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Larval rearing and ontogeny of digestive enzyme activities in yellowfin 1
seabream (*Acanthopagrus latus*, Houttuyn 1782) 2

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Running title: Ontogeny of digestive enzymes in yellowfin seabream larvae 15

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Abstract 24

The present research was conducted to provide insight into digestive larval capacity in *Acanthopagrus latus* larvae from hatching up to 30 days after hatching (DAH). Newly hatched larvae were stocked into six 300-L cylindrical polyethylene tanks at a density of larvae 50 larvae/L and reared by means of the green water system using *Nannochloropsis oculata* (0.5×10^6 /mL). After mouth opening, larvae were fed with rotifers (5-16 individual/mL) from 2 to 20 DAH; then, *Artemia* nauplii (0.5-3.0 individuals/mL) were offered to larvae from 18 to 30 DAH, meanwhile a commercial microdiet was offered to larvae from 25 to 30 DAH. Larval performance in terms of growth and survival, and the assessment of the activity of selected digestive enzymes ontogeny of digestive enzymes activities was evaluated in larvae sampled at 0 (hatching), 7, 15, 22 and 30 DAH. Larvae showed an exponential growth characterized by two different growth stanzas, a first one characterized by slow growth rates comprised between hatching to 15 DAH (4.7 ± 0.2 mm), followed by a period of faster growth rates between 16 to 30 DAH (7.5 ± 0.6 mm). The activities of the brush border (alkaline phosphatase, ALP) and cytosolic (leucine-alanine peptidase, LAP) enzymes, as well as those of the pancreatic ones like total alkaline proteases, bile salt-activated lipase and α -amylase were detected from the mouth opening stage. Total activities of pancreatic and gastric enzymes increased with larval growth showing an enhancement of digestive capacities with larval age and size. The intestinal maturation in *A. latus* as assessed by the ratio of AP to LAP did not occur as expected by end of the first month of life suggesting the complete establishment of digestive luminal processes may take place at older ages. This study related to the growth patterns and ontogenic changes in activity of pancreatic, gastric and intestinal enzymes in *A. latus* and their nutritional regulation may be considered as the first step for improving the larviculture, as well as assessing and refining the nutritional requirements during the larval and early juvenile stages of this sparid species.

Keywords: Alkaline phosphatase, cytosolic enzymes, marine fish larvae, pancreatic enzymes, pepsin, yellowfin seabream.

1. Introduction 54

Larviculture of marine fish species is considered as the main bottleneck for their successful 55
propagation due to the low larval survival rates (Gisbert et al., 2008; Mai et al., 2005; 56
Morioka et al., 2010; Rotenstein et al., 2009). There are several critical periods during the 57
development of marine fish larvae. For example, the transition from endogenous to 58
exogenous feeding at early larval development, as well as weaning from live food to 59
compound feeds are considered two of the main critical periods of fish larviculture, which 60
may result in mass mortality or cause deformities as a consequence of nutritional deficiencies 61
or unsuitable zootechnical rearing conditions (Hamre et al., 2013). Furthermore, it has been 62
proved that the production of high-quality marine fish larvae largely depends on their 63
nutritional condition (Alvarez-González et al., 2010). Thus, the knowledge of ontogeny and 64
development of the gastrointestinal tract of a new candidate species for aquaculture can 65
provide valuable data about its digestion capacity, nutritional requirements and recognition of 66
an appropriate time for proper nutrition and weaning strategies (Gisbert et al., 2008; 2009). 67
This information can also be applied for the formulation of microdiets according to the 68
nutritional needs and digestive capacity of marine fish larvae as well as for establishing 69
feeding protocols that eventually improve larval mass production in hatcheries (Kolkovski, 70
2001; Faulk et al., 2007; Hamre et al., 2013). Regardless of species-specific differences in 71
terms of biological and ecological guilds, a plethora of studies focused on studying larval 72
digestive physiology have indicated a similar pattern with regard to changes of digestive 73
enzyme activities during their early larval stages and their dietary modulation (Rønnestad et 74
al., 2013; Yúfera et al., 2018). Generally, at early life stages, pancreatic enzymes and 75
especially alkaline proteases (*e.g.* trypsin and chymotrypsin) produced by the exocrine 76
pancreas along with cytosolic enzymes (*e.g.* leucine-alanine peptidase) in enterocytes are the 77
main proteolytic enzymes involved in protein digestion due to the lack of a functional 78
stomach (Zambonino-Infante & Cahu 2001; Rønnestad et al., 2013). In addition, the brush 79

border (BB) membrane of enterocytes develops during larval ontogeny, which enhances the 80
activities of BB-associated enzymes (*e.g.* alkaline phosphatase, aminopeptidase-N and 81
maltase) (Zambonino-Infante and Cahu, 2001). Towards larval metamorphosis, the stomach 82
becomes functional and acid digestion increases larval capability to digest more complex 83
proteins (Zambonino-Infante and Cahu, 2001, Rønnestad et al., 2013; Yúfera et al., 2018). 84
This change in digestive mechanism has been empirically considered the proper time for 85
weaning early juveniles onto dry microdiets, since it is associated to digestive maturation). 86
Yellowfin seabream (*Acanthopagrus latus*) is an important carnivorous sparid species from 87
the coasts of Japan, southern Korea, Taiwan, China, northern Vietnam and the Indo-West 88
Pacific Ocean. This species has several characteristics that makes it a preferable candidate for 89
mariculture such as spawning in captivity, wide tolerance to rearing conditions, especially 90
high water temperatures, reasonable growth rate and good feed conversion ratio (Karimi et 91
al., 2013). The dietary macronutrients (*i.e.* energy, protein, lipid, carbohydrate, protein to 92
energy and lipid to carbohydrate ratios) requirements also determined and reported for grow- 93
out phase of this species (Mozanzadeh et al., 2017). However, the mass production of 94
yellowfin seabream fry still has some bottlenecks such as low survival rates and cannibalistic 95
behavior during larval stages, which jeopardizes the expansion of its commercial production. 96
Feeding practices of *A. latus* larviculture is mainly based on the use conventional live preys, 97
including rotifers and *Artemia* nauplii and metanauplii. However, the nutritional composition 98
of live food can vary and it may not meet all nutritional requirements of larvae due to some 99
deficiencies on important nutrients like long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids, phospholipids, 100
water-soluble nutrients, vitamins, trace elements and free amino acids (Hamre et al., 2013). 101
Thus, the enrichment of live preys is necessary for meeting larval nutritional requirements 102
(Kandathil Radhakrishnan et al., 2020). Previous studies demonstrated anatomical changes 103
during larval stages of *A. latus* (Akazaki and Tokito, 1982; Abol-Munafi and Umeda, 1993; 104

Sarvi et al., 2019) conducted basic studies on the differentiation of the gastrointestinal tract of the *A. latus* by histological and microscopic studies; that, their result with our study about digestive enzymes provide good results in the field of larval rearing of this fish. In this sense, the knowledge of changes in digestive enzyme activities and morphological development of the alimentary tract along larval ontogeny is of importance. Therefore, the present study aimed to determine the ontogeny of several digestive enzymes in *A. latus* from hatching to 30 days after hatching (DAH) reared at 23 °C.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Rearing conditions

