-30.6$  cm  $L_T$ ) and 30 cm  $L_T$  for males (c.i. $_{95\%} = 28.5-32.3$  cm  $L_T$ , Figure 4). The size at which 99% ( $L_{99}$ ) of the individuals were mature was 35.7 cm  $L_T$  for females (c.i. $_{95\%} = 30.8-40.5$  cm  $L_T$ ) and 40.8 cm  $L_T$  for males (c.i. $_{95\%} = 33.5-48.1$  cm  $L_T$ ). No significant differences were found in the maturation logistic curves between the sexes ( $\chi 2 = 0.5$ , P = 0.47).

Females and males in the spawning-capable phase were recorded in all bi-monthly periods, indicating a long reproductive period (Figure 5). This phase was more frequent in August/September (36.8% in females and 41.6% in males) and in April/May (41.6% in females and 33.3% in males) (Figure 5). The  $I_G$  for females and males presented two peaks with different magnitudes (Figure 6). The first and highest peak occurred in August–September ( $I_G$ :  $\sigma$ , 2.62 ± 0.48;  $\varphi$ , 1.32 ± 0.1), the period of low rainfall and temperature and decreasing water level, whereas a second peak occurred in April–May ( $I_G$ :  $\sigma$ , 1.36 ± 0.8;  $\varphi$ , 1.48 ± 0.07), the period of low rainfall and high water level and transparency (Figure 6; Supporting Information Figure S1). Such differences in the  $I_G$  among the bi-monthly periods were not significant for both sexes ( $\sigma$ ,  $\chi^2_{0.05}$  = 6.48, P = 0.16;  $\varphi$ ,  $\chi^2_{0.05}$  = 5.13, P = 0.24). Nevertheless, significant negative correlations were found between  $I_G$  and temperature and between  $I_G$  and transparency (Figure 7).

## 4 | DISCUSSION

This study found compelling evidence for an equilibrium reproductive strategy in the non-native predator *C. kelberi* in this isolated reservoir, a likely adaptation over these more than 60 years after its

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TABLE 1	Macroscopic and histological description of the phases of the reproductive cycle of female Cichla kelberi in the Lajes Reservoir, RJ
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Phase	Features of the ovaries		
Thase	Macroscopic	Histological	
Immature	Small ovaries, tube shaped, narrow, translucent, occupying around 10% of the celomatic cavity, with weight between 0.1 and 0.2 g, blood vessels indistinct with oocytes little visible to the naked eye.	Only oogonia and PG oocytes present; thin ovarian wall (OW) and little space between oocytes.	
Developing	Ovaries present a sack-shaped form, opaque, with colour varying from yellow to orange occupying between 15% and 20% of the celomatic cavity, with weight between 0.5 and 16 g, blood irrigation is regular; many small- and average-sized oocytes were observed, which were opaque and yellow.	Oocytes with different phases of development, mainly pre-vitellogenic (CA), early vitellogenic oocytes (Vtg1) and a few oocytes of the reserve stock; thick OW.	
Spawning capable	Large ovaries, voluminous, presents a sack-shaped form, opaque with colouring ranging from yellow to greenish occupying around 50% of the celomatic cavity with weight between 4.9 and 23.2 g, intense vascularization, numerous large opaque and ellipsoid oocytes.	Predominance of oocytes in advanced yolk deposition (Vtg2 and Vtg3), as well as a few oocytes of the reserve stock.	
Regressing	Flaccid ovaries, yellow, opaque, sack-shaped occupying 40% of the celomatic cavity with weight between 1.3 and 3.5 g, haemorrhagic, yellow opaque and elliptic oocytes were observed.	Cellular disorganization with the presence of follicular atresia and postovulatory follicles (POFs).	
Regenerating	Small ovaries, reddish in colour, opaque occupying around 10% of the celomatic cavity with weight between 1.0 and 1.5 g, with a tubular form and haemorrhagic appearance; blood vessels reduced but present.	PG and CA oocytes present, thick OW, degenerating POFs may be present.	

*Note*: Stages: A: atresia; CA: cortical alveolar; PG: primary growth; POF: postovulatory follicle; Vtg1: primary vitellogenic; Vtg2: secondary vitellogenic; Vtg3: tertiary vitellogenic.

