



**UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL RURAL DE PERNAMBUCO**  
**PRÓ-REITORIA DE PESQUISA E PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO**  
**PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM RECURSOS PESQUEIROS E AQUICULTURA**

**Resposta acústica do camarão *Penaeus vannamei* submetido a diferentes condições ambientais**

**Fábio Ulisses Ramos Costa Filho**

Dissertação apresentada ao Programa de Pós-Graduação em Recursos Pesqueiros e Aquicultura da Universidade Federal Rural de Pernambuco como exigência para obtenção do título de Mestre.

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Dissertação julgada adequada para obtenção do título de mestre em Recursos Pesqueiros e Aquicultura. Defendida e aprovada em 26/02/2026 pela seguinte Banca Examinadora.

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## **Dedicatória**

Dedico este trabalho a todos aqueles que, de maneira direta ou indireta, contribuíram para a realização deste trabalho. Esta conquista também é de vocês.

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## Resumo

A intensificação da carcinicultura moderna exige o aprimoramento de estratégias alimentares e o controle rigoroso de variáveis ambientais, uma vez que métodos convencionais de monitoramento visual são frequentemente inviáveis em sistemas intensivos e turvos. Diante da necessidade de soluções tecnológicas que otimizem a produtividade e a sustentabilidade, o uso do Monitoramento Acústico Passivo (PAM) surge como uma alternativa inovadora para avaliar o bem-estar e o comportamento dos animais em tempo real. A presente dissertação investigou a resposta acústica e o consumo de ração do camarão-branco-do-pacífico, *Penaeus vannamei*, sob diferentes condições de temperatura e oxigênio dissolvido (OD), utilizando o PAM como ferramenta central. A atividade acústica e o consumo de ração foram monitorados por meio de hidrofones (PAM) em exemplares submetidos a gradientes térmicos variando de 22,1; 24,1; 27,5 e 31,3 °C, bem como a diferentes níveis de oxigênio dissolvido (OD) 5, 3, 2 e 1 mg/L, incluindo hipóxia gradual e abrupta, para identificar os níveis críticos de supressão alimentar e os padrões de emissão de 'cliques' mandibulares sob estresse ambiental. O estudo validou que a emissão de "cliques" mandibulares possui uma forte correlação positiva com o consumo real de alimento, permitindo o acompanhamento do comportamento alimentar de forma não invasiva e em tempo real. No primeiro eixo da pesquisa, observou-se que a atividade alimentar foi severamente suprimida em temperaturas iguais ou inferiores a 24,1 °C, enquanto o desempenho máximo ocorreu na faixa entre 27,5 °C e 31,3 °C. Além do consumo, a temperatura alterou a dinâmica temporal: em águas quentes, a atividade é intensa e concentrada nos minutos iniciais, enquanto no frio ela se torna mais estável e reduzida. Na segunda parte, focada em quatro níveis de oxigênio (5, 3, 2 e 1 mg/L), reduzidos de forma gradual e abrupta com injeção de nitrogênio. Os resultados demonstraram que o método de redução do OD influenciou diretamente o comportamento: sob hipóxia gradual, os camarões mantiveram a alimentação estatisticamente estável até 3 mg/L, com queda crítica em 1 mg/L; já sob redução abrupta, o declínio dependeu da concentração e ocorreu de forma mais linear. O PAM revelou ainda que, em condições de hipoxia, os animais apresentaram um pico de atividade precoce seguido de rápida cessação, caracterizando uma estratégia de compensação e conservação de energia. A pesquisa conclui que o monitoramento acústico é uma ferramenta precisa para detectar estresse ambiental e pode ser integrado a sistemas de alimentação automática para otimizar a eficiência produtiva na carcinicultura.

**Palavras-chave:** Camarão Cinza; Monitoramento acústico passivo; Comportamento alimentar; Temperatura; Oxigênio dissolvido.

## Abstract

The intensification of modern shrimp farming requires the improvement of feeding strategies and the rigorous control of environmental variables, as conventional visual monitoring methods are often unfeasible in intensive and turbid systems. Given the need for technological solutions that optimize productivity and sustainability, the use of Passive Acoustic Monitoring (PAM) emerges as an innovative alternative to assess animal welfare and behavior in real time. This thesis investigated the acoustic response and feed consumption of the Pacific white shrimp, *Penaeus vannamei*, under different temperature and dissolved oxygen (DO) conditions, using PAM as a central tool. Acoustic activity and feed consumption were monitored via hydrophones (PAM) in specimens subjected to thermal gradients ranging from 22.1, 24.1, 27.5, and 31.3 °C, as well as different DO levels (5, 3, 2, and 1 mg/L), including gradual and abrupt hypoxia, to identify critical levels of feed suppression and patterns of mandibular 'click' emissions under environmental stress. The study validated that mandibular 'click' emissions have a strong positive correlation with actual feed consumption, allowing for the non-invasive, real-time tracking of feeding behavior. In the first axis of the research, it was observed that feeding activity was severely suppressed at temperatures equal to or below 24.1 °C, while maximum performance occurred in the range between 27.5 °C and 31.3 °C. In addition to consumption, temperature altered temporal dynamics: in warm waters, activity is intense and concentrated in the initial minutes, whereas in cold waters, it becomes more stable and reduced. The second part focused on four oxygen levels (5, 3, 2, and 1 mg/L), reduced both gradually and abruptly through nitrogen injection. Results demonstrated that the method of DO reduction directly influenced behavior: under gradual hypoxia, the shrimp maintained statistically stable feeding until 3 mg/L, with a critical drop at 1 mg/L; under abrupt reduction, the decline was concentration-dependent and occurred more linearly. PAM further revealed that, under hypoxic conditions, the animals exhibited an early peak in activity followed by rapid cessation, characterizing a strategy of compensation and energy conservation. The research concludes that acoustic monitoring is a precise tool for detecting environmental stress and can be integrated into automated feeding systems to optimize production efficiency in aquaculture.

**Key words:** Whiteleg shrimp; Passive acoustic monitoring; Feeding behavior; Temperature; Dissolved oxygen.

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## 1 **1- Introdução**

### 2 *1.1- Contextualização da pesquisa*

3 A criação de camarões é uma atividade aquícola de relevância global, com destaque para  
4 o camarão-branco-do-Pacífico, *Penaeus vannamei* (Boone, 1931), espécie dominante devido ao  
5 rápido crescimento, resistência a doenças e adaptabilidade a diferentes condições ambientais  
6 (Kamaruzzaman et al., 2018). Em 2022, a produção mundial dessa espécie alcançou cerca de 6,8  
7 milhões de toneladas, impulsionando a aquicultura a superar a pesca em volume de produção e  
8 evidenciando sua importância econômica e social, especialmente no que diz respeito à segurança  
9 alimentar, à oferta de alimentos ricos em micronutrientes e à geração de empregos em áreas  
10 rurais com oportunidades limitadas (FAO, 2024).

11 No Brasil, o *P. vannamei* demonstrou excelente desempenho produtivo sob as condições  
12 climáticas locais, registrando uma produção anual de 113,3 mil toneladas e receita de 2,2 bilhões  
13 de reais (IBGE, 2024). Esse cenário reforça a necessidade contínua de aprimoramento das  
14 estratégias de cultivo, com foco em maior sustentabilidade e produtividade, especialmente por  
15 meio de avanços em seleção genética para resistência a doenças como WSSV e EMS (Fernandes  
16 et al., 2019).

17 Além dos avanços genéticos, os avanços na automação do manejo alimentar na  
18 carcinicultura tornaram-se essenciais para otimizar a produção e reduzir os custos operacionais  
19 (Reis et al., 2020). Contudo, em sistemas com alta turbidez da água, o monitoramento visual da  
20 atividade alimentar, comum em outras espécies, torna-se inviável (Reis et al., 2022). Em estudos  
21 etológicos de laboratório, a avaliação comportamental de camarões baseia-se tradicionalmente na  
22 observação visual direta ou no uso de vídeo gravações acopladas a softwares de imagem para  
23 análise posterior (Bardera et al., 2021). O problema é que a eficácia dessas metodologias esbarra  
24 em uma limitação severa: a dependência estrita do campo visual. Essa necessidade de água  
25 translúcida para as câmeras afasta o desenho experimental das condições turvas da realidade dos  
26 cultivos intensivos (Smith & Tabrett, 2013; Bardera et al., 2021). Além disso, um esforço  
27 amostral exaustivo é exigido para decodificar horas de vídeo manualmente (Bardera et al., 2020).  
28 Diante dessa limitação, o Monitoramento Acústico Passivo (Passive Acoustic Monitoring –  
29 PAM) surge como uma solução inovadora. Essa tecnologia utiliza hidrofones para captar os sons  
30 de "cliques" gerados pela oclusão das mandíbulas dos camarões durante a alimentação (Reis et  
31 al., 2022).

32 A identificação dessas emissões acústicas do *P. vannamei* possibilitou o desenvolvimento  
33 de alimentadores automáticos responsivos à demanda real, que dispensam ração em tempo real  
34 conforme a atividade alimentar de camarões detectada via PAM (Ullman et al., 2019b; Reis et  
35 al., 2022). Estudos têm demonstrado que sistemas de alimentação baseados em feedback acústico  
36 para camarões superam métodos tradicionais, como a alimentação manual ou o uso de  
37 alimentadores com tempos pré-programados (Ullman et al., 2019a, 2019b; Reis et al., 2021).  
38 Tais sistemas proporcionam maiores taxas de crescimento, peso final e rendimento zootécnico do  
39 *P. vannamei*, ao mesmo tempo em que permitem elevação nas taxas de arraçoamento sem  
40 comprometer a conversão alimentar (Reis et al., 2021; Ullman et al., 2019a, 2019b).

41 Ao contrário dos sistemas programados, que fornecem ração em horários fixos, os  
42 sistemas acústicos com feedback ajustam automaticamente a oferta alimentar conforme a  
43 demanda comportamental e fisiológica dos camarões (Reis et al., 2020, 2022). Em ambientes  
44 laboratoriais, a técnica PAM tem sido amplamente empregada para investigar o comportamento  
45 alimentar de *P. vannamei*, caracterizando assinaturas acústicas associadas à alimentação com  
46 diferentes tipos de ração (Silva et al., 2019; Peixoto et al., 2020a). A precisão e não invasividade  
47 da técnica posicionam-na como uma ferramenta eficaz na carcinicultura moderna, superando  
48 métodos convencionais como a análise de bandejas de alimentação (Ullman et al., 2019b).

49 Adicionalmente, o PAM tem sido utilizado para avaliar o impacto de diversos fatores  
50 sobre a emissão sonora, como classes de tamanho dos camarões (Hamilton et al., 2024), diâmetro  
51 dos pellets (Peixoto et al., 2020b), densidades de estocagem (Hamilton et al., 2023) e dietas  
52 suplementadas com atrativos (Soares et al., 2021; Peixoto et al., 2022; Tabbara et al., 2024).  
53 Essas investigações fornecem subsídios importantes para o aprimoramento das estratégias  
54 alimentares, visando à eficiência produtiva e à sustentabilidade ambiental.

55 Entretanto, para que o PAM seja plenamente eficiente como ferramenta de manejo, é  
56 fundamental compreender como o padrão sonoro e a atividade alimentar são modulados pelo  
57 ambiente. Nesse contexto, variáveis como a temperatura da água exercem influência direta no  
58 crescimento, a sobrevivência e o comportamento do *P. vannamei* (Wang et al., 2023; Dayalan et  
59 al., 2024). Por se tratar de um organismo ectotérmico, o metabolismo do camarão é regulado pela  
60 temperatura, refletindo-se no consumo de oxigênio (Kir et al., 2023). A espécie possui ampla  
61 tolerância térmica, sobrevivendo entre 7,2 °C e 41,9 °C; entretanto, a faixa ideal para produção  
62 situa-se entre 25 °C e 30 °C, garantindo estabilidade fisiológica (Kir et al., 2023). Estudos

63 apontam que os melhores resultados produtivos ocorrem entre 28 °C e 30 °C, com salinidades de  
64 33 ‰ a 40 ‰ (Ponce-palafox et al., 1997). Fora dessa faixa, o camarão apresenta sinais de  
65 estresse. Em temperaturas abaixo de 18 °C, observa-se uma redução acentuada da atividade  
66 alimentar, o que representa um ponto crítico do ponto de vista comportamental (Wang et al.,  
67 2023). O frio também acarreta danos histológicos e eleva o custo metabólico da osmorregulação  
68 (Wang et al., 2023). Por outro lado, a maior tolerância à hipóxia foi observada em 22 °C e  
69 salinidade de 16,6 ‰, indicando que as condições ótimas para lidar com estressores fisiológicos  
70 nem sempre coincidem com aquelas que maximizam o crescimento (Bett & Vinatea, 2009). Em  
71 altas temperaturas, *P. vannamei* tolera incrementos graduais até 37 °C; choques térmicos  
72 abruptos para 40 °C, contudo, resultam em estresse severo e mortalidade total (Dayalan et al.,  
73 2024).

74 Outro fator determinante é o oxigênio dissolvido (OD), apontado como a principal  
75 variável limitante na aquicultura intensiva (Jasmin et al., 2022; Li et al., 2007). A manutenção de  
76 níveis adequados de OD é fundamental para a saúde e desempenho dos camarões, uma vez que  
77 condições de hipóxia reduzem o crescimento, aumentam a suscetibilidade a doenças e  
78 comprometem a viabilidade econômica (Araujo et al., 2024). Concentrações inferiores a 2 mg/L  
79 já afetam negativamente o crescimento, sendo 1 mg/L considerado próximo do limite letal  
80 (Hopkins et al., 1991; Seidman & Lawrence, 1985). Taxas de sobrevivência são  
81 significativamente maiores com OD acima de 4 mg/L (92,22%) em comparação com níveis  
82 abaixo de 2 mg/L (56,67%) (Lehmann et al., 2011).

