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PLANT-BASED PROTEIN INGREDIENTS CAN SUCCESSFULLY REPLACE FISH 1 2 MEAL IN THE DIET OF BALLAN WRASSE (LABRUS BERGYLTA) JUVENILES 3 Thomas Cavrois-Rogacki^{1,2}, Daniel Leeming³, Pedro Munoz Lopez¹, Andrew Davie^{1,4}, 4 Hervé Migaud ^{1*} 5 6 Addresses 7 8 ¹Institute of Aquaculture, Faculty of Natural Sciences, University of Stirling, Stirling FK9 9 4LA, Scotland, UK 10 ²Current address: Otter Ferry Seafish Ltd., Tighnabruaich, Argyll, PA21 2DH, Scotland, UK 11 ³BioMar Ltd., North Shore Rd/Grangemouth Docks, Grangemouth, FK3 8UL, Scotland, UK ⁴Current address: Aquascot Limited, Fyrish Way, Alness, IV17 OPJ, Scotland, UK 12 13 14 15 16 *Corresponding author 17 Prof. Hervé Migaud Institute of Aquaculture, Faculty of Natural Sciences, University of Stirling, Stirling FK9 18 19 4LA, Scotland, UK 20 E-mail: herve.migaud@stir.ac.uk

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22 Abstract

23 The production of ballan wrasse is hampered by the poor growth and feeding performances 24 and lack of robustness of the species in culture, which is often attributed to sub-optimal 25 nutrition. The commercial marine finfish diets used in ballan wrasse hatcheries, rich in 26 marine ingredients, may not fulfil the species nutritional requirements. This study aimed at 27 evaluating the effects of plant-based ingredients inclusion on the growth, survival, feeding 28 response and digestibility of the species. Simultaneously, the effects of two dietary protein 29 levels were investigated. Ballan wrasse juveniles at approximately 5 g were reared at 15 °C 30 for 70 days. Three Marine Protein:Plant Protein ratios (3.4, 1.6 and 0.9) and two protein 31 contents (51 and 59 % CP) were studied, resulting in five experimental diets and one 32 commercial control diet, tested in triplicate. The partial replacement of fish meal by plant-33 based ingredients was shown to not compromise growth, survival and feed efficiency. Fish 34 fed the Standard CP diets (51 % CP) showed a significantly lower FCR (1.2 ± 0.1) compared 35 to fish fed High CP diets (59 % CP) (1.4 ± 0.2). Regarding daily feed intake, fish fed the Standard CP diets ate less $(1.4 \pm 0.2 \% \text{ day}^{-1})$ than fish fed the High CP diets $(1.6 \pm 0.1 \% \text{ day}^{-1})$ 36 day⁻¹). Signs of enteritis were observed in two out of three High CP diets. The use of plant-37 38 based ingredients, more cost-effective and sustainable than fish meal, has a great potential for 39 the species as they reflect better natural feeding of wild populations thus may promote the 40 hatcheries productivity by reducing feed costs while improving their sustainability index. The 41 study shows that a potential route for optimising diet formulation for ballan wrasse may lie 42 within carbohydrate and lipid contents. Overall, this research contributes to the development 43 of ballan wrasse on-growing feeds to promote the development of ballan wrasse aquaculture 44 and its benefits on sea lice mitigation.

45 **Keywords:** cleaner fish; ballan wrasse; protein; plant-based diet, digestibility.

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47 **1. Introduction**

48 Fish meal has been the predominant protein ingredients used in aquafeeds (Gatlin et al., 2007) as is particularly well suited for piscivorous marine finfish species due to its high 49 50 protein content, amino acid profile and palatability (Rolland et al., 2015). However, the 51 global fish meal production is not sustainable as it relies on over-exploited pelagic marine 52 fish stocks (FAO, 2018). Plant-based proteins are an interesting alternative due to their 53 nutritional profile, high availability and price competitivity (Gatlin et al., 2007; Hardy, 2010). 54 They have been successfully used to entirely or partially replace fish meal in the formulation 55 of aquafeeds for rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss) (Lazzarotto et al., 2018), Atlantic 56 salmon (Salmo salar) (Egerton et al., 2020; Hartviksen et al., 2014; Taylor et al., 2019; Vera 57 et al., 2020), Atlantic cod (Gadus morhua) (Hansen and Hemre, 2013) and European seabass 58 (Dicentrachus labrax) (Kaushik et al., 2004; Torrecillas et al., 2017). However, recent 59 research showed plant-based diets require higher dietary micronutrients to maintain optimal 60 performance in salmon (Vera et al., 2020) and nutritional programming can promote better 61 performances (Balasubramanian et al., 2016; Clarkson et al., 2017). Plant-based diets are of 62 particular interest in the formulation of omnivorous species diets like ballan wrasse (Labrus *bergylta*) as they may better match the species natural food habits, which includes grazing on 63 64 macroalgae (Sayer et al., 1996).

Ballan wrasse became an important cleaner fish species in Northern Europe over the last 10 years for the biological control of sea lice in Atlantic salmon (Brooker *et al.*, 2018). While a majority of the deployed wrasse remains wild caught, the sector aspires to be self-sufficient in farmed ballan wrasse in the coming years (Brooker *et al.*, 2018). However, the biological knowledge of the species, and its nutritional requirements along the production cycle, remains scarce. Although significant progress has been made in the last decade, the production is still hampered by slow growth, poor feeding performance, lack of robustness
with elevated mortality levels and costly feeds (Cavrois-Rogacki *et al.*, 2019).

A very limited number of studies have investigated the protein requirements for the species, 73 74 with both experimental and commercial CP levels ranging from 36.2 % to 80.9 % in the 75 ongrowing stage (Hamre et al., 2013) and 67.4 % to 75.7 % in the weaning stage (Kousoulaki 76 et al., 2015, 2016). Overall, the commercial grower diets for the species, containing around 77 51 % crude protein (Cavrois-Rogacki et al., 2019), have been suggested to be deficient in 78 protein, most likely explaining to a certain extend the slow growth of the species in captivity 79 (Hamre *et al.*, 2013). In addition, digestibility of proteins, lipids and energy was shown to be 80 poor in ballan wrasse juveniles compared to that of other marine species (e.g. European sea 81 bass, Atlantic cod) (Cavrois-Rogacki et al., 2019) and was further supported by reduced feed 82 efficiency and growth. A recent study also suggested that conventional extruded feeds, which 83 are commonly used in ballan wrasse farms, may have a detrimental effect on the apparition of 84 early life stages skeletal deformities as well as severely affect survival and condition during 85 the on-growing phase (Kousoulaki et al., 2021).

