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1	Development of a nutritional model to define the energy and protein								
2		requirements of cobia, Rachycentron canadum							
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#### 1 Abstract

2

3 This study assessed the protein and energy requirements of Cobia (*Rachycentron canadum*) using a

- 4 bio-energetic factorial approach. Using a series of inter-related studies, several parameters were
- 5 defined to enable the construction of a bio-energetic factorial model for this species. The studies
- 6 included two controlled laboratory experiments and also extensive field-data collection from
- 7 commercial and research farms in Vietnam. The devised model includes parameters for both
- 8 maintenance and protein demands; the effect of fish live-weight on maintenance protein (LW<sup>0.697</sup>),
- 9 lipid ( $LW^{0.972}$ ), and energy demands ( $LW^{0.815}$ ); the efficiencies of protein, lipid and energy utilisation
- 10 at various protein, lipid and energy intake levels; and the variability in whole body composition with
- 11 varying live-weight. The protein utilisation efficiencies  $(0.456 \cdot [\text{protein intake}] 0.445)$ , lipid
- 12 utilisation efficiencies (1.292 [lipid intake] 1.120) and energy utilisation efficiencies (0.651 •
- 13 [energy intake] 48.41) were similar to other carnivorous fish species. However, the maintenance
- requirements for both energy (74.3 kJ/ kgBW<sup>0.8</sup>/ d<sup>-</sup> at 28°C) and protein (0.99 g/ kgBW<sup>0.7</sup>/d at 27.9°C)

15 were about double to other species. Using this modelling approach it was possible to iteratively derive

16 optimal dietary protein and energy specifications for this species.

#### 1. Introduction

3 Cobia (Rachycentron canadum) is the only species in the family Rachycentridae. The species is distributed worldwide in warm marine waters, accept for the central and eastern Pacific. The 4 species is generally regarded as a fast growing, tropical pelagic animal. In offshore net cage systems, 5 cobia can grow from 0.5 kg fingerling to 6.0 to 8.0 kg marketable size within 6 to 8 months with a 6 7 feed conversion ratio of 1.5 (Liao et al., 2004) or 6 kg after 1 year at 28°C (Benetti et al., 2010). Due to their high quality white flesh, cobia is suitable for sashimi or fillet production (Chou et al., 2001). 8 9 The global aquaculture production of Cobia has increasing rapidly from 2002, reaching to 41,774 MT in 2012 (FAO, 2014). The three main producers of cobia in 2012 were China, Taiwan and Vietnam, 10 where annual production was approximately 38,014 metric tons (MT), 1,384 MT and 2,000 MT, 11 respectively (FAO, 2014). While Cobia cultured in offshore net cage systems is generally reared using 12 13 formulated feeds (Liao et al., 2004), most cobia production in traditional inshore sea cages is still 14 based on trash fish (Petersen et al., 2015). Currently, the limited supply of trash fish as the main feed 15 source for cobia grow-out has become a major constraint for cobia culture in Viet Nam and other 16 countries.

17 Cobia culture has been rapidly gaining in popularity since the early 1990s, but formulated 18 feed development for aquaculture of this species is still lagging behind compared with other fish 19 species such as salmon or barramundi (Zhou et al., 2007; Xiao et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2010). Despite, 20 many studies have been undertaken to identify a range of nutritional requirements of this species, the 21 energy and protein requirements are still undefined and pelleted feed are still not well established 22 (Salze et al., 2010). Earlier studies have suggested that the optimum dietary protein and lipid levels in juvenile cobia were 45% and 5–15% dry weight, respectively (Chou et al., 2001; Craig et al., 2006). 23 24 Maximum growth and the best feed conversion ratios have been recorded at 27–29°C in juvenile 25 cobia with an optimum feed ration level determined at 9% initial body weight per day for fish of 10-200g live-weight (Sun et al., 2006; Webb, 2009; Sun and Chen, 2014). 26

The requirements for protein and energy for most aquaculture species have traditionally been 27 28 determined using empirical dose-response studies (Mercer, 1982). More recently, the use of bioenergetic factorial modelling has proven to be a useful alternative method in estimating these 29 requirements (Shearer, 1995; Glencross, 2008; Trung et al., 2011). The benefits of bio-energetic 30 factorial modelling are that it provides a method for estimating nutritional requirements independent 31 of animal size and it results in a series of nutrient specifications that are indexed against energy 32 33 demand and as such it underpins the potential for a wide range of diet specifications to be developed 34 subject to different formulation strategies (Lupatsch et al., 2003; Booth et al., 2010; Glencross et al., 35 2011). Additionally, this modelling approach also has an advantage over an empirical approach in that 36 it can also be used to define the optimal feed rations as well as specifications. This has further merits 37 in that total nutrient and energy budgets, including losses through wastage and excretion, and also raw

