

Effects of temperature on the zootechnical performances and physiology of giant gourami (Osphronemus goramy) larvae

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1	Effects of temperature on the zootechnical performances and physiology of
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18 Abstract

19 The influence of temperature on zootechnical performances and physiology was 20 assessed in giant gourami (Osphronemus goramy) larvae. Larvae aged ten days 21 post-hatching were reared at five temperature treatments (22.5, 25.0, 27.5, 30.0 22 and 32.5 °C, three replicated per treatment) in indoor closed recirculating systems 23 until they reached, at least, the commercial size of 2.5 cm in total length (i.e. 24 rearing time of 21 to 42 d depending on the temperature). Samples of larvae were 25 collected every week. Survival, growth, and feed intake were used as main indicators of zootechnical performances. In addition, concentration of glucose and 26 27 cortisol and proximate composition of the young life-stages giant gourami were 28 compared to assess effects of temperature on their physiology. Results showed 29 that temperature strongly affected growth of giant gourami larvae with 30 significantly increased observed at the increasing tested temperatures (from $57.2 \pm$ 31 9.3 mg to 431.9 \pm 64.2 mg of body weight after three weeks, p < 0.05). The 32 increased growth can be related to changes in metabolism, feed intake and feed 33 use efficiency. Based on cortisol and glucose values, we recommend to maintain 34 rearing temperature at 30.0°C for both optimizing growth and avoid physiological 35 impairments in giant gourami larvae. The consequences of larval rearing at stable 36 temperature (30.0°C) should be further investigated in the nursery and grow-out 37 outdoor phases.

38

39 Keywords: Fish larval rearing, Temperature, Survival, Growth, Cortisol, Glucose

40 **1. Introduction**

41 Giant gourami (Osphronemus goramy; Lacepède, 1801) is one of the most 42 popular freshwater fish species in Southeast Asia and particularly in Indonesia, 43 the main producing country in aquaculture (113,396 tons in 2015; FAO, 2017). 44 Over the past 15 years, the Indonesian giant gourami aquaculture production has 45 grown exponentially with an annual increase of 16% (FAO, 2017). As for other 46 freshwater species, Indonesian giant gourami aquaculture is mainly ensured by 47 micro and small-scale farms (more than 100,000 fish farmers mainly in Java 48 Island; BPS, 2013; Maskur et al., 2013). Currently, there are still some obstacles 49 to the production of gourami related to gaps of knowledge on the biology of this 50 species (Arifin et al., in press). One of the main impediments in giant gourami 51 aquaculture is ensuring availability of fry for fish farmers through the 52 improvement of larval rearing methods (Amornsakun et al., 2014a, 2014b).

53 Commercial scale propagation of giant gourami in hatcheries is yet to be 54 standardized (Amornsakun et al., 2014a). Thus, although Indonesian National 55 Standard recommends indoor larval rearing allowing to limit variations of environmental conditions (SNI, 2000), an on-farm inquiry carried out on about 40 56 57 small-scale farms of the West Java province revealed that the current practices for 58 giant gourami larval production consisted to rear larvae for the first days post-59 hatching (dph) in plastic basins and then transferred to outdoor small ponds. In 60 such practices, larvae have to deal with fluctuations of environmental conditions 61 that could not be controlled, especially for water temperature changes. For these 62 reasons, the impacts of environmental conditions on giant gourami larval rearing, especially temperature, is thus become limiting factor for fish farmers. 63

64 Water temperature is one of main environmental factors affecting physiology of 65 aquatic ectotherm organisms such as fish even before hatching (Kamler, 2002; 66 Pauly and Pullin, 1988; Teletchea et al., 2009). Temperature changes affect 67 physiological conditions, such as oxygen consumption, metabolism, digestion, growth, and reproduction (Wendelaar Bonga, 1997). When temperature tolerance 68 69 ranges are exceeded, it results negative impacts, such as physiological 70 disturbances, increased sensitivity to disease, and potentially mortality (Singh et 71 al., 2013). Temperature is therefore a key environmental parameter in aquaculture contributing for successful outcome of larvae production (Blaxter, 1991; 72 73 Pankhurst and King, 2010; Réalis-Doyelle et al., 2016). Effects of temperature on 74 the larval and fry rearing have been extensively studied in freshwater fish (e.g. 75 Desai and Singh, 2009; El-Gamal, 2009; Pandit and Nakamura, 2010; Rodkhum 76 et al., 2011; Singh et al., 2009; Zeng et al., 2018).

77 Effects of temperature in fish larval and fry rearing may be diverse. As an 78 example, Desai and Singh (2009) have shown that growth and food efficiency of 79 common carp Cyprinus carpio fry was significantly increased by higher 80 temperature (32°C vs. 28°C). Nevertheless, feed efficiency and protein efficiency 81 ratio decreased at the highest temperature as already demonstrated for Asian 82 catfish Clarias batrachus fry (Singh et al., 2009). Temperature can also affect the 83 sensibility of fish to pathogens (Rodkhum et al., 2011) through, in particular, 84 effects the ontogeny of mucous cells (El-Gamal, 2009). In addition, temperature 85 affects deformity rate during fish larval rearing (Wang and Tsai, 2000). Such results emphasize the importance of assessing temperature effects on giant 86 87 gourami larvae.

88 The objectives of this study were therefore (1) to assess the zootechnical 89 performances of giant gourami (O. goramy) larvae reared until they reached, at 90 least, the commercial size of 2.5 cm in total length (i.e. rearing time of 21 to 42 d 91 depending on the temperature) in closed aquaculture recirculating systems (RAS) 92 at five rearing temperatures (22.5-32.5°C according to preliminary tests and 93 current practices) through their survival, growth and food intake and (2) measure 94 the impacts of temperature changes on the physiology of the larvae through the 95 measurements of glucose and cortisol concentrations and their chemical 96 composition.