86 Ballan wrasse nutritional requirements may be related to its agastric digestive system 87 and absence of acid phase digestion, reducing the digestive capability of the species 88 compared to that of gastric fish (Lie et al., 2018). As shown for other stomachless fish 89 species such as common carp (Cyrpinus carpio), feed performance is highly dependent on 90 nutrient assimilation from specific raw ingredients (Heinitz et al., 2016; Viola et al., 1983). 91 The combined use of soy protein concentrate (SPC) and pea protein, which contain around 48 92 and 22 % crude protein (CP), respectively, are commonly used as an alternative plant-based 93 protein source to marine proteins. In addition, SPC has a good inorganic amino acid (IAA) 94 profile, despite a deficiency in methionine that can be overcome by IAA supplementation (Glencross et al., 2007; Rolland et al., 2015). Pea protein is interesting due to its high filling 95

96 power that can allow the replacement of indigestible starch sources (Collins *et al.*, 2013;
97 Guillaume *et al.*, 1999; Øverland *et al.*, 2009).

98 The aim of this study was to test the use of SPC and pea protein as a more sustainable 99 substitute to fish meal in ballan wrasse grower diets. Farmed ballan wrasse were fed six 100 experimental diets, with three inclusion levels of plant-ingredients for a duration of 10 weeks. 101 In addition, we investigated the effects of a high dietary protein content (59 % CP) compared 102 to that of a standard protein content (51 % CP).

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104 **2. Materials and Methods**

105 2.1. Experimental system and conditions

106 The trial was carried out at the Marine Environmental Research Laboratory (Machrihanish, 107 UK). The pumped seawater was filtered down to 10 µm through a combination of sand and 108 pressurised filters followed by UV treatment (1.18 mJ h⁻¹). The study was performed in 18 109 circular flat-bottom tanks (100-1). Each group of 6 tanks had its own recirculation aquaculture 110 system (TMC system 1,000: Tropical Marine Centre, Chorleywood, UK). Water turnover in 111 the tanks was approximately 100% h⁻¹. Lights were on 24 hours with an average intensity of 0.8 W m⁻² at the water surface. At the beginning of the trial, tanks were stocked with 80 112 113 ballan wrasse juveniles $(5.0 \pm 0.2 \text{ g})$ originating from a commercial ballan wrasse hatchery 114 (Otter Ferry Seafish Ltd, Otter Ferry, UK). Fish were acclimated to the study temperature at a rate of 0.5 °C day⁻¹ and were then maintained at 15.0 ± 0.5 °C during the trial according to 115 116 Cavrois-Rogacki et al. (2019). Water oxygen saturation was kept at 100 % during the trial.

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118 2.2. Feeding and digestibility study

119 For the first 70 days, termed the "growth trial", individual tanks were fed one of either the 120 control diet (BioMar Symbio, D1) or five experimental diets (D2-D6) produced by BioMar 121 Ltd. (Brande, Denmark). The diets were hot extruded at >100 °C and air dried for 40-60 mins 122 under hot air (100-125 C) until moisture levels (circa 75 % DW) were reached. Two levels of 123 protein content and three levels of protein source were tested. Diets 1 to 3 corresponded to 124 the standard crude protein diets ("Standard CP"), with a targeted level of 51 % CP, while 125 diets 4 to 6 were the high crude protein diets ("High CP"), with a targeted level of 59 % CP. 126 The protein source was mostly marine in diets 1 and 4 (Marine Protein:Plant Protein ratio "MP:PP" of 4.0 and 2.8, respectively), mixed between plant and marine in diets 2 and 5 127 128 (MP:PP of 1.7 and 1.5, respectively) and mostly plant in diets 3 and 6 (MP:PP of 0.9 and 0.8, respectively). In all diets, krill meal level was constant at 30 % (Table 1). The diets were iso-129 energetic and were tested in triplicate (n = 3, one diet replicate within each recirculation)130 131 system). Feeds were automatically distributed using Eheim twin-screw feeders controlled by a central command unit, which delivered small amounts of feed every 8 minutes. 132

133 Throughout the experiment, all fish were fed over 24 hours to satiation plus excess confirmed 134 by the presence of uneaten pellets at the bottom of the tanks. Feed recovery was done daily 135 from Monday to Friday by siphoning the bottom of the tanks to collect uneaten pellets, which were then weighed and converted into a dry weight using standard curves. During the 136 137 weekend, fish were fed based on the average of the weekly feed intake and an average of the 138 previous feed waste was used. At the end of the growth trial, the experiment was extended for 139 another 2 weeks to collect faecal material for digestibility analyses. Yttrium oxide, an inert digestibility marker, was added to the diets during the production process at 400 mg kg⁻¹. 140 141 Fish were fed continuously to satiation for 2 days before turning off the feeders and flushing the tanks to remove the faeces and uneaten food. On the 3rd day, the freshly produced faeces 142 143 were collected by siphoning every 2 hours, and storing samples at -20 °C. The procedure was

repeated until enough faecal material (*circa* 14 g wet weight per tank) was collected fornutritional analysis.

146

147 2.3. Sampling

The sampling regime during the growth trial included an initial (D0) and final (D70) sample point for which the total biomass (g), the number of fish per tank and the individual total length (cm) and weight (g) (n = 20 per tank) were recorded. Tanks were checked daily for mortalities and calculations were adjusted accordingly. Feed Conversion Ratio (FCR), Specific Growth Rate (SGR), Daily Feed Intake (DFI) and condition factor (K) were calculated as follow:

154 FCR = (feed intake, g) / (weight gain, g)

155 SGR (% biomass day⁻¹) = 100 x (ln (final body weight, g) - ln (initial body weight, g)) / 156 (time, days)

157 DFI (% biomass day⁻¹) = FCR x SGR (Laird & Needham, 1988)

158 $K = 100 \text{ x (weight, g)} / (\text{length, cm})^3$

At the end of the growth trial, three pools of four fish per tank were sampled and individually analysed to account for variability within a tank. The resulting data was averaged and the average of each experimental triplicate (i.e. tank) were used for the subsequent statistical analysis.

163 The foregut (first quarter of the intestinal tract) of five sacrificed fish per tank was dissected 164 and stored in pure ethanol at room temperature for histological analysis. All carcasses were 165 stored at -20 °C until later proximate composition analysis.