- material demands can be determined and strategies examined by which to improve fish production
  (Glencross, 2010).
- This paper describes a series of studies designed to determine the energy and protein 3 4 requirements of cobia (R. canadum). Using farm-collected data, samples and experiments from both 5 Vietnam and Australia, and a series of studies undertaken to determine key parameters of the model. 6 These parameters include; the estimation of growth potential of fish with varying size, changes in 7 body protein and energy composition with fish size; determination of the energy and protein 8 requirements for maintenance, determination of the protein and energy digestibility of a reference 9 diet, and determination of the partial efficiencies of both protein and energy utilisation. From this 10 series of studies the results are then integrated to present an iterative approach to the determination of 11 the protein and energy requirements for this species over a range of fish sizes.
- 12

#### 1 2. Methods

2 2.1 Study 1 – Endogenous losses of protein, lipid and energy

3 This experiment was conducted at the Cat Ba National Broodstock Center of Marine 4 Aquaculture of the Research Institute for Aquaculture - 1 (RIA-1), in Vietnam. Twelve 1,000 L tanks were each stocked with ten cobia (R. canadum). Fish sizes within each tank were in one of four 5 general size classes (100 g, 200 g, 500 g and 1,000 g fish<sup>-1</sup>), with three replicates being used for each 6 7 size class. Additional fish (n=5 for each size class) of similar approximate weights to those four size classes were euthanized at the beginning of the study to determine the dry matter, ash, protein, lipid 8 9 and energy composition of the fish at the beginning of the study. The experimental tanks were supplied with aeration, flow-through marine water (salinity 32PSU) at  $28.4 \pm 1.58$  °C. The transferred 10 fish were kept in the tanks for 21 days, without feeding. After this period the fish were re-weighed 11 12 and all fish from each tank were used as a replicate to determine weight, energy, lipid and protein 13 loss. Following weighing five of the fish from each size class were euthanized, pooled and assessed 14 for composition change in dry matter, ash, lipid, protein and energy concentrations.

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### 2.2 Study 2 – Energy and protein digestibility

This study was conducted at the Cleveland Laboratory of the CSIRO Aquaculture Program in 17 Australia. A single basal diet was formulated to provide protein and lipid at 489 g/kg and 138 g/kg 18 diet at a gross energy level of 22.2 MJ kg<sup>-1</sup> (estimated digestible protein and energy of 406 g kg<sup>-1</sup> and 19 19.7 MJ kg<sup>-1</sup>, respectively) (Table 1). The dry ingredients were first blended in a series of batches 20 using a 60 L upright Hobart mixer (HL600, Hobart, Pinkenba, QLD, Australia), to produce a single 21 batch of basal mash which was extruded using a laboratory-scale, twin-screw extruder with 22 23 intermeshing, co-rotating screws (MPF19:25, Baker Perkins, Peterborough, United Kingdom). The 24 resultant pellets produced through a 3 mm  $\emptyset$  die were cut into 4 to 5 mm lengths using a four-bladed 25 variable speed cutter and collected and dried at 60°C for 12 h in a fan-forced drying oven. The remaining oil allocation was vacuum infused post-drying according to the methods reported by Diu et 26 27 al (2015).

28

#### 29 TABLE 1 HERE

30

Three 100 L tanks of flow through seawater  $(27.9 \pm 0.32^{\circ}C)$  were each stocked with 10 juvenile (~200

32 g) fish. The transferred fish were allowed to acclimate to the tanks and were fed the reference diet for

33 23 days before faecal collection was initiated. Faeces were collected using stripping techniques

similar to that used for barramundi (Blyth *et al.*, 2014).

Diet and faecal samples were analysed for dry matter, yttrium, protein, total lipid, gross energy and ash content (AOAC, 2005). Differences in the concentrations of the protein, lipid, energy and yttrium in the feed and faeces on a dry matter basis in each treatment were calculated to determine the apparent digestibility (AD<sub>diet</sub>) of each nutritional parameter. Those digestibilities
 examined were based on the following equation:

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 $ADC = \left(1 - \frac{Y_{feed} \times Parameter_{faeces}}{Y_{faeces} \times Parameter_{feed}}\right)$ 

- Where Y<sub>diet</sub> and Y<sub>faeces</sub> represent the yttrium content of the diet and faeces respectively, and
  Parameter<sub>diet</sub> and Parameter<sub>faeces</sub> represent the nutritional parameter of concern (protein, lipid or
  energy) content of the diet and faeces respectively.
- 9

