

FORMULATING SUSTAINABLE FEEDS: UNDERSTANDING NUTRIENT AND ENERGY REQUIREMENTS IN FINFISH AQUACULTURE

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ABSTRACT

Fish foods are known for their long standing health benefits to humans. Feed quality enhancement provides an opportunity to improve sustainable aquaculture productions contributing to matchable fish demands and consequent consumer gain. Preparation of balanced, cost effective feed based on the nutrition and health needs of fish is thus an essential precondition. For cost-compliant production, diets must be formulated based on accurate apportionment of essential nutrients and energy gains according to fundamental needs of the species. Present study describes dietary requirements of finfish in terms of proteins, amino acids, lipids, constituent fatty acids, carbohydrates, and energy. The work also evaluates importance of feed processing in improving dietary parameters for sustainable quality aquaculture productions.

KEYWORDS: *Aquafeeds, Protein, Finfish, Nutrition Quality, Sustainability.*

INTRODUCTION

Fish and fish foods are known for promoting human health. Dietary supplementation of fish proteins can prevent malnutrition, fish oils are good source of essential fatty acids with antioxidant, anti-inflammatory effects (Chen et al., 2022). Feed is the foremost important input for fish welfare in sustainable intensive aquaculture productions. It is a source of nutrients and energy, fundamental for growth, reproduction, and fish health (NRC, 1993). Quality feed is important for scaling up fisheries outturn by fulfilling the balanced nutritional requirements of fish (Puri et al., 2022). Sustainable, quality feeds can confer health benefits to aquaculture and consequently to humans (consumers). In terms of quantity as well as quality, dietary requirements of fish vary as per life stage of the species, feeding habits and environmental fluctuations of temperature, salinity and natural food availability in the culture environment (Giri, 2017). Formulating balanced, least expense feed based on the nutrition and health needs of fish is thus an essential prerequisite (Ahmed and Ahmad, 2020). For cost-effective, economical production, diets must be formulated in agreement with the elementary nutritional needs of the specific species, containing accurate apportionment of protein, lipid, carbohydrate as well as energy gains. Present study describes dietary requirements of finfish in terms of proteins, amino acids, lipids, constituent fatty acids, carbohydrates, and energy gained from feed.

1. Protein and Amino Acid Requirement

Protein comprise most treasured constituent in fish feed compositions in terms of quality it offers and in directing the feed cost (Fatma and Ahmed, 2020). Protein requirements of fish is for growth accretion and survival. Proteins comprise 50% of dietary constituents in fish feeds (Benitez, 1989). Dietary needs of protein for fish is nearly 2 to 4-fold higher than other vertebrates (Wilson, 2003). Carnivorous species have greater protein requirements (40-50% crude protein), than omnivore and herbivore (25-35%) fishes (Jauralde et al., 2021; NRC, 1993; Gatlin, 2010). For maximal growth, dietary crude protein requirement of cultured fish varies between 300-550 g kg⁻¹ of diet (Tacon and Cowey, 1985; Wilson, 1989). In a meta-analysis approach, Teles et al. (2020) enlist requirement of 624g protein for fish to achieve 1kg weight gain, accomplishing protein retention efficiency (PER) of 32%. Dietary protein necessities are relatable to trophic level, salinity, rearing temperature, stock size, frequency of feeding, non-protein source of dietary energy, diet quality of protein (Fatma and Ahmed, 2020; Teles et al., 2020). Proteins comprise mix of amino acids (AAs) as building blocks. According to Nunes et al. (2014), nutritional and economic gains from a protein are dynamics of protein digestibility and AA composition. Moreover, Peres and Oliva-Teles (2008), suggest AA profile of whole body of fish to be largely interrelated to their essential amino acid (EAA) needs. EAA include arginine (arg), methionine (met), leucine (leu), lysine (lys), histidine (his), isoleucine (ile), threonine (thr), phenylalanine (phe), tryptophan (tryp) and valine (val). EAAs are nutritionally essential and obtained from extraneous dietary source. Table 1 lists indispensable EAA requirements of juvenile stages of *Labeo rohita*, *Ictalurus punctatus*, *Catla catla*, *C. carpio*, *Oncorhynchus niloticus*, *Anguilla japonica*, *O. tshawytscha*, *Salmo salar* and *O. mykiss* (FAO, 2013; Kaushik, 1995; NRC, 1993). In an “ideal protein”, ratio between EAA to non-EAA (NEAA) remains constant despite variations in each AA requirement across life stages of fish (Bicudo and Cyrino, 2014; Ogino, 1980). NEAA in fish nutrition includes alanine (ala), proline (pro), asparagine (asn), cystine (cys), aspartate (asp), glycine (gly), serine (ser), glutamine (gln), tyrosine (tyr) and glutamate (Li et al., 2011). NEAAs such as cys can be synthesized from met; tyrosine (tyr) synthesis occurs from phe. Thus, appropriate EAAs can supplement NEAA requirement (Wilson, 2003; Nunes et al., 2014). High amounts of NEAA present in animal origin proteins can reduce energy cost and EAA requirements for their de novo synthesis in animals, causing improved feed efficiencies (Li and Wu 2018, 2020). Dietary protein is a source of both EAA and NEAA. Together EAA and NEAA comprise proteinogenic amino acids (PAAs). Since NEAA biosynthesis is energy driven, dietary proteins that suffice the requirements of fish for both EAA and NEAA will contribute to most efficient fish growth (NRC, 1993; Li and Wu, 2020). Amino acids have fundamental role in fish functions involving protein synthesis, growth, metabolic processes, synthesis of neurotransmitters (val, leu, ile, phe, tyr, tryp, gln); ammonia detoxification (ornithine orn; gln, arg), lipid oxidation (arg), inhibition of protein degradation (val, leu, ile); immunostimulation, antioxidant (met, cys) and osmolytic properties (sarcosine, sar; taurine, tau) (Andersen et al., 2016; Ahmed and Khan, 2006; Waarde, 1988). High quality fishmeal (FM) has balanced amount of all EAAs predominantly lys (Miles and Chapman, 2006); n3 omega polyunsaturated FAs chiefly, DHA as well as EPA; essential minerals and vitamins; with 85% of aquaculture species relying on fish meal (FM), from feed (Jeyasanta and Patterson, 2020). Fishmeal replacement owing to its scarcity and incremental feed cost (Naylor et al., 2009) has shifted focus to marine, plant-based sources of equivalent protein provisions. Although, many plant based feedstuffs and harshly processed ingredients of animal origin (used in

