

1 **Effect of increased rearing temperature on digestive function in cobia **early juvenile****

2 Short title: Effect of temperature on Cobia digestion

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4 M. Yúfera^a, M.V. Nguyen^b, C. Navarro-Guillén^{a1}, F.J. Moyano^c, A-E.O. Jordal^d, M. Espe^e, L.E.C.
5 Conceição^f, S. Engrola^g, M.H. Le^b, and I. Rønnestad^d

6 ^aInstituto de Ciencias Marinas de Andalucía (ICMAN-CSIC), Campus Universitario Rio San Pedro s/n,
7 11519 Puerto Real, Spain

8 ^bInstitute of Aquaculture, Nha Trang University, 02 Nguyen Dinh Chieu st, Nha Trang, Vietnam

9 ^cDepartment of Biology and Geology, University of Almería, 04120 Almería, Spain

10 ^dDepartment of Biological Sciences, University of Bergen, NO-5020, Bergen, Norway

11 ^eInstitute of Marine Research, Bergen, Norway

12 ^fSparos Lda, Olhão, Portugal

13 ^gCentre of Marine Sciences of Algarve (CCMAR), University of Algarve, Campus de Gambelas, University
14 of Algarve, 8005-139 Faro, Portugal

15

16

17 Corresponding author: manuel.yufer@icman.csic.es

18

19 ¹ Present address: Centro de Ciências do Mar do Algarve (CCMAR), Universidade do Algarve, Faro,
20 Portugal.

21

22

23 **Abstract**

24 The present study is focused to elucidate the main characteristics of the digestive function of this
25 carnivorous fast-growing fish living at high temperatures. With this aim, we have examined the effects
26 of an increased temperature from 30 to 34°C on the daily pattern of gastrointestinal pH, enzymatic
27 proteolytic digestive activity and the feed transit time in early juveniles of cobia (*Rachycentron*
28 *canadum*), a ~~fast-growing carnivorous fish species~~ living in tropical and subtropical waters with an
29 increasing aquaculture production. Fish were fed two meals a day. Gastric luminal pH was permanently
30 acidic (mean pH values: 2.76 - 4.74) while the intestinal pH increased from neutral/slightly acidic to
31 slightly alkaline when the digesta was present, with an increasing alkalinity from proximal to distal
32 intestine (mean pH values: 6.05 to 7.69). The temperature did not affect the gastric pH but a slightly
33 higher acidity was induced in the intestine at 34°C.

34 Pepsin activity showed a daily rhythm at 30 °C with maximum in the middle of the light period, while
35 at 34°C some hourly changes coinciding with feed adding without a clear daily trend during the 24-h
36 period were observed. The trypsin activity exhibited a daily rhythm at both temperatures with an
37 increase after morning feeding to reach a maximum several hours later. Average pepsin activity during
38 the daily cycle was slightly higher at 34 °C (6.1 and 7.3 U mg⁻¹ BW at 30 and 34 °C respectively), but
39 values were significantly different only at 8 and 24 h after the morning meal. Similarly, the trypsin
40 activity was significantly affected by the temperature only at 8 and 16 h after the morning meal, but
41 daily activity averages were similar (1.20 and 1.29 U g⁻¹ BW at 30 and 34 °C respectively).

42 The partial transit rates of the first meal in the stomach for each period inter-samplings were higher
43 during the first 4-h period and decreased progressively along the rest of the 24-h cycle at both
44 temperatures, but no significant differences were detected at 30 °C. In addition, the transit was notably
45 faster at 34 °C particularly during the first 8 h after feeding, with rates between 100 and 65% of total
46 volume displaced (intake or released) during each 4-h period. In the intestine the transit rate was
47 relatively constant and similar at both temperatures during 12 h after feeding. Then the rates remained
48 very low during the following 12 h.

49 Residence time of the first meal was longer at 30 than at 34 °C, particularly in the stomach (12h:02min
50 vs 4h:54min respectively). In the intestine the difference was not so large (8h:18min vs 6h:24min
51 respectively). In a parallel study with under same conditions, cobia reared at 30 °C grew faster and
52 showed better a more favorable feed conversion ratio than those at elevated temperature (34 °C). The
53 present results indicate that at 34 °C, a subtle increase of proteolytic activity cannot compensate for
54 the faster gut transit rate. Therefore, 30 °C is more appropriate temperature for the early on-growing

55 of coxia because at higher temperatures the digestion efficiency decrease being one of the causes for
56 a lower growth.

57

58 **Key words:** Temperature, GIT luminal pH, Digestive enzyme, Gut transit time, *Rachycentron canadum*

59

60 **Introduction**

61 Water temperature is a key factor affecting metabolic rates in fish and therefore has an evident impact
62 on feed intake, nutrient utilization and growth (Brett, 1979; Buentello et al., 2000). To cope with the
63 wide range of temperatures in the oceans depending on the geographic location and environmental
64 cycles, the various fish species have adapted their feeding behavior and physiology to the temperature
65 conditions of their particular habitat (Brett, 1979; Somero, 2004, 2010). Many studies have examined
66 different perspectives of physiological responses to changes in temperature.

67 Particularly relevant is the way the ingested nutrients are digested before their incorporation into
68 growing tissues. In spite of a large research effort, the effect of temperature on fish digestion is far
69 from being well understood. The digestive function includes different processes from feed capture to
70 assimilation of nutrients that may be affected in different manners by temperature changes. Generally,
71 the feed intake increases with increased temperatures up to levels close to the upper tolerance limits
72 (Fernández-Montero et al., 2018; Pérez-Casanova et al., 2009). Digestive enzyme activity has been
73 traditionally assessed in two ways. On one side, *in vitro* experiments for the enzyme characterization
74 performed with enzyme extracts show that activity increases with increasing temperature usually up
75 to values exceeding those representative of their natural habitats, and also beyond lethal levels
76 (Alarcón et al., 1998; Fernández et al., 2001; Gelman et al., 2008; Tanji et al., 1988). On the other hand,
77 information about digestive enzyme activities analyzed in live fish at different temperatures is also
78 available (Bowyer et al., 2014; Hani et al., 2018; Mazumder et al., 2018; Miegel et al., 2010; Sharma et
79 al., 2017). However, these studies are based on only one sampling point during the postprandial
80 response and, also report contradictory responses among the different studied species.

81 Gut evacuation rate also increases at increasing temperatures up to a certain limit, leading to lower
82 residence time in the digestive tract (De et al., 2016; Fernández-Montero et al., 2018; Handeland et
83 al., 2008; Temming and Herrmann, 2001). However, the estimation of evacuation rate has usually been
84 performed under unrealistic feeding conditions in which the fish has been refed until satiation after a
85 starvation period. Digestion efficiency will depend on the relation between enzymatic activity and gut
86 transit time that are not short punctual facts but long dynamic cyclic processes usually occurring along

87 a whole day. Consequently, only experiments performed in routine feeding may provide realistic
88 information.

89 Other species-specific digestive characteristics may also strongly affect the digestion process. That is
90 the case of the gut luminal pH that conditions the activation of proenzymes in the gut, which may vary
91 among fish, particularly within the stomach (Buckling and Wood, 2009; Papastamatiou and Lowe, 2005;
92 Papastamatiou et al., 2007; Secor and Carey, 2016; Yúfera et al., 2004, 2007, 2012; Solovyev et al.,
93 2018). Optimum temperature for growth does not necessarily coincide with maximum feed intake,
94 highest digestion efficiency or optimal feeds utilization. In fact, from the point of view of aquaculture,
95 the aim is to optimize all these factors to obtain the better juvenile quality and weight gain at a
96 reasonable cost and with the lowest environmental impact.

97 Cobia (*Rachycentron canadum*), is a fast-growing species inhabiting tropical and subtropical waters
98 with a broad geographical distribution over several continents. The species may reach up to 60 Kg and
99 has a high-quality white flesh, being considered an excellent marine fish for aquaculture. It is being
100 produced mainly in Asian-Pacific coast and in a lesser extent in the Gulf of Mexico with a world
101 production above 40.000 tons during the last years (FAO, 2018; Tveteras, 2016). In Vietnam, it is one
102 of the main marine fish in large scale commercial aquaculture (Nhu et al., 2011). In South Vietnam and
103 other Southeast Asian regions water temperature in ponds and tanks ranges between 27 and 30 °C,
104 but may reach up to 36 °C during the daytime in the warmer season. For this reason, it is necessary to
105 understand the responses to increased temperatures, particularly in this region in the scenario of
106 global warming (IPCC 2015). Effect of rearing temperature on growth in cobia juveniles has been
107 examined by Sun and Chen (2009, 2014). In these studies, cobia juveniles were reared in the range 20
108 to 35 °C and highest growth rates were observed in the range 27-31 °C. An unsolved question is how
109 these temperature changes affect the digestion process.

110 Therefore, in this study we have examined the effects of temperature on the digestive function from
111 a global perspective in order to advance in the physiological basis and mechanisms behind digestive
112 efficiency and the corresponding effects on growth in cobia juveniles. Specifically, the aim of this study
113 was to elucidate whether a temperature increase from 30 to 34 °C affects gastrointestinal pH,
114 enzymatic proteolytic digestive activity and feed transit over the whole day period, in early juveniles
115 of this fast growing fish.

116

117 **Material and Methods**

118 *Fish rearing and sampling*

119 This study was part of a larger experiment examining growth performance in juveniles fed three
120 different diets (Nguyen et al., 2019). We used the tanks from control treatment for the present study.

121 Cobia juveniles were obtained from a local hatchery in Nha Trang, Vietnam, and acclimatized to final
122 experimental temperatures in two indoor fiberglass 5000-L tanks at Nha Trang University facilities
123 during one week. During the period of acclimatization, water temperature in one tank increased at a
124 rate of 1°C per day up to 34°C, while temperature in the other tank was kept constant at 30°C.
125 Acclimatized juveniles with 3.7 ± 0.4 g wet body weight, were randomly distributed to 6 experimental
126 200-L tanks (60 fish tank⁻¹) and reared under a light/dark cycle at two temperatures (30 and 34 °C,
127 three tanks for each temperature) in recirculation systems. Water salinity was 29.0 ± 3.1 g L⁻¹, pH 7.8–
128 8.3, oxygen level 4.6 ± 0.5 mg L⁻¹ and NH₃<0.03 mg L⁻¹. Fish were maintained with a 12:00 h illumination
129 period from 6:00 to 18:00 h and fed twice a day (8:00 and 16:00 h local time) according to the most
130 common procedure in the local hatcheries (Nguyen, 2013; 2014). ~~with an~~ The experimental diet was
131 produced at SPAROS Lda (Olhão, Portugal) containing 47% protein and 10% lipid (Table 1). ~~The~~
132 ~~experimental diet and was formulated based on previous results in cobia (Nguyen et al., 2014).~~ The
133 fish were fed to nearly satiety (until most of the fish losing their appetite) by hand. Eventual uneaten
134 feed and removed fish were recorded for the calculation of daily feed intake and feed conversion ratio,
135 parameters considered in the companion study (Nguyen et al., 2019). After 2 weeks under these
136 conditions, 3 fish per tank (wet body weight: ca. 6-8 g range) were sampled every 4 hours during 24
137 hours, for gut pH, digestive enzyme activity and feed transit determinations. ~~Dissected gut were freeze-~~
138 ~~dried and sent to Spain for the analyses of enzyme activities at the University of Almeria and the gut~~
139 ~~transit at the ICMAN-CSIC.~~ All experimental procedures complied with the Guidelines of the European
140 Union Council (2010/63/EU) for the use and experimentation of laboratory animals and were reviewed
141 and approved by the Spanish National Research Council (CSIC) bioethical committee.