## 10 2.3 Study 3 – Energy and protein utilisation efficiency

This study was conducted at the Cleveland Laboratory of the CSIRO Aquaculture Program in 11 12 Australia. Twenty four 100 L tanks were each stocked with 10 cobia juveniles (mean weight  $136.2 \pm$ 13 0.71 g). A series of six feed ration treatments were assigned in quadruplicate to the array. The same 14 diet as used in the digestibility study was used in this study (Table 1). Each ration level was 15 determined based on satiety, 80%, 60%, 40%, 20% of satiety and starved. The sub-satietal levels were 16 estimated based on feed intake measured in the three days preceding the initiation of the experiment 17 when fish were being acclimated to the tanks. Water temperature was maintained at  $27.9 \pm 0.32$  °C for 18 the duration of the study. The trial was run for 23 days to minimize the time that fish were unfed 19 before a result could be obtained. The apparent satiety ration level was determined based on the loss 20 of feeding activity after the fish being offered food on three or more independent feeding episodes 21 within a one-hour period. Any uneaten food was collected by siphoning and accounted for. After 23 22 days the weight gain was assessed by weighing all fish within each tank to determine tank mean 23 weight gain. At this point three fish from each tank were also euthanized and whole fish samples were 24 collected for the analysis of dry matter, protein, lipid and energy content.

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#### 2.4 Study 4 – Fish composition variation

A range of sizes of cobia from 25 g to 2013 g were collected (n=18) from both laboratory stocks and commercial grow-out producers in northern Vietnam, with further fish also sourced from the Bribie Island Research Centre in Woorim, QLD, Australia. Whole fish were minced and then analysed for dry matter, protein, lipid and energy content. These fish were obviously fed a range of diets, therefore representing the average genetic response of the species to variations in dietary protein and energy balance provision in diets. All analyses were conducted according to the methods specified by the AOAC (2005).

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## 35 2.5 Study 5 – Assessment of fish growth rates

Growth rates were assessed from a combination of both farm and laboratory data sources. Eight commercial sea cage production facilities in Khanh Hoa, Cat Ba and Nghe An provinces in Vietnam were each assessed at monthly intervals (from April 2010 to April 2011) by weighing around fish from each cage to determine mean weight gain and daily growth rates (g day<sup>-1</sup>). Growth rates (range 0.23 to 17.77 g day<sup>-1</sup>) were expressed relative to the geometric mean weight (range 4 to 5,040 g fish<sup>-1</sup>) of the fish from each measurement. Water temperature (range 18.0 to 29.5 °C, mean  $\pm$  SD = 25.6  $\pm$  2.8°C) was also measured at each sampling time.

8 9

#### 2.6 *Chemical analyses*

10 Fish and samples of the reference diet were analysed for dry matter, protein, total lipids and energy content. Diet and faecal samples were also analysed for yttrium. Dry matter was calculated by 11 gravimetric analysis following oven drying at 105°C for 24 h. Gross energy content was determined 12 using ballistic bomb calorimetry or in some cases calculated using protein =  $23.6 \text{ kJ g}^{-1}$ , lipid = 38.513 kJ  $g^{-1}$  and carbohydrate = 17.3 kJ  $g^{-1}$ . Protein levels were calculated from the determination of total 14 15 nitrogen by combustion analysis using a CHNOS autoanalyser in Australia and Kjeldhal in Vietnam and multiplying N by 6.25. Total lipid contents were determined gravimetrically following extraction 16 17 by chloroform and methanol (2:1 v/v) solution according to the method of Folch (1957). Total 18 yttrium concentrations were determined after digestion with concentrated nitric acid (60%) using 19 inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectrophotometry (ICP-AES). Carbohydrate was 20 determined as the difference in dry matter content minus protein, ash and total lipids. All of these 21 determinations were conducted according to the methods specified by the AOAC (2005). 22

### 23 2.7 Statistical analysis

All values are mean ± SEM unless otherwise specified. Fish weights were converted to the geometric mean (GMW) of initial and final weights prior to plotting on the figures. Graphical presentation was done using Microsoft Excel. Regression analysis on linear, power and polynomial functions (including derivation of error terms) was done using Statistica version 9.0 (StatSoft, Tulsa, OK, USA). Error terms for exponents were determined based on natural logarithmic transformations of the data prior to linear regression analysis.

