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MANEJO ALIMENTAR DE JUVENIS DE PEIXE ENXADA
(Chaetodipterus faber)

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**Universidade Federal do Rio Grande
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1. RESUMO GERAL

O peixe enxada *Chaetodipterus faber* é um excelente candidato para o desenvolvimento da aquacultura marinha, devido à algumas características como: fácil adaptação ao confinamento, boas taxas de crescimento e carne de boa qualidade. Como no caso de qualquer espécie aquícola emergente, o sucesso da criação do peixe enxada vai depender, em parte, do atendimento das suas necessidades nutricionais e do correto manejo alimentar. Dentre as diferentes práticas alimentares que podem maximizar a eficiência alimentar e o crescimento estão a taxa de arraçoamento e a frequência alimentar. Nesse estudo foi avaliada a performance de crescimento de juvenis do peixe enxada ($3,60 \pm 0,03$ g, média \pm DP) alimentados com 3, 5, ou 7% da biomassa (3% BW, 5% BW, 7% BW), em uma única alimentação (1x) ou dividida igualmente entre três refeições (3x). Ganho em peso, taxa de crescimento específico (TCE), conversão alimentar e consumo de alimento foram afetados tanto pela taxa de arraçoamento como pela frequência alimentar. O ganho em peso e a TCE aumentaram com a taxa de arraçoamento, sendo superior nos grupos alimentados 3x ao dia do que os alimentados 1x ao dia. Os peixes alimentados com maiores taxas de arraçoamento acumularam mais \backslash no corpo em detrimento da umidade, proteína e teor de cinzas, mas a composição da carcaça não foi afetada pela frequência alimentar. O presente estudo sugere que o manejo alimentar do peixe enxada criado em sistema intensivo de recirculação, pode ser otimizado quando a alimentação é ofertada na proporção de 5-7% da biomassa/dia em três alimentações diárias com 7% da biomassa/dia há um crescimento maior, embora menos eficiente.

25 **2. GENERAL ABSTRACT**

26

27 The Atlantic spadefish *Chaetodipterus faber* is an excellent candidate for aquaculture
28 development, because of its ability to adapt well to confinement, good growth rates and
29 excellent flesh quality and consumer appeal, but success will depend on the identification
30 of proper feeds and feeding regimens for this species. Among the different management
31 practices that may maximize feeding and growth efficiency, feeding rate and feeding
32 frequency have a crucial function in determining overall feed intake, growth, and waste
33 outputs of fish. Accordingly, we evaluated the growth performance of juveniles ($3.60 \pm$
34 0.03 g, mean \pm SE) fed at 3, 5, or 7% of body weight (3% BW, 5% BW, 7% BW), either
35 in a single feeding (1 \times) or divided equally among three feedings (3 \times). Weight gain,
36 specific growth rate, feed conversion ratio, and feed intake were significantly affected by
37 both feeding rate and frequency. Weight gain and SGR increased significantly with
38 feeding rate, and growth was generally greater and more efficient in the 3 \times groups than
39 the 1 \times groups. Fish fed at higher feeding rates accumulated more lipid within the body at
40 the expense of moisture, protein, and ash content, but carcass composition was unaffected
41 by feeding frequency. We suggest that the growth of juvenile Atlantic spadefish may be
42 optimized when fed at 5-7% BW / day in 3 daily feedings, with 7% BW / day yielding
43 the greatest, albeit less efficient, growth.

44 **3. INTRODUÇÃO GERAL**

45 O setor pesqueiro mundial é movido pela acentuada demanda de organismos
46 aquáticos na tentativa de acompanhar o crescente aumento da população mundial, que
47 praticamente mais que quadruplicou desde 1900, de 1,6 bilhões no final do século
48 passado para mais de 7 bilhões atualmente (United Nations, 2011). Devido a essa
49 demanda, muitas espécies de relevada importância comercial já atingiram seus limites
50 pesqueiros (Pauly, et al., 2002).

51 Em meados dos anos 90, o setor pesqueiro tradicional atingiu uma quantidade de
52 captura que parecia ser o máximo possível, com níveis entre 85 e 95 milhões de toneladas
53 anuais, das quais menos de 60 milhões de toneladas eram destinadas ao consumo humano
54 (FAO, 2009). Atualmente, o consumo mundial consiste em 131 milhões de toneladas/ano,
55 ou 18,6 kg por pessoa/ano, e a produção aquícola é responsável por 60 milhões de
56 toneladas/ano, (FAO, 2012). Considerando que até 2050 a população poderá atingir um
57 patamar de 9 bilhões de pessoas (United Nations, 2009), em 2030 a demanda atendida
58 pelo setor aquícola atingirá aproximadamente 160 milhões de toneladas de organismos
59 aquáticos (FAO, 2002).

60 A maioria dos estoques pesqueiros está completamente explorado, sobreexplorado
61 ou em processo de recuperação (Alder et al., 2008). A produção pesqueira também pode
62 ser afetada por variações climáticas e oceanográficas (por exemplo, eventos de El Niño),
63 principalmente na porção Leste do Oceano Pacífico. Essa região abrange países como
64 Peru e Chile, onde a anchoita é um dos principais recursos comerciais, e é também um
65 dos recursos mais vulneráveis a essas variações (FAO, 2011). No Nordeste, Noroeste e
66 região Centro-Oeste do Oceano Atlântico, a produção pesqueira atingiu picos em 2000,

67 2001 e 2004, porém nos anos seguintes a captura decresceu 30, 23 e 13%,
68 respectivamente (FAO, 2011). No ano de 2004 a produção pesqueira para as mesmas
69 regiões citadas acima foi de 10, 2,4 e 3,4 milhões de toneladas (FAO, 2005), enquanto
70 que no ano de 2000 foi de 10,9, 2,1 e 3,5 milhões de toneladas (FAO, 2001). O mesmo
71 ocorreu no Mediterrâneo com uma redução de 12% em 2008 em comparação com o ano
72 anterior (FAO, 2011).

