

1 **Selective breeding and production strategies to support snapper**
2 **farming in the warming waters of New Zealand's South Island**

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4 Georgia Samuels¹, Flavio Ribeiro¹, David Ashton¹, Sharon Ford¹, Joshua Fantham¹,
5 Julie Blommaert¹, Damian Moran¹, Maren Wellenreuther^{1,2*}

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7 ¹ *The New Zealand Institute for Plant and Food Research Ltd, Nelson, New Zealand*

8 ² *School of Biological Sciences, University of Auckland, Auckland, New Zealand*

9

10 *Corresponding author: Maren

11 Wellenreuther Maren.wellenreuther@plantandfood.co.nz

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13 **Abstract**

14 Diversifying aquaculture species is essential for building resilience in the face of
15 climate change, particularly as warming oceans challenge existing production
16 systems. In New Zealand's Marlborough Sounds, rising sea temperatures are
17 making salmon farming increasingly difficult, highlighting the need for climate-
18 adapted alternatives. This study evaluated the aquaculture performance of
19 selectively bred F₄ versus unselected F₁ Australasian snapper (*Chrysophrys auratus*)
20 across two rearing environments: sea pens in the Marlborough Sounds and a land-
21 based system in Nelson. Approximately 1,000 F₄ and 1,000 F₁ snapper were reared
22 from 4 to 30 months of age in each system. At 30 months, selectively bred snapper
23 showed improved growth-body length increased by 1.7% (land-based) and 4.8%
24 (ocean-based), and body weight by 9.8% and 14.2%, respectively compared with F₁
25 snapper. Survival was also significantly higher, with selected snapper outperforming
26 controls by 84.2% in the land-based and 60.8% in the ocean-based system. Mortality
27 peaked in the first winter across both systems, with size-selective patterns in sea
28 pens informing minimum stocking sizes. These findings offer important insights for
29 refining husbandry and selective breeding practices. They are not only relevant for
30 New Zealand but also for global aquaculture sectors seeking robust species suited to
31 changing marine environments.

32 **Keywords:** Aquaculture diversification, climate change, selective breeding,
33 production environment, performance assessment.

34 **Introduction**

35 Aquaculture, the cultivation of aquatic organisms such as finfish, shellfish, and
36 seaweed, is the fastest-growing food production sector (FAO 2022), currently
37 supplying half the world's seafood for human consumption (Boyd et al. 2022). As the
38 global population continues to grow, the demand for seafood is projected to rise
39 significantly (Smith et al. 2010; United Nations 2015; De Meester et al. 2024). To
40 meet this growing demand, species diversification in aquaculture has become
41 increasingly crucial. The aquaculture diversification towards native species not only
42 reduces the reliance on wild fisheries but also provides market resilience by means
43 of a constant supply of seafood product to a market that is otherwise seasonal.
44 Species diversification also expands the range of farmed species with varying
45 environmental and biological requirements, enabling more efficient use of available
46 marine farming areas. Furthermore, species with a wider range of abiotic tolerance,
47 such as variations in temperature tolerance, are ideal candidates for diversification
48 as they can help to optimize the geographical use of grow-out space (Teletchea
49 2021; Cai et al. 2023).

50 Climate change is putting an urgent pressure on the aquaculture industry to
51 transit to species that are more tolerant to environment changes. The success and
52 productivity of ocean-based aquaculture depends closely on water temperatures.
53 Rising temperatures and environmental shifts could therefore threaten some of the
54 industry's ability to sustain growth and maintain fish production in the future (Yadav
55 et al. 2024). This is particularly true for the aquaculture of temperate species, which
56 depends on cold water. Climate change impacts are already disrupting established
57 farming systems around the globe, as seen in Tasmania (Meng et al. 2022) and

58 Norway (Ytteborg et al. 2023; Falconer et al. 2024), and again, this disruption is
59 predicted to increase with ongoing climate warming. The resulting rising ocean
60 temperatures are forecasted to trigger increasing and extended marine heatwaves
61 and associated fluctuating oxygen levels (Law et al. 2018). These events are placing
62 significant stress on many farmed species, leading to higher mortality rates and
63 reduced productivity. Action is needed to prepare the industry for the coming
64 challenges and consequently, it is crucial to introduce new species that can better
65 withstand changing environmental conditions in areas where production of
66 contemporary species is no longer viable.