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#### 1 3. Results

2 3.1 Study 1 – Starvation energy and protein losses

3 Protein, lipid and energy losses by cobia over a 21 d period of starvation were shown to vary 4 with the size of the fish (Figures 1, 2 and 3). Overall endogenous protein loss was greater with increasing fish size, and is expressed as an exponential relationship (Equation 1). Concomitant with 5 that protein loss, was also the loss of lipid during this starvation period (Equation 2). The loss of these 6 7 two nutrients due to starvation is expressed as the energy loss (Equation 3). A greater protein and lipid losses were recorded in larger fish (Fig. 1, 2). Similar to protein losses, the relationship with size and 8 energy losses was also described by an exponential relationship with body weight (BW) (Equation 3). 9 The determined exponents of protein (BW<sup>0.697</sup>), lipid (BW<sup>0.989</sup>), and energy (BW<sup>0.822</sup>), loss were so 10 similar to standard exponents (BW<sup>0.70</sup>, BW<sup>1.00</sup> and BW<sup>0.80</sup> respectively) for other fish species that it 11 was decided to standardise their use to these common exponents for further calculations. 12 13 (Equation 1) Protein loss (g/fish) =  $0.235 \cdot (GMW)^{0.697}$ , (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.844) 14 (Equation 2) Lipid loss (g/fish) =  $0.021 \cdot (GMW)^{0.989}$ , (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.870) 15 (Equation 3) Energy loss (kJ/fish) =  $4.902 \cdot (GMW)^{0.822}$ , (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.874) 16 17 18 FIGURES 1, 2 AND 3 HERE 19 Study 2 – Energy, lipid and protein digestibility 20 3.2 21 Protein, lipid and energy digestibility values of the reference diet were determined. Protein 22 digestibility was measured at  $83.0 \pm 0.2\%$ . Lipid digestibility was measured at  $94.6 \pm 0.8\%$  and energy digestibility was measured at  $89.0 \pm 0.1\%$ . This equated to a digestible protein content of the 23 24 reference diet of 40.6%, a digestible lipid content of 13.0% and a digestible energy content of 19.7 25 MJ/kg, each on a dry matter basis. 26 3.3 *Study 3 – Energy and protein utilisation efficiency* 27 The measured utilisation of protein, lipid and energy by cobia, was based on the assessment 28 of net gain in each parameter relative to the varying intake of dietary digestible protein (Figure 4; 29 Equation 4), digestible lipid (Figure 5; Equation 5) and digestible energy (Figure 6; Equation 6). Each 30 31 relationship followed a linear function. 32 (Equation 4) Protein gain  $(g/kg^{0.70}/d) = 0.456 \cdot (digestible protein intake) - 0.450, (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.938)$ 33 (Equation 5) Lipid gain  $(g/kg^{1.00}/d) = 1.292 \cdot (digestible energy intake) - 1.120, (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.973).$ 34 (Equation 6) Energy gain  $(kJ/kg^{0.80}/d) = 0.651 \cdot (digestible energy intake) - 48.411, (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.996)$ 35 36 37 FIGURES 4, 5 AND 6 HERE

1 2 The intercept of each linear function with the X-axis was used to determine the maintenance 3 requirements for each of protein, lipid and energy. 4 3.4 *Study* 4 – *Fish composition* 5 The composition of the fish varied over the live-weight range of fish examined (Figure 7). 6 7 Protein content was relatively constant and was described by a linear function (Equation 7). Typically, the live-weight total lipid composition was also observed to increase with increasing live-weight 8 9 (Figure 7; Equation 8). The increase in total lipid content with increasing fish size was also consistent with an increase in energy density of the fish (Figure 7; Equation 9). 10 11 (Equation 7) Live-weight protein (%) =  $0.001 \cdot (\text{live-weight}) + 0.168, (R^2 = 0.007)$ 12 (Equation 8) Live-weight lipid (%) =  $0.0054 \cdot (live-weight)^{0.451}$ , (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.822) 13 (Equation 9) Live-weight energy (MJ/kg) =  $2.669 \cdot (\text{live-weight})^{0.1715}$ , (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.791) 14 15 FIGURE 7 HERE 16 17 3.5 18 *Study* 5 – *Assessment of fish potential growth rate* 19 The growth rates of juvenile cobia showed that larger fish typically had the potential to gain 20 greater total biomass per day than smaller fish (Figure 8). The temperature independent function for 21 this growth can be expressed as Equation 10. This equation derived from growth data of cobia 22 cultured at an average water temperature  $25.6 \pm 2.8$ °C. Where the geometric mean weight (GMW) is in gram per fish. 23 24 (Equation 10) Fish growth rate  $(g/d) = 0.159 \cdot (GMW)^{0.574}$  (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.847) 25 26 FIGURE 8 HERE 27 28 3.6 *Study* 6 – *Iterative design of dietary protein and energy specifications* 29 From the starvation data and the calculated maintenance protein, lipid and energy demands a 30 31 function describing the relationship between fish live-weight and those maintenance demands was 32 derived. Because insufficient data was collected on temperature effects on maintenance demands the 33 determination of a temperature response was not attempted. 34 35 (Equation 11) Maintenance Protein Demand  $(g/d/fish) = 0.99 \cdot (live-weight)^{0.70}$ (Equation 12) Maintenance Lipid Demand (g/ d/ fish) =  $0.87 \cdot (live-weight)^{1.00}$ 36 37 (Equation 13) Maintenance Energy Demand  $(kJ/d/fish) = 74.3 \cdot (live-weight)^{0.80}$ 

# 2 TABLE 2 HERE

#### 4. Discussion

2

Factorial models have proven to be useful in defining both protein and energy demands and
total feed ration management for a range of fish species (Lupatsch *et al.*, 2003; Glencross, 2008;
Pirozzi *et al.*, 2010). This study reports on the development of a model for a new carnivorous fish
species and as such adds to the volume of data on such fish species.

