1	Does semen quality of Colossoma macropomum change the productivity of
2	larvae during the reproductive period?
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17 18	Keywords: Characidae, Spermatozoa, Abiotic factors, Reproductive period
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20	Abstract: This study aimed to analyze the sperm quality of <i>Colossoma macropomum</i> ,
21	during the reproductive period. A total of 23 males of <i>C. macropomum</i> in the breeding
22	season were used. Male gametes were collected after the hormone induction protocol
23	using volumetric syringes for quantitative and qualitative analyses throughout the
24	reproductive season, the fish were captured every 15 days. The following parameters were
25	evaluated: volume, motility rate, motility time, sperm concentration, sperm morphology,
26	fertilization rate, and hatching rate. There was no effect of period within season for semen
27	volume, motility time and sperm concentration. For motility rate a quadratic effect was
28	observed between collection periods. As for sperm morphology, there were differences
29	(p < 0.05) in the probability of occurrences of normal spermatozoa, primary and secondary
30	abnormalities as a function of collection period. For the fertilization rate a quadratic effect
31	was verified and the hatching rate declined linearly throughout the reproductive period.
32	Changes in the qualitative parameters of C. macropomum semen during the reproductive
33	period were observed. In terms of the sperm quality of C. macropomum, the aging process
34	of the spermatozoa is evident and consequently interferes in the fertilization and hatching
35	rates, being more accentuated in the last month of the reproductive season.
36	

37 **1. Introduction**

Among the groups of species cultivated in Brazil, the Characiformes stand out because of the texture and flavor of their meat and the good carcass yield. The tambaqui *Colossoma macropomum* is the most cultivated endemic species in Brazil (Lima *et al.*, 2020). Today the species is the main one in commercial importance in the Amazon state (PeixeBR, 2021). The fingerlings are obtained through artificial reproduction by hormonal application, characteristic of rheophilic fish with reproduction occurring in the months (From September to March) between spring and summer (Vieira *et al.*, 1999).

The use of gametes with a good sperm quality-quantitative index of fish broodstock is strategic to ensure the production of "quality" fingerlings for aquaculture (Bromage and Roberts, 1995). According to Beirão *et al.* (2009) sperm quality may be related to inefficient reproduction and propagation in some fish species. In commercial culture, there is much doubt regarding the quality and quantity of semen, which may be interfering with the fertilizing capacity in the process of artificial reproduction, consequently impacting the production of fish fingerlings (Rurangwa *et al.*, 2004).

52 Studies have shown that there may be changes in gamete quality of fish in captivity 53 (Murgas et al., 2012). Streit Jr. et al. (2008) found high rates of sperm pathology in 54 gilthead sea bream (Salminus maxillosus) semen quality parameters in captivity. Egger et 55 al. (2021) evaluating seminal parameters of Prochilodus lineatus between the November 56 and March, observed higher sperm concentration in November, better motility rate in 57 November, January and February, and longer duration of motility time in January. 58 However, changes in semen quality characteristics may occur during the reproductive 59 period (Fauvel et al., 1999). Stress in captive fish can have a negative effect on 60 reproductive function and gamete quality (Papadaki et al., 2008), as has been 61 demonstrated for Hippoglossus hippoglossus (Babiak et al., 2006) and Mastacembelus 62 mastacembelus (Sahinoz et al., 2007). Therefore, the objective of the study was to identify 63 the best reproductive period of captive-bred C. macropomum through semen quality 64 analysis.

65

2. Materials and methods

66 2.1 Place of experiment

67 The study was conducted in a commercial fish farm located in Rondônia, Brazil
68 (11°41'46 .95 "S and 61°13'47 .50 "O). Air temperature and rainfall index data were
69 collected from the Cacoal-CPTEC weather station (latitude -11.48 and longitude -61.37).

The average, maximum and minimum temperature and rainfall index data collectedduring the year during the breeding season are shown in Figure 1.



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Figure 1. Monthly variation of precipitation (mm) and air temperature (°C) obtained from
the Cacoal-CPTEC weather station (latitude -11.48 and longitude -61.37 (Source:
<u>http://www.agritempo.gov.br/agroclima/pesquisaWeb</u>).

