Dynamics of endogenous and water cortisol release in Asian Seabass *Lates calcarifer*

after acute stress in a farm scale recirculating aquaculture system

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Abstract

Stress in farmed fish is associated with poor feeding, slow growth, disease, and mortality.

Therefore, it is essential to closely monitor the stress levels in fish to optimize farming practices

which could then enhance productivity and welfare in aquaculture operations. Cortisol, a stress

hormone that can be found in the blood, is a reliable biomarker for evaluating fish stress. As blood

sampling is highly invasive, alternative cortisol sampling methods such as fin, mucus, and the

surrounding water which contains released cortisol, have been proposed as less invasive or non-

invasive sampling methods. However, a comprehensive understanding of their temporal

dynamics and associations with plasma cortisol levels is still lacking. In this study, we subjected

Lates calcarifer, Asian sea bass within a farm-scale (3,000 L tank, 9,000 L system) high-flow rate

(8,000 L/hour) Recirculating Aquaculture System (RAS) to an acute handling stress challenge

specifically involving chasing and air exposure, and quantified cortisol dynamics both within

different biological samples including blood, fin, and mucus and in tank water from multiple

sampling points. We showed that handling stress induced an expected increase in plasma and

mucosal cortisol, peaking at 1 hour and 24-48 hours, respectively, and that plasma and mucus

cortisol were moderately correlated, especially during the stress period. Fin cortisol did not show

consistent dynamics. Water cortisol similarly rose, but peaked within 40 minutes from the start of

the stressor, in a pattern that was dependent on the site of sampling within the RAS system, likely

due to RAS circulation dynamics. Our study is the first to examine the impact of stress on cortisol

accumulation and release in Asian Sea bass in a farm-scale RAS, thus complementing existing

research on the efficacy of fin, mucus, and water cortisol as stress indicators that could help

optimize aquaculture productivity and welfare.

Keywords

Stress, Cortisol, Asian Seabass, Barramundi, Recirculating Aquaculture System (RAS)

Introduction

Fish stress has negative effects on growth, survival, and meat quality, and is both a cause and

consequence of disease (Snieszko, 1974; Bly, Quiniou and Clem, 1997; Daskalova, 2019).

Pathogenic infections (Ellis *et al.*, 2007; Triki *et al.*, 2016) and environmental stressors such as

poor water quality (Lupica and Turner, 2010; Mota *et al.*, 2017a; Zarantoniello *et al.*, 2021),

handling (Scott, Pinillos and Ellis, 2001; Ellis *et al.*, 2004), noise (Mickle and Higgs, 2018), and

overcrowding (Pavlidis *et al.*, 2013; Odhiambo *et al.*, 2020) commonly induce the stress response

in fish, which is marked by the secretion of the stress hormone, cortisol. As such, cortisol has

been utilized as a biological indicator of fish stress levels in both laboratory and aquaculture

settings (Martínez-Porchas, Martínez-Córdova and Ramos-Enriquez, 2009; Sadoul and Geffroy,

2019; Tanaka *et al.*, 2023). Unfortunately, conventional methods of obtaining cortisol from fish

blood, or whole-body samples are invasive and themselves stress-inducing (Scott, Pinillos and

Ellis, 2001; Sadoul and Geffroy, 2019).

Measurements of cortisol concentrations from mucus and fin have been used as less-

invasive methods for stress monitoring (Simontacchi *et al.*, 2008; Bertotto *et al.*, 2009; De

Mercado *et al.*, 2018; Ghassemi Nejad *et al.*, 2019). Simontacchi et al (2008) evaluated plasma

cortisol levels in European sea bass subjected to different pre-slaughter conditions. Cortisol levels

in plasma were found to correlate with those detected in mucus, even though cortisol levels in

mucus were substantially (up to 20 times) lower than in plasma. Bertotto et al (2010) investigated

transportation stress in European sea bass and other fishes and similarly observed a good

correlation between cortisol levels in plasma, mucus and fin samples.

Cortisol within the animal's bloodstream is also released into the surrounding water

through passive diffusion (Sadoul and Geffroy, 2019), and water cortisol levels were previously

shown to correlate with plasma cortisol levels (Scott, Pinillos and Ellis, 2001; Fanouraki *et al.*,

2008). Hence, regular measurement of cortisol in the water has been proposed as a non-invasive

means of detecting elevated stress levels in farmed fish (Scott, Pinillos and Ellis, 2001; Sadoul

and Geffroy, 2019). This method might be particularly useful in land-based farms that use

Recirculating Aquaculture Systems (RAS) technologies for high-intensity farming (Mota *et al.*,

2017a).

A handful of previous studies have looked into the potential of water cortisol as a non-

invasive stress marker. Fanouraki et al (2008) subjected European Seabass (*Dicentrarchus*

labrax) to 5 minutes of chasing and a 1-1.5 minutes air exposure, within a 2 m^3 flow-through tank,

at a water flow rate of 60 L/hour (Fanouraki *et al.*, 2008). This resulted in increased plasma cortisol

concentrations (2,184 nM or 791,612 ng/L) that peaked at 1-hour post stress. Water cortisol

concentrations peaked at 4-hours post-stress reaching 7.2 ± 0.20 ng/L. In the same study, a

confinement challenge was also conducted with two stocking densities (20 or 50 kg/m^3) within 12

L buckets with supplied O_2 and a high water flow rate. The higher stocking density tank was

observed to have had a 2-3 fold higher water cortisol concentration throughout the 24-hour

experiment. In a different study, Scott et al (2001) showed that 90-second air exposure of rainbow

trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) induced stress as measured from water cortisol (Scott, Pinillos and

Ellis, 2001). The study was conducted in a 150 L flow-through tank, with a stocking density of 30

kg/m^3 at a water flow rate of 120 L/hour. A progressive increase in water cortisol concentrations

was observed after single and repeated stress, peaking at 2 hours (25 ng/L) and 5 hours (100

ng/L) respectively, and gradually declining thereafter. The above studies used small volume, flow-

through setups not comparable to farm-scale conditions.

