

# Biomass Increase in Plankton Populations Induced by Organic Fertilizers Applied during the Reproduction of Common Carp

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## Abstract

Artificial fertilization of nursery ponds used for nursing postlarvae to fry is a common procedure used in hatcheries to enhance productivity. A 2 ha nursery pond at the Martinesti hatchery was fertilized with 500 kg fermented manure to stimulate phytoplankton, and consequently zooplankton production. A sharp rise in nutrient levels was imminent. Nitrate and phosphate levels has risen tenfold from 0.5 to 2 and 5 mg l<sup>-1</sup>, respectively from 0.05 to 0.5 mg l<sup>-1</sup>. Although nutrient levels kept rising, phytoplankton biomass remained steady, then fell from 0.6 to 0.1 g m<sup>-3</sup>, while zooplankton biomass has increased from 5 to 14 and 64 g m<sup>-3</sup> during the first 4 weeks of postlarval development.

**Keywords:** artificial fertilization, nutrients, phytoplankton, primary productivity, zooplankton

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## 1. Introduction

Artificially controlled natural reproduction of common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) is still a standard procedure in Europe. During this process, different ponds are used for fish spawning, egg incubation, hatching and rearing the hatchlings to postlarval stage and nursing postlarvae to fry and fingerlings. The larval and postlarval stage are the most important in the production process. Larvae and postlarvae are sensitive to changes in water parameters and require appropriate quantity and quality of food. Naturally occurring food is preferred in this stage of development and mortality rates can be reduced significantly if naturally occurring food is available. Organic fertilizers, like manure, are often used to fertilize nursery ponds to stimulate primary productivity. If applied correctly, these kind of fertilizers induce slight increases in nutrients, enhancing primary productivity. In the absence of zooplanktivorous fish, large zooplankton populations can develop,

providing different size of food particles for carp postlarvae and fry. Food size is crucial, because ingestion capabilities are limited in the first stages of development, consequently the adequate quantity of food particles in the 50-100 µm size range is crucial (Moata et al., 2005) [2], (Horvath, et al., 2002) [3], (Bud, 2004) [1].

## 2. Materials and methods

A nursery pond with a 2 ha surface area was filled up with water 2 weeks before stocking. The mean depth of the pond was 1.5 m, with a 6 l s<sup>-1</sup> water supply, the retention time or the residence time of the pond was 11 days. The 500 kg manure was spread along the shore and covered with earth, providing a gradual leak of nutrients. NH<sub>4</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>3</sub> and PO<sub>4</sub> concentrations were measured with a high precision Merck Aquacant water test kit. A weekly phytoplankton monitoring program was established to understand and manage the ecological functioning of the water body. Subsurface samples were taken at 0.5 m from 2

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sampling sites. These 2 samples were pooled at equal volumes into a composite sample. Depth-integrated sampling was not applied here because stratification was only temporary (diurnal overturns). Transparency was measured weekly with a Secchi disc to determine the euphotic zone which is 2.5 times the Secchi depth and can indicate the trophic state (Megard et al., 1980) [4]. Samples were preserved for later counting with Lugol's solution at a ratio of 1:100. Samples were concentrated before counting by sedimentation (4-5 days), then subsamples were taken for microscopic analysis. Phytoplankton cells were identified and measured with a stage micrometer, using an upright Muller light microscope (400x-800x magnifications). Cell volumes were calculated based on these measurements. Phytoplankton cells were counted with a Lund cell (Lund, 1959) [5]. Zooplankton was sampled with a 50 µm mesh size net by filtering exactly measured amounts of water from the same sampling sites. Phytoplankton and zooplankton wet biomass was calculated based on microscopic analysis of cell volumes.

### 3. Results and discussion

The nursery pond was filled up with fresh stream water from the Rediu stream which supplies some of the ponds. Nutrient levels in these streams are typically low with oligotrophic characteristics. These nutrient levels cannot support large phytoplankton populations, therefore biomass flow in oligotrophic freshwater ecosystems is low. To increase primary productivity artificial fertilization can be used in the previously described conditions. Nutrient levels were measured weekly after the pond was filled up in the first weeks of May (Figure 1).

Nutrient levels indicating trophic status is one of the key components that influence directly algae growth. Light intensity and temperature is also a key factor. According to biweekly sampling and cell count the most important phytoplankton

species found in the nursing pond are shown in Table 1.