76 2.2 Animals and experimental design

The experiment was conducted, from a population of 80 broodstock, aged five years and with an average weight of $(7.4 \pm 1.5 \text{ kg})$. The broodstock were stocked in two earthen ponds of 2,000m² (forty broodstock in each pond. The fish were fed once a day throughout the year (adjusted to 1% of body weight each month) a commercial diet with 81 36% crude protein and 2900 kcal of digestible energy. The water quality parameters, 82 average temperature (28±1°C) and dissolved oxygen (6 mg/L), were measured daily. The 83 average monthly rainfall was 338.5 mm during the experimental period (90 days), The 84 average photoperiod at the experiment site was in November 13.1, December 13.6, and 85 January 13.2 hours of daylight (Source: https://pt.climate-data.org/america-do-86 sul/brasil/rondonia/cacoal-31797/#climate-table).

87 During the historical reproductive period of the species in the study region (early 88 November to late January), a total of 23 males were selected from five samples with an 89 interval of fifteen days between them. The selected animals had secondary reproductive 90 characteristics of migratory fish, a semen release with a slight compression on the 91 abdomen in the craniocaudal direction. All broodstock selected had microchips 92 (AnimalTAG[®]) inserted below the dorsal fin, thus allowing individualized monitoring 93 throughout the experiment. For sampling, four animals were selected in the first (7.8 ± 1.3) 94 kg), seven in the second (7.2 \pm 1.5 kg), four in the third (6.3 \pm 0.1 kg), four in the fourth $(8.9 \pm 2.5 \text{ kg})$ and finally four animals in the fifth and last sampling (6.6 \pm 0.5 \text{ kg}). After 95 96 each sampling, the reproducers were submitted to hormonal induction with 2.5 mg/Kg of 97 body weight, in a single dose of carp pituitary extract (Zaniboni-Filho and Weingartne, 98 2007). Semen was collected from each animal after 215 hours/degrees $28 \pm 1^{\circ}$ C (Souza 99 et al., 2018).

100 2.3 Evaluation of fresh sperm

101 After abdominal massage, the semen released from each individual fish was 102 collected in 10 mL syringes by suction near the urogenital orifice (Billard et al., 1995) 103 and the Seminal Volume (ml) was measured. Seminal samples were analyzed according 104 to the quali-quantitative parameters described below.

105 Immediately after collection, each semen sample was subjectively evaluated to 106 check a possible previous activation of the spermatozoa by contaminants or water. A 107 sample of activated sperm (2 μ L) was obtained by diluting 20 μ L of sperm in 400 μ L of distilled water and placed on an optical microscope slide. It was then covered with a cover 108 109 slip and immediately evaluated for sperm motility rate under a light microscope (Nikon[®] 110 E200, Tokyo, Japan) at X 400 amplification, and scored from 0 to 100%. For motility 111 time (seconds), a stopwatch was started when sperm motility started, marking the time 112 elapsed until the last sperm stopped moving in the optical field at X 400 amplification.

113 For the sperm concentration and morphology, the samples of each male were fixed in 10% buffered formaldehyde solution at a 1:1000 dilution (1 µL sperm: 999 µL 114 115 formaldehyde solution). An aliquot (10 µL) of diluted sperm was pipetted into each 116 counting field of a Neubauer hemocytometer chamber (Olen®, Kasvi, São José dos 117 Pinhais, Brazil) covered by a coverslip, a waiting period of 15 min for cells to stabilize. 118 Using a microscope at X 400 amplification (Nikon[®] E200, Tokyo, Japan) and a manual 119 counter, the gametes were quantified by counting 10 squares. After cell counting, the 120 sperm concentration was calculated using the following equation (Sanches et al., 2011):

121 Spermatozoa mL⁻¹ = $\left(\frac{\sum SPTZ}{10 \ s.c}\right) x \left(\frac{25 \ t.s \ x \ dilution \ x \ 1000}{chamber \ depth \ (mm)}\right)$