The present research was carried out at the laboratory of the Aquatic Research, Persian Gulf University, Bushehr, Iran. Larvae used in the present study were obtained from a group of wild-caught *A. latus* broodfish (n = 14 males, average body weight = 0.25 kg; n = 28 females, average body weight = 0.45 kg) that were stocked in a 4000-L circular fiberglass tank in a flow-through system (5 L/min), supplied sand-filtered, chlorinated and UV-treated seawater. Water temperature was 20°C and the photoperiod was set up at 12 h light (L): 12 h dark (D). Broodfish were fed with chopped squid and fish meat every day. Fish naturally spawned (February, 2018) and floating eggs were collected with a funnel net (200 µm). Fertilized eggs were transferred into 300-L cylindroconical polyethylene tanks filled with 220 L of seawater at a density of 100 eggs/L. Incubation tanks were equipped with air stones for providing gentle aeration during the incubation period. The percentage of egg fertilization and hatching rates were *ca.* 70 and 85%, respectively. After 36 h, newly hatched larvae were stocked into six 300-L cylindrical polyethylene tanks that filled with 100 L of seawater. The initial density of larvae was 50 larvae/L, and the number of larvae in each replicate (tank) was about 5,000.

The green water system was used for *A. latus* larviculture by daily addition of microalgae (*Nannochloropsis oculata*, $0.5 \times 10^6/\text{mL}$) into water. After mouth opening at 2 days after hatching (DAH) until 20 DAH, larvae were fed with rotifer (*Brachionus rotundiformis*) at increasing densities (5-10 rotifers/mL from 2 to 10 DAH and 10-16 rotifers/mL from 11 to 20 DAH). *Artemia* nauplii (*Artemia franciscana*) were offered to larvae from 18 to 30 DAH at a density of 0.5-3.0 individuals/mL, meanwhile formulated diet was offered to larvae from 25 to 30 DAH (GemmaMicro[®], Skretting; Netherlands, particle size: 200–300 μm . Rpximate composition: 55% crude proteins, 15% crude lipids, 13.5% ash and 5% fiber) was supplied until the end of experiment. Water exchange in the rearing tanks began at 7 DAH and gradually increased (*ca.* 10% in each day) up to the end of the husbandry trial (*ca.* 100% in each day). The bottom of rearing the tanks was siphoned daily from 7 DAH to remove dead larvae and wastes. Water temperature (23.0 ± 1.0 °C), dissolved oxygen (6.8 ± 0.5 mg/L), pH (7.9 ± 0.2) and salinity (40.0 ± 1.0 ppt) were measured two times daily along the trial.

2.2. Sampling

For evaluating changes in digestive enzyme activities along larval ontogeny, larvae were randomly sampled from the rearing tanks at 0 (hatching), 7, 15, 22 and 30 DAH. Sampling took place in the early morning before the addition of live prey into the tanks in order to minimize the potential effects of exogenous enzymes from undigested prey in larval fish gut. Different quantities of larvae, from 1,000 larvae at hatching to 20 individuals at 30 DAH (number of samples specimens needed for reaching a minimum body mass of 150-200 mg for biochemical enzyme quantification), were collected with a net (100 μm of mesh size). Larvae were then euthanized with 2-phenoxyethanol (300 ppm), rinsed with distilled water and kept in a -80 °C for further analyses. Additionally, for evaluating growth performance in terms of total length (TL) and wet weight (WW), 20 larvae of each tank were caught at 0 (hatching), 7,

15, 22 and 30 DAH, anaesthetized with 2-phenoxyethanol and fixed in 4% neutral buffered 154
formalin. Total length was measured by a stereomicroscope (Leica, M50, Bloomington, 155
United States) equipped with a versatile digital microscope camera (Dino-Lite, AM4113T- 156
1.3MP, Almere, Netherland), followed by DinoCapture 2.0 software (version 1.4.5.B) using 157
an image analyzing system with 0.001 mm precision. Larval WW were determined with a 158
digital balance (Sartorius, Gottingen, Germany; precision of 0.01 mg). Larval specific growth 159
rate (SGR) and survival rate were calculated using the following standard equations: SGR (% 160
WW/day) = $[(\ln \text{ final WW} - \ln \text{ initial WW})/30] \times 100$, survival (%) = $[(\text{number of larvae at}$ 161
 $30 \text{ DAH} - \text{number of sampled larvae})/\text{initial number of larvae}] \times 100$. 162

2.3. *Quantification of digestive enzyme activities* 164

For the determination of digestive enzyme activities, the whole body of larvae younger than 165
30 DAH was completely homogenized, but the gut of larvae aged 30 DAH was dissected on a 166
precooled glass plate maintained at 0-4 °C. Samples were homogenized for 30s in 30 167
volumes (v/w) of ice-cold Tris-Mannitol buffer (50 mM Mannitol, 2 mM Tris-HCl; pH 7.5). 168
After homogenization, 0.1 M CaCl₂ was added to the homogenate and the extract was 169
subjected to sonication for 60 s. The homogenized samples were centrifuged at 9,000 x g (10 170
min at 4 °C) and the supernatant was extracted. One mL of the supernatant was used for 171
quantification of pancreatic enzymes. Then, the supernatant was centrifuged at 34,000 x g (30 172
min at 4 °C) and the pellet, containing the brush border (BB) of enterocytes, was re- 173
suspended in 1 mL of buffer (0.1 M KCl, 5mM Tris-Hepes, 1mM DTT; pH 7.5) and kept at 174
-80 °C (Gisbert et al., 2018). Total alkaline proteases (TAP) were assayed according to 175
García-Carreño and Haard (1993) using azo-casein (catalogue number, CN: A2765; Sigma- 176
Aldrich, Spain) as substrate and 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 9.0) as buffer. In brief, 20 µL of 177
enzyme extract was incubated with 500 µL substrate for 10 min at 25 °C, the reaction was 178