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#### 4.1 Comparisons to the growth model

9 There are actually only a few studies examining growth by cobia in the literature. A study by Benetti et al., (2010) reported the growth of cobia cultured in open ocean submerged cages in the 10 Caribbean. Growth rates in that study were consistently 94% (at 27.8°C) and 82% (at 25.5°C) of those 11 reported in the present model at water temperature of 27.8°C. A common issue with the comparison of 12 13 the growth model against much of the published literature is that most of the published literature 14 appears to be with very small fish and often under limiting conditions of feed quality situations and 15 with fish growing much slower than that encountered from our farm-based data collection. Such vagaries in the growth rates throughout the literature highlight the need to develop a benchmark 16 17 standard against which laboratory studies should be compared.

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## 4.2 Protein requirements

The metabolic weight exponent for protein metabolism in cobia is 0.697. This is similar to 20 21 the generic protein exponent for most fish species is 0.70. The efficiency of protein use by cobia, 22 based on the regression of the protein gain against the digestible protein intake, was linear over the 23 protein intake range examined and had a coefficient of 0.456. This coefficient value for the partial 24 efficiency of protein gain for this species is also similar to that observed for most other fish species – 25 barramundi: 0.48, gilthead seabream: 0.53, rainbow trout: 0.40 - 0.47, yellowtail kingfish: 0.51, (Lupatsch et al., 2003; Glencross, 2008; 2009; Glencross et al., 2008; Booth et al., 2010). Although in 26 27 most other studies this relationship between protein gain and protein intake has usually been observed 28 to be curvilinear, in the present study this response was linear over the feed intake ranges studied (Lupatsch et al., 2003; Glencross, 2008; Dumas et al., 2010; Glencross, 2010; Glencross et al., 2011). 29 Such linear responses have been observed before (Lupatsch et al., 2001). Though it has been argued 30 31 that such linear responses are indicative of underfeeding as even the curvilinear responses reported are close to linear at the lower levels of feed intake (Glencross and Bermudes, 2012). 32 A notable feature of this study was the higher maintenance protein requirements (DP<sub>maint</sub>) 33

observed of this species. Based on the point of zero net protein gain a  $DP_{maint}$  intake of 0.99 g/ kg<sup>0.70</sup>/d was calculated (Figure 4). This is about 50% higher than the value of 0.66 g /kg<sup>0.70</sup>/d determined for

36 D. labrax (Lupatsch et al., 2001), and double the 0.45 g /kg<sup>0.70</sup>/d determined for barramundi

(Glencross, 2008). However, it is only about half that reported for yellowtail kingfish (1.70 g
 /kg<sup>0.70</sup>/d), another highly active pelagic carnivorous species (Booth *et al.*, 2010).

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#### 4.3 Energy requirements