122 Spermatozoa mL⁻¹: Number of spermatozoa per milliliter of sperm

123 \sum SPTZ: Total number of spermatozoa counted

124 10 s.c: Squares counted

125 25 t.s: Total squares

126 Dilution: Factor of dilution of the sperm by the fixative.

127 Chamber depth: Normality 0.1 mm

128 For evaluation of sperm morphology the samples previously were diluted in 129 Bengal Rose dye (4%) (Merk[®], Darmstadt, Germany) at a dilution of 1:10 in a plastic 130 tube (1.5 mL). Smears made with 20 µL of stained sperm were evaluated under an optical 131 microscope X 1000 amplification (Nikon® E200, Tokyo, Japan) (Streit Jr. et al., 2004). 132 Spermatozoa (n=200) were evaluated in each sample and the number of normal and 133 abnormal cells was expressed as a percentage. Sperm morphologies were classified 134 according to Bloom (1973) and Barth and Oko (1989) in Primaries: degenerate head, 135 broken tail, curled and degenerate; and Secondary: folded tail, microcephaly and 136 macrocephaly, cytoplasmic drops, in addition to a loose head and tail.

137 2.4 Fertilization and Hatch Rate

138 To evaluate the fecundation capacity of spermatozoa during the reproductive 139 season, three females of *C. macropomum* were induced in each of the five male samplings 140 performed. Thus, three females were matched with 4; 7; 4; 4 and 4 males (1; 2; 3; 4 and 5 141 weeks, respectively). The females were induced intramuscularly with carp pituitary 142 extract, 5.5 mg CPE/Kg of body weight divided into two fractions, 10% of the total 143 dosage at the first application and the remainder (90%) 12 hours after the initial 144 application (Souza *et al.*, 2018). Oocyte extrusion occurred after 9 hours ($28 \pm 1^{\circ}$ C) and 145 a six gram sample of the oocyte mass from each animal was fertilized by each male semen

146 sample, a volume of 0.1 mL of semen from each animal was standardized. Then the eggs 147 were laid in 60-liter incubators (individualized for the eggs from each male). After the 148 closure of the blastula (six hours of incubation at $28 \pm 1^{\circ}$ C), the fertilization rate was 149 estimated from three counts of three samples of 100 eggs, evaluating the viable and non-150 viable eggs. As for the hatching rate, after counting the fertilization rate, 100 viable 151 embryos were transferred from each of the 60-liter incubators to smaller 3-liter 152 incubators. After five hours, in these 3 L incubators ($28 \pm 1^{\circ}$ C), all hatched larvae from 153 the initial sample of 100 embryos were counted. Then, the difference of hatched (after 14 154 degree-hours of incubation hatching occurred) and unhatched larvae resulted in the 155 Hatching Rate and then the larvae were classified as: normal (regular movement); 156 defective (no vigorous movement when moving or notochord deformity) and dead (larvae 157 hatched but dead at the time of counting).

158 2.5 Scanning Electron Microscopy

159 For scanning electron microscopy used the technique performed by Moitra et al., (1987), samples with a volume of 10 μ L of "in natura" semen were fixed in 990 μ L in 160 161 2.5% Glutaraldehyde solution, with 0.1M cacodylate buffer at pH 7.2 and refrigerated at 162 5°C until the moment of dehydration (sample processing). The samples were then 163 centrifuged at 10,000 rpm/3 minutes and washed with cacodylate buffer three times. 164 Dehydration occurred in increasing alcohol series, going through concentrations of 50, 165 70, 80, 90, and 95%/10 minutes in each step and three baths in 100% alcohol/10 minutes 166 in each exposure. The samples were fixed with L-polysin on coverslips and drying was 167 achieved in a BAL-TEC CPD 030 Critical Point Dryer using liquid CO². The fragments 168 containing the semen samples were mounted on aluminum metal bases (stubs) and then 169 metallized with gold-palladium ions in Shimadzu IC-50 Ion Coater. In the electron 170 microscopy procedures, the material was examined and photographed with a Superscan -Scanning Electron Microscope (Shimadzu SS-550) 171

172 2.6 Statistical Analysis

The data on seminal quality, fertilization and hatching, as well as the evaluation of the hatched larvae, were submitted to homogeneity (Levene's test) and normality (Shapiro Wilk and Kolmogorov Smirnov) analysis. For data that showed normal distribution, a one-way analysis of variance was applied, followed by Tukey's test. For the nonparametric data, a Kruskal Wallis analysis was applied, followed by Dunn's test. 178Regression curves were fitted to describe the behavior of the variables as a function179of the months. Before estimating the regression equations, data normality was tested.180Thus, regression models were applied to the variables of seminal quality, fertilization181evaluation and also on larval quality. Variables adjusted to the simple linear regression182model and variables adjusted to the polynomial regression model (quadratic) were183identified. The variables that will fit a regression model significantly (p < 0.05) are shown184in the results.