67 New Zealand's ocean-based finfish aquaculture industry is currently
68 dependent on a single species—Chinook salmon (*Oncorhynchus tshawytscha*)—
69 which is farmed exclusively in the South Island. However, the viability of salmon
70 farming is increasingly threatened by changing climatic conditions, particularly in the
71 Top of the South Island, where salmon farms in the Marlborough Sounds have
72 experienced reduced production because of a general warming of summer water
73 temperatures, as well as increasingly frequent marine heatwaves. Notable mortality
74 events associated with marine heatwaves have occurred in 2021 and 2022 (Cook et
75 al. 2024), and high losses were also reported in 2025 (De Boni 2025), highlighting
76 the vulnerability of salmon to climate change. As salmon farming looks to move to
77 cooler waters in the open ocean or further south to adapt to these changing
78 conditions, there are opportunities to develop other species more suited to the future
79 marine climate of the Marlborough Region. This study presents the first evaluation of
80 hatchery-reared Australasian snapper (*Chrysophrys auratus*) on-grown in a net pen
81 in the Marlborough Sounds, with the goal of identifying the key biological challenges

82 that would need to be addressed before proceeding further towards commercial-
83 scale trials.

84 The Australasian snapper (Sparidae: *Chrysophrys auratus*, also known as
85 tāmure by the indigenous Māori people of New Zealand, hereafter referred to as
86 snapper) is a promising species for aquaculture diversification in New Zealand for
87 several reasons: it has a wide latitudinal distribution (Parsons et al. 2014; Papa et al.
88 2020); an existing market profile with reasonably good prices (\$NZ11 per kg whole
89 fish) from a modest and quota-limited wild-capture sector (~7000 tonnes) (The
90 economic contribution of commercial fishing 2022); and it is a member of the
91 Sparidae family for which there are well-developed and transferrable aquaculture
92 practices for related species, such as the Mediterranean seabream (*Sparus aurata*)
93 and Japanese red seabream (*Pagrus major*). An understanding of Australasian
94 snapper for aquaculture has been progressively developed over the past 20 or so
95 years. In New Zealand, snapper is predominantly found in the North Island and the
96 northern part of the South Island (Crossland 1981a, 1981b), with the southern end of
97 its distribution range being the southern South Island (Graham 1953), where
98 temperatures can go below 10°C. Like many other Sparidae species, they
99 experience a broad range of natural temperatures (Francis 1996, 2001;
100 Wellenreuther et al. 2019; Moran et al. 2023). For instance, their range in Australia
101 extends as far north as Mackay, where sea surface temperatures (SSTs) can reach
102 up to 30°C (Ferrell 1993). Given snapper has a wide range of thermotolerance, the
103 species could facilitate a climate-resilient aquaculture transition in New Zealand and
104 be farmed in both South and North Islands, under a range of temperature profiles. In
105 Australia, studies have addressed topics such as nutrition (Booth MA et al. 2004;
106 Booth MA et al. 2007; Booth M, Tucker, et al. 2008), harvested fish colour (Booth MA

107 et al. 2004; Doolan et al. 2007) and production in saline inland waters (Fielder et al.
108 2001). In New Zealand, the focus has been improving the production cycle and on
109 selective breeding to generate high-performing fish and genomic tools for
110 aquaculture, resulting in an elite snapper line with superior growth, survival and feed
111 conversion ratio (FCR) (Moran et al. 2023; Samuels et al. 2024). Snapper has a wide
112 distribution across New Zealand and Australia, inhabiting nearly all inshore
113 environments down to depths of 200 m (Leach 2007; Parsons et al. 2014). To date
114 all published information in New Zealand has relied on tank-based populations;
115 however, this type of data cannot directly address questions about the farming
116 potential of Australasian snapper aquaculture in the Marlborough region, as there is
117 limited transferability of fish performance data between tank-based studies and sea
118 pens.