142 *Measurements of gut pH*

143 The gastrointestinal pH was measured in nine individuals at each sampling point and for each
144 temperature condition immediately after sampling using a pH microelectrode (Thermo Orion, Thermo
145 Fisher Scientific Inc) following the procedure described in Yúfera et al. (2012). In short, the fish were
146 dissected to make the digestive track accessible. Next, the tip of the microelectrode (diameter 1.7 mm)
147 was inserted in small slits made in the stomach, anterior intestine, medium intestine and posterior
148 intestine (Fig. 1).

149 *Digestive enzyme activity analyses*

150 The complete digestive tract of three individuals of each sampling point and temperature were
151 dissected, immediately frozen at -80 °C and later freeze-dried. Enzyme extracts were prepared for

152 enzyme activity measurement from these samples. Stomach and intestine samples were dissected and
153 homogenized separately. Samples were manually homogenized in 3 mL distilled water and centrifuged
154 for ten minutes at 4 °C at 11,000 rpm (Eppendorf 5810R, Hamburg, Germany). The supernatants from
155 the stomach samples were measured for pepsin activity, and the supernatants from the intestine
156 samples were analyzed for trypsin activity.

157 Pepsin activity was determined by the method of Anson (1938): 15 µL of extracts were mixed with 1
158 mL of 0.5% acid-denatured bovine hemoglobin diluted in 0.2 M HCl-Glycine buffer. Assays were carried
159 out at the specific gastric pH determined in each sampling point. In this way we are determining
160 actually activated pepsin instead of pepsinogen (Yúfera et al., 2012). After incubation at 25°C for 30
161 minutes, the reaction was stopped by adding 0.5 mL of 20% trichloroacetic acid (TCA), cooled to 4 °C
162 for 15 minutes and then centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 15 minutes. The absorbance of the resulting
163 supernatant was measured at 280 nm. Blanks were constructed by adding the enzyme extracts to the
164 reaction mixture just after the TCA. Trypsin activity was determined using BAPNA (N-benzoyl-DL-
165 arginine-p-nitroanilide) (B4875 Sigma-Aldrich) as a substrate at 25°C. 0.5 mM BAPNA was dissolved in
166 1mL dimethyl-sulfoxide (DMSO) and then made up to 100 mL with Tris-HCl 50mM, pH 8.5, containing
167 20 mM CaCl₂. Reactions were started in 96-well microplates by the addition of 15 µL of the enzyme
168 extract to 200 µL of the respective substrate and liberation of p-nitroaniline was kinetically followed
169 at 405 nm in a microplate reader (Cytation 3 Cell Imaging Multi-Mode Reader, USA). The activities were
170 provided as units per weight unit of fish to prevent the variability due to gut content.

171 *Gut content and feed transit time measurements*

172 The feed content in the stomach and the intestine was estimated from their respective weight
173 determined in the gut samples used for enzyme and transit determinations. Average of empty guts
174 were subtracted from these values. The values were normalized as dry weight of feed content per g of
175 wet body weight (BW) to account for size differences among individuals.

176 For feed transit assessment, the day of the sampling, the feed labeled with containing of Yttrium oxide
177 (200 mg Kg⁻¹) was provided for the first meal (8:00 h) while the standard feed without the marker was
178 provided in the second meal (16:00 h). Yttrium content within the gut was analyzed at the ICMAN
179 (Spain) by inductivity-coupled plasma mass spectroscopy (Thermo Scientific iCAP Q ICP-MS) separately
180 in the stomach and the intestine of three individuals collected at each sampling point and temperature.
181 Two technical subsamples were performed for each analysis. Yttrium content, normalized as mg g⁻¹ of
182 fish BW was plotted as a function of time.

183 The residence time of ingested feed within the gut were estimated as the period of time from when
184 half of the stomach or intestine were filled with the marked feed to when half of the corresponding

185 section was emptied. Previously, in order to calculate the total amount of feed accessing the stomach
186 in the first 4-h period, the total amount of yttrium in the stomach and intestine were considered,
187 assuming that most of offered feed was ingested during the first hours of feeding. The yttrium content
188 in each sampling point was converted to percentage of maximum measured in each section and
189 temperature. The partial transit rates for each inter-sampling period were calculated as the difference
190 of the relative fullness percentage between two consecutive time-points (considering the absolute
191 values). Results have been presented as percentage of the maximum measured capacity entering or
192 leaving each compartment for each 4h-period.

193 *Statistical analyses*

194 Two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare differences between the postprandial
195 time and temperature for each section of the digestive tract. A post-hoc Tukey honest significant
196 difference (HSD) test was used when ANOVA results revealed significant differences ($P < 0.05$). The
197 homogeneity of variances was previously tested using Levene's test, and all parameters expressed as
198 percentages were subjected to arcsin square root transformation. Data are presented as the mean of
199 nine or three replicates \pm sem. All statistical tests were performed in IBM SPSS Statistics 18 software
200 (IBM Corp., USA).

201

202 **Results**

203 The pH within the stomach was permanently acidic with mean values ranging from 2.76 to 4.74 (Fig.
204 2) although a significant increase ($P < 0.05$) was observed after each meal. The two way-ANOVA suggest
205 that the gastric pH values change during the daily cycle but not in relation to temperature ($P > 0.05$). On
206 the other hand, the intestinal pH ranged from 6.05 to 7.69 (Fig. 3). An increase was observed after the
207 first meal and this slight alkaline condition was maintained for several hours before declining to neutral
208 or slightly acidic values at the end of the day ($P < 0.05$). Furthermore, the maximum measured pH values
209 were progressively higher when moving from proximal to distal part of the intestine ($P < 0.05$). A slightly
210 higher acidity was observed in the anterior and medium sections of the intestine at 34°C ($P < 0.05$).

211 Pepsin activity showed a daily rhythm at 30 °C with a maximum in the middle of the light period and a
212 minimum at the beginning of the dark period, while at 34°C some hourly changes **with a decrease after**
213 **each meal were observed**, but without **so clear daily trend during the 24-h period-were observed**. (Fig.
214 4). The trypsin activity exhibited a clear daily rhythm at both temperatures with a patent increase after
215 morning feeding to reach a maximum several hours later (Fig. 4). Overall the activity of pepsin during
216 the daily cycle was slightly higher at 34 °C (average of the seven sampling points: 6.1 and 7.3 U·mg⁻¹

217 BW at 30 and 34 °C respectively), but values were significantly different only at 8 and 24 hours after
218 the morning meal. Similarly, the trypsin activity was significantly affected by the temperature only at
219 8 and 16 hours after the morning meal, but considering globally all daily samples the activity was quite
220 similar (averages 1.20 and 1.29 U·g⁻¹ BW at 30 and 34 °C respectively). Considering all hourly data
221 together, the two-way ANOVA indicates that the temperature is not affecting the trypsin and pepsin
222 activities.

223 The daily pattern of the estimated feed content within the stomach and the intestine is shown in Figure
224 5. The patterns were clearly different at each temperature. At 30 °C the amount of digesta within the
225 stomach increased continuously from the morning feeding up to 8 hours after the second feeding.
226 Contrarily, at 34 °C the pattern showed two peaks, the first one 4 hours after the first meal and the
227 second one 8 hours after the second meal. Feed content of the intestine at both temperatures was
228 dramatically lower compared to the stomach and also showed two maxima at the same times observed
229 in the stomach at 34 °C.

230 Postprandial pattern of yttrium content within the gut is shown in Figure 6 (only the first meal
231 contained yttrium oxide). At 30 °C the yttrium content in the stomach reached the maximum value at
232 8 h after the first meal, while in the intestine the maximum was observed only 4 h after the first meal
233 ($P < 0.05$) maintaining similar high content at 8 h post-feeding. At 34 °C the maximum yttrium content
234 was observed 4 h after the first meal in the stomach and at 8 h post-feeding in the intestine ($P < 0.05$),
235 although an important amount of yttrium was already observed in the intestine at 4 h.

236 The partial transit rates of the first meal in the stomach for each period inter-samplings were higher
237 during the first 4-h period and decreased progressively along the rest of the 24-h cycle, although no
238 significant differences were detected at 30 °C (Fig. 7). In addition, the transit was notably faster at 34
239 °C particularly during the first 8 h after feeding, with rates between 100 and 65% of total volume
240 displaced (intake or released) during each 4-h period. In the intestine the transit rate was relatively
241 constant and similar at both temperatures during 12 h after feeding (Fig. 7). Then the rates dropped
242 and remained very low during the following 12 h.

243 The residence time within the gut of the first meal was calculated from Figure 8. In this figure, the total
244 amount of labelled feed accessing the stomach during the first 4-h period was considered, including
245 the amount already transferred to and analyzed in the intestine. This criterion considers the time
246 period from 50% of maximum measured label (yttrium) accessed the stomach or intestine up to the
247 time when 50 % of this material has disappeared from the same compartment. Thus, the time the first
248 meal spent in the stomach and the intestine was longer at 30 than at 34 °C, particularly in the stomach
249 (12h:02min vs 4h:54min, respectively) (Fig. 8). In the intestine, the difference was not so large

250 (8h:18min vs 5h:54min, respectively). On the other hand, the residence time of this first meal at 30 °C
251 was longer in the stomach, while at 34 °C it was longer in the intestine.

252

253 Discussion

254 The present study was performed in parallel with other study analyzing growth and feed conversion
255 ratio differences in the same batch of juveniles fed different diet formulations at these two
256 temperatures for six weeks (Nguyen et al. 2017, 2019). In that report, we found that cobia reared at
257 30°C grew faster and showed **bettera more favorable feed conversion ratio (FCR)** than those at
258 elevated temperature (34°C), being in both cases fed the same daily ration. We used the control tanks
259 for the present study on digestion. The sampling was intentionally performed two weeks after the start
260 of the experiment to determine the digestion status in the middle of the growth experiment, when
261 both feed intake and growth were assessed to be high. Cobia is a voracious carnivorous fish with a
262 large stomach and a short intestine (Fig. 1). This species feeds on small fish, crustaceans and squids
263 (Franks et al., 1996). These feeding habits and gut anatomy have consequences in the mode of
264 digestion as we observed in the different parameters examined. It seems evident that the stomach is
265 very important for digestion and maybe more so than the intestine in this species, based on their
266 respective volumes, luminal ionic values, proteolytic activities and transit rates results. **Most research
267 on postprandial response in fish has been done considering only one morning meal in order to examine
268 the results without interferences of subsequent meals. In our study we considered two meals
269 according to the customary use in hatcheries for this species in this region (Nguyen, 2013). With this
270 feeding protocol we found more realistic overview of the digestive function but with additional
271 complications to interpret results because fish may change the feeding behavior and daily digestive
272 patterns when have the possibility to choose among different daily meals (Montoya et al., 2010; Yúfera
273 et al., 2014).**

274 In relation to luminal pH of the digestive tract, two gastric acidification strategies have been reported
275 for vertebrates. One is to maintain a permanent acidic environment in the stomach with independence
276 of the presence or absence of ingested feed, as observed for instance in mammals and birds; the other
277 is to maintain a neutral pH in the lumen of the stomach between meals and with a decline only after
278 the ingestion of feed (Papastamatiou and Lowe, 2005; Secor and Carey, 2016). Most teleostean fish
279 analyzed up to date exhibited this second strategy (Hlophe et al., 2014; Nikolopoulou et al., 2011;
280 Yúfera et al., 2004, 2012, Solovyev et al., 2016). However, our study reveals that cobia juveniles
281 maintain a permanent gastric acidification. This is an interesting finding because such a strategy has
282 been previously described only in rainbow trout *Oncorhynchus mykiss* (Bucking and Wood, 2009) and

283 some elasmobranchian species (Papastamatiou and Lowe 2005; Papastamatiou et al., 2007). Some
284 clues about the same strategy have also been reported for southern bluefin tuna *Thunnus maccoyii*
285 examining fed and starved fish although a postprandial response was not scrutinized (Leef et al., 2012).
286 Unfortunately, the list of teleostean species examined **in detail** is too short to know if this strategy is
287 less common or we need still to explore more species, particularly those with strict carnivorous feeding
288 habits, to get a more complete figure of the acidification strategy in teleosteans. To maintain a neutral
289 gastric environment during fasting has been associated to infrequent feeding in snakes and sharks
290 (Papastamatiou and Lowe, 2005; Secor et al., 2012), but in teleostean with daily feeding habits this
291 rule remains uncertain. In fact, an erratic daily feeding by changing randomly the moment of feed
292 delivery every day may also alter the daily pattern from neutral/acid alternation to permanent
293 acidification in gilthead seabream *Sparus aurata* (Montoya et al., 2010). A constant low gastric pH
294 enables this voracious species to be always ready to activate pepsinogen to start the hydrolysis of the
295 ingested prey. The small increase of gastric pH after meals has been attributed to the dilution effect of
296 the ingesting feed, possibly in parallel with some water; drinking water for osmoregulatory purposes,
297 as well as to the buffering capacity of feeds (Márquez et al., 2012) and also the buffer capacity of the
298 slightly alkaline seawater itself.