73 Apesar dos valores da produção pesqueira não diminuírem drasticamente com o
74 passar do tempo, os estoques estão em declínio. Segundo valores da FAO (2009), entre
75 2002 a 2006 a produção pesqueira manteve-se no patamar médio de 93 milhões de
76 toneladas. Nos anos entre 2007 a 2009 essa mesma produção média consistiu em 90
77 milhões de toneladas (FAO, 2011), mesmo patamar que o último relatório da FAO
78 (2012), três milhões de toneladas a menos do que nos anos anteriores.

79 O declínio dos estoques pesqueiros marinhos impulsionou o rápido crescimento
80 da aquacultura (Naylor et al., 2000). Entre os anos 1987 e 1997, a produção global de
81 organismos aquáticos mais que duplicou em termos de peso e valor, contribuindo para o
82 fornecimento mundial de proteína animal de alta qualidade (FAO, 1999). De 2002 a
83 2006, a produção aquícola passou de 40,4 para 51,7 milhões de toneladas (FAO, 2009), e
84 continuou crescendo, atingindo 55,1 milhões de toneladas em 2009 (FAO, 2011). Um
85 terço desta produção está restrito a criações que utilizam farinha e óleo de peixe nas
86 dietas, como por exemplo, peixes carnívoros marinhos (Tacon e Metian, 2009).

87 Esse setor da aquacultura, também denominado de piscicultura marinha de peixes
88 carnívoros é uma prática controversa, devido ao fato de utilizar como matéria-prima de
89 seus insumos a farinha e/ou o óleo de peixe, e também o uso de peixes inteiros como

90 itens alimentares (Welch et al., 2010). Uma das principais críticas consiste no fato de que
91 uma grande biomassa de peixe é utilizada apenas com a finalidade de produzir poucos
92 organismos de topo de cadeia; um padrão que é considerado por muitos como
93 insustentável para uma escala industrial e comercial (Allsopp et al., 2008; Pauly, 2009).
94 Contudo, os níveis de farinha e óleo de peixe utilizados em dietas aquícolas diminuíram
95 na última década, e o consumo global destas matérias-primas pelas indústrias do ramo da
96 aquacultura também decresceu, em dietas para salmão, por exemplo, no ano 2000 o uso
97 de farinha e óleo de peixe correspondia respectivamente a 33 e 23% dos ingredientes
98 contidos na dieta. Já no ano de 2008 essa porcentagem caiu para 24 e 15%,
99 respectivamente (Jackson, 2010). Isso ocorreu em resposta simultânea dos altos preços
100 que estas matérias-primas atingiram e também ao melhoramento tecnológico e científico
101 voltado para a fabricação de dietas com fontes de proteína de origem vegetal mais
102 eficientes (Naylor et al., 2009).

103 Neste contexto global, a piscicultura marinha no Brasil, por mais que seja
104 incipiente, deve ser fomentada de forma sustentável, buscando a preservação da
105 biodiversidade e dos recursos marinhos da costa Brasileira, contemplando o
106 ecodesenvolvimento da atividade por meio da pesquisa e a busca por novas espécies com
107 potenciais para a aquacultura. Apesar de não haver uma produção brasileira oficial, o
108 potencial para essa atividade é enorme devido à grande área de costa com distintos
109 aspectos geomorfológicos e oceanográficos, possibilitando criações próximas e afastadas
110 da costa; boas condições naturais e climáticas; vasta gama de espécies com potenciais
111 aquícolas, como vermelhos (*Lutjanus* sp) (Watanabe, 2001), garoupas (*Epinephelus* sp)
112 (Sanchez et al., 2007), robalos (*Centropomus* sp) (Souza-Filho e Cerqueira, 2003;

113 Cerqueira, 2005), tainhas (*Mugil* sp) (Okamoto et al., 2006; Miranda-Filho et al., 2010),
114 corvinas da família Scianidae (Burkert, 1999), linguados (*Paralichthys* sp) (Sampaio e
115 Bianchini, 2002; Sampaio et al., 2010), pampos da família Carangidae (Costa et al., 2008)
116 e bijupirá (*Rachycentron canadum*) (Sampaio et al., 2010; Sampaio et al., 2011).

117 A atividade encontra-se em um momento oportuno, pois há grande interesse tanto
118 do setor público e privado, quanto de universidades, de fomentar a produção de peixes
119 marinhos por meio da produção de juvenis em laboratório, como é o caso do bijupirá.
120 Essa espécie já possui um pacote tecnológico de reprodução, larvicultura e engorda, que
121 apenas necessita ser adaptado e melhorado para cada região brasileira. Atualmente,
122 universidades desenvolvem pesquisas visando à consolidação da produção dessa espécie,
123 e há alguns empreendimentos pioneiros e experimentais. Dessa forma, ao curto ou médio
124 prazo a criação de bijupirá estará estabelecida, e será responsável pelo desenvolvimento
125 da produção de peixes marinhos do Brasil.

126 No entanto, é importante a diversificação de espécies criadas tanto para atender o
127 mercado como também para evitar a disseminação de doenças que possam causar
128 mortalidade total, resultando em grande perda econômica; além de degradar o ambiente
129 (Buschmann et al., 2006; 2009). A criação de salmão no Chile é um exemplo negativo,
130 que enfatiza a importância do planejamento inicial que inclui: a diversificação de
131 espécies criadas, a determinação da capacidade suporte de cada região, o controle sobre o
132 uso de antibióticos e a introdução de espécies exóticas (FAO, 2007).

133 Sendo assim, deve-se continuar o fomento ao desenvolvimento de pacotes
134 tecnológicos para espécies com potencial, a fim de impulsionar o desenvolvimento e a
135 produção da piscicultura marinha brasileira. Nesse aspecto, uma espécie aquícola

136 emergente que possui aceitação de mercado e apresenta boas características de
137 crescimento é o peixe enxada *Chaetodipterus faber*.

138 A Família Ehippidae é composta por 20 espécies de peixes onívoros,
139 comprimidos lateralmente, marinhos e de água salobra (Randall, 1967), incluindo o peixe
140 enxada (*Chaetodipterus faber*), único membro da Família presente no Atlântico Oeste
141 (Robins e Ray, 1986). O ciclo de vida e a distribuição dessa espécie ainda não são
142 completamente conhecidos (Ditty et al., 1994), mas é sabido que habitam águas costeiras
143 desde o litoral norte americano até o sudeste do Brasil, incluindo o Golfo do México
144 (Johnson, 1978) e Caribe (Burgess, 1978).