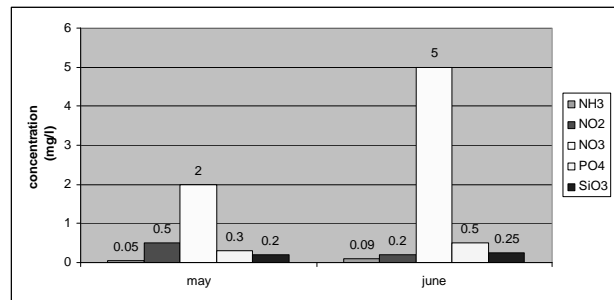


Figure 1. Monthly average nutrient concentrations relevant for algae growth measured in the fertilized nursery pond

Phytoplankton populations sustain the entire natural food chain and serve as food source for herbivorous filter feeding species like zooplankton. Large phytoplankton species (>50 µm) can be consumed directly by carp postlarvae in the very first stage of postlarval development (Bud, 2004) [1].

Phytoplankton density has a direct influence on water turbidity and Secchi depth, although after the nursing pond was filled up, some natural turbidity occurred in the first two weeks. However, due to weakening grazing pressure over phytoplankton populations, there was a continuous increase in phytoplankton biomass which resulted in a sharp decrease in water transparency (Figure 2).

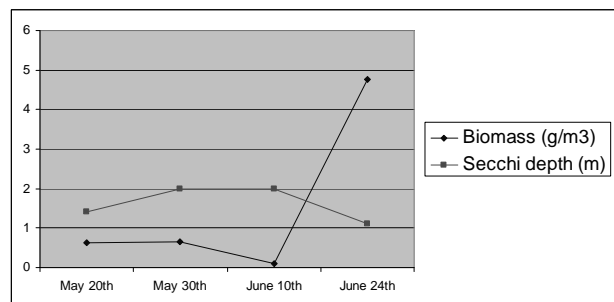


Figure 2. Total wet phytoplankton biomass and Secchi depth in May and June

**Table 1.** Number and cell volume of dominant phytoplankton species

Phytoplankton species	Average length and width (µm)	Biovolume of cells µm <sup>3</sup>	Nr. Cells l <sup>-1</sup>			
			may	may	june	june
<i>Ankyra lanceolata</i>	40x1.5	94	128100			
<i>Korshikoviella limnetica</i>	45x1.7	106	3920		2850	
<i>Fragilaria ulna var. acus</i>	65x2	272	6720			
<i>Lepocinclis ovum</i>	100x50	65998	4340	123	356	
<i>Lepocinclis texta</i>	35x25	22457	10640	1200	3385	
<i>Trachelomonas hispida var. acuminata</i>	25x25	8184	3500	120		
<i>Cystomonas actinosphaerii</i>	45x45	33523	1680			
<i>Chlorococcum dissectum</i>	20x20	32100			9900	
<i>Chloromonas bolyaiana</i>	17x17	15603			18150	
<i>Scenedesmus quadricuata</i>	9x3	150	2800	1650	250	
<i>Spongiochloris spp.</i>	13x13	11214			19200	
<i>Trachelomonas superba</i>	50x35	8529			712	628000
<i>Eudorina elegans</i>	12x12	968		22	891	
<i>Pandorina morum</i>	30x35	16000				76000
<i>Oocystis naegelii</i>	8x14	4200				1300000

Regarding the role of naturally occurring food in postlarval development the diversity and quantity of zooplankton populations has an exceptionally important role because different species of rotifers, copepods and cladocerans represent the

perfect food size for continuously developing carp postlarvae. In the first weeks of development, the following species could be found in the water of the nursing pond (Table 2).

**Table 2.** Wet biomass and number of different zooplankton species in may and june

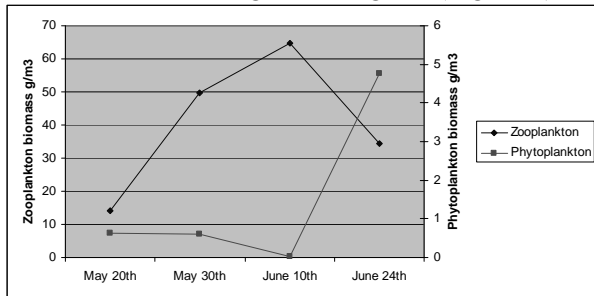
Zooplankton species	Average length and width (µm)	Individual biovolume (mm <sup>3</sup> )	Nr. of individuals l <sup>-1</sup>			
			May 20th	May 30th	June 10th	June 24th
<i>Daphnia catawaba</i>	1700x1200	2.199	14	45	88	2
<i>Microcyclops rubellus</i>	1500x1000	0.032	5	30	40	111
<i>Bosmina longirostris</i>	300x200	0.005	8	30	74	685
<i>Cyclopoid nauplius</i>	130x70	0.00036	98	300	190	96
<i>Polyarthra remata</i>	110x60	0.00024	111	330	92	74
<i>Keratella testudo</i>	100x50	0.0002	1	2	14	7

Zooplankton populations continued to increase gradually with rising temperatures due to hefty phytoplankton populations, stimulated by rising nutrient levels (Figure 1).

