

Cochineal Dye Concentration and Treatment Time for Otolith Marking of Japanese Smelt *Hypomesus nipponensis* Embryos

メタデータ	言語: English 出版者: 公開日: 2022-09-28 キーワード (Ja): キーワード (En): 作成者: 宮本, 幸太, ホシカワ, ヒロキ, ナグラ, ジュン, サワモト, ヨシヒロ, ☒orđević, Miloš, 太田, 健吾 メールアドレス: 所属: 水産研究・教育機構, 長野県水産試験場, 山梨県水産技術センター, 長野県水産試験場, ESL Teacher and Translator, 水産研究・教育機構 (退職)
URL	https://fra.repo.nii.ac.jp/records/91

Title: Cochineal dye concentration and treatment time for otolith marking of Japanese smelt embryos

Running head: Cochineal dye marking of Japanese smelt

Kouta Miyamoto^{1*}, Hiroki Hoshikawa², Jun Nagura³, Yoshihiro Sawamoto², Miloš Đorđević⁴ and Kengo Ohta^{5, 6}

¹Nikko Field Station, Fisheries Technology Institute, Japan Fisheries Research and Education Agency, Nikko, Tochigi 321-1661, Japan

E-mail: mkouta@fra.affrc.go.jp

²Nagano Prefectural Fisheries Experimental Station, Azumino, Nagano 399-7102, Japan

³Yamanashi Prefectural Fisheries Technology Center, 497 Ushiku, Kai-City, Yamanashi, 400-0121, Japan

⁴ESL teacher and translator Niš 18000, Serbia

⁵Miyazu Field Station, Fisheries Technology Institute, Japan Fisheries Research and Education Agency, Miyazu, Kyoto 626-0052, Japan

⁶Research Institute of Marine Bioresources Department of Marine Bio-Science Faculty of Life Science and Biotechnology, Fukuyama University, 452-10, Innoshimaohama-cho, Onomichi, Hiroshima, 722-2102, Japan

Abstract The main purpose of this study is to find the optimal cochineal dye concentration and treatment time for marking Japanese smelt *Hypomesus nipponensis*, more specifically their eggs, by understanding the mechanisms that determine survival rates and mark quality. Eggs were immersed in a range of cochineal dye concentrations (40-100 g/L) at varying intervals (6-72 h). Following that, mark quality was evaluated according to fluorescence intensity by examining the marked otolith of larvae. Statistical model selection indicates that the interaction between cochineal dye concentrations and immersion intervals (g/L $\times$ h) had a negative effect on survival, wherein at low concentrations, survival decreased with increasing immersion time but, at high concentrations, survival was relatively low at all immersion times. On the other hand, the results of evaluating marked otoliths indicate that mark quality improves with increases in concentration and immersion time individually. These results suggest there is a trade-off between mark quality and survival of Japanese smelt when using a cochineal dye solution. Combining the results of the survival rate and mark quality experiments, the cochineal dye marking conditions with both high survival rates and high fluorescence intensity are 60 g/L for 24 h, 40 g/L for 48 h and 40 g/L for 36 h.

Keywords Wakasagi · Immersion · ALC · Eyed eggs · Survival

Japanese smelt *Hypomesus nipponensis* inhabits fresh, brackish and coastal waters throughout the Japanese archipelago (Hamada 1961; Saruwatari et al. 1997) and is one of the most important commercial species for Japanese freshwater fisheries. Eyed eggs of Japanese smelt have been transplanted into numerous lakes, ponds and reservoirs throughout Japan. However, because the tagging techniques for Japanese smelt are still in early stages of development, effectiveness of their propagation is still not clear. In North America, pond smelt *Hypomesus olidus* as a closely related species of Japanese smelt eggs transported in the 1950s established a breeding population in the San Juan estuary in California (Wales 1962). Dill and Cordone (1997) note that it was also discovered in brackish waters, threatening the survival of the imperiled delta smelt. These examples in Japan and North America exhibit the importance of tracking pond smelt and evaluating their dynamics and recruitment for management purposes.

