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1	Effects of stocking density	on survival, food intake and growth of giant gourami
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18 Abstract

The influence of stocking density on survival, food intake, and larval growth was assessed in 19 giant gourami (Osphronemus goramy) larvae reared in an indoor recirculating aquaculture 20 system. Larvae aged eight days post-hatching were arbitrarily divided into six stocking density 21 treatments (A: 0.6, B: 1.2, C: 2.4, D: 4.8, E: 9.6, F: 19.2 individuals L⁻¹; four replicates per 22 treatment) and reared for three weeks. Tubifex worms, used as food, were kept continuously 23 available for larvae. Samples of larvae were collected at days 0, 7, 14 and 21. Performance 24 indicators - including survival rate (%), food intake (% and g ind⁻¹), total length (cm), body 25 weight (g), specific growth rate (g day⁻¹), biomass gain (g L^{-1}), feed conversion ratio (FCR), 26 condition factor (K) and coefficients of variation (%) - were measured. Water quality was 27 checked throughout the experiment and parameters were maintained below critical thresholds 28 for fish. The results showed no effect of stocking density on survival (> 98%) or size 29 30 heterogeneity, although growth significantly decreased with increasing stocking density. At the end of the 21-day experiment, mean individual body weights were 563.2 ± 64.3 , 461.0 ± 28.6 , 31 32 288.8 ± 19.3 , 170.2 ± 13.8 , 113.6 ± 6.9 and 81.9 ± 2.3 mg, for groups A, B, C, D, E and F, respectively. Decreased growth may be due to reduction in food intake in larvae stocked at the 33 highest densities. The consequences of intensification of larval rearing should be further 34 investigated in the nursery and grow-out phases. 35

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37 <u>Keywords:</u> Early life stages, Growth metrics, Rearing practices, Start-feeding, Tropical fish

38 **1. Introduction**

The giant gourami (Osphronemus goramy; Lacepède, 1801) is one of the main freshwater fish 39 of economic importance in Indonesia. Pond aquaculture of giant gourami in Indonesia is a very 40 41 old practice (Cuvier and Valenciennes, 1831; Pouil et al., 2019). Its annual production was over 119,000 t in 2014 and, had grown exponentially over the previous 15 years. Yet, for the first 42 time in 2015, Indonesian production of this species, which is pursued by approximately 100,000 43 fish farmers mainly located on Java Island (79%; Badan Pusat Statistik, 2013), dropped slightly 44 to 113,400 t (FAO, 2017). Nevertheless, knowledge on several aspects of giant gourami biology 45 remains largely incomplete, particularly for the young life-stages. 46

The reliability of giant gourami aquaculture depends on fry availability, which is a limiting 47 factor for fish farmers. Thus, as for many species, increasing survival during the larval phase 48 should be one of the research priorities (Slater et al., 2018). Nevertheless, studies on rearing 49 giant gourami larvae are scarce in the international literature (Ebrahimi et al., 2010; 50 Amornsakun et al., 2014a, 2014b). Currently, larvae are typically produced under non-optimal 51 52 conditions (i.e., outdoor ponds, stagnant water, etc.). For this reason, the quantity and the quality of giant gourami juveniles produced are generally low and highly variable (Etoh et al., 2011; 53 Arifin et al., 2013; Nafiqoh and Nugroho, 2013; Budi and Supriyadi, 2015). Improvement of 54 giant gourami juvenile production requires identifying and addressing the factors behind the 55 variability observed in larvae production. 56

The success of larval production depends on environmental conditions, feeding strategies and rearing practices (Cowan et al., 2000; Kestemont et al., 2003). Among these factors, larval stocking density is known to affect larval performance. Effects of stocking density have been studied in young stages of several freshwater aquaculture species (e.g., El-Sayed, 2002; Sahoo et al., 2004; Keer et al., 2018). Nonetheless, the effects of stocking density on survival and growth may be variable or even contradictory (Niazie et al., 2013), depending on the species,

rearing conditions and age of the fish (Saoud et al., 2008). For example, some studies have
demonstrated that survival rate and growth are negatively affected by an increase in stocking
density (El-Sayed, 2002; Keer et al., 2018; Sahoo et al., 2004) while other studies (Kaiser et al.,
1995; Niazie et al., 2013) did not find any effects of stocking density on survival or growth rate.
These results highlight the importance of better characterising the effects of stocking density
on survival and growth of giant gourami larvae.

In this context, the objective of this study was to assess zootechnical performance through the assessment of survival, food intake, and growth of the larvae of giant gourami reared in a closed recirculating aquaculture system (RAS) at six stocking densities. The range of larval densities (from 0.6 to 19.2 larvae L⁻¹ i.e., 150 to 4600 larvae m⁻²) was selected in accordance with the recommendations of the "BPPSIGN" Centre (West Java Centre for the Development of Giant Gourami Culture) for the lower densities (0.6 to 1.2 larvae L⁻¹, i.e. 150-300 larvae m⁻²) and extended according to a gradient of increasing production intensification.