preparation of artificial diets for fish) are deficient in met and lys enlisted to be initial-limiting AA (Gatlin et al., 2007; NRC, 2011).

Table1 Indispensable amino acid, EAA requirements of fishes (as g 100g⁻¹ diet = % of diet, dryweight basis).

Amino Acids	<i>L. rohit a</i>	<i>C. catl a</i>	<i>C. carpi o</i>	<i>I. punctat us</i>	<i>S. sala r</i>	<i>A. japonic a</i>	<i>O. niloticu s</i>	<i>O. mykis s</i>	<i>O. tshawytsch a</i>
Arginine	2.30	1.9	1.6	1.0	2.0	1.7	1.18	2.0	2.4
Histidine	0.90	1.0	0.8	0.4	0.7	0.8	0.48	0.7	0.7
Isoleucine	1.20	0.9	0.9	0.6	0.8	1.5	0.87	0.8	0.9
Lysine	1.50	2.5	2.2	1.2	1.8	2.0	1.43	1.8	2.0
Leucine	2.27	1.5	1.3	0.8	1.4	2.0	0.95	1.4	1.6
Methionine	1.42	1.4	1.2	0.6	1.0	1.2	0.75	1.0	1.6
Phenylalanine	1.48	1.5	2.5	1.2	1.2	2.2	1.05	1.2	2.1
Threonine	1.71	2.0	1.5	0.5	0.8	1.5	1.05	0.8	0.9
Tryptophan	0.45	0.4	0.3	0.12	0.2	0.4	0.28	0.2	0.2
Valine	1.50	1.4	1.4	0.71	1.3	1.5	0.78	1.3	1.3

2. Lipid and fatty acid requirement

Lipids help accomplish essential fatty acid (EFA) and energy needs of fish to perform physiological functions. Lipids have significant role in determining fish health, reproductive success, immune state and survival (Arts and Kohler, 2009). Fatty acids (FAs) are components of lipids as organic acids with a carbon chain containing terminal carboxyl group. According to the presence, inclusion of total double bonds, FAs are classified as saturated, monounsaturated (SFAs, MUFAs) and polyunsaturated (PUFAs) (Chen and Liu, 2020); depending on chain length of C1-C6 carbons as short chain (SC), C7-12 medium chain (MC), more than C14 as long or highly chained (LC or HC) FAs (Schönfeld and Wojtczak, 2016; NRC, 1989). Among types of PUFA, n3, n6, n9 are found in all animals, including fish. Fishes have regulated ability to synthesize *de novo* only n9 PUFAs. Thus both n3, n6 PUFA are essential FAs (EFAs) and need to be obtained from diet sources to fish. EFA needs of fish vary across species. Marine fish require n3 LC-PUFA docosahexaenoic acid (DHA, 22:6) and eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA, 20:5); rainbow trout requires n3 FAs such as alpha-linolenic acid (ALA, 18:3 n3) and n3 HC-PUFA; carp nutrition needs are for both n3, n6 FAs and tilapia requires n6 linoleic acid (LA, 18:2 n6) (Takeuchi et al., 1991; Hasan, 2001; Opstvedt, 1985). Incorporation of lipids in dietary formulations can expand sparing effect on dietary protein (Hasan, 2001; Watanabe, 1982).