More recently, water cortisol experiments have been conducted in RAS systems, albeit in

relatively small setups. Mota et al (2017) examined the effect of RAS flow rate on water cortisol

concentrations prior to and following an acute stressor (Mota *et al.*, 2017b). Nile Tilapia

(*Oreochromis niloticus*) were raised at a stocking density of 67 kg/m^3 in 72 L tanks. After two

weeks at a flow rate of 675 L/kg feed/day, water exchange rates were adjusted to 150 L/kg

feed/day (LowRAS) or 1,500 L/kg feed/day (HighRAS) for 4 weeks, where LowRAS expectedly

led to an increase in water cortisol concentrations over 4 weeks. Cortisol concentration peaked

at 2 hours following an acute stressor of 60-second air exposure, increasing 30% in LowRAS from

5 ng/L to 7 ng/L, unlike the HighRAS condition, where a significant change was not observed.

Another study by the same authors investigated the water exchange rate and pH on circulating

cortisol in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) and the accumulation of cortisol in a RAS tank

over a 70-day experimental period, with a starting stocking density of around 10 kg/m^3. On day

35, plasma cortisol was significantly elevated at low pH (5.8) with a mean concentration of 24.4

+/- 9.5 ng/mL, and elevated water cortisol (2.5 ng/L per kg) was also observed at low water

exchange rates (480 L/kg feed/day). These studies suggest that the flow rate of a RAS tank may

significantly impact the ability to detect water cortisol, and a lower rate is essential for ensuring

the utility of water cortisol as an on-farm stress diagnostic tool.

The Asian sea bass (*Lates calcarifer*), also known as Barramundi, is a commercially

important fish species widely distributed in the Indo-Pacific region (Islam *et al.*, 2023). It holds a

prominent position among the marine species farmed in Singapore because of its consumers'

high demand, sustainability, economic benefits, palatable taste, and nutritional value (Glencross,

2006; Taylor, 2022). In aquaculture farming, Asian sea bass have a low feed conversion ratio,

which means it requires less feed to produce one kilogram of fish as compared to other

aquaculture species (Katersky and Carter, 2005). Additionally, it is commonly raised in RAS,

which minimizes the environmental impact and reduces the risk of diseases and parasites, making

it a sustainable fish to farm, especially in countries with limited land and water supplies. Overall,

this high-value food fish generates revenue for fish farmers, as well as for local restaurants and

markets (Keat, 2021). Similar to other farmed fish, Asian sea bass are often subjected to stress

during various aquaculture practices, such as transportation, handling, and stocking. Therefore,

stress detection in Asian sea bass is of significant interest to both the fisheries and aquaculture

industries. However, few studies have been carried out on stress in Asian sea bass (Ardiansyah

and Fotedar, 2016; Hong *et al.*, 2021), and no quantification of cortisol accumulated or released

into multiple tissue types or water has been reported.

Hence, in this study, we sought to characterize cortisol dynamics of Asian sea bass in

response to stressors, particularly whether fin and mucus tissues may allow for accurate and less-

invasive proxies of stress in this species. Furthermore, we investigated if water cortisol levels

within a larger, farm-like, high-flow RAS setting (9,000 L system, 8,000 L/hour flow rate) would be

an accurate measure of fish stress within the system, and compared water cortisol concentrations

across different sampling points in the RAS system.

Materials and Methods

Animal Husbandry and Experimental Setup

Asian sea bass (*Lates calcarifer*) were reared in a RAS system at the Aquaria of Republic

Polytechnic, Singapore, and all experiments were approved by the Republic Polytechnic's

Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC Protocol #2022/RP/00001). Chasing

experiments were carried out in a 9,000 L saltwater (30 ppt) system, which consisted of 2 circular

blue fiberglass tanks (each 3,000 L) containing the fish and 1 rectangular tank (3,000 L) as the

sump (Figure 1A-B). Water was circulated at 8,000 L/hour.

Experimental Fish

Asian sea bass were obtained from two local commercial fish farms. Upon arrival, the juvenile

Asian sea bass (~30 g) were subjected to a two week quarantine period to facilitate adaptation

and address any diseases that the fish might have brought. Each batch of fish was placed directly

and quarantined in a single fiberglass RAS tank "Tank 1" (Figure 1A-B). Details of each batch of

fish used in the experiments can be found in Table 1.

Table 1: Summary of Asian sea bass used in experiments

Experiment Details			At start of experiment			
Biological Replicates	**Start Date**	**Fish Supplier**	**Number of fish**	**Average Weight (g)**	**Stocking density (system, kg/m^3)**	**Stocking density (tank, kg/m^3)**
Exp 1	7 Sep - 9 Sep 2022	Local Farm A	134	140.67	2.094	6.283
Exp 2	7 Dec - 9 Dec 2022	Local Farm B	446	92.36	4.575	13.731
Exp 3	1 Mar - 3 Mar 2023	Local Farm B (same batch as Exp 2)	432	165.82	7.959	23.878

During experimental periods, fish were fed three times a day (9:30 am, 12:30 pm, and 4:30 pm)

at a rate of about 10% body weight (BW) per day using a commercial fish diet (5 mm sinking

pellets; 46% crude protein, 10% crude fat, 5% crude fiber, 16% crude ash, 4.5% phosphorus, and

2.2% lactic acid). The amount of feed was also controlled accordingly due to the recirculating

aquaculture system filter carrying capacity and fish stocking densities.