76

77 2. Materials and methods

78 2.1. Origin of larvae

Giant gourami broodfish (3-4 years old), belonging to the local "Galunggung" strain (Arifin et 79 al., 2017), were reared in a 200-m² outdoor pond at the Research and Development Installation 80 of Germplasm for Freshwater Aquaculture (RIFAFE, Cijeruk, West Java, Indonesia). The 81 broodfish were fed leaves of giant taro (Alocasia macrorrhiza) and commercial floating fish 82 feed pellets (32% proteins, 5% lipids) distributed at a daily feeding rate of 1-2% of fish biomass, 83 respectively. The broodfish pond was divided by net into 10 compartments of 16 m². Each 84 compartment contained one male and three females. Bamboo nest supports and palm tree fibres 85 were provided so that broodfish could build nests. The natural spawning event occurs once the 86 male has chosen one ready female. After spawning, the male closes the nest and protects the 87

eggs. Nests were monitored every two days, and eggs were removed one night after the
spawning event. Thus, the larvae used in this experiment came from a single broodfish pair,
allowing us to obtain a homogeneous response to the different stocking density conditions.

The buoyant giant gourami eggs were incubated in an experimental room in a 20-L plastic basin for \pm 20 hours at a temperature of 29.0 \pm 0.6°C (equivalent ~24 degrees-day). After hatching, larvae (BW: 5.6 \pm 0.3 mg and TL: 4.9 \pm 0.1 mm, n=30) were kept unfed in the incubation basin (following the typical fish farming practice), until the beginning of the experiment (i.e., 8 days post-hatching, dph).

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97 **2.2. Live prey maintenance**

In this study, tubifex worms (Tubifex tubifex) were used as food according to local and 98 traditional practices for giant gourami larval production described by the Standard National 99 100 Indonesian (SNI, 2000). The benefits of tubifex worms for growth and survival rate of giant gourami were demonstrated by Lucas et al. (2015). Here, tubifex worms were used as the 101 102 primary food for the larvae and throughout the fish nursery period between 8 and 30 days of 103 age (i.e., first-feeding started before the yolk-sac depletion, Morioka et al., 2013). New batches of live tubifex worms were purchased weekly and stored in the experimental room (100-L 104 aquarium; daily water change, temperature: 29.0 ± 0.6 °C; light/dark cycle: 12:12 h) and kept 105 106 unfed. To assess their nutritional quality, proximate analyses of tubifex worms were conducted after 3, 10 and 17 days of the experiment according to the procedures described in Cunniff 107 (1999). Moisture was determined by weight loss upon drying at 105°C for 3 h. Crude protein 108 109 was determined using the standard Kjeldahl procedure (Foss Tecator Kjeltec 8400 and Kjeltec Bucchi); lipid content after acid hydrolysis using the Weibull-Stoldt method (Slembrouck et 110 al., 2018); crude ash by determining residue after heating at 550°C for 4-5 h in a muffle furnace, 111 and crude fibre was determined as follows: macrophytes were extracted with 1.25% H₂SO₄ and 112

113	1.25% NaOH, then dried and samples were weighed, incinerated and reweighed. Results are		
114	summarised in Table 1.		
115			
116	[Table 1 is here]		
117			
118	2.3. Stocking density experiment		
119	2.3.1. Experimental design		
120	The experiment was conducted indoor under natural light (daylight intensity 60-4500 lux, night		
121	light intensity < 11 lux). Larvae were individually counted (n=4536) and measured (n=30, mean		
122	body weight: 14.4 ± 0.8 mg; mean total length: 10.1 ± 0.4 mm) and then arbitrarily assigned to		
123	24 glass aquaria covered by transparent plastic sheets (30-L capacity; 40 x 30 x 30 cm, L x W		
124	x H) in a RAS. The 21-day experiment was started at 8 dph, a few days after mouth opening		
125	(Morioka et al., 2013) and when the ability of larvae to feed on tubifex worms was confirmed.		
126	To determine potential effects of stocking density on the zootechnical performance of O .		
127	goramy larvae, survival, food intake and growth, were evaluated at six different stocking		
128	densities as summarised in Table 2. The experiment was conducted as a completely randomized		
129	design with four replicates.		
130			
131	[Table 2 is here]		
132			
133	2.3.2. Feeding protocol and water quality monitoring		
134	Larvae were fed every day except on the sampling days. The same quantity of live tubifex		
135	worms, carefully drained, was spread in the bottom of each aquarium twice a day at 8:00 and		
136	16:00. Daily food quantities were in large excess for all treatments (Fig. 1) to promote non-		
137	limiting food conditions for larvae and to facilitate accurate estimation of ingestion. Through		

the entire experiment, the total amount of tubifex worms distributed in each aquarium was 465
g. Since tubifex worms are benthic and live on the bottom of the aquaria, they were continuously
available for larvae without any degradation of water quality (see Table 3).

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- 143

[Fig. 1 is here]

Prior to each larval feeding, tubifex worms were collected, rinsed and drained on a 50-µm mesh 144 and weighed (to the nearest 0.1 g). To determine food intake, unconsumed tubifex worms were 145 collected from each aquarium and weighed before the addition of the new ration of worms. The 146 quantity distributed was kept constant in each aquarium. In the RAS, the filtration system 147 consisted of filtration foams as the mechanical filtration medium and BioBall® carriers as 148 bacterial support. Water flow into the rearing tanks was maintained at 33 L h⁻¹ for the first four 149 days of the experiment and then at 78 L h⁻¹. Water was added every day to compensate for 150 evaporation and losses when aquaria were cleaned (approx. 5-7% of volume). Water quality 151 152 was monitored in each aquarium once a week with direct measurements using a multi-parameter probe (Hanna HI 9829) for dissolved oxygen (DO), pH, total dissolved solids (TDS) and 153 turbidity, and then by spectrophotometry analysis (Hanna HI 83399) for N-NH4⁺, N-NO₂⁻ and 154 N-NO₃⁻. Temperature was monitored twice a day (at 08:00 and 16:00). Since no statistical 155 differences were observed between the six experimental treatments for any of the parameters, 156 data were pooled and are presented in Table 3. All the values indicate that water quality did not 157 deteriorate and corresponded to appropriate rearing conditions for tropical freshwater fishes 158 (Svobododá et al., 1993; Aryani et al., 2017). 159