185 **3. Results**

3.1 Qualitative characteristics of C. macropomum semen throughout the reproductiveseason

188 No significant difference was observed between reproductive periods in the 189 parameters of seminal volume (p = 0.2177) and sperm concentration (p = 0.4936) (Figure 190 2A and B). Motility rate was different (p = 0.0165) between reproductive periods, with 191 the highest value observed in the second collection (95.71±3.45%), differing from the 192 first collection (77.5 \pm 6.5%) (Figure 2C). Similarly, motility time was different (p =193 0.0457) between reproductive periods, with the longest time observed also in the second 194 collection (64.86 \pm 9.60s), which differed from the time observed in the first collection 195 $(49.75 \pm 6.13s)$ (Figure 2D).



Figure 2. Sperm characteristics of *Colossoma macropomum* throughout the reproductive
period. a) seminal volume (mL); b) sperm concentration (Cells/mL); c) motility rate (%);
d) motility time (seconds). Different letters indicate significant difference by Dunn's test
(motility rate), and by Tukey's test (motility time).

203 The sperm morphology parameters of C. macropomum throughout the 204 reproductive period can be observed in Figure 3. The percentage of sperm with normal 205 morphology was not different between the reproductive periods (p = 0.2067), as well as 206 the percentage of secondary sperm abnormalities (p = 0.7011). The primary sperm 207 abnormalities, were different (p = 0.0028) between the reproductive periods, being the 208 last of the five collections the highest value observed (59.5 \pm 1.29%), which was 209 statistically different from the second ($40.86 \pm 13.58\%$), third ($38.75 \pm 5.85\%$) and fourth 210 $(30.50 \pm 1.92\%)$ collections.





212 Figure 3. Sperm morphology of *Colossoma macropomum* throughout the reproductive

213 period. a) Sperm with normal morphology (%); b) Primary abnormalities (%); c)

214 Secondary abnormalities (%). Different letters indicate significant difference by Tukey215 test.

216 The results obtained for the reproductive parameters and larval quality can be seen 217 in Figure 4. There was a difference between the reproductive periods for the variables 218 fertilization rate (p < 0.0001) and larvae with normal morphology (p = 0.0122). In the 219 fertilization rate there was a decrease in the last collection performed throughout the 220 reproductive period (Figure 4A). Similarly, the percentage of larvae with normal 221 morphology was also lower in the last reproduction performed during the reproductive 222 period but differing only from the second reproduction (Figure 4C). There was no 223 difference between the reproductive periods for the hatching rate (p = 0.1276), the 224 percentage of dead larvae (p = 0.5660) and the percentage of defective larvae (p =225 0.1671).



Figure 4. Reproductive parameters of *Colossoma macropomum* throughout the reproductive period. a) fertilization rate (%); b) hatching rate (%); c) percentage of larvae with normal morphology (%); d) percentage of dead larvae (%); e) percentage of defective larvae (%). Different letters indicate significant difference by Dunn's test.

232 *3.2 Sperm Morphology*

233 Spermatozoa of *C. macropomum* with morphological alterations coiled tail; 234 folded, broken and loose head and tail were identified by scanning electron microscopy 235 analysis during the reproductive period of the species (Figure 5).

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- 238





Figure 5. Illustrations of morphologies obtained by scanning electron microscopy of *Colossoma macropomum* spermatozoa throughout the reproductive season. (A) normal; (B) tail curled at the end; (C) tail folded; (D) tail folded at the end; (E) tail broken; (F) tail and head loose.

3.3. Regression models are fitted to describe the behavior of the variables as a functionof the reproductive period

248 The regression models significantly adjusted the variables studied are shown in 249 Figure 6. We observed a quadratic behavior of the motility rate variables (Figure 6a; $r^2 =$ 0.21; p = 0.0402), spermatozoa with normal morphology (Figure 6b; $r^2 = 0.27$; p = 0.27250 251 0.0161), spermatozoa with primary abnormalities (Figure 6c; $r^2 = 0.36$; p = 0.0049), 252 fertilization rate (Figure 6d; r2 = 0.56; p = 0.0240) and larvae with normal morphology 253 (Figure 6f; $r^2 = 0.68$; p = 0.0176). A negative linear behavior was observed for the 254 hatching rate throughout the reproductive period (Figure 6e; r2 = 0.28; p = 0.0209), and 255 for the percentage of defective larvae a positive linear behavior was observed (Figure 6g; 256 $r^2 = 0.31; p = 0.0159$). 257



Figure. 6. Behavior of variables studied throughout the reproductive period of *Colossoma macropomum*, adjusted by regression models.