In order to conduct research on fish dynamics and recruitment, marking and recapture programs would first need to be performed (Brown et al. 2002; Taylor et al. 2005; Baer and Rösch 2008). Many methods of marking fish at different stages of their life cycle have been developed. However, larvae are too small to be marked externally (e.g. fin clipping) or internally (e.g. passive integrated transponder), and handling them individually would require large effort. Genetic tags are not suitable for recapture processes due to high operating costs. Otolith thermal marking could generally be considered as a viable option because of its common use in hatcheries for salmon marking (e.g. Hagen et al. 1995; Volk et al. 1999), but not in the case of Japanese smelt because its otolith is too small for marking codes to be reliably verified (Hoshikawa unpublished data). Moreover, the method used for marking must be suitable for application to large numbers of small fish, handling stress should be kept at a minimum, and the marking and recovery procedures should be easy to perform (Skov et al. 2001). Thus far, chemical marks, as internal–external marks have proven to be the most appropriate method for evaluating large-scale stocking of small juveniles (Brown et al. 2002; Simon and Dörner 2005; Baer and Rösch 2008).

Fluorochrome labeling dyes visibly mark otoliths, scales and other bony structures based on differential staining. Gelsleichter et al. (1997) investigated different methods for introducing markers to both teleosts and elasmobranchs. When choosing a marking method, one has to consider the stage of fish development, the environment (marine or freshwater) and the preferred mode of application (Lagardère et al. 2000), such as injection (Monaghan 1993), dietary intake (Honeyfield et al. 2006) and immersion. Some fluorochrome labeling dyes, such as alizarin red S (e.g. Eckman 2003; Crook et al. 2009) and alizarin complexone (ALC) (e.g. van der Walt and Faragher 2003), have been shown to be effective in producing fluorescent marks with few negative effects on survival. However, it was suggested that the Madder Color (MD) extracted from the roots of *Rubia tinctorum* L., which has alizarin as its main component, has negative effects on the health of rats (Inoue et al. 2009a, b). In fact, MD has been prohibited from use as an additive in food since 2004 in Japan. For these reasons, more investigation is required regarding the effects of alizarin on animal health. In the meantime, it might be necessary to develop marking techniques using alternative chemical dyes.

Cochineal dye is a natural red colorant extracted from dried female cochineal insects *Dactylopius coccus*, which are parasites of cacti native to Central and South America, particularly Peru. Cochineal dye is used worldwide as a coloring agent in foods, drinks, cosmetics, quasidugs, and drugs (Ohgiya et al. 2009). Recently, cochineal dye has been attracting attention as a labeling agent for marking fish, especially for small fish like the Japanese smelt that can be consumed by humans in one go. The fish are marked by immersing their fertilized eggs or larvae in a labeling liquid, wherein the labeling agent is dissolved, staining the hard tissue (otolith, spine, scale, etc.). Cochineal dye is suitable for labeling red sea bream *Pagrus major*, sea urchin (class *Echinoidea*), bastard halibut (also known as Olive Flounder) *Paralichthys olivaceus* and Japanese pufferfish *Takifugu rubripes* (Kengo Ohta, Japan Patent Kokai 2008-67648). However, thus far, there are no studies evaluating mark quality and mortality induced by cochineal dye on Japanese smelt as a freshwater fish.

ALC studies have shown that concentration and immersion intervals are determining factors in regard to mark quality and survival (Iglesias and Rodriguez-Ojea 1997). If the same is true of cochineal dye, then it will be necessary to first understand how these factors contribute in a cochineal dye marking process. The possible outcomes in regard to concentration and immersion time contributing to mark quality and survival are as follows: 1. neither factor contributes; 2. only one of them contributes; 3. both of them contribute individually; 4. they create an interaction. Without first knowing which one of these is the case for cochineal dye, it would be very difficult to find the optimal marking condition for it. Therefore, the main aim of the current study was to find the optimal concentration and treatment time for cochineal dye marking of Japanese smelt by understanding the mechanisms which determine survival rates and mark quality.