5	The relationship between this specie's energy metabolism and its body weight also conform
6	to the allometric equation: $a \cdot BW(kg)^b$ as is the case for virtually every other fish species studied
7	(Withers, 1998; Dumas et al., 2010). Similarly, the exponent value of body weight (BW <sup>exponent value</sup> ) for
8	energy metabolism in cobia was observed to be 0.822 which is similar to the result determined by
9	Watson and Holt (2010) using indirect calorimetry with this species (0.809). It is also similar to other
10	fish species including barramundi (0.80), grouper (0.79), gilthead seabream (0.82), European seabass
11	(0.80), Pangasius catfish (0.84) and tilapia (0.85) (Lupatsch et al., 2003; Glencross, 2008; Glencross
12	and Bermudes, 2011; Glencross et al., 2011; Trung et al., 2011).
13	The maintenance energy requirements (DE <sub>maint =</sub> 74.3 kJ/kg <sup><math>0.80</math></sup> /d), as defined by the point of
14	zero net energy gain, in this study was substantially higher from that seen for other species like
15	rainbow trout (40.1 kJ / kg $^{0.80}$ /d), barramundi (42.6 kJ / kg $^{0.80}$ /d) and mulloway (26.3 kJ / kg $^{0.80}$ /d)
16	(Glencross et al., 2008; Glencross, 2008; Pirozzi et al. 2010). However, the DEmaint was similar to the
17	87.4 kJ/kg <sup>0.80</sup> /d reported by Booth et al. (2010) for another pelagic carnivorous fish species the
18	yellowtail kingfish (Seriola lalandi). This observation poses a question whether it is this active
19	pelagic nature of these animals that results in such a higher or some other feature like the partial
20	endothermy observed in some Scombrid species (Glencross et al., 2001).
21	The partial efficiency of energy use is determined as the slope of the regression of the energy
22	intake against energy retention, on a metabolic body weight basis (Lupatsch et al., 2001). In the
23	present study for cobia species, the response of full energy intake range was recorded to be linear.
24	This contrasts with the curvilinear response observed with other species (Lupatsch et al., 2003;
25	Bureau et al. 2006; Glencross, 2008; Glencross et al., 2008; Trung et al., 2011), but is consistent with
26	the linear response reported in other studies (Cho & Bureau, 1998; Lupatsch et al., 2001).
27	In the present study, the partial efficiency of energy gain was observed to be 0.651. This value
28	is consistent with other carnivorous fish species e.g. Gilthead Seabream (0.65), white grouper,
29	Epinephelus aeneus (0.69), barramundi (0.68), rainbow trout (0.62), yellowtail kingfish (0.65) and
30	mulloway (0.60) (Lupatsch et al., 2003; Glencross, 2008; 2009; Booth et al., 2010; Pirozzi et al.,
31	2010).
32	
33	4.4 Iterative diet design
34	Key dietary parameters of energy and protein specifications can be derived iteratively from

this model for fish at any phase of its production cycle (Glencross, 2008; Booth *et al.*, 2010;

36 Glencross *et al.*, 2010). This iterative approach was also used to define the energy and protein

37 requirements for cobia from 100g to 2000g at each of three dietary energy densities (Table 2). Based

on a combination of the somatic and non-somatic (maintenance) energy demands a simplistic energy
budget was created that dictates how much energy the fish needs to consume to achieve a prescribed
growth potential. The amount of feed (g/fish) rationed to the animal then being this energy demand
divided by the digestible energy density of that feed (Table 2).

5 Similarly, the needs for protein for both somatic and non-somatic demands can also be defined using this approach which defines the appropriate DP:DE ratio (Table 2). Using the 6 empirically derived equations from studies 1 to 5 the requirements for protein and energy at a range of 7 fish sizes was determined (Table 2). Based on a combination of the predicted growth, the protein and 8 9 energetic cost of that weight gain, the efficiencies associated with those gains and the maintenance 10 requirements, the total daily requirements for both protein and energy at a range of fish sizes were calculated (Table 2). From this both the daily energy and protein intake requirement were defined. 11 This has subsequently allowed us to iteratively specify a series of hypothetical diets of varying energy 12 13 density (12 MJ/kg, 16 MJ/kg and or 20 MJ/kg) (Table 2).

In applying this iterative approach, it is assumed that the fish will eat to an energetic demand and as such the energy content of each diet will define total feed consumption. This total feed consumption also influences the amount of dietary protein required to satisfy the daily protein demand (Dumas *et al.*, 2010).

18 Using this iterative approach the present study shows that there are several strategies that can 19 be employed to define the theoretically optimal diet energy and protein specifications and that these 20 change with fish size, consistent with what has been reported in numerous other similar studies 21 (Lupatsch et al., 2003; Glencross, 2008; Booth et al 2010; Trung et al., 2011; Glencross and 22 Bermudes, 2012). When the diet energy density and/or fish size varies the present model demonstrates 23 that there is a need to vary the dietary protein supply for this species. This model also demonstrates 24 how the choice of diet energy density has an effect on the biological feed conversion ratio (FCR). 25 When a lower FCR is achieved with a higher energy density simply due to the energetic demands being satisfied by fewer grams of feed. Importantly though, this lower feed ration combined with the 26 27 same daily protein requirement also means that the protein concentration required in that diet for it to 28 satisfy the daily protein demands has to increase for it to be effective. Similar to other species, it was noted that the most dramatic changes in the protein demand (based on the required protein : energy 29 ratio) of cobia occur over the first 500 g of its growth, where the optimal DP:DE changes from 36 30 31 g/MJ at 50 g to 24 g/MJ at 500 g (Figure 9).

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## FIGURE 9 HERE

33 34

For cobia, the optimal DP:DE ratios at 100 g and 1000 g were 32 and 22 g/MJ, respectively (Table 2) and by comparison barramundi optimal DP:DE ratios at 100 g and 1000 g were 30.2 and g/MJ (Glencross, 2008). This contrasts those determined for yellowtail kingfish which had

optimal DP:DE ratios at 100 g and 1000 g of 39 and 27 g/MJ, respectively (Booth *et al.*, 2010). It can
be seen that for each of the sizes of cobia, examined in the present study that the optimal DP:DE
ratios were marginally higher than those of barramundi, but substantially lower than those of
yellowtail kingfish (Figure 9).