3.4. Pearson's correlation coefficients between the reproductive variables of Colossoma
 macropomum throughout the reproductive period

264 For sperm quality variables, we observed a positive correlation between motility 265 rate and motility time (Figure 7a, r=0.50; p=0.0080); motility rate and sperm 266 concentration (Figure 7b, r=0.37; p=0.0420); and the volume and presence of 267 spermatozoa with primary abnormalities (Figure 7c, r=0.45; p=0.0150). On the other 268 hand, we observed a negative correlation between the percentage of normal sperm and 269 sperm with primary abnormalities (Figure 7d, r=-0.58; p=0.0020); the percentage of 270 normal sperm and sperm with secondary abnormalities (Figure 7e, r=-0.42; p=0.0220); 271 sperm concentration and sperm with secondary abnormalities (Figure 7f, r=-0.39; 272 p=0.0300); and between spermatozoa with primary and secondary abnormalities (Figure 273 7g, r=-0.39; *p*=0.0350).



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Figure 7. Significant Pearson's correlation coefficient between sperm quality variables of *Colossoma macropomum*.

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When we evaluated the correlation between sperm quality variables and fertilization capacity/larvae quality (Figure 8), we observed a positive correlation only 280 between percentage of normal sperm and larval mortality (r=0.50; p=0.0160). 281 Meanwhile, we observed a negative correlation between seminal volume and fertilization 282 rate (r=-0.58; p=0.0040); the percentage of spermatozoa with primary abnormalities and 283 fertilization rate (r=-0.65; p=0.0010); the percentage of spermatozoa with primary 284 abnormalities and the hatching rate (r=-0.45; p=0.0270); seminal volume and percentage 285 of larvae with normal morphology (r=-0.41; p=0.0470); and the percentage of 286 spermatozoa with primary abnormalities and percentage of larvae with normal 287 morphology (r=-0.44; *p*=0.0330).

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Figure 8. Significant Pearson's correlation coefficient between sperm quality variables,
fertilization variables and larvae quality of *Colossoma macropomum*.

When we evaluated the correlation between variables related to fertilization capacity and larval quality (Figure 9), only significant positive correlations were observed. There was a positive correlation between fertilization and hatching rates (r=0.76; p=0.0001); fertilization rate and larvae with normal morphology (r=0.70; p=0.0010); hatching rate and larvae with normal morphology (r=0.80; p<0.0001); fertilization rate and percentage of dead larvae (r=0.42; p=0.0410); and hatching rate and percentage of dead larvae (r=0.40; p=0.0470).





Figure 9. Significant Pearson's correlation coefficient between fertilization variables and
larvae quality of *Colossoma macropomum*.

303

4. Discussion

305 Low viability of larvae at the end of the reproductive period of *C. macropomum*

306 was observed, this result may be more linked to the females that are normally in atresia 307 at this stage, in the present study the previous evaluation of the germinal vesicle in the 308 females was not carried out to verify that they had not started the regression process, 309 however, the fact that a motility rate above 90% was observed in males, the low 310 productivity of larvae at the end of the reproductive period must be more linked to the 311 females. Thus, we cannot make a direct relationship between the reduction in the 312 percentage of normal spermatozoa at the same time as the increase in sperm with primary 313 pathologies and the decrease in fertilization and hatching rates, as well as in the 314 production of normal larvae that was observed in the study, for this point of discussion it 315 is suggested that further investigations evaluating the quality of the germinal vesicle of 316 the females be carried out, to prove that there is no regression process. The variation in 317 the values of qualitative and quantitative seminal parameters of C. macropomum, was 318 expected, and with some exceptions at the beginning of the reproductive period, the best 319 seminal quality was obtained in the middle of the reproductive period as it is possible to 320 observe in the simulation of Figure 10, based on the hypothetical representation proposed 321 by Babiak et al. (2006).