97

98 **2. Materials and methods**

99 2.1. Origin of larvae

100 Giant gourami larvae used in this experiment came from the same broodfish pair 101 at the same natural spawning event. The 3-4 years old broodfish ("Galunggung" 102 strain, Arifin et al., 2018) were reared in an outdoor pond at the Research 103 Installation of Germplasm Freshwater Aquaculture (RIFAFE, Cijeruk, West Java, 104 Indonesia). Broodfish were fed leaves of giant taro (Alocasia macrorrhiza) and 105 commercial feeds (floating pellets: 32% proteins, 5% lipids) at a feeding rate of 106 2% and 1% of fish biomass per day, respectively. Bamboo nest supports and palm 107 tree fibres were provided for nest building. The buoyant eggs were then incubated 108 in the experimental room for 20 hours (20-L plastic basin; daily water change, 109 temperature: 29.0 ± 0.6 °C; light:dark cycle: 12:12 h). After hatching, larvae were 110 kept unfed in the incubation basin (following fish farming practices), until the

beginning of the experiment, which was 10 dph (i.e. postflexion larva, approx. 6 d

112 after the mouth opening, Morioka et al., 2013).

113

114 2.2. Live prey maintenance

115 According to the current practices (SNI, 2000) and Lucas et al. (2015) who 116 demonstrated the benefits of this feed for survival rate and growth of giant gourami larvae, in this study, fish were fed tubifex worms (Tubifex tubifex) 117 118 throughout the experiment. Live tubifex worms were purchased weekly and stored 119 in the experimental room (100-L aquarium; daily water change, temperature: 29.0 120 \pm 0.6°C; light:dark cycle: 12:12 h) and kept unfed. Proximate analyses of tubifex 121 worms were conducted to obtain nutritional quality based on the procedures 122 described in AOAC (1999) giving the following results (dry matter basis): 52.87% 123 crude proteins, 22.09% crude lipids, 4.09% ash, 1.23% crude fibre and 19.72% 124 nitrogen free extract (NFE).

125

126 2.3. Temperature experiment

127 2.3.1. Experimental design

Zootechnical performances and physiology of giant gourami *O. goramy* larvae were studied under five temperature conditions (22.5, 25.0, 27.5, 30.0 and 32.5°C). Experiment was carried out in five identical indoor RAS (1 per temperature condition) under natural photoperiod (light:dark cycle: 12:12 h, daylight intensity: 60-4500 lux). At 10 dph, larvae were individually counted and measured (mean body weight: 12.4 ± 1.4 mg; mean total length: 9.8 ± 0.3 mm) then randomly assigned to the experimental tanks (n=3 par temperature condition, stocking density of 2.4 larvae L^{-1}) placed in RAS.

136 Larvae were acclimated into targeted temperatures by gradual temperature changes (2.5°C h⁻¹). The experimental tanks were 30-L glass aquaria $40 \times 30 \times 30$ 137 cm (L \times W \times H), aerated by bubbling, with sides covered by isolating black 138 139 polyethylene foam and top closed by transparent polycarbonate sheet in order to 140 limit temperature exchanges. The experiment continued until the larvae reached, 141 at least, 2.5 cm of total length (i.e. after 21 to 42 days of rearing depending on the 142 temperature condition). The choice of this experimental protocol was made in 143 accordance with the "BPPSIGN" Centre (West Java Centre for the Development 144 of Giant Gourami Culture) which mentioned 2.5 cm as one of segmentation 145 market size for local fish farmers (called "Nguku"; Adida, 2014).

146

147 2.3.2. Feeding protocol and water quality monitoring

148 Larvae were fed every day, except on the sampling days, in large excess for all the temperature treatments (9.1 \pm 0.6 g aquarium⁻¹ day⁻¹ throughout the experiment) 149 150 in order to ensure non-limiting food conditions for larvae and facilitate the 151 accurate estimation of ingestion. Thus, the same quantity of live tubifex worms 152 was spread in the bottom of each aquarium twice a day at 8:00 and 16:00. Prior to 153 distribution to giant gourami larvae, tubifex worms were collected, rinsed and 154 drained on a 50-µm mesh and weighed (nearest 0.1 g). In order to define food 155 intake, unconsumed tubifex worms were collected in each aquarium and weighed 156 before the addition of the new ration of tubifex. Water inlet flow into rearing tanks was maintained at 33 L h^{-1} for the first 5 days of the experiment and then at 157

158 78 L h⁻¹. Temperature was monitored in each aquarium three times a day (at
159 08:00, 12:00 and 16:00) while water quality was checked once a week with direct
160 measurements using a multi-parameter probe (HI 9829 Hanna) for pH, dissolved
161 oxygen (DO) and conductivity. In addition, alkalinity, Total ammoniacal nitrogen
162 (TAN), NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻ were measured by spectrophotometry analysis (n=6-15 per
163 treatment). NH₃ concentrations were calculated from TAN, temperature and pH
164 values. Results are provided in Table 1.

165

166 2.4. Observations and measurements of larvae

167 Fish (n=20 for each aquarium) were sampled every seven days in each aquarium, 168 transferred in a plastic basin containing water from their aquarium in order to 169 keep them in the same water temperature. The sampling frequency was selected in 170 order to limit stress for the larvae caused by handlings. Larvae were anaesthetized (Eugenol, 50 μ L L⁻¹) and their size (total body length, TL, mm) was measured 171 172 under a stereomicroscope with a micrometre (accuracy ranging from 0.05 to 0.1 173 mm, depending on fish size and magnification). Meanwhile, body weight (BW, 174 mg) was measured using a digital scale with an accuracy of 0.1 mg. After 175 individual measurements, fish were returned into their respective rearing 176 structures. No mortality was observed following samplings.