stopped with 500 μ L 20% TCA (trichloroacetic acid) and centrifuged at 10,000 \times g for 5 min 179
and absorbance of the supernatant was measured at $\lambda = 366$ nm. Leucine-alanine peptidase 180
(LAP) was performed using leucine-alanine (CN: L9250, Sigma-Aldrich) as substrate in 181
50mM Tris-HCl buffer (pH 8.0); one unit of enzyme activity (U) was defined as 1 nmol of 182
the hydrolyzed substrate per min and ml of homogenate at 25 $^{\circ}$ C and measured at $\lambda = 530$ nm 183
(Nicholson and Kim, 1975). Alkaline phosphatase (AP) activity was quantified using PNPP 184
(4-nitrophenyl phosphate; CN: 34045, Thermo ScientificTM, Spain) as substrate in 30mM 185
Na₂CO₃ buffer (pH 9.8); one unit of enzyme activity (U) was defined as 1 μ g nitrophenol 186
released per min and ml of BB homogenate at 25 $^{\circ}$ C and measured at $\lambda = 407$ nm (Bessey et 187
al., 1946). Activity of total acid proteases activity was determined using hemoglobin (CN: 188
H4131, Sigma-Aldrich) as substrate (Worthington, 1991). In brief, the extract was mixed 189
with the substrate (2% hemoglobin solution in 0.3 N HCl, pH 2.0) and incubated for 10 min. 190
The reaction was stopped with 5% trichloroacetic acid and assay tubes were centrifuged at 191
4,000 \times g for 6 min at 4 $^{\circ}$ C. The absorbance of the supernatant was read at $\lambda = 280$ nm. One 192
unit of pepsin was defined as the μ g of tyrosine released at 25 $^{\circ}$ C per min and mL. The 193
activity of bile salt-activated lipase was measured using 4 p-nitrophenyl myristate (CN: 194
70124, Sigma-Aldrich) as substrate dissolved in 0.25mM Tris-HCl (pH 9.0), 0.25mM 2- 195
methoxyethanol and 5mM sodium cholate buffer. The reaction was stopped with a mixture of 196
acetone:n-heptane (5:2), the extract centrifuged (6,080 \times g , 2 min at 4 $^{\circ}$ C) and the absorbance 197
of the supernatant read at room temperature at $\lambda = 405$ nm (Ijima et al., 1995). Bile salt- 198
activated lipase activity was defined as the μ mol of substrate hydrolyzed per min and mL of 199
homogenate. The activity of α -amylase activity was evaluated at $\lambda = 580$ nm using soluble 200
starch (0.3%) (CN: 03967, Sigma-Aldrich) dissolved in Na₂HPO₄ buffer (pH 7.4) as substrate 201
(Metais and Bieth, 1968), and its activity was defined as the mg of starch hydrolyzed during 202
30 min per mL of homogenate at 25 $^{\circ}$ C. All spectrophotometric analyses were performed as 203

recommended by Solovyev and Gisbert (2016) in order to prevent sample deterioration. 204
Enzymatic activities were measured using a microplate scanning spectrophotometer (Synergy 205
HT, Bio-Tech, Germany) and expressed as specific (U/mg protein) and total (U/larva) 206
enzyme activities. Soluble protein in enzyme extracts was quantified using the Bradford 207
method using bovine serum albumin as a standard (Bradford, 1976). All the assays were 208
made in triplicate (methodological replicates). 209

2.4. Statistics 211

In this study, all the data are presented as means \pm standard error of the mean calculated from 212
six replicates ($n = 6$). Changes in activity of digestive enzymes along larval development 213
were assessed by means of a one-way ANOVA after confirming the normality (Kolmogorov- 214
Smirnov test) and homogeneity of variance (Leven's test) of all data. When significant 215
differences were found between sampling times, the Tukey's post hoc test was run. The level 216
of significance considered was $P < 0.05$. All statistical methods were conducted using SPSS 217
ver.22.0 (IBM, USA). 218

3. Results 220

3.1. Growth 221

Growth of *A. latus* in WW and TL was exponential from hatching until 30 DAH, following 222
these regression equations: $WW = 0.1804 e^{0.1156 \text{ DAH}}$ ($R^2 = 0.99$) and $TL = 2.3536 e^{0.0416 \text{ DAH}}$ 223
($R^2 = 0.96$) (Fig. 1). Notably, the mean larval WW (mg) increased from 0.17 ± 0.02 mg 224
(newly hatched larvae) to 5.92 ± 0.3 mg (30 DAH) and the mean larval TL (mm) elevated 225
from 2.6 ± 0.04 mm (newly hatched larvae) to 7.46 ± 0.6 mm (30 DAH). As shown in Figure 226
1, growth in WW could be depicted into two phases; a first one comprised between hatching 227
(0.17 ± 0.00 mg) and 15 DAH (0.77 ± 0.21 mg) characterized by a progressive but slight 228

growth in WW, and a second phase characterized by marked increase in WW to the end of 229
the experiment at 30 DAH. The SGR and the survival rates were estimated at 11.8 ± 1.0 % 230
and 49.9 ± 0.4 %, respectively. 231

3.2. Digestive enzyme activities 232

The specific activity of TAP sharply increased from 33.23 ± 7.39 mU/mg protein to $625.83 \pm$ 233
 43.34 mU/mg protein at 7 DAH then it gradually decreased to 145.81 ± 6.39 mU/mg protein 234
at the end of the trial. The total activity of TAP was detected at hatching day (4.31 ± 0.21 235
 μ U/larvae) and it gradually increased to 7 DAH (44.74 ± 5.51 μ U/larvae) (Fig. 2a). Then, it 236
sharply elevated to 351.40 ± 8.38 μ U/larvae at 15 DAH and it continuously increased about 237
three times to $1,013.81 \pm 41.58$ μ U/larvae at the end of the trial ($P < 0.05$). 238

The specific activity of LAP elevated pronouncedly from the hatching day ($861.56 \pm$ 239
 25.78 U/mg protein) and to reach a maximum level at 7 DAH (3788.39 ± 673.33 U/mg 240
protein), then its activity sharply dropped at 30 DAH (702.19 ± 21.85 U/mg protein) ($P <$ 241
 0.05) (Fig. 2b). Total activity of LAP gradually increased from hatching day (114.48 ± 15.80 242
mU/larvae) to 7 DAH (259.83 ± 4.75 mU/larvae), then its activity sharply elevated from 243
 1737.66 ± 14.74 mU/larvae at 15 DAH to 4882.66 ± 138.13 mU/larvae at 30 DAH ($P <$ 244
 0.05). 245

Regarding intestinal enzymes, the specific activity of AP was detected at hatching day 246
(0.14 ± 0.05 U/mg protein; 2.6 ± 0.04 mm TL) and its activity sharply increased up to 7 DAH 247
(3.51 ± 0.1 mm TL) when it reached a maximum value of 0.88 ± 0.16 U/mg protein ($P <$ 248
 0.05). Afterwards, the specific activity of AP decreased to the minimum level (0.01 ± 0.00 249
U/mg protein) at 30 DAH (7.46 ± 0.6 mm TL) (Fig. 2c). Total activity of AP gradually 250
increased from (0.75 ± 0.00 μ U/larvae) in newly hatched larvae to 7 DAH (15.96 ± 2.71 μ U/ 251
larvae) ($P < 0.05$), then its activity sharply peaked at 15 DAH (4.72 ± 0.2 mm TL) ($92.66 \pm$ 252
 17.51 μ U/larvae). From 15 DAH to the end of the experiment total activity of AP remarkably 253

decreased to $57.29 \pm 16.23 \mu\text{U/larvae}$ and $24.18 \pm 0.89 \mu\text{U/larvae}$ at 22 ($6.12 \pm 0.3 \text{ mm TL}$) 254
and 30 DAH, respectively ($P < 0.05$). The ratio AP to LAP activities was low in newly 255
hatched larvae, then it pronouncedly increased at 7 DAH, but it gradually decreased up to 30 256
DAH (Fig. 2d). 257