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168 Proximate composition of the feeds and fish carcasses were determined according to standard procedures (AOAC, 2000) in place at the Nutrition Analytical Service laboratory of the 169 170 Institute of Aquaculture (Stirling, UK). All samples were analysed in technical duplicates (n 171 = 2). Before analysis, feed samples were ground with a mortar and pestle while the carcasses 172 were homogenised in a blender to produce a paste. Moisture content was calculated after drying weighed samples in an oven at 110 °C for 24 h and ash content determined after 173 174 incineration of a weighed sample at 600 °C for 16 h. Crude protein content was measured by 175 determining N content (N \times 6.25) using automated Kjeldahl analysis (KjelROC analyser; 176 OPSIS). Energy content was measured using bomb calorimetry calibrated with benzoic acid 177 (Gallenkamp Autobomb; Gallenkamp & Co. Ltd). Crude fibre in the diets was measured after 178 de-fattening the samples in petroleum ether and digestion in 1.25 % sodium hydroxide 179 followed by a digestion in 1.25 % sulphuric acid (Fibercap system, Foss). Crude lipid content 180 was measured by extraction of the total lipids by homogenisation in chloroform/methanol 181 (2/1, v/v) according to Folch *et al.* (1957). Fatty acid methyl esters (FAME) analyses of diets 182 were prepared according to Christie (2003) from total lipids by acid-catalysed 183 transesterification at 50 °C for 16 h. FAME were separated and quantified by GLC using a 184 Fisons GC-8160 (Thermo Scientific) equipped with a 30 m \times 0.32 mm internal diameter \times 185 0.25 µm ZB-wax column (Phenomenex), on-column injector and a flame ionisation detector. 186 Data were collected and processed using Chromcard for Windows (version 2.01; 187 Thermoquest Italia S.p.A.).

Faeces collected during the digestibility study were freeze-dried for 72 hours and homogenised. Proximate composition was assessed similarly to that of the diets and carcasses. To determine their yttrium oxide content, diets and faeces were digested in 65 % nitric acid in a microwave (MARSXpress, CEM) for 40 min (20 min ramping to 120 °C and 20 min holding that temperature). Digests were transferred into a volumetric flask and made
up into x 25 dilutions with distilled water. Samples were analysed by Inductively Coupled
Plasma Mass Spectrometry (ICP-MS, Thermo Scientific Model X Series 2, US). Apparent
digestibility coefficient (ADC) was calculated as follow:

196 ADC_{nutrient} (%) = $[1 - (Nutrient_{faeces}, %) / (Nutrient_{diet}, %) x (Yttrium_{diet}, mg kg^{-1}) /$ 197 (Yttrium_{faeces}, mg kg^{-1})] x 100

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199 2.5. Proximal intestine histology

The first quarter of the intestine (*i.e.* proximal intestine) was dissected and stored in 10 % buffered formalin. Samples were processed according to standard histological methods in place at the Institute of Aquaculture (Stirling, UK). Briefly, the samples were dehydrated in ethanol, equilibrated in xylene and embedded in paraffin. Transverse cuts of approximately 5 μ m were stained with haematoxylin and eosin. Each slide was observed under microscope and intestine subjectively scored to quantify severity of potential enteritis according to Urán *et al.* (2008) with overall enteritis score (Table 2; Fig. 1).

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208 2.6. Statistical analysis

All data are presented as means \pm standard deviations. Percentage data were subjected to arcsine square-root transformation prior to statistical analyses. Normality and homogeneity of variance in the data were confirmed using Shapiro-Wilk and Levene's tests, respectively. Data were analysed by two-way ANOVA, with protein content and protein source as factors, followed by Tukey's post-hoc test when relevant (P < 0.05). Data for SGR and DFI were not normally distributed and could not be normalised through data transformation. They were therefore analysed using the Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric test (P < 0.05). Digestibility data

- are expressed as one value per diet as the faeces for each triplicated treatment were pooled
- and therefore no statistical analysis could be performed. All data were analysed using SPSS
- 218 (IBM SPSS Statistics 23, NY, US) and Microsoft Excel (v16, WA, US).

219 **3. Results**

220 3.1. Diet proximate composition

221 Diet moisture levels ranged between 10.6 ± 0.1 % (D5) and 12.3 ± 0.1 % (D3 and D6). The 222 Standard CP diets displayed protein levels ranging from 48.5 ± 0.5 % (D2) to 51.7 ± 0.2 % 223 (D1) and the High CP diets displayed protein levels ranging from 55.8 ± 0.4 % (D6) to $59.4 \pm$ 0.3 % (D4) (Table 1). Lipid levels were on average 11.6 ± 0.4 % in the High CP diets and 224 225 10.6 ± 0.5 % in the Standard CP diets. Fibres levels increased as the inclusion of plant 226 material increased, with 15 % and 67 % more fibre in the plant source diets compared to that 227 of the 50/50 diets and marine diets, respectively. The Carbohydrate/Lipid ratio (CHO:L) was about 50 % higher in the Standard CP diets compared to that of the High CP diets. In terms of 228 229 fatty acids, the Total n-6 levels increased by up to 56 % with the inclusion of plant 230 ingredients, mostly due to the linoleic acid (18:2n-6). The total n-3 levels were up to 22 % 231 higher in the marine based diets, mostly due to the levels of DHA (22:6n-3).

232

233 *3.2. Growth performance*

234 No differences between treatments were observed in total length, weight, K, SGR and 235 mortality at the end of the 10-weeks growth period (Table 3). Overall, the fish grew by 150 % 236 compared to their initial weight. K factor was at 1.6 ± 0.0 at the beginning of the trial and 237 ended at 1.7 ± 0.0 . SGR was comparable in all diets averaging 1.2 ± 0.1 %. Cumulative 238 mortality of the stock as a whole was 3.5 % by the end of the trial. FCR and DFI were both 239 affected by the protein content in the feed but not by the protein source (no interaction) (Fig. 2). The fish fed the Standard CP diets showed a significantly lower FCR (1.2 ± 0.1) 240 241 compared to that of the fish fed the High CP diets (1.4 ± 0.2) . Regarding DFI, the fish fed the Standard CP diets ate less (1.4 \pm 0.2 % day $^{-1}$) than the fish fed the High CP diets (1.6 \pm 0.1 % 242

day⁻¹) with no influence in relation to the protein source. Few unexpected morts were found
in two tanks during the experiment, which resulted in a higher (but not significantly)
mortality for fish fed D3 and D4. The veterinarian analysis concluded that those morts were
most likely due to an episode of amoebic gill disease (AGD) but that the vast majority of the
fish stock was AGD free.

248

249 *3.3*.

3. Fish proximate composition

250 Moisture content of the whole body was significantly affected by dietary protein content and source, but a statistical interaction was observed (Table 4). Overall, moisture was less than 1 251 % higher in the fish fed High CP and plant source diets. Ash and crude protein content were 252 253 significantly affected by either protein content or source, however there was no significant 254 interaction between the two factors. Ash content was 4 % higher in the fish fed Standard CP 255 diets (15.0 \pm 1.2 %). Also, ash content was 13 and 7 % higher in plant source diets (15.7 \pm 0.8 %) compared to that of marine $(13.9 \pm 0.1 \%)$ and mix source diets $(14.6 \pm 0.3 \%)$, 256 respectively. Protein content in the whole body was 1.4 % higher in fish fed High CP diets 257 258 and 2 % higher in fish fed marine or plant diets compared to the mixed source diet. Crude 259 lipid was affected by the protein source and an interaction between protein content and 260 source was found. Fish fed the plant source diets showed whole-body lipid content 23 % 261 lower $(9.4 \pm 0.5 \%)$ than in fish fed the marine or mixed source diets $(11.6 \pm 0.9 \%)$. Carbohydrate content was not affected by either dietary parameters or was there a significant 262 263 interaction of the factors.