5 6

## 4.4 Conclusions

7 This study used a factorial method for determining the protein and energy requirements for cobia. This study adds to the volume of literature using this method to estimate these requirements for 8 9 a range of fish species. Comparison of the data derived from this study with that obtained for other 10 species indicates a high degree of homology of most energetic parameters. The primary difference, in comparison to the many other models developed for most other carnivorous fish species, is that this 11 species has a marginally higher demand for protein, but most notably its maintenance requirements 12 13 for protein and energy are substantially higher than other studied species. The only exception to this being the comparison with another pelagic marine fish, the yellowtail kingfish, which also has 14 15 similarly high maintenance demands.

This study represents a series of estimations based on a series of inter-related studies and their derived parameters. As such the estimations deduced from this modelling exercise are only as robust as the weakest data estimates. It would be prudent to take the outputs from this model and independently validate them and also test some of the assumptions used to increase the robustness of this model.

21

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## 1 Table 1. Reference diet formulation (% as used) and composition (% dry basis unless

2 otherwise indicated)

3

Ingredients (%) Brown fish meal 65.5 Wheat flour 14.5 Wheat gluten 10.0 Fish oil 9.4 Mineral and vitamin premix\* 0.5 Marker (yttrium oxide) 0.1 Composition Dry matter (% as fed) 95.8 Crude protein 48.9 Digestible protein 40.6 Total lipid 13.8 Digestible lipid 13.0 Crude ash 11.0 Carbohydrate\*\* 21.1 Gross energy (kJ/g) 22.2

4 \* Vitamin and mineral premix includes (IU kg<sup>-1</sup> or g kg<sup>-1</sup> of premix): Vitamin A, 1.3MIU; Vitamin D3, 0.5 MIU; Vitamin E, 0.17

19.7

5 MIU; Vitamin K,3, 3.4 g; Vitamin B1, 6.7 g; Vitamin B2, 5.8 g; Vitamin B6, 6.7 g; Vitamin B12, 0.003 g; Folic acid, 0.8 g; D-

6 Calpan, 20 g; Niacin, 11.7 g; Biotin, 0.17 g; Vitamin C, 33 g; Inositol, 45 g; Iron, 8.3 g; Zinc, 16.7 g; Copper, 8.3 g; Manganese, 3.0

7 g; Cobalt, 0.67 g; Iodine, 0.17 g; Selenium, 0.07 g.

Digestible Energy (kJ/g)

8 \*\* Calculated only

9

1	
2	
3	

7

Table 2 Calculations of dietary energy and protein requirements for growing cobia at 26°C including feed specifications based on a series (12, 16 and 20 MJ/kg) suggested dietary DE densities

Fish live-weight (g/fish)	100	500	1000	2000	100	500	1000	2000	100	500	1000	2000
Growth (g/fish/day) @ 25.6 °C a	2.23	5.62	8.37	12.47	2.23	5.62	8.37	12.47	2.23	5.62	8.37	12.47
Energy												
Metabolic BW (kg <sup>0.80</sup> )	0.158	0.574	1.000	1.741	0.158	0.574	1.000	1.741	0.158	0.574	1.000	1.741
DEmaint (kJ/fish/day) <sup>b</sup>	11.78	42.67	74.30	129.36	11.78	42.67	74.30	129.36	11.78	42.67	74.30	129.36
Energy gain (kJ/fish/day) <sup>c</sup>	13.12	43.58	73.07	122.53	13.12	43.58	73.07	122.53	13.12	43.58	73.07	122.53
DEgrowth (kJ/fish/day) <sup>d</sup>	20.16	66.94	112.25	188.21	20.16	66.94	112.25	188.21	20.16	66.94	112.25	188.21
DEtotal (kJ/fish/day) e	31.93	109.62	186.55	317.58	31.93	109.62	186.55	317.58	31.93	109.62	186.55	317.58
Protein												
Metabolic Protein BW (kg <sup>0.80</sup> )	0.200	0.616	1.000	1.625	0.200	0.616	1.000	1.625	0.200	0.616	1.000	1.625
DPromaint (g/fish/day) <sup>f</sup>	0.20	0.61	0.99	1.61	0.20	0.61	0.99	1.61	0.20	0.61	0.99	1.61
Protein gain (g/fish/day) <sup>g</sup>	0.37	0.94	1.41	2.09	0.37	0.94	1.41	2.09	0.37	0.94	1.41	2.09
DProgrowth (g/fish/day) <sup>h</sup>	0.82	2.07	3.08	4.59	0.82	2.07	3.08	4.59	0.82	2.07	3.08	4.59
DPrototal (g/fish/day) <sup>i</sup>	1.02	2.68	4.07	6.20	1.02	2.68	4.07	6.20	1.02	2.68	4.07	6.20
Feed specifications	10	10	10	10	16	10	10	16	20	20	20	20
DE content of feed (MJ/kg)	12	12	12	12	16	16	16	16	20	20	20	20
Feed intake (g/fish/day)	2.66	9.13	15.55	26.46	2.00	6.85	11.66	19.85	1.60	5.48	9.33	15.88
Feed intake (%BW)	2.7	1.8	1.6	1.3	2.0	1.4	1.2	1.0	1.6	1.1	0.9	0.8
DPro content of feed (g/kg)	383	294	262	234	511	391	350	312	639	489	437	391
Expected FCR	1.19	1.62	1.86	2.12	0.89	1.22	1.39	1.59	0.72	0.97	1.11	1.27
DPro : DE ratio (g/MJ)	32	24	22	20	32	24	22	20	32	24	22	20