The specific activity of acid proteases was detected at hatching day (0.15 ± 0.04 258
mU/mg protein) and it's dramatically increased at 7 DAH ($1.54 \pm 0.07 \text{ mU mg/ protein}$) (Fig. 259
2e). Afterward, the activity decreased sharply from 7 to 22 DAH ($0.16 \pm 0.06 \text{ mU}$ 260
mg/protein), then it increased again at 30 DAH ($0.28 \pm 0.03 \text{ mU mg/protein}$). Total activity 261
of acid proteases showed fluctuations with two peaks at 15 DAH ($1.04 \pm 0.16 \mu\text{U/larvae}$) and 262
30 DAH ($1.88 \pm 0.09 \mu\text{U/larvae}$). Its total activity increased from hatching day (0.02 ± 0.008 263
 $\mu\text{U/larvae}$) up to 15 DHA, then it gradually decreased at 22 DHA ($0.25 \pm 0.01 \mu\text{U/larvae}$) and 264
pronouncedly increased again at 30 DAH ($P < 0.05$). 265

The specific activity of bile-salt dependent lipase was detected from hatching day 266
($0.21 \pm 0.01 \text{ U/mg protein}$) and showed a bimodal shape in activity with two peaks at 7 DAH 267
($3.10 \pm 1.3 \text{ U/mg protein}$) and 22 DAH ($2.06 \pm 0.20 \text{ U/mg protein}$) and finally dropped to 268
 $0.66 \pm 0.18 \text{ U/mg protein}$ at 30 DAH ($P < 0.05$) (Fig. 2f). However, these patterns were not 269
statistically significant when expressed in terms of specific activity. Total activity of bile-salt 270
dependent lipase increased from 0.02 ± 0.00 (mU/larvae) in newly hatched larvae to $1.32 \pm$ 271
 0.46 mU/larvae at 15 DAH, then it decreased to $0.74 \pm 0.09 \text{ mU/larvae}$ at 22 DAH and at the 272
end of the experiment it remarkably increased to $3.81 \pm 0.26 \text{ mU/larvae}$ at 30 DAH ($P <$ 273
 0.05). 274

The specific activity of α -amylase showed an increase from $7.42 \pm 1.04 \text{ U/mg protein}$ 275
at hatching day ($2.6 \pm 0.04 \text{ mm TL}$) to $71.62 \pm 23.78 \text{ U/mg protein}$ at 7 DAH ($3.51 \pm 0.1 \text{ mm}$ 276
TL) (Fig. 2g). Its activity strikingly decreased at 15 DAH ($4.72 \pm 0.2 \text{ mm TL}$) (21.37 ± 1.95 277
U/mg protein); then, it increased about two times at 22 DAH ($6.12 \pm 0.3 \text{ mm TL}$) ($44.88 \pm$ 278

4.79 U/mg protein), and eventually dropped to 20.48 ± 1.66 U/mg protein at 30 DAH (7.46 ± 279
0.6 mm TL). Total activity of α -amylase gradually increased from 0.95 ± 0.02 mU/larvae at 280
hatching day to 20.0 ± 1.82 mU/larvae at 15 DAH, then it pronouncedly increased to 72.78 ± 281
 10.02 and 142.56 ± 11.98 m U/larva at 22 and 30 DAH, respectively ($P < 0.05$). 282

4. Discussion 284

4.1. Growth and survival 285

Growth of *A. latus* larvae had a similar pattern of exponential growth as reported in other 286
sparid species such as common pandora (*Pagellus erythrinus*, Suzer et al., 2006), red 287
seabream (*Pagrus pagrus*, Suzer et al., 2007b), blackspot seabream (*Pagellus bogaraveo*, 288
Ribeiro et al., 2008), common dentex (*Dentex dentex*, Gisbert et al., 2009) and sobaity 289
seabream (*Sparidentex hasta*, Nazemroaya et al., 2015). Yellowfin seabream larvae showed 290
an initial smooth growth during the endo-exogenous feeding phase up to 15 DAH when 291
larvae were 4.72 ± 0.2 mm, which may be attributed to dedication of most of the energy 292
provided by the diet to the physiological development of larvae including the 293
splachnocranium (Sarvi et al., 2019) and the gastrointestinal and other biological systems 294
(Pittman et al., 2013), rather than somatic growth as it also reported in sobaity seabream 295
(Nazemroaya et al., 2015). On the other hand, the increased growth performance of *A. latus* 296
from 15 to 30 DAH was coincided with the flexion of the notochord occurring at 7 mm TL 297
(22 DAH) (Akazaki and Tokito, 1982), which may enhance larval swimming capacity, as 298
well as their foraging abilities (Osse and van den Boogaart, 1995). The above-mentioned 299
changes coupled to a more developed digestive system may favor the digestion and 300
absorption of dietary nutrients from live prey (Hamre et al., 2013). In addition, changes in the 301
feeding protocol and the replacement of rotifers by *Artemia* may have also been responsible 302
for such changes in larval growth performance, since *Artemia* nauplii have higher energy 303

content compared to rotifers (Darias et al., 2015). Higher concentrations of taurine in *Artemia* 304
compared to rotifers (Aragão et al., 2004) may also explain the high growth rates of larvae 305
observed from 15 to 30 DAH in comparison to earlier ages. In the present study, SGR values 306
in *A. latus* larvae (11.8%/day, at 23°C) were higher than those reported in some seabream 307
species (Suzer et al., 2007a; Guerreiro et al., 2010; Suzer et al., 2014), and similar to those 308
reported for sobaity seabream (11.1 ± 1.1 %/day at 20 °C, Nazemroaya et al., 2015). These 309
differences might be related to species-specific developmental patterns, and different larval 310
husbandry practices, and feeding regimes among studies. 311

Larval performance depends on multiple factors and variables, and each species 312
requires its own larviculture protocol; thus, in general terms, results may not be directly 313
comparable among different species. In the present study, survival rates of *A. latus* larvae was 314
ca. 49.9% by 30 DAH, values that were comparable to those recently reported by Sarvi et al. 315
(2019) in this species (43% at 42 DAH). These results found in *A. latus* larviculture are 316
comparatively higher than those reported in other sparid species such as common pandora 317
(*Pagellus erythrinus*, 21.2% by 40 DAH, Suzer et al., 2006), sharpsnout sea bream (21.7% by 318
50 DAH, Suzer et al., 2007a), white sea bream (6% by 48 DAH, Guerreiro et al., 2010), 319
common dentex (16.2% by 45 DAH, Suzer et al., 2014), sobaity seabream (18.2% by 42 320
DAH, Nazemroaya et al., 2015) and red seabream (30.1% by 40 DAH, Khoa et al., 2019). 321
These differences may be related to species-specific differences regarding larviculture 322
practices and live prey quality, as well as difference in broodfish management (Hamre et al., 323
2013). 324