83 A hipóxia atua como estressor químico, suprimindo o sistema imunológico o camarão (Li  
84 et al., 2007). Parâmetros como a contagem de hemócitos de *P. vannamei* são significativamente  
85 superior sob condições com OD acima de 4 mg/L (Lehmann et al., 2011). Também foi observado  
86 que a hipóxia reduz a resistência de *Penaeus monodon* ao *Vibrio harveyi* (Wuertz et al., 2023) e  
87 força uma mudança metabólica de lipídios e proteínas para proteínas exclusivamente, indicando  
88 uma adaptação ao estresse (Rosas et al., 1999). O manejo de OD está intimamente relacionado à  
89 alimentação do camarão, uma vez que a oferta de ração influencia diretamente a demanda por  
90 oxigênio. Por exemplo, para manter um OD mínimo de 3,0 mg/L, recomenda-se um limite de até  
91 16 kg de ração por unidade de potência de aeração (Hopkins et al., 1991). Embora maiores níveis  
92 de aeração não garantam desempenho zootécnico superior, aumentam os custos com eletricidade,  
93 indicando que níveis intermediários, como 2,5 mg/L, podem ser mais econômicos, embora com

94 maior risco (Araujo et al., 2024).

95 Diante da relevância desses fatores ambientais e tecnológicos, o presente trabalho tem  
96 como objetivo avaliar o comportamento alimentar do camarão *P. vannamei* sob diferentes  
97 condições de temperatura e níveis de oxigênio dissolvido, utilizando o Monitoramento Acústico  
98 Passivo (PAM).

99

100

## 101 1.2- Objetivos

102

### 103 *Objetivo Geral:*

104 Avaliar os efeitos da variação de temperatura e da concentração de oxigênio dissolvido  
105 sobre a atividade alimentar acústica e o consumo de ração do camarão-branco-do-pacífico,  
106 *Penaeus vannamei*, utilizando o método de Monitoramento Acústico Passivo (PAM).

107

### 108 *Objetivos Específicos:*

109 Caracterizar a atividade alimentar acústica e quantificar o consumo de ração do *P.*  
110 *vannamei* quando submetido a cinco diferentes temperaturas (32, 30, 27, 24 e 22 °C),  
111 abrangendo desde a faixa ótima até condições de estresse térmico.

112 Analisar a atividade alimentar acústica e o consumo de ração do *P. vannamei* quando  
113 exposto a quatro concentrações de oxigênio dissolvido (5, 3, 2 e 1 mg/L), representando  
114 condições de normóxia a hipóxia severa em dois métodos de redução gradual: remoção da  
115 oxigenação e remoção abrupta por meio de injeção de nitrogênio (N).

116 Correlacionar os padrões acústicos com o consumo real de ração para validar a eficácia  
117 do PAM como ferramenta de monitoramento do comportamento alimentar sob diferentes  
118 condições de estresse ambiental.

119

## 120 2- Artigos científicos

121

122 Os resultados obtidos durante o trabalho experimental desta dissertação estão apresentados  
123 em dois capítulos referentes aos artigos intitulados: “Thermal modulation of feeding behavior in  
124 *Penaeus vannamei* revealed by passive acoustic monitoring” e “Gasping for air: The impact of  
125 gradual versus abrupt hypoxia on the acoustic feeding behavior of *Penaeus vannamei*.”

126

127 2-Capitulo 1 Thermal modulation of feeding behavior in *Penaeus vannamei* revealed by passive  
128 acoustic monitoring

129

Artigo científico a Publicado  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquaculture.2026.743631>. a Revista – Aquaculture  
(ISSN: 1873-5622). Todas as normas de redação e citação, deste capítulo,  
atendem as estabelecidas pela  
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149 Thermal modulation of feeding behavior in *Penaeus vannamei* revealed by passive acoustic  
150 monitoring

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181 **Abstract**

182 This study evaluated the effect of water temperature on the feeding activity of *Penaeus vannamei*  
183 using passive acoustic monitoring (PAM) as a noninvasive tool for real-time behavioral  
184 assessment. Juveniles ( $25.16 \pm 1.38$  g) were exposed to five temperature treatments (22.1, 24.1,  
185 27.5, 29.4, and 31.3 °C) under controlled laboratory conditions. Feeding activity was monitored  
186 and quantified through acoustic detection of clicks emitted by shrimp mandibles and food  
187 consumption (FC) during 30-minute feeding periods. Both click production and feed intake  
188 peaked at 27.5 to 31.3 °C but declined significantly at cold temperatures of 22.1 and 24.1 °C.  
189 Acoustic activity correlated strongly with feed intake ( $r = 0.65$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), validating PAM as a  
190 quantitative indicator of feeding intensity. Analysis of Covariance models revealed a significant  
191 interaction between time and temperature, indicating that thermal variation affected not only the  
192 magnitude but also the temporal dynamics of feeding. These findings confirm that ~ 28 - 30 °C  
193 range represents the optimal thermal window for feeding activity in *P. vannamei* and  
194 demonstrates the potential of PAM to support precision feeding and temperature-responsive  
195 management in shrimp aquaculture.

196

197 **Keywords:** Penaeid; clicks; feeding activity; temperature.

198

199 **1. Introduction**

200 Aquaculture has emerged as one of the main sources of animal protein production worldwide,  
201 driven by the growing demand for healthy and sustainable food. In this context, the Pacific white  
202 shrimp, *Penaeus vannamei* (Boone, 1931), stands out as the most economically important  
203 species in global shrimp farming, accounting for more than 6.8 million tons produced in 2022  
204 (FAO, 2024). The success of *P. vannamei* farming is closely linked to the stability and quality of  
205 water parameters, especially in intensive systems. Among these factors, temperature is one of the  
206 most critical environmental variables, exerting a direct influence on metabolism, growth,  
207 survival, and feeding behavior of shrimp (Wyban et al., 1995).

208 As ectotherms, shrimp rely on external temperature to regulate core physiological processes,  
209 making this parameter a key determinant of productive performance (Giffard-Mena et al., 2024).  
210 Although *P. vannamei* has broad thermal tolerance 8.0 - 41.9 °C (Kır et al., 2023), growth  
211 performance is optimized between 25 and 30 °C (Ponce-Palafox et al., 1997; Kır et al., 2023). It  
212 has been reported that below this range, feed intake of this species declines and can cease under  
213 18 °C, while cold exposure is also associated with epithelial disruption in gill lamellae and  
214 damage to the intestinal mucosa along with increased energetic costs of ion osmotic regulation  
215 (Wang et al., 2023). Moreover, above this optimal range, the thermal tolerance of *P. vannamei*  
216 drops sharply during unacclimated exposures above ~37 °C, overwhelming respiratory,  
217 enzymatic, and osmoregulatory capacity and causing rapid stress and high mortality (Dayalan et  
218 al., 2024). By contrast, gradual acclimation raises the upper lethal temperature for example, from  
219 about 34 °C under sudden exposure to about 37 °C with gradual warming (Kır et al., 2023;  
220 Dayalan et al., 2024).

221 Temperature is also closely related to *P. vannamei* feeding behavior, influencing the  
222 frequency, intensity, and duration of feeding activity. Thermal variations may affect appetite,

223 ingestion capacity, and digestive efficiency, directly impacting feeding management and  
224 zootechnical performance of this species (Barajas-Sandoval et al., 2024). Although several  
225 studies have evaluated the effect of temperature on growth and survival of penaeid shrimp, few  
226 have objectively correlated temperature variation with feeding behavior over time, particularly  
227 under controlled conditions (Wyban et al., 1995; Taily et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2025).  
228 Accordingly, Passive Acoustic Monitoring (PAM) has recently emerged as a promising non-  
229 invasive approach for evaluating the feeding activity of *P. vannamei*, as it is possible to capture  
230 and record the characteristic clicking sounds produced by their mandibular occlusion (Silva et  
231 al., 2019). This technique has been widely used for behavioral studies of this species, with  
232 demonstrated efficiency in assessing feeding behavior in different situations, such as shrimp size,  
233 stocking density, feed frequency, as well as when using different additives and diet formulations,  
234 as reviewed by Peixoto and Soares (2025). Nevertheless, PAM was never applied to investigate  
235 the effects of water temperature on shrimp feeding behavior under laboratory conditions.

236 Although acoustic-based automated feeders are expanding in shrimp aquaculture, and  
237 temperature effects on feeding behavior are probably considered by their algorithms to improve  
238 feed management, this information is proprietary to the industry and not available in research  
239 using such acoustic systems (Reis et al., 2020, 2021; Walsh et al., 2022; Strebel et al., 2023).  
240 Therefore, the present study aims to use PAM to evaluate the effects of thermal variation on the  
241 feeding activity of *P. vannamei* under laboratory conditions, which can contribute not only to our  
242 understanding of shrimp feeding behavior, but also to improving feed management and acoustic-  
243 based automated equipment in shrimp farming.

## 244 **2. Materials and methods**

### 245 *2.1. Experimental design*

246 This study was conducted at the E.W. Shell Fisheries Center, Auburn University (AL, USA),

247 in a temperature-controlled (27.5 °C) room with 20 glass aquaria (70 L each). Every four tanks  
248 were plumbed to one of five independent clean-water recirculating systems, each composed by a  
249 sump, biological filter media, and continuous aeration. Each of these systems corresponded to a  
250 specific temperature treatment: 22.1 °C (Very cold), 24.1 °C (Cold), 27.5 °C (Regular), 29.4 °C  
251 (Hot), and 31.3 °C (Very hot). Thermal stability was maintained using individual 300W heaters  
252 (ViaAqua) in each aquarium of warm temperature systems (29.4 and 31.3 °C) and chillers (Teco  
253 TK-2000h) installed in each sump of cooling systems (22.1 and 24.1 °C), while no heaters or  
254 chillers were needed at room temperature system (27.5 °C).

255 *P. vannamei* (25.16 ± 1.38 g) reared in the laboratory were randomly assigned to  
256 temperature systems (seven shrimp per aquarium) and acclimated for 24 h. During acclimation,  
257 shrimp were fed a commercial diet (Zeigler Bros Inc., USA; 2.4 mm, 35% CP) twice daily.  
258 Shrimp in each system underwent a 16-h fasting period, after which their feeding activity  
259 (acoustic data and food consumption) was recorded for 30-min. Water temperature was  
260 measured before each recording to confirm thermal conditions. Other water-quality parameters  
261 were measured daily in each system, including pH, salinity, dissolved oxygen (DO), total  
262 ammonia nitrogen (TAN-NH<sub>4</sub>) and nitrite (NO<sub>2</sub>). Values of pH, salinity and DO were measured  
263 with a YSI Professional Plus multiparameter meter (YSI Inc., Yellow Springs, OH, USA),  
264 whereas TAN and nitrite were determined colorimetrically using a YSI 9500 photometer (YSI  
265 Inc., Yellow Springs, OH, USA).

## 266 2.2. Food consumption and passive acoustic monitoring

267 Acoustic recordings (PAM) were conducted simultaneously with food consumption analysis  
268 in each aquarium, corresponding to four replicates per treatment. Recordings started when 3.5 g  
269 of the commercial feed was deposited at the center of each aquarium. After 30 min, uneaten  
270 pellets were siphoned and retained on pre-weighed cellulose filters (20 µm pore size), oven-dried

271 at 100 °C for 24 h, and weighed. Feed intake was calculated as the difference between feed  
272 offered and the dry mass of recovered residues. To account for leaching losses, a control assay  
273 was conducted by placing 1.0 g (as is) of feed into twelve aquaria without shrimp, following the  
274 same recovery and drying protocol. These data were used to estimate feed leaching and correct  
275 intake values. Mean food consumption (FC) was calculated on a dry matter basis using the  
276 following formula:

$$277 \quad FC = F_o - (F_r / F_l)$$

278       Where: FC = food consumption (g);  $F_o$  = dry weight of feed offered (g);  $F_r$  = dry weight of  
279 feed recovered (g);  $F_l$  = leaching correction factor (proportion of feed recovered from aquaria  
280 without shrimp, calculated as  $F_l = F_r / F_o$ )

281

282       Acoustic data were captured using omnidirectional AS-1 hydrophones (Aquarian  
283 Hydrophones, USA), with a flat frequency response between 1 Hz and 100 kHz and sensitivity  
284 of -208 dB re 1 V/ $\mu$ Pa. Hydrophones were positioned at the center of each aquarium. Each  
285 hydrophone was connected to a 26 dB gain pre-amplifier (PA-4, Aquarian Hydrophones) and  
286 linked to a multitrack digital recorder (Zoom F6, USA), set to a 192 kHz sampling rate (16-bit  
287 resolution). The aeration in the aquarium was turned off to avoid acoustic interference during  
288 recordings.

289       Audio files were analyzed using Raven Pro 1.5 software (Cornell Lab of Ornithology, USA). A  
290 band-limited energy detector was used to automatically identify click sounds in the spectrogram  
291 (window type Hann, FFT size 512 samples, 3 dB filter bandwidth 135 Hz, 50% overlap), using  
292 the following settings: frequency range 15–90 kHz, signal duration 5–50 ms, and signal-to-noise  
293 ratio (SNR) above 12 dB. The Raven output included the timestamp of each detected click,  
294 which formed the database for subsequent statistical analysis. Click detection data (timestamps

295 in milliseconds) from the acoustic recordings were processed in Microsoft Excel (Microsoft 365,  
296 Microsoft Corporation, USA) to calculate the frequency distribution of clicks per minute. A  
297 histogram analysis tool was applied, using click timestamps as the input range and 1-minute  
298 intervals over the 30-minute recording period (including the midpoint at 15 min) as bin widths.  
299 The output provided the number of clicks per minute for each recording.

### 300 2.3. Statistical analysis

301 The total click counts (15 and 30 min) and food consumption (FC) after 30 minutes were  
302 compared among temperature treatments using one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). Prior  
303 to ANOVA, data were tested for normality using the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test and for  
304 homogeneity of variances using Cochran's test. When significant differences were detected,  
305 treatment means were compared using Tukey's Honest Significant Difference (HSD) post hoc  
306 test. ANOVA was also applied to compare water quality parameters among the different  
307 recirculation systems.

308 To assess the temporal dynamics of acoustic feeding activity, a multiple linear regression  
309 model was constructed using time (minutes) as a continuous predictor and temperature  
310 treatments as a categorical predictor. This model was interpreted as an Analysis of Covariance  
311 (ANCOVA), allowing evaluation of interaction effects between time and temperature on clicking  
312 rates. Following model fitting, pairwise comparisons of estimated marginal means (EMMs)  
313 among temperature treatments (Tukey-adjusted) were performed to resolve group differences;  
314 additionally, control-based contrasts were conducted using EMMs with Bonferroni adjustment.  
315 When the time  $\times$  temperature interaction was significant, simple-effects comparisons were  
316 carried out at representative time points (15 and 30 min). Additionally, linear regression analyses  
317 were performed to investigate the correlation between total click counts (15 and 30 minutes) and  
318 food consumption using pooled data across temperature treatments.