At the end of the experiment (i.e. after 21 to 42 d depending on the temperature treatment, see Section 2.3.1), for each treatment, the aquaria were emptied and remaining living larvae were counted allowing survival rate determination. Two times during the experiment (after 4 h and at the end), fish from each treatment were sampled to quantify whole-body cortisol and glucose concentrations. Whole182 body cortisol level was analysed by anesthetizing and grinding the larvae or 183 juveniles (n=3 pools of 20 fish). Afterwards, the samples were centrifuged 184 (10,000 rpm for 10 min at 25°C) and cortisol levels were analysed in the 185 supernatants by using Cortisol ELISA kit (DRG International, Inc., Germany) and 186 microplate photometer (Biosan HiPo MPP-96, Latvia). At the beginning of the 187 experiment, samplings for glucose analyses were carried out as described above 188 (n=3 pools of 20 fish). Methodology was adjusted for juveniles at the end of the 189 experiment. Thus, one drop of blood was collected on each anesthetised fish (n=3 fish). After collection, the blood samples were put on glucose reader (Accu-Chek 190 191 Active, Roche, Germany) for analysis. At the end of the experiment, 35-40 fish 192 from each treatment were collected for the whole-body proximate analyses (i.e. 193 protein, lipid, ash, and NFE). Anesthetizing fish from each treatment were taken 194 and pooled (n=3), autoclaved, homogenized, and dried to a constant weight at 195 105°C and then analysed following the methods described by AOAC (1999).

196

197 2.5. Data treatment and statistical analysis

198 Temperature effects on survival, growth and feed intake were determined by 199 calculating the following parameters for each experimental treatment. Survival 200 rates (SR), expressed as a percentage, were calculated by comparing the final 201 number (N_f) with the initial number of larvae (N_i): SR (%) = (N_f/N_i) x 100.

The specific growth in body weight (SGR_{BW}, %) was calculated according to the following equation: SGR_{BW} = (ln BW_f - ln BW_i) / ED) x 100, where BW_i and BW_f are the initial and final body weight of larvae (mg) respectively, and ED is the duration of the experiment in days. The specific growth in total length (SGR_{TL}, %) was calculated using the same calculation by substituting BW with LT: SGR_{TL} = (ln LT_f - ln LT_i) / ED) x 100. Heterogeneity of larval size (in body weight or total length) was assessed using the coefficient of variation (CV, %) calculated as: CV_{BW} = SD_{BW} / BW and CV_{TL}=SD_{TL} / TL, where SD is the standard deviation and BW is the average body weight (mg) and TL the average body length (mm).

- 212 The Fulton's condition factor (K) was calculated according to the relationship K =
- 213 BW_f / TL_f^3 (Froese, 2006). The equation was multiplied by 100 to bring the value 214 close to one.
- Food intake per treatment (FI_{total}, %) was calculated as follows: $FI_{total} =$ (Food distributed in g Food remaining in g) / Food distributed in g) x 100.
- Ingestion rates (IR) of fish (expressed as g $g^{-1} d^{-1}$) exposed to the different temperature were calculated according to the equation: IR = TFi / (N_f BW_f - N_i BW_i) / ED, where TFi is the total food consumed by the fish (g) during the duration of the experiment (ED, d).
- 221 Feed conversion ratio (FCR) was calculated using the following equation: FCR =
- 222 $F / (N_f BW_f N_i BW_i)$, where F is the total quantity of food intake in wet weight
- 223 during the whole rearing period. F was determined as the total amount of uneaten

Protein efficiency ratio (PER) was calculated for each experimental treatment according to the following equation: $PER = (N_f BW_f - N_i BW_i) / PI$ where PI is the total protein ingested by the larvae (g).

Statistical comparisons were done for each parameter described above. Data werefirst assessed to confirm normality (Shapiro's test) and homogeneity of variances

(Levene's test) and, where necessary, data expressed were arcsine-square root prior to analysis. One-way ANOVA following by Tukey's test were used to determine significant differences among temperature treatments. When assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variances were unable to be achieved, data were analyzed using Kruskal-Wallis and Siegel and Castellan nonparametric tests.

236 The growth kinetics of the larvae, both for body weight (BW) and total length 237 (TL), reared at the five different temperature were best fitted using exponential 238 model: BW or TF = BWi or TFi x e^{at} where a was the growth rate (d^{-1}) and t the time (d). Model constants were estimated by iterative adjustment of the model 239 240 using the least square regression method. In order to statistically assess the effects 241 of temperature on larval growth, for each experimental treatment, growth data 242 (BW and TL) were linearized using natural logarithmic transformation and 243 ANCOVA following by Tukey's test were then applied to identify differences 244 between the regression slopes. The level of significance for statistical analyses 245 was always set to $\alpha = 0.05$. All statistics were performed using R freeware version 246 3.3.0 (R Development Core Team, 2016).

247

3. Results

249 3.1. Water parameters

The targeted temperatures were kept constant throughout the experiment (Table 1) and significant differences were confirmed between each treatment ($\chi^2 = 1100$, p < 0.001, Table 1). Regular monitoring indicated that water quality was similar between each treatment. Dissolved oxygen saturation was maintained above 85% in all treatments ($\chi^2 = 4.015$, p = 0.400) with average DO concentration of 6.21 to 7.40 mg L⁻¹. Total ammoniacal nitrogen was not significantly different between the five experimental treatments ($\chi^2 = 5.207$, p = 0.267) and NH₃ was kept very lower 0.05 mg L⁻¹.

258

259 3.2. Survival

The larval survival rates measured at the end of the experiment ranged from 61.6 $\pm 15.4\%$ (treatment 22.5°C) to 75.5 $\pm 5.6\%$ (treatment 32.5°C) without any significant differences between the five temperatures tested ($\chi^2 = 4.196$, p = 0.380, Table 2).