119 We sought to benchmark the growth and survival of a selectively bred F_4
120 cohort of snapper against a non-selected F_1 cohort in a remotely operated sea pen in
121 the Marlborough Sounds, while also keeping populations of each cohort in tanks at a
122 land-based facility in Nelson to enable the collection of higher-resolution weight gain
123 and mortality data. A novel aspect of this study was the use of image-based re-
124 identification of individual fish over time, to disentangle the correlated traits of growth
125 and survival in selectively bred and wild-type fish. Size-selective mortality has a
126 significant effect on structuring populations of many fish species, particularly during
127 early life stages when small fish with limited energetic stores encounter adverse
128 conditions (Rosenberg and Haugen 1982; Sogard 1997; Folkvord et al. 2009;
129 Garrido et al. 2015; Le Pape and Bonhommeau 2015; Peres et al. 2022).
130 Understanding the relationship between fish body weight at the time they are
131 transferred into a sea pen and their subsequent growth and survival performance

132 across seasons is critical to optimising aquaculture production strategies, and if this
133 information can be refined to individual-level data, it can help inform breeding
134 programmes and size-grading thresholds for juvenile fish destined for sea pen on-
135 growing.

136 **Materials and Methods**

137 **Ethics Statement**

138 This study was approved under animal ethics application AEC-2021-PFR-05
139 by the Animal Ethics Committee at the Nelson Marlborough Institute of Technology
140 (NMIT), and operations approved under fish-farm license FW208.03.

141 **Land-based and ocean-based production settings**

142 Land-based on-growing of Australasian snapper (*Chrysophrys auratus*) was
143 conducted at Plant & Food Research's (PFR) Nelson Research Facility, located in
144 Nelson, New Zealand (41.2985° S, 173.2441° E) (Figure 1A). This facility is
145 equipped with a flow-through system, with water drawn from the Nelson Haven from
146 an engineered aquifer in the intertidal zone filled with various hard substrates that
147 provide solids filtration. Abstracted filtered water is then pumped through the facility
148 in a reticulation system that delivers the water into the fish tanks. Fish tanks are fitted
149 with air diffusers and ceramic oxygen stones to further assist with maintaining water
150 quality and allow exchange of gases. Environmental parameters of the tanks, such
151 as water temperature, were recorded daily and Dissolved Oxygen (DO) was
152 monitored daily around feeding events.

153 Ocean-based on-growing of snapper was conducted at a sea pen located in
154 Beatrix Bay, Marlborough Sounds, New Zealand (41.1173° S, 174.0706° E) (Figure
155 1A). The site, leased from Ngāi Tahu Seafoods, consisted of a 19-meter diameter
156 floating ring pen with a 15-meter deep KikkoNet (Maccaferri Australasia Ltd,
157 Melbourne Australia) mesh enclosure. The main pen was subdivided into four equal
158 sub-pens, each constructed from knotless nylon mesh with a 25 mm bar length, and
159 measuring 6 × 6 × 6 meters (~216 m³ water volume per sub-pen). Pontoon walkways
160 provided access between sub-pens. The pen system was powered by solar panels
161 and 12 V batteries, which supported an Arvo-Tec (Arvo-Tec Oy, Huutokoski, Finland)
162 automatic feeding system, Adroit (Adroit Ltd, Auckland, New Zealand) environmental
163 monitoring sensors (temperature, DO, pH, turbidity, salinity, redox potential, and
164 conductivity) and SnapIT underwater monitoring and transmitting cameras
165 (SnapCore Ltd, Nelson, New Zealand). The snapper cohort was stocked into one of
166 the four sub-pens for the duration of the trial.