Plant-derived oils used in aquafeeds (such as sunflower, linseed, soybean) are rich sources of n6-series of SC-PUFA, and MC-PUFAs (LA C18:2, n6). n3 LC-PUFAs (= heavy chain PUFA, HC-PUFA) of larger interest DHA 22:6 and EPA 20:5 are opulently found in marine origin oils (such as fish oils, algal oils) and animal fats (Gonzalez-Silvera et al., 2016). n3 PUFA, EPA and DHA

are important for growth, cardiovascular health, anti-inflammatory response, neural and brain development. PUFAs have biological role in plasma membranes composition and fluidity, gene transcription regulation, cell signal modulation (Czumaj and Sledzinski, 2020; Arts and Kohler, 2009). Table 2 lists EFA deficiency symptoms reported in fishes. All fishes require EFA at 1-2% of diet, as per dry weight (Hasan, 2001). Recommended intake of EPA and DHA for humans lies between 200-500 mg per day (Strobel,2012) with need of dietary n3:n6 ratio above or at least equal to 1:1 (Simopoulos,1991). Dietary percentage of lipids required by fish is dependent on lipid type as well as digestible energy to protein ratio, DE:P in diet (NRC,1993).

Table 2 EFA deficiency symptoms reported in fishes.Source: Tacon (1992); Takeuchi et al. (1990, 1991)

Fish	Deficiency symptom
<i>C. carpio</i>	High mortality, fatty liver
<i>Ctenopharyngodon idella</i>	Lordosis, decreased growth and feed efficiency, shock syndrome
<i>O. mykiss</i>	shock syndrome, liver degeneration, high mortality
<i>O. niloticus</i>	Swollen pale liver
<i>Lates calcarifer</i>	Effects growth, feed efficiency, fin reddening
<i>Scophthalmus maximus</i>	High mortality, decreased growth, gill epithelium degeneration

3. Carbohydrate Requirements

Fish do not have any precise requirement for dietary carbohydrates (NRC, 2011). Yet, being least expensive source of energy, digestible forms of carbohydrates are frequently appended in commercial diets to essentially counter retain dietary lipids and proteins (=sparing effect) (Gatlin, 2010). Soluble forms of carbohydrates, specifically starch also help in pellet binding and stability improving dietary properties (Hardy and Barrows, 2002; Kamalam et al., 2017). Proficiency to utilize dietary carbohydrate depends on composition of feed, processing technique and fish physiology, varying substantially among finfish species. Commercial feeds for carnivorous species allow 20% carbohydrate inclusion, lesser compared to herbivore and omnivore requirements 25-45%. This is due to limited capability of carnivorous fishes to efficiently utilize dietary carbohydrates as energy source.

4. Energy Requirements

Energy itself is a non-nutrient and is obtained from metabolization of dietary nutrient sources of fats, proteins and carbohydrates (NRC,1993). Gross energy (GE) value of feed, is the heat generated on complete ignition of feed compounds. GE is a measure of absolute energy offered from organic dietary constituents to the organism. Estimation of GE helps evaluate other feed energy values, namely metabolizable (ME) and digestible energy (DE) (Weiss and Tebbe, 2018). Total intake energy (IE) from diet of fish is relatable to GE content of feeds. In a compounded diet GE is contribution of its constituents each with their mean energy contribution; protein comprising 23.6 kJg⁻¹ diet, lipids 39.5, and carbohydrates 17.2 kJ g⁻¹ (NRC, 2011). It is measured by burning compounded feed under controlled oxygen pressure in a thick metal walled container