319 All statistical analysis were conducted using R software (version 4.x) within the RStudio  
320 environment (RStudio Team, USA), adopting a significance level of  $p < 0.05$  for all tests.

321

### 322 **3. Results**

323 Water temperature was maintained stable and differed significantly among the five preset  
324 treatments (22.1, 24.1, 27.5, 29.4, and 31.3 °C) to evaluate the feeding behavior of *P. vannamei*.

325 All the other water quality parameters (pH, salinity, DO, TAN and nitrite) did not differ  
326 significantly among the treatments (Table 1).

327 Temperature significantly affected food consumption (FC) in *P. vannamei*. Consumption  
328 increased with temperature, being significantly lower at 22.1 and 24.1 °C when compared to the  
329 warmer temperatures of 29.4 and 31.3 °C (Figure 1A). Nevertheless, shrimp maintained at 27.5  
330 °C showed intermediate mean FC value, which did not differ from those in colder (22.1 and 24.1  
331 °C) and warmer (29.4 and 31.3 °C) temperatures (Figure 1A).

332 Overall, shrimp acoustic activity followed a similar pattern as food consumption, but with  
333 some peculiarities (Figures 1B-C). Within the first 15 minutes of recordings, shrimp at 29.4 °C  
334 produced significantly more clicks than those at 22.1 and 24.1 °C. However, clicking activity at  
335 27.5 and 31.3 °C differed only from shrimp at the lowest temperature treatment (22.1 °C) (Figure  
336 1B). Over the entire recording period (30 min), the total number of clicks displayed a similar  
337 trend with shrimp at 22.1 and 24.1 °C showing a significantly lower acoustic activity when  
338 compared to those maintained in the warmest temperatures (27.5, 29.4, and 31.3 °C), among  
339 which no significant differences were detected (Figure 1C). Additionally, significant positive  
340 correlations ( $r = 0.65$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) were observed between the total number of acoustic clicks (30  
341 min) and food consumption across aquaria pooled for all temperature treatments (Figure 2),  
342 confirming the relationship between these two variables and similarities observed in their results

343 of feeding activity (Figure 1A and 1C).

344 The relationship between time and acoustic clicks was significantly influenced by water  
345 temperature, as revealed by ANCOVA models for both the 15 and 30-minute intervals (Table 2).  
346 In both analyses, the time, treatment, and time  $\times$  treatment interaction terms were significant ( $p <$   
347 0.05). This interaction indicates that the rate of decline in clicking activity over time differed  
348 among temperatures. Relative to the 27.5 °C treatment, shrimp at 22.1 °C and 24.1 °C displayed  
349 significantly lower click rates. Conversely, pairwise comparisons of temperature treatments  
350 versus 27.5 °C (regular) did not show significant differences from clicking activity in warmer  
351 conditions (29.4 °C and 31.3 °C) for both 15 and 30 min (Tables 3 and 4, respectively). Overall,  
352 the decline in clicking activity was steeper under warmer temperatures, whereas shrimp in colder  
353 water maintained lower but more stable click rates throughout the observation period (Figure 3).

#### 354 **4. Discussion**

355 The study demonstrated that water temperature has a significant influence on feeding  
356 behavior of *P. vannamei*, as evidenced by both food consumption and acoustic activity. The use  
357 of passive acoustic monitoring (PAM) proved effective in detecting variations in feeding  
358 behavior across temperature treatments, offering a non-invasive, real-time tool for shrimp  
359 behavioral studies. Overall, feeding activity measured by click emission and actual feed intake,  
360 was greater in warmer temperatures between 27.5 and 31.3 °C, but declined sharply at 24.1 and  
361 22.1 °C.

362 As indicated by the present findings, the most dramatic behavioral suppression occurred  
363 under cold conditions. This reduction in feed intake reflects the ectothermic nature of shrimp,  
364 whose metabolic rate is dictated by ambient temperature (Dall et al., 1991; Wang et al., 2023). In  
365 our data, suboptimal low temperatures ( $\leq 24.1$  °C) produced marked declines in both acoustic  
366 activity and food consumption (FC), consistent with thermal suppression of appetite and activity.

367 The oxygen consumption of *P. vannamei* varies with temperature (~15 - 32.5 °C), and activity  
368 level, providing a physiological basis for these behavioral shifts (Bett and Vinatea, 2009). It has  
369 been suggested that cold exposure depresses locomotor capacity, reducing feed encounter rates  
370 and decreasing feeding behavior, as observed in the foraging rhythm of *P. vannamei* (Dall et al.,  
371 1991; Ren et al., 2021). Furthermore, cold reduces digestive enzyme activity, hepatopancreatic  
372 enzyme activity, and total hemocyte count, limiting assimilation, immune function, and the  
373 desire to feed (Giffard-Mena et al., 2024; Hoffling et al., 2025). Therefore, it is suggested that  
374 the smaller number of clicks and stables feeding rhythm over time in shrimp maintained at colder  
375 temperatures (24.1 and 22.1 °C) are related to such physiological effects in behavior. From the  
376 acoustic point of view, *P. vannamei* feeding activity it is expected to occur in the first 10 - 15  
377 min after food offering, resulting in steeper regressions lines of clicking rate in 30 min  
378 recordings, whereas gentle or flat slopes indicate abnormal behavior or lack of interest by  
379 shrimp, as observed in studies testing different diet formulations and attractants for *P. vannamei*  
380 (Peixoto et al., 2022; Tabbara et al., 2024).

381 In contrast to the potential metabolic and physiological constraints imposed by lower  
382 temperatures, the 27.5 to 31.3 °C range consistently appears to be the optimal range for feeding  
383 activity under our conditions, corroborating findings of lower feed conversion and higher growth  
384 within a similar range for *P. vannamei* (Wyban et al., 1995). Thermal optima for this species,  
385 however, are size-dependent: juveniles (~5 g) perform well up to ~30 °C, while larger shrimp  
386 (~16 g) are more sensitive above ~30 °C (Wyban et al., 1995). This pattern reflects size-  
387 dependent metabolic responses and restricted metabolic scope toward thermal edges (Dall et al.,  
388 1991; Bett and Vinatea, 2009). Therefore, we should consider that we used large shrimp (~25 g)  
389 in this study, and temperature-sensitive digestive enzymes, particularly in older/larger  
390 individuals, have been related to reduction in digestive efficiency of *P. vannamei* under heat

391 stress (Al-Masqari et al., 2022). Ontogenetic shifts also affect osmoregulatory capacity and  
392 consequently shrimp growth performance under temperature-salinity interactions (Dall et al.,  
393 1991; Ren et al., 2021). Nevertheless, Ponce-Palafox et al. (1997) observed higher survival and  
394 feed intake for *P. vannamei* between 28 and 30 °C across different salinities, highlighting the  
395 robustness of this temperature window as thermal optimum for this species, which is supported  
396 by our acoustic and feed intake data.

397 A key innovation of this study was applying Passive Acoustic Monitoring (PAM) to track  
398 real-time feeding behavior across different temperatures. The acoustic activity correlated  
399 strongly with actual feed intake, validating PAM as a reliable proxy for feeding intensity and  
400 aligning with previous studies that linked click frequency to food consumption (Peixoto et al.,  
401 2022; Tabbara et al., 2024). This tool allowed us to uncover the distinct temporal dynamics of  
402 feeding: under optimal temperatures (27.5 to 31.3 °C), click activity rose rapidly and remained  
403 elevated, whereas cold conditions delayed initiation and led to early cessation. The significant  
404 time versus treatment interaction in ANCOVA models confirms that temperature alters not just  
405 the magnitude, but also the temporal profile of feeding behavior, which is an important  
406 information that would be probably missed under farming conditions. The characteristics of  
407 shrimp farming present several challenges for direct observation, as environmental factors (e.g.,  
408 water depth and transparency) and culture conditions (such as tank or pond type, production  
409 system, stocking density, and shrimp size) often make tracking and visualizing feeding behavior  
410 impractical. However, these biological and operational constraints do not hinder the monitoring  
411 of feeding activity through PAM in detecting subtle responses to diet formulations or  
412 environmental cues (Smith and Tabrett, 2013; Reis et al., 2022; Peixoto and Soares, 2025). The  
413 clear link between temperature and feeding patterns shown in our data underscores the need to  
414 adapt feeding schedules to avoid inefficiency and waste in *P. vannamei* farming. By integrating

415 PAM outputs with real-time control algorithms, it becomes possible to develop demand-based  
416 feeding systems that automatically adapt to environmental fluctuations, supporting significant  
417 advances in precision feed management (Reis et al., 2022; Peixoto and Soares, 2025).

## 418 **5. Conclusion**

419 Water temperature exerts a strong influence on the feeding behavior of *Penaeus vannamei*,  
420 shaping both the intensity and temporal profile of acoustic activity and feed intake. Peak  
421 performance of these variables occurred consistently between 27.5 to 31.3 °C, while colder  
422 exposures (22.1 and 24.1 °C) produce feeding behavioral suppression. Beyond validating PAM  
423 through the strong correlation between click counts and feed intake, this study revealed how  
424 temperature dictates the temporal dynamics of feeding behavior. Optimal conditions prompted a  
425 rapid and intense response, whereas colder temperatures resulted in delayed and suppressed  
426 activity. This deeper understanding of behavioral dynamics is essential for designing truly  
427 adaptive, demand-based feeding systems. Importantly, because metabolic and physiological  
428 capacity change with body size and developmental stage, thermal optima feeding behavior  
429 should be evaluated across ontogeny in future studies, enabling stage-specific control rules for  
430 precision feeding and environmental management in shrimp aquaculture.

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508 muscle quality and gut microbiota of whiteleg shrimp (*Penaeus vannamei*) within a live  
509 supply chain. *Animals* 15, 1431.

510

511 **Table 1.** Mean ( $\pm$  SD) water quality parameters of temperature ( $^{\circ}$ C), pH, total ammonia nitrogen  
 512 (TAN, mg/L), nitrite (mg/L), dissolved oxygen (DO, mg/L), and salinity (ppm) across five  
 513 experimental temperature regimes (Very cold 22.1  $^{\circ}$ C; Cold 24.1  $^{\circ}$ C; Regular 27.5  $^{\circ}$ C; Hot 29.4  
 514  $^{\circ}$ C; Very hot 31.3  $^{\circ}$ C) to evaluate the feeding behavior of *Penaeus vannamei*.

515

| Treatment | Temperature                 | pH                           | TAN                          | Nitrite                      | DO                           | Salinity                   |
|-----------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------|
| Very cold | 22.1 $\pm$ 0.1 <sup>e</sup> | 7.84 $\pm$ 0.08 <sup>a</sup> | 0.62 $\pm$ 0.41 <sup>a</sup> | 0.71 $\pm$ 0.50 <sup>a</sup> | 5.90 $\pm$ 0.35 <sup>a</sup> | 8.0 $\pm$ 0.2 <sup>a</sup> |
| Cold      | 24.1 $\pm$ 0.1 <sup>d</sup> | 7.88 $\pm$ 0.09 <sup>a</sup> | 0.59 $\pm$ 0.45 <sup>a</sup> | 0.66 $\pm$ 0.47 <sup>a</sup> | 5.70 $\pm$ 0.33 <sup>a</sup> | 8.2 $\pm$ 0.1 <sup>a</sup> |
| Regular   | 27.5 $\pm$ 0.1 <sup>c</sup> | 7.90 $\pm$ 0.10 <sup>a</sup> | 0.68 $\pm$ 0.52 <sup>a</sup> | 0.77 $\pm$ 0.56 <sup>a</sup> | 5.50 $\pm$ 0.30 <sup>a</sup> | 8.3 $\pm$ 0.6 <sup>a</sup> |
| Hot       | 29.4 $\pm$ 0.1 <sup>b</sup> | 7.93 $\pm$ 0.11 <sup>a</sup> | 0.74 $\pm$ 0.50 <sup>a</sup> | 0.83 $\pm$ 0.58 <sup>a</sup> | 5.40 $\pm$ 0.32 <sup>a</sup> | 7.9 $\pm$ 0.3 <sup>a</sup> |
| Very hot  | 31.3 $\pm$ 0.1 <sup>a</sup> | 7.96 $\pm$ 0.12 <sup>a</sup> | 0.82 $\pm$ 0.55 <sup>a</sup> | 0.89 $\pm$ 0.60 <sup>a</sup> | 5.20 $\pm$ 0.38 <sup>a</sup> | 8.3 $\pm$ 0.2 <sup>a</sup> |

516

517 **Table 2.** Type III analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) for *Penaeus vannamei* clicks emitted  
 518 during feeding activity under different temperature treatments. Temperatures tested were:  
 519 22.1 °C (Very cold), 24.1 °C (Cold), 27.5 °C (Regular), 29.4 °C (Hot), and 31.3 °C (Very hot).  
 520 The model included the main effects of time and treatment, and their interaction. Significant  
 521 values are marked by asterisks (\* $p < 0.05$ ; \*\* $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\* $p < 0.001$ ).