4.2. Digestive enzyme activities 325

As previously reported in other marine carnivorous fish species, the activity of pancreatic and 326
intestinal digestive enzymes was already detected after hatching and before mouth opening in 327
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A. latus larvae, which supported the bulk of literature indicating that this phenomenon is genetically programmed (Zambonino-Infante et al., 2008). Except for bile salt-activated lipase, the activity of the other pancreatic digestive enzymes in *A. latus* exhibited a similar ontogenetic pattern of specific activity, each beginning with a low level in activity during the lecithotrophic stage and peaking at 7 DAH (3.51 ± 0.1 mm SL); then, it progressively decreased and remained stable between 15 DAH (4.72 ± 0.2 mm SL) and 30 DAH (7.46 ± 0.6 mm SL). In spite of some fluctuations in the specific activity of bile salt-activated lipase, this enzyme did not show significant differences along larval ontogeny. In the case of total alkaline proteases, specific activity values decreased after 7 DAH, remained stable between 15 DAH and 22 DAH (6.12 ± 0.3 mm SL), while their further decreased at 30 DAH. The above-mentioned trends in specific activity of pancreatic digestive enzymes may be associated to an increase in the amount of soluble proteins in tissue extracts due to larval somatic growth (Lazo et al., 2007). In this sense, larval digestive capacities progressively increased along larval development as data of enzyme activity expressed as total activity units (U/larva) indicated. A similar pattern of digestive enzyme activities was reported in other sparid species like common dentex (Gisbert et al., 2009), sobaity seabream (Nazemroaya et al., 2015), meagre (*Argyrosomus regius*, Solovyev et al., 2016b) and longfin yellowtail (*Seriola rivoliana*, Teles et al., 2019). Previous studies also demonstrated that newly hatched *A. latus* has undifferentiated alimentary tract and its important digestive organs including the intestine, stomach and accessory digestive glands (liver and pancreas) are differentiated at ca. 4 mm TL during the first week after hatching (Abol-Munafi and Umeda, 1993; Sarvi et al., 2019). In addition, the increment of digestive enzymes activities during the first week after hatching coincided with the first feeding that facilitates food digestion and nutrient absorption, promoting larval growth at older ages (Hamre et al., 2013).

During the early stages of larval development, protein digestion takes place in an alkaline environment in the intestinal lumen by the action of alkaline proteases produced by the exocrine pancreas, while the complete protein digestion is accomplished within enterocytes with the action of intestinal cytosolic peptidases such as LAP (Zambonino-Infante and Cahu, 2001). In particular, TAP activity was detected at hatching and it progressively increased along larval development when expressed in total activity units, a common pattern found among fish species, which is generally associated with the development of the exocrine pancreas, as well as changes in the diet (Rønnestad et al., 2013). When considering TAP activity expressed in specific units we could observe two different developmental time points, one at 7 DAH (3.51 ± 0.1 mm TL) characterized by a peak in specific activity that may be associated with the complete transition to exogenous feeding and the functional development of the exocrine pancreas, and another one at 30 (7.46 ± 0.6 mm SL) DAH characterized by a drop in specific activity. This reduction in specific activity at this age might be mainly attributed to development of the digestive system in *A. latus* larvae and the establishment of protein digestion with the cooperation of gastric (pepsin-like) and pancreatic alkaline proteases (Rønnestad et al., 2013).

In the present study, the specific activities of AP and LAP peaked at 7 DAH (3.51 ± 0.1 mm SL) coinciding with the rest of assayed pancreatic enzymes (TAP, α -amylase and bile salt-activated lipase), which indicated an important period in terms of digestive system morphogenesis and functionality (Zambonino-Infante et al. 2008; Rønnestad et al., 2013). However, changes in AP and LAP in terms of specific and total activities indicated that intestinal maturation as assessed by the ratio of AP to LAP did not occur as expected by end of the first month of life in *A. latus* coinciding with the increase in acid proteases. Thus, the maturational features of the intestine with regard to AP and LAP activities were not achieved by the end of the current study at 30 DAH (7.46 ± 0.6 mm SL), indicating that the complete

establishment of digestive luminal processes may take place at older ages in *A. latus*. In this sense, high activities of LAP were found at 30 DAH, which indicated that intracellular digestion was still important at this age.

Regarding acid proteases, these were already detected after hatching, which might be attributed to the presence of lysosomal proteases like cathepsins involved in the intracellular digestion of proteins (Zambonino-Infante et al., 2008). In agreement with the results of the present study, Guerreiro et al. (2010) detected acid proteases activity from hatching in white seabream and its activity increased with fish larvae development. In contrast, the detection of acid proteases mainly pepsin-like ones occurred at different developmental stages such as sharpsnout seabream at 32 DAH (8 mm SL) (Suzer et al., 2007a), common dentex at 19 DAH (5.1 mm SL) (Gisbert et al., 2009), sobaity seabream at 14 DAH (7 mm SL) (Nazemroaya et al., 2015) and red seabream at 10 DAH (4 mm SL) (Khoa et al., 2019). The slight but statistically significant increase in the specific activity of acid proteases found at 30 DAH (7.46 ± 0.6 SL) might be linked to a decrease in specific activity of TAP, suggesting a transition of the larval digestive process based on alkaline proteolytic enzymes to a juvenile mode of digestion with a relevant contribution of acid digestive enzymes. However, further validation at older ages (beyond 30 DAH) is required in order to use such patterns in digestive enzyme activities for refining feeding protocols (Rønnestad et al., 2013). Furthermore, present results are in agreement with histological data that described that the stomach in *A. latus* is fully differentiated between 25 and 35 DAH (Sarvi et al., 2019). In addition, considering that the evaluation of pepsin-like acid proteases is considered as a valuable biomarker to apply a proper larviculture strategy and also as an optimal point for larval weaning onto microdiets in fish hatcheries (Nolasco-Soria et al., 2020), present results indicate that *A. latus* may start to be weaned at 30 DAH (7.46 ± 0.6 mm SL) when reared at 23 °C.

Among lipolytic enzymes, bile salt-activated lipase is a key enzyme for fat digestion, 403
especially for hydrolyzing triacylglycerides, in addition to phospholipids, esters of 404
cholesterol, and lipid-soluble vitamins. Regardless of detecting this enzyme at hatching in *A.* 405
latus larvae in the present study, it is doubtful that this lipolytic enzyme participates in the 406
hydrolysis of lipids contained in yolk sac, since the exocrine pancreas is not fully 407
differentiated and functional at hatching in altricial marine species (Rønnestad et al., 2013). 408
These findings show that the spectrophotometric method used for measuring the total activity 409
of this pancreatic enzyme, whose total activity is enhanced by means of bile salts (sodium 410
cholate), is not specific (Nolasco-Soria et al., 2018), and it may also detect lipases 411
hydrolysing triglycerides and wax esters contained in the yolk (Heming and Buddington, 412
1988). Furthermore, significant changes in total bile salt-activated lipase along ontogeny 413
found in the present study could be associated with changes in the feeding protocol and 414
variations in lipid content in live preys, since this enzyme is regulated by lipid composition 415
(Morais et al., 2004). In particular, despite the incorporation of a commercial microdiet in the 416
feeding schedule from 25 to 30 DAH, such increase found in total activity of bile salt- 417
activated lipase between 22 and 30 DAH might be attributed to changes in lipid content of 418
live prey, since *Artemia* nauplii contain higher lipid levels compared to rotifers (Evjemo and 419
Olsen, 1997). 420

Regarding the activity profile of α -amylase, several studies have shown a close 421
relationship of this pancreatic enzyme with the ability to digest dietary carbohydrates, the 422
morphological changes in the digestive system during larval development and feeding habits 423
(Gisbert et al., 2009 among others). In the current study, α -amylase activity was detected at 424
hatching and two peaks in the specific α -amylase activity were observed at 7 and 22 DAH. 425
The first peak in specific activity found at 7 DAH may be related to the proper establishment 426
of exogenous feeding based on rotifers, whereas the second peak coincided with a diet shift 427

from rotifers to *Artemia* nauplii. Such increase in activity may be related to changes in the dietary carbohydrate levels between both preys, especially regarding their glycogen content (Ma et al., 2005; Gisbert et al., 2009). Although the early increase in α -amylase may be genetically programmed, its progressive increase with larval development when expressed in total activity units may be dietary induced. Similar results regarding changes in the activity of α -amylase with changes in the type of live prey have been reported in other marine fish species like large yellow croaker *Pseudociaena crocea* (Ma et al., 2005), totoaba *Totoaba macdonaldi* (Galaviz et al., 2015) and red seabream (Khoa et al., 2019).