known as ‘bomb’ through which the technique finds name as bomb calorimetry (NRC, 2011). It is important to evaluate energy estimates of diet available for utilization by fish. Formulation of feed based on knowledge of energy utilizations of fish at various stages of life history would be cost effective approach preventing over addition of nutrients (NRC, 1993). GE of feed ingredients is fundamental to precise feed formulation for fish performance and sustainable environment effects (Sayed et al., 2018). Retention of energy by fish for growth and other physiological functions (ME) is partly dependable on available energy from feed (GE), along with type, life history stage and culture conditions of fish. Feed formulations ideal for one species may not be optimal for other species and is also a function of culture conditions for fish development (Sales, 2009). Optimization of digestible protein (DP) and DE content ($DE = GE \text{ of feed} - GE \text{ lost to faeces}$) of fish diet is the foremost consideration in feed formulation (Zuidhof, 2019; White, 2013; Happel, 2020). For cultured fish species, these ratios range between 81 -117 mg $DP \text{ kcal}^{-1} DE$ (NRC, 2011). DE requirements for fry to fingerling stage of fishes such as carp, rohu, mrigal, silver and grass carp scopes between 3500 to 4500 $Kcal \text{ kg}^{-1}$ of diet at level of 37%- 47% protein, 30% carbohydrate, and 7% lipid in diet (FAO, 2017; Giri, 2017). Energy values are important considerations in choice of dietary ingredients for optimizing cost effective feed formulations.

5. Processing of fish feeds: Extrusion and Pelletization

Processing of feeds can improve organoleptic properties, improve digestibility, reduce negative impacts of non-nutrients, pathogen thus yielding sustainable, good quality aquaculture diets. Extrusion is a sought after technique for aquafeed processing with merits of feed nutritional quality improvement. During extrusion process feed is mixed, sheared and heated under high temperature, high pressure with extrudate leaving the die of proper dimension. Extruder parameters temperature, shear, screw type, pressure, size of die; and diet composition have great influence of physical and nutritional quality of extruded feed (Sorensen et al., 2005). Extruded diets provide enhanced feed digestibility owing to diminution of anti-nutritional factors (tannins, phytates, phenols) and pathogenic interferences from diet. Hot-extrusion is performed at temperatures above 100°C forming floating diets for surface feeders such as, *O. niloticus*; cold extrusion identifies at ambient temperatures producing sinking pellets for bottom dwelling finfish including *Clarius gariepinus* (Choton et al., 2020). Were et al. (2021), demonstrated benefits of hot extrusion processing of feeds in reducing microbial interferences in insect and larval meal replacement of FM diet for Nile tilapia and African catfish. Extrusion cooking affects nutritional quality of diet at various degrees. In its beneficial aspect, in addition to destruction of antinutrient factors, extrusion diets contain gelatinized starch, improved soluble dietary fiber; increasing its digestibility to fish and feed physical properties in water (Welker et al., 2018; Glencross et al., 2011). On the contrary, depending on extrusion conditions heat susceptible vitamins can be lost, with protein-sugar reactions at high extrusion temperatures deteriorating feed nutrient profiles (Singh et al., 2007). Even coated forms of ascorbate are largely lost at high rates to extrusion. Most susceptible vitamins to extrusion are thiamine (due to high shear rates of extrusion), vit. A, C and folate. Yang et al. (2020), evaluated impact of extrusion temperatures and encapsulation procedure on vitamin stability to conclude high stability of micro-encapsulated vitamin compared to un-encapsulated forms in feed. Storage loss of vit A is reported due to oxidative influences (Harper, 1988). Since many parameters need to be optimized for extrusion processing of feeds, the technique require precise controlled operating conditions to

restore maximal nutrient benefits from feeds. Extruded feed are more resilient to dissociation in water and produces low density floatable diets (Khater et al., 2014), that allow aqua culturist to account amount of feed consumption by fish. Extrusion can produce durable and stable aquafeeds abating problems of aquatic pollution in farming environment (Liu et al., 2021).

Pelleting aggregates ingredients into large homogenized particles under effect of heat, pressure and moisture (Lovell,1980). Riaz et al. (2009) evaluated vitamin stability due to extrusion, and pelleting procedures at three months storage, reporting extrusion loss of thiamine (88%) compared to pelleting loss ranging between 60-96%. Pelleted diets in comparison to extruded diets are dense with low floatability. Pelletization process require steam water addition to diet mixture and have high moisture content that must be reduced for their use as fish diets. Pelleted diets are less costly than extruded feeds thus provides cost effective feeds.

CONCLUSIONS

Fed aquaculture has contributed to significant growth in fisheries productions besides fulfilling basic nutritional requirements for humans. Nutrition and feeding are primary themes in sustainable aquaculture paradigm. Adequately formulated nutrient rich feeds can safeguard significant amount of the total production costs of fed-aquaculture. Since, feeds have essential role in aquafarming development appropriate knowledge followed by astute evaluation of nutritional quality of feed and feedstuffs is important for sustaining aquaculture welfare and health.

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