299 We found that increased temperature did not affect to gastric pH but it led to decreased luminal pH in
300 the anterior intestine and to a lesser extent the mid intestine. This effect is probably related to higher
301 transit rates observed at 34 °C in which the acidic chyme pass quickly to the short intestine. **A similar**
302 **effect on the intestinal pH was described at increased temperature in channel catfish *Ictalurus***
303 ***punctatus* (Page et al., 1976).** The same effect **in the anterior intestine** was **also** detected in other
304 species **when** feed only one meal (Bucking and Hood, 2009; Rosero, 2013; Yúfera et al., 2014). **A**
305 **decrease of the intestinal pH has been reported for different freshwater species associated to seasonal**
306 **increased temperatures (Solovyev et al., 2018). The authors explained this decrease as an adaptation**
307 **to enable fish to regulate and optimize the activity of their digestive pancreatic enzymes. Our results**
308 **would indicate, that in addition, the changes in the water temperature alter the feeding behavior and**
309 **feed processing along the day. ~~To our knowledge this is the first time that the luminal pH has been~~**
310 **~~examined at different water temperatures.~~**

311 Pepsin activity showed hourly variations along the 24-h **period** ~~cycle~~ although **a clear daily** rhythm was
312 observed only at 30 °C. Considering that the minor variations of gastric pH are practically no affecting
313 to pepsinogen activation as reported in other species (Yúfera et al., 2012), these changes should be
314 interpreted in relation to the amount of substrate. The lower activity practically coincides with the
315 higher amount of digesta in the stomach (Fig. 4) that is consuming the active enzyme. Contrary to this,
316 the pancreatic trypsin activity exhibited a daily cycle with the expected increase associated with the

317 intestinal alkalization when the chyme is released from the stomach. Such daily pattern has been
318 already reported in other fish species (Rosero, 2013; Yúfera et al., 2014). It is also interesting to note
319 that the proteolytic activity in the stomach was much higher than in the intestine. We found that the
320 proteolytic activity of pepsin and trypsin was hardly affected by the 4 °C increase of temperature, at
321 least when the standard **incubation temperature were used for** the analytical protocols. It could be
322 interesting to explore analytical methodologies adapted to different temperatures. Miegel et al. (2010)
323 did not find differences of intestinal proteases activity in fed individuals of yellowtail kingfish *Seriola*
324 *lalandi* maintained at 12.6 and 20.8 °C. However, Bowyer et al. (2014) found higher tryptic activity at
325 intermediate temperatures in the range 21 to 27 °C in starved individuals of the same species. Similar
326 results were observed by Hani et al. (2018) in starved threespine stickleback *Gasterosteus aculeatus* in
327 the range 16 to 21 °C, by Sharma et al. (2017) in Indian major carp *Catla catla* in the range 10 to 35 °C,
328 **as well as by Zhao et al. (2009) in the range 20 to 32 °C in Chinese longsnout catfish *Leiocassis***
329 ***longirostris***. On the other hand, Mazamder et al. (2018) reported higher pepsin activity at 30 °C in the
330 range 22 to 34 °C in fasted Malabar blood snapper *Lutjanus malabaricus*. Comparison of these results
331 is difficult due to differences in fish size, experimental protocols and analytical methods, and in
332 addition, the fish for those analyses were collected at only one time and any postprandial patterns was
333 not explored. In our study and with independence of the similarity of the global daily averages of the
334 lytic activity, the postprandial patterns showed maximum and minimum values that are not coincident
335 at both temperatures. These results indicate that a single daily sample is not enough to characterize
336 the enzymatic activity under different temperature conditions. Such data must be interpreted in
337 relation to gut content as mentioned above but also in relation to transit results.

338 Transit rate assessment is a challenging task when more than one meal is offered. The postprandial
339 responses overlap and the patterns are harder to interpret. A key factor in our study is to recognize
340 that some ingested feed may pass to the intestine before the second sampling (Figs. 4 and 5) and
341 therefore the estimation of the ingestion during the first period should include both sections. The gut
342 content **on weight basis** gives only indicative information because it is representing the balance
343 between digesta input and output. To obtain a more complete information it is necessary to estimate
344 the temporal rates for the gut filling and evacuation under this feeding protocol in each gut
345 compartment. An interesting result has been to verify whether the transit velocity of digesta
346 throughout the digestive tract is changing along the daily cycle (Fig. 6), something perhaps obvious but
347 never examined in fish. Thus, the transit rates were maxima during 8 h after feeding at 34 °C. In this
348 period the whole stomach volume was filled during the first 4-h period and emptied in a great part
349 during the following 4 h before the next meal. The rest of the day the transit of remaining chyme was
350 notably slower. At 30 °C the transit rates during the first hours were significantly lower than at 34 °C
351 and the posterior decrease was smoother and not statistically significant. In the intestine no effect of

352 temperature was observed and the transit was relatively fast during the first 12 h during which most
353 part of the first meal is evacuated, the remaining digesta moved at notably slower rate. In our study,
354 the second meal was not labeled and therefore these transit rates are only referring to the first meal
355 when a second meal is pushing 8 h later.

356 Evacuation rates have been determined in many species usually based on fish with the stomach already
357 full and without further feeding, such an approach gives an incomplete understanding of transit time
358 in the stomach but in many cases the pass of the digesta through the intestine was properly assessed
359 (Adamidou et al., 2009; Bonvini et al., 2018). While the evacuation of the stomach may last less than
360 one day, the evacuation of the intestine may last 36 to 48 h. These values are only indicative for median
361 sized farmed fish with daily feeding. Different factors such as feeding frequency, ration size, feed
362 quality, body size and water temperature have been described to affect transit time in fish (Miegel et
363 al., 2010), particularly the last one (De et al., 2016; Fernández-Montero et al., 2018; Handeland et al.,
364 2008; Temming and Herrmann, 2001). According to these studies, transit time increases with the
365 temperature except at extremely high values. Our results however showed an increase at very high
366 temperatures that is probably close to tolerance limit.

367 Probably the most useful information is the time the digesta spent within the different sections and
368 being hydrolyzed by the corresponding digestive enzymes. In routine feeding, the ingested feed is
369 mixed up with the feed of the previous and the next meal(s) and its complete evacuation from the gut
370 may last longer than expected due to the residual amount that can be detected for many hours, even
371 days, later than most part of the digesta was evacuated. The criterion explained above allows an
372 estimation of the residence time that can be compared between compartments and temperatures
373 (Fig. 7). The most evident result is that the residence time was shorter at 34 °C. The increase of 4 °C
374 induced a faster filling and evacuation in the stomach as commented above but also a lower residence
375 time, that was **even** less than half of the period at 30 °C. In the intestine the effect was not as dramatic
376 but the reduction of digesta residence time was still important. **The lower period of time for the**
377 **proteolytic work of the digestive proteases brings on lower dietary protein utilization and is one of the**
378 **reasons for the lower weight gain and higher feed conversion ratio observed at 34 °C (Nguyen et al.,**
379 **2019). NeverthelessFurthermore,** a relevant aspect is that the **transit-of-the** first meal transited almost
380 simultaneously **than** in the stomach and intestine, when certain temporal displacement would be
381 expected as determined in other species (Bonvini et al., 2018). The ingested pellets of the morning
382 meal in our experiment passed directly into the intestine, and this segment was filled almost at same
383 time as the stomach, working more like an extension of the stomach than like a different digestive
384 tract compartment. Unfortunately, our experimental protocol does not allow to evaluate the transit
385 time of the second meal that not necessarily may follow the same pattern but that we can assume **it**

386 is similar to that of the first meal. It is likely that the feeding protocols for the voracious and carnivorous
387 cobia in aquaculture where pelleted feed particles are offered in large amounts results in a digestive
388 process that is progressing differently from nature where cobia ingest larger and intact prey. However,
389 given the artificial feeding conditions in aquaculture, it is important to understand how the digestive
390 system that is evolutionary adapted to natural conditions perform under different feeding regimes.

391 In summary, the present results indicate that at 34 °C, a subtle increase of proteolytic activity cannot
392 compensate for the faster gut transit rate. The reduced time the dietary proteins are available for
393 hydrolysis when compared with fish maintained at 30 °C can explain the lower growth observed at this
394 temperature (Nguyen et al. 2019). Another reason for the lower growth could be an unfavorable
395 energetic balance at the higher temperature but the studies by Sun and Chen (2009, 2014) showed no
396 evident variations of the feed energy allocated to metabolism in the range 27-33°C in cobia juveniles
397 of the same weight range, although it was higher at 35 °C. Furthermore, this study shows a general
398 appraisal of digestion in the 24-h temporal horizon as correspond to a daily feeding protocol,
399 demonstrating the importance of observing inter-hourly changes in the different digestion parameters
400 to characterize the digestive potential under given temperature conditions.

401

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- 541

542 **Figure captions**

543 Fig. 1. Digestive tract of an early *R. canadum* juvenile indicating the places for the gut pH
544 determinations. **ST: stomach; AI: anterior intestine; MI: medium intestine; PI: posterior intestine.**

545

546 Fig. 2. Postprandial changes in gastric pH (**mean and SEM**) of *R. canadum* juveniles at the two
547 experimental temperatures. Different letters denote statistical difference at the different sampling
548 times. Arrows indicate the time for the two feed supplies. Shaded area indicates the dark period.

549

550 Fig. 3. Postprandial changes in the luminal pH (**mean and SEM**) of the different section of the intestine
551 of *R. canadum* juveniles at the two experimental temperatures. Arrows indicate the time for the two
552 feed supplies. Dashed line at pH 7 was included for a better comparison between both temperatures.
553 Shaded area indicates the dark period.

554

555 Fig. 4. Postprandial changes of pepsin and trypsin activities (**mean and SEM**) in the stomach and
556 intestine of *R. canadum* juveniles at the two experimental temperatures. Arrows indicate the time for
557 the two feed supplies. Shaded area indicates the dark period. Different letters denote significant
558 differences at the different sampling times for each temperature. Asterisks denote significant
559 differences between temperatures.

560

561 Fig. 5. Postprandial changes of gut content within the stomach (grey) and intestine (black) of *R.*
562 *canadum* juveniles at the two experimental temperatures. Shaded area indicates the dark period.

563

564 Fig. 6. Postprandial changes of yttrium content (**mean and SEM**) within the stomach and intestine of
565 *R. canadum* juveniles at the two experimental temperatures. Shaded area indicates the dark period.