264

265 3.3. Growth and size heterogeneity

The growth of giant gourami larvae reared at five different temperatures is 266 267 indicated in Table 2. At the end of the experiment (i.e. after 21 to 42 days 268 depending on the temperature), the average body weight (BW) and total length 269 (TL) of larvae ranged from 270.2 ± 95.4 mg and 24.7 ± 2.6 mm and 431.9 ± 64.2 270 mg and 30.3 ± 1.4 mm when they reared at 22.5°C and 32.5°C respectively (Fig. 1 271 and Table 2). Growth significantly increase with an increase of temperature (F =272 568.3, p < 0.001 and F = 496.0, p < 0.001 for BW and TL respectively), with the 273 lowest growth observed for the larvae reared at 22.5°C (Fig. 1 and Table 2) and 274 the highest growth observed for the larvae reared at 32.5°C. No significant 275 difference was found for the larvae reared at intermediate temperature (i.e. 27.5°C 276 and 30.0°C). This trend was confirmed by the specific growth rate calculated from 277 body weight (SGR_{BW}) and total length (SGR_{TL}). Significant increases in SGR_{BW} 278 (F = 360.4, p < 0.001) and SRG_{TL} (F = 351.5, p < 0.001) were observed when 279 temperature increased, with values varying from $7.3 \pm 0.6\%$ for SGR_{BW} and $2.2 \pm$ 280 0.2% for SRG_{TL} at 22.5°C to 17.0 ± 0.2% for SGR_{BW} and 5.4 ± 0.1% SRG_{TL} at 281 32.5°C (Table 2).

Interpolation from exponential growth curves (Table 3) indicated that, in this experiment, the fry commercial size (i.e. 2.5 cm in total length) was reached after 17 days (i.e. 27 dph) of rearing larvae reared at 32.5°C while 42 days (i.e. 52 dph) are needed for larvae reared at 22.5°C to reach similar size (Fig. 1).

286 Size heterogeneity of larvae as a function of temperature was assessed through the 287 calculation of coefficients of variation for body weight (CV_{BW}) and total length 288 (CV_{TL}) at the end of experiment for each temperature. Thus, CV_{BW} ranged from 289 12.1 \pm 1.9 (treatment 25.0°C) to 24.2 \pm 10.4% (treatment 22.5°C) and CV_{TL} 290 ranged from $3.8 \pm 0.7\%$ (treatment 25.0°C) to $8.0 \pm 3.4\%$ (treatment 22.5°C). For 291 CV_{BW} and CV_{TL} , no significant differences were found between the five tested 292 temperatures (F = 2.3, p = 0.128 and F = 2.7, p = 0.089 for CV_{BW} and CV_{TL} 293 respectively, Table 2). Statistical analysis revealed a slight significant decrease in 294 K with increased temperature (F = 88.7, p < 0.001) with K ranging from 1.7 ± 0.1 295 at 22.5° C and 1.5 ± 0.1 at 32.5° C (Table 2).

296

297 3.4. Food intake and feed efficiency

The proportion of the total distributed tubifex worms effectively ingested in each aquarium was affected by temperature (F = 105.7, p < 0.0001) with higher feed intake (45-59%) observed in the highest temperatures (27.5-32.5°C) compared to low temperature treatments (22.5°C and 25.0°C) where ingestion was 26-30% 302 (Table 4). FCR and ingestion rate (IR) were not affected by the temperature (FCR: 303 $\chi^2 = 9.459$, p = 0.051 and IR: $\chi^2 = 6.767$, p = 0.149) but remained more variable in 304 the larvae reared at the lowest temperature (i.e. 22.5°C, FCR = 11.1 ± 5.6 and IR 305 = 0.26 ± 0.13 g g⁻¹ d⁻¹). Regarding protein use efficiency, PER was significantly 306 lower at 22.5°C (3.1 ± 1.4) compared to the higher temperature treatments (F=7.4, 307 p = 0.005, Table 4).

308

309 3.5. Chemical composition

310 The results presented in Table 5 showed that the moisture content in fish is stable 311 and does not differ between different temperatures. However, chemical 312 composition (% dry matter basis) of giant gourami juveniles was significantly 313 affected by the rearing temperature especially for the lowest temperature 314 treatment (i.e. 22.5°C). Indeed, crude lipid content was clearly significantly higher 315 at 22.5°C with values of $26.05 \pm 1.06\%$ (F = 198.0, p < 0.001; Table 5). 316 Nevertheless, significant, but less pronounced differences were also observed in 317 the other temperature treatments with minimal values of crude lipid content of 318 $15.88 \pm 0.22\%$ observed at 27.5°C. Meanwhile, NFE content was lowest at 22.5°C 319 $(6.88 \pm 0.85\%)$ and maximal values $(14.17 \pm 0.32\%$ and $13.86 \pm 0.28\%)$ were observed at 25.0°C and 27.5°C respectively (F = 96.1, p < 0.001). Crude protein 320 321 increased significantly up to 30.0°C and were lower for the treatment at 32.5°C (F 322 = 165.6, p < 0.001; Table 5). Ash content was significantly lower for the treatment 323 at 22.5°C and tended to be stable for the other temperature treatments although some significant differences were observed (F = 92.8, p < 0.001). For crude fibre 324

325 content, slight significant increase was observed between the five tested 326 temperatures (F = 4.5, p = 0.025; Table 5).