167 **Production of F₁ and F₄ cohorts**

168 F₄ and F₁ snapper cohorts were produced in November 2021 using third
169 generation selectively bred broodstock (n = 201) and wild-caught broodstock (n = 61)
170 sourced from the Marlborough Sounds and Tasman Bay, respectively (Samuels et al.
171 2024). Fertilized eggs from each group were incubated for five days, yielding
172 approximately 17,482 and 22,919 weaned post-larvae at 40 days post hatch (DPH)
173 in the F₄ and F₁ cohort, respectively.

174 **On-growing conditions**

175 On 1 March 2022, 4-month-old snapper (Samuels et al. 2024) were
176 phenotyped (described below) and size graded to remove individuals less than 70

177 mm fork length (a requirement based on the sea pen mesh size). From the size-
178 graded populations, snapper juveniles were randomly split into four cohorts as
179 follows: Cohort 1: 1204 F₄ snapper; cohort 2: 1159 F₁ snapper; cohort 3: 1056 F₄
180 snapper; cohort 4: 1056 F₁ snapper. While cohorts 1 and 2 were retained in the land-
181 based system in two 5,000-L tanks (one for each cohort), cohorts 3 and 4 were
182 transported to the ocean-based system.

183 For the land-based cohorts, a maximum stocking density of 15 kg m⁻³ was
184 maintained for the duration of the study. Density was assessed at each sampling
185 event and a number of snapper were removed from the tank either to maintain the
186 stocking density at similar rates in between the F₄ and F₁ cohorts, or to keep the
187 stocking density within acceptable parameters for water quality and preserve fish
188 welfare. Cohorts 3 and 4 were transported to the sea pen by road using a portable
189 live-fish transport system placed on a truck, which was then transferred to a vessel
190 for the final part of the trip, with sea water exchange while on water. Dissolved
191 oxygen and temperature were monitored throughout the four hours of transportation.
192 On arrival, F₄ and F₁ snapper cohorts were transferred into the same sub-pen (initial
193 stocking density of 0.3 kg m⁻³) and remained there for 26 months (final stocking
194 density of 1.9 kg m⁻³).

195 All four cohorts were fed the same commercial diets. Skretting Nutra RC (2.3-
196 mm to 3.0-mm) was provided from 4 to 12 months of age, while Otohime (4-mm)
197 was offered afterwards until the end of the comparison. For the land-based cohorts,
198 feeding was done by hand, three times a day, to apparent satiation, while for the
199 ocean-based cohorts, food was stored in a 100-L hopper connected to a rotating

200 drum feeder system (Figure 1A), which automatically delivered food at regular
201 intervals during daylight hours at a rate of approximately 1.5% body weight per day.

202 Land-based cohorts were monitored daily, and ocean-based cohorts every
203 two to four days for mortalities. At the conclusion of the comparison, all remaining
204 ocean-based stock were live-transported back to the land-based system in Nelson
205 using the system previously described. All individuals from both the land-based and
206 ocean-based cohorts were then counted and assessed simultaneously to finalize the
207 study.

208 **Trait measurements**

209 Initial phenotyping of all individuals was conducted at 4 months of age, where
210 fish in both the land-based and ocean-based cohorts were manually measured for
211 fork length (L_F , mm) and body weight (BW, g) for growth monitoring. Furthermore,
212 associated high-quality images of the left side of the snapper were captured for
213 image analysis (described later). Growth performance data were periodically
214 monitored at 11, 14, 18, and 24 months through a subsample of a minimum 10% of
215 the population. At 30 months of age, all individuals were measured to conclude the
216 study (Figure 2 A–B and Table 1). To generate detailed growth curves, the land-
217 based cohort was sub-sampled at an additional eight time points (5, 7, 12, 15, 16,
218 23, 26, and 27 months of age). Prior to measurement, snapper were anaesthetised
219 using AQUI-S® (Aqui-S New Zealand Ltd, Lower Hutt: 15–20 ppm), a dose which
220 resulted in a loss of equilibrium and no reaction to net capture. In the land-based
221 cohorts, sub-samples of anaesthetised snapper were captured from tanks using dip
222 nets and transferred to a measurement station until the target sample number was
223 reached. For the ocean-based cohorts, the stock was crowded by raising the base of