METHODS

Test eggs

Artificial fertilization of eggs was carried out by the Lake Suwa Fisheries Cooperative on April 14 (male to female ratio = 23:1; total egg weight = 2, 780 g) and 15 (male to female ratio = 22:3; total egg weight = 4, 320 g), 2018 using mature fish caught from the Togawa River. Egg adhesive removal (Izuka 2005) was performed by putting the eggs in a 0.05 % tannic acid solution and stirring it for 10 minutes. Following that, the eggs were put into tanks with a constant flow of groundwater, at about 12°C, through a VU300 vinyl chloride pipe installed in the facility of the fishery cooperative. The eggs were refrigerated and transported to the Suwa branch of the Nagano Prefectural Fisheries Experimental Station on April 23, 2018 and were tested on the same day.

Labeling liquid

Carmine Red MK-40 manufactured by Kiriya Chemical Co., Ltd. was used as the cochineal dye.

One of the control groups was marked using ALC manufactured by Dojindo Laboratories Co., Ltd. The second, and last, of the control groups was marked simply by using ordinary dechlorinated tap water. The main reason why we had an ALC control group was because ALC is commonly used for the marking of fish. The water control group, on the other hand, mainly served as an equipment check (whether or not the microscope was correctly reading fluorescence levels) and to set the standard for invisible mark quality. The cochineal dye was dissolved in boiling dechlorinated water at 80°C or higher to a predetermined concentration and stirred for 1 hour on a magnetic stirrer hot plate (REXIM RSH-1AN manufactured by AS ONE Corporation). After cooling, the solutions were readjusted by adding water to replace the amounts lost through the process of evaporation. The ALC solution was prepared using a conventional method to a concentration of 0.1 g/L (Tomoda and Kuwata 2006). The solutions were stored in 8°C incubators until testing and stirred again just before use.

Marking

Live eyed eggs were placed in petri dishes ($\phi 90 \times 15\text{mm}$) filled with different solutions for varying intervals of time. The petri dishes were then placed in incubators set at 8°C without any light sources until the end of the entire marking procedure. Each petri dish had 50 eggs and 25 ml of the following solutions: cochineal dye (40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 100 g/L), ALC (0.1 g/L), and dechlorinated water (0 g/L). Aeration of the eggs was deemed unnecessary for this study due to an adequate supply of oxygen in the petri dishes, as was confirmed by a preliminary test. The immersion intervals for the cochineal dye solutions were 6, 12, 24, 36, 48, 60 and 72 hours, while for the control ALC and water solutions, they were simply 24 and 72 hours respectively. Based on the results of a preliminary test, which was conducted to determine what combinations of concentration and immersion time are lethal for the Japanese smelt eggs, we concluded that survival was very low at 24 hours or more of immersion in 90 and 100 g/L concentrations. Therefore, for those concentrations we used only the 6- and 12-hour intervals. Furthermore, the

solutions for 36-, 48-, 60- and 72-hour intervals were refreshed every 24 hours. Regarding pH values, the ALC solution and dechlorinated water had 6.6 and 7.2 respectively, while the cochineal dye solutions had between 7.1 and 7.2. After the marking procedure, the eggs were left in incubators set at 12°C until hatching. Water changes, removal of dead eggs and larvae, as well as the recovery of hatched larvae were performed every 1 to 5 days, depending on their conditions. The hatched larvae were cryopreserved in dechlorinated water at about -20°C. Concerning survival evaluation, any egg that did not hatch within a week after observing the majority of eggs in the same petri dish hatch was designated as dead. The survival rate was calculated by using the following:

$$\text{Survival rate (\%)} = \text{number of hatched larvae} / \text{number of eggs} \times 100$$

Confirmation and evaluation of markings

Observation and photography of otoliths was carried out approximately 4 months after the marking process, using a microscope (BX53) equipped with an epifluorescence system (BX3-URA, U-LH100HG, BH2-RFL-T3) manufactured by the Olympus Corporation. The fluorescent label of the otolith was confirmed at 100 magnification through a G-excited fluorescent mirror unit (U-FGW: DM570, BP530-550, BA575IF), also manufactured by the Olympus Corporation. The thawed larvae were lightly flattened with a cover glass so as not to break their otoliths, where water was used as the cushioning substance. The fluorescence intensity was evaluated on a 4-point scale (1. invisible, 2. faintly visible, 3. visible, 4. visible brightly; Online Appendix 1) with reference to Iglesias and Rodríguez-Ojea (1997). Mark quality evaluation was conducted using 10 samples for each combination of concentration and immersion time. For this reason, combinations with survival rates below 20 % were not evaluated as there were not enough samples.