522

| Source             | Sum of Squares | Df  | F value | Pr(>F)    | Significance |
|--------------------|----------------|-----|---------|-----------|--------------|
| Intercept          | 63670          | 1   | 248.743 | < 2.2e-16 | ***          |
| Time               | 22473          | 1   | 87.799  | < 2.2e-16 | ***          |
| Temperature        | 26779          | 4   | 26.154  | < 2.2e-16 | ***          |
| Time — Temperature | 12867          | 4   | 12.567  | 1.93E-09  | ***          |
| Residuals          | 74230          | 290 |         |           |              |

523

524

525

526 **Table 3.** Pairwise comparisons of temperature treatments versus the Regular temperature (27.5  
 527 °C) as a control, based on estimated marginal means (EMMs) with Bonferroni adjustment, using  
 528 15-min click recordings. Negative values indicate fewer clicks relative to the control.  
 529 Temperatures tested were 22.1 °C (Very cold), 24.1 °C (Cold), 27.5 °C (Regular), 29.4 °C (Hot),  
 530 and 31.3 °C (Very hot). Significant differences are denoted by asterisks (\* $p < 0.05$ ).

| Contrast            | Estimate | SE   | df  | t-ratio | <i>p</i> -value |
|---------------------|----------|------|-----|---------|-----------------|
| Very cold - Regular | -20.583  | 2.92 | 290 | -7.047  | <0.0001*        |
| Cold - Regular      | -12.617  | 2.92 | 290 | - 4.319 | 0.0002*         |
| Hot - Regular       | -0.217   | 2.92 | 290 | -0.074  | 1               |
| Very hot - Regular  | -5.017   | 2.92 | 290 | -1.717  | 1               |

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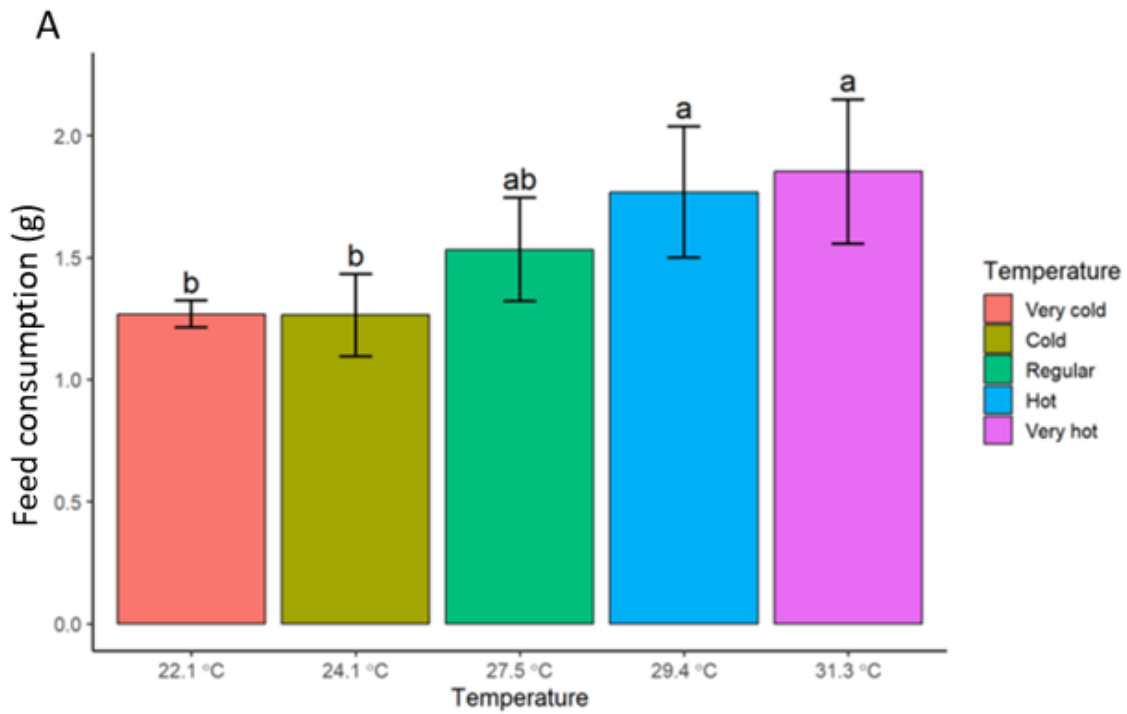
533 **Table 4.** Pairwise comparisons of temperature treatments versus the Regular temperature (27.5  
 534 °C) as a control, based on estimated marginal means (EMMs) with Bonferroni adjustment, using  
 535 30-min click recordings. Negative values indicate fewer clicks relative to the control.  
 536 Temperatures tested were 22.1 °C (Very cold), 24.1 °C (Cold), 27.5 °C (Regular), 29.4 °C (Hot),  
 537 and 31.3 °C (Very hot). Significant differences are denoted by asterisks (\* $p < 0.05$ ).

| Contrast            | Estimate | SE   | df  | t-ratio | <i>p</i> -value |
|---------------------|----------|------|-----|---------|-----------------|
| Very cold - Regular | -13.18   | 1.88 | 590 | -6.997  | <0.0001*        |
| Cold - Regular      | -7.8     | 1.88 | 590 | -4.142  | 0.0002*         |
| Hot - Regular       | -0.1     | 1.88 | 590 | -0.053  | 1               |
| Very hot - Regular  | -1.02    | 1.88 | 590 | -0.54   | 1               |

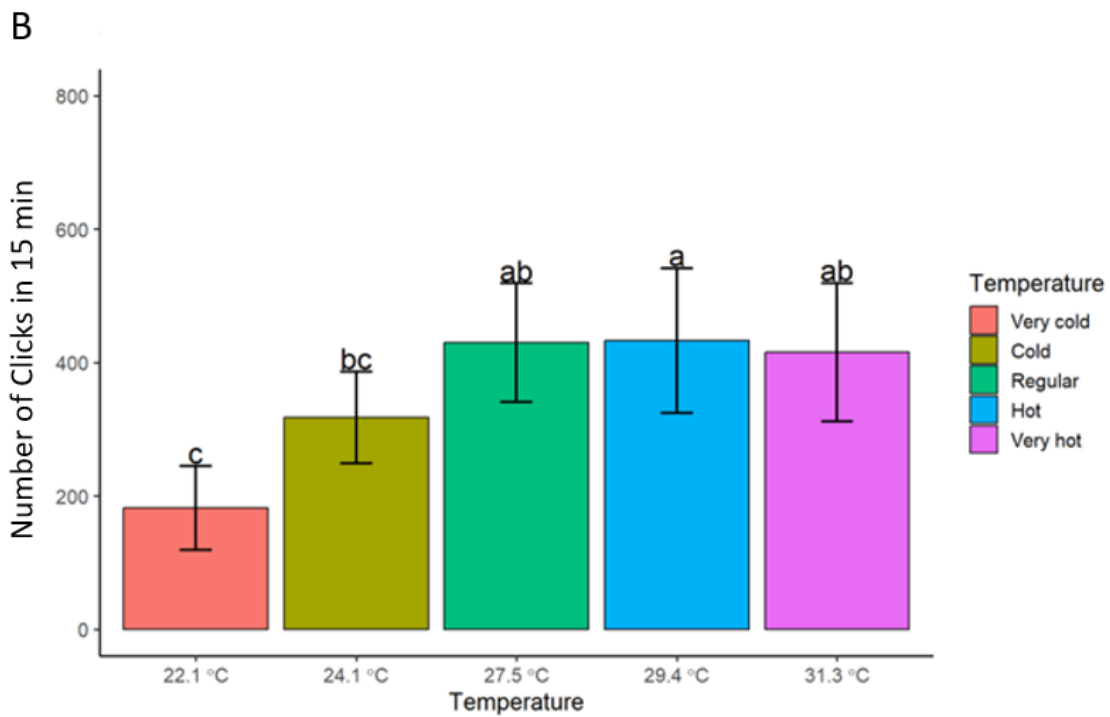
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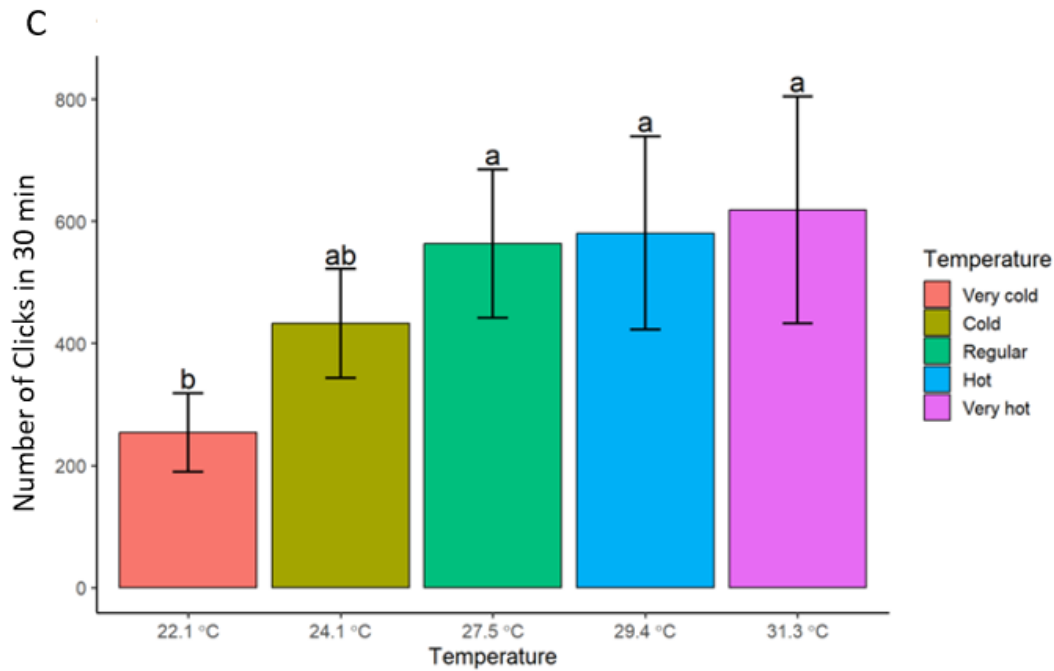
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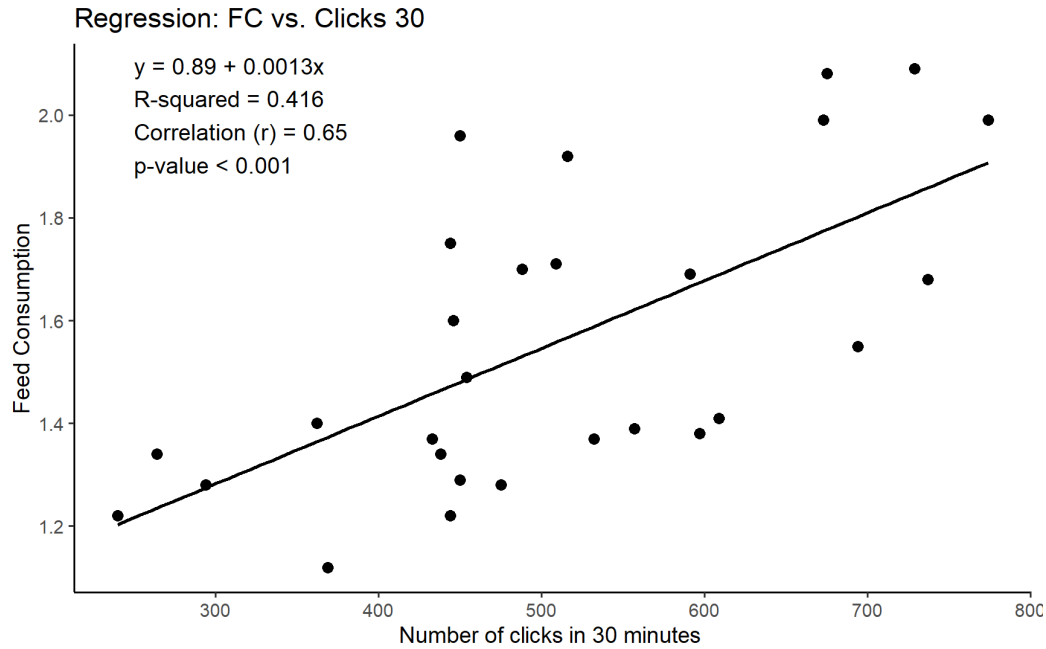
542



543

544 **Figure 1.** Effect of different water temperatures on the feeding behavior of *Penaeus vannamei*  
545 under controlled laboratory conditions. (A) Mean food consumption (g) per treatment after 30  
546 minutes. (B) Mean number of acoustic clicks detected in the first 15 minutes of feeding activity.  
547 (C) Mean number of acoustic clicks detected over the full 30-minutes recordings of feeding  
548 activity. Temperatures tested were: 22.1 °C (Very cold), 24.1 °C (Cold), 27.5 °C (Regular),  
549 29.4 °C (Hot), and 31.3 °C (Very hot). Bars represent mean values ( $\pm$  standard deviation) while  
550 different lowercase letters above indicate significant differences among treatments ( $p < 0.05$ ).