327

328 3.6. Glucose and cortisol blood concentrations

329 Glucose and cortisol blood concentrations were measured in giant gourami at the 330 beginning and at the end of each temperature treatments. Initial concentrations of glucose were not significantly different in all the treatments (F = 0.4, p = 0.817) 331 with values ranging from $31.0 \pm 14.0 \text{ mg dL}^{-1}$ to $39.0 \pm 3.6 \text{ mg dL}^{-1}$ (Fig. 2). At 332 the end of each treatment, no change was observed in glucose concentrations for 333 334 juveniles reared at 22.5°C. Nevertheless, a significant increase was observed for 335 juveniles reared in higher temperature conditions (i.e. from 25.0°C to 32.5°C) with values ranging from 96.0 \pm 12.2 mg dL⁻¹ to 133.7 \pm 52.5 mg dL⁻¹ (F = 5.6, p 336 = 0.013) up to 32.5°C where a decrease of glucose concentration was observed 337 338 (Fig. 2). Cortisol was not detected in larvae at the beginning of the experiment 339 (Fig. 3). After the larval rearing period, cortisol was detected in juveniles coming 340 from each temperature conditions. Significant higher cortisol concentrations (F =341 67.7, p < 0.001) were observed in the intermediate temperatures (25.0°C and 27.5°C). Indeed, cortisol concentrations reached 72.0 \pm 5.8 ng mL⁻¹ and 45.9 \pm 8.0 342 ng mL⁻¹ at 25.0°C and 27.5°C respectively, while for other treatments, cortisol 343 concentrations ranged from 12.3 ± 4.2 ng mL⁻¹ to 17.3 ± 3.4 ng mL⁻¹ (Fig. 3). 344

345

346 **4. Discussion**

347 4.1. Water quality

348 Aerobic metabolism predominates in fish, so dissolved oxygen (DO) can be a 349 limiting environmental factor in fish rearing (Fry, 1971), especially at high 350 temperature (Jobling, 1997). In the present study, DO was kept high with values never under 6 mg L^{-1} and saturation >85%. Such conditions prevent effects on fish 351 352 health, growth and feed intake (Kestemont and Baras, 2001). Depending on 353 temperature, oxygen and pH, non-lethal concentrations of NH_3 may cause toxic 354 effects on fish especially for young-life stages (El-Greisy et al., 2016) and affect 355 their feeding behaviour (Kestemont and Baras, 2001). Although some statistical differences have been highlighted between the five experimental treatments, NH₃ 356 always very lower $0.05 \text{ mg } \text{L}^{-1}$ following 357 the concentrations was 358 recommendations of Francis-Floyd et al. (2009). Based on these findings, we can reasonably assume that the results obtained in this study are solely related to 359 360 temperature and not to water quality degradation.

361

362 4.2. Effects of temperature on survival

363 The present study provides evidence for the effects of rearing temperature on 364 larvae production in the giant gourami (O. goramy). The range of temperatures 365 used in this study was based on prior measurements done in the larval rearing 366 structures of fish farms in the West Java province showing that temperatures may vary from 22.9-33.1°C although pikes up to 42.1°C were observed (data not 367 shown). Furthermore, preliminary experimental observations performed over 15 d 368 369 from hatching have shown that despite a relatively high survival rate (80%), the 370 proportion of deformed larvae was very high above 34°C (77.6% with 371 deformation of vertebral axis, particularly lordosis). Under 21°C, the proportion 372 of deformed or abnormal larvae reached 64.1% (anomaly of vitellus aspect, 373 haemorrhagic areas at vitellus surface, pericardial oedema). The targeted 374 temperatures were thus selected in order to avoid the occurrence of abnormality in 375 larvae. In this experiment, we demonstrated that temperatures ranging from 376 22.5°C to 32.5°C did not significantly affect the survival of giant gourami. 377 Observed survival rates of 62-76% are similar (Verawati et al., 2015) or lower 378 (Sarah et al., 2009; Arifin et al. in press) to other experimental studies on this 379 species. We found a higher heterogeneity in the survival rates of the larvae reared 380 at 22.5° C (61.6 ± 15.4%). Based on these findings, we reasonably assumed that 381 22.5°C seems to be close to the low tolerance limit of the young life-stages of 382 giant gourami.

383

384 4.3. Effects of temperature on growth

385 Successful larval rearing of fish species in aquaculture depends on several factors, 386 among them, the temperature and feed are the most significant ones (Kolman et 387 al., 2018). In the present study, the growth of giant gourami larvae stocked at 388 different temperatures was estimated from weekly measurements of body weight 389 (BW), total length (TL) and specific growth rate (SGR) until the larvae reached 390 the commercial size of 2.5-cm total length (called "Nguku"; Adida, 2014). For all 391 the experimental conditions, exponential growth were observed. At comparable 392 temperatures (29.0 \pm 0.6°C vs. 30.01 \pm 0.31°C) and at the same stocking density, 393 the growth performances were similar to another recent study (i.e. 288.8 ± 19.3 394 vs. 354.32 ± 70.19 mg after 21 d, Arifin et al. in press). We found that increasing 395 temperatures up to 32.5°C have positive effects on the growth of giant gourami

396 larvae. Previous studies have also highlighted the positive influence of increasing 397 temperatures, within their tolerance limits in the growth of several tropical fish 398 young life-stages, such as African catfish Clarias gariepinus (Britz and Hecht, 399 1987), blue tilapia Oreochromis aureus (Soderberg, 1990), Nile tilapia O. 400 niloticus (Azaza et al., 2008; El-Sayed and Kawanna, 2008; Pandit and Nakamura, 401 2010) and stripped catfish *Pangasianodon hypophthalmus* (Baras et al., 2011). In this study, giant gourami larvae reared at 32.5°C reached the size of "Nguku" 402 403 after only 17 days while between 30-98 days are needed in traditional fish farms 404 suggesting that better temperature control provides significant gains in larval 405 production of giant gourami.