Water quality parameters were measured daily by the YSI Pro Quattro probe (YSI, USA)

and the SpinTouch FX (Lamotte, USA). The 9,000 L RAS system that was used for chasing stress

experiments was circulating aerated saltwater (dissolved oxygen, 5.74 ± 4.03 mg/L; water

temperature, 27.58 ± 3.8 °C; salinity maintained at 30 ppt). Ammonia levels were controlled to

be below 1 ppm, nitrite concentrations were maintained below 1 ppm, nitrate levels were kept

below 100 ppm and pH was maintained below 8.0.

Handling Stress experiments

Fish were starved and not fed during the evenings the day before experiments commenced. "Pre-

chase" samples were collected before any chasing stresses were induced on the fish. Fish were

subjected to a period of chasing with progressively longer chasing durations: 5 minutes ("Chase

(5 min)"), 10 minutes ("Chase (10 min)") and 15 minutes ("Chase (15 min)"), with a 5-minute "rest"

interval between each of the 3 chases. Fish were chased by two personnel using large nets

(Figure 1C), each in a repetitive "C" shape manner hence covering the entire breadth and depth

of the tank. At the end of each of the respective chases, a net full of fish was lifted in one stroke

and air exposed for 10 seconds. Following this, 5 fish from this net were collected for sampling.

Post-chase samples were collected at 30 minutes ("Post-chase (30 min)"), 1 hour ("Post-

chase (1 hr)"), 2 hours ("Post-chase (2 hr)"), 4 hours ("Post-chase (4 hr)"), 24 hours ("Post-chase

(24 hr)"), and 48 hours ("Post-chase (48 hr)"), from the end of the chasing period.

Hence, there were a total of 11 sampling time points for chasing experiments; where 5

random fish were sampled at each sampling time point (Figure 1D). At each sampling point, the

following samples and data were collected: water from various parts of the tank (see "Water

cortisol collection" section), fish body weight (total weight of the 5 fish), plasma, fin, and mucus

(See "Biological sample collection" section).

Biological sample collection

After being netted, the fish were anesthetized in a bucket using Tricaine methanesulfonate MS-

222 (70 mg/L) and sodium bicarbonate (0.14 g/L) dissolved in fresh saltwater from the reservoir.

While still in the bucket, the fish were collectively weighed. The anesthesia took effect in

approximately 5 minutes, after which the fish were subjected to plasma, fin, and mucus collection,

as described in the following sections. On average, the entire process of collecting plasma, fin,

and mucus samples required approximately 5 minutes per fish.

Plasma collection

Blood was extracted from the caudal artery/vein by inserting a 21G sterile needle at a 45° angle

until it reached the spine. Upon contact with the spine, the needle was withdrawn slightly, and

blood was extracted into a sterile 1.0 mL syringe. Approximately 0.5 mL of the collected blood

was subsequently injected into a heparin tube and inverted 5 times to thoroughly mix the blood

within the heparin tube and prevent coagulation. The blood in the heparin tube was then

centrifuged at a 45° angle, at 3,000g for 10 minutes to facilitate the separation of blood plasma.

The plasma was carefully pipetted into a cryovial, which was then stored in dry ice before being

transferred to a -20 °C freezer.

Mucus collection

The fish were swabbed on their left flank, along the lateral line. This process was repeated 4 times

on each side of the swab. The swab was then placed into a 2 mL tube, where 1 mL of phosphate

buffer solution (PBS) was added to the sample swab. The samples were then stored in dry ice

before being transferred to a -20 °C freezer.

Fin collection

A fin clip was collected by cutting about 1.5 cm of the top part of the caudal fin. Tweezers were

then used to pick up the fins to be placed into 2 mL labeled Eppendorf tubes. The Eppendorf

tubes with the fins were then filled with 1 mL of PBS and stored in dry ice before being transferred

to a -20 °C freezer. After handling each fish, both tweezers and scissors were sanitized with 70%

ethanol.

After sample collection, the fish were first placed in recovery saltwater buckets with no

tricaine to recover from the anesthesia. This measure was implemented to prevent the resampling

of the same fish at each sampling time and to avoid any potentially stressful effects caused by

the reintroduction of the sampled fish. In the first experiment where water cortisol was only

measured from "Tank 1 - Furthest from inlet", the sampled fish were placed into "Tank 2" post-

recovery from anesthesia. The latter was the other blue fiberglass tank connected to the entire

recirculating system. In subsequent experiments, given that we were also sampling water from

other parts of the system including Tank 2, the sampled fish were placed into a separate holding

tank not connected to the circulating system and only returned at the end of the day after the

"Post-chase 4 h" time point (Experiment 2), or in the case of Experiment 3, these fish were culled.

We note that there were minimal changes in the system stocking densities caused by these

differences (Supplementary Table 1), and as reported in the "Results" section, these minor

variations did not appear to affect the overall trend of biological or water cortisol changes.

Water sample collection

In Experiment 1, tank water was only collected from a single sampling point "Tank 1 Furthest from

Inlet". In Experiments 2 and 3, tank water was additionally sampled from 6 other sampling points

(Figure 1A). Besides 1 - "Furthest From Inlet Tank 1", water was sampled from the 2 - "Central

Pipe", 3 - "Inlet Tank 1" , 4 - "Sump", 5 - "Skimmer", 6 - "UV" compartment and 7 - "Furthest From

Inlet Tank 2". Gloves were consistently worn during the collection of water cortisol samples to

avoid potential contamination from human skin-derived cortisol. Water was collected using

siphons, positioned at a height that was midway through the water column. These siphons were

thoroughly rinsed with clean freshwater at each respective collection point. To ensure thorough

flushing of the siphon at each sampling point, the tank water was allowed to flow through the

siphon for at least 30 seconds before a 100 mL or 125 mL glass bottle was filled to the brim.