551

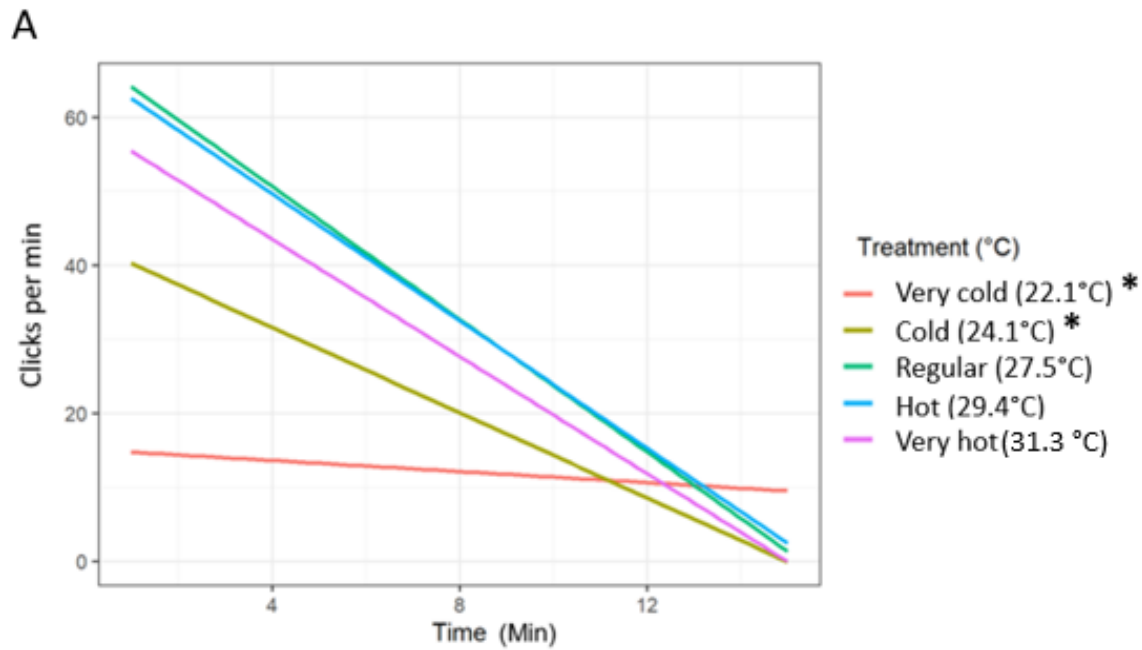


552

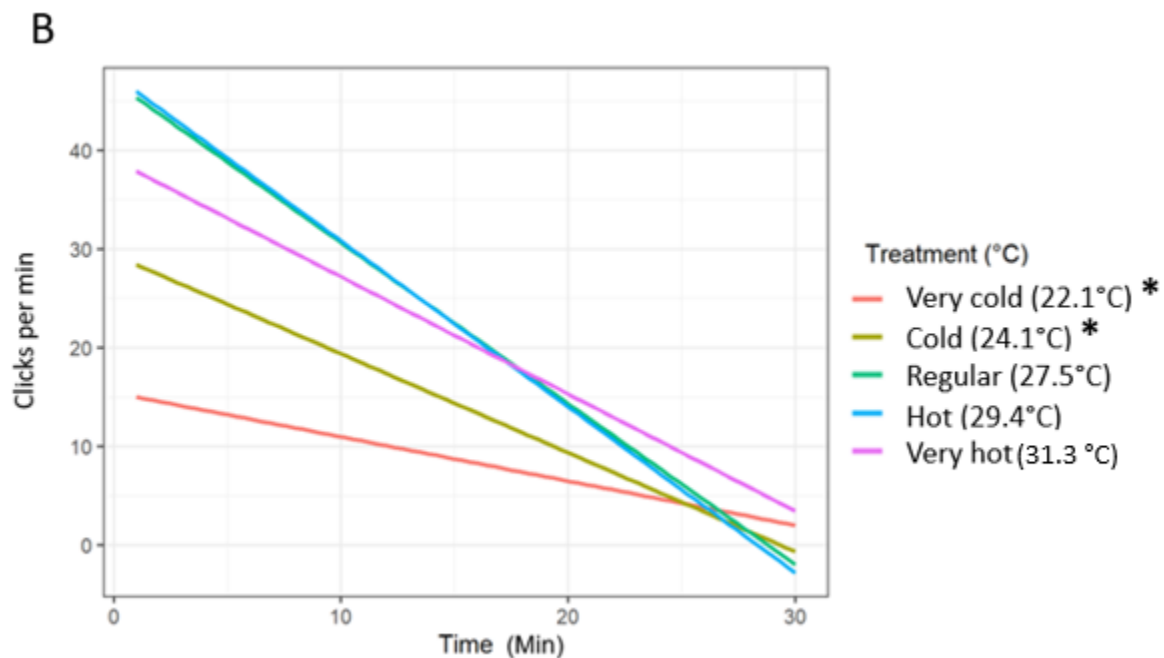
553 **Figure 2.** Linear regression between total number of acoustic clicks and food consumption of  
554 *Penaeus vannamei* across all treatments. Correlation between food consumption and number of  
555 clicks in 30 minutes ( $r=0.65$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). Each point represents the mean value from one  
556 aquarium replicate. The regression line illustrates the direction and strength of the relationship  
557 between acoustic activity and feed intake.

558

559



560



561

562 **Figure 3.** Linear trends in acoustic click activity of *Penaeus vannamei* across temperature  
 563 treatments, derived from a Type III ANCOVA including time (min), treatment, and their  
 564 interaction. X-axis: time (min), Y-axis: clicks per minute. (A) 15-min feeding period. (B) 30-min  
 565 feeding period. Each line shows the model-fitted regression for a given temperature treatment.

566 Asterisks in the legend indicate treatments that differ from the Regular temperature condition  
567 (27.5 °C) at  $p < 0.05$

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578 3- Capítulo 2 Gasping for air: The impact of gradual versus abrupt hypoxia on the acoustic  
579 feeding behavior of *Penaeus vannamei*.

580

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581

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597

598 **Abstract**

599 Dissolved oxygen (DO) is a critical limiting factor in intensive shrimp farming. It is well known  
600 that hypoxia can reduce feed intake, but accurately quantifying this behavioral response is  
601 challenging with traditional monitoring methods. Passive Acoustic Monitoring (PAM) offers a  
602 non-invasive, high-resolution alternative to assess shrimp behavior based on mandibular click  
603 emission during feeding activity. This study aimed to use PAM to evaluate the effect of  
604 progressive hypoxia on the feeding behavior of *Penaeus vannamei*. Groups of juvenile shrimps  
605 (16 g) were exposed to four DO levels of 5 (control), 3, 2, and 1 mg/L. The low levels (3, 2, and  
606 1 mg/L) were achieved using two distinct methods: a "gradual reduction" by turning aeration off  
607 and a more "abrupt reduction" via nitrogen gas. Shrimp food consumption (FC) and acoustic  
608 click activity were measured over 30 min and analyzed using two-way ANOVA, linear  
609 regression, and Generalized Least Squares (GLS). Results showed that FC and click activity  
610 were strongly correlated ( $R = 0.807$ ,  $p$ -value  $< 0.001$ ) and the method of oxygen reduction  
611 significantly influenced both behavioral responses. Under gradual reduction, food consumption  
612 remained statistically similar at 5, 3, and 2 mg/L, but dropped significantly to 1 mg/L,  
613 accompanied by reduced click activity. Under abrupt reduction, food consumption showed a  
614 clearer DO-dependent decline, with the main significant drop occurring at 1 mg/L. The GLS  
615 indicated that under hypoxia, click activity peaked early and declined rapidly, whereas under  
616 aeration (5 mg/L) clicking rates remained more stable over time. These results suggest that the  
617 method of dissolved oxygen reduction (gradual vs. abrupt), rather than the final concentration  
618 alone, significantly influences the feeding behavior of *P. vannamei*. We validate PAM as a  
619 precise tool to detect hypoxic stress in real-time, offering a method to optimize feeding and  
620 aeration management.

621 **Keywords:** penaeid; clicks; feeding activity; dissolved oxygen.

## 622 **1. Introduction**

623           The intensification of *Penaeus vannamei* culture has shifted management focus toward  
624 the critical interplay between environmental stability and feeding efficiency. As stocking  
625 densities increase, dissolved oxygen (DO) emerges as the primary limiting factor, directly  
626 governing metabolic scope and growth performance (Bett and Vinatea, 2009; Mohammed et al.,  
627 2024). In high-density, low-exchange systems, water-quality parameters can deteriorate quickly,  
628 elevating health risks and undermining production sustainability (Hopkins et al., 1991;  
629 Mohammed et al., 2024). Among these parameters, DO is often the most sensitive and limiting,  
630 as it underpins respiration and energy metabolism and can modulate shrimp immune competence  
631 and survival (Bett and Vinatea, 2009; San Andres et al., 2025).

632           Hypoxia is frequently observed in rearing environments whenever biological oxygen  
633 demand exceeds the available supply a common occurrence near dawn in shrimp ponds, typically  
634 defined as DO concentrations below 3 mg/L (Ferreira et al., 2020; San Andres et al., 2025).  
635 While *P. vannamei* possesses physiological mechanisms that confer some tolerance to transient  
636 low-oxygen events, sustained or severe hypoxia triggers oxidative stress, immune suppression,  
637 and increased mortality (San Andres et al., 2025). Under such conditions, penaeid shrimp reduce  
638 feeding activity as an energy-conservation strategy, with concomitant decreases in locomotion  
639 and feed intake (Bett and Vinatea, 2009; Jasmin et al., 2022). Understanding the precise  
640 thresholds of these behavioral shifts across different hypoxia trajectories is therefore essential for  
641 optimizing aeration and feeding protocols in modern shrimp aquaculture.

642           While feed intake reduction is a response well-recognized under low DO levels in shrimp  
643 farming, evaluating the underlying mechanisms of this feeding behavior remains challenging.  
644 Conventional approaches of visual behavior assessments and feed-tray monitoring are labor-  
645 intensive, prone to observer bias, and ineffective under low-visibility or nighttime conditions

646 (Smith and Tabrett, 2013; Mohammed et al., 2024). Passive acoustic monitoring (PAM) offers a  
647 non-invasive alternative by detecting characteristic feeding sounds (clicks) produced during  
648 mandibular occlusion of shrimp (Smith and Tabrett, 2013; Silva et al., 2019). Therefore, PAM  
649 has been successfully applied to evaluate a range of behavioral responses in shrimp subjected to  
650 different management practices (e.g., stocking density, pellet size, and feed formulation),  
651 enabling continuous monitoring of feeding intensity with high temporal resolution (Peixoto and  
652 Soares, 2025). Moreover, this acoustic approach has recently been applied to investigate the  
653 effects of water temperature on the feeding activity of *P. vannamei*, demonstrating that different  
654 temperature levels (22.1, 24.1, 27.5, 29.4, and 31.3 °C) influence not only the overall magnitude  
655 of feeding activity but also its temporal pattern (Costa Filho et al., 2026).

656 Despite its proven effectiveness, the application of PAM to specifically quantify feeding  
657 behavior under varying levels of hypoxia has not been tested and remains a significant  
658 knowledge gap. Although the relationship between hypoxia and shrimp feeding is understood  
659 qualitatively, the present study aims to employ PAM to evaluate the effect of progressive  
660 hypoxia on real-time feeding behavior of *P. vannamei* using two distinct methods: gradual and  
661 abrupt (nitrogen-induced) reduction of DO levels.

662

## 663 **2. Materials and methods**

### 664 *2.1. Experimental design*

665 This study was conducted in a temperature-controlled room at the E.W. Shell Fisheries  
666 Center, Auburn University (AL, USA), using glass aquaria (70 L each) arranged in a closed  
667 clean-water recirculating system. This system consists of a common sump, biological filter  
668 media (fluidized bed and bead filters), circulation pump and continuous aeration. A total of 24  
669 independently aerated aquaria were used. The experimental design was divided into two groups

670 of 12 aquaria to evaluate two different hypoxia induction methods: (1) gradual reduction and (2)  
671 abrupt reduction. Four dissolved oxygen (DO) concentration treatments were established for  
672 each method: 5 (control), 3, 2, and 1 mg/L. Each treatment consisted of three replicates, resulting  
673 in a total of 12 aquaria per method. During the trials, recirculation was turned off, and the target  
674 concentrations were reached as follows: for gradual reduction, aeration was stopped to allow  
675 oxygen to decrease naturally; while for abrupt reduction, nitrogen gas (N<sub>2</sub>) was injected into the  
676 water column to specifically evaluate rapid (abrupt) DO drops. For the gradual reduction method  
677 (aeration removal), the time required to reach the target DO levels dictated the recording  
678 sequence. It took approximately 2 hours to reach 3 mg/L, 4 hours for 2 mg/L, and 6 hours for 1  
679 mg/L. Thus, recordings followed the order of 3, 2, and 1 mg/L. The abrupt reduction (N<sub>2</sub>  
680 injection) method followed the same procedural order but utilized nitrogen injection while  
681 monitoring until the desired DO level was reached. The aeration for the control group (5 mg/L)  
682 was also removed just prior to its recording session.

683 *P. vannamei* (mean weight  $16.26 \pm 1.00$  g) were used in the experiment, with 10 shrimp  
684 stocked per aquarium (40 shrimps per m<sup>2</sup>). The animals were previously reared under controlled  
685 laboratory conditions and acclimated to the experimental aquariums for 48 hours before data  
686 collection. A dedicated and independent group of shrimps was used for each DO treatment and  
687 reduction method (gradual and abrupt). The experiment was conducted over two days, as the  
688 gradual reduction method was applied on the first day, and the abrupt reduction on the second  
689 day. Throughout the experiment, shrimp were fed a commercial diet (2.4 mm pellets, CP 35%;  
690 Zeigler Bros Inc., USA).

691 To ensure precise control of the experimental treatments, dissolved oxygen (DO), water  
692 temperature and salinity were continuously monitored throughout the trials using a YSI  
693 Professional Plus digital meter (YSI Inc., Yellow Springs, OH, USA). Secondary parameters,

694 such as pH and total ammonia nitrogen (TAN), were measured at the end of the trial, with TAN  
695 determined colorimetrically using a YSI 9500 photometer (YSI Inc., Yellow Springs, OH, USA).

696

## 697 2.2. Food consumption and acoustic analysis

698 During the trials, after a 16-h fasting period programmed according to the test sequence,  
699 each aquarium received 2.0 g of commercial feed at the first morning feeding, gently delivered at  
700 the tank center. Thus, after 30 min, the uneaten feed was siphoned onto pre-weighed cellulose  
701 filters (20  $\mu\text{m}$  pore size), and the filters were oven-dried at 100 °C for 24 h to determine the dry  
702 mass recovered and compute consumption. To correct for leaching, a control assay was  
703 performed in twelve shrimp-free aquaria by adding 1.0 g (as is) of the same feed and applying  
704 the identical recovery and drying protocol; the proportion of feed recovered in these controls was  
705 used as a leaching correction factor in intake estimates. The mean food consumption (FC) on a  
706 dry-matter basis was calculated as  $FC = F_o - (F_r / F_l)$ , where  $F_o$  is the dry weight of feed  
707 offered,  $F_r$  is the dry weight of feed recovered, and  $F_l$  is the leaching correction factor (the  
708 proportion of feed recovered from shrimp-free controls, where  $F_l = F_r / F_o$ ).

709 In parallel to food consumption analysis, passive acoustic monitoring (PAM) was  
710 conducted for each replicate aquarium. Acoustic data were captured using four omnidirectional  
711 AS-1 hydrophones (Aquarian Hydrophones, USA; flat frequency response 1 Hz–100 kHz;  
712 sensitivity –208 dBV), each connected to a 26 dB PA-4 preamplifier and a 6-channel multitrack  
713 recorder (Zoom F6, USA) set to a 192 kHz sampling rate and 16-bit resolution. Hydrophones  
714 were positioned at the center of each aquarium, and recordings began at feed offering and lasted  
715 30 min.

716 Audio files were analyzed in Raven Pro 1.5 (Cornell Lab of Ornithology, USA) using a  
717 band-limited energy detector applied to the spectrogram (Hann window, FFT size 512 samples, 3

718 dB filter bandwidth 135 Hz, 50% overlap) with detection parameters of 15 – 90 kHz frequency  
719 range, 5 – 50 ms signal duration, and minimum signal-to-noise ratio of 12 dB. The Raven output  
720 provided the timestamp of each detected click, forming the database for subsequent calculations  
721 and statistical analyses. Thus, click data from each aquarium were processed in Microsoft Excel  
722 using a histogram analysis with the click occurrence timestamps to calculate the frequency of  
723 clicks per minute over the 30-minute recording period for each replicate.