406

407 4.4. Effects of temperature on food intake and chemical composition

408 Brett (1979) stated that the temperature influence on growth depends on food 409 consumption and metabolic scope. The energy amount from feeding is used to 410 cover metabolic cost for somatic growth. Following this pattern, larvae exposed to 411 the highest temperature treatment (32.5°C) is likely to have higher feed 412 consumption and metabolism compared with lower temperature treatments (22.5-30.0°C), which resulted on faster growth. Indeed, we found that increasing 413 414 temperatures led to an increase in the feed consumption with highest ingestions 415 observed in the fish reared at 32.5°C. Interestingly, no significant difference was 416 observed in the IR and FCR among the five temperatures tested. Nevertheless, 417 young life-stages of giant gourami reared at 22.5°C have more variable value on 418 FCR and significant lower PER compared to the other experimental treatments. 419 Such findings are in accordance with previous studies on the African catfish C.

gariepinus (Degani et al., 1989) and the hybrid Red Florida tilapia (Watanabe et
al., 1993). These findings point out that the less efficient feed utilization on giant
gourami larvae occurred at 22.5°C, which resulted in the slowest growth observed
at this temperature.

424 In addition, in the present study, we found that proximate composition of giant 425 gourami juveniles changed with temperature. Various effects of temperature on 426 proximate composition have been shown by previous studies carried out in several 427 fish species. Indeed, in some cases, no influence of temperature on proximate 428 composition was observed (e.g. Martinez-Palacios et al., 1996). Conversely, other 429 authors found temperature-dependent changes in proximate body composition 430 especially for protein content (e.g. Hidalgo et al., 1987; Van Ham et al., 2003). 431 The latter findings are in accordance with the statement of Jobling (1997) who 432 mentioned that changes in proximate composition at high temperatures could be 433 associated with increasing metabolism until it reaches the upper tolerance limits in 434 poikilotherm organisms such as fish. In the present study, we found a higher lipid 435 and a lower carbohydrate (i.e. NFE) contents in the fish exposed to the lowest 436 temperature treatment. We assume that such results can be related to the lowest 437 metabolism in fish reared at 22.5°C. Indeed, most freshwater fish species do not 438 attempt to maintain a body temperature which is different from their environment. 439 When water temperature declines, body temperature of the fish also declines and 440 metabolic rate is reduced and, as consequence, the energy requirements is reduced 441 too (FAO, 1980). Thus, excessive carbohydrates, a non-negligible energy source 442 for fish can be stored as form of lipids (Tacon, 1987).

443

444 4.5. Physiological responses to temperature

445 Changes in temperatures can be a source of stress for fish larvae, affecting larval 446 rearing performances, and imply different physiological responses (Blaxter, 1991). 447 In this study, glucose and whole-body cortisol levels, recognized as primary 448 indicators of stress in young-life stages fish (Rudneva, 2013), were measured at 449 the beginning of the experiment and when the giant gourami larvae from each 450 temperature treatments reached the commercial size of "Nguku". Interestingly, we 451 found similar effects of rearing temperatures on blood glucose and plasma cortisol 452 levels in giant gourami larvae. Indeed, both for glucose and cortisol, 453 concentrations measured were higher at intermediate temperatures (25°C and 454 27.5-30.0°C) and significantly lower at the extreme temperatures (22.5°C and 455 30.0-32.5°C). Several studies have shown contrasting results regarding the effects 456 of temperature on glucose and cortisol concentrations in other tropical fish species 457 such as blue tilapia O. aureus (Chen et al., 2002), common carp Cyprinus carpio 458 (Tanck et al., 2000), Mozambique tilapia O. mossambicus (Zaragoza et al., 2008), 459 zebrafish Danio rerio (Long et al., 2012), and Tapah Wallago leeri (Tang et al., 460 2017). Most previous studies, however, agree that cold/heat temperature exposure 461 that exceeds the tolerance limits modified blood glucose or plasma cortisol levels. 462 In giant gourami fingerlings, Hastuti et al. (2003) reported that cold shock to 26-463 27°C, 23-24°C, and 20-21°C led to changes in blood glucose level with highest values observed at 20-21°C (~80 mg dL⁻¹). In fish, Selye (1974) and Barton and 464 465 Iwama (1991) stated that the exposure of low or high temperatures beyond the 466 tolerance limits lead to negative impact on their physiology depending on each 467 species tolerance level. In the present study, we found that glucose concentrations

are the highest at the intermediate temperatures (25.0, 27.5 and 30.0°C) and decreased at the extreme rearing temperatures (22.5 and 32.5°C). Based on our main findings, we can reasonably assume that the extreme temperatures tested are closed to the tolerance limit of this species and affected the metabolism of the larvae. Thus, although, the most efficient temperature for larval growing (i.e. 32.5°C) does not cause serious impairment in larvae, a slightly lower rearing temperature (~30.0°C) should be maintained as a precaution.

The physiological responses measured in this study, in addition to the zootechnical performances observed, reinforce the interests of an optimization of the giant gourami larval rearing based on a better control of the temperature. Such improvements are currently required to support micro- and small-scale fish farmers who provide the bulk of gourami production in Indonesia.

480

481 **5. Conclusion**

482 We highlighted that temperature strongly affects the larval growth. Thus, we 483 observed that 10-dph larvae reared at 22.5°C needed 42 days of production before 484 reaching the commercial size of "Nguku" while only 17 days is needed at 32.5°C. 485 Based on all our findings, maintaining a stable temperature at 30°C seems to be 486 the best compromise to significantly improve the zootechnical and economic 487 performance of giant gourami larval rearing. Nevertheless, control of lower 488 temperatures is not always easy in traditional fish farming due to the limited 489 access to electricity and its cost. Thus, further investigations are needed to (1) 490 determine the performances of larvae reared at constant temperatures on the 491 nursery and grow-out outdoor phases and (2) assess effects of daily thermal492 fluctuations on the performances of giant gourami larvae.