Present results revealed that important physiological digestive developmental changes occurred during the first week of life in *A. latus*, which were in agreement with previous morphological and histological studies on this species (Abol-Munafi and Umeda, 1993; Sarvi et al., 2009), whereas the larval digestive function improved with age; nevertheless, the maturation of the intestine and the shift from the larval to the juvenile mode of digestion was not observed within the period studied (0-30 DAH), which indicated that this maturational process takes place at older ages in this species. Furthermore, this study related to the growth patterns and ontogenic changes in activity of pancreatic, gastric and intestinal enzymes in *A. latus* and their nutritional regulation under current rearing practices using the green water method may be considered as the first step for improving the larviculture, as well as assessing and refining the nutritional requirements during the larval and early juvenile stages of this sparid species.

Acknowledgments

This article is extracted from the project recorded under code number 95842262 and financially supported by Iran National Science Foundation. We are grateful to the director and staff of the Mariculture Research Station, Sarbandar, Iran and Persian Gulf Research

Institute, Persian Gulf University, Bushehr, Iran for providing the necessary facilities for the 453
experiment. We thank to the director and staff of IRTA for the grant and support for visiting 454
IRTA to learn the techniques and analyses the samples. Special thanks to Marta Sastre 455
(IRTA, Spain) for their technical help in measuring the activity of digestive enzymes. 456

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Ethical approval

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This study was carried out in accordance with the principle of the Basel Declaration and 459
recommendations of Iranian Fisheries Science Research Institute and the Faculty of 460
Veterinary Medicine at University of Tabriz, the FVM.REC.1396.939. 461

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Conflict of interest

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The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest. 464

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Figure captions

Fig. 1. Larval growth of *A. latus* in total length (mm) and wet body weight (mg) from 0 to 30 days after hatching (DAH). Results are presented as mean \pm standard error of the mean (N=6).

Fig. 2. Specific (mU mg⁻¹ protein) and total (mU larva⁻¹) activities of pancreatic (total alkaline proteases, a; bile salt-activated lipase, f; α -amylase, g), gastric (Acid protease, e) and intestinal (alkaline phosphatase, c; leucine alanine peptidase, b) enzymes and the alkaline phosphatase to leucine aminopeptidase ratio (d) during the larval development of *A. latus*. Results are expressed as mean \pm standard error of the mean (N=6).

Different letters indicate significant differences among different larval ages (ANOVA, $P < 0.05$).

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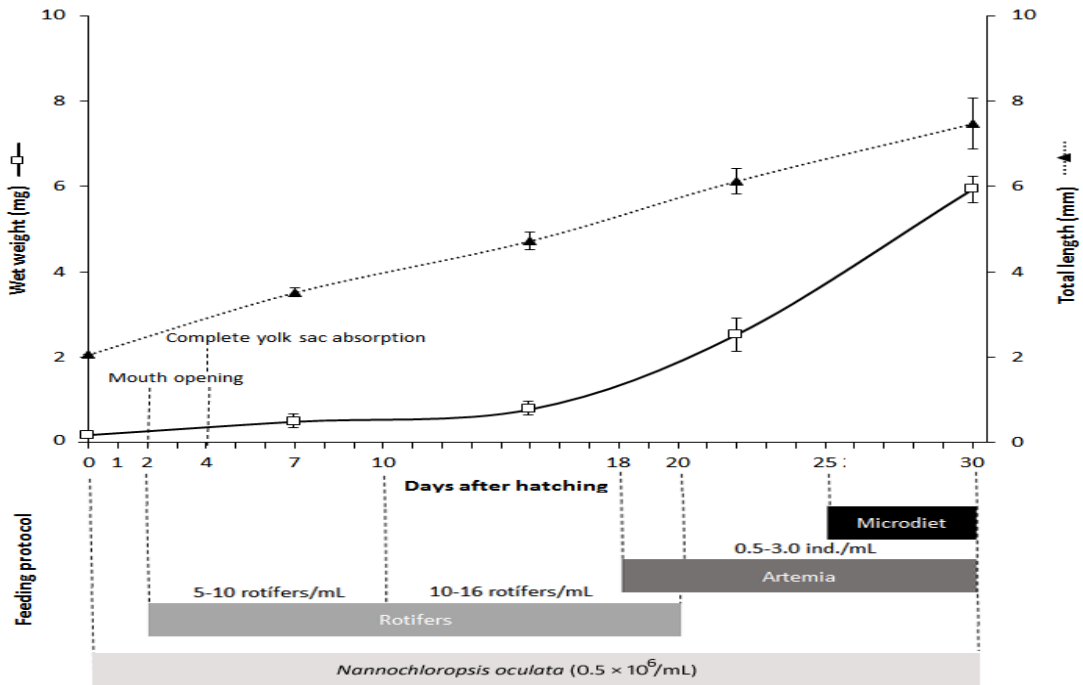
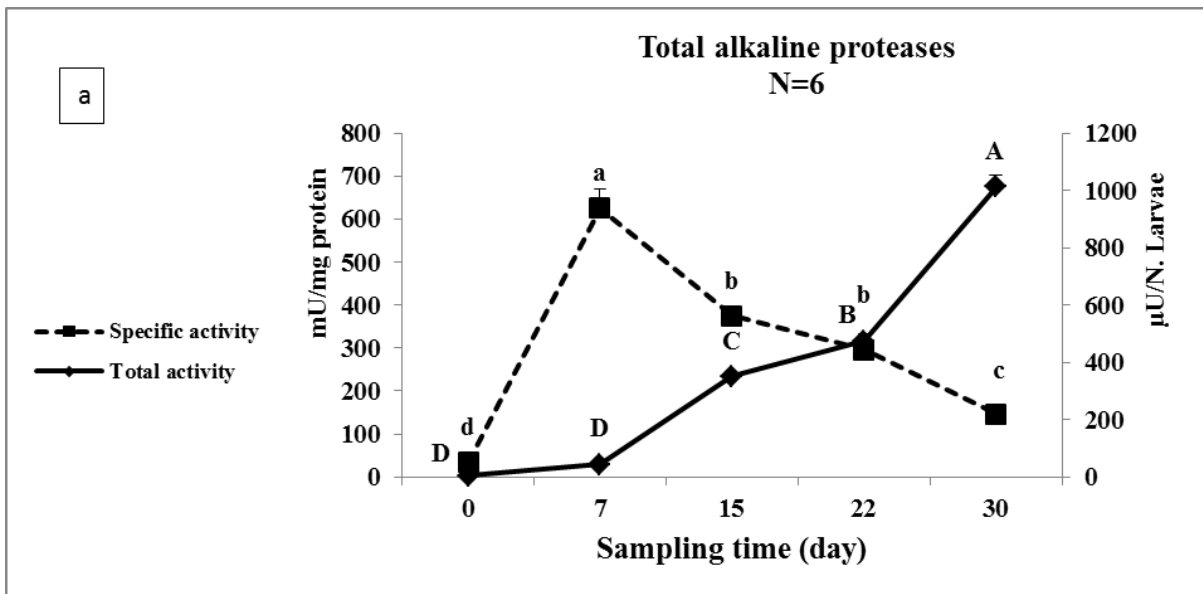