TABLE 2 Macroscopic and histological description of the phases of the reproductive cycle of male Cichla kelberi in the Lajes Reservoir, RJ

Phase	Features of the testes		
Thase	Macroscopic	Histological	
Immature	Testes were narrow, string like in shape, long, translucent, whitish occupying around 5% of the celomatic cavity with weight between 0.001 and 0.01 g, apparently poorly irrigated.	Small seminiferous tubules present with primary and secondary spermatogonia (Sg1, Sg2).	
Developing	Testes were larger and longer than in the previous phase, ribbon shaped, narrow, beige colour, occupying around 15% of the celomatic cavity, with weight between 0.02 and 0.9 g poorly irrigated and extending until the end of the swim bladder.	Seminiferous tubules contain spermatogenic cells at different phases of development (Sc1, Sc2, St).	
Spawning capable	Testes were more turgid, with a more elliptical ribbon shape, present a whitish colouring, opaque occupying around 30% of the celomatic cavity, wide and long with weight between 1.5 and 3.8 g, highly irrigated; it was possible to observe semen when the testicle was pressed.	Most spermatozoa (Sz) in the lumen of lobules and/or sperm ducts, little amount of Sc2; presence of melano-macrophage centres (mmc).	
Regressing	Flaccid, filiform and long testes, narrow thickness, demonstrate a reddish colouring with weight between 0.09 and 2 g, haemorrhagic.	Spermatozoa (Sz) present in the lumen of disorganized, empty seminiferous tubules but still have some seminiferous tubules with a small quantity of spermatozoa (Sz).	
Regeneration	Small and filiform testes, pale cream, more consistent than the previous phase with weight between 0.01 and 0.1 g.		

Note: Stages: Sg1: primary spermatogonia; Sg2: secondary spermatogonia; Sc1: primary spermatocyte; Sc2: secondary spermatocyte; St: spermatid; Sz: spermatozoa.

introduction. Spawning occurred in parcels and extended over a long period during the year. Other features of the ovaries and vitellogenic oocytes coincided with the equilibrium reproductive strategy of *C. kelberi*, such as multiple spawning, adhesive eggs and parental care.

The testicular type is lobular, and the distribution of undifferentiated spermatogonia cells characterizes the testes as the type unrestricted spermatogonial according to Grier *et al.* (1980). This pattern is in accordance with those reported by de Siqueira-Silva *et al.* (2013) that



**FIGURE 4** Logistic regression adjusted for the proportion of mature *Cichla kelberi* by total length ( $L_T$ ) at 3 cm intervals. Males and females are indicated in black and light blue, respectively. Estimation of  $L_{50}$  is shown in the dotted red lines

described the testes in C. kelberi as unrestricted spermatogonial lobular, an apomorphic characteristic in the recent groups of teleosts. More recently, de Sigueira-Silva et al. (2019) reported that among the unrestricted type, an intermediate variation in spermatogonial distribution was observed in C. kelberi because although distributed along the entire length of the GE, undifferentiated spermatogonia accumulate at the blind end of the lobules, close to the tunica albuginea. Unrestricted lobular testis was also reported in other cichlids such as Cichlasoma dimerus (Heckel, 1840) by Vázquez et al. (2012) and Cichla intermedia Machado-Allison, 1971, by de Siqueira-Silva (de Siqueira-Silva et al., 2019). This structure seems to be common to other species of the family Cichlidae, such as Labeotropheus trewasae Fryer, 1956, Pterophyllum scalare (Schultze, 1823) and Oreochromis aureus (Steindachner, 1864) (Grier et al., 1980; Parenti & Grier, 2004). The gonadal restructuration and the spermatogonial proliferation of C. kelberi gather at the same time, thus explaining the absence of individuals totally spent after their first reproductive cycle de Sigueira-Silva et al. (2013). In addition, females and males in the spawning-capable phase were observed throughout the year, and spawned females with ovaries with empty and atresic follicles together with oocytes in the four stages of development were observed, indicating that the species spawns in parcels (batch spawn).

Batch spawning over a long period contributes to the reduction in competition among larvae and, after that, among juveniles. Other advantages of batch spawning include increased fertility, dilution of the risk of loss of offspring due to predation or unfavourable environmental conditions (McEvoy & McEvoy, 1992). This type of spawning has been reported for species of *Cichla* in another reservoir in southeastern (Souza *et al.*, 2008) and northeast Brazil (Chellappa *et al.*, 2003). Nevertheless, in natural habitats such as the Amazonian rivers, environmental and resource fluctuations can induce marked reproductive seasonality (Jepsen *et al.*, 1999; Lowe-McConnell, 1969) and total spawning (Souza *et al.*, 2011). The variation in spawning types between environments (natural vs. reservoirs) may be associated with the energy cost to defend the youngs, which is possibly higher in natural habitats because of the presence of natural predators and competitors (Jepsen *et al.*, 1999).