566

567 Fig. 7. Partial transit rates of digesta for each inter-sampling period (4 h) in the stomach and intestine
568 of *R. canadum* juveniles at the two experimental temperatures. Results are presented as percentage
569 of the maximum (**mean and SEM**) measured capacity entering or leaving each compartment for each

570 4h-period. ~~SEM was omitted for clarity~~. Different letters denote significant differences at the different
571 sampling times for each temperature. Asterisks denote significant differences between temperatures.

572

573 Fig. 8. Residence time ~~of the digesta of the first meal~~ in the stomach and intestine of *R. canadum*
574 juveniles at the two experimental temperatures. ~~Results are presented as percentage of the maximum~~
575 ~~feed content (mean and SEM) at each sampling time. Arrows represent the period of time from the~~
576 ~~50% of the maximum acceded to each gut compartment to the 50% is evacuated from the same~~
577 ~~compartment~~. Values in the insets indicate the residence time ~~according to this criterion~~.

578 **Tables**579 Table 1. Formulation (g kg⁻¹ dry matter basis) and proximate analysis of the diet.

Ingredients	g kg⁻¹
Krill meal	50.0
Wheat meal	175.3
Fish meal	250.0
Soy protein concentrate	100.0
Pea protein concentrate	134.0
CPSP 90	50.0
DL methionine	5.5
Betaine HCl	5.0
Encapsuled taurine	5.0
Encapsuled tryptophane	5.0
Fish oil	28.0
Krill oil	30.0
Pea starch	100.0
Vitamin & mineral mix	20.0
Lutavit E50	0.2
Calcium carbonate	10.0
Mono ammonium phosphate	30.0
Antioxidant (Paramega)	2.0
<i>Proximate composition</i>	
Dry matter	958.0
Energy (MJ kg ⁻¹)	20.1
Crude protein	465.0
Crude fat	103.0

580

Highlights

- 1- Cobia exhibits a permanent gastric acidification
- 2- Water temperature (30 and 34 °C) does not substantially affect the digestive proteolytic activities
- 3- Both stomach and intestine are filled almost simultaneously
- 4- Transit time was much faster and the residence time lower at 34°C than at 30 °C

1 **Effect of increased rearing temperature on digestive function in cobia early juvenile**

2 Short title: Effect of temperature on Cobia digestion

3

4 M. Yúfera^a, M.V. Nguyen^b, C. Navarro-Guillén^{a1}, F.J. Moyano^c, A-E.O. Jordal^d, M. Espe^e, L.E.C.
5 Conceição^f, S. Engrola^g, M.H. Le^b, and I. Rønnestad^d

6 ^aInstituto de Ciencias Marinas de Andalucía (ICMAN-CSIC), Campus Universitario Rio San Pedro s/n,
7 11519 Puerto Real, Spain

8 ^bInstitute of Aquaculture, Nha Trang University, 02 Nguyen Dinh Chieu st, Nha Trang, Vietnam

9 ^cDepartment of Biology and Geology, University of Almería, 04120 Almería, Spain

10 ^dDepartment of Biological Sciences, University of Bergen, NO-5020, Bergen, Norway

11 ^eInstitute of Marine Research, Bergen, Norway

12 ^fSparos Lda, Olhão, Portugal

13 ^gCentre of Marine Sciences of Algarve (CCMAR), University of Algarve, Campus de Gambelas, University
14 of Algarve, 8005-139 Faro, Portugal

15

16

17 Corresponding author: manuel.yufera@icman.csic.es

18

19 ¹ Present address: Centro de Ciências do Mar do Algarve (CCMAR), Universidade do Algarve, Faro,
20 Portugal.

21

22

23 **Abstract**

24 The present study is focused to elucidate the main characteristics of the digestive function of this
25 carnivorous fast-growing fish living at high temperatures. With this aim, we have examined the effects
26 of an increased temperature from 30 to 34°C on the daily pattern of gastrointestinal pH, enzymatic
27 proteolytic digestive activity and the feed transit time in early juveniles of cobia (*Rachycentron*
28 *canadum*), a species living in tropical and subtropical waters with an increasing aquaculture
29 production. Fish were fed two meals a day. Gastric luminal pH was permanently acidic (mean pH
30 values: 2.76 - 4.74) while the intestinal pH increased from neutral/slightly acidic to slightly alkaline
31 when the digesta was present, with an increasing alkalinity from proximal to distal intestine (mean pH
32 values: 6.05 to 7.69). The temperature did not affect the gastric pH but a slightly higher acidity was
33 induced in the intestine at 34°C.

34 Pepsin activity showed a daily rhythm at 30 °C with maximum in the middle of the light period, while
35 at 34°C some hourly changes coinciding with feed adding without a clear daily trend during the 24-h
36 period were observed. The trypsin activity exhibited a daily rhythm at both temperatures with an
37 increase after morning feeding to reach a maximum several hours later. Average pepsin activity during
38 the daily cycle was slightly higher at 34 °C (6.1 and 7.3 U mg⁻¹ BW at 30 and 34 °C respectively), but
39 values were significantly different only at 8 and 24 h after the morning meal. Similarly, the trypsin
40 activity was significantly affected by the temperature only at 8 and 16 h after the morning meal, but
41 daily activity averages were similar (1.20 and 1.29 U g⁻¹ BW at 30 and 34 °C respectively).

42 The partial transit rates of the first meal in the stomach for each period inter-samplings were higher
43 during the first 4-h period and decreased progressively along the rest of the 24-h cycle at both
44 temperatures, but no significant differences were detected at 30 °C. In addition, the transit was notably
45 faster at 34 °C particularly during the first 8 h after feeding, with rates between 100 and 65% of total
46 volume displaced (intake or released) during each 4-h period. In the intestine the transit rate was
47 relatively constant and similar at both temperatures during 12 h after feeding. Then the rates remained
48 very low during the following 12 h.

49 Residence time of the first meal was longer at 30 than at 34 °C, particularly in the stomach (12h:02min
50 vs 4h:54min respectively). In the intestine the difference was not so large (8h:18min vs 6h:24min
51 respectively). In a parallel study with under same conditions, cobia reared at 30 °C grew faster and
52 showed a more favorable feed conversion ratio than those at elevated temperature (34 °C). The
53 present results indicate that at 34 °C, a subtle increase of proteolytic activity cannot compensate for
54 the faster gut transit rate. Therefore, 30 °C is more appropriate temperature for the early on-growing

55 of coxia because at higher temperatures the digestion efficiency decrease being one of the causes for
56 a lower growth.

57

58 **Key words:** Temperature, GIT luminal pH, Digestive enzyme, Gut transit time, *Rachycentron canadum*

59

60 **Introduction**

61 Water temperature is a key factor affecting metabolic rates in fish and therefore has an evident impact
62 on feed intake, nutrient utilization and growth (Brett, 1979; Buentello et al., 2000). To cope with the
63 wide range of temperatures in the oceans depending on the geographic location and environmental
64 cycles, the various fish species have adapted their feeding behavior and physiology to the temperature
65 conditions of their particular habitat (Brett, 1979; Somero, 2004, 2010). Many studies have examined
66 different perspectives of physiological responses to changes in temperature.

67 Particularly relevant is the way the ingested nutrients are digested before their incorporation into
68 growing tissues. In spite of a large research effort, the effect of temperature on fish digestion is far
69 from being well understood. The digestive function includes different processes from feed capture to
70 assimilation of nutrients that may be affected in different manners by temperature changes. Generally,
71 the feed intake increases with increased temperatures up to levels close to the upper tolerance limits
72 (Fernández-Montero et al., 2018; Pérez-Casanova et al., 2009). Digestive enzyme activity has been
73 traditionally assessed in two ways. On one side, *in vitro* experiments for the enzyme characterization
74 performed with enzyme extracts show that activity increases with increasing temperature usually up
75 to values exceeding those representative of their natural habitats, and also beyond lethal levels
76 (Alarcón et al., 1998; Fernández et al., 2001; Gelman et al., 2008; Tanji et al., 1988). On the other hand,
77 information about digestive enzyme activities analyzed in live fish at different temperatures is also
78 available (Bowyer et al., 2014; Hani et al., 2018; Mazumder et al., 2018; Miegel et al., 2010; Sharma et
79 al., 2017). However, these studies are based on only one sampling point during the postprandial
80 response and, also report contradictory responses among the different studied species.

81 Gut evacuation rate also increases at increasing temperatures up to a certain limit, leading to lower
82 residence time in the digestive tract (De et al., 2016; Fernández-Montero et al., 2018; Handeland et
83 al., 2008; Temming and Herrmann, 2001). However, the estimation of evacuation rate has usually been
84 performed under unrealistic feeding conditions in which the fish has been refed until satiation after a
85 starvation period. Digestion efficiency will depend on the relation between enzymatic activity and gut
86 transit time that are not short punctual facts but long dynamic cyclic processes usually occurring along

87 a whole day. Consequently, only experiments performed in routine feeding may provide realistic
88 information.

89 Other species-specific digestive characteristics may also strongly affect the digestion process. That is
90 the case of the gut luminal pH that conditions the activation of proenzymes in the gut, which may vary
91 among fish, particularly within the stomach (Buckling and Wood, 2009; Papastamatiou and Lowe, 2005;
92 Papastamatiou et al., 2007; Secor and Carey, 2016; Yúfera et al., 2004, 2007, 2012; Solovyev et al.,
93 2018). Optimum temperature for growth does not necessarily coincide with maximum feed intake,
94 highest digestion efficiency or optimal feeds utilization. In fact, from the point of view of aquaculture,
95 the aim is to optimize all these factors to obtain the better juvenile quality and weight gain at a
96 reasonable cost and with the lowest environmental impact.

97 Cobia (*Rachycentron canadum*), is a fast-growing species inhabiting tropical and subtropical waters
98 with a broad geographical distribution over several continents. The species may reach up to 60 Kg and
99 has a high-quality white flesh, being considered an excellent marine fish for aquaculture. It is being
100 produced mainly in Asian-Pacific coast and in a lesser extent in the Gulf of Mexico with a world
101 production above 40.000 tons during the last years (FAO, 2018; Tveteras, 2016). In Vietnam, it is one
102 of the main marine fish in large scale commercial aquaculture (Nhu et al., 2011). In South Vietnam and
103 other Southeast Asian regions water temperature in ponds and tanks ranges between 27 and 30 °C,
104 but may reach up to 36 °C during the daytime in the warmer season. For this reason, it is necessary to
105 understand the responses to increased temperatures, particularly in this region in the scenario of
106 global warming (IPCC 2015). Effect of rearing temperature on growth in cobia juveniles has been
107 examined by Sun and Chen (2009, 2014). In these studies, cobia juveniles were reared in the range 20
108 to 35 °C and highest growth rates were observed in the range 27-31 °C. An unsolved question is how
109 these temperature changes affect the digestion process.

110 Therefore, in this study we have examined the effects of temperature on the digestive function from
111 a global perspective in order to advance in the physiological basis and mechanisms behind digestive
112 efficiency and the corresponding effects on growth in cobia juveniles. Specifically, the aim of this study
113 was to elucidate whether a temperature increase from 30 to 34 °C affects gastrointestinal pH,
114 enzymatic proteolytic digestive activity and feed transit over the whole day period, in early juveniles
115 of this fast growing fish.