<sup>a</sup>Based on Equation 10 and a temperature of 25.6°C. <sup>b</sup>Digestible energy required for maintenance = 74.3 kJ / kg<sup>0.80</sup> /day. <sup>c</sup>Energy content of body based on Equation 9. <sup>d</sup>Amount of digestible energy required for growth based on a partial energy utilization efficiency of 0.651. <sup>e</sup>Total digestible energy required for growth based on a partial protein required for maintenance = 0.99 g /kg<sup>0.70</sup> /day. <sup>g</sup>Protein content of body based on 16.89% of live-weight. <sup>h</sup>Amount of digestible protein required for growth based on a partial protein utilization efficiency of 0.456. <sup>i</sup>Total 6

digestible protein required per day =  $DP_{maint} + DP_{growth}$ 



Figure 1. Protein loss (g/fish) by cobia starved for 21 days at 28°C. Regression equation is: Protein loss =  $0.235^{\circ}$ (fish geometric mean live-weight)<sup>0.697</sup>, (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.844)



Figure 2. Lipid loss (g/fish) by cobia starved for 21 days at 28°C. Regression equation is: Lipid loss  $(g/fish) = 0.021*(fish geometric mean live-weight)^{0.989}$ ,  $(R^2 = 0.870)$ .



Figure 3. Energy loss (kJ/fish) by cobia starved for 21 days at 28°C. Regression equation is: Energy loss (kJ/fish) = 4.902\*(fish geometric mean live weight)<sup>0.822</sup>, (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.874).



Figure 4 Protein gain (g/kgBW<sup>0.7</sup>/d) by cobia fed increasing amounts of an experimental feed at  $27.9 \pm 0.3$ °C. Overall regression equation is: Protein gain = 0.456•(digestible protein intake) – 0.450, (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.938). Maintenance digestible protein intake level is estimated at 0.99 g/kgBW<sup>0.7</sup>/d.



Figure 5 Lipid gain (g/kgBW<sup>1.0</sup>/d) by cobia fed increasing amounts of an experimental feed at  $27.9 \pm 0.3^{\circ}$ C. Overall regression equation is: Lipid gain (g/kgBW<sup>1.0</sup>/d) =  $1.292 \cdot (\text{digestible lipid intake}) - 1.120, (R^2 = 0.973)$ . Maintenance digestible lipid intake level is estimated at  $0.87 \text{ g/kgBW}^{1.0}$ /d



Figure 6 Energy gain (kJ/kgBW<sup>0.8</sup>/d) by cobia fed increasing amounts of an experimental feed at  $27.9 \pm 0.3^{\circ}$ C. Overall regression equation is: Energy gain =  $0.651 \cdot$ (Digestible energy intake) – 48.411, (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.996). Maintenance digestible energy intake level is estimated at 74.3 kJ/kgBW<sup>0.8</sup>/d.



Figure 7. Live-weight body compositions of cobia (n = 18) from 25g to 2013g. Fish were a combination of laboratory and commercial farmed stocks fed either laboratory or commercial diets.



Figure 8 Growth rates of cobia with varying live-weight size range (expressed as geometric mean live-weight). Growth rate (g/d) was defined by the equation  $y = 0.1586x^{0.574}$  (R<sup>2</sup> 0.847). Average temperature across all data is  $25.6 \pm 2.8$ °C (mean  $\pm$  SD).



Figure 9 A comparison of the idealised protein demand (g/MJ) of cobia (solid line) with Asian seabass (dashed line) with varying live-weight size range (Asian seabass data derived from Glencross and Bermudes, 2012). Shown is the marginally higher demand for protein by cobia relative to this other tropical carnivorous species.