Statistical analyses

GLM (Generalized Linear Model; glm function; family: binomial) was used to evaluate the effects of concentration, immersion time and their interaction on the survival of Japanese smelt and the resulting mark quality. In order to use binomial distribution to evaluate the effects on mark quality, its four categories were integrated into two, wherein mark qualities of 1 (invisible) and 2 (faintly visible) were classified as unusable (1), while 3 (visible) and 4 (visible brightly) were classified as usable (2). The model was designed with reference to Sahashi and Morita (2017), and Miyamoto et al. (2021), and it goes as follows: $\text{logit}(p) = a_1 + b_1 \text{Concentration} + c_1 \text{Immersion time} + d_1 (b_1 \text{Concentration} \times c_1 \text{Immersion time})$ with p = probability of survival or mark quality, a_1 = regression constant, b_1 , c_1 , d_1 = regression coefficient. To determine which of the four hypotheses mentioned in Introduction were relevant for this study, namely, how concentration and immersion time contribute to mark quality and survival, the ‘dredge’ function from the ‘MuMIn’ package, R (4. 0. 0), was used to test all possible combinations of the variables, including their interaction. The model selection for GLM was performed by the Akaike information criterion (AIC). The lower values of the AIC, which indicate the parsimonious model (Burnham et al., 2011), were used. The informative models were defined as models with $\Delta \text{AIC} < 2.0$ (Nemoto et al. 2018). The significance of the explanatory variables was evaluated using the likelihood ratio tests.

RESULTS

Examining the concentration / immersion data in aggregate, only 6% of the concentration / immersion combinations reached the mark quality of 3 and the survival rate of 60%. The best survival rate model has concentration and immersion time as significant factors, both individually and through their interaction (Table 1, Online Appendix 3). This model shows that there is a non-linear decreasing relationship between this interaction (g/L*h) and the survival rate, wherein at low concentrations, survival decreased with increasing immersion time but, at high concentrations, survival was relatively low at all immersion times (Table 1, Fig.1, Appendix

2). Based on the results of the survival rate experiment, combinations (100 g/L for all hours, 90 g/L for all hours, 80 g/L for 24-72 h, 70 g/L for 36-72 h, 60 g/L for 60-72 h, 50 g/L for 72 h and 40 g/L for 72 h) with survival rates below 20 % were excluded from the mark quality experiment. The best models for explaining mark quality selected by AIC include concentration and immersion time as significant variables (Table 2, Online Appendix 4). The results of evaluating marked otoliths indicate that mark quality (1.0 = unusable, 2.0 = usable) improves with increases in concentration and immersion time irrespective of the interaction between them (Table 2, Fig.2).

Combining the results of the survival rate and mark quality experiments, the cochineal dye marking conditions with mark quality of three or more and top three survival rates (65, 74 and 76 %) are 60 g/L for 24 h, 40 g/L for 48 h and 40 g/L for 36 h respectively (Fig. 3). On the other hand, using 100 mg/L ALC had a survival rate of 83 % and in all cases the perfect mark quality of four. The other control group (only water, no marking) had a survival rate of 86 % and in all cases the mark quality of one.

DISCUSSION

In the current study, the interaction between concentration and immersion time significantly contributed to survival. Therefore, it is important to focus on the combinations of concentrations and immersion intervals within effective ranges for survivability. The reason why the interaction between concentration and immersion time significantly contributed to survival could be that the effect of high concentration is more detrimental than the effect of long-term immersion (Online Appendix 2). One possible explanation is that the physiological state of Japanese smelt eggs is sensitive to high cochineal dye concentrations. Meyer et al. (2012) confirmed a similar tendency in the relationship between ALC concentrations and the hatching success of the Baltic cod *Gadus morhua* embryos. Further study would be necessary to find the cause of such a phenomenon, e.g. focusing on the individual components of the cochineal dye to

determine which ones are the most damaging for eggs. Additionally, the 86% survival for the water control group suggests that a portion of the mortality was due to factors other than the dye itself. These other factors may include the contamination of unfertilized eggs, the transportation effect etc.