264

265 3.4. Digestibility

Apparent digestibility coefficients across treatments for proteins, lipids and energy were 87.0 \pm 2.2, 78.3 \pm 2.9 and 80.4 \pm 2.9 %, respectively (Table 4). ADC_{Proteins} were similar across diets however statistical analysis could not be done on the digestibility data, ADC_{Lipids} and ADC_{Energy} were apparently reduced (-6.7 % and -4.6 %, respectively) in the fish fed the plant source diets (*i.e.* D3 and D6).

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272 3.5. Histology

The histological analysis of the intestinal sections showed that there was a significantly higher number of mucus cells in the two of the High CP diets (*i.e.* D4 and D6). The histopathological assessment diagnosed signs of mild intestinal inflammation for the fish fed those diets (Table 5).

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4. Discussion

Two areas have been highlighted as priorities in the development of suitable ballan wrasse 279 280 diets. The first one concerns the source and quality of the raw materials used in the 281 formulation of the diets. The first published data on the digestibility of a commercial ballan 282 wrasse on-growing diet showed that the apparent digestibility coefficients were greatly lower 283 for proteins, lipids and energy than expected for marine finfish (Cavrois-Rogacki et al., 284 2019). Other publications have shown the benefits of using high-quality ingredients on the survival and growth of the species compared to the commonly used standard fish meal 285 286 (Bogevik et al., 2016; Kousoulaki et al., 2015, 2021). The second area concerns the dietary 287 protein content, as it has been suggested that ballan wrasse may need high protein diets in 288 order to maximise growth (Hamre et al., 2013; Cavrois-Rogacki et al., 2019). Based on these 289 earlier findings, the present experiment investigated those two areas by testing standard and 290 high dietary protein contents as well as the protein ingredient's source on the survival, growth 291 and feed efficiency of ballan wrasse juveniles.

292 In terms of the key performance indicators (KPIs), no significant effects of the diet 293 formulation were shown on growth, condition and survival across diets. Irrespective of the 294 diet offered, fish more than doubled their weight over the 10-weeks growth trial. Specific growth rates of 1.2 % day⁻¹ were recorded, which exceeded those observed in previous 295 296 studies at similar rearing temperature (SGR of 0.8 - 0.93 % day⁻¹, Cavrois-Rogacki et al., 297 2019; Kousoulaki et al., 2021). This difference could be explained by two main reasons. 298 First, fish stock and broodstock origin were different in the three studies hence a different 299 genetic potential. Second, the fish in our study were stocked at around 5 g while fish in 300 Cavrois-Rogacki et al. (2019) and Kousoulaki et al. (2021) were stocked at around 14.5 and 301 11.4 g, respectively, hence about two to three-fold larger. Fish growth studies have shown 302 that at the same temperature, SGR is at its maximum during the early stages and declines

thereafter (Brett and Groves, 1979; Jobling, 1996). While unexpected mortalities were
reported in some tanks, the subsequent veterinarian analysis concluded to a punctual
mortality event due to AGD, not correlated to the experiment diets.

306 Interestingly, this study contradicts the findings of Kousoulaki et al. (2021), in which 307 extruded diets were associated to a higher degree of mortality and overall poorer performance 308 compared to agglomerated or cold extruded diets. The mortality rate of the farmed wrasse in 309 Kousoulaki et al. (2021) over an 18-weeks growth period ranged between 37.3 and 57.3 % 310 whereas in our study, the mortality ranged between 2.1 and 5 %, yet over a 10-weeks growth 311 period. The condition factor of the fish at the end of the trial in Kousoulaki et al. (2021) were 312 about 80 % higher (3.06-3.11) compared to those in our study (1.7-1.8) where the condition 313 factors were much similar to that of wild ballan wrasse (Cavrois-Rogacki et al., 2021). 314 Overall, this study is a reflection of the UK's commercial ballan wrasse production figures 315 and may highlight a difference in the KPI for the culture of the species between UK and 316 Norway (Brooker et al., 2018; Cavrois-Rogacki et al., 2019; Cavrois-Rogacki et al., 2021). 317 This study showed that extruded diets and the inclusion of plant ingredients during the on-318 growing phase of ballan wrasse can maximise growth while preserving the condition of the 319 fish, with very low mortality rates.

320 In terms of feed efficiency, protein source had no apparent impact. However, fish fed the 321 Standard CP diets had significantly lower FCR and DFI. The FCRs observed in this study are in line with those found by Cavrois-Rogacki *et al.* (2019), where FCRs ranged between $1.4 \pm$ 322 323 0.1 and 1.8 ± 0.3 in fish reared at 16 °C and fed Otohime S2 and BioMar Symbio, respectively. Arguably, FCRs in our study were improved compared to those in Cavrois-324 325 Rogacki et al. (2019), as FCRs as low as 1.0 ± 0.1 (D3) and averaging 1.3 ± 0.2 were 326 obtained. The improvement is even more striking when compared to previous work carried 327 on ballan wrasse juveniles, where FCRs ranged from 2.07 ± 0.93 to 15.05 ± 24.3 when fed 328 experimental diets and reared at 12 °C (Chalaris, 2018). This data shows the significant 329 improvements that have been made on feed optimisation for ballan wrasse grower diets over 330 the last years. Nevertheless, these results are also in contradiction with those found in other 331 studies, which suggested that ballan wrasse may require a protein rich diet (*i.e.* >60 % CP) 332 (Hamre et al., 2013; Cavrois-Rogacki et al., 2019). For instance, we input our diet 333 macronutrient levels in the growth fitted model presented in Hamre et al. (2013), which 334 aimed at establishing the formulation that maximises growth on the species based on the 335 dietary content in proteins, lipids and carbohydrates. The outcomes indicated that our "best 336 formulation" resulted in a weight 25 % smaller (3.73 g) than the highest weight obtained in 337 Hamre et al. (2013) (4.71 g), in which a diet containing 64.6 % CP was used. Interestingly, 338 the high-protein diet rich in marine ingredient (D4) resulted in the highest output using the 339 model, although it did not translate in vivo. It would be interesting to see how the 64.6 % CP 340 diet performed in terms of feed efficiency (no data on feeding efficiency was published). 341 Protein rich diets often lead to increased levels of nitrogen discharge with the subsequent 342 negative effects on water quality, particularly in recirculated aquaculture systems, and these 343 should therefore be kept in mind (Rolland et al., 2015). Finally, Hamre et al. (2013) diet was formulated with 53.7 g 100 g⁻¹ DW of cod filet. Cod filet is a very expensive product 344 345 compared to plant-based protein and therefore a full cost-benefit analysis would be required 346 to evaluate the potential of this ingredient in the formulation of on-growing diets for ballan 347 wrasse.