145 O peixe enxada utiliza uma grande variedade de ecossistemas dependendo da
146 etapa do ciclo de vida, incluindo mangues e marismas, próximos a águas costeiras e
147 recifes (Robins e Ray, 1986). Os juvenis são geralmente encontrados em estuários e
148 águas abrigadas, enquanto os adultos têm preferência por águas costeiras e oceânicas
149 (Johnson, 1978); frequentemente se reúnem em grandes cardumes nas águas costeiras,
150 tornando um atrativo para a pesca esportiva (Bohlke e Chaplin, 1993; Robbins e Ray,
151 1986). Na natureza, podem atingir 91 cm de comprimento e 9 kg (Robbins e Ray, 1986).

152 O peixe enxada é um excelente candidato para o desenvolvimento da aquicultura
153 (Tucker e Jory, 1991) devido à sua robustez física e resistência às doenças, a capacidade
154 de boa adaptação ao confinamento, boas taxas de crescimento (Gaspar e Larez, 1984) e a
155 tolerância à baixas temperaturas e salinidades. A ausência de comportamento agressivo
156 ou canibal tanto durante a larvicultura como na engorda e sua carne de boa qualidade
157 completam suas características de espécie emergente (Bohlke e Chaplin, 1993). Além do
158 seu potencial aquícola como fonte de proteína, sua forma jovem possui importância

159 ornamental (Gaspar, 1995) devido à sua morfologia e à sua impressionante coloração
160 branca e preta.

161 Como no caso de qualquer espécie aquícola emergente, o sucesso da criação do
162 peixe enxada vai depender, em parte, da correta identificação dos alimentos e manejos
163 alimentares. Entre as diferentes práticas de manejo que podem maximizar a eficiência de
164 alimentação e o crescimento, estão a taxa de arraçoamento e a frequência alimentar. Elas
165 possuem uma função crucial para determinar o consumo total de ração, o crescimento e a
166 eliminação de resíduos (Silva et al., 2007). Por exemplo, a alimentação esporádica e
167 baixas taxas de arraçoamento podem resultar em redução do crescimento, bem como o
168 aumento da fome, a agressão intra-específica e o aumento das taxas de canibalismo
169 (Folkvord e Ottera, 1993). Como alternativa, a alimentação frequente e altas taxas de
170 arraçoamento podem levar ao desperdício de alimento, deterioração da qualidade da água,
171 reduzir a produção e aumentar os custos de produção (Booth et al., 2008). A otimização
172 da frequência alimentar e da taxa de arraçoamento podem minimizar o desperdício de
173 alimento, levando à melhoria da qualidade de água e maior homogeneidade nas classes de
174 tamanho (Dwyer et al., 2002; Tucker et al., 2006), e também pode influenciar o uso de
175 nutrientes nas dietas e na alimentação (Mihelakakis et al., 2002).

176 Estratégias alimentares e necessidades nutricionais são espécie-específicos, ou
177 seja, podem variar conforme a espécie em questão, tamanho do peixe, fase do ciclo de
178 vida, sistema de criação (Cho et al., 2003) e do tipo do alimento empregado (Chua e
179 Teng, 1978, 1982). Estudos são realizados com o intuito de determinar o ótimo regime
180 alimentar avaliando o crescimento, sobrevivência, consumo de alimento e composição
181 corporal para diversas espécies, principalmente nas fases larval e juvenil (Dwyer et al.,

182 2002; Cho et al., 2003; Tucker et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2009). Biswas et al. (2010)
183 sugerem que a melhor frequência alimentar para larvas de “sea bass” (*Lates calcarifer*) é
184 de 3 vezes ao dia, quando criadas em tanques-rede em ambiente salobro. Entretanto,
185 larvas de “ayu” (*Plecoglossus altivelis*) possuem maiores taxas de crescimento quando
186 alimentadas 6 vezes ao dia, ao invés de uma única alimentação diária (Cho et al., 2003).
187 Estudos realizados com juvenis de “Australian snapper” (*Pagrus auratus*) criados em
188 tanques em laboratório em um sistema de reuso parcial de água concluíram que o melhor
189 regime alimentar consiste na alimentação até a saciedade e ofertada de 2 vezes ao dia
190 (Booth et al., 2008). Para juvenis de peixe de água doce como, por exemplo, o tambaqui
191 (*Colossoma macropomum*) quando criado em tanques-rede a otimização do regime
192 alimentar é alcançada através da oferta de 10% da biomassa dividida em 3 partes iguais
193 ao dia (Silva et al., 2007).

194 Um importante aspecto a respeito dessas práticas de manejo alimentar que deve
195 ser ressaltado é a interação entre elas, pois quando se alimenta uma criação com uma
196 frequência adequada e altas taxas de arraçoamento há um desempenho produtivo maior,
197 porém se elevarmos demais a oferta de ração o crescimento se tornará menos eficiente.
198 Isso ocorre devido ao fato dos organismos utilizarem o excesso de nutrientes disponível
199 não para o crescimento em termos protéico, que é o desejado na aquacultura e sim em
200 termos de acúmulo de gordura (Silva et al., 2007). E se o inverso ocorrer, o desempenho
201 produtivo também será afetado (Booth et al., 2008). Desse forma a interação entre a taxa
202 de arraçoamento e frequência alimentar é um fator de relevada importância que deve ser
203 analisado e otimizado afim de obter um bom desempenho de produção.

204 Poucos estudos de alimentação foram realizados com o peixe enxada, embora
205 haja experimentos de engorda em tanques-rede na Venezuela. Gaspar e Larez (1984)
206 realizaram experimentos de engorda com juvenis de peixe enxada em tanques-rede e em
207 um ano de criação os peixes atingiram o peso comercial de 300 – 400 g. Outros estudos
208 foram realizados em tanques de concreto com fluxo contínuo com o intuito de testar
209 diferentes dietas para engorda de juvenis. Em um trabalho o melhor resultado encontrado
210 foi com dieta a base de camarão, com um ganho de peso de 390% (Robaina e Salaya,
211 1993). Um segundo trabalho mostrou o potencial de crescimento do peixe enxada durante
212 um ano de criação, quando os peixes atingiram 300 g ao serem alimentados com sardinha
213 fresca (Gaspar, 2002). Ambos os estudos sugerem o grande potencial aquícola da espécie
214 e a necessidade de mais trabalhos sobre engorda e nutrição na fase juvenil. Dado o
215 interesse no desenvolvimento da criação intensiva do peixe enxada, este será o primeiro
216 estudo a avaliar a influência da taxa de arraçoamento e da frequência alimentar sobre o
217 desempenho de crescimento de juvenis criados em sistema de recirculação.