160

161

[Table 3 is here]

163 2.3.3. Observations and measurements of larvae

Larvae from the experimental treatments (n=40-240 depending on the tested stocking density) 164 were sampled at 15 dph (day 7), 22 dph (day 14) and 29 dph (day 21) during the experiment. 165 The sample size and sampling frequency were selected in order to sample at least 10% of the 166 total number of larvae at each stocking density while taking into account time needed and 167 technical constraints of sampling procedure as well as stress for the larvae caused by handling. 168 Sampled larvae were anaesthetised and their total body length (TL, mm) was measured under 169 a stereomicroscope with a micrometre (accuracy ranging from 0.05 to 0.1 mm, depending on 170 fish size and magnification). Body weight (BW, mg) was measured using a digital scale with 171 172 an accuracy of 0.1 mg. After individual measurements, fish were returned to their respective aquarium. No mortality was observed following samplings. At 29 dph, all the aquaria were 173 174 emptied and living larvae were counted to calculate survival rates.

175

176 **2.4. Performance metrics**

The effects of stocking density on zootechnical performance were determined by calculating the following parameters for each experimental treatment. Survival rates (*SR*), expressed as a percentage, were calculated by comparing the final number (N_f) with the initial number of larvae (N_i): *SR* (%) = [(N_f/N_i) x 100].

181 The specific growth in body weight (SGR_{BW}, %) was calculated according to the following

equation: $SGR_{BW} = [(\ln BW_f - \ln BW_i) / 21) \ge 100]$, where BW_i and BW_f are the initial and final

body weights of fish, and 21 is the duration of the experiment in days.

184 The specific growth in total length (*SGR_{TL}*, %) was calculated using the same approach, as 185 $SGR_{TL} = [(\ln LT_f - \ln LT_i) / 21] \times 100.$

186 Heterogeneity of fish size (in body weight or total length) was assessed using the coefficient of

187 variation (CV, %) calculated as: $CV_{BW} = SD_{BW} / BW$ and $CV_{TL} = SD / TL$, where SD is the standard

- deviation for weight and BW is the average body weight (mg) and TL the average body length(mm).
- 190 Fish biomass gain per liter (*BG*, g L⁻¹) was calculated following the equation: $BG = [(N_f B W_f M_f M_f$
- 191 $N_i BW_i / 30] / 1000$, where N_i and N_f are the initial number and the final number of larvae, BW_i
- and BW_f are the initial average body weight (mg) and the final average body weight respectively,
- and 30 is the volume of the aquarium in litres.
- 194 Total food ingestion per treatment (FI_{total} , %) was calculated as follows: $FI_{total} = [(Food 195 distributed Food remaining) / Food distributed] x 100, where food distributed and food 196 remaining are expressed in g.$
- 197 Individual food intake (FI_{fish} , g ind⁻¹) was calculated according to the following equation: FI_{fish} 198 = (Food distributed - Food remaining) / N_f where N_f is the final number of fish.
- 199 Feed conversion ratio (*FCR*) was calculated using the following equation: $FCR = F / (N_f BW_f)$ -

200 $N_i BW_i$, where *F* is the total quantity of food intake in wet weight during the whole rearing 201 period. F was determined as the total amount of uneaten food subtracted from the total amount

202 of food provided.

The Fulton's condition factor (*K*) was calculated according to the relationship $K = BW_f / TL_f^3$ (Froese, 2006). The equation was multiplied by 100 to bring the value close to one. Fulton's condition factor predicts that the weight of a fish is proportional to its length cubed, allowing a direct comparison of nutritional conditions between individuals from the same species (Jin et al., 2015; Allen et al., 2018).

208

209 **2.5. Statistical analysis**

To account account the heterogeneity of the variances between the six experimental treatments due to the deliberately unbalanced sampling plan (see Section 2.3.3), Welch ANOVA (McDonald, 2009) was used to determine significant differences among treatments for growth (body weight and total length) and Fulton's condition factor. When significant differences were
detected, the Games-Howell test (McDonald, 2009) with Bonferroni correction was performed
to compare means.

For the other metrics used (see Section 2.4), data were first tested for normality (Shapiro's test) and homogeneity of variance (Levene's test) and, where necessary, data were arcsine or log transformed prior to analysis. One-way ANOVA was used to assess significance of differences among treatments. When significant differences were detected, Tukey's test was performed to compare means. The level of significance for statistical analyses was always set to $\alpha = 0.05$. All statistics were performed using R freeware version 3.3 (R Development Core Team, 2016).

222

223 **3. Results**

3.1. Survival rate

The survival rates (*SR*) measured at the end of the experiment were very high (98.6-100 %, Table 4) without any significant differences between the six stocking densities tested (F = 1.31, p = 0.304). Regardless of the experimental stocking density, larvae exhibited no aggressive behaviour throughout the experiment and no cannibalism was observed.