In our study, the High CP diets did not perform as well as the Standard CP diets, with higher FCRs and DFIs. Although there is no published data on the FCR and DFI of ballan wrasse fed protein-rich diets that would allow the comparison, Hamre *et al.* (2013) suggested that the feed intake was probably higher in fish fed high protein diets (*i.e.* >60 % CP) based on a condition factor analysis, similarly to our findings. The apparent digestibility coefficients for 353 proteins, lipids and energy were in line with other studies on marine finfish (Mundheim et al., 354 2004; Glencross et al., 2007) and were greatly higher than those obtained by Cavrois-355 Rogacki et al. (2019). The reasons for such differences between studies remain unclear. The 356 same faeces collection method was used, including the time period over which the faeces 357 were sampled (i.e. between 2 and 3 weeks). However, the ADCs in Cavrois-Rogacki et al. 358 (2019) were calculated by averaging the values of three tanks whereas in our study, the ADCs 359 were calculated based on a technical duplicate of pooled faeces from three tanks, due to a 360 limiting amount of faecal material. Ideally, this highlights the need for a dedicated 361 digestibility study on ballan wrasse. Despite the lack of statistical analysis, some trends could 362 be observed. Proteins seemed to be digested at the same level across diets while lipids in fish fed D3 and D6 were the less digested, resulting into a lower body lipid content. 363

In terms of whole-body macronutrient composition, wild fish are often used as a reference on 364 365 the assumption that their nutrient requirements are covered by their natural diet. In our study, 366 fish had a similar protein content to that of the wild fish analysed in Hamre et al. (2013). Fish 367 fed the High CP diets had a higher protein uptake, which did not translate into better growth, 368 as mentioned earlier. The crude lipid level of the whole bodies decreased with the inclusion 369 of plant ingredients and higher dietary protein, with only fish fed D1 and D2 showing a lipid 370 content similar to that of the wild fish. However, the validity of using wild fish as a proxy for 371 nutrient profiling can be argued. The wild fish in Hamre et al. (2013) study were caught 372 during summer 2011, at a period when sea water temperature promotes feeding activity of 373 species like ballan wrasse. The activity of ballan wrasse in the sea cages during winter is 374 known to reduce drastically (Brooker et al., 2018; Leclercq et al., 2018). During those winter 375 months (*i.e.* from November to March), the gut fulness of related species, goldsinny wrasse (Ctenolabrus rupestris) and corkwing wrasse (Crenilabrus melops), appeared to be lower 376 377 according to Sayer et al. (1996). This evidence indicates potential dietary changes throughout the year that could result in a different macronutrient composition of the whole body. For instance, the lipid content of ballan wrasse juvenile farmed at 10 °C (*i.e.* winter months) was significantly lower than those farmed at temperatures above 13 °C (*i.e.* summer months) (Cavrois-Rogacki *et al.*, 2019). Therefore, the optimal nutrient composition of on-growing diets for ballan wrasse may vary depending on water temperature.

383 SPC and pea protein are high-quality protein ingredients that have been extensively 384 investigated for their use in aquafeeds as a replacement to fish meal (Carter and Hauler, 2000; 385 Draganovic et al., 2011; Davidson et al., 2016). In species like Atlantic salmon, rainbow trout, European sea bass and gilthead seabream (Sparus aurata), plant-based ingredients have 386 387 successfully been used to partially or totally replace fish meal (Kaushik et al., 1995, 2004; 388 Hartviksen et al., 2014; Vera et al., 2020). Plus, they are also both economically very 389 competitive (Sørensen et al., 2011). With SPC and pea protein costing £700-800 and £1,100-390 1,300 per ton, respectively, they are cheaper than FM (i.e. £1,300-1,500 per ton). A gross 391 cost-analysis, looking into the cost of the block made of FM-SPC-pea protein, indicates that 392 for D1 (*i.e.* no SPC or pea protein, only FM), FM accounts for £1,400 per ton of diet. In D2, 393 the substitution of FM by SPC and pea protein drops the price of the block by 18 % to $\pounds 1.145$ 394 per ton and in diet 3 by 36 % to £897 per ton. However, plant raw materials have two 395 disadvantages, the first one being the presence of antinutritional factors (ANF) such as 396 glucosinolates, saponins or tannins (Francis et al., 2001). Some ANF can be eliminated by 397 elevated heat treatment (Francis et al., 2001; Drew et al., 2007), which was the case in our 398 study since the diets had been hot extruded at more than 100 °C. The second disadvantage is 399 the lack of some essential amino-acids (AA) that needs to be compensated by the inclusion of 400 supplementary inorganic amino-acids (IAA) (Rolland, 2015). Although we did not analyse the dietary AA levels, the diets were formulated using krill meal (30 g 100 g diet⁻¹) and fish 401 402 meal (8-32 g 100 g diet⁻¹), both rich in essential AA (Refstie et al., 2004; Rolland et al.,

403 2015). In addition, the diets were formulated so that minimum requirements for marine 404 finfish species were met, based on NRC recommendations (2011) for marine species sharing 405 similarities with ballan wrasse in terms of feeding habits, ecology and physiology such as sea 406 bass (Dicentrachus labrax) and Atlantic cod (Gadhus morua). One challenging point in the 407 formulation of the experimental diets was the starch levels. Indeed, starch contents were 2.5 408 times lower in the High CP diets compared to the Standard CP diets. Starch level can 409 considerably affect the digestibility of aquafeeds, with optimal levels ranging from 15 to 30 g 100 g⁻¹ (Glencross, 2006). However, the apparent digestibility coefficients for protein and 410 411 energy were comparable across diets, despite the higher starch content of the Standard CP 412 diets. Starch is used as a filler and therefore, the High CP diets, richer in protein ingredients, 413 needed less starch compared to the Standard CP diets. As a consequence, the carbohydrate 414 levels were lower in the High CP diets. A CHO:L ratio above 2 was shown to reduce growth 415 performance in other teleost species (Ali and Jauncey, 2004; Hu et al., 2007). However, since 416 we know that the CHO:L ratio is species and temperature specific, further investigation is 417 needed in ballan wrasse.