116

117 **Material and Methods**

118 *Fish rearing and sampling*

119 This study was part of a larger experiment examining growth performance in juveniles fed three
120 different diets (Nguyen et al., 2019). We used the tanks from control treatment for the present study.
121 Cobia juveniles were obtained from a local hatchery in Nha Trang, Vietnam, and acclimatized to final
122 experimental temperatures in two indoor fiberglass 5000-L tanks at Nha Trang University facilities
123 during one week. During the period of acclimatization, water temperature in one tank increased at a
124 rate of 1°C per day up to 34°C, while temperature in the other tank was kept constant at 30°C.
125 Acclimatized juveniles with 3.7 ± 0.4 g wet body weight, were randomly distributed to 6 experimental
126 200-L tanks (60 fish tank⁻¹) and reared under a light/dark cycle at two temperatures (30 and 34 °C,
127 three tanks for each temperature) in recirculation systems. Water salinity was 29.0 ± 3.1 g L⁻¹, pH 7.8–
128 8.3, oxygen level 4.6 ± 0.5 mg L⁻¹ and NH₃ < 0.03 mg L⁻¹. Fish were maintained with a 12:00 h illumination
129 period from 6:00 to 18:00 h and fed twice a day (8:00 and 16:00 h local time) according to the most
130 common procedure in the local hatcheries (Nguyen, 2013; 2014). The experimental diet was produced
131 at SPAROS Lda (Olhão, Portugal) containing 47% protein and 10% lipid (Table 1). The fish were fed to
132 nearly satiety (until most of the fish losing their appetite) by hand. Eventual uneaten feed and removed
133 fish were recorded for the calculation of daily feed intake and feed conversion ratio, parameters
134 considered in the companion study (Nguyen et al., 2019). After 2 weeks under these conditions, 3 fish
135 per tank (wet body weight: ca. 6-8 g range) were sampled every 4 hours during 24 hours, for gut pH,
136 digestive enzyme activity and feed transit determinations. Dissected gut were freeze-dried and sent to
137 Spain for the analyses of enzyme activities at the University of Almeria and the gut transit at the
138 ICMAN-CSIC. All experimental procedures complied with the Guidelines of the European Union Council
139 (2010/63/EU) for the use and experimentation of laboratory animals and were reviewed and approved
140 by the Spanish National Research Council (CSIC) bioethical committee.

141 *Measurements of gut pH*

142 The gastrointestinal pH was measured in nine individuals at each sampling point and for each
143 temperature condition immediately after sampling using a pH microelectrode (Thermo Orion, Thermo
144 Fisher Scientific Inc) following the procedure described in Yúfera et al. (2012). In short, the fish were
145 dissected to make the digestive track accessible. Next, the tip of the microelectrode (diameter 1.7 mm)
146 was inserted in small slits made in the stomach, anterior intestine, medium intestine and posterior
147 intestine (Fig. 1).

148 *Digestive enzyme activity analyses*

149 The complete digestive tract of three individuals of each sampling point and temperature were
150 dissected, immediately frozen at -80 °C and later freeze-dried. Enzyme extracts were prepared for
151 enzyme activity measurement from these samples. Stomach and intestine samples were dissected and

152 homogenized separately. Samples were manually homogenized in 3 mL distilled water and centrifuged
153 for ten minutes at 4 °C at 11,000 rpm (Eppendorf 5810R, Hamburg, Germany). The supernatants from
154 the stomach samples were measured for pepsin activity, and the supernatants from the intestine
155 samples were analyzed for trypsin activity.

156 Pepsin activity was determined by the method of Anson (1938): 15 µL of extracts were mixed with 1
157 mL of 0.5% acid-denatured bovine hemoglobin diluted in 0.2 M HCl-Glycine buffer. Assays were carried
158 out at the specific gastric pH determined in each sampling point. In this way we are determining
159 actually activated pepsin instead of pepsinogen (Yúfera et al., 2012). After incubation at 25°C for 30
160 minutes, the reaction was stopped by adding 0.5 mL of 20% trichloroacetic acid (TCA), cooled to 4 °C
161 for 15 minutes and then centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 15 minutes. The absorbance of the resulting
162 supernatant was measured at 280 nm. Blanks were constructed by adding the enzyme extracts to the
163 reaction mixture just after the TCA. Trypsin activity was determined using BAPNA (N-benzoyl-DL-
164 arginine-p-nitroanilide) (B4875 Sigma-Aldrich) as a substrate at 25°C. 0.5 mM BAPNA was dissolved in
165 1mL dimethyl-sulfoxide (DMSO) and then made up to 100 mL with Tris-HCl 50mM, pH 8.5, containing
166 20 mM CaCl₂. Reactions were started in 96-well microplates by the addition of 15 µL of the enzyme
167 extract to 200 µL of the respective substrate and liberation of p-nitroaniline was kinetically followed
168 at 405 nm in a microplate reader (Cytation 3 Cell Imaging Multi-Mode Reader, USA). The activities were
169 provided as units per weight unit of fish to prevent the variability due to gut content.

170 *Gut content and feed transit time measurements*

171 The feed content in the stomach and the intestine was estimated from their respective weight
172 determined in the gut samples used for enzyme and transit determinations. Average of empty guts
173 were subtracted from these values. The values were normalized as dry weight of feed content per g of
174 wet body weight (BW) to account for size differences among individuals.

175 For feed transit assessment, the day of the sampling, the feed labeled with containing of Yttrium oxide
176 (200 mg Kg⁻¹) was provided for the first meal (8:00 h) while the standard feed without the marker was
177 provided in the second meal (16:00 h). Yttrium content within the gut was analyzed at the ICMAN
178 (Spain) by inductivity-coupled plasma mass spectroscopy (Thermo Scientific iCAP Q ICP-MS) separately
179 in the stomach and the intestine of three individuals collected at each sampling point and temperature.
180 Two technical subsamples were performed for each analysis. Yttrium content, normalized as mg g⁻¹ of
181 fish BW was plotted as a function of time.

182 The residence time of ingested feed within the gut were estimated as the period of time from when
183 half of the stomach or intestine were filled with the marked feed to when half of the corresponding
184 section was emptied. Previously, in order to calculate the total amount of feed accessing the stomach

185 in the first 4-h period, the total amount of yttrium in the stomach and intestine were considered,
186 assuming that most of offered feed was ingested during the first hours of feeding. The yttrium content
187 in each sampling point was converted to percentage of maximum measured in each section and
188 temperature. The partial transit rates for each inter-sampling period were calculated as the difference
189 of the relative fullness percentage between two consecutive time-points (considering the absolute
190 values). Results have been presented as percentage of the maximum measured capacity entering or
191 leaving each compartment for each 4h-period.

192 *Statistical analyses*

193 Two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare differences between the postprandial
194 time and temperature for each section of the digestive tract. A post-hoc Tukey honest significant
195 difference (HSD) test was used when ANOVA results revealed significant differences ($P < 0.05$). The
196 homogeneity of variances was previously tested using Levene's test, and all parameters expressed as
197 percentages were subjected to arcsin square root transformation. Data are presented as the mean of
198 nine or three replicates \pm sem. All statistical tests were performed in IBM SPSS Statistics 18 software
199 (IBM Corp., USA).

200

201 **Results**

202 The pH within the stomach was permanently acidic with mean values ranging from 2.76 to 4.74 (Fig.
203 2) although a significant increase ($P < 0.05$) was observed after each meal. The two way-ANOVA suggest
204 that the gastric pH values change during the daily cycle but not in relation to temperature ($P > 0.05$). On
205 the other hand, the intestinal pH ranged from 6.05 to 7.69 (Fig. 3). An increase was observed after the
206 first meal and this slight alkaline condition was maintained for several hours before declining to neutral
207 or slightly acidic values at the end of the day ($P < 0.05$). Furthermore, the maximum measured pH values
208 were progressively higher when moving from proximal to distal part of the intestine ($P < 0.05$). A slightly
209 higher acidity was observed in the anterior and medium sections of the intestine at 34°C ($P < 0.05$).

210 Pepsin activity showed a daily rhythm at 30 °C with a maximum in the middle of the light period and a
211 minimum at the beginning of the dark period, while at 34°C some hourly changes with a decrease after
212 each meal were observed, but without so clear daily trend during the 24-h period. (Fig. 4). The trypsin
213 activity exhibited a clear daily rhythm at both temperatures with a patent increase after morning
214 feeding to reach a maximum several hours later (Fig. 4). Overall the activity of pepsin during the daily
215 cycle was slightly higher at 34 °C (average of the seven sampling points: 6.1 and 7.3 U·mg⁻¹ BW at 30
216 and 34 °C respectively), but values were significantly different only at 8 and 24 hours after the morning

217 meal. Similarly, the trypsin activity was significantly affected by the temperature only at 8 and 16 hours
218 after the morning meal, but considering globally all daily samples the activity was quite similar
219 (averages 1.20 and 1.29 U·g⁻¹ BW at 30 and 34 °C respectively). Considering all hourly data together,
220 the two-way ANOVA indicates that the temperature is not affecting the trypsin and pepsin activities.

221 The daily pattern of the estimated feed content within the stomach and the intestine is shown in Figure
222 5. The patterns were clearly different at each temperature. At 30 °C the amount of digesta within the
223 stomach increased continuously from the morning feeding up to 8 hours after the second feeding.
224 Contrarily, at 34 °C the pattern showed two peaks, the first one 4 hours after the first meal and the
225 second one 8 hours after the second meal. Feed content of the intestine at both temperatures was
226 dramatically lower compared to the stomach and also showed two maxima at the same times observed
227 in the stomach at 34 °C.

228 Postprandial pattern of yttrium content within the gut is shown in Figure 6 (only the first meal
229 contained yttrium oxide). At 30 °C the yttrium content in the stomach reached the maximum value at
230 8 h after the first meal, while in the intestine the maximum was observed only 4 h after the first meal
231 ($P < 0.05$) maintaining similar high content at 8 h post-feeding. At 34 °C the maximum yttrium content
232 was observed 4 h after the first meal in the stomach and at 8 h post-feeding in the intestine ($P < 0.05$),
233 although an important amount of yttrium was already observed in the intestine at 4 h.

234 The partial transit rates of the first meal in the stomach for each period inter-samplings were higher
235 during the first 4-h period and decreased progressively along the rest of the 24-h cycle, although no
236 significant differences were detected at 30 °C (Fig. 7). In addition, the transit was notably faster at 34
237 °C particularly during the first 8 h after feeding, with rates between 100 and 65% of total volume
238 displaced (intake or released) during each 4-h period. In the intestine the transit rate was relatively
239 constant and similar at both temperatures during 12 h after feeding (Fig. 7). Then the rates dropped
240 and remained very low during the following 12 h.

241 The residence time within the gut of the first meal was calculated from Figure 8. In this figure, the total
242 amount of labelled feed accessing the stomach during the first 4-h period was considered, including
243 the amount already transferred to and analyzed in the intestine. This criterion considers the time
244 period from 50% of maximum measured label (yttrium) accessed the stomach or intestine up to the
245 time when 50 % of this material has disappeared from the same compartment. Thus, the time the first
246 meal spent in the stomach and the intestine was longer at 30 than at 34 °C, particularly in the stomach
247 (12h:02min vs 4h:54min, respectively) (Fig. 8). In the intestine, the difference was not so large
248 (8h:18min vs 5h:54min, respectively). On the other hand, the residence time of this first meal at 30 °C
249 was longer in the stomach, while at 34 °C it was longer in the intestine.