These water samples were subsequently kept chilled in an ice box and later transferred to a 4°C

fridge for storage. Water from the system that had been siphoned out but not collected in the

glass bottles was returned into the system to maintain a relatively constant water volume within

the system.

Cortisol extraction from fin and mucus samples

Sample processing was performed according to protocols adapted from previous methods

(Ghassemi Nejad *et al.*, 2019) with some modification. Mucus samples stored in a -20 °C freezer,

were thawed to room temperature before processing. The microcentrifuge tube containing the

swab with mucus was vortexed for 30 seconds, after which, the mucus was scrubbed from the

swab with the wall and rim of the tube repeatedly. Following this, the solution was filtered using a

0.22 μm Polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) syringe filter and stored at a 4 °C fridge for analysis within

a 24-hour timeframe.

Fin samples in PBS stored in a -20 °C freezer were thawed to room temperature before

processing. Each fin sample was washed twice with isopropanol and subsequently air-dried for

2-3 days. The dried fin sample was ground into powder by using a mortar and pestle, and the

weight of the ground powder was recorded. To facilitate cortisol extraction, 1.5 mL of methanol

was added to the ground powder and shaken over a 3-day period. After centrifugation at 9,500

rpm for 10 minutes, the resulting supernatant was collected and placed in an oven at 38 °C for

methanol evaporation. The extracted cortisol was reconstituted in 400 μL of PBS, filtered through

a 0.22 μm PVDF syringe filter, and stored at 4°C fridge for analysis within 24 hours or in a -20 °C

freezer for long-term storage.

Cortisol quantification from biological samples (ELISA)

The cortisol levels from the three biological substrates (plasma, fin and mucus) were quantified

using an enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) kit (Fish Cortisol ELISA, CUSABIO,

Houston, TX, USA). The ELISA is based on the competitive inhibition enzyme immunoassay

principle, involving the interaction between pre-coated cortisol and cortisol within the samples,

and has a cortisol detection range of 0.0023–10 ng/mL.

Plasma and aliquots of cortisol extracted from fins and mucus were subjected to analysis

following the protocol provided by the manufacturer. Briefly, all reagents and samples were

brought to room temperature prior to use. Plasma samples were diluted 100 times with the

provided sample diluent before testing. Extracted cortisol from fin and mucus samples were tested

as these were without further dilution. In each well, 50 µL of sample or standard was mixed with

50 µL of 1× antibody and incubated at 37 °C for 40 minutes. Each well was then washed three

times with the wash buffer and 100 µL of Horseradish peroxidase conjugated secondary antibody

(HRP conjugate) was added immediately. The plate was incubated in the dark at 37 °C for 30

minutes and subjected to five additional washes. Color development was initiated by adding 90

µL of 3,3',5,5'-Tetramethylbenzidine (TMB) substrate to each well and incubating the plate at 37

°C for 20 minutes. The reaction was then stopped by adding 50 µL of stop solution. The plate was

gently tapped to ensure thorough mixing. The optical density of each well was determined within

5 minutes using a microplate reader, the Infinite M200 Spectrophotometer (Tecan Trading AG,

Switzerland) at a wavelength of 450 nm. The cortisol concentration in the sample is calculated

based on the standard curve, prepared by plotting the optical density at 450 nm of cortisol

standards (0 - 10 ng/mL) derived from serially diluted cortisol stock (10 ng/mL).

Cortisol extraction and quantification from water samples (HPLC)

Cortisol from tank water samples was extracted through liquid-liquid extraction technique and

analyzed by using high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) (Viljoen *et al.*, 2019; Ney *et*

al., 2021) with some modifications. For liquid-liquid extraction of cortisol from water samples,

equal volumes of dichloromethane and water samples were mixed together and the mixture was

left to stand for 10 minutes. The organic phase containing cortisol was decanted from the mixture,

and evaporated using a rotary evaporator (IKA RV 10, Germany). The resulting precipitate was

then reconstituted in a 50% methanol solution and filtered through a 0.22 µm PVDF filter.

The cortisol extracted from water samples was analyzed using HPLC (Shimadzu LC-

2050C 3D, Japan) coupled to a photodiode array (PDA) detector set at 245 nm. The HPLC was

performed by injecting 100 µL of the extracted water sample through a Shim-Pact GIST C18

normal-phase column (inner diameter 4.6mm, length 250 mm, particle size 5 µm). An isocratic

flow of mobile phases (methanol and 10 mM ammonium formate in water in a 1:1 ratio) was

performed for 30 minutes. Using the HPLC conditions mentioned above, cortisol was eluted with

a retention time of 14.5 minutes. The HPLC is calibrated to cortisol standards ranging from 1 pM

to 10 µM in 50% methanol solution. All water samples and standards were spiked with 500 µL of

1 µM cortisol internal standard. Cortisol peak area from the standards was measured and plotted

against the cortisol standards concentration to build a standard curve. The cortisol concentration

in the water sample is calculated based on the standard curve according to the peak area in each

water sample. Each water sample was measured as duplicates.

Data analysis and Statistics

Cortisol concentrations obtained from plasma, fin and mucus samples were calculated based on

a standard curve run on each plate and expressed in ng/L. Adjustments were made for dilution

factor (plasma), initial sample weight (100 mg of fin/1 mL of PBS) and mucus dissolved in 1 mL

PBS. In Figure 3, the water cortisol concentration was not standardized to biomass. However, a

standardization to system stocking density (kg/m^3) was performed in Supplementary Figures 4-5.

To compare cortisol concentrations across different time points, a 2-way ANOVA was

applied, followed by the Dunnett test with multiple comparison correction. To ascertain the

relationship between less-invasive measurements of mucus and fin cortisol and cortisol levels in

blood plasma, we conducted simple linear regression analysis. Using the Grubbs' test (Alpha =

0.0001) to identify outliers, we removed two fin cortisol (Experiment A, Pre-chase and Post-Chase

(24hr)) and one plasma cortisol (Experiment A, Chase (15min)) measurement in our analysis.