418 Polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) from the omega 6 and 3, particularly arachidonic acid 419 (ARA, 20:4n-6), eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA, 20:5n-3) and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA, 420 22:6:n-3), are considered to be essential to marine finfish at all life stages (Sargent et al., 421 1999). ARA is a precursor of 3-series antagonistic prostaglandins that provide a low-422 inflammatory response (Tocher, 2003) as well as playing a major role in oogenesis at adult 423 stage (Grant et al., 2016). EPA and DHA, although of known importance during early stages 424 of development, are critical for the normal cellular function of all fish species (Tocher, 2015; 425 Tocher *et al.*, 2010). Unlike marine ingredients, plant ingredients completely lack long-chain $(\geq C20)$ PUFA (LC-PUFA) including the above mentioned essential fatty acids (EFA). The 426 427 inclusion of plant ingredients in our study clearly showed the decreased accumulation of LC-

428 PUFA, and DHA in particular. Although the specific requirement in EFA for ballan wrasse 429 remain unknown (Kabeya *et al.*, 2018), feed formulators should remain vigilant regarding the 430 inclusion of plant-ingredients in the diet of ballan wrasse, so its minimal requirements are not 431 compromised and remain within recommendations for marine species such as Atlantic cod or 432 European seabass (NRC, 2011) until further data is collected on the species nutritional needs.

433 The histopathological assessment of the proximal intestine region revealed a mild 434 inflammation in the fish fed D4 and D6 (High CP), characterised by an overall higher 435 cellularisation (i.e. increased number of mucus cells). It was suspected that the inclusion of 436 plant raw materials, and particularly soy-based ingredients, may induce higher cellularisation 437 and mild enteritis as previously shown in other finfish species (Urán et al., 2008, 2009; 438 Merrifield et al., 2011; Gu et al., 2016). It remains unclear why D5 showed the lowest score 439 at the histological assessment in the High CP diets, comparable to that of the control diet D1. 440 It is also interesting since D5 showed the highest digestibility coefficients, which could have 441 been promoted due to a lesser degree of enteritis compared to D4 and D6. Further nutritional 442 analysis of the feeds, such as minerals, would help identify potential differences that could 443 explain this result. The data indicates that the inclusion of plant ingredients should be done 444 with cautious as to not induce intestinal inflammation, which can result in lower nutrient 445 digestibility and poorer feed efficiency (Knudsen et al., 2008; Urán et al., 2009).

In conclusion, the study showed that the partial replacement of FM by plant-based ingredients, namely SPC and pea protein, in the formulation of diets for ballan wrasse juveniles do not compromise growth and feed efficiency. The use of plant-based ingredients, cost-effective and more sustainable than fish meal, has a great potential to promote the hatcheries productivity by reducing feed costs, which often represent more than 50 % of the retail price of the fish. Moreover, the study showed that diets with standard marine finfish protein levels meets the species requirements and even appeared to outperform protein-rich diets, which may be closer to the species' natural diet and therefore requirements. Signs of enteritis were observed in two of the High CP diets which could impact on gut nutrient absorption and therefore should be carefully considered when formulating protein rich diets for the species. Importantly, results did not suggest any negative impact of extruded diets as recently suggested (Kousoulaki *et al.*, 2021) with KPIs among the best recorded so far in the cultured species. Overall, this research contributes to the up-scaling of ballan wrasse production in the global health challenge that the sea lice represents.

460

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649

650 Tables

Table 1. Formulation, proximate composition and selected fatty acids levels of the experimental diets. Proximate composition and fatty acids data represent means \pm standard deviation (technical duplicate). DW: dry weight; FA: fatty acid; ND: not detected.

Diet	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6
Protein content targets (% CP)		51			59	
Protein source	Marine	Mixed	Plant	Marine	Mixed	Plant
Ingredients (g.100 g diet ⁻)						
Krill meal	30	30	30	30	30	30
Fish Meal	26.5	14.5	2.5	32	20	8
Soy protein concentrate	0	10	14	0	10	8
Wheat Gluten	14	11	14	14	16	18
Pea Protein	0	4.5	10	8	8	20
Starch Source	22	22.5	22	8.5	8.5	8.5
Vitamin and mineral premix ¹	7.5	7.5	7.5	7.5	7.5	7.5
MP:PP ²	4.0	1.7	0.9	2.8	1.5	0.8
Proximate composition						
Moisture	11.6 ± 0.2	11.3 ± 0.0	12.3 ± 0.1	11.1 ± 0.0	10.6 ± 0.1	12.3 ± 0.1
Ash	8.6 ± 0.1	7.9 ± 0.5	7.3 ± 0.2	8.7 ± 0.1	7.8 ± 0.2	7.2 ± 0.1
Crude protein	51.7 ± 0.2	48.5 ± 0.5	49.6 ± 0.6	59.4 ± 0.3	57.8 ± 0.5	55.8 ± 0.4
Crude lipid	10.9 ± 0.4	10.9 ± 0.5	10.1 ± 0.2	12.0 ± 0.3	11.7 ± 0.3	11.1 ± 0.2
Crude fibre	1.4 ± 0.1	2.2 ± 0.1	2.5 ± 0.0	1.3 ± 0.2	1.8 ± 0.1	2.1 ± 0.2
Carbohydrate ³	28.8 ± 0.4	32.7 ± 0.6	33.0 ± 0.6	20.0 ± 0.2	22.7 ± 0.8	25.8 ± 0.2
CHO:L ⁴	2.7 ± 0.1	3.0 ± 0.2	3.3 ± 0.1	1.7 ± 0.1	1.9 ± 0.1	2.3 ± 0.0
Gross energy (mJ kg ⁻¹)	18.7 ± 0.1	19.4 ± 0.2	18.3 ± 0.7	19.9 ± 0.2	19.6 ± 0.1	19.3 ± 0.1
Selected fatty acids (% of total FA)						
14:0	8.3 ± 0.1	9.0 ± 0.0	8.6 ± 0.1	7.3 ± 0.1	8 ± 0.0	8.0 ± 0.1
15:0	0.5 ± 0.0	0.4 ± 0.0	0.4 ± 0.0	0.4 ± 0.0	0.4 ± 0.0	0.4 ± 0.0
16:0	21.6 ± 0.1	21.8 ± 0.1	21.3 ± 0.1	21.2 ± 0.1	21.5 ± 0.0	21.2 ± 0.0
18:0	2.1 ± 0.0	2.0 ± 0.0	1.9 ± 0.0	2.2 ± 0.0	2.0 ± 0.0	2.0 ± 0.0
Saturates	33.0 ± 0.1	33.6 ± 0.2	32.7 ± 0.4	31.6 ± 0.1	32.3 ± 0.0	31.8 ± 0.1
16:1n-9	ND	ND	7.2 ± 0.0	6.8 ± 0.0	7.0 ± 0.0	ND
16:1n-7	7.4 ± 0.1	7.5 ± 0.0	0.3 ± 0.0	0.3 ± 0.0	0.3 ± 0.0	6.8 ± 0.0
18:1n-9	15.0 ± 0.1	15.2 ± 0.0	16.0 ± 0.0	16.2 ± 0.0	16.4 ± 0.1	16.6 ± 0.0
18:1n-7	5.0 ± 0.0	5.2 ± 0.0	5.2 ± 0.0	4.6 ± 0.0	5.0 ± 0.0	4.9 ± 0.0
20:1n-11	1.6 ± 0.2	1.3 ± 0.0	1.1 ± 0.0	1.8 ± 0.0	1.4 ± 0.0	1.2 ± 0.0
22:1n-11	1.5 ± 0.0	0.7 ± 0.0	0.8 ± 0.0	1.7 ± 0.0	0.7 ± 0.0	0.8 ± 0.0
Monounsaturates	30.9 ± 0.1	30.4 ± 0.1	30.8 ± 0.0	31.8 ± 0.1	31.1 ± 0.2	30.6 ± 0.0
18:2n-6	8.3 ± 0.0	10.2 ± 0.0	14.2 ± 0.0	8.9 ± 0.0	11.0 ± 0.0	14.6 ± 0.0
18:3n-6	0.2 ± 0.0	0.2 ± 0.0	0.2 ± 0.0	0.2 ± 0.0	0.2 ± 0.0	0.2 ± 0.0
20:4n-6	0.5 ± 0.0	0.4 ± 0.0	0.3 ± 0.0	0.5 ± 0.0	0.4 ± 0.0	0.3 ± 0.0
22:5n-6	0.1 ± 0.0	0.1 ± 0.0	ND	0.1 ± 0.0	ND	ND
Total n-6	9.4 ± 0.0	11.1 ± 0.0	14.9 ± 0.0	10.0 ± 0.0	11.8 ± 0.0	15.4 ± 0.0
18:3n-3	1.5 ± 0.0	1.8 ± 0.0	2.2 ± 0.0	1.9 ± 0.0	2.0 ± 0.0	2.4 ± 0.0
18:4n-3	2.5 ± 0.0	2.6 ± 0.0	2.5 ± 0.0	2.4 ± 0.0	2.5 ± 0.0	2.4 ± 0.0
20:4n-3	0.3 ± 0.0	0.3 ± 0.0	0.2 ± 0.0	0.4 ± 0.0	0.3 ± 0.0	0.3 ± 0.0
20:5n-3	10.5 ± 0.0	10.3 ± 0.0	9.3 ± 0.0	9.8 ± 0.0	9.7 ± 0.1	9.2 ± 0.0
22:5n-3	0.6 ± 0.0	0.5 ± 0.0	0.3 ± 0.0	0.6 ± 0.0	0.4 ± 0.0	0.4 ± 0.0
22:6n-3	10.1 ± 0.0	8.4 ± 0.1	5.9 ± 0.0	10.5 ± 0.0	8.8 ± 0.2	6.7 ± 0.0
Total n-3	25.7 ± 0.0	23.9 ± 0.1	20.6 ± 0.1	25.5 ± 0.2	23.9 ± 0.2	21.4 ± 0.0