724

### 725 2.3. Statistical Analysis

726 The treatment effects on food consumption (FC) and total click counts at 30 min were  
727 compared using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), with dissolved oxygen level (5, 3, 2,  
728 and 1 mg/L) and reduction method (gradual and abrupt) as factors. Prior to analysis, normality  
729 and homogeneity of variances were verified using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Cochran's tests,  
730 respectively. When significant differences were detected, Tukey's HSD post hoc test was used  
731 for pairwise comparisons of treatment means. Additionally, to validate acoustic activity as an  
732 indicator of food consumption, linear regression analyses were performed to assess the  
733 correlation between total click counts (during 30 min) and FC values after 30 min.

734 The temporal dynamics of acoustic activity were evaluated using generalized least  
735 squares (GLS) models, which account for potential heteroscedasticity in the residuals. First, to  
736 compare the different DO treatments against the control (5 mg/L), a global model was  
737 constructed using time as a continuous predictor and DO level as a categorical predictor.  
738 Pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means (EMMs) were performed using  
739 Fisher's least significant difference (LSD) post-hoc test to identify specific differences between  
740 DO levels. Subsequently, to address the comparison between reduction pathways (gradual vs.

741 abrupt) within each specific DO level, separate GLS models were fitted for each DO  
742 concentration (3, 2, and 1 mg/L). In these subset analyses, time served as the covariate and the  
743 reduction method as the categorical factor. A significant Time  $\times$  Treatment interaction indicated  
744 that the rate of activity decline differed significantly between the gradual and abrupt induction  
745 methods.

746 To examine the relationship between DO concentration and shrimp feeding metrics (food  
747 consumption and total acoustic clicks), linear regression models were applied. Pearson  
748 correlation coefficients (R) and their respective significance levels were calculated for each  
749 reduction method (gradual and abrupt) to determine the strength and direction of the association  
750 between DO levels and acoustic activity.

751 Acoustic click counts recorded at 1 mg/L dissolved oxygen were analyzed to compare the  
752 effects of gradual and abrupt hypoxia induction methods. For each method, the empirical  
753 cumulative distribution function (ECDF) was generated to visualize the cumulative probability  
754 distribution of click intensities. Differences between the two distributions were assessed using a  
755 two-sample Kolmogorov–Smirnov (K–S) test.

756 All statistical analyses were performed using R software (version 4.x) within the RStudio  
757 environment, adopting a significance level of  $\alpha = 0.05$  for all tests.

758

### 759 **3. Results**

760 Throughout the experiment, water quality parameters were maintained at  $28.5 \pm 0.24$  °C  
761 for temperature,  $8.9 \pm 0.68$  for salinity,  $7.41 \pm 0.14$  for pH, and  $0.074 \pm 0.082$  mg/L for total  
762 ammonia nitrogen (TAN). Regarding the dissolved oxygen levels, the actual mean  
763 concentrations were  $5.31 \pm 0.20$  mg/L for the Control, followed by  $3.02 \pm 0.09$  mg/L,  $1.94 \pm$   
764  $0.11$  mg/L, and  $1.13 \pm 0.07$  mg/L for treatments named as the 3, 2, and 1 mg/L, respectively.

765 Shrimp food consumption was significantly influenced by both the dissolved oxygen  
766 (DO) concentration and the method of oxygen reduction (Figure 1). Under the gradual reduction  
767 method, food consumption remained statistically similar among the 5 mg/L (control), 3 mg/L,  
768 and 2 mg/L groups (Figure 1A; Table 1). However, shrimp at the 1 mg/L treatment showed a  
769 significant reduction in feed intake compared to all other groups (Table 1). In the abrupt  
770 nitrogen-induced method, a clearer DO-dependent decline was observed, with the highest food  
771 consumption in the aerated control (5 mg/L), intermediate values at 3 and 2 mg/L, and the lowest  
772 values recorded at 1 mg/L (Figure 2A; Table 2). Accordingly, shrimp at the 1 mg/L treatment  
773 showed a significantly lower food consumption when compared to all other groups, while shrimp  
774 at 2 mg/L did not differ from the 3 mg/L treatment (Table 2).

775 Overall, shrimp clicking activity followed similar trends to food consumption in both  
776 dissolved oxygen reduction methods. In the gradual reduction method, the number of clicks  
777 recorded over 30 min was significantly lower in the 1 mg/L group compared to all others, except  
778 for the shrimp at 2 mg/L (Figure 1B; Table 1). For the nitrogen-induced (abrupt) method, shrimp  
779 in the aerated control (5 mg/L) exhibited a significantly higher clicking activity compared to the  
780 1 mg/L group, but both did not differ from shrimp in intermediate values of 3 and 2 mg/L  
781 (Figure 2B; Table 2).

782 A significant positive linear relationship ( $p$ -value < 0.001) was observed between shrimp  
783 acoustic activity and food consumption. This regression analysis revealed a strong association ( $R$   
784 = 0.807) between the total number of clicks recorded in 30 min and feed intake (Figure 3),  
785 confirming that clicking activity can be used as a predictor of food consumption under the  
786 conditions tested.

787 To evaluate the effect of DO levels and time on shrimp acoustic activity, a GLS analysis  
788 was performed for both DO reduction methods, considering time (min) as a covariate (Figure 4).

789 For the gradual reduction method, the analysis revealed that the main effects of DO treatment  
790 and time, as well as their interaction, were highly significant (Table 3). Pairwise comparisons  
791 confirmed that shrimp in the 2 mg/L and 1 mg/L groups exhibited significantly lower clicking  
792 activity over time compared to the control group (5 mg/L), while the 3 mg/L group did not differ  
793 significantly from the control (Table 4). Similarly, for the nitrogen-induced method, both the  
794 main effects of DO treatment and time had significant effects on shrimp clicking activity (Table  
795 5). Remarkably, in this method, the interaction between Treatment and Time was not significant  
796 (Table 5), differing from the gradual method. Pairwise comparisons again revealed that shrimp in  
797 the 2 mg/L and 1 mg/L treatments had significantly reduced clicking activity compared to the  
798 aerated control, while the 3 mg/L treatment did not differ significantly from the control (Table  
799 6).

800 Finally, the relationship between DO concentration and feeding metrics was modeled  
801 using linear regressions to compare the two hypoxia trajectories (Figure 5). For both gradual  
802 (Figures 5A, 5B) and abrupt (Figures 5C, 5D) methods, a significant positive correlation was  
803 observed between DO levels and both food consumption and acoustic activity ( $p$ -value < 0.001).  
804 The higher Pearson coefficients recorded for click activity ( $R = 0.782$  and  $R = 0.773$  for gradual  
805 and abrupt, respectively) compared to food consumption ( $R = 0.661$  and  $R = 0.595$ ) reinforce the  
806 precision of acoustic monitoring in reflecting feeding suppression across different oxygen  
807 reduction dynamics.

808 The distribution of acoustic clicks emitted by shrimp at 1 mg/L DO differ significantly  
809 between the DO reduction methods (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test). The ECDF analysis showed a  
810 clear shift to higher click intensities in the abrupt group compared to the gradual group (Figure  
811 6). In the abrupt method, shrimp showed a median of 8 clicks/min, while in the gradual method  
812 the median was only 2.0 clicks/min. Furthermore, shrimp in the gradual reduction group

813 recorded zero activity at the 25th percentile, while in the abrupt group they maintained the  
814 clicking activity at 2.0 clicks/min (Figure 6).

815

#### 816 **4. Discussion**

817 The present study demonstrated that dissolved oxygen (DO) concentration plays a critical  
818 role in modulating the feeding behavior of *P. vannamei*, with both food consumption and  
819 acoustic activity significantly reduced under hypoxic conditions. Furthermore, the method of DO  
820 reduction whether gradual or abrupt (Nitrogen injection) influenced the magnitude of the  
821 shrimp's behavioral response. These findings were acquired through passive acoustic monitoring  
822 (PAM) and validated by direct feed intake, an approach applied for the first time to evaluate the  
823 effects of different DO levels, although it has already been successfully used in several PAM  
824 studies on shrimp feeding behavior, as reviewed by Peixoto and Soares (2025).

825 Under the gradual DO reduction, food consumption remained stable in the aerated control  
826 (5mg/L) and 3mg/L treatments, but dropped significantly to 1mg/L, indicating a clear behavioral  
827 threshold. This aligns with reports of reduced growth and feed efficiency in *P. vannamei* and  
828 *Penaeus monodon* reared at DO levels of 1.8 mg/L or lower, suggesting that while shrimp  
829 tolerate moderate hypoxia (~2 – 3 mg/L), levels near 1 mg/L exceed the physiological threshold  
830 for normal feeding behavior (Seidman and Lawrence, 1985; Dall et al., 1991). This is likely due  
831 to the energetic trade-off imposed by extreme hypoxia, forcing shrimp to shift from active  
832 feeding to energy conservation and metabolic depression (Zhang et al., 2006). Accordingly, such  
833 behavioral shift was confirmed for both food consumption and acoustic activity in shrimp when  
834 DO levels reached 1 mg/L. Nevertheless, at 1 mg/L, the ECDF analysis revealed a significant  
835 distributional shift (Figure 5), indicating that the probability of high-intensity clicking events  
836 differed between the gradual and abrupt reduction methods. This suggests that the dynamics of

837 hypoxia induction not only the final DO concentration modulate shrimp acoustic behavior. In  
838 practical terms, abrupt DO drops can alter the pattern of behavioral suppression, emphasizing the  
839 critical importance of preventing dissolved oxygen from declining to 1 mg/L in *P. vannamei*  
840 farming.

841         Mirroring the food consumption results, click activity measured via PAM proved to be a  
842 precise proxy for feeding behavior, closely tracking feed intake patterns and showing clear  
843 reductions as DO decreased in both gradual and abrupt hypoxia scenarios. Importantly, while at  
844 moderate hypoxia (2 – 3 mg/L) both methods produced comparable patterns of shrimp feeding  
845 behavioral decline, at 1 mg/L the rate of reduction in clicking activity diverged between  
846 methods, highlighting that PAM is sensitive not only to identify behavior patterns at the lowest  
847 DO concentration, but also during its decline trajectory. This consistency reinforces its validity  
848 as a quantitative ethological approach for shrimp (Peixoto and Soares, 2025), as also indicated by  
849 the strong positive correlation ( $R = 0.807$ ,  $p$ -value  $< 0.001$ ) between FC and number of clicks of  
850 *P. vannamei* in the present study. Moreover, PAM revealed nuances in the temporal profile of  
851 feeding behavior under different DO levels, as indicated by the significant Time  $\times$  Treatment  
852 interaction (GLS), showing that under air saturation clicking rates remained stable over time,  
853 whereas under hypoxia they peaked early and declined rapidly. This pattern is consistent with a  
854 hypoxia-compensation strategy of *P. vannamei*, characterized by an initial exploratory feeding  
855 response followed by energy-saving suppression driven by metabolic constraints (Nguyen et al.,  
856 2022).

857         The comprehensive behavioral suppression, observed in both food consumption and  
858 acoustic activity of *P. vannamei* in the present study, can also be interpreted through biochemical  
859 and immunological constraints. Hypoxic exposure is known to shift metabolism toward protein  
860 catabolism (lower O:N ratios) and reduce the energetic return on feeding in penaeid shrimp

861 (Rosas et al., 1999). In parallel, low DO significantly modulates immune indices (Li et al., 2007),  
862 reducing antibacterial activities (Jiang et al., 2005) and increasing susceptibility to vibriosis in  
863 penaeids (Le Moullac et al., 1998; He et al., 2024). Sudden drops in DO are known to trigger  
864 abrupt physiological shock, including elevated HIF-1 alpha expression and oxidative stress,  
865 which leads to behavioral suppression (He et al., 2024). These physiological limitations likely  
866 contributed to the reduced feeding activity observed in our study under low DO levels.

867         At the 3 mg/L level, no significant difference was detected in the *P. vannamei* behavioral  
868 response between the gradual and abrupt DO reduction pathways. This is consistent with field  
869 studies in which aeration administered at minimum DO levels of approximately 2.5 mg/L did not  
870 impair the growth, survival, or feed conversion of *P. vannamei* (Araujo et al., 2024). Similarly,  
871 recirculating systems with gradual, daily DO drops (occasionally < 2.5 mg/L) also did not  
872 negatively impact growth or gene expression of this species (San Andres et al., 2025). Taken  
873 together, these findings reinforce that not only the DO level but also the rate at which it changes  
874 determines the stability of feeding behavior in *P. vannamei*. Nevertheless, shrimp size should  
875 also be considered as an important factor when interpreting the present results. The shrimp used  
876 in our trials averaged ~16 g, which corresponds with a size class where body mass strongly  
877 shapes the feeding dynamics and overall energy turnover (Dall et al., 1991). Previous PAM  
878 studies observed that *P. vannamei* of ~10 g sustain a more persistent clicking rate, while smaller  
879 shrimp (~4 g) show a faster decline in click activity as they rapidly attain satiation (Peixoto and  
880 Soares, 2025). Therefore, the sharper behavioral suppression of clicking activity under hypoxia  
881 may reflect the higher absolute metabolic demands of ~16 g shrimp, making them less resilient  
882 to abrupt DO drops than juveniles (Dall et al., 1991).

883         Beyond these specific biological insights, one of the most significant contributions of this  
884 study is demonstrating that PAM provides an actionable, real-time window into shrimp feeding

885 behavior, which is particularly valuable in farming systems where visual tracking is impractical  
886 and post observational feed response (e.g. feeding trays) is applied to estimate feeding rates (Reis  
887 et al., 2022). This technology can detect not only differences in feeding intensity but also  
888 behaviorally meaningful temporal shifts, allowing for early detection of hypoxic stress. This  
889 integration is critical because the feeding event itself is a primary driver of oxygen demand, and  
890 studies confirm that the oxygen consumption level of *P. vannamei* is significantly higher after  
891 feeding than before, as more oxygen is required to oxidize the feed nutrients (Budiardi et al.,  
892 2005). Although acoustics-based automated feeders have successfully improved feeding  
893 management (Reis et al., 2022; Peixoto and Soares, 2025), the present findings highlight their  
894 potential to prevent feed waste during hypoxic events. This is particularly critical given that  
895 shrimp aggregation around feeders can locally deplete oxygen levels. Therefore, alongside  
896 acoustic monitoring, strategic aerator positioning is required to ensure adequate water current  
897 across the feeding zone, thereby maintaining minimal water quality parameters and optimizing  
898 food consumption. Extending this integration toward DO management is therefore not just a  
899 plausible next step, but an essential one for managing the abrupt, feed-induced oxygen demand,  
900 if aerator noise and sensor placement are handled appropriately.