218

219

220 **4. OBJETIVOS**

221 **4.1. Geral**

222 Avaliar o efeito da taxa de arramento e da frequência alimentar na produção do peixe
223 enxada.

224 **4.2. Específicos**

225 Determinar a melhor taxa de arramento e frequência alimentar para o peixe enxada.

226 Avaliar o efeito do manejo alimentar sobre a sobrevivência do peixe enxada.

227 Analisar a composição de carcaça para a determinação de proteína, cinzas e lipídeos.

228 Avaliar se existe interação entre a taxa de arramento e frequência alimentar.

229

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ARTIGO ANEXO

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402 **MANEJO ALIMENTAR DE JUVENIS DE PEIXE ENXADA (*Chaetodipterus***
403 ***faber*), ESPÉCIE AQUÍCOLA EMERGENTE**

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408 **Co-autores: Trushenski, J., Schwarz, M.H., Bowzer, J., Gause, B., Delbos, B.,**
409 **Sampaio, L.A.**

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419 **OPTIMAL FEEDING OF JUVENILE ATLANTIC SPADEFISH *Chaetodipterus***
420 ***faber*, AN EMERGING AQUACULTURE SPECIES**

421

422 **Abstract**

423 The Atlantic spadefish *Chaetodipterus faber* is an excellent candidate for aquaculture
424 development, but success will depend on the identification of proper feeds and feeding
425 regimens for this species. Accordingly, we evaluated the growth performance of
426 juveniles (3.60 ± 0.03 g, mean \pm SE) fed at 3, 5, or 7% of body weight (3% BW, 5% BW,
427 7% BW), either in a single feeding (1 \times) or divided equally among three feedings (3 \times).
428 Weight gain, specific growth rate, feed conversion ratio, and feed intake were
429 significantly affected by both feeding rate and frequency. Weight gain and SGR
430 increased significantly with feeding rate, and growth was generally greater and more
431 efficient in the 3 \times groups than the 1 \times groups. Fish fed at higher feeding rates
432 accumulated more lipid within the body at the expense of moisture, protein, and ash
433 content, but carcass composition was unaffected by feeding frequency. We suggest that
434 the growth of juvenile Atlantic spadefish may be optimized when fed at 5-7% BW / day
435 in 3 daily feedings, with 7% BW / day yielding the greatest, albeit slightly less efficient,
436 growth.

437

438 Key Words: *Chaetodipterus*, Atlantic spadefish, marine aquaculture, feeding rates,
439 feeding frequency

440

441 **1. Introduction**

442 The family Ehippidae is comprised of 20 species of omnivorous, deep-bodied,
443 laterally compressed, marine and brackish fishes (Froese and Pauly 2010), including the
444 Atlantic spadefish, *Chaetodipterus faber*, the only Ehippid present in Western Atlantic
445 waters (Robins and Ray 1986; Walker 1991). The life history and distribution of this
446 species is not completely understood (Ditty et al. 1994), but it is known to inhabit coastal
447 waters from the United States to southern Brazil, including the Gulf of Mexico (Johnson
448 1978) and Caribbean (Burgess 1978). Atlantic spadefish utilize a wide variety of
449 ecosystems depending on life stage, including mangroves and salt marshes, to near-shore
450 waters and offshore reefs (Robins and Ray 1986). Juveniles are generally found in
451 estuaries and protected waters, whereas adults predominate near shore and offshore
452 waters (Johnson 1978). Adult Atlantic spadefish often congregate in large schools in
453 coastal waters, where in the U.S. they support a popular recreational fishery (Bohlke and
454 Chaplin, 1993; Robins and Ray 1986). In the wild, specimens can reach 91 cm in total
455 length (TL) and 9 kg in weight in tropical waters (Robins and Ray 1986).

456

457 The Atlantic spadefish is an excellent candidate for aquaculture development
458 (Tucker and Jory 1991) because of its physical hardiness and disease resistance, ability to
459 adapt well to confinement, good growth rates (Gaspar and Larez, 1984), tolerance of low
460 temperatures and salinities, lack of aggressive or cannibalistic behavior during both
461 larviculture and growout, and excellent flesh quality and consumer appeal (Randall 1966;
462 Bohlke and Chaplin 1993). In addition to food fish culture, young spadefish may have

463 ornamental importance (Gaspar 1995) owing to their morphology and striking black and
464 white coloration.

465

466 As is the case for any emerging aquaculture species, successful culture of Atlantic
467 spadefish will depend, in part, on the identification of proper feeds and feeding regimens
468 for this species. Among the different management practices that may maximize feeding
469 and growth efficiency, feeding rate and feeding frequency have a crucial function in
470 determining overall feed intake, growth, and waste outputs of fish (Silva et al., 2007).
471 For example, sporadic feeding and low feeding rates may contribute to reduced growth as
472 well as increased hunger, intra-specific aggression and increased rate of cannibalism
473 (Folkvord and Ottera, 1993). Alternatively, frequent feeding and high feeding rates may
474 lead to feed wastage, deteriorating water quality, reduced fish production, and ultimately
475 greater production costs (Booth et al., 2008). Optimizing feeding frequency and feeding
476 rate may minimize feed wastage, leading to improvement in water quality and greater
477 size class homogeneity (Dwyer et al., 2002; Tucker et al., 2006). Few feeding studies
478 have been conducted with Atlantic spadefish; though cage culture has been investigated
479 in Venezuela (Gaspar and Larez 1984; Robaina and Salaya 1993; Gaspar 2002).
480 However, proper feeds and feeding strategies can vary with fish size, rearing system (Cho
481 et al., 2003) and feed type (Chua and Teng 1978, 1982). Given the interest in developing
482 intensive aquaculture of Atlantic spadefish, we assessed the influence of feeding rate and
483 feeding frequency on the growth performance of juveniles reared in land-based
484 recirculation systems.