 FIGURE 5
 Bi-monthly changes in frequency distribution of the reproductive phases of female (above) and male (below) Cichla kelberi.

 The number of individuals is indicated above each bar. A/S: August/

 September; O/N: October/November; D/J: December/January; F/M:

 February/March; A/M: April/May; J/J: June/July. (O?); (I)

 Regression, (III) Regenerating, (IIII) Spawning Capable, (IIII)

 Developing, (IIII) Immature



**FIGURE 6** Bi-monthly changes in the gonado-somatic index (means + s.D.) for female and male *Cichla kelberi* in the Lajes Reservoir caught between August 2015 and July 2016. Males and females separated are indicated in black and light blue, respectively. (---) Female, (---) Male

A balanced sex ratio was found for *C. kelberi* in the Lajes Reservoir. The sex ratio varies considerably among the non-native populations of *Cichla* spp. (*e.g.*, Chellappa *et al.*, 2003; Jepsen

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**FIGURE 7** Scatterplot diagram and trend line for Spearman's correlation coefficients between the gonado-somatic index *I*<sub>G</sub> (vertical axis) and environmental variables (horizontal axis); logarithm<sub>10</sub> transformed data

et al., 1999; Souza et al., 2008; Vieira et al., 2009; Zaret, 1980). Jepsen et al. (1999) reported, e.g., that males were almost twice as numerous as females, whereas Souza et al. (2008) reported that females were almost thrice as numerous as males. Nevertheless, there is no apparent explanation for this divergent pattern. Generally, sex ratio can be affected over time and space by differentiated mortality for males and females, competition for partners, environmental pollutants, among other factors (Jennions & Fromhage, 2017). Regarding size at first maturation, the values found for C. kelberi in the present study  $(9 = 27.1 - 30.6 \text{ and } 3 = 28.5 - 32.3 \text{ cm } L_T)$  were relatively higher than those observed for Cichla spp. in other reservoirs in southeastern Brazil ( $\sigma = 19.2-21.5$  and Q = 20.7-23.5 cm  $L_T$ , minimum-maximum) as reported by Chellappa et al. (2003), Gomiero and Braga (2004a), Gomiero et al. (2009), Luiz et al. (2011) and Souza et al. (2008). The stable hydrological conditions and low densities of predators and native competitors in the Lajes Reservoir, e.g., could have favoured a greater investment in somatic growth before reproduction. On the contrary, the population of *C. kelberi* in the Lajes Reservoir is particularly exposed to sport fishing and cannibalism (Santos *et al.*, 2011), factors known to negatively affect the maturation size in fish (Enberg *et al.*, 2012). Therefore, it is crucial to understand how stable hydrological conditions, fishing and cannibalism, interact and affect the first maturation size. It is a complex task which should be better understood in future studies.

C. kelberi had a long reproductive period in the Lajes Reservoir, with mature females and males coexisting with specimens at different stages of gonadal development throughout the year. Local environmental features, such as clear water (transparency >3.5 m), high retention time (300 days), predominance of lentic conditions, low-level fluctuation. ( $\approx$ 4 m during the study period) and high availability of spawning substrates, are characteristics that make this reservoir a relatively stable environment and conducive to the long breeding period

found for C. kelberi. The observation of mature males and females during most of the year seems to be a general consensus for nonnative Cichla populations in altered environments in Brazil (Chellapa et al., 2003; Gomiero & Braga, 2004a; Gomiero et al., 2009; Vieira et al. 2009; Normando et al. 2009; Luiz et al., 2011; Souza et al., 2008), the United States (Shafland, 1999) and Panama (Zaret, 1980). A similar pattern was also reported for populations in native ranges of distribution (but impacted by dams), as in the cases of Cichla piquiti Kullander & Ferreira, 2006, in the Lajeado Reservoir (Tocantins-Araguaia River basin; Marto et al., 2015) and Cichla vazzoleri Kullander & Ferreira, 2006, in the Balbina Reservoir (Central Amazon; Horie, 2013). Although these studies in altered environments indicate that reproduction can potentially occur over a long period, reproductive peaks vary considerably within and between populations, at times and under contrasting environmental conditions. The long reproductive period observed in this study for C. kelberi is corroborated with other populations, suggesting a strong invasive potential of non-native populations of Cichla and the ability to adapt to different hydroclimate conditions.