Although the density of pelagic unicellular algae hasn't increased in the first two weeks of planktonic development and started to decrease after a month, their continuously regenerating populations supported a large herbivorous zooplankton population which served as a food source for zooplanktivorous fish larvae (Figure 3 and 4). Due to the sharp rise in zooplankton populations and grazing pressure over the primary producers, a „clear water phase” occurred (Lampert, W. et al., 1986) [6].

Large copepods and cladocerans are capable of intensive filtering and fast reproduction which can result in depletion of pelagic phytoplankton species. In the absence of zooplanktivorous fishes, these zooplankton species can develop quickly, forming large populations, contributing to total respiration and reducing oxygen levels. With the development of a large zooplanktivorous fish population in the nursing pond, large cladoceran and copepod species were consumed rapidly. Although rotifer populations were not affected significantly, their filtering capacity had no major impact on pelagic algal populations in this case.

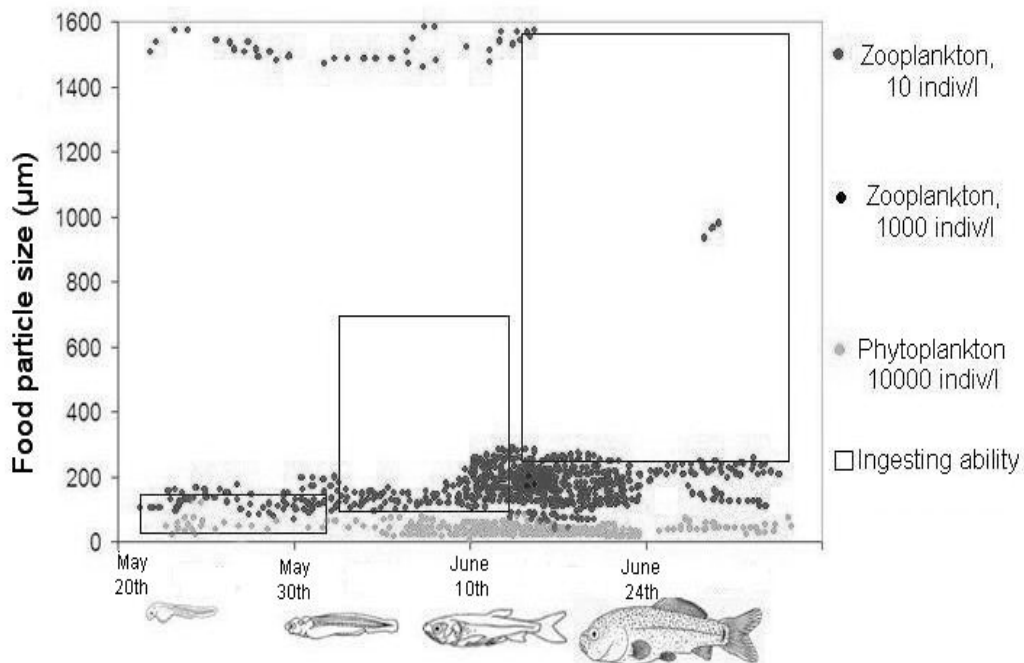
In the absence grazing pressure, pelagic phytoplankton populations show an increase in wet biomass from  $1 \text{ g m}^{-3}$  to  $5 \text{ g m}^{-3}$  (Figure 3).



**Figure 3.** Zooplankton and phytoplankton wet biomass

The most competitive species are the ones with smaller cell size and short reproduction time, like *Oocystis naegelii* (Table 1).

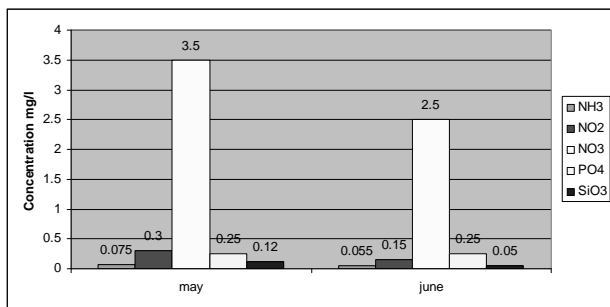
The dynamic changes in phytoplankton and zooplankton populations are shown on figure 4 as well. Planktonic organisms are illustrated as a possible food source for developing fish larvae in different stages of development. Figure 4 illustrates a month of postlarval development, based on the changing feeding preferences of fish larvae.