Since the biological replicates are conducted on batches of fish with different

characteristics and spanning six months, we also performed a boot-strapping based permutation

test to establish the statistical robustness of our conclusions (MATLAB, USA). For 10,000

iterations, we first randomly sampled an experiment (1, 2, or 3), and from this experiment then

randomly sampled (with replacement) 5 fish from each chase / post-chase time point. We then

compared the mean cortisol concentration of this group with the pre-chase control, which was

similarly randomly sampled. This allowed us to quantify the percentage of iterations in which the

cortisol concentration would be higher in each post-chase time point compared to the pre-chase

controls, providing a p-value for each time point. This permutation analysis was conducted for

each tissue type. In this analysis, we did not exclude any outliers. Using this same analysis we

also estimated the distribution of effect sizes (cohen's d) that would be observed (Supplementary

Figure 2). In the figures and tables, asterisks are used to indicate statistical significance levels as

follows $*p<0.05$, $**p<0.01$, $***p<0.001$, $****p<0.0001$.

Results

The acute handling stress experiment was repeated three times over a period of six months, as

described in Table 1. Given its large scale, we were unable to simultaneously conduct multiple

replicates, and instead conducted biological replicates sequentially over time. The origins, age,

weight, and stocking densities of the fish inevitably varied, which led to varying absolute cortisol

concentrations as quantified by ELISA analyses (Table 1, Supplementary Figure 1). However,

handling stress and sampling protocols were kept consistent, and consistent behavioral changes

were observed in each chasing experiment, where the fish exhibited rapid swimming, actively

evaded the nets, and displayed signs of distress upon exposure to air. Instances of vomiting were

observed, and foamy bubbles were observed on the surface of the tank, starting from around the

"Chase (10 min)" period and increasing over time, which may reflect increased mucus secretion.

To quantify the effects of such handling stress on plasma, mucus, and fin cortisol across

these diverse conditions, we employed two statistical methods, a 2-way ANOVA (across

experiment and time point) as well as bootstrapping analysis. For the latter, we randomly sampled

with replacement data from fish within each experiment, as well as the experiment (1, 2, or 3)

from which the fish were sampled, for 10,000 iterations, to generate a bootstrapped distribution

of effect sizes (Supplementary Figure 2) as well as a p-value for each time point (Table 2)

demonstrating the probability of cortisol concentrations being higher at that time point relative to

control.

The results of both statistical analyses are tabulated in Table 2, and we only consider

results that were significant across both statistical tests. Under this stringent criterion, we report

a significant increase in plasma cortisol levels (Figure 2A), at the Chase (10 min), Post-chase (30

min and 1 hr) time points, with a complete return to baseline by 24 hours post-chase. In contrast,

mucus cortisol showed a slower time course (Figure 2B), with a gradual increase of mucus cortisol

over time, which only achieved significance at 24 and 48 hrs post-chase. Notably, mucus cortisol

concentrations were about 100 fold lower than plasma or fin cortisol concentrations (Figure 2A-

C). No significant values were obtained for fin cortisol (Figure 2C).

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340 **Table 2: Summary of statistical analyses results using ANOVA and bootstrapping**
341 (dark gray = p<0.05 in both tests, light gray = p <0.05 in one test)

Time points	Plasma		Mucus		Fin	
	ANOVA	Bootstrap	ANOVA	Bootstrap	ANOVA	Bootstrap
Chase (5 min)	0.9737	0.3374	>0.9999	0.4147	0.9998	0.7656
Chase (10 min)	0.0183*	0.0115*	0.7128	0.6060	0.9673	0.5951
Chase (15 min)	>0.9999	0.1726	>0.9999	0.3560	0.9715	0.7236
Post-chase (30 min)	0.0172*	0.0194*	0.7181	0.2667	>0.9999	0.8522
Post-chase (1 hr)	0.0066**	0.0464*	0.3574	0.3423	0.4202	0.3211
Post-chase (2 hr)	0.2616	0.1431	0.0803	0.1634	0.5990	0.3574
Post-chase (4 hr)	<0.0001***	0.3089	0.0033**	0.0718	0.9930	0.4320
Post-chase (24 hr)	0.6323	0.3656	<0.0001***	0.0193*	>0.9999	0.8369
Post-chase (48 hr)	0.2317	0.1114	<0.0001***	0.0000***	0.5471	0.3100

Next, we correlated cortisol levels across the biological samples (fin, mucus, and plasma)

collected from each individual fish. Plasma cortisol was most strongly correlated with mucus

cortisol (r = 0.42, p <0.0001, Figure 2D), whereas both fin and plasma (r = 0.27, p = 0.0011, Figure

2E), and fin and mucus cortisol (r = 0.14, p = 0.1032, Figure 2F), were only weakly correlated.

Notably, the correlation between plasma and mucus cortisol was highest during the chasing

period (r = 0.65, p <0.0001) as compared to the pre-chase (r = 0.33, p = 0.5375) and post-chase

(r = 0.17, p = 0.0015) periods (Figure 2G). In contrast, plasma cortisol was more strongly

correlated with fin cortisol during the pre-chase period, albeit non-significant (r = 0.40, p = 0.1552),

as compared to the chase (r = 0.22, 0.05003) and post-chase (r = 0.29, p = 0.0058) period (Figure

2H). Fin and mucus cortisol were most highly correlated in the pre-chase (r = 0.51, p = 0.0643)

and chase (r = 0.22, p = 0.1434) period as compared to post-chase (r = 0.09, p = 0.4259) period

(Figure 2I).