- 230 [Table 4 is here]
- 231

232 **3.2.** Growth and size heterogeneity

233	The growth of larvae reared at six different densities is indicated in Table 4. At the end of the
234	experiment, the average total length (TL_f) and body weight (BW_f) of larvae ranged from 17.5 ±
235	1.0 mm and 81.9 ± 12.3 mg in treatment F and 31.7 ± 1.6 mm and 563.2 ± 90.3 mg in treatment
236	A (Fig. 2). Growth was significantly less with increased stocking density ($F = 833.7, p \le 0.0001$
237	and $F = 1382$, $p < 0.0001$ for BW_f and TL_f respectively), with the lowest growth observed for

the larvae reared at the highest density (Fig. 2). This trend was quantified by the specific growth 238 rate calculated for both body weight (SGR_{BW}) and total length (SGR_{TL}). Significant decreases in 239 SGR_{BW} (F = 425.3, p < 0.0001) and SRG_{TL} (F = 267.6, p < 0.0001) were observed when stocking 240 densities increased, with values varying from 17.5 ± 0.5 % for SGR_{BW} and 5.5 ± 0.2 % for SRG_{TL} 241 in treatment A (0.6 larvae L⁻¹) to 8.3 \pm 0.1 % for SGR_{BW} and 2.6 \pm 0.0 % SRG_{TL} in treatment F 242 (19.2 larvae L⁻¹). In this experiment, the commercial fry size ("Nguku", i.e., fish >2 cm in total 243 length) was reached after 14 days of rearing (22 dph) for larvae reared at the lowest stocking 244 245 densities (A: 24.0 ± 1.3 mm, B: 22.8 ± 1.24 mm and C: 21.5 ± 1.0 mm), whereas larvae from treatments D and E reached fry commercial size only seven days later (*TL_D*: 22.5 \pm 1.6 mm and 246 TL_E : 20.2 ± 1.1 mm). At the highest stocking density, the larvae had not reached the commercial 247 size (*TL_F*: 17.5 \pm 1.0 mm) even after 21 days of culture (Fig. 2). Although growth was reduced 248 at high stocking densities, the biomass gain (BG), ranging from 0.33 ± 0.04 to 1.28 ± 0.04 g L⁻ 249 250 ¹, increased significantly (F = 155.3, p < 0.0001) with increasing stocking density (Table 4). Size heterogeneity as a function of stocking density was assessed at the end of the experiment 251 252 (i.e., 29 dph) by the coefficients of variation for body weight (CV_{BW}) and total length (CV_{TL}). 253 CV_{BW} ranged from 10.5 ± 3.0 to 19.9 ± 6.5% and CV_{TL} ranged from 3.9 ± 1.6 to 6.0 ± 2.0%. For CV_{BW} and CV_{TL} , no significant differences were found between any of the groups (F = 1.974, p 254 = 0.132 and F = 1.302, p = 0.307) for CV_{BW} and CV_{TL} respectively (Table 4). 255 256 The Fulton's condition factors (K) estimated at the end of the experiment ranged from 1.38 to 1.77. Statistical analysis revealed significant decrease in K with increased stocking density (F 257 = 131.18, p < 0.0001). Nevertheless, no statistical difference was found between treatments C, 258

260

259

[Fig. 2 is here]

261

262 **3.3. Food intake**

D and F (Table 4).

The proportion of the total distributed tubifex worms (FI_{total} , %) effectively ingested in each 263 aquarium was not affected by the stocking density (F = 0.627, p = 0.681) and remained similar 264 in the six treatments (61-67%, Table 5). Furthermore, the minimum quantities of tubifex worms 265 remaining at the end of each feeding period were never less than 6%. On the other hand, the 266 total individual food intake (FI_{fish} , g ind⁻¹) during the 21 day the experiment was greatly affected 267 by the stocking density (F=1857, p < 0.0001; Table 5 and Fig. 1). For the entire experiment, the 268 highest individual food intake was 17.2 ± 0.82 g ind⁻¹ for treatment A and only 0.60 ± 0.02 g 269 ind⁻¹ for treatment F. Similarly, the feed conversion ratio (FCR) was the highest at the lowest 270 stocking density (i.e. treatment A, 31.6 \pm 4.3) and decreased significantly (F = 79.29, p < 271 0.0001), with lowest values (8.3 ± 0.3) for the highest density treatment (F). The relationship 272 between FCR and stocking densities was fitted using a single-component exponential model 273 $(R^2=0.94, p < 0.0001)$: y = 24.14 x^{-0.403} (Fig. 3). 274

275

- 277 [Table 5 is here]
- 278

279 **4. Discussion**

280 4.1. Effects of stocking density on survival rate and growth

There are few studies testing the influence of stocking density on survival and growth of giant gourami larvae. Moreover, the density ranges tested were often narrow (e.g. 0.3 to 0.7 fish L⁻¹, Ebrahimi et al., 2010; and 2.5 to 10 fish L⁻¹, Sarah et al., 2009). The present study provides quantification of the effects of stocking density on larvae considering a wider range of density (0.6 to 19.2 fish L⁻¹). The lowest stocking density treatments (i.e., 150-300 larvae m⁻² or 0.6-1.2 fish L⁻¹) were based on the current recommendations from the "BPPSIGN" Centre. Increasing intensification was applied until reaching densities 6-fold higher than what isobserved among the fish farmers.