493

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499

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681 **Captions to figures**

682

683	Figure 1. Growth in (A) body weight and (B) total length of giant gourami (O.
684	goramy) larvae (n=60) reared at five temperatures from 8 dph. The horizontal
685	dotted line represents the commercial size (i.e. called "Nguku", 2.5 cm of total
686	length). Values are Means \pm SD. Letters denote significant differences (p < 0.05)
687	between treatments.
688	
689	Figure 2. Concentration of glucose in the blood of giant gourami (O. goramy)
690	larvae (n=3 pools of 20 larvae) reared at five temperatures from 10 dph (T_0) up to
691	their reached 2.5-cm total length (T_{end}). Values are Means \pm SD. For Letters

692 denote significant differences (p < 0.05) between treatments.

693

Figure 3. Concentration of cortisol in the blood of giant gourami (*O. goramy*) larvae (n=20) reared at five temperatures from 10 dph (T_0) up to their reached 2.5cm total length (T_{end}). Values are Means ± SD. Letters denote significant differences (p < 0.05) between treatments.



698 Figure 1





Table 1. Summary of water quality parameters measured for the five temperature

702 conditions during the experiment. Values are Means \pm SD. For each parameter,

Parameters	Experimental treatment						
	22.5°C	25.0 °C	27.5°C	30.0°C	32.5°C		
Temperature (°C)	22.57 ± 0.43^{a}	25.24 ± 0.53^{b}	$28.17\pm0.68^{\rm c}$	30.01 ± 0.31^{d}	32.45 ± 0.74^e		
$\frac{\text{DO}}{(\text{mg }\text{L}^{-1})}$	7.40 ± 0.37^a	7.05 ± 0.39^{ab}	6.67 ± 0.25^{b}	6.55 ± 0.15^{b}	$6.21\pm0.18^{\rm c}$		
O ₂ saturation (%)	85.6 ± 4.3^{a}	85.7 ± 4.7^{a}	85.5 ± 3.2^{a}	86.7 ± 2.0^{a}	85.7 ± 2.5^{a}		
рН	6.58 ± 0.19^{a}	6.77 ± 0.21^{b}	7.04 ± 0.05^{b}	$6.98 \pm 0.28^{\text{b}}$	7.05 ± 0.04^{b}		
Conductivity (µS cm ⁻¹)	208.8 ± 13.3^{a}	263.9 ± 15.2^{b}	215.0 ± 6.1^{a}	$327.0 \pm 16.2^{\circ}$	$347.0 \pm 7.2^{\circ}$		
Alkalinity (mg L ⁻¹)	130.4 ± 45.2^{a}	124.1 ± 23.4^{a}	135.4 ± 19.1^a	124.6 ± 26.0^a	142.2 ± 15.2^{a}		
$\frac{\text{TAN}}{(\text{mg } \text{L}^{-1})}$	0.12 ± 0.08^a	0.12 ± 0.06^a	0.09 ± 0.05^a	0.07 ± 0.02^{a}	0.12 ± 0.03^{a}		
$\frac{\rm NH_3}{\rm (mg \ L^{-1})}$	0.0003 ± 0.0003^a	0.0011 ± 0.0019^{ab}	0.0002 ± 0.0001^{ac}	0.0007 ± 0.0003^{abc}	0.0015 ± 0.0004^{bd}		
$\frac{NO_2}{(mg L^{-1})}$	0.08 ± 0.138^{a}	0.02 ± 0.02^a	0.01 ± 0.003^{a}	0.02 ± 0.004^a	$0.02 \pm 0.0.017^{a}$		
NO_3^- (mg L ⁻¹)	4.25 ± 3.15^a	5.48 ± 2.85^a	4.15 ± 0.75^a	12.30 ± 2.46^{a}	7.54 ± 2.01^{a}		

703 letters denote significant differences (p < 0.05) between treatments.

704 DO: dissolved oxygen; TAN: total ammoniacal nitrogen

705	Table 2. Growth and survival of giant gourami larvae reared at five temperature
706	conditions (22.5, 25.0, 27.5; 30.0, 32.5°C) in a closed recirculating system for 21
707	to 42 days (i.e. until they reached, at least, the commercial size of 2.5 cm of total
708	length). See Section 2.5 for details of the parameters. Values are means \pm SD. For
709	each parameter, letters denote significant differences (p < 0.05) between
710	treatments.

Parameters	Experimental treatment				
T utunicicity	22.5°C	25.0°C	27.5°C	30.0°C	32.5°C
Rearing duration (d)	42	28	21	21	21
BW _i (mg)	12.3 ± 1.5^{a}	$12.1\pm1.5^{\rm a}$	12.4 ± 1.4^{a}	11.8 ± 1.1^{a}	12.2 ± 1.4^{a}
BW _{21d} (mg)	57.2 ± 9.3^{a}	143.7 ± 23.6^{b}	332.0 ± 56.0^{c}	354.3 ± 70.2^{c}	431.9 ± 64.2^{d}
BW_{f} (mg)	270.2 ± 95.4^a	385.8 ± 50.3^{b}	332.0 ± 56.0^{c}	354.3 ± 70.2^{bc}	431.9 ± 64.2^{d}
$\mathrm{CV}_{\mathrm{BW}}(\%)$	24.2 ± 10.4^{a}	12.1 ± 1.9^{a}	16.1 ± 2.1^{a}	19.9 ± 3.7^{a}	14.7 ± 3.3^{a}
$\mathrm{CV}_{\mathrm{TL}}$ (%)	$8.0\pm3.4^{\mathrm{a}}$	3.8 ± 0.7^{a}	4.8 ± 1.0^{a}	$6.37\pm1.2^{\rm a}$	4.5 ± 0.8^{a}
K (mg mm ^{-3} x 100)	1.7 ± 0.1^{a}	1.6 ± 0.1^{b}	1.6 ± 0.1^{bc}	1.6 ± 0.1^{c}	1.5 ± 0.1^{c}
SGR_{BW} (% d ⁻¹)	7.3 ± 0.6^{a}	12.4 ± 0.3^{b}	$15.7\pm0.3^{\rm c}$	16.2 ± 0.2^{cd}	17.0 ± 0.2^{d}
SGR_{TL} (% d ⁻¹)	2.2 ± 0.2^{a}	3.9 ± 0.1^{b}	4.9 ± 0.2^{c}	5.0 ± 0.1^{cd}	5.4 ± 0.1^{d}
SR (%)	61.6 ± 15.4^{a}	$68.5\pm5.3^{\rm a}$	66.7 ± 6.4^{a}	$75.0\pm4.8^{\rm a}$	$75.5\pm5.6^{\rm a}$
TL _i (mm)	9.8 ± 0.4^{a}	9.7 ± 0.3^{ab}	9.8 ± 0.4^{a}	9.9 ± 0.19^{ac}	9.8 ± 0.3^{a}
TL _{21d} (mm)	$15.4 \pm 1.0^{\mathrm{a}}$	$21.2\pm1.6^{\rm b}$	$27.5\pm1.4^{\rm c}$	$28.2\pm1.8^{\rm c}$	$30.3\pm1.4^{\text{d}}$
TL _f (mm)	24.7 ± 2.6^a	$28.8\pm1.2^{\rm b}$	$27.5\pm1.4^{\rm c}$	28.2 ± 1.8^{bc}	$30.3 \pm 1.4^{\rm d}$
711 BW	: body weight,	BW _i : initial body	y weight, BW _f :	final body weigh	t, CV:
coefficient of variation, TL: total length, SGR: specific growth rate, SR: survival					