¹Vitamin and mineral premix (BioMar Ltd.), ²Marine Protein :Plant Protein ratio, ³Carbohydrate = 100 – Ash - Crude protein - Crude lipid, ⁴CHO:L: carbohydrate:lipid ratio.

Table 2. Histological scoring system of morphological changes used to characterise changes

655 induced by enteritis (from Urán *et al.*, 2008).

Lamina propria (LP) of simple folds							
1 Normal size LP							
2 Increased size LP							
3 Medium size LP							
4 Large size LP							
5 Largest size LP							
Mucus cells (MC)							
1 Scattered MC							
2 Increased number and sparsely distributed MC							
3 Diffused number widely spread MC							
4 Densely grouped MC							
5 Highly abundant and tightly-packed MC							
Connective tissue (CT)							
1 Very little CT between base of folds and circular muscle							
2 Slightly increased amount of CT beneath some of the MF							
3 Clear increase of CT below all MF							
4 Thick layer of CT beneath high percentage of MF							
5 Extremely thick layer of CT beneath some MF							
Mucosal folds (MF)							
1 Simple and complex MF appear long and thin							
2 Simple MF have medium length, while the complex MF appear thicker							
3 Simple MF had short to medium length, while complex MF are stubby							
4 Simple MF are thick and short, while thick and stubby complex MF are prevalent							
5 Both complex and simple MF appear very short and stubby							
Overall Scoring							
1-2 Normal morphology							
3 Clear signs of inflammation							
4-5 Chronic symptoms of enteritis							

656 **Table 3**. Growth performance indicators and mortality in farmed ballan wrasse juveniles reared for 70 days and fed the control (D1)

- 658 analysed by two-way ANOVA (2 protein contents \times 3 protein sources; * P < 0.05; ** P < 0.01). Data for Specific growth rate (SGR)
- and daily feed intake (DFI) were analysed using the non-parametric tests Kruskal-Wallis (* P < 0.05; ** P < 0.01).

Diet	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6		Significar	nce
Protein content (% CP)		51			59		Protein	Protein	Interaction
Protein source	Marine	Mixed	Plant	Marine	Mixed	Plant	content	source	Interaction
Initial Length (cm)	6.7 ± 0.1	6.8 ± 0.1	6.7 ± 0.1	6.7 ± 0.0	6.8 ± 0.1	6.7 ± 0.1	ns	ns	ns
Final Length (cm)	9.0 ± 0.1	9.1 ± 0.0	8.8 ± 0.1	8.9 ± 0.1	8.9 ± 0.1	8.9 ± 0.2	ns	ns	ns
Initial Weight (g)	4.9 ± 0.2	5.1 ± 0.1	5.1 ± 0.2	5.0 ± 0.2	5.1 ± 0.2	4.8 ± 0.4	ns	ns	ns
Final Weight (g)	13.0 ± 0.6	13.1 ± 0.0	12.2 ± 0.5	12.3 ± 0.3	12.2 ± 0.4	12.5 ± 0.9	ns	ns	ns
K	1.8 ± 0.0	1.7 ± 0.0	1.7 ± 0.0	1.7 ± 0.0	1.7 ± 0.0	1.7 ± 0.1	ns	ns	ns
SGR^1 (% day ⁻¹)	1.2 ± 0.1	1.2 ± 0.0	1.2 ± 0.3	1.2 ± 0.1	1.1 ± 0.1	1.2 ± 0.1	ns	ns	ns
FCR	1.2 ± 0.0	1.3 ± 0.2	1.0 ± 0.1	1.4 ± 0.2	1.5 ± 0.1	1.4 ± 0.2	**	ns	ns
DFI^{1} (% day ⁻¹)	1.5 ± 0.1	1.5 ± 0.2	1.2 ± 0.2	1.6 ± 0.1	1.7 ± 0.1	1.6 ± 0.1	*	ns	ns
Final Mortality (%)	2.1 ± 2.6	2.2 ± 1.9	5.0 ± 4.5	4.8 ± 4.2	2.9 ± 1.4	3.9 ± 1.5	ns	ns	ns

¹SGR and DFI data analysed using the non-parametric tests Kruskal-Wallis.