The results of evaluating marked otoliths indicate that mark quality improves with increases in concentration and immersion time. Looking at the current study's mark quality and survival rates, there seems to be a trade-off between mark quality and survival of Japanese smelt when using a cochineal dye solution. Additionally, unlike survival rates, mark quality seems to have been affected by both immersion time and concentration to a similar degree without the interaction between them. Looking back at the four possible outcomes mentioned in the Introduction of this paper, the results of this study preclude the first two hypotheses in which neither or only one of the two factors (concentration and immersion time) is selected as contributing to mark quality and survival. In the case of mark quality, the third hypothesis is applicable, namely both factors contributed individually, while their interaction contributed to survival, as indicated by the fourth hypothesis. These findings emphasize the need to focus on both concentration and immersion time when determining the optimal marking conditions for cochineal dye, not just for Japanese smelt, but possibly also for other freshwater fishes as well.

It is possible to use cochineal dye for marking eggs with acceptable results regarding the clarity of the fluorescent otolith mark. Regarding the Japanese smelt hatchery industry, in general terms, the minimum marking condition would be required to have a survival rate of above 60 % and mark quality of three or more. Therefore, the results of this study suggest that the viable marking conditions using cochineal dye on Japanese smelt are 40 g/L for 36 h, 40 g/L for 48 h and 60 g/L for 24 h. Considering hatchery procedures, due to the time and costs required for the management of water quality, space and electricity, there should be a preference for shorter immersion intervals when developing a mass marking system. Therefore, in practical terms, the optimal marking condition should be 60 g/L for 24 h.

The efficacy of ALC immersion-marking was tested by comparing the effects using different ALC concentrations on the otolith of several fish species. For example, the optimal treatment conditions for ayu *Plecoglossus altivelis* (Tsukamoto 1988) and Atlantic cod *Gadus morhua* L (Blom *et al.* 1994) were 50-200 mg/L. However, only a few ALC studies have made a comparison between different immersion periods. For Monteleone *et al.* (1993) claims that ALC immersion periods of 6-24 h produce the best mark quality, survival and growth outcomes for larvae. Most authors (e.g. Tsukamoto 1988; Blom *et al.* 1994), on the other hand, typically use only the 24 h ALC immersion period. Regarding cochineal dye, it requires higher concentrations and more immersion time than ALC treatments. According to Ohta (Kengo Ohta, Japan Patent Kokai 2008-67648), usage of cochineal dye on fertilized eggs for otolith marking is generally reported as follows: appropriate immersion time is around 24 h, while the concentration of the cochineal dye is 2000 to 8000 mg/L for red sea bream *Pagrus major*, 2000 to 16000 mg/L for devil stinger *Inimicus japonicus*, and 4000 to 16000 for bastard halibut *Paralichthys olivaceus*. Therefore, when cochineal dye is part of a labeling agent or is an active ingredient of a chemical, it can be widely used for marking fertilized eggs if the concentration is within the range of 4000 to 8000 mg/L, generally speaking. The current study suggests that the best 24-hour cochineal solution for marking Japanese smelt otoliths is 60 g/L, which is 7.5 to 15 times that of the aforementioned concentrations for sea fish. ALC otolith marking of rainbow trout is an example of a reliable and cost-effective marking technique, wherein larvae are exposed to low concentrations of ALC at higher pH values (8.8 - 8.9) (e.g. van der Walt and Faragher 2003). Following this example, it might be possible to do the same with cochineal dye as well, namely adjusting the pH of a cochineal dye solution to develop a marking technique that uses low concentrations of cochineal dye.