485

486 **2. Methods and Materials**

487 Juvenile spadefish (3.60 ± 0.03 g, mean \pm SE; 7 fish/tank), sourced from the
488 Virginia Seafood Agricultural Research and Extension Center's (VSAREC) aquaculture
489 program, were stocked into a recirculation system at the VSAREC consisting of 24, 10-L
490 tanks, a fluidized KMT biofilter, 50 μ m particle filter and 50 watt UV unit (Aquatic
491 Habitats, Apopka, Florida, USA). Fish were cultured under optimal conditions and fed a
492 commercially-available feed (Otohime S2, Reed Mariculture, California, USA;
493 guaranteed analysis: crude protein = 50% minimum, crude fat = 10% minimum, crude
494 fiber = 3% maximum, crude ash = 16% maximum; average pellet size = 1.4 mm; floating
495 feed) at 3, 5, or 7% of body weight (3% BW, 5% BW, 7% BW), either in a single feeding
496 (1 \times) or divided equally among three feedings (3 \times). Each feeding rate/feeding frequency
497 treatment combination was randomly assigned to 4 replicate tanks ($N = 4$) Feeding rates
498 were adjusted for growth every 10 days after group weighing the fish by tank. Fish in the
499 1 \times treatments were fed at 1300 hours, whereas fish in the 3 \times treatments were fed at 0700,
500 1300 and 1900 hours.

501 Water temperature and dissolved oxygen (DO) were monitored daily using a YSI-
502 85 Series dissolved oxygen meter (YSI Inc., Yellow Springs, Ohio, USA). Total
503 ammonia-, nitrite-, and nitrate-nitrogen (spectrophotometric analysis, Hach Inc.,
504 Loveland, Colorado, USA), pH (YSI-pH100; YSI Inc., Yellow Springs, Ohio, USA), and
505 alkalinity (bromocresol green-methyl red titration method, Hach Inc., Loveland,
506 Colorado, USA) were also quantified once daily. Throughout the experiment,
507 photoperiod was kept at a 12:12 light/dark cycle, tank inflow rates were maintained at 0.6
508 L/min, and water quality parameters were maintained as follows: temperature = $28.9 \pm$

509 0.9 °C, salinity = 27.1 ± 0.2 ppt, dissolved oxygen = 6.1 ± 0.6 mg/L, total ammonia
510 nitrogen = 0.34 ± 0.08 mg/L, nitrite nitrogen = 0.35 ± 0.13 mg/L, nitrate nitrogen = 27.0
511 ± 3.6 mg/L, alkalinity = 140 ± 6 mg/L, and pH = 7.51 ± 0.02 (mean ± SD).

512

513 After 39 days of culture, the study was terminated and production performance
514 was assessed. Standard metrics of production performance were calculated as follows:

$$\text{Weight Gain (\%)} = 100 \times \frac{(\text{average final weight} - \text{average initial weight})}{\text{average initial weight}}$$

515

$$\text{Feed Conversion Ratio (FCR)} = \frac{\text{average individual dry matter feed intake}}{\text{average individual weight gain}}$$

516

$$\text{Specific Growth Rate (SGR, \% body weight/day)} = 100 \times \frac{\ln \text{average final weight} - \ln \text{average initial weight}}{\text{days of feeding}}$$

517

$$\text{Feed Intake (\% body weight/day)} = 100 \times \frac{\text{average individual dry matter feed intake}}{\frac{(\text{initial individual weight} \times \text{final individual weight})^{0.5}}{\text{days of feeding}}}$$

518

519 Three fish/tank were randomly selected, euthanized via overdose of tricaine
520 methanesulfonate (MS-222; Finquel[®]; Argent Chemical Laboratories, Inc., Redmond,
521 Washington, USA; immersion in >200 mg/L bath until cessation of opercular
522 movement), and frozen (-80°C).

523 Frozen carcass samples were packed in ice and transported (~36 hours in transit)
524 to the Fisheries and Illinois Aquaculture Center (FIAC) in Carbondale, Illinois (USA)
525 where the samples were refrozen (-80°C) for storage prior to compositional analysis.
526 Carcass samples were sectioned (~1 cm thickness) and lyophilized (Freezone 6,
527 Labconco, Kansas City, Missouri, USA) to determine moisture content. Lyophilized
528 samples were pulverized and pooled by tank before determination of protein, ash, and
529 lipid. Total lipid was determined gravimetrically following chloroform/methanol

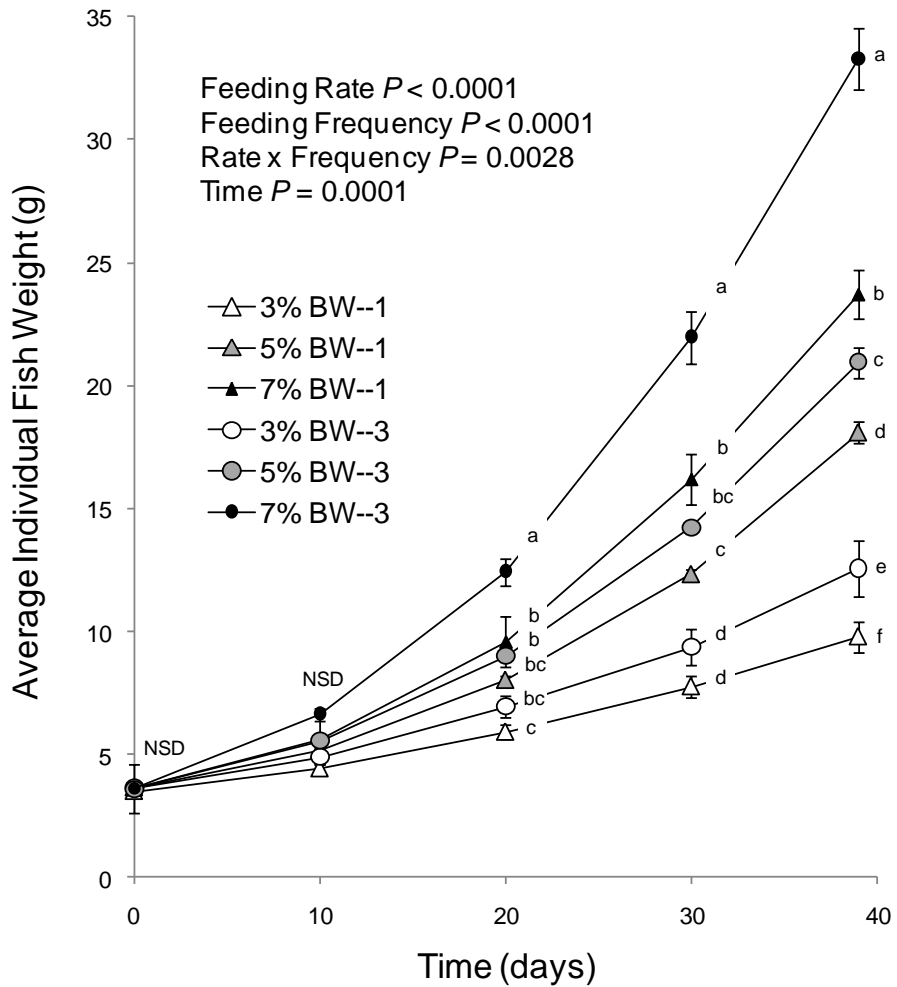
530 extraction modified from Folch et al. (1957). Ash content was determined
531 gravimetrically after incineration in a muffle furnace for 4 hours at 650°C. A LECO
532 protein analyzer (FP-528, LECO Corporation, St. Joseph, Michigan) was used to
533 determine protein content.