Figure. 10. Hypothetical representation, from the results obtained, of the variation in the qualitative and quantitative characteristics of *Colossoma macropomum* semen during the reproductive period of the species from November to January. Adapted from Babiak *et al.* (2006) with data obtained with *Colossoma macropomum* in this study.

4.1 Qualitative and quantitative semen parameters, fertilization rate, hatching and
 morphology of the larvae

330 In a classical model expected for the behavior of sperm motility rate during the 331 reproductive cycle, by absolute values increase until a certain period and subsequently 332 decreases, as observed Bondarenko et al. (2018) in Esox lucius L, and Nynca et al. (2012) 333 in Oncorhynchus mykiss. The negative quadratic behavior was also observed in the 334 present work, reaching its maximum point in the final third of the period, according to 335 the suggested equation. If, on the one hand, at the end of the reproductive period, the 336 progressive decrease in motility rate may be related to sperm deterioration, the lower rate 337 at the beginning of the period is not clear. It may be related to the low concentration of 338 circulating hormone for sperm maturation or even the low quantity of primary and 339 secondary spermatids that give rise to spermatozoa. On the other hand, this fact was not 340 clear in this study, because there was no variation in sperm concentration throughout the 341 reproductive period.

342 In general, in fish, germ cells pass rapidly through spermiogenesis and meiotic 343 phases, making the time required to produce a spermatozoon very fast (Nóbrega et al., 344 2009). Thus, in migratory species like C. macropomum, sperm remain for long periods 345 stored inside the gonads, since they start being produced in the winter months (Grier and 346 Taylor, 1998; Brown-Peterson et al., 2002; Batlouni et al., 2006) to be released only in 347 the short spawning period. From this context, it is reasonable to assume that regardless of 348 the management and the abiotic factors in which the animals are susceptible in fact, that 349 sperm quality decreases mainly with respect to sperm stored longer in the gonads (Beirão 350 et al., 2019). From the concept of germ cell recruitment, formation, storage and 351 subsequent release of spermatozoa, the phenomena observed in the seminal parameters 352 of C. macropomum, can be explained with greater logic. For, the coincidence of the 353 negative quadratic behavior of sperm motility rate and the percentage of normal 354 spermatozoa, contrary to the incidence of primary abnormalities (positive quadratic), 355 there is a clear indication of sperm aging at the end of the reproductive season. This 356 observation is documented by numerous authors, (Billard et al., 1997; Dreanno et al., 357 1999) for D. labrax; Mylonas et al. (2003) for Pagrus pagrus and Babiak et al., (2006) 358 for *H. hippoglossus*, who further relate the morphological changes to biochemical 359 changes that result in poor sperm quality in terms of quantitative parameters and fertilization capacity. The observation of Suquet et al. (1998) reinforces as to the result 360

of the aging process, which leads to deterioration in sperm morphology, including in themidpiece region, between the sperm head and tail.

363 Although motility rate has always been related as a preponderant factor for seminal 364 quality, the results obtained with C. macropomum, reaffirm the idea of the prevalence of 365 morphological changes as decisive, due to the "aging" of the spermatozoon and, therefore, 366 will result in low motility rate. In this sense it is pertinent the observation of Babiak et al. 367 (2006) about the aging of spermatozoa from H. hippoglossus, resulting in physical 368 decomposition, observing loose tails, and destroyed heads, at the end of the reproductive 369 season. The head region of *Scophthalmus maximus* spermatozoa also underwent the most 370 morphological changes in aged spermatozoa, including chromatin condensation (Suquet 371 et al., 1998). The same authors cite that the changes observed in semen quantitative 372 parameters during the reproductive season may reflect the intensive outcome of the three 373 processes involved within semen formation: spermiogenesis, hydration and cell 374 decomposition. In addition, embryo survival reduces significantly, indicating that the 375 aging processes of the sperm reduce the capacity for zygote formation. This fact was 376 evidenced in this study, which observed a reduction in fertilization rate, hatching and 377 percentage of normal larvae, along with an increase in deformed larvae.