250

251 **Discussion**

252 The present study was performed in parallel with other study analyzing growth and feed conversion
253 ratio differences in the same batch of juveniles fed different diet formulations at these two
254 temperatures for six weeks (Nguyen et al. 2019). In that report, we found that cobia reared at 30°C
255 grew faster and showed a more favorable feed conversion ratio than those at elevated temperature
256 (34°C), being in both cases fed the same daily ration. We used the control tanks for the present study
257 on digestion. The sampling was intentionally performed two weeks after the start of the experiment
258 to determine the digestion status in the middle of the growth experiment, when both feed intake and
259 growth were assessed to be high. Cobia is a voracious carnivorous fish with a large stomach and a short
260 intestine (Fig. 1). This species feeds on small fish, crustaceans and squids (Franks et al., 1996). These
261 feeding habits and gut anatomy have consequences in the mode of digestion as we observed in the
262 different parameters examined. It seems evident that the stomach is very important for digestion and
263 maybe more so than the intestine in this species, based on their respective volumes, luminal ionic
264 values, proteolytic activities and transit rates results. Most research on postprandial response in fish
265 has been done considering only one morning meal in order to examine the results without
266 interferences of subsequent meals. In our study we considered two meals according to the customary
267 use in hatcheries for this species in this region (Nguyen, 2013). With this feeding protocol we found
268 more realistic overview of the digestive function but with additional complications to interpret results
269 because fish may change the feeding behavior and daily digestive patterns when have the possibility
270 to choose among different daily meals (Montoya et al., 2010; Yúfera et al., 2014).

271 In relation to luminal pH of the digestive tract, two gastric acidification strategies have been reported
272 for vertebrates. One is to maintain a permanent acidic environment in the stomach with independence
273 of the presence or absence of ingested feed, as observed for instance in mammals and birds; the other
274 is to maintain a neutral pH in the lumen of the stomach between meals and with a decline only after
275 the ingestion of feed (Papastamatiou and Lowe, 2005; Secor and Carey, 2016). Most teleostean fish
276 analyzed up to date exhibited this second strategy (Hlophe et al., 2014; Nikolopoulou et al., 2011;
277 Yúfera et al., 2004, 2012, Solovyev et al., 2016). However, our study reveals that cobia juveniles
278 maintain a permanent gastric acidification. This is an interesting finding because such a strategy has
279 been previously described only in rainbow trout *Oncorhynchus mykiss* (Bucking and Wood, 2009) and
280 some elasmobranchian species (Papastamatiou and Lowe 2005; Papastamatiou et al., 2007). Some
281 clues about the same strategy have also been reported for southern bluefin tuna *Thunnus maccoyii*
282 examining fed and starved fish although a postprandial response was not scrutinized (Leef et al., 2012).
283 Unfortunately, the list of teleostean species examined in detail is too short to know if this strategy is

284 less common or we need still to explore more species, particularly those with strict carnivorous feeding
285 habits, to get a more complete figure of the acidification strategy in teleosteans. To maintain a neutral
286 gastric environment during fasting has been associated to infrequent feeding in snakes and sharks
287 (Papastamatiou and Lowe, 2005; Secor et al., 2012), but in teleostean with daily feeding habits this
288 rule remains uncertain. In fact, an erratic daily feeding by changing randomly the moment of feed
289 delivery every day may also alter the daily pattern from neutral/acid alternation to permanent
290 acidification in gilthead seabream *Sparus aurata* (Montoya et al., 2010). A constant low gastric pH
291 enables this voracious species to be always ready to activate pepsinogen to start the hydrolysis of the
292 ingested prey. The small increase of gastric pH after meals has been attributed to the dilution effect of
293 the ingesting feed, possibly in parallel with some water; drinking water for osmoregulatory purposes,
294 as well as to the buffering capacity of feeds (Márquez et al., 2012) and also the buffer capacity of the
295 slightly alkaline seawater itself.

296 We found that increased temperature did not affect to gastric pH but it led to decreased luminal pH in
297 the anterior intestine and to a lesser extent the mid intestine. This effect is probably related to higher
298 transit rates observed at 34 °C in which the acidic chyme pass quickly to the short intestine. A similar
299 effect on the intestinal pH was described at increased temperature in channel catfish *Ictalurus*
300 *punctatus* (Page et al., 1976). The same effect in the anterior intestine was also detected in other
301 species when feed only one meal (Bucking and Hood, 2009; Rosero, 2013; Yúfera et al., 2014). A
302 decrease of the intestinal pH has been reported for different freshwater species associated to seasonal
303 increased temperatures (Solovyev et al., 2018). The authors explained this decrease as an adaptation
304 to enable fish to regulate and optimize the activity of their digestive pancreatic enzymes. Our results
305 would indicate, that in addition, the changes in the water temperature alter the feeding behavior and
306 feed processing along the day.

307 Pepsin activity showed hourly variations along the 24-h period ~~eyele~~ although a clear daily rhythm was
308 observed only at 30 °C. Considering that the minor variations of gastric pH are practically no affecting
309 to pepsinogen activation as reported in other species (Yúfera et al., 2012), these changes should be
310 interpreted in relation to the amount of substrate. The lower activity practically coincides with the
311 higher amount of digesta in the stomach (Fig. 4) that is consuming the active enzyme. Contrary to this,
312 the pancreatic trypsin activity exhibited a daily cycle with the expected increase associated with the
313 intestinal alkalization when the chyme is released from the stomach. Such daily pattern has been
314 already reported in other fish species (Rosero, 2013; Yúfera et al., 2014). It is also interesting to note
315 that the proteolytic activity in the stomach was much higher than in the intestine. We found that the
316 proteolytic activity of pepsin and trypsin was hardly affected by the 4 °C increase of temperature, at
317 least when the standard incubation temperature were used for the analytical protocols. It could be

318 interesting to explore analytical methodologies adapted to different temperatures. Miegel et al. (2010)
319 did not find differences of intestinal proteases activity in fed individuals of yellowtail kingfish *Seriola*
320 *lalandi* maintained at 12.6 and 20.8 °C. However, Bowyer et al. (2014) found higher tryptic activity at
321 intermediate temperatures in the range 21 to 27 °C in starved individuals of the same species. Similar
322 results were observed by Hani et al. (2018) in starved threespine stickleback *Gasterosteus aculeatus* in
323 the range 16 to 21 °C, by Sharma et al. (2017) in Indian major carp *Catla catla* in the range 10 to 35 °C,
324 as well as by Zhao et al. (2009) in the range 20 to 32 °C in Chinese longsnout catfish *Leiocassis*
325 *longirostris*. On the other hand, Mazamder et al. (2018) reported higher pepsin activity at 30 °C in the
326 range 22 to 34 °C in fasted Malabar blood snapper *Lutjanus malabaricus*. Comparison of these results
327 is difficult due to differences in fish size, experimental protocols and analytical methods, and in
328 addition, the fish for those analyses were collected at only one time and any postprandial patterns was
329 not explored. In our study and with independence of the similarity of the global daily averages of the
330 lytic activity, the postprandial patterns showed maximum and minimum values that are not coincident
331 at both temperatures. These results indicate that a single daily sample is not enough to characterize
332 the enzymatic activity under different temperature conditions. Such data must be interpreted in
333 relation to gut content as mentioned above but also in relation to transit results.

334 Transit rate assessment is a challenging task when more than one meal is offered. The postprandial
335 responses overlap and the patterns are harder to interpret. A key factor in our study is to recognize
336 that some ingested feed may pass to the intestine before the second sampling (Figs. 4 and 5) and
337 therefore the estimation of the ingestion during the first period should include both sections. The gut
338 content on weight basis gives only indicative information because it is representing the balance
339 between digesta input and output. To obtain a more complete information it is necessary to estimate
340 the temporal rates for the gut filling and evacuation under this feeding protocol in each gut
341 compartment. An interesting result has been to verify whether the transit velocity of digesta
342 throughout the digestive tract is changing along the daily cycle (Fig. 6), something perhaps obvious but
343 never examined in fish. Thus, the transit rates were maxima during 8 h after feeding at 34 °C. In this
344 period the whole stomach volume was filled during the first 4-h period and emptied in a great part
345 during the following 4 h before the next meal. The rest of the day the transit of remaining chyme was
346 notably slower. At 30 °C the transit rates during the first hours were significantly lower than at 34 °C
347 and the posterior decrease was smoother and not statistically significant. In the intestine no effect of
348 temperature was observed and the transit was relatively fast during the first 12 h during which most
349 part of the first meal is evacuated, the remaining digesta moved at notably slower rate. In our study,
350 the second meal was not labeled and therefore these transit rates are only referring to the first meal
351 when a second meal is pushing 8 h later.

352 Evacuation rates have been determined in many species usually based on fish with the stomach already
353 full and without further feeding, such an approach gives an incomplete understanding of transit time
354 in the stomach but in many cases the pass of the digesta through the intestine was properly assessed
355 (Adamidou et al., 2009; Bonvini et al., 2018). While the evacuation of the stomach may last less than
356 one day, the evacuation of the intestine may last 36 to 48 h. These values are only indicative for median
357 sized farmed fish with daily feeding. Different factors such as feeding frequency, ration size, feed
358 quality, body size and water temperature have been described to affect transit time in fish (Miegel et
359 al., 2010), particularly the last one (De et al., 2016; Fernández-Montero et al., 2018; Handeland et al.,
360 2008; Temming and Herrmann, 2001). According to these studies, transit time increases with the
361 temperature except at extremely high values. Our results however showed an increase at very high
362 temperatures that is probably close to tolerance limit.

363 Probably the most useful information is the time the digesta spent within the different sections and
364 being hydrolyzed by the corresponding digestive enzymes. In routine feeding, the ingested feed is
365 mixed up with the feed of the previous and the next meal(s) and its complete evacuation from the gut
366 may last longer than expected due to the residual amount that can be detected for many hours, even
367 days, later than most part of the digesta was evacuated. The criterion explained above allows an
368 estimation of the residence time that can be compared between compartments and temperatures
369 (Fig. 7). The most evident result is that the residence time was shorter at 34 °C. The increase of 4 °C
370 induced a faster filling and evacuation in the stomach as commented above but also a lower residence
371 time, that was less than half of the period at 30 °C. In the intestine the effect was not as dramatic but
372 the reduction of digesta residence time was still important. The lower period of time for the proteolytic
373 work of the digestive proteases brings on lower dietary protein utilization and is one of the reasons for
374 the lower weight gain and higher feed conversion ratio observed at 34 °C (Nguyen et al., 2019).
375 Furthermore, a relevant aspect is that the first meal transited almost simultaneously ~~than~~ in the
376 stomach and intestine, when certain temporal displacement would be expected as determined in
377 other species (Bonvini et al., 2018). The ingested pellets of the morning meal in our experiment passed
378 directly into the intestine, and this segment was filled almost at same time as the stomach, working
379 more like an extension of the stomach than like a different digestive tract compartment.
380 Unfortunately, our experimental protocol does not allow to evaluate the transit time of the second
381 meal that not necessarily may follow the same pattern but that we can assume it is similar to that of
382 the first meal. It is likely that the feeding protocols for the voracious and carnivorous cobia in
383 aquaculture where pelleted feed particles are offered in large amounts results in a digestive process
384 that is progressing differently from nature where cobia ingest larger and intact prey. However, given
385 the artificial feeding conditions in aquaculture, it is important to understand how the digestive system
386 that is evolutionary adapted to natural conditions perform under different feeding regimes.

387 In summary, the present results indicate that at 34 °C, a subtle increase of proteolytic activity cannot
388 compensate for the faster gut transit rate. The reduced time the dietary proteins are available for
389 hydrolysis when compared with fish maintained at 30 °C can explain the lower growth observed at this
390 temperature (Nguyen et al. 2019). Another reason for the lower growth could be an unfavorable
391 energetic balance at the higher temperature but the studies by Sun and Chen (2009, 2014) showed no
392 evident variations of the feed energy allocated to metabolism in the range 27-33°C in cobia juveniles
393 of the same weight range, although it was higher at 35 °C. Furthermore, this study shows a general
394 appraisal of digestion in the 24-h temporal horizon as correspond to a daily feeding protocol,
395 demonstrating the importance of observing inter-hourly changes in the different digestion parameters
396 to characterize the digestive potential under given temperature conditions.