In the current study, otolith marks were recognizable with no pre-treatment of the otoliths required. It should be possible to estimate growth, survival and distribution patterns of Japanese smelt for commercial interest, by conducting experimental releases of marked larvae

prior to recruitment, in the same manner as when using ALC. For example, Tsukamoto *et al.* (1989) estimated the abundance, dispersal and size-dependent survival of red sea bream *Pagrus major* juveniles that were marked by using ALC and released into a small bay (< 15 km²). Secor and Houde (1995), performing a study on anadromous and marine species, reached the conclusion that ALC mark-release experiments were workable when larvae are released in closed systems. Based on the results of the previously mentioned studies, in conjunction with the findings of the current one, it would seem that cochineal dye can be an effective tool in marking Japanese smelt eggs. In real-life field study application, cochineal marking could be used, for example, for tracking hatchery fish in freshwater populations, as a way of assessing the effectiveness of a stocking program. For this reason, cochineal mark retention would be an important factor, as these types of field studies tend to last anywhere from a week to over a year. However, there are no freshwater fish studies using cochineal dye, making it difficult to speculate on how long a good cochineal mark (quality of 3 or 4) would be retained in a field study. Therefore, further study would be necessary to examine cochineal mark retention. Conversely, the current study is focused on the effects of cochineal dye marking on the survival and mark quality in freshwater fish larvae, not on the longevity of the applied marking. In that respect, it would also seem that it is less effective than ALC in relation to mark quality and survival. Additionally, the current study, mainly because of the extensive range of possible concentration / time combinations that needed to be examined, had only a single replicate to determine which of those combinations were optimal (Iglesias and Rodríguez-Ojea 1997, van der Walt and Faragher 2003). Therefore, to develop the best techniques in cochineal marking, it would be necessary to conduct studies with more replicates for greater precision and also evaluate the effects of more factors within the optimal range determined by the current study, for example, different water temperatures, different developmental stages of eggs etc.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

301 The authors are grateful to Tomoyuki Nakamura of the NRIFS for helping us with valuable
302 advice. This work was supported by a grant-in-aid from the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and
303 Fisheries, Japan.

304

305 **Funding** This work was supported by a grant-in-aid from the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry
306 and Fisheries.

307

308 **Compliance with ethical standards**

309

310 **Conflict of interest** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

311

312 **Ethical approval** Japan does not have regulations regarding experimentation on fishes, but the
313 manipulation in the study on Japanese smelt was noninvasive and innocuous.

314

REFERENCES

- Arruda Almeida, B. D., A. J. Green, E. Sebastián-González, and L. Dos Anjos. 2018. Comparing species richness, functional diversity and functional composition of waterbird communities along environmental gradients in the neotropics. *PloS one* 13: e0200959.
- Baer, J., and R. Rösch. 2008. Mass-marking of brown trout (*Salmo trutta* L.) larvae by alizarin: method and evaluation of stocking. *Journal of Applied Ichthyology* 24: 44–49.
- Blom, G. 1994. Application of two fluorescent chemicals, alizarin complexone and alizarin red S, to mark otoliths of Atlantic cod, *Gadus morhua* L. *Aquaculture and Fisheries Management* 25: 229–243.
- Brown, M. L., J. L. Powell, and D. O. Lucchesi. 2002. In-transit oxytetracycline marking, nonlethal mark detection, and tissue residue depletion in yellow perch. *North American Journal of Fisheries Management* 22: 236–242.
- Burnham, K. P., D. R. Anderson and K. P. Huyvaert. 2011. AIC model selection and multimodel inference in behavioral ecology: some background, observations, and comparisons. *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology* 65: 23–35.
- Crook, D. A., D. O'mahony, B. M. Gillanders, A. R. Munro and A. C. Sanger. 2007. Production of external fluorescent marks on Golden Perch fingerlings through osmotic induction marking with Alizarin Red S. *North American Journal of Fisheries Management* 27: 670–675.
- Dill, W. A., and A. J. Cordone. 1997. History and status of introduced fishes in California, 1871-1996. California Department of Fish and Game, Fish Bulletin 178.
- Eckmann, R. 2003. Alizarin marking of whitefish, *Coregonus lavaretus* otoliths during egg incubation. *Fisheries Management Ecology* 10: 233–239.
- Evans, T., and T. M. Blackburn. 2020. Global variation in the availability of data on the environmental impacts of alien birds. *Biological Invasions* 22: 1027–1036.
- Gelsleichter, J., E. Cortés, C. A. Maniré, R. E. Hueter, and J. A. Musick. 1997. Use of calcein as a fluorescent marker for elasmobranch vertebral cartilage. *Transactions of the American*

341 Fisheries Society 126: 862–865.

342 Hagen, P., K. Munk, B. V. Alen, and B. White. 1995. Thermal mark technology for inseason
 343 fisheries management: a case study. *Alaska Fishery Research Bulletin* 2: 143–155.