901

## 902 **5. Conclusion**

903 This study concludes that both the concentration and the rate of dissolved oxygen decline  
904 critically modulate the feeding behavior of *P. vannamei*. While shrimp maintained statistical  
905 parity in food consumption down to 2 mg/L under gradual hypoxia, abrupt DO drops suppressed  
906 feeding activity at 2 mg/L and became even more pronounced at 1 mg/L, highlighting the  
907 behavioral impact of sudden physiological shock. This research successfully validated passive  
908 acoustic monitoring (PAM) as a precise, real-time proxy for food consumption, confirmed by a

909 strong linear correlation. Furthermore, PAM was sensitive enough to detect not only the intensity  
910 of feeding suppression but also the temporal dynamics, capturing the shift to an "early peak and  
911 rapid decline" clicking behavior under hypoxic stress. Since these results were obtained with 16  
912 g shrimp, future studies should investigate how these behavioral responses to DO concentration  
913 and depletion rate evolve throughout the grow-out cycle. This offers a clear pathway for  
914 integrating environmental and feeding automation tailored to shrimp size and real-time behavior.

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977 **Table 1.** Mean ( $\pm$ SE) food consumption (g) and acoustic activity (total clicks) of *Penaeus*  
 978 *vannamei* recorded during the total 30-min duration across dissolved oxygen (DO) concentration  
 979 treatments (5 Control, 3, 2 and 1 mg/L) under gradual reduction method. Different superscript  
 980 letters within each column indicate significant differences among DO treatments based on One-  
 981 way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc test ( $p$ -value < 0.05).

982

|     | Treatment | Food consumption (g)         | Clicks (30 min)                  |
|-----|-----------|------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 984 | 5 mg/L    | 1.23 $\pm$ 0.19 <sup>a</sup> | 594.11 $\pm$ 155.75 <sup>a</sup> |
| 985 | 3 mg/L    | 1.19 $\pm$ 0.03 <sup>a</sup> | 540.67 $\pm$ 101.67 <sup>a</sup> |
|     | 2 mg/L    | 0.92 $\pm$ 0.23 <sup>a</sup> | 347.0 $\pm$ 186.0 <sup>ab</sup>  |
|     | 1 mg/L    | 0.45 $\pm$ 0.17 <sup>b</sup> | 176.33 $\pm$ 94.87 <sup>b</sup>  |

986 **Table 2.** Mean ( $\pm$ SE) food consumption (g) and acoustic activity (total clicks) of *Penaeus*  
 987 *vannamei* recorded during the total 30-min duration across dissolved oxygen (DO) concentration  
 988 treatments (5 Control, 3, 2 and 1 mg/L) under abrupt reduction method. Different superscript  
 989 letters within each column indicate significant differences among DO treatments based on One-  
 990 way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc test ( $p$ -value < 0.05).

| Treatment | Food consumption (g)          | Clicks (30 min)                 |
|-----------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 5 mg/L    | 1.38 $\pm$ 0.10 <sup>a</sup>  | 579.8 $\pm$ 149.17 <sup>a</sup> |
| 3 mg/L    | 1.20 $\pm$ 0.07 <sup>ab</sup> | 500.7 $\pm$ 81.94 <sup>ab</sup> |
| 2 mg/L    | 1.07 $\pm$ 0.16 <sup>b</sup>  | 387.0 $\pm$ 20.52 <sup>ab</sup> |
| 1 mg/L    | 0.78 $\pm$ 0.10 <sup>c</sup>  | 332.3 $\pm$ 48.79 <sup>b</sup>  |

993 **Table 3.** Type III analysis of deviance for the Generalized Least Squares (GLS) model fitted to  
 994 the gradual dissolved oxygen (DO) reduction, evaluating the effects of DO concentration  
 995 treatments (5 Control, 3, 2 and 1 mg/L) and time on acoustic activity (click rate) of *Penaeus*  
 996 *vannamei*. Significant *p*-values (< 0.05) are marked by asterisks.

| Source           | Df | Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) | <i>p</i> -value |
|------------------|----|-------------------------|-----------------|
| (Intercept)      | 1  | 384.345                 | < 0.001         |
| Treatment        | 3  | 28.357                  | < 0.001         |
| Time             | 1  | 142.798                 | < 0.001         |
| Treatment x Time | 3  | 9.305                   | 0.025           |

1000 **Table 4.** Pairwise comparisons of *Penaeus vannamei* clicking activity in dissolved oxygen (DO)  
 1001 concentration treatments (3, 2 and 1 mg/L) versus control (5 mg/L) under the gradual DO  
 1002 reduction, based on Generalized Least Squares (GLS) adjusted for time. Significant *p*-values (<  
 1003 0.05) are marked by asterisks.

| Contrast        | Estimate | SE    | df     | <i>t</i> -ratio | <i>p</i> -value |
|-----------------|----------|-------|--------|-----------------|-----------------|
| 5 mg/L – 3 mg/L | 1.547    | 2.889 | 99.334 | 0.535           | 0.594           |
| 5 mg/L – 2 mg/L | 8.593    | 2.889 | 99.334 | 2.974           | < 0.05 *        |
| 5 mg/L – 1 mg/L | 13.754   | 2.889 | 99.334 | 4.760           | < 0.05 *        |

1004

1005

1006 **Table 5.** Type III analysis of deviance for the Generalized Least Squares (GLS) model fitted to  
 1007 the abrupt dissolved oxygen reduction (DO), evaluating the effects of DO concentration  
 1008 treatments (5 Control, 3, 2 and 1 mg/L) and time on *Penaeus vannamei* clicking activity.  
 1009 Significant *p*-values (< 0.05) are marked by asterisks.

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| Source           | Df | Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) | <i>p</i> -value |
|------------------|----|-------------------------|-----------------|
| (Intercept)      | 1  | 350.895                 | < 0.001         |
| Treatment        | 3  | 8.109                   | 0.044           |
| Time             | 1  | 130.343                 | < 0.001         |
| Treatment x Time | 3  | 2.224                   | 0.527           |

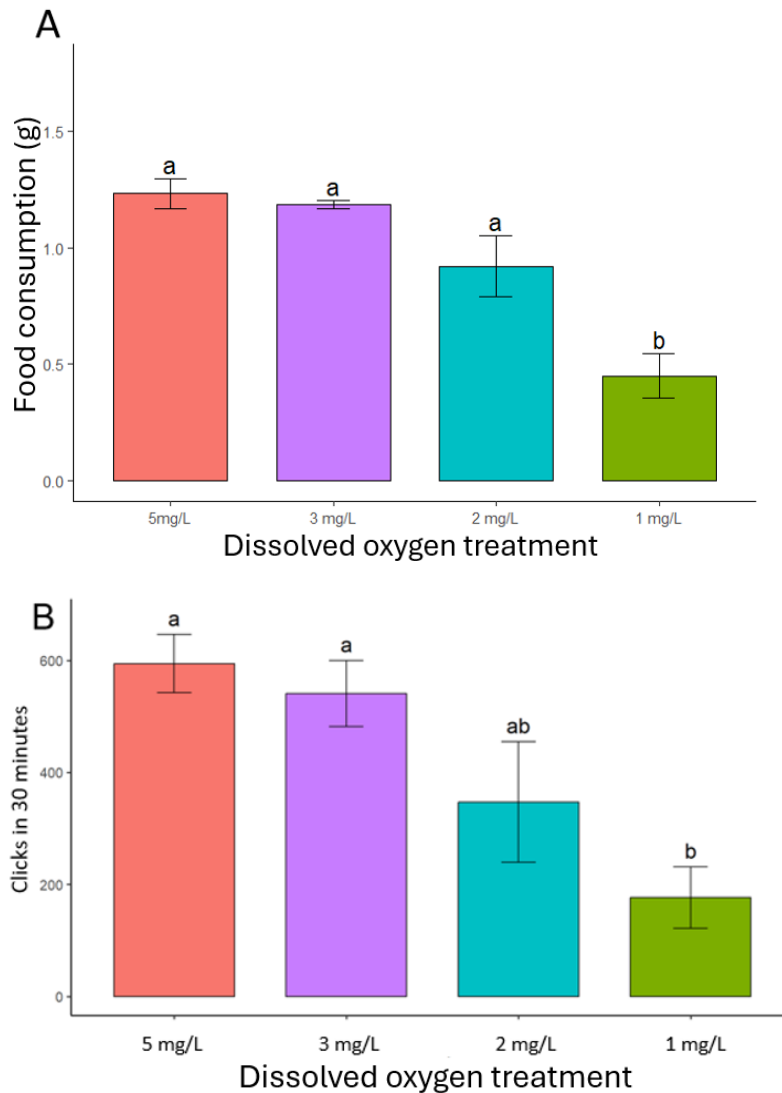
1013 **Table 6.** Pairwise comparisons of *Penaeus vannamei* clicking activity in dissolved oxygen (DO)  
 1014 concentration treatments (3, 2 and 1 mg/L) versus control (5 mg/L) under the abrupt DO  
 1015 reduction, based on Generalized Least Squares (GLS) adjusted for time. Significant *p*-values (<  
 1016 0.05) are marked by asterisks.

| Contrast        | Estimate | SE    | df     | <i>t</i> -ratio | <i>p</i> -value |
|-----------------|----------|-------|--------|-----------------|-----------------|
| 5 mg/L – 3 mg/L | 2.899    | 3.024 | 99.517 | 0.959           | 0.340           |
| 5 mg/L – 2 mg/L | 6.496    | 3.024 | 99.517 | 2.148           | <0.05 *         |
| 5 mg/L – 1 mg/L | 8.517    | 3.024 | 99.517 | 2.816           | < 0.05 *        |

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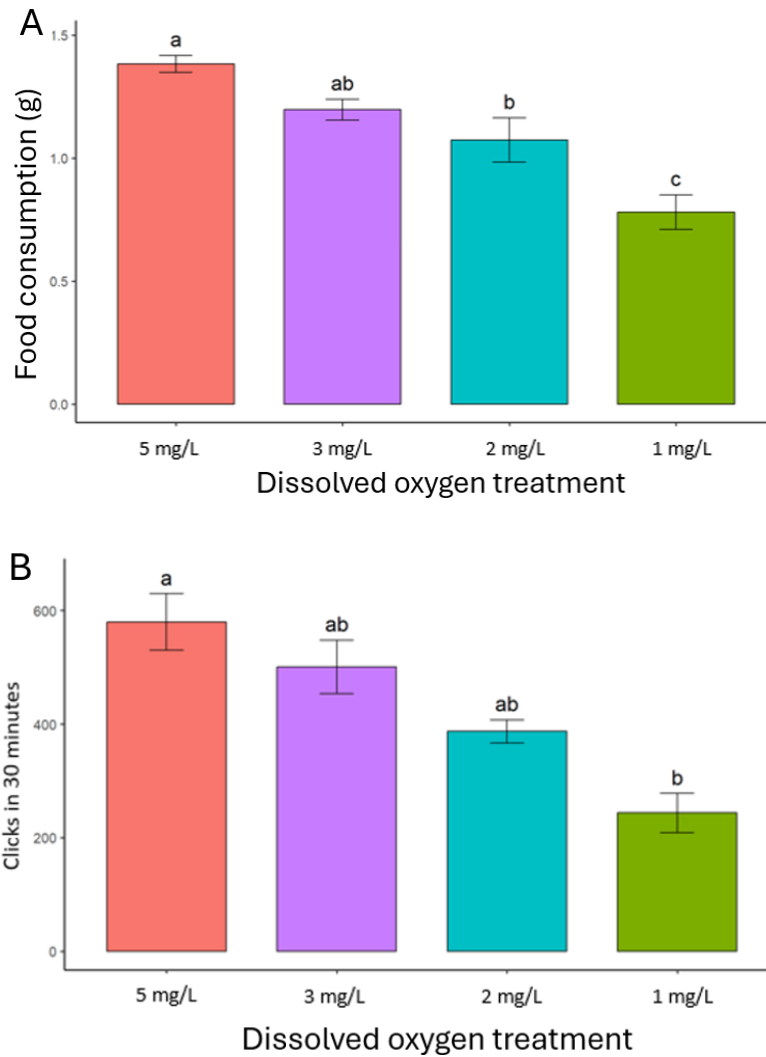
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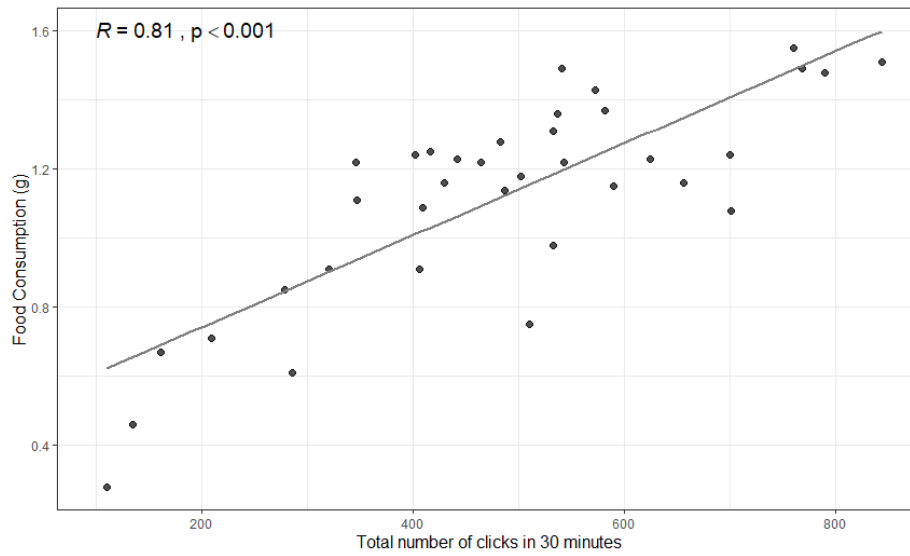
1022 **Figure 1.** Effects of dissolved oxygen (DO) concentration on the feeding behavior of *Penaeus*  
1023 *vannamei* under a gradual reduction method. (A) Mean food consumption (g) per treatment after  
1024 30 min. (B) Mean number of acoustic clicks detected over the entire 30-minute recording. The  
1025 DO concentration treatments tested were: 5 (Control), 3, 2 and 1 mg/L. Bars represent mean  
1026 values ( $\pm$  SE), and different lowercase letters indicate significant differences among treatments  
1027 (One-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc test,  $p$ -value < 0.05).