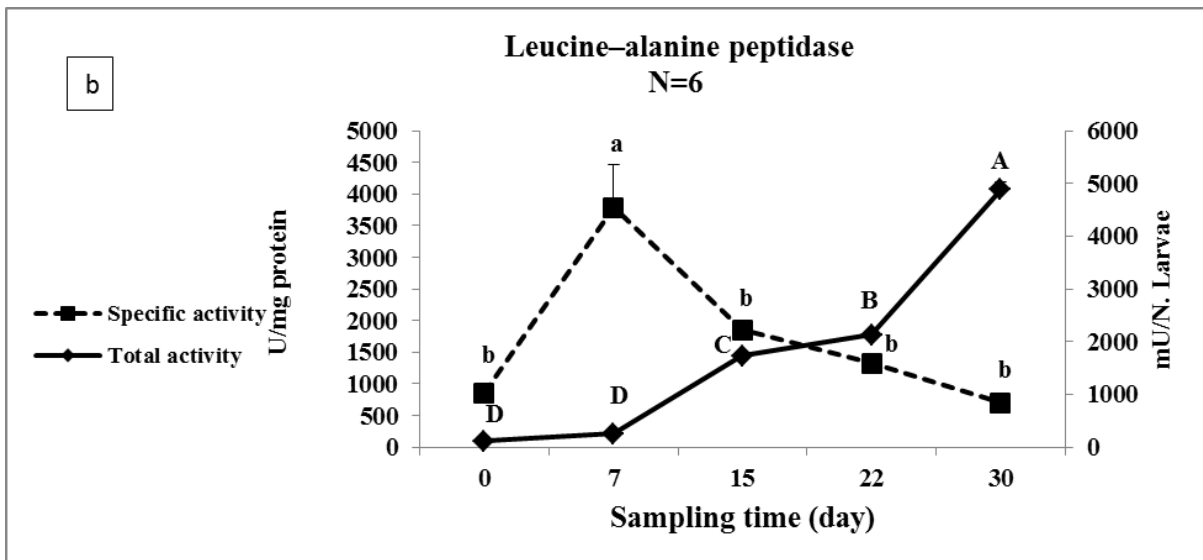
Figure 1

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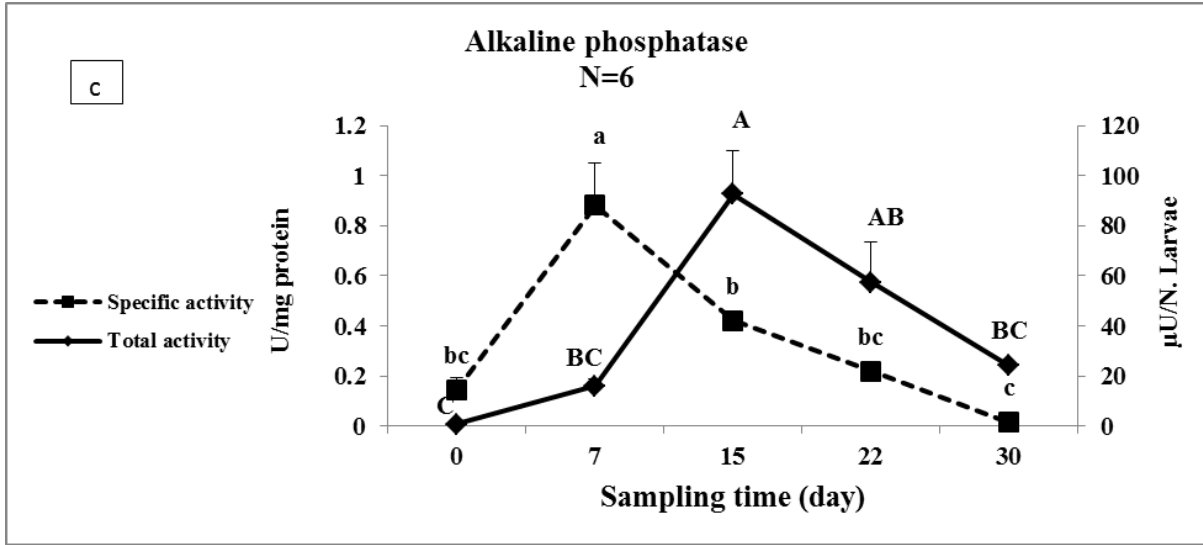


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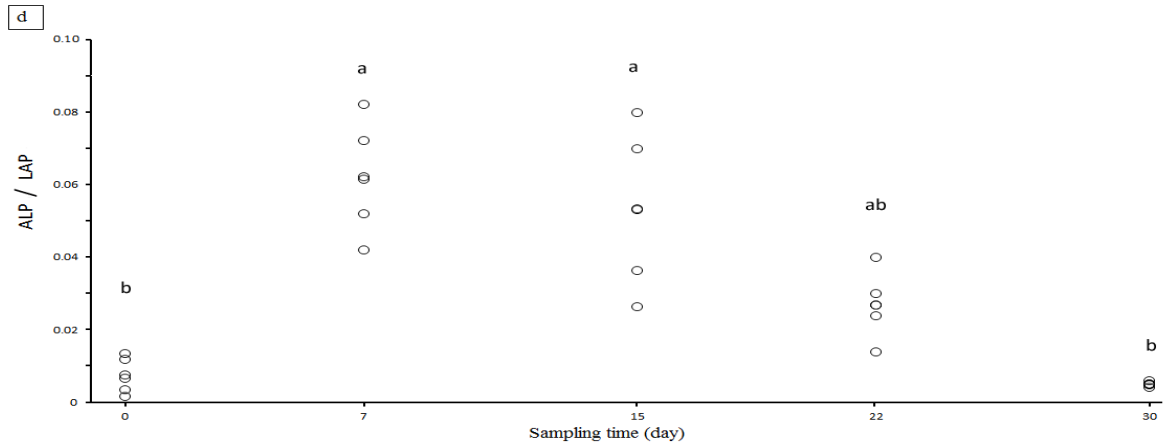