The dynamics of water cortisol circulating in farm-scale RAS systems has not been

previously characterized, posing a practical challenge to implementing on-farm water cortisol

monitoring at scale. Hence, we sought to understand how water cortisol may be distributed in the

RAS system following an acute stressor. To this end, we quantified cortisol from tank water

sampled from 1 to 7 points in the RAS indicated in Figure 1A. In Experiment 1, tank water was

only collected from a single sampling point "Tank 1 Furthest from Inlet", whereas in Experiments

2 and 3, tank water was additionally sampled from 6 other sampling points to study the distribution

of cortisol across various locations within the RAS.

Due to the low concentrations of cortisol in water relative to biological samples, and the

higher potential for antibody interference in ELISA due to contaminants (e.g., salts and organic

material) in tank water, we opted to use HPLC analysis for more precise measurements of water

cortisol concentrations. Consistent with reports in existing literature, water cortisol concentrations

were in the range of ~10 to ~100 ng/L, about 1,000 fold lower than the concentrations observed

in plasma and fin samples, and 10-fold lower than mucus samples. In all sampling points within

the tank containing the fish (Tank 1), we observed a consistent trend of increased water cortisol

starting from the chasing period (Figure 3A-C). For the "Tank 1 Furthest from Inlet" sampling point,

there was a significant increase in water cortisol at the Chase (15 min, $p = 0.0197$) and Post-

chase (30 min) time points ($p = 0.0367$). Water cortisol concentrations were also significantly

elevated at the "Inlet of Tank 1) at the Chase (15 min) time point ($p = 0.0287$), with a similar peak

for the "Central pipe" albeit non-significant. The cortisol concentrations from the other RAS

compartments did not exhibit distinct variations, although water cortisol concentrations in the

"Sump" and "Skimmer" were on average higher during and after the chase (Figure 3D and 3E).

The "UV" compartment, on the other hand, did not show any trends (Figure 3F). Interestingly, in

Tank 2, which was not holding any fish, a similar trend of increased water cortisol, significant at

the Chase (10 min) time point, was observed (Figure 3G). This observation suggests the

possibility that cortisol released into the water from one tank may be distributed to other RAS

tanks within the system. Detailed cortisol concentration data from individual experiments, as

absolute values or normalized to system stocking density (since some fish were removed for

sampling), can be found in Supplementary Figures 3-5.

Discussion

Handling stress leads to an acute rise in plasma cortisol

In this study, the effects of handling stress on Asian sea bass cortisol concentrations across tissue

types were assessed. Figure 4 shows the cortisol concentration ranges found in different tissue

types of Asian sea bass and the RAS tank water. Highest concentration of cortisol is observed in

plasma, which is very invasive. Less-invasive samples such as fin, mucus, and water have lower

cortisol concentration than plasma. Water samples, which are the least invasive, have the lowest

concentration range < 300 ng/L.

From this acute handling stress study, first, we confirmed that our manipulation indeed

triggered a significant increase in plasma cortisol starting from the Chase (10 min) time point,

which would be 20 minutes into the chasing period (Figure 2A). There continues to be a significant

increase in plasma cortisol up to 1 hour post-chase, and recovery at 24 and 48 hours. We note

that some of the chase and post-chase time points did not attain statistical significance, which

could be attributed to biological variability across the 3 replicates, influenced by the large number

of fish in the tanks and variations in fish age, genetic background, and size (Table 1). Despite

these differences, the overall early detection of cortisol is consistent with previous such studies

where it has been shown that plasma cortisol typically peaks between 0.5-4 h post stress stimulus

in fish (Scott, Pinillos and Ellis, 2001; Fanouraki *et al.*, 2008; Scott *et al.*, 2008; Mota *et al.*, 2017a).

For instance, it peaks at 1-2 hr in carp and 2-4 hr in roach post-tag insertion (Lower *et al.*, 2005);

2 hr in gilthead seabream post-crowding stress (Guardiola, Cuesta and Esteban, 2016), 0.5 - 1

hr in rainbow trout (Ellis *et al.*, 2004) and 3 hr in Atlantic Salmon post air exposure stress (Ellis *et*

al., 2007); and 4 hr post-injection with ACTH (adrenocorticotropic hormone) in Threadfin (Bshary

et al., 2007). Interestingly, a study in European seabass recorded significantly high plasma

cortisol already at 0 hr post chasing and air exposure stress, peaking at 1 hr post-stress

(Fanouraki *et al.*, 2008), which coincides with the plasma cortisol trends in our Asian seabass

study.

Relationship of plasma to mucus and fin cortisol

We also simultaneously sampled mucus and fin cortisol from individual fish, to investigate the

viability of these less-invasive sampling methods as reliable indicators of fish stress in aquaculture

settings. Our findings revealed that mucus cortisol was significantly increased following the stress-

inducing event, becoming significantly elevated at the post-stress 24- and 48-hour time points,

even when plasma cortisol had already fully returned to baseline levels. However, this increase

followed a slower time course compared to that of plasma cortisol. Similarly as shown in Madaro

et al (2022), the rise in cortisol in mucus of Atlantic salmon after netting stress was delayed

compared to blood plasma (Madaro *et al.*, 2023). In their study, mucus levels remained

significantly elevated even at 300 min post-stress, which was the longest time point they

assessed. Guardiola et al (2016) also reported a sustained increase in mucus cortisol at 24 and

48-hours post-crowding stress, whereas plasma cortisol only showed a significant increase at 2

hours post-stress (Guardiola, Cuesta and Esteban, 2016).

While the biological basis of these differences is still not well-understood, it is speculated

that either the accumulation of plasma cortisol in the mucus, or the reabsorption of cortisol from

the water might account for these observed patterns. Despite the differences in cortisol dynamics,

we observed a reasonably strong correlation between plasma and mucus cortisol (r = 0.65) during

the chasing period. Similarly, one of the few other studies reported the strongest correlation (r =

0.70) between mucus and plasma cortisol in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) during the

hours following confinement stress, relative to the control or late phase (Carbajal *et al.*, 2019).