CP: crude protein; ns: not significant.

⁶⁵⁷ and experimental (D2 to D6) diets. Data are expressed as mean \pm SD (n = 3). Data for length, weight, K, FCR and mortality were

660	Table 4. Macronutrient composition of the whole body of ballan wrasse juveniles at the beginning of the experiment and after 70 days fed the
661	control (D1) and experimental (D2 to D6) diets and apparent digestibility coefficients. Macronutrient data are expressed as mean \pm SD (n = 3)
662	and were analysed by two-way ANOVA (2 protein contents \times 3 protein sources; * $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$). Upper case superscripts denote
663	significant differences between the two protein contents (51 and 59), while lowercase superscripts denote significant differences between protein
664	source (Marine, Mixed and Plant) within the same protein content treatment. Digestibility data are expressed as one value per diet as the faeces
665	for each triplicated treatment were pooled. Wild fish and Symbio data $(1, 2)$ were provided as a comparator but were not included in the statistical
666	analysis. Carbohydrates = 100 – Ash - Crude protein - Crude lipid; ADC: apparent digestibility coefficient; CP: crude protein; DW: dry weight;
667	ns: not significant.

Diet	Wild fish ¹	Symbio ²	Initial sampling	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6		Significance	
Protein content (% CP)		51	51		51			59		Protein content	Protein source	Interaction
Protein source		Marine	Marine	Marine	Mixed	Plant	Marine	Mixed	Plant			
Whole body compositio	n (% DW)											
Moisture	73.7 ± 2.4	75.0 ± 0.2	78.4 ± 0.5	77.3 ± 0.1^{Aa}	$77.3\pm0.3~^{\rm Aa}$	78.2 ± 0.5^{Ab}	$78.0\pm0.4^{\text{ Ba}}$	$77.8\pm0.3^{\;Ba}$	78.0 ± 0.4^{Ba}	*	**	*
Ash	-	15.9 ± 0.6	15.5 ± 1.5	14.0 ± 0.2	14.8 ± 0.4	16.3 ± 1.1	13.9 ± 0.5	14.4 ± 0.4	15.2 ± 0.7	*	**	ns
Crude protein	71.1 ± 3.9	66.5 ± 1.8	71.9 ± 1.7	72.0 ± 1.1	70.7 ± 0.9	72.6 ± 1.8	73.3 ± 0.7	72.1 ± 1.3	73.0 ± 1.2	*	*	ns
Crude lipid	12.8 ± 5.7	13.1 ± 2.3	5.9 ± 0.7	12.5 ± 0.7^{b}	$12.1\pm1.3^{\rm b}$	$9.1 \pm 1.8^{\rm a}$	$10.7\pm0.8^{\:b}$	10.9 ± 0.9^{b}	9.8 ± 0.9^{ab}	ns	**	*
Carbohydrate ³	-	4.5 ± 2.1	6.7 ± 0.7	1.5 ± 0.6	2.4 ± 0.8	2.0 ± 0.8	2.1 ± 0.6	2.5 ± 1.3	2.0 ± 0.9	ns	ns	ns
Digestibility (%) ⁴												
ADCProteins	-	47.3 ± 8.2		86.6	86.5	88.8	86.8	89.7	83.4	-	-	-
ADC _{Lipids}	-	42.9 ± 1.0		79.2	80.3	74.9	79.7	81.1	74.4	-	-	-
ADC _{Energy}	-	52.5 ± 13.3		81.2	78.2	79.2	82.7	84.3	76.4	-	-	-

	 ¹ Hamre, 2013. ²Cavrois-Rogacki <i>et al.</i>, 2019: ballan wrasse juveniles farmed at 16 °C and fed BioMar Symbio ³Calculated by subtraction ⁴Faeces for each triplicate treatment were pooled.
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- 679 **Table 5.** Histological assessment for inflammation level of the proximal intestine section of ballan wrasse juveniles reared for 70 days and fed
- 680 the control (D1) and experimental (D2 to D6) diets. Data are expressed as mean \pm SD (n = 3, 5 fish per replicate). Data were analysed by two-
- 681 way ANOVA (2 protein contents \times 3 protein sources; * P < .05; ** P < .01). Different superscript letters indicate significant differences between
- 682 experimental groups. CP: crude protein; ns: not significant.

Diet	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6		Significat	nce 683
Protein content (% CP)	51			59			Protein	Protein	Internation
Protein source	Marine	Mixed	Plant	Marine	Mixed	Plant	content	source	interac <u>dø4</u> i
Lamina propria	1.2 ± 0.4	2.4 ± 0.9	2.2 ± 0.8	2.8 ± 0.8	1.6 ± 0.5	2.8 ± 0.4	ns	ns	**
Mucus cells	1.0 ± 0.0^{a}	1.4 ± 0.5^{a}	1.6 ± 0.5^{a}	1.8 ± 0.4^{ab}	$1.2\pm0.4^{\text{a}}$	2.4 ± 0.5^{b}	*	*	* 685
Connective tissue	1.2 ± 0.4	1.6 ± 0.5	1.2 ± 0.4	2.2 ± 0.8	1.2 ± 0.4	1.4 ± 0.5	ns	ns	*
Mucosal folds	1.0 ± 0.0	2.2 ± 0.4	1.6 ± 0.9	2.0 ± 0.7	1.0 ± 0.0	1.4 ± 0.9	ns	ns	* 080
Overall score	1.1 ± 0.3	1.9 ± 0.7	1.7 ± 0.7	2.2 ± 0.8	1.3 ± 0.4	2.0 ± 0.9	*	ns	ns
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689 Figures

Figure 1. Transverse section of the first section of juvenile ballan wrasse intestine (x10) with
structural organisation; (1) lumen, (2) columnar epithelium; (3) lamina propria; (4) mucous
cells; (5) *stratum granulosum*; (6) circular muscle; (7) longitudinal muscle; (8) serosa; based
on Urán *et al.* (2008).

Figure 2. Feed conversion ratio (FCR) and daily feed intake (DFI) of ballan wrasse juveniles reared for 70 days and fed the control (D1) and experimental (D2 to D6) diets. Data are expressed as mean \pm SD (n = 9). Letters indicate statistical differences between treatments.

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