344 Hamada, K. 1961. Taxonomic and ecological studies of the genus *Hypomesus* of Japan.
 345 *Memories of the Faculty of Fisheries Hokkaido University* 9: 1–56.

346 Honeyfield, D. C., C. S. Ostrowski, J. W. Fletcher, and J. W. Mohler. 2006. Dietary calcein
 347 marking of brook trout, Atlantic salmon, yellow perch, and coho salmon scales. *North
 348 American Journal of Fisheries Management* 26: 431–437.

349 Iglesias, J. and G. Rodriguez-Ojea. 1997. The use of alizarin complexone for immersion marking
 350 of the otoliths of embryos and larvae of the turbot, *Scophthalmus maximus* (L.): dosage and
 351 treatment time. *Fisheries Management and Ecology* 4: 405–417.

352 Inoue, K., M. Yoshida, M. Takahashi, H. Fujimoto, M. Shibutani, M. Hirose, and A. Nishikawa.
 353 2009a. Carcinogenic potential of alizarin and rubiadin, components of madder color, in a rat
 354 medium - term multi - organ bioassay. *Cancer science* 100: 2261–2267.

355 Inoue, K., M. Yoshida, M. Takahashi, M. Shibutani, H. Takagi, M. Hirose, and A. Nishikawa.
 356 2009b. Induction of kidney and liver cancers by the natural food additive madder color in a
 357 two-year rat carcinogenicity study. *Food and Chemical Toxicology* 47: 184–191.

358 Izuka, T. 2005. 10. Wakasagi. Pages 103–113 in F. Takashima and M. Mamoru, editors. *Artificial
 359 propagation and aquaculture system 2 freshwater fish*. Kouseishakouseikaku Press, Tokyo. (in
 360 Japanese)

361 Lagardère, F., K. Thibaudeau, and M. L. Bégout Anras. 2000. Feasibility of otolith markings in
 362 large juvenile turbot, *Scophthalmus maximus*, using immersion in alizarin-red S solutions. 57,
 363 *ICES Journal of Marine Science* 57: 1175–1181.

364 Miyamoto, K. , and H. Araki. 2020. When is it good to be shy? Experimental evaluation of
 365 predation of juvenile salmon by riparian wildlife. *Hydrobiologia* 847: 713–725

366 Miyamoto, K., M. Đorđević, and H. Araki. 2021. Artificially increased habitat complexity

367 reduces predation-induced mortality for juvenile salmon in simplified environments.
 368 Environmental Biology of Fishes 104: 203–209.
 369 McMahon, T. A., J. R. Rohr, and X. E. Bernal. 2017. Light and noise pollution interact to disrupt
 370 interspecific interactions. Ecology 98: 1290–1299.
 371 Meyer, S., S. R. Sørensen, M. A. Peck, and J. G. Støttrup. 2012. Sublethal effects of alizarin
 372 complexone marking on Baltic cod (*Gadus morhua*) eggs and larvae. Aquaculture 324: 158–
 373 164.
 374 Monaghan Jr., J. P. 1993. Comparison of calcein and tetracycline as chemical markers in summer
 375 flounder. Transactions of the American Fisheries Society 122: 298–301.
 376 Monteleone, D. M., E. D. Houde, D. H. Secor, and L. G. Morin. Presentert på Internat.symp:
 377 Fish Otolith Research and application, South Carolina USA. Januar 1993. (Abstract)
 378 Comparison of Alizarin Complexone and Tetracycline Hydrochloride for Immersion Marking
 379 of Otoliths of Fish Embryos and Larvae.
 380 Nemoto, Y., R. Saito, and H. Oomachi. 2018. Seasonal variation of Cesium-137 concentration in
 381 Asian black bear (*Ursus thibetanus*) and wild boar (*Sus scrofa*) in Fukushima Prefecture,
 382 Japan. Plos one 13: e0200797.
 383 Ohgiya Y, F. Arakawa, H. Akiyama, Y. Yoshioka, Y. Hayashi, S. Sakai, S. Ito, Y. Yamakawa, S.
 384 Ohgiya, Z. Ikezawa, and R. Teshima. 2009. Molecular cloning, expression, and
 385 characterization of a major 38-kd cochineal allergen. Journal of Allergy and Clinical
 386 Immunology 123: 1157–1162.
 387 Sahashi, G., and K. Morita. 2018. Adoption of alternative migratory tactics: a view from the
 388 ultimate mechanism and threshold trait changes in a salmonid fish. Oikos, 127: 239–251.
 389 Saruwatari, T., J. A. López and T. W. Pietsch. 1997. A revision of the osmerid genus *Hypomesus*
 390 Gill (Teleostei: Salmoniforms), with the description of a new species from the southern Kurill
 391 Islands. Species Diversity 2: 59–82.
 392 Secor, D. H., and E. D. Houde. 1995. Larval mark release experiments: potential for research on