534 Although multiple fish were sampled from each tank, replicate tanks served as the
535 experimental units for all statistical analyses ($n = 3$). As multiple weight measurements
536 were taken from each experimental unit (i.e., tank) through time, it was determined that a
537 repeated measures statistical analysis would be most appropriate for the fish weight data
538 in order to reduce error variability arising from within-subject ('within-tank') effects.
539 These data were analyzed by one-way, repeated measures two-way analysis of variance
540 (ANOVA) within the Mixed Model framework of the Statistical Analysis System,
541 version 9.1 (SAS Institute, Cary, North Carolina, USA) to determine significance of
542 differences among treatment means at each time point as well as whether the stress
543 treatments differed in their overall effect on the response parameters. All other data were
544 analyzed by two-way ANOVA within the Mixed Model framework to determine the
545 significance of feeding rate and feeding frequency as main effects, as well as to test for a
546 significant interaction effect. When two-way ANOVA revealed significant main or
547 interactive effect(s), Tukey's HSD tests were used for post-hoc pair-wise comparisons.
548 In all cases, differences were considered significant at $P < 0.05$.

549

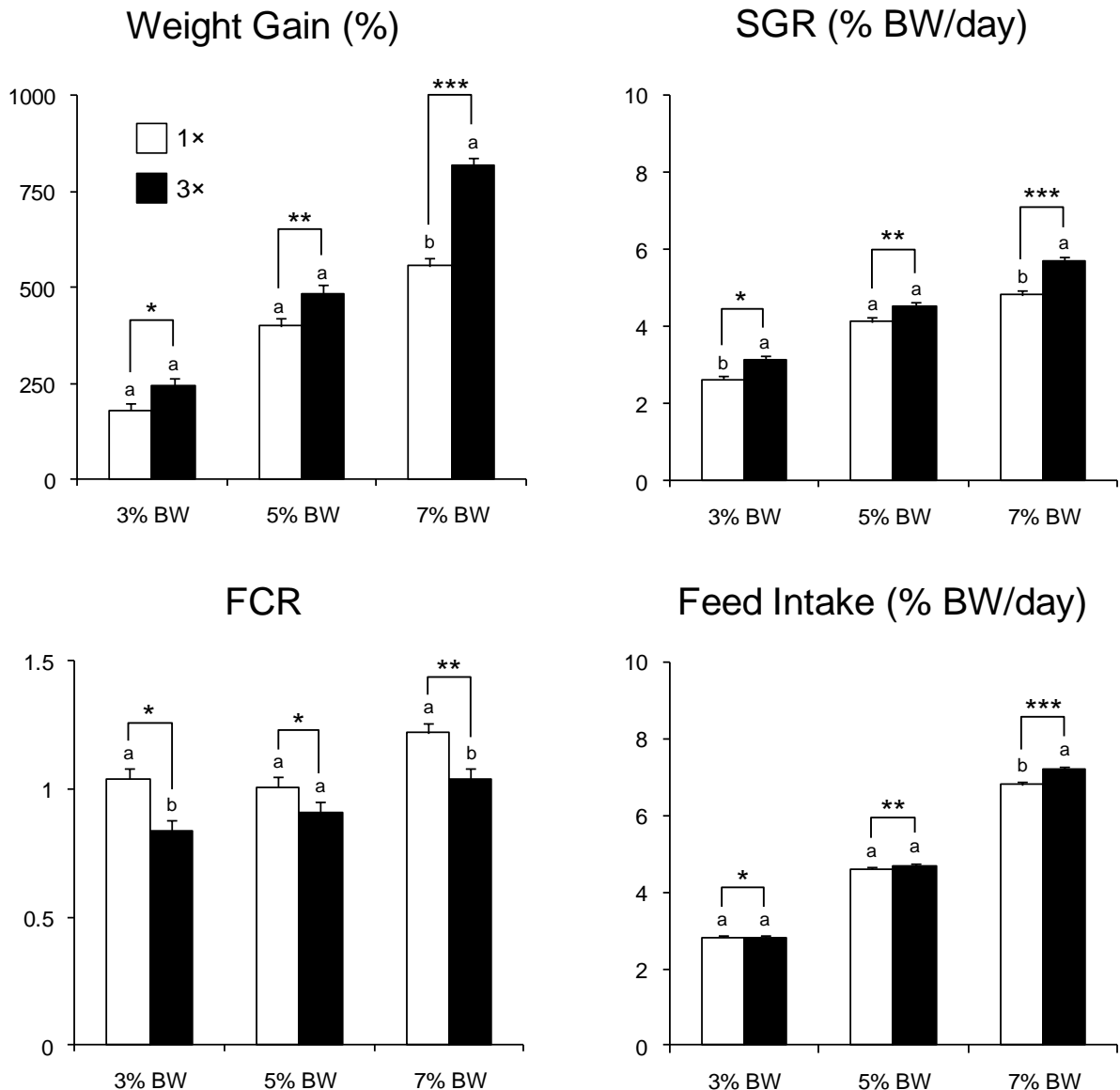
550 **3. Results**

551 Juvenile Atlantic spadefish weight gain (feeding rate $P < 0.001$, feeding frequency
552 $P < 0.001$, interaction $P = 0.002$), SGR (feeding rate $P < 0.001$, feeding frequency $P <$
553 0.001 , interaction $P = 0.072$), FCR (feeding rate $P = 0.004$, feeding frequency $P < 0.001$,
554 interaction $P = 0.288$), and feed intake (feeding rate $P < 0.001$, feeding frequency $P =$
555 0.024 , interaction $P = 0.036$) were significantly affected by both feeding rate and
556 frequency. Fish weight increased significantly over the course of the 39-day experiment,
557 with treatment groups becoming statistically distinct from one another by 20 days (Figure
558 1). Weight gain and SGR increased significantly with feeding rate (Figure 2). Regardless
559 of feeding rate, growth was generally greater and more efficient in the 3× groups than the
560 1× groups. The growth enhancing effect of greater feeding frequency was particularly
561 evident within the 7% BW treatment. Feeds were offered at specific levels, and feed
562 intake varied expectedly with feeding rate (Figure 2). Although feeding rates were
563 constant, regardless of feeding frequency, feed intake expressed as a percent of body
564 weight was elevated among fish in the 3× fed at 7% BW.



565

566 Figure 1. Average individual of juvenile Atlantic spadefish fed at 3, 5, or 7% of body
 567 weight (BW) per day in single (1×) or multiple (3×) feedings. Each data point represents
 568 the treatment combination mean ± standard error of the mean. Data points at a given time
 569 point with common letters are not significantly different ($P > 0.05$). P -values generated
 570 by a two-way repeated measures ANOVA assessing feeding rate and frequency as main
 571 effects are also provided; “NSD” indicates no significant difference between means at a
 572 time point.



573

574 Figure 2. Growth performance of juvenile Atlantic spadefish fed at 3, 5, or 7% of
 575 body weight (BW) per day in single (1×) or multiple (3×) feedings. Bars represent least-
 576 square means; error bars represent pooled standard error. Significant differences between
 577 feeding frequencies within a feeding rate are indicated by different letters; significant
 578 differences among feeding rates are indicated by different numbers of asterisks ($P <$
 579 0.05).

580 Carcass proximate composition was affected by feeding rate, but not by feeding