378 The influence of seminal parameters, especially sperm morphology on fertilization 379 rate was evidenced in this study, as well as observed by Galo et al., (2019) for P. 380 *mesopotamicus*. Although the seminal parameters did not show influence on the hatching 381 rate, a strong correlation (r2 = 0.5906; p = 0.0001) between the rates (fertilization and 382 hatching) was noted. A fact that confirms the observation of Varela Junior et al., (2012), 383 that the fertilization and hatching rates of C. macropomum semen were highly correlated 384 (r = 0.87; p < 0.01) in his study. The same author cites that to estimate the in vivo sperm 385 quality of C. macropomum after thawing only one of these assessments is necessary. 386 Rizzo *et al.* (2003) observed in *Prochilodus marggravii*, a negative correlation (r = -0.82) 387 between fertilization rate and the percentage of deformed larvae, occurring during storage 388 "in situ" (26°C). Springate *et al.* (1984) observed a high correlation between fertility rate 389 and the percentage of deformed larvae, which according to these authors may be sufficient 390 to indicate the performance of embryos and larvae through the fertilization rate.

391 *4.3 Influence of abiotic factors on the reproductive period*

The reproductive process in fish depends on the interaction of endogenous (hormones) and exogenous factors, such as temperature, precipitation, photoperiod, water column level, among others (Rotili *et al.*, 2021). Hardly a single abiotic factor influences 395 the reproductive physiology of fish due to the complexity of the reproductive process 396 (Barbieri et al., 2000). In King et al. (2016) study with different wild fish species, it was 397 proven that it is necessary to consider that multiple abiotic factors in the process of gamete 398 release during the reproductive period. The role of environmental factors in the 399 synchronization of reproductive cycles, emphasizing the influence of photoperiod and 400 water temperature in this process, was discussed by Bye, (1984). According to this author, 401 fish living outside the tropics, present cycles, such that larvae and young are produced 402 when environmental conditions are favorable for survival.

403 In this study, sperm motility rate behaved in correlation with temperature (°C) and 404 rainfall (mm) oscillations during the breeding season. According to Akhter et al. (2020) 405 spawning seasons are variable and species-specific and could be related to variations in 406 the water temperature, photoperiod, spawning grounds and water currents. This 407 conjunction of abiotic factors is confirmed by Lopes et al. (2018) who attributed trigger 408 for the initiation of the reproductive process in Prochilodus costatus, the rainfall, 409 hydrological fluctuations, and lunar phase. Another species of Characidae, Prochilodus 410 argentus, Boncompagni-Júnior et al. (2012) identified a positive correlation for males 411 and females of the species between gonadossomatic indices with rainfall, turbidity, and 412 water temperature.- The same behavior was observed by Vazzoler et al. (1997) for 413 dominant fishes in the upper Paraná River floodplain. According to Lowe-McConnell, (1975) teleosts from tropical and subtropical regions have a close relationship between 414 415 reproductive period and rainy seasons, this was confirmed in the study by Zaniboni Filho 416 et al. (2017) with Salminus brasiliensis in the Uruguay River basin.

417 Querol et al. (2004), investigating abiotic factors in the reproductive dynamics of 418 Loricariichthys platymetopon, found a higher gonadosomatic index for males in the 419 months of November and December, coinciding with the period of temperature elevation. 420 In the present study, the gonadosomatic index was not evaluated, because the reproducers 421 were from a private property, and sacrificing them was not possible. However, the 422 qualitative and quantitative semen parameters were analyzed, observing better sperm 423 motility rate and percentage of normal spermatozoa during the period of increasing 424 temperature and rainfall index (December and January), coinciding with the same period 425 of the best gonadossomatic index of L. platymetopon (Querol et al., 2004) and S. 426 maxillosus (Barbieri et al., 2000). Querol et al. (2002), studying L. platymetopon and 427 Melo *et al.* (1995) with L. anus observed that, in general, the increasing temperature 428 conditions are linked to the period of greater reproductive activity, directly influencing 429 gonadal maturation. According to Barbieri *et al.* (2000) there is a huge and complex 430 interaction between biological events among themselves and between these and 431 environmental events, and there is a need for further research in this area of study.

432

433 **5. Conclusion**

The qualitative and quantitative parameters of the semen of *C. macropomum* suffer alterations during the reproductive period, which may influence the fertilization rates and consequently the hatching rates. The best rates of sperm parameters were observed in the first two months of the reproductive period, consequently the best time to perform the reproduction of the species.

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