dynamics and recruitment in fish stocks. Pages 423–444 in D. H. Secor, J. M. Dean, and S. E. Campana, editors. Recent developments in fish otolith re-search. University of South Carolina Press, Columbia.

Simon, J., and H. Dörner. 2005. Marking the European eel with oxytetracycline, alizarin red and coded wire tags: an evaluation of methods. *Journal of Fish Biology* 67: 1486–1491.

Skov, C., P. Grønkjær, and C. Nielsen. 2001. Marking pike fry otoliths with alizarin complexone and strontium: an evaluation of methods. *Journal of Fish Biology* 59, 745–750.

Taylor, M. D., D. S. Fielder, and I. M. Suthers. 2005. Batch marking of otoliths and fin spines to assess the stock enhancement of *Argyrosomus japonicus*. *Journal of Fish Biology* 66: 1149–1162.

Tomoda, T., and H. Kuwada. 2006. Otolith marking by dilution of Alizarin Complexone solution through pH adjustment for juvenile Japanese sandfish *Arctoscopus japonicus*. *Nippon Suisan Gakkaishi*, 72: 76–78.

Tsukamoto, K. 1988. Otolith tagging of ayu embryo with fluorescent substances. *Nippon Suisan Gakkaishi* 54: 1289–1295.

Tsukamoto, K., H. Kuwada, J. Hirokawa, M. Oya, S. Sekiya, H. Fujimoto and K. Imazumi. 1989. Size dependent mortality of red sea bream, *Pagrus major*, juveniles released with fluorescent otolith-tags in New Bay, Japan. *Journal of Fish Biology* 35: 59–69.

van der Walt, B., and R. A. Faragher. 2003. Otolith marking of rainbow trout fry by immersion in low concentrations of alizarin complexone. *North American Journal of Fisheries Management* 23: 141–148.

Volk, E. C., S. L. Schroder, and J. J. Grimm. 1999. Otolith thermal marking. *Fisheries Research* 43: 205–219.

Wales, J. H. 1962. Introduction of pond smelt from Japan into California. *California Fish and Game*, 48, 141–142.

419 Figure Captions

420 **Fig. 1** The relationship between: the number of survived eggs and cochineal concentration (g/L),
421 immersion time (h) and interaction [cochineal concentration (g/L) $\times$ immersion time (h)]. The
422 predictive lines are derived from a GLM analysis (Generalized Linear Model; glm function;
423 family: binominal).

424 **Fig. 2** The relationship between: mark quality (1.0 = unusable, 2.0 = usable) and cochineal
425 concentration (g/L), immersion time (h) and interaction [cochineal concentration (g/L) $\times$
426 immersion time (h)]. The predictive lines are derived from a GLM analysis (Generalized Linear
427 Model; glm function; family: binominal).

428 **Fig. 3** The relationship between survival rates (%), mark quality, immersion time (h) and cochineal
429 concentration (g/L). Open bar: survival rate; plot: mark quality. Error bars represent standard
430 deviations. Mark quality data was not obtained for treatments when survival was less than 20%.