 581 frequency (Table 1). Spadefish fed at higher feeding rates accumulated more lipid within
 582 the body at the expense of moisture, protein, and ash content.
 583

Table 1. Carcass proximate composition of juvenile spadefish at the end of the feeding trial. Except moisture, all parameters are reported as percent of dry matter basis (%). Least-square means \pm SE are shown for each treatment factor combination in normal text; means across diet and stress exposure replacement factors are shown in italics. *P*-values for each response parameter and their interaction are also provided. For response parameters exhibiting significant factor effects, means without common superscripts are significantly different ($P < 0.05$).

Parameter	Feeding Frequency (times / day)	Feeding rate: %BW / day			<i>Means</i>	<i>P</i> -values		
		3	5	7		Rate	Frequenc y	Interactio n
Moisture	1×	76.4 0.9	\pm 73.2 0.9	\pm 70.5 0.9	\pm 73.4	0.001	0.104	0.222
	3×	73.9 0.9	\pm 73.6 0.9	\pm 68.9 0.9	\pm 72.2			
	<i>Means</i>	<i>75.1 a</i>	<i>73.4 a</i>	<i>69.7 b</i>				
Lipid	1×	10.6 1.1	\pm 19.9 1.1	\pm 25.7 1.1	\pm 18.7	<0.001	0.066	0.061
	3×	12.9 1.1	\pm 18.6 1.1	\pm 29.2 1.1	\pm 20.2			
	<i>Means</i>	<i>11.7 c</i>	<i>19.3 b</i>	<i>27.4 a</i>				
Protein	1×	69.0 1.1	\pm 63.2 1.1	\pm 56.6 1.1	\pm 62.9	<0.001	0.074	0.385
	3×	65.7 1.1	\pm 63.1 1.1	\pm 54.7 1.1	\pm 63.1			
	<i>Means</i>	<i>67.3 a</i>	<i>63.1 b</i>	<i>55.7 c</i>				
Ash	1×	17.8 0.5	\pm 14.0 0.5	\pm 12.0 0.5	\pm 14.6	<0.001	0.076	0.217
	3×	16.7 0.5	\pm 14.3 0.5	\pm 10.5 0.5	\pm 13.8			
	<i>Means</i>	<i>17.2 a</i>	<i>14.1 b</i>	<i>11.2 c</i>				

584

585 4. Discussion

586 Naturally, feeding rate affects the growth of fishes: increasing feeding rate
 587 increases the availability of resources (amino acids, structural lipids, energy, etc.) for

588 growth, and weight gain is typically greater among fish at higher feeding rates. However,
589 if any of the required elements for somatic growth become limiting (e.g., certain amino
590 acids or phospholipids) or if nutrient intake simply exceeds that which can be used
591 according to the maximum intrinsic growth rate of the fish, surplus resources will be lost
592 via increased fecal losses or stored as glycogen or neutral lipid deposits within the
593 hepatic, muscular, and adipose tissues (Jobling 1994). In turn, carcass levels of energy
594 storage products and FCR will increase over time. Our data illustrates this pattern quite
595 clearly: regardless of feeding frequency, Atlantic spadefish that are fed at higher rates
596 gain more weight, but growth efficiency is reduced at 7% BW / day and the composition
597 of the gain is increasingly skewed towards greater adiposity. Similarly, cuneate drum
598 *Nibea miichthioides* fed 1-6% BW / day grew more at the highest feeding rates, but grew
599 less efficiently, had a reduced nitrogen retention efficiency, and accumulated higher
600 carcass lipid levels (Wang et al. 2007). Comparable results have also been reported for
601 gilthead seabream *Sparus aurata* (Mihelakakis et al. 2002), Chinese sucker *Myxocyprinus*
602 *asiaticus* (Yuan et al. 2010), rainbow trout *Oncorhynchus mykiss* (Reinitz 1983;
603 Storebakken et al. 1991), white sturgeon *Acipenser transmontanus* (Hung et al. 1993),
604 grass carp *Ctenopharyngodon idella* (Du et al. 2006), and flounder *Paralichthys*
605 *olivaceus* (Kim et al. 2007). Given the wide range of taxa for which this phenomenon is
606 reported, perhaps this pattern is exhibited by all fishes including Atlantic spadefish.
607 Focusing on the effect of feeding rate exclusively, our data suggest Atlantic spadefish
608 should be fed at 5-7% BW / day to maximize growth, but lean growth may be more
609 efficient at the lower end of this range.
610