Our data thus suggests that mucus cortisol could be a useful, less invasive way to sample fish

stress in Asian Sea bass. In contrast, cortisol extracted from fin did not display any consistent

trend or relationship with plasma cortisol. While this does not preclude its utility in estimating fish

stress, it may be less robust across the varied conditions in our experiments.

Water cortisol changes post-stress in the RAS system

We also measured water cortisol within the fish holding tank (Tank 1) across all three acute stress

experiments, and observed a significant rise in water cortisol in the Chase (15 min) and post-

chase (30 min) periods, which correspond to 40 minutes up to 70 minutes (1 hr 10 mins) from the

initiation of the chasing period. In comparison to other previous water cortisol studies, these water

cortisol changes were observable in a higher flow system (8000L / hr), again demonstrating the

feasibility of water cortisol monitoring in farm-scale settings (Scott, Pinillos and Ellis, 2001;

Fanouraki *et al.*, 2008; Mota *et al.*, 2017a, 2017b). Notably, the rise in water cortisol paralleled

the rise in plasma cortisol, except that plasma cortisol continued to be significantly elevated at 1-

hr post-chase.

In the latter two of the three experiments, we further measured water cortisol across

different parts of the tank and also different RAS compartments, to identify ideal sampling

locations for water cortisol for on-farm stress monitoring. The same trend was still observed in

other parts of Tank 1, where the peak in water cortisol still occurred at 40 minutes from the

commencement of the stress event (the "Chase (15 min)" time point)) and decreased earlier than

plasma cortisol. These results suggest that the dynamics of water cortisol in the RAS system may

be influenced by other factors, including flow rate, filtration (i.e. protein skimmer), or binding to

the plastic tank walls (since it is hydrophobic). Alternatively, cortisol could potentially be

reabsorbed by the fish, possibly into the mucosal layer.

We also observed the presence of water cortisol in other RAS compartments, such as the

protein skimmer and sump, indicating the distribution of water cortisol from Tank 1 to other

compartments. While water cortisol concentrations in the "Sump" and "Skimmer" were on average

higher during and after the chase, the increase was not significant, that could be due to the low

number of biological replicates and the varying absolute water cortisol concentrations across the

two replicates (Supplementary Figures 3-5). The exception was for the UV compartment, where

a change in water cortisol post-chase was not so apparent, either due to UV radiation-induced

degradation, or other factors. Interestingly, a rise in cortisol, significant at the Chase (10 min) time

point, was observed in Tank 2, which did not contain any fish. This result highlights that due to

water recirculation in RAS, other connected tanks may also be exposed to the cortisol released

from a stressed tank of fish. It would be interesting to further investigate the effects and

implications of water cortisol transmission to fish in connected RAS tanks.

Overall, water cortisol dynamics appeared to be more consistent with plasma cortisol

trends than mucus (or fin). We note that we used a more sensitive method (HPLC) to quantify

water cortisol than plasma, mucus, or fin cortisol. This was for two reasons, firstly, water cortisol

concentrations were significantly lower than in biological samples, and secondly, fish tank water

is a more complex matrix than biological samples, containing a multitude of additional salts and

organic materials that may interfere with antibody affinity binding in ELISA. More convenient and

sensitive methods of water cortisol detection would be valuable for future studies.

Caveats and limitations of our study

In typical research studies, biological replicates would be conducted in parallel on a single batch

of fish, within smaller tank setups. In our study, we aimed to simulate the conditions of a farm-

scale setup, using 3,000 L tanks on a 9,000 L RAS system. Due to the scale of our experiments,

the limited number of such systems available, and the challenge of acclimatizing and cultivating

a large number of fish, we were constrained to conduct one biological replicate at a time, with our

experiments spread over a course of 6 months. We also were only able to measure water cortisol

from different RAS compartments in 2 of the 3 experiments.

As expected, the cortisol measurements obtained in this study exhibited variability across

samples and time points. Several factors contributed to this variability; firstly, the variations in the

ages, sizes, genetic background, and stocking densities of the fish tested (Table 1). Secondly,

despite maintaining a highly consistent chasing and air exposure stress protocol, the random

selection of the 5 fish sampled per time point (per experiment) likely contributed additional

variability due to the large numbers of fish present in the tank.

While not ideal in an experimental setting, the upside of such variability is that any signal

we have obtained would likely be reproducible even with the normal diversity experienced in on-

farm settings. Across all biological replicates, we observed an increase in plasma, mucus, and

water cortisol levels, with relatively consistent dynamics. Importantly, our results further argue

that surveying water cortisol, which provides an average readout of the stress levels in the system,

might be a means of overcoming the variability from sampling individual fish. Further, given that

the stocking densities fell within the low- (6 kg/m^3) to medium-range (20 kg/m^3), it is possible that

more pronounced changes in cortisol might be observable at higher densities.

Conclusions

Our results corroborate that in a farm-scale RAS setting across varying conditions, water cortisol

is a reliable measure of Asian sea bass stress and that different tissue types such as fin and

mucus may reflect stress over different dynamical timescales. These results are likely

generalizable to other fish species and tank setups, though it is important to note that the time

course and concentrations or rates of cortisol release may differ across species. The findings of

a significant correlation between mucus cortisol and plasma cortisol, especially during acute

stress exposure, highlight the potential utility of mucus cortisol as a non-invasive measure of fish

stress. Future experiments could explore the application of these methods to other types of

stressors (e.g. ammonia exposure, infections) or more chronic stressors such as high stocking

density. Overall, our results suggest that continuous monitoring of water cortisol in aquaculture

RAS setups may be a viable approach for detecting fluctuations in fish stress levels, allowing for

the detection of anomalies in a timely manner.