First, we compare our results to larval production reported in an on-farm survey of 39 small-289 scale farms and two training centers that produced "Nguku" in West Java province (mainly 290 located in Bogor and Tasikmalaya districts) carried out in November 2016. Overall, the growth 291 of the larvae reared in our recirculating aquaculture system (RAS) was higher than those 292 reported from small-scale farms, where 22 to 90 days were needed to reach the 2-cm 293 commercial size at stocking densities ranging from 111 to 714 larvae m⁻² in small, stagnant 294 outdoor ponds based on the farmer's responses (n = 20, unpublished data). In addition, we 295 observed very high survival rates for all the stocking densities (>98%) much higher than those 296 reported by Javanese fish farmers (0-98% and 50% on average, n = 23 farmers) or in previous 297 experiments (e.g., Verawati et al., 2015). Regardless of the experimental stocking density, 298 299 larvae exhibited no aggressive behaviour throughout the experiment and no cannibalism was observed. 300

Overall, we observed high growth rates for giant gourami. Indeed, although we found similar results for higher stocking densities, Sarah et al. (2009) observed about 50% lower growth when larvae were maintained at 5 fish L^{-1} compared to our findings. Altogether, our results suggest that (1) larvae were reared under appropriate environmental conditions, and (2) RAS is a suitable method for improving juvenile production in giant gourami aquaculture.

We found that increasing stocking density had negative effects on the growth of giant gourami larvae. These results are in accordance with those of Sarah et al. (2009). Conversely, Ebrahimi et al. (2010) reported that very low stocking densities (< 0.7 fish L⁻¹) had no effect on the growth of young-stage giant gourami. These findings suggest that the lowest density tested in our study (0.6 fish L⁻¹) was the minimum value to detect effects of stocking density.

Several interpretations have been offered to explain the effects of stocking density on growth 311 and survival in fish. In Reba carp Cirrhinus reba fry, lower survival rates observed at high 312 stocking densities were attributed to stronger competition for food and space as well as 313 increased stress (Keer et al., 2018). On the other hand, stocking density showed no negative 314 effect on survival and growth in marbled spinefoot Siganus rivulatus juveniles, a result credited 315 to the maintenance of water quality within the tolerance range for this species (Saoud et al., 316 2008). European perch Perca fluviatilis and European seabass Dicentrarchus labrax showed 317 contrasting results for growth and survival depending on the life-stage considered (larvae and 318 post-larvae) with regard to the occurrence of cannibalism (Kestemont et al., 2003). In the 319 320 present study, water quality remained constant throughout the experiment and was not affected by stocking density. Survival was very high and did not vary significantly between stocking 321 densities tested. Not surprisingly for a non-aggressive fish such as the giant gourami, no 322 323 cannibalism was observed, likely contributing to the homogeneity of larval size at each stocking density (i.e. $CV_{TL} = 4-6\%$; $CV_{BW} = 13-20\%$). These results accord with those of a previous study 324 325 on European perch P. fluviatilis (Król and Zieliński, 2015) larvae. However, the effects of 326 stocking density on survival and growth are species-dependent (Huang and Chiu, 1997; Szkudlarek and Zakęś, 2007), and results can vary for a given species (e.g., Baras et al., 2003; 327 Król and Zieliński, 2015). At the end of the experiment, the Fulton's condition factors (K) 328 decreased significantly for the four highest densities tested, suggesting that the larvae stocked 329 in these experimental treatments were under poorer nutritional conditions. All together, these 330 results indicate that, in the giant gourami, the decrease in larval growth due to stocking density 331 332 is very likely related to lower food intake.

333

4.2. Effects of density on food intake and FCR

The effects of stocking density on food intake were assessed using tubifex worms as living 335 prey. This live food source is commonly used to feed various fish species (Ravichandra Reddy 336 et al., 1977; Le Thanh et al., 1999; Malla and Banik, 2015). Due to their high levels of protein 337 and lipids (Bardach et al., 1972; Table 1) and their aquatic lifestyle, tubifex worms ensure an 338 adequate nutritional intake for fish larvae without causing significant effects on water quality. 339 In the present study, we showed that the proportion of the total distributed tubifex worms 340 effectively ingested in each aquarium did not vary with stocking density, indicating a large 341 decrease in the quantity ingested by individual larvae with increasing stocking density 342 (Table 5). Nevertheless, despite a reduction in individual food intake and slower growth at the 343 highest stocking densities, we found a significant negative relationship between FCR and 344 stocking density, indicating that the higher the larval density, the lower the FCR. Using a wider 345 range of stocking densities, we confirmed the findings of Sarah et al. (2009), who found a linear 346 347 decrease of FCR in giant gourami larvae with increasing stocking density ranging from 2.5 to 10 fish L⁻¹. Because ingested food quantities remained stable (61-67%) across experimental 348 349 treatments, the decrease in FCR can be explained by the significant increase in biomass gain (BG) observed for the highest stocking densities. 350

Effects of stocking density on FCR in fish vary greatly. For instance, in marbled spinefoot S. 351 rivulatus juveniles fed commercial pellets, no significant effect of stocking density on FCR was 352 found (Saoud et al., 2008). However, Niazie et al. (2013) and Keer et al. (2018) reported 353 significant increases of FCR at higher stocking densities with juvenile Reba carp and goldfish 354 *Carassius auratus* fed compounded feed. Such findings suggest that effects of stocking density 355 356 are species-dependent. In addition, in the studies mentioned above, fish were fed using calculated food rations throughout the experiment, but not until satiation. Furthermore, in most 357 of the studies, FCR calculations are based on the quantity of food distributed and not on actual 358 consumption (Saoud et al., 2008; Niazie et al., 2013; Keer et al., 2018); it can be difficult to 359

accurately estimate consumption using live prey or small inert food particles. Nevertheless, indirect food consumption estimates can lead to experimental bias for the quantification of *FCR* (Slembrouck et al., 2009) that may potentially explain the differences observed regarding the effects of stocking density on the *FCR* and more generally the food intake in fish larvae.