611 Feeding rate has a strong effect on the growth performance of fishes, but feeding
612 frequency has been shown to independently and interactively influence the growth and
613 growth efficiency as well. When fish are fed to apparent satiety, increasing the frequency
614 of feeding events tends to increase total feed intake up to a threshold determined, perhaps
615 in part, by gastrointestinal evacuation rate (Jobling 1994). As a result, feeding rate is
616 effectively increased and growth is enhanced, though as mentioned above, growth
617 efficiency may be somewhat reduced at very high feed intake rates. This phenomenon
618 has been demonstrated in yellowtail flounder (Dwyer et al. 2002), cuneate drum (Wang et
619 al. 2007), channel catfish *Ictalurus punctatus* (Peterson and Small 2006), black sea trout
620 *Salmo trutta labrax* (Başçınar et al. 2007), Korean rockfish *Sebastes schlegeli* (Lee et al.
621 2000), great sturgeon *Huso huso* (Mohseni et al. 2006), hybrid sunfish (female green
622 sunfish *Lepomis cyanellus* × male bluegill *L. macrochirus*; Wang et al. 1998), cuneate
623 drum (Wang et al. 2007), and pikeperch *Sander lucioperca* (Wang et al. 2009). When fish
624 are fed at a fixed feeding rate, increasing feeding frequency still tends to improve growth
625 to a point, but the magnitude of the effect is diminished and is likely the result of
626 moderate improvements in conversion efficiency associated with gastrointestinal
627 adaptation to more consistent, but lower instantaneous ‘gut fill’ (Jobling 1982; Peterson
628 and Small 2006). For example, Asian seabass *Lates calcarifer* gained more weight and
629 grew more efficiently when fed the same ration in 3 daily feedings compared to 1 or 2
630 feedings, but feeding 4× daily failed to increase growth further and resulted in an elevated
631 FCR (Biswas et al. 2010); largely consistent results were also reported for this species by
632 Salawa (2008). Similar responses to increasing feeding frequencies have been reported
633 for ayu *Plecoglossus altivelis* (Cho et al. 2003), Australian snapper *Pagrus auratus*

634 (Tucker et al. 2006), and red-spotted grouper *Epinephelus akaara* (Kayano et al. 1993).
635 Our results are broadly consistent with literature: although differences were not
636 significant in all cases, regardless of feeding rate, Atlantic spadefish fed 3× daily grew
637 more and more efficiently than those fed 1× daily. Although a significant difference in
638 feed intake was observed within the 7% BW treatment, the magnitude of the difference
639 was relatively small, and is likely an artifact arising from the differences in body weight
640 observed for these two treatments which grew more marked over time. Based on our
641 data, it would seem that a 3× daily feeding rate would be advantageous for Atlantic
642 spadefish, regardless of feeding rate.

643 We observed significant interaction between feeding rate and frequency in terms
644 of weight gain which suggests that the performance enhancing effects of higher feeding
645 frequencies are more pronounced among fish fed higher rates (a significant interaction
646 effect was also observed for feed intake, but as mentioned above, this is likely an artifact
647 of the differences in weight gain). Fewer studies have simultaneously evaluated the
648 effects of different feeding rates and frequencies, and the literature is somewhat divided
649 among species. Similar to what we observed in Atlantic spadefish, tambaqui *Colossoma*
650 *macropomum* performed better when fed more frequently at 10% BW / day, but these
651 effects were not observed when feeding 5% BW / day (Silva et al. 2007). Conversely,
652 increasing feeding frequency in ayu beyond 1× daily did not improve performance of fish
653 fed 3% or 6% BW / day (Cho et al. 2003). Despite these conflicting results, given the
654 negative effect of excessively high feed intake on growth efficiency via greater fecal
655 losses (in the absence of adequate gastrointestinal adaptation to compensate for larger
656 meal sizes), it is logical to hypothesize that dividing high intake into multiple feeding

657 events would improve efficiency and yield greater weight gain. Increasing feeding
658 frequency among fish fed at high feeding rates may also be beneficial in the sense that it
659 would the duration of each feeding event, and thus the possibility of feeding
660 inefficiencies due to pellets sinking or being flushed from the system before they could
661 be consumed. Certainly, behavioral interactions such as social dominance play a role in
662 feeding efficiency and feed intake in fishes (Jobling 1994), but for species such as
663 Atlantic spadefish that do not appear to exhibit strong social hierarchies and competitive
664 feeding behaviors in intensive culture, increasing feeding frequencies may be beneficial
665 in terms of digestive/absorptive efficiencies and growth performance, particularly at high
666 feeding rates. Taking this and the rest of our results into consideration, we suggest that
667 the growth performance of Atlantic spadefish may be optimized when fed at 5-7% BW /
668 day in 3 daily feedings, with 7% BW / day yielding the greatest, albeit slightly less
669 efficient, growth.

670

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679

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- 824

825 **6. CONCLUSÕES**

826 Os resultados do presente estudo mostram que o manejo alimentar do peixe
827 enxada *Chaetodipterus faber* criado em sistema intensivo de recirculação, pode ser
828 otimizado quando a alimentação é ofertada com 5-7% da biomassa/dia em 3 alimentações
829 diárias, com 7% da biomassa/dia há um crescimento maior, embora menos eficiente.