1028

1029

1030 **Figure 2.** Effects of dissolved oxygen (DO) concentration on the feeding behavior of *Penaeus*  
1031 *vannamei* under an abrupt reduction method. (A) Mean food consumption (g) per treatment after  
1032 30 min. (B) Mean number of acoustic clicks detected over the entire 30-minute recording. The  
1033 DO concentration treatments tested were: 5 (Control), 3, 2 and 1 mg/L. Bars represent mean  
1034 values ( $\pm$  standard error), and different lowercase letters indicate significant differences among  
1035 treatments (One-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc test,  $p$ -value < 0.05).

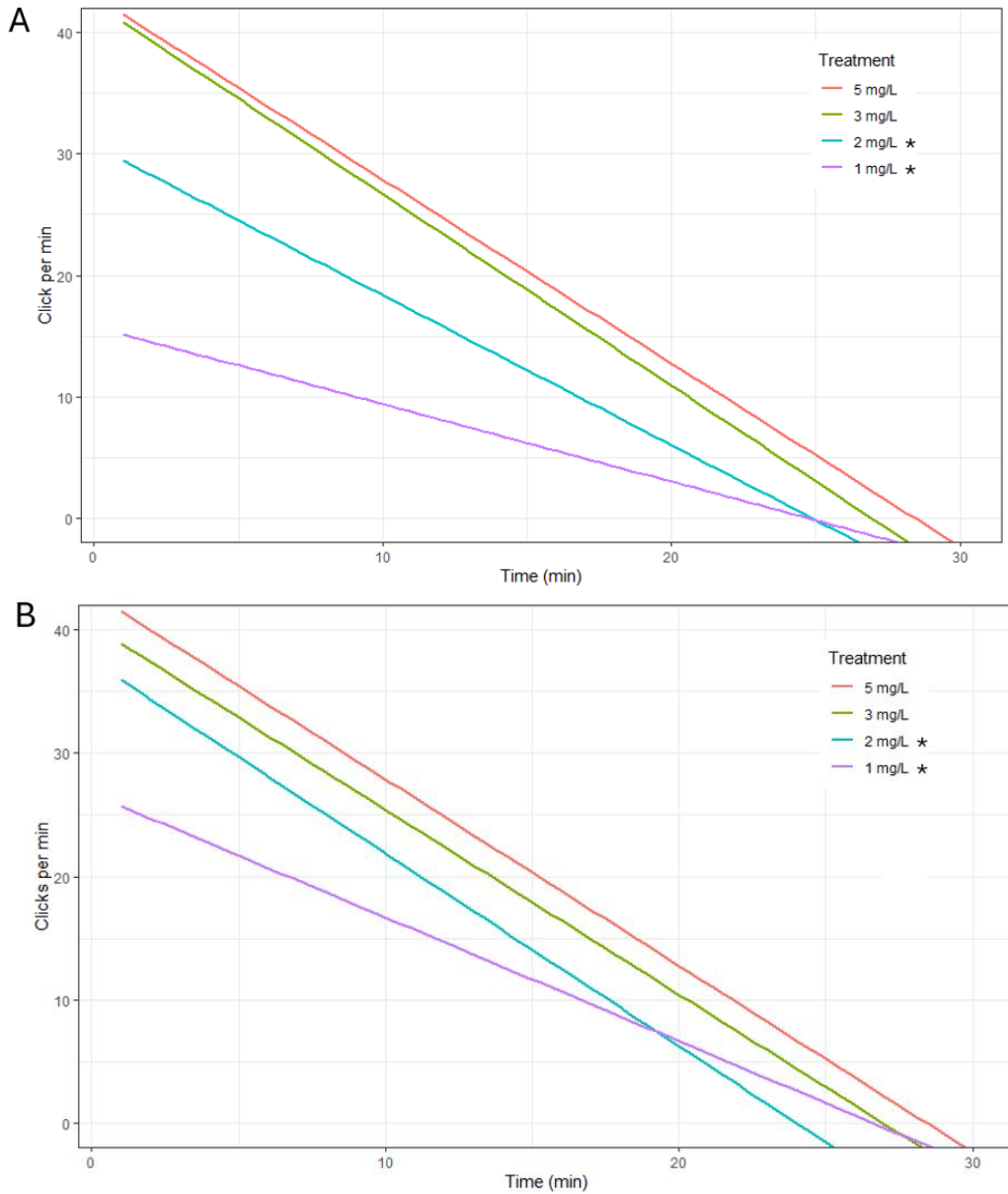


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1038 **Figure 3.** Linear regression between total number of acoustic clicks and food consumption (g) of  
1039 *Penaeus vannamei* across the dissolved oxygen (DO) concentration treatments (5 Control, 3, 2  
1040 and 1 mg/L) during 30 min. Each point represents the value from one aquarium replicate.

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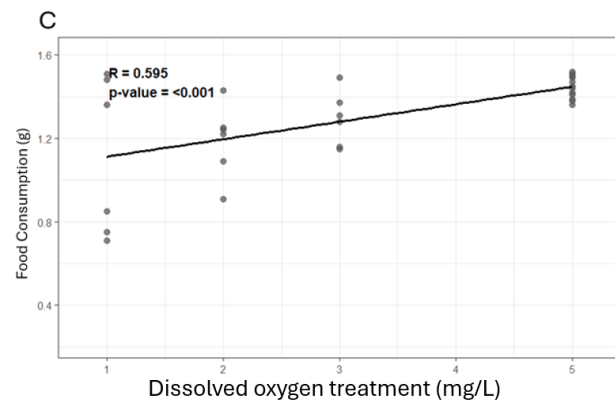
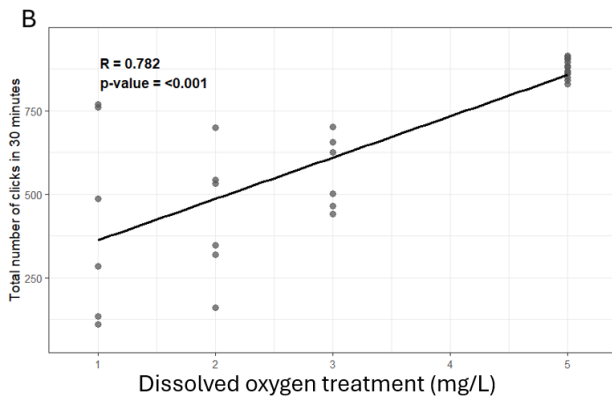
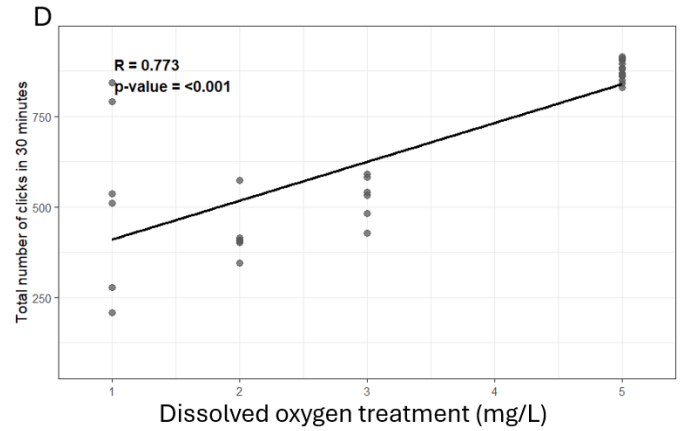
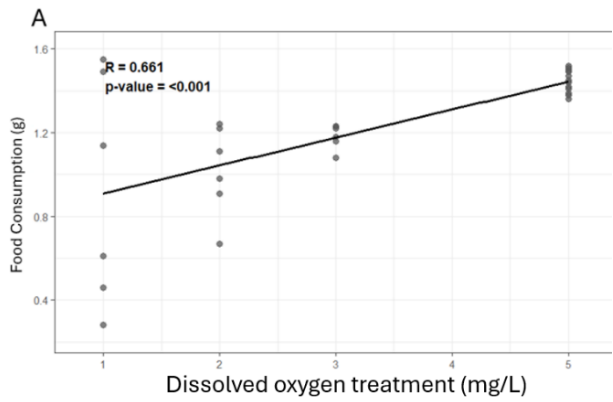
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1044 **Figure 4.** Linear trends in acoustic click activity of *Penaeus vannamei* across the dissolved  
1045 oxygen (DO) concentration treatments (5 Control, 3, 2 and 1 mg/L) and reduction methods,  
1046 derived from Generalized Least Squares (GLS) including time (min), DO treatment, reduction  
1047 method, and their interactions. (A) Gradual reduction method. (B) Abrupt reduction method.  
1048 Each line shows the model-fitted regression for a given DO treatment. Asterisks in the legend  
1049 indicate treatments that differ significantly from the Control (5mg/L) based on GLS post hoc

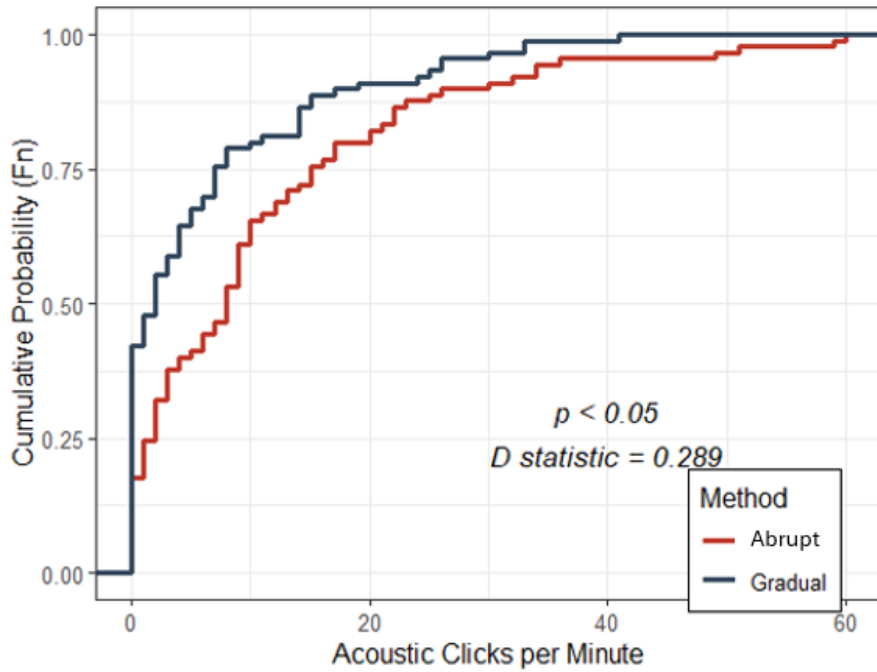
1050 tests ( $p$ -value  $< 0.01$ ).

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**Figure 5.** Relationship between dissolved oxygen (DO) concentration treatments (5 Control, 3, 2 and 1 mg/L) and feeding behavior of *Penaeus vannamei* based on food consumption and total number of acoustic clicks during the 30-min under two DO reduction methods: gradual (A, B) and abrupt (C, D). Solid lines represent the linear regression fit, with Pearson correlation coefficients (R) and significance levels indicated within each panel.



**Figure 6.** Empirical Cumulative Distribution Function (ECDF) of the acoustic behavior of *Penaeus vannamei* under severe hypoxia (1 mg/L). The graph displays the cumulative probability (Fn) of acoustic clicks per minute for two dissolved oxygen reduction methods: gradual (blue line) and abrupt (red line). Step lines represent the observed data distribution for each treatment (n = 90 observations per group). Statistical comparison was performed using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, with the D-statistic and significance level (p-value) indicated within the panel to highlight the distributional shift in behavioral intensity.

#### 4- Considerações finais

A presente dissertação consolidou o Monitoramento Acústico Passivo (PAM) como uma ferramenta robusta, não invasiva e de alta precisão para a avaliação do comportamento alimentar do *Penaeus vannamei*. A forte associação positiva observada entre a emissão de cliques mandibulares e o consumo real de ração, tanto sob variações térmicas quanto sob diferentes concentrações de oxigênio, validando a técnica como um indicador confiável da ingestão de alimento em tempo real.

Em relação à influência térmica, concluiu-se que a temperatura da água atua como um regulador primário da intensidade e da dinâmica temporal da alimentação. A faixa entre 27,5 °C e 31,3 °C demonstrou ser a janela térmica ideal, promovendo o máximo desempenho alimentar caracterizado por uma resposta acústica intensa e imediata. Em contrapartida, condições de temperatura iguais ou inferiores a 24,1 °C resultaram em supressão comportamental significativa, onde a atividade alimentar se torna não apenas menor em magnitude, mas também mais lenta e estável, refletindo as limitações metabólicas impostas pelo frio.

Em relação aos níveis de oxigênio dissolvido, o estudo evidenciou que a resposta do *P. vannamei* é modulada tanto pela concentração final de oxigênio quanto pela velocidade de redução (gradual ou abrupta). Foi identificado um limiar crítico de comportamento em 1 mg/L, ponto no qual a atividade alimentar é severamente inibida, independentemente do método de indução. Contudo, a redução gradual mostrou-se mais impactante, gerando um declínio linear no consumo, enquanto a redução abrupta permitiu uma manutenção da estabilidade alimentar até concentrações próximas de 2 mg/L. O padrão acústico revelou ainda uma estratégia de "compensação e conservação" sob hipóxia, onde os animais apresentam um pico de atividade precoce seguido de rápida cessação para poupar energia.

Desta forma, os resultados aqui apresentados oferecem informações essenciais para o aprimoramento da automação na carcinicultura. A incorporação das variáveis ambientais e suas respectivas assinaturas acústicas nos algoritmos de alimentadores automáticos permite uma transição de sistemas baseados apenas em temporizadores para sistemas de alimentação de precisão baseados na demanda biológica real. Isso possibilita não apenas a otimização da conversão alimentar e a redução de desperdícios, mas também a detecção precoce de estresse ambiental, garantindo maior sustentabilidade e eficiência produtiva aos cultivos intensivos de *Penaeus vannamei*.

Recomenda-se que estudos futuros investiguem como essas respostas comportamentais variam ao longo da ontogenia da espécie, validando esses padrões para diferentes classes de tamanho e fases de cultivo.

## Referencias

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