In fish, decreased food intake often is associated with increased stress (Saoud et al. 2008; 364 Moradyan et al., 2012). When food is present in excess, water quality is affected, indirectly 365 causing the decrease in the growth and survival rates of farmed fish (e.g., Werner and Blaxter, 366 1980; Puvanendran and Brown, 1999). In the present study, although larvae were voluntarily 367 maintained in non-limiting, surplus-food conditions, water quality of the recirculating 368 aquaculture system remained satisfactory throughout the experiment. Our results suggest that 369 the water renewal (110 to 260% per hour) was sufficient to ensure no experimental bias due to 370 poor water quality. Although tubifex worms were constantly available, they clustered on the 371 372 bottom of the aquaria, which can limit food intake for some species of fish due the potential difficulty of engulfing such large quantities of food, as was shown for walking catfish Clarias 373 374 batrachus (Dey et al., 2016). However, giant gourami larvae and juveniles have relatively small 375 mouths and ingest tubifex worms one by one; they did not appear to be bothered by the clusters of tubifex worms and showed no aggressive behaviour. For these reasons, we assume that there 376 was no stress regarding food accessibility, contrary to reports in rainbow trout Oncorhynchus 377 378 mykiss (Ellis et al., 2002; North et al., 2006). Thus, in our experiment, increasing the number of fish per unit volume led to the reduction of space availability for each individual and likely 379 acted as a direct stressor for larvae, limiting their ingestion of food. Nevertheless, measurements 380 381 of physiological indicators of stress (e.g., haematocrit, lysozyme activity or plasma cortisol; Ellis et al., 2002; North et al., 2006) are needed to test this assumption. 382

Interestingly, we observed a drastic drop in *FCR* when the lowest density doubled from 0.6 to 1.2 fish L^{-1} . Similar findings were highlighted by in Nile tilapia *Oreochromis niloticus* fry fed

experimental feed to apparent satiation (El-Sayed, 2002). In that study, FCR was not 385 significantly affected by stocking density, except at the lowest densities, suggesting that the 386 decrease in FCR may have been due to: (1) the lack of competition for food, or (2) the 387 388 difficulties in catching food particles that were flushed out with the water outflow (thus leading to biased estimation of FCR). However, in the present study, no evidence of competition for 389 food was shown at any stocking density. In addition, the FCR values calculated in the present 390 study were based on real consumption of food by larvae because tubifex worms aggregated on 391 392 the bottom of the aquarium, thereby avoiding loss of prey with water outflow. In our case, the difference in biomass gain (BG) observed between the two lowest stocking density conditions 393 394 $(\pm 60\%)$ caused the drastic drop in FCR. Nevertheless, the reasons explaining this remarkable difference in gain in biomass remain uncertain. Further investigations are needed to better 395 understand the growth dynamics of giant gourami larvae raised at low stocking densities, which 396 397 is likely to affect the commercial production of juveniles.

398

399 5. Conclusion

400 The production of giant gourami fry is highly segmented, and the "Nguku" stage is the bestselling, although there are at least three intermediate stages that are also traded locally. 401 Currently, there are no clear and standardized production methods. This study provides new 402 information regarding the effects of stocking density on giant gourami larval production. The 403 experiment was performed in a recirculating aquaculture system, ensuring constant water 404 quality, easier control of feeding, and hence better control over the seedstock production 405 406 process than traditional practices. We showed that stocking density has no effect on larval 407 survival during the 8-29 dph period. Nevertheless, growth was strongly affected by stocking 408 density. Thus, for a given surface area, although larvae production at low density limits the number of saleable fish, it reduces the time necessary to reach commercial size. On the other 409

410	hand, higher densities produced increased numbers of fish, but lengthened the duration of larval
411	rearing. Stocking density is therefore a key factor to take into account in the production of giant
412	gourami juveniles. Further investigations are necessary to determine: (1) the effects of these
413	strategies on the nursery and grow-out phases, and (2) why FCR decreases at low stocking
414	densities in order to provide objective recommendations for fish farmers.
415	
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420	
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560	

561 **Figure captions**

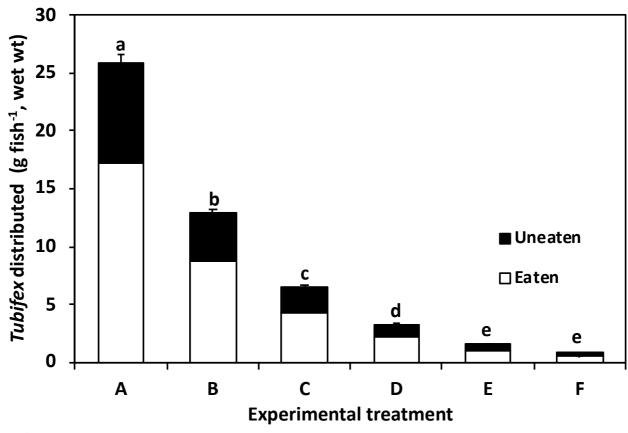
Figure 1. Total food intake (g fish⁻¹ wet wt) by giant gourami larvae reared at six different stocking densities A-F (A=0.6, B=1.2, C=2.4, D=4.8, E=9.6, and F=19.2 fish L⁻¹; i.e. A=150, B=300, C=600, D=1200, E=2400, and F=4800 fish m⁻², n=4) for 21 days. Bars show the proportion of tubifex worms eaten by the larvae (white) and the uneaten fraction (black). Values are means ± SD. Different letters denote significant differences between fish stocking densities (p < 0.05).