713 rate, TL_i : initial total length, TL_f : final total length.

714	Table 3. Parameters (Mean \pm SE, n = 20 at each time) of the exponential growth
715	in body weight (BW, mg) and total length (TL, mm) of giant gourami (O.
716	goramy) larvae reared at five different temperatures. Model parameters: a: growth
717	rate (d^{-1}) . R ² : determination coefficient.

Treatments	$a \pm SE$	R^2
Body weight (BW)		
22.5°C	$0.074 \pm 0.001^{***}$	0.90
25.0°C	$0.123 \pm 0.001^{***}$	0.98
27.5°C	$0.157 \pm 0.001^{***}$	0.97
30.0°C	$0.162 \pm 0.001^{***}$	0.96
32.5°C	$0.170 \pm 0.001^{\ast\ast\ast}$	0.98
Total length (TL)		
22.5°C	$0.022 \pm 0.001^{***}$	0.96
25.0°C	$0.038 \pm 0.001^{***}$	0.98
27.5°C	$0.050 \pm 0.001^{***}$	0.99
30.0°C	$0.050 \pm 0.001^{***}$	0.99
32.5°C	$0.054 \pm 0.001^{***}$	0.97

718 *** Probability of the model adjustment: p < 0.001

Table 4. Feed utilization of gourami reared larvae rearing in closed recirculating system at five temperature conditions. Values are means \pm SD. For each parameter, letters denote significant differences (p < 0.05) between treatments.

Deromotors	Experimental treatment					
Farameters	22.5°C	25.0°C	27.5°C	30.0°C	32.5°C	
FI _{total} (%)	25.7 ± 2.1^a	30.4 ± 1.5^{a}	45.3 ± 2.2^{b}	51.0 ± 3.6^{b}	58.6 ± 1.6^{c}	
$IR (g g^{-1} d^{-1})$	0.26 ± 0.13^a	0.17 ± 0.02^{a}	0.26 ± 0.02^{a}	0.24 ± 0.01^a	0.25 ± 0.01^{a}	
FCR	$11.1\pm5.6^{\rm a}$	4.7 ± 0.6^{a}	5.4 ± 0.4^{a}	5.1 ± 0.2^{a}	5.2 ± 0.2^{a}	
PER	3.1 ± 1.4^{a}	6.3 ± 0.8^{b}	5.4 ± 0.4^{b}	5.7 ± 0.2^{b}	5.6 ± 0.3^{b}	

722 FI: food intake, IR: ingestion rate, FCR: feed conversion ratio, PER: protein

723 efficiency ratio.

Table 5. Moisture (%), dry matter (%) and proximate composition (% dry matter basis) of giant gourami juveniles reared in closed recirculating system at five temperature conditions. Values are means \pm SD. For each parameter, letters denote significant differences (p < 0.05) between treatments.

Composition	Experimental treatment				
Composition	22.5°C	25.0°C	27.5°C	30.0°C	32.5°C
Moisture	77.80 ± 1.17^{a}	78.38 ± 0.10^a	79.02 ± 0.11^{a}	78.79 ± 0.29^a	78.31 ± 0.39^a
Dry matter	22.20 ± 1.17^a	21.62 ± 0.10^a	20.98 ± 0.11^{a}	21.21 ± 0.29^a	21.69 ± 0.39^a
Crude protein	57.90 ± 0.08^a	58.19 ± 0.10^{b}	59.23 ± 0.11^{c}	59.86 ± 0.09^d	58.90 ± 0.12^{e}
Crude lipid	26.05 ± 1.06^a	17.13 ± 0.23^{b}	15.88 ± 0.22^{c}	17.50 ± 0.35^{b}	18.91 ± 0.24^{d}
Ash	8.75 ± 0.19^{a}	10.09 ± 0.06^{b}	10.58 ± 0.11^{c}	10.26 ± 0.09^{bc}	10.27 ± 0.15^{bd}
Crude fibre	0.41 ± 0.02^{a}	0.42 ± 0.02^a	0.45 ± 0.02^{ab}	0.46 ± 0.03^{ab}	0.48 ± 0.01^{b}
NFE	$6.88\pm0.85^{\rm a}$	14.17 ± 0.32^{b}	13.86 ± 0.28^{b}	$11.93\pm0.38^{\rm c}$	$11.45\pm0.14^{\rm c}$
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728 NFE: Nitrogen Free Extract.