**Figure 4.** Availability of natural food (zooplankton and phytoplankton) in different development stages of carp larvae

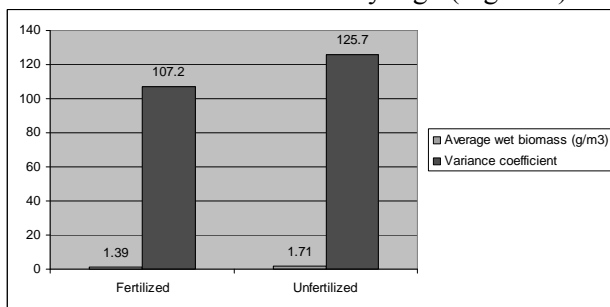
The red area on figure 4 shows the zooplankton populations between the 100 and 400  $\mu\text{m}$  size range. During the first weeks of larval and postlarval development this is the appropriate food size, matching the ingesting abilities of fish larvae. In the 1400-1600  $\mu\text{m}$  size area are the larger cladoceran and copepod populations which are depleted at the end of the first month of postlarval development. The absence of naturally occurring food in this period was compensated with commercial fish feed.

The chemical analysis, showing the nutrient levels and the biomass calculations are compared with another set of data, obtained in similar conditions from a nearby, unfertilized and unpopulated pond. This pond has the same size as the nursery pond, it didn't contain any ichthyofauna and the retention time of the water was high. Nutrient levels were low compared to nutrient levels in the fertilized pond and plankton biomass was also low (Figure 5).



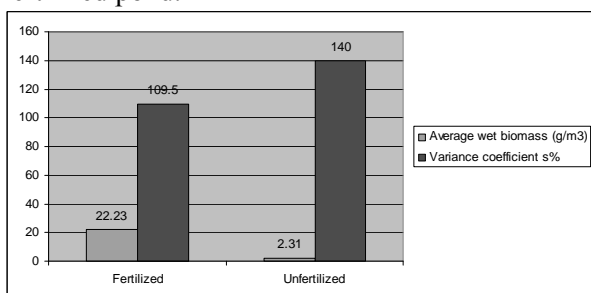
**Figure 5.** Monthly average nutrient concentrations relevant for algae growth measured in the unfertilized pond

The intensity of trophic interactions is influenced by artificial fertilization, this is why we found a significant difference in zooplankton wet biomass: Statistical analysis with the t-test shows that there is no significant difference between the mean phytoplankton biomass in these two pond but the variability, showing the differences between individual measurements is very high (Figure 6).



**Figure 6.** Compared levels of wet average phytoplankton biomass: fertilized and unfertilized water bodies

This means that we can observe a rather usual situation regarding the phytoplankton populations: in natural waters, and in fisheries as well there is a significant oscillation in phytoplankton biomass. Figure 7 shows a significant difference in zooplankton wet biomass which explains the relatively low phytoplankton biomass in the fertilized pond.



**Figure 7.** Compared levels of wet average zooplankton biomass: fertilized and unfertilized water bodies

The effects of artificial fertilization can be observed in different trophic interactions and different biomass transfer patterns.

#### 4. Conclusions

Primary production is directly influenced by nutrient concentrations and it involves biomass production by photosynthetic algae followed by a succession of grazing and ingestion. The flow of biomass through these trophic interactions is responsible for the productivity of the given aquatic ecosystem. The artificial boosting of primary productivity can be an efficient process used in hatcheries to provide dense populations of phytoplankton and zooplankton, serving as live food for fish larvae. As long as zooplanktivorous consumers are not present in these artificially designed foodchains, zooplankton populations develop unchecked and suppress pelagic phytoplankton. The flow of biomass can be very effective through these trophic interactions, although unwanted algae species can develop which are not consumed by zooplankton, because most zooplankton species feed selectively on phytoplankton (Sarnelle, O., 2007). Water flow (and retention time) through artificially fertilized ponds can be a crucial factor, flushing out algae which are not integrated in the food chain and preventing the accumulation of nutrients. In these controlled conditions high densities of planktonic populations can develop. When algal populations are low, photosynthetically produced dissolved oxygen concentrations are also low, total respiration by intensively stocked fish and zooplankton populations can be high, resulting in low oxygen levels. In these conditions measures have to be taken to stabilize oxygen levels and pH fluctuations.

If artificially stimulated primary production is performed in a controlled environment, high densities of phytoplankton and zooplankton can be achieved. These planktonic organisms are consumed by fish larvae in different stages of development, reducing mortality rate and increasing fish production in hatcheries.

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