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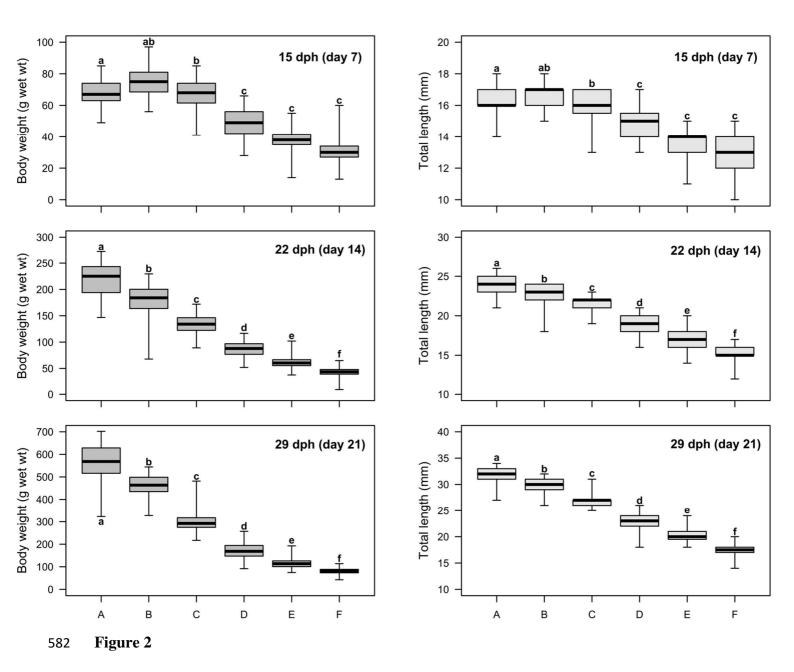
Figure 2. Total length (a) and body weight (b) of giant gourami larvae (n=40-240) at 15, 22 and 29 days post-hatching (dph) in the six stocking density treatments A=0.6, B=1.2, C=2.4, D=4.8, E=9.6, and F=19.2 fish L⁻¹; i.e., A=150, B=300, C=600, D=1200, E=2400, and F=4800 fish m⁻²). Box-plots show the interquartile range, median (horizontal line), minimum and maximum values (whiskers). Different letters denote significant differences between fish stocking densities (p < 0.05).

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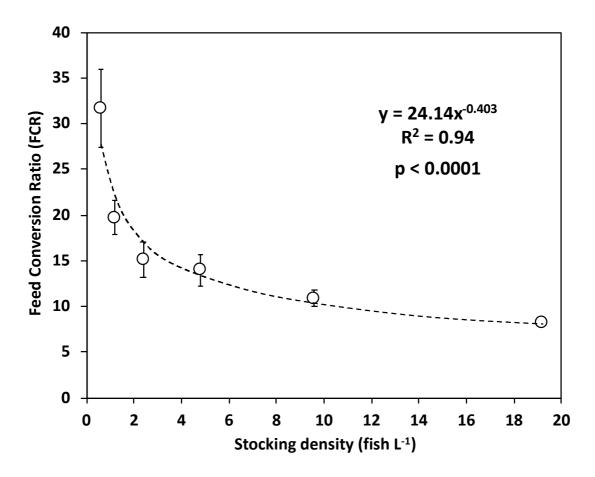
Figure 3. Relationship between feed conversion ratio (*FCR*) and stocking densities of giant gourami larvae at 29 days post-hatching (dph) reared at six stocking density treatments (A=0.6, B=1.2, C=2.4, D=4.8, E=9.6, and F=19.2 fish L⁻¹; i.e., A=150, B=300, C=600, D=1200, E=2400, and F=4800 fish m⁻², n=4). Values are means \pm SD.



580 Figure 1







584 Figure 3

Table 1. Proximate composition of tubifex worms throughout the 21-day experiment. Except for water content, data are expressed as percentage of dry matter (n=3). Values are means \pm SD.

Component	Value (%)
Water content	83.1 ± 1.1
Crude protein	54.0 ± 3.9
Crude lipid	23.5 ± 3.2
Ash	5.6 ± 2.8
Crude fibre	1.1 ± 0.1
NFE ¹	15.8 ± 2.5

587 ¹NFE: Nitrogen-free extract.

Experimental treatment	Stocking density		Total number of larvae
	Larvae L ⁻¹	Larvae m ⁻²	per aquarium
А	0.6	150	18
В	1.2	300	36
C	2.4	600	72
D	4.8	1200	144
Е	9.6	2400	288
F	19.2	4800	576

Table 2. Stocking densities of giant gourami larvae in the six experimental treatments.

Parameters ¹	Mean ± SD	Range
Temperature (°C)	29.0 ± 0.6	28.3-30.0
$DO (mg L^{-1})$	6.1 ± 0.9	4.7-7.1
pH	8.4 ± 0.3	7.8-8.8
TDS (mg L ⁻¹)	78.4 ± 1.2	77-81
Turbidity (NTU)	0.1 ± 0.0	0.1-0.3
$N-NH_4^+ (mg L^{-1})$	0.23 ± 0.11	0.09-0.41
$N-NO_{2}^{-}(mg L^{-1})$	0.03 ± 0.03	0.00-0.09
$N-NO_{3}^{-}$ (mg L ⁻¹)	3.1 ± 2.5	0.4-7.4

Table 3. Summary of water quality parameters measured in the aquaria during experiment.