Acknowledgements

This research is supported by the A*STAR Agritech and Aquaculture Horizontal Programme

Office (A2HTPO) seed grant (C211018003) awarded to Laura Sutarlie, Xiaodi Su, Caroline Lei

Wee and collaborators in Republic Polytechnic and Aquaculture Innovation Center (AIC), and

also the Confirma Programme awarded to Caroline Lei Wee by A*STAR. We would like to extend

our gratitude to Ng Yi Long, for his valuable help and guidance in fish husbandry. We would also

like to acknowledge Tan Kwang Meng and Joyce Koh for their assistance during the experiments.

Additionally, we would like to also thank the teams of Republic Polytechnic Final Year Project

students: Cung Nei Mawi Lian, Nur Adillah Bte Rahiam, Nur Iffah Dianah Bte Jumadi, Nurul

Insyirah Binte Mohamed Arffah, Putri Nur Aisyah Bte Sazali, Yong Sai Kit, Cheryl Lim, Lee Jerry,

Sammi Hong Wenxuan and Stahlmann Sarah Elizabeth. We also would like to acknowledge Dr.

Lee Chee Wee, Dr. Saravanan Padmanabhan, and Dr. Diana Chan from AIC for discussions.

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640 **Figures and Legends**

641 **Figure 1**

Figure 1: Schematic of experimental setup and design

(A)   Design of the Recirculating Aquaculture System (RAS) used in our experiments,
         including water sample collection points.
(B)   Image of the RAS
(C)   Image showing how chasing was performed in Tank 1 using large nets in a C-shape
         manner. Air Exposure for as many fish as possible was performed for 10 s at the end of
         each chasing period (5 min, 10 min, 15 min) before 5 fish were sampled per time point.
(D)   Experimental timeline from Pre-Chase to Post-Chase (48 hr). Black lines correspond to
         sampling time points. Red boxes represent progressively longer stress periods
         separated by 5-minute intervals (green boxes). Orange boxes represent the post-stress
         period on the same day, following which sampling was also done after overnight rest
         periods (blue boxes).

692 **Figure 2**

Figure 2: Changes in plasma, mucus, and fin cortisol levels during and after a period of chasing and air exposure stress

(A) The average plasma cortisol concentrations of Asian sea bass across sampling points (N = 5 fish per experiment, 15 fish per sampling point except for Chase (15min) where one outlier was excluded). A indicates statistical significance with two-way ANOVA only, whereas AB indicates statistical significance with both ANOVA and Bootstrapping analysis. P-values are reported in Table 2.

(B) The average mucus cortisol concentrations of Asian sea bass across sampling points (N = 5 fish per experiment, 15 fish per sampling point). P-values in Table 2.

(C) The average fin cortisol concentrations of Asian sea bass across sampling points (N = 5 fish per experiment, 15 fish per sampling point except for Pre-Chase and Post-Chase (24hrs) where one outlier was excluded each). P-values in Table 2.

(D) Correlations between plasma and mucus cortisol concentrations released from individual fish across all time points (N = 148, R2 = 0.1746, p <0.0001)

(E) Correlations between plasma and fin cortisol concentrations released from individual fish across all time points (N = 147, R2 = 0.07114, p = 0.0011)

(F) Correlations between mucus and fin cortisol concentrations released from individual fish across all time points (N = 147, R2 = 0.01821, p = 0.1032)

(G) Correlations between plasma and mucus cortisol concentrations released from individual fish per experimental phase (Pre-Chase: N = 15, R2 = 0.02993, p = 0.5375. Chase: N = 45, R2 = 0.4232, p <0.0001. Post-Chase: N= 89, R2 = 0.1105, p = 0.0015)

(H) Correlations between plasma and fin cortisol concentrations released from individual fish per experimental phase (Pre-Chase: N = 14, R2 = 0.1609, p = 0.1552. Chase: N = 45, R2 = 0.05003, p = 0.1444. Post-Chase: N= 89, R2 = 0.08439, p = 0.0058)

(I) Correlations between mucus and fin cortisol concentrations released from individual fish per experimental phase (Pre-Chase: N = 14, R2 = 0.2570, p = 0.0643. Chase: N = 45, R2 = 0.04913, p = 0.1434. Post-Chase: N= 88, R2 = 0.007388, p = 0.4259)

731 **Figure 3**

733　**Figure 3: Change in water cortisol across different sampling points in the RAS system**
734　**during and after a period of chasing and air exposure stress**
735
(A)　Mean water cortisol concentrations (ng/L) at Furthest From Inlet Tank 1 (N = 3 per time
point) p = 0.0197 (Chase (15 min)), 0.0367 (Post-Chase (30min))
(B)　Mean water cortisol concentrations (ng/L) at Central Pipe (N = 2 per time point)
(C)　Mean water cortisol concentrations (ng/L) at Inlet of Tank 1 (N = 2 per time point) p =
0.0287 (Chase (15 min))
(D)　Mean water cortisol concentrations (ng/L) at Sump Tank (N = 2 per time point)
(E)　Mean water cortisol concentrations (ng/L) at Skimmer (N = 2 per time point)
(F)　Mean water cortisol concentrations (ng/L) at UV (N = 2 per time point)
(G)　Mean water cortisol concentrations (ng/L) at Furthest From Inlet Tank 2 (N = 2 per time
point) p = 0.0395 (Chase (10min))
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748　**Figure 4**
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752　**Figure 4: Cortisol concentrations across tissues and in water in Asian sea bass**
753　Cortisol concentrations in this figure are derived from our handling stress experiments. The
754　invasiveness level of each sampling method is indicated by the red color code. Note that the fin
755　and mucus cortisol were normalized to the initial sample weight (100 mg of fin/1 mL of PBS) and
756　mucus was dissolved in 1 mL PBS.
757