397

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534

535 **Figure captions**

536 Fig. 1. Digestive tract of an early *R. canadum* juvenile indicating the places for the gut pH
537 determinations. ST: stomach; AI: anterior intestine; MI: medium intestine; PI: posterior intestine.

538

539 Fig. 2. Postprandial changes in gastric pH (mean and SEM) of *R. canadum* juveniles at the two
540 experimental temperatures. Different letters denote statistical difference at the different sampling
541 times. Arrows indicate the time for the two feed supplies. Shaded area indicates the dark period.

542

543 Fig. 3. Postprandial changes in the luminal pH (mean and SEM) of the different section of the intestine
544 of *R. canadum* juveniles at the two experimental temperatures. Arrows indicate the time for the two
545 feed supplies. Dashed line at pH 7 was included for a better comparison between both temperatures.
546 Shaded area indicates the dark period.

547

548 Fig. 4. Postprandial changes of pepsin and trypsin activities (mean and SEM) in the stomach and
549 intestine of *R. canadum* juveniles at the two experimental temperatures. Arrows indicate the time for
550 the two feed supplies. Shaded area indicates the dark period. Different letters denote significant
551 differences at the different sampling times for each temperature. Asterisks denote significant
552 differences between temperatures.

553

554 Fig. 5. Postprandial changes of gut content within the stomach (grey) and intestine (black) of *R.*
555 *canadum* juveniles at the two experimental temperatures. Shaded area indicates the dark period.

556

557 Fig. 6. Postprandial changes of yttrium content (mean and SEM) within the stomach and intestine of
558 *R. canadum* juveniles at the two experimental temperatures. Shaded area indicates the dark period.

559

560 Fig. 7. Partial transit rates of digesta for each inter-sampling period (4 h) in the stomach and intestine
561 of *R. canadum* juveniles at the two experimental temperatures. Results are presented as percentage
562 of the maximum (mean and SEM) measured capacity entering or leaving each compartment for each

563 4h-period. Different letters denote significant differences at the different sampling times for each
564 temperature. Asterisks denote significant differences between temperatures.

565

566 Fig. 8. Residence time of the first meal in the stomach and intestine of *R. canadum* juveniles at the two
567 experimental temperatures. Results are presented as percentage of the maximum feed content (mean
568 and SEM) at each sampling time. Arrows represent the period of time from the 50% of the maximum
569 acceded to each gut compartment to the 50% is evacuated from the same compartment. Values in
570 the insets indicate the residence time according to this criterion.

571 **Tables**572 Table 1. Formulation (g kg⁻¹ dry matter basis) and proximate analysis of the diet.

Ingredients	g kg⁻¹
Krill meal	50.0
Wheat meal	175.3
Fish meal	250.0
Soy protein concentrate	100.0
Pea protein concentrate	134.0
CPSP 90	50.0
DL methionine	5.5
Betaine HCl	5.0
Encapsuled taurine	5.0
Encapsuled tryptophane	5.0
Fish oil	28.0
Krill oil	30.0
Pea starch	100.0
Vitamin & mineral mix	20.0
Lutavit E50	0.2
Calcium carbonate	10.0
Mono ammonium phosphate	30.0
Antioxidant (Paramega)	2.0
<i>Proximate composition</i>	
Dry matter	958.0
Energy (MJ kg ⁻¹)	20.1
Crude protein	465.0
Crude fat	103.0

573

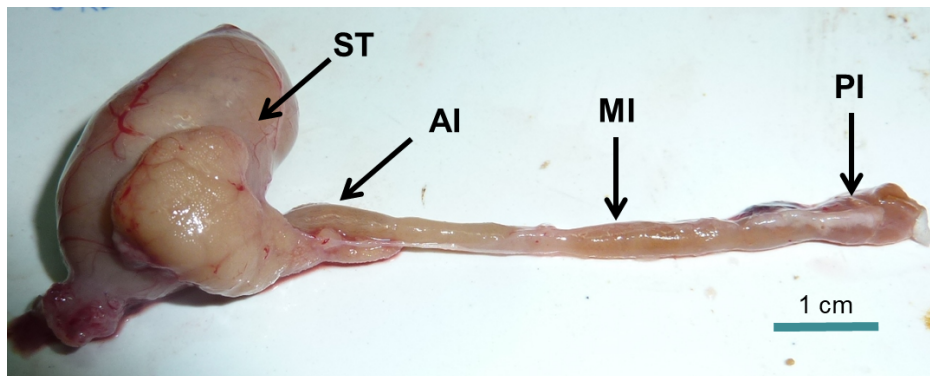


Fig. 1

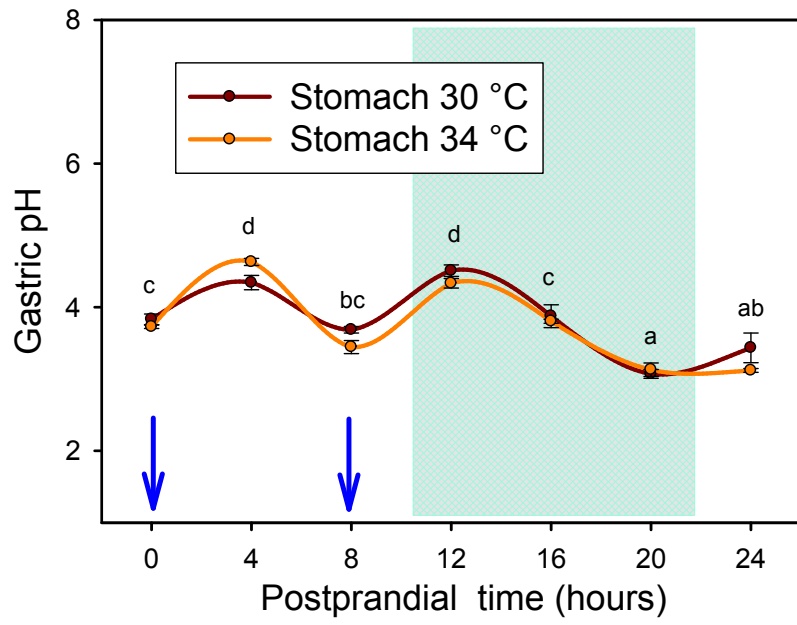


Fig. 2

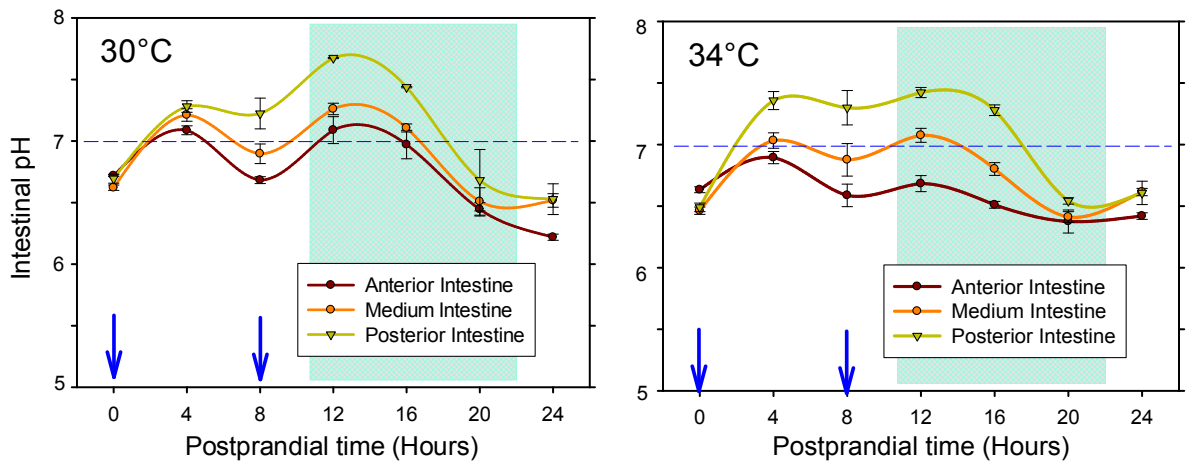


Fig. 3

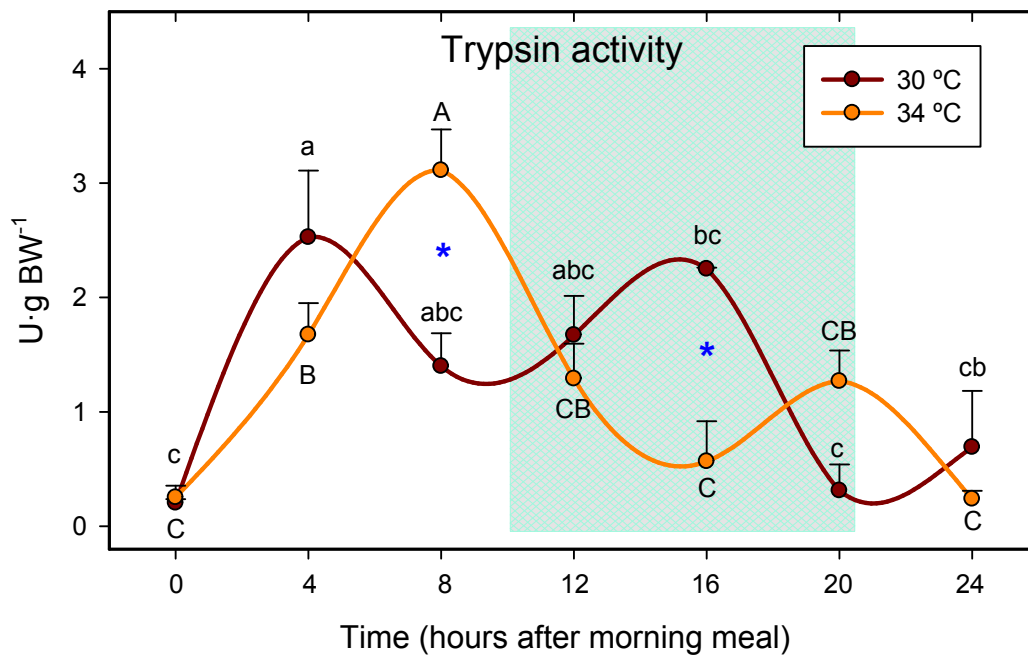
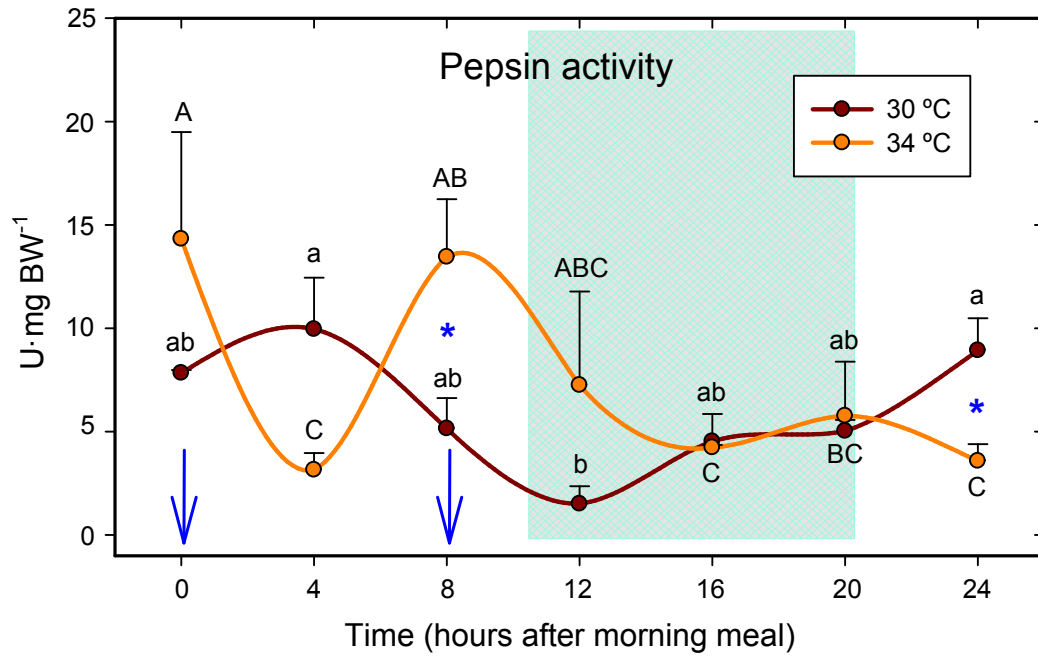