¹DO: dissolved oxygen, TDS: total dissolved solids

Table 4. Effects of stocking density (A-F; see Table 2) on growth and survival of giant gourami larvae reared in a closed recirculating system from 8 to 29 days post-hatching. Values are means \pm SD. Letters denote significant differences (p < 0.05) between treatments.

Parameters ¹	А	В	С	D	Е	F
<i>BG</i> (g L ⁻¹)	0.33 ± 0.04^{a}	0.53 ± 0.03^{b}	$0.68 \pm 0.07^{\circ}$	$0.74 \pm 0.07^{\circ}$	0.94 ± 0.07^{d}	1.28 ± 0.04^{e}
BW_i (mg)	14.4 ± 0.8	14.4 ± 0.8	14.4 ± 0.8	14.4 ± 0.8	14.4 ± 0.8	14.4 ± 0.8
$BW_f(mg)$	563.2 ± 90.3^{a}	461.0 ± 53.7^{b}	$301.0 \pm 49.9^{\circ}$	170.2 ± 35.7^{d}	113.6 ± 18.8^{e}	$81.9 \pm 12.3^{\rm f}$
$CV_{BW}(\%)$	12.8 ± 4.2^{a}	10.5 ± 3.0^{a}	13.2 ± 6.8^{a}	19.9 ± 6.5^{a}	15.7 ± 2.0^{a}	14.5 ± 3.0^{a}
CV_{TL} (%)	3.9 ± 1.6^{a}	3.9 ± 1.9^{a}	4.5 ± 1.9^{a}	6.0 ± 2.0^{a}	$4.9 \pm 0.7^{\mathrm{a}}$	5.7 ± 1.1^{a}
K	1.75 ± 0.13^{a}	1.70 ± 0.09^{a}	1.56 ± 0.11^{b}	$1.48 \pm 0.14^{\rm bc}$	1.37 ± 0.08^{d}	1.52 ± 0.11^{bc}
$\frac{SGR_{BW}}{(\% \text{ day}^{-1})}$	17.5 ± 0.5^{a}	16.5 ± 0.3^{b}	$14.5 \pm 0.5^{\circ}$	$11.8 \pm 0.4^{\rm d}$	9.8 ± 0.3^{e}	8.3 ± 0.1^{f}
$\frac{SGR_{TL}}{(\% \text{ day}^{-1})}$	5.5 ± 0.2^{a}	5.2 ± 0.1^{a}	4.6 ± 0.2^{b}	$3.8 \pm 0.2^{\circ}$	3.3 ± 0.1^{d}	$2.6 \pm 0.0^{\rm e}$
SR (%)	100.0 ± 0.0^{a}	99.3 ± 1.4^{a}	98.6 ± 1.1^{a}	99.5 ± 0.7^{a}	99.2 ± 0.5^{a}	99.0 ± 1.1^{a}
TL_i (mm)	10.1 ± 0.4	10.1 ± 0.4	10.1 ± 0.4	10.1 ± 0.4	10.1 ± 0.4	10.1 ± 0.4
$TL_f(mm)$	31.7 ± 1.6^{a}	30.0 ± 1.3^{b}	$26.8 \pm 1.3^{\circ}$	22.5 ± 1.6^{d}	20.2 ± 1.1^{e}	$17.5 \pm 1.0^{\mathrm{f}}$

¹*BG*: biomass gain (n=4), *BW_i*: initial body weight (n=30), *BW_f*: final body weight (n=40-240),

596 CV_{BW} : coefficient of variation for body weight (n=4), CV_{TL} : coefficient of variation for total 597 length (n=4), *K*: condition factor (n=40-240), SGR_{BW} : specific growth rate for body weight 598 (n=4), SGR_{TL} : specific growth rate for total length (n=4), *SR*: survival rate (n=4), TL_i : initial 599 total length (n=30), TL_f : final total length (n=40-240).

Table 5. Food consumption expressed as total food ingested per treatment (*FI*_{total}, %, n=4), individual food intake during the 21-day experiment (*FI*_{fish}, g ind⁻¹, n=4) and feed conversion ratio (*FCR*) of gourami larvae reared in recirculating aquaculture system at six stocking densities. Values are means \pm SD. For each parameter, different letters denote significant differences (p < 0.05) between treatments.

Parameters	А	В	С	D	Е	F
FI _{fish} (g ind ⁻¹)	17.2 ± 0.82^{a}	8.8 ± 0.29^{b}	$4.3 \pm 0.25^{\circ}$	2.1 ± 0.11^{d}	$1.1 \pm 0.02^{\rm e}$	0.6 ± 0.02^{e}
FI_{total} (%)	62.0 ± 0.03^{a}	63.1 ± 0.03^{a}	61.3 ± 0.04^{a}	62.4 ± 0.05^{a}	62.3 ± 0.02^{a}	66.6 ± 0.03^{a}
FCR	31.6 ± 4.3^{a}	19.7 ± 1.8^{b}	$15.1 \pm 2.0^{\circ}$	$14.0 \pm 1.8^{\circ}$	10.9 ± 0.9^{d}	8.3 ± 0.3^{e}