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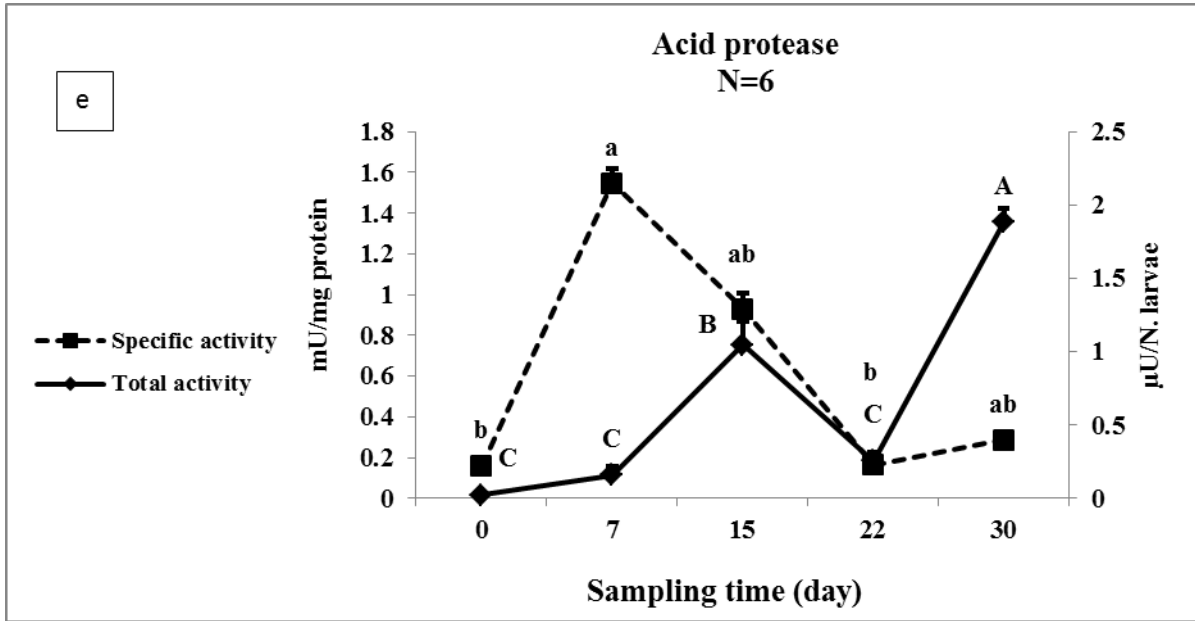
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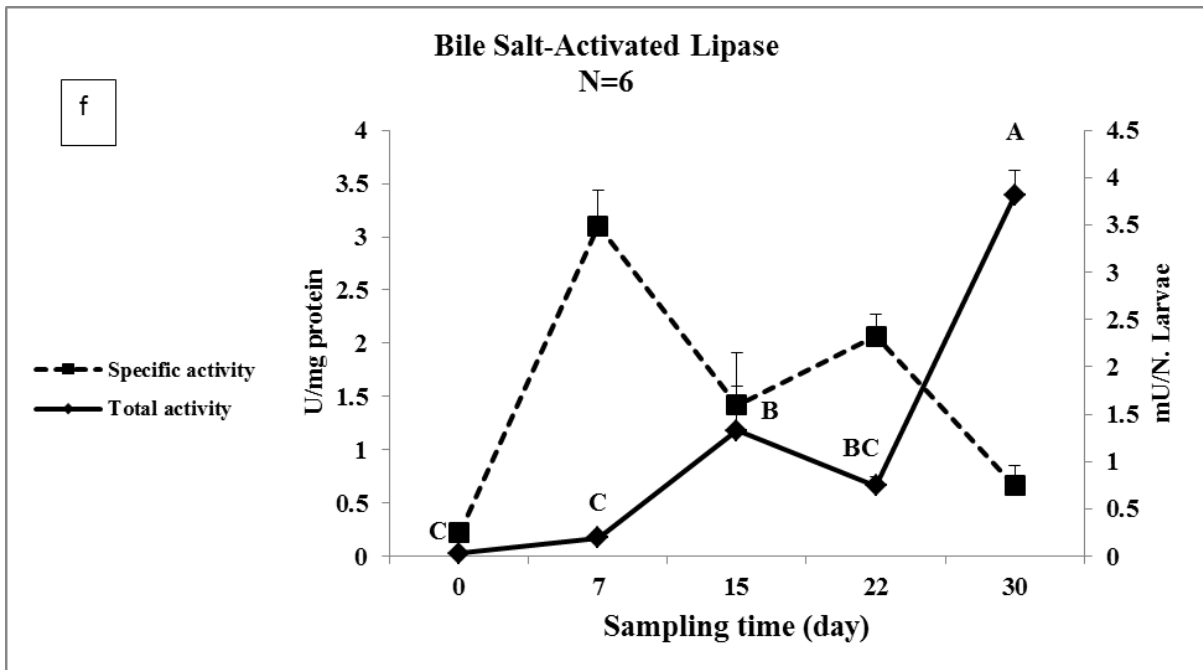
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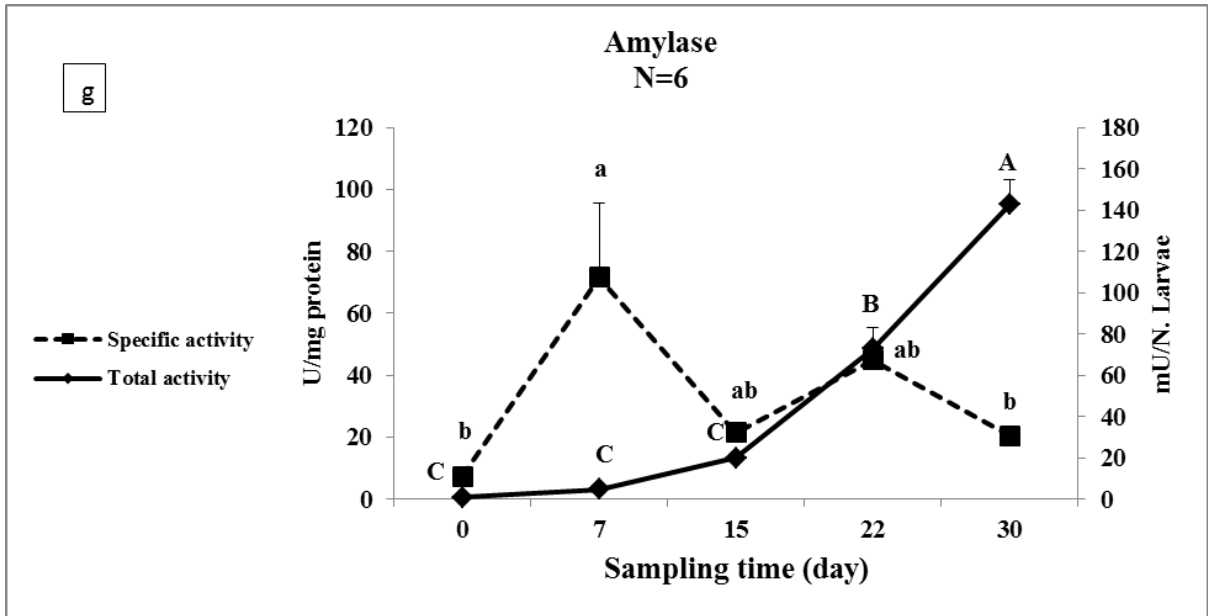


Figure 2

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