In the case of natural populations in environments preserved in the Amazon biome (with dams absent), there is evidence of a different reproductive pattern, with greater seasonality associated with the period of rain/flood in well-defined annual cycles (Jepsen et al., 1999; Lowe-McConnell, 1969; Muñoz et al., 2006; Santos et al., 2011; Winemiller, 2001). These differences observed between native populations in conserved areas (more defined seasonal cycle) and native or non-native populations in altered areas (less-defined seasonal cycle) may be related to changes in the cyclical flood pattern of habitats imposed by dams (Hurd et al., 2016; Junk, 1989), decreasing environmental seasonality, favouring an equilibrium strategy (Mims & Olden, 2012). The construction of reservoirs facilitates the establishment of aquatic non-native species, which are 2.4-300 times more likely to occur in impoundments than in natural lakes (Johnson et al., 2008). Reproductive plasticity within a balance strategy can make populations resilient or even anti-fragile, *i.e.*, not only support environmental changes imposed by dams but also benefit from them.

The reproductive success and the establishment of non-native populations of Cichla spp. have caused severe and widespread impacts on native communities. Demographic dynamics of C. kelberi, especially juvenile pulse periods, is one of the main factors underlying the loss of diversity (Pelicice et al., 2015). Even the presence of refuges, such as aquatic macrophytes, does not seem to be sufficient to limit the impact on native prey (Kovalenko et al., 2010). In addition, prey seems to exhibit low morphological response (Geladi et al., 2019) to a predator with variable vision in variable environments (Escobar-Camacho et al., 2019). Prey collapse, reduction in abundance, loss of small fish and other damage persisted for several decades because of the introduction of Cichla species in tropical areas (Sharpe et al., 2017). The preference for small prey and juveniles is related to limitations imposed by the morphology of the digestive tract of adults (Burress & Wainwright, 2020), which means that many sympatric fish are not proportionally consumed (Hill et al., 2004). A key issue is to understand how Cichla maintains self-sustaining populations in the long term even after resource depletion. Cannibalism seems to be one of the main keys to answering this question, and a long reproductive period can be the basis for this strategy. In the Lajes Reservoir, e.g., cannibalism rates (adults preying on juveniles) are high and reach up to 54.2% of the index of relative importance (Santos et al., 2011). Cannibalism is more intense in non-native populations, especially in reservoirs, where resources are less abundant or have been primarily uprooted by excessive predation (Pereira et al., 2017). The highest rates of cannibalism occur during the reproduction peak (e.g., Santos, 2001; Gomiero & Braga, 2004b). It is particularly interesting that behaviour that seems so contrary to care-i.e., eating one's young-can in some cases broaden the conditions under which care can evolve (Klug & Bonsall, 2019). In this context, a long reproductive period can make cannibalism viable throughout the year. This complex retro-feeding (i.e., reproducing and eating) can circumvent resource scarcity in reservoirs, make populations self-sustaining in the long run and further complicate management.

Overall, peacock bass has reproductive characteristics associated with sedentary local populations, long breeding seasons and parental which fit to the equilibrium care strategy (Winemiller, 1989). Evidence suggests that equilibrium strategy is associated with decreased hydrological variability and increasing environmental stability (Mims & Olden, 2012). Reservoir construction interrupts river continuity, creates new lentic environments and commonly promotes greater water stability. Franco et al. (2018) reported that increased reservoir water retention time, when combined with warmer and more transparent waters, can increase the abundance of peacock bass. The advantage of the strategy of equilibrium in altered environments may be associated to the fact that the lentic conditions and greater hydrological stability of the reservoirs promote adequate conditions for nest building and protection of juveniles (Marto et al., 2015; Muñoz et al., 2006; Winemiller, 2001). Consequently, the strategy of equilibrium and plasticity in reproductive traits may be the main factors inherent in the successful colonization and settlement of the peacock bass in the environments in which the species were introduced.

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#### CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

#### AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION

I.D.G. and G.H.S.G. conceived the study; G.H.S.G., A.A.N. and F.S.A. participated in the fieldwork; F.G.A., A.A.N. and G.H.S.G. analysed the data; F.G.A. and G.H.S.G. wrote the manuscript, with contributions from I.D.G. and F.S.A.

## COMPLIANCE WITH ETHICAL STANDARDS

The authors state that the research was conducted according to ethical standards.

#### AVAILABILITY OF DATA

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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#### SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of this article.

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