Fig. 4

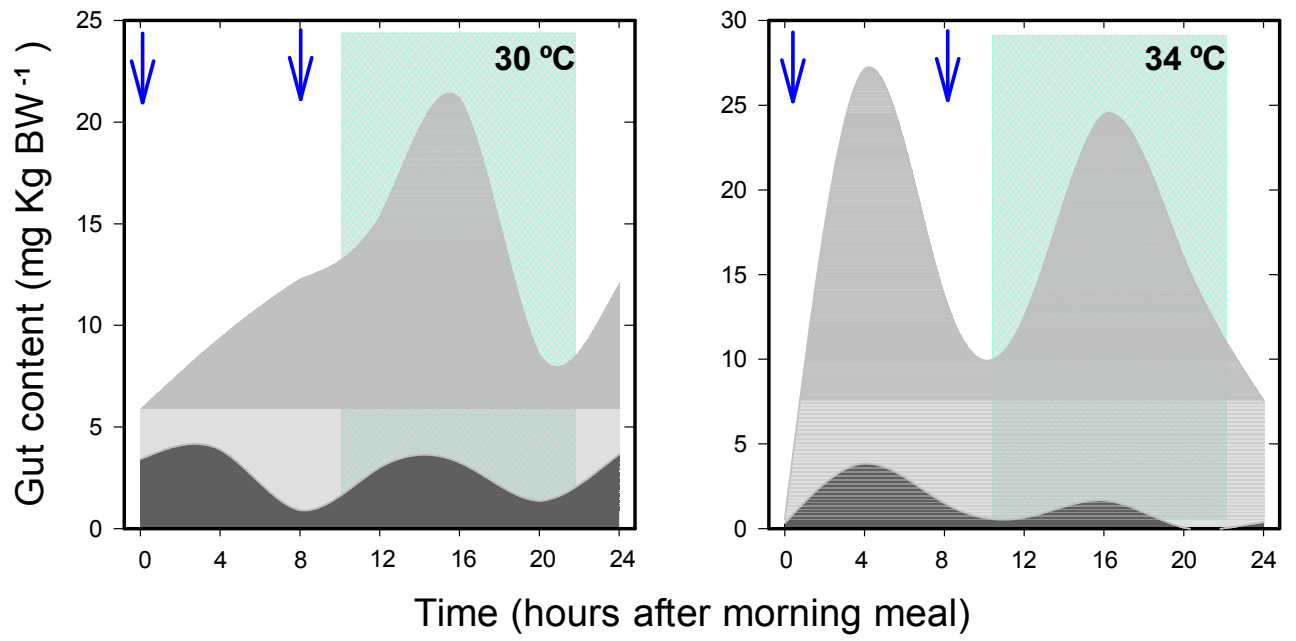


Fig. 5.

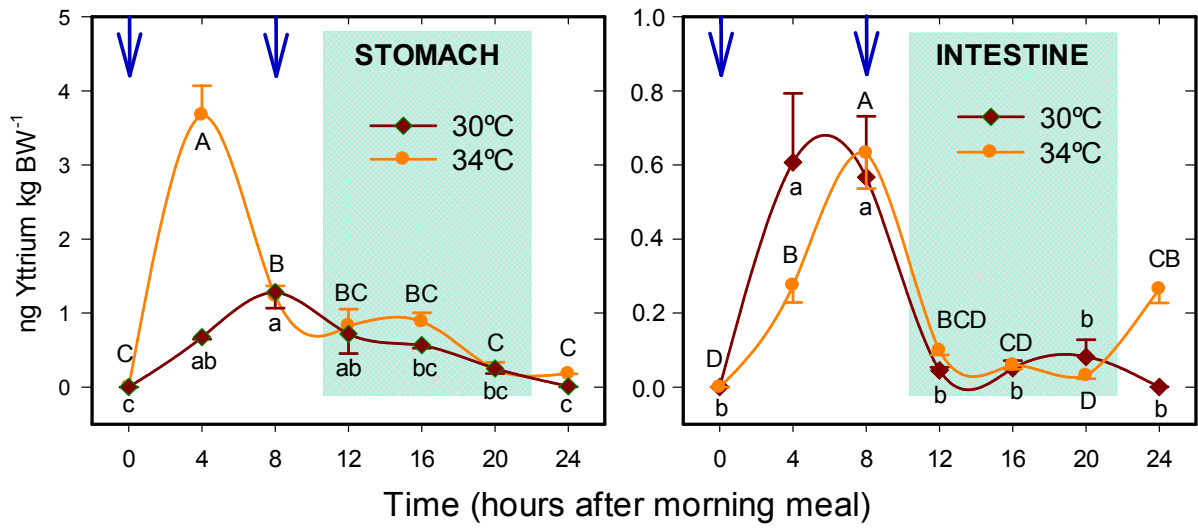


Fig. 6

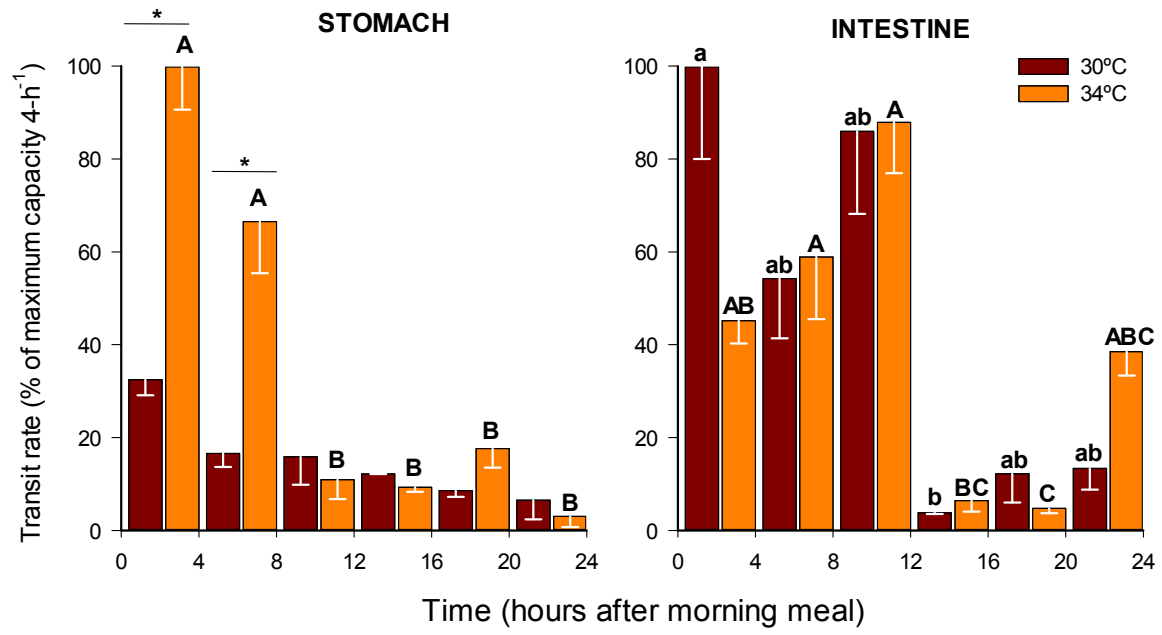


Fig. 7

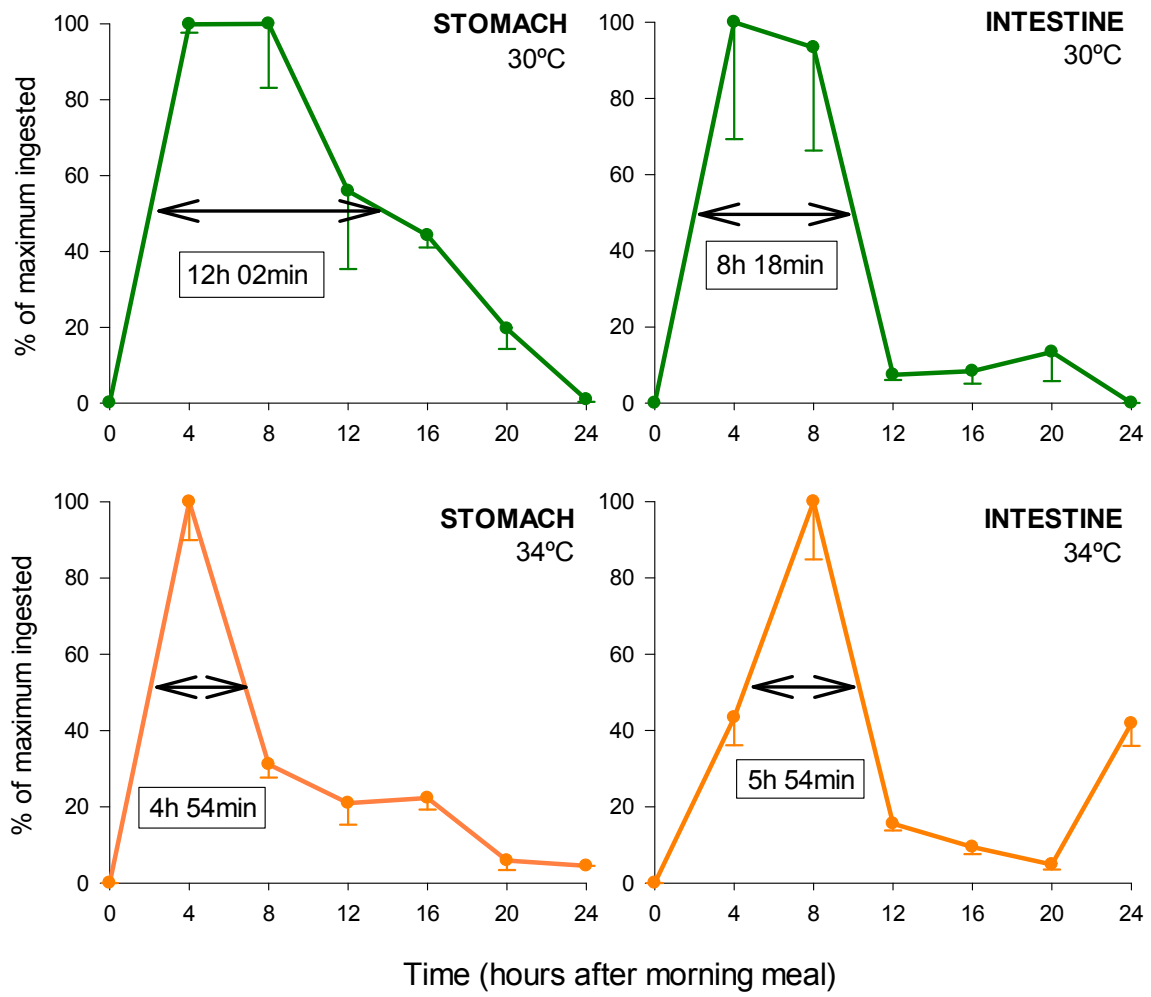


Fig. 8.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest in relation to the present investigation.