224 the net and then lining with a purpose-designed tarpaulin bath dosed with AQUI-S®
225 (8–10 ppm) to sedate the snapper. From here, snapper were dip-netted and counted
226 into a 680-L bin until the target sample number was reached. Individuals were then
227 further anaesthetised using AQUI-S® (15–20 ppm) and processed through a
228 measurement station for size and image recording. On 8 May 2024, all remaining
229 ocean-based stock were retrieved from the sea pen (850 individuals at 30 months
230 old) and transferred back into the land-based system for final phenotyping.
231 Individuals from the ocean-based cohorts and their associated L_F and BW were able
232 to be linked through time (start versus end time) using a biometric identification (bio-
233 ID) derived from the captured images (Figure 3). The bio-ID uses a tri-hash method
234 described by Arzoumanian et al. (2005) and applied previously to snapper by
235 Samuels et al. (2024).

236 At 18 months of age, halfway to maturation (36 months), a sub-sample ($n =$
237 30) from each of the land-based F_4 and F_1 cohorts were euthanized for internal
238 organ sampling to assess their condition. This sampling was restricted to the land-
239 based cohorts because of the accessibility to freshly euthanized snapper. Data
240 collection focused on BW (g) as well as the weights of internal organs (heart, liver,
241 visceral fat, gastrointestinal (GI) tract, and gonads) (Figure 4).

242 **Data analyses**

243 Differences in the temperature profile between production sites were
244 investigated using time-resolved plots, as well as plots of cumulative degree-days
245 (DD, calculated by summing daily temperature), and comparison of growing degree-
246 days (GDD, Uphoff et al. 2013) calculated using 14°C as a base temperature below
247 which feed intake and growth effectively ceases. Where temperature data were

248 missing at the sea pen site because of a faulty sensor and data collection device, the
249 temperatures were linearly interpolated between the adjacent direct measurements
250 to allow for calculation of DD and GDD.

251 To determine whether L_F and BW improvements were statistically significant,
252 population means were compared at each sampling event using a Welch's t-test
253 (Table 1), with generation and production systems as independent variables. The
254 data were then used to calculate (a) Condition Factor (K), using the Fulton formula
255 ($K=100 \cdot BW/FL^3$), where BW is body weight in grams and L_F is fork length in
256 centimetres, and (b) Coefficient of Variation (CV; $CV=(\text{mean}/\text{stdev}) \times 100$) for the L_F
257 (mm) and body weight (g) of each cohort across all sampling events. Additionally,
258 growth data were also used to calculate specific growth rate (SGR) (Crane et al.
259 2020). Temperature records for both production sites were used to calculate the
260 thermal growth coefficient (TGC, %) (Jobling 2003).

261 The relationships between the lethally sampled internal traits (organ weights)
262 and commonly assessed non-lethal traits (weight) were evaluated through a
263 covariation matrix using the 'corrplot' package v0.94 (Wei and Simko 2024) in R (R
264 Core Team 2013). Survival was calculated at the end of the study. In the land-based
265 cohorts, survival was calculated by summing monthly mortality rates, while in the
266 ocean-based, survival was calculated at the end of the study by comparing the
267 stocking and retrieved numbers of the F_4 and F_1 snapper. To represent survival at the
268 individual level in the sea pen, snapper IDs assigned using bio-ID were imported into
269 R and arranged in a swarm plot based on their BW at 4 months of age.
270 Subsequently, BW data were highlighted in blue if the individual survived, while non-
271 surviving individuals were highlighted in grey. Survival probability, based on fish BW

272 at 4 months of age, was modelled using a logistic regression in tidymodels (Kuhn
273 and Wickham 2020).

274 To determine whether growth rates within a population could be predicted
275 early in the life cycle, the weight at stocking (4 months of age) was plotted against
276 the weight at the conclusion of the study (30 months of age) and fitted with a linear
277 regression. Additionally, all remaining individuals were ranked based on their weight
278 at stocking and conclusion and connected between the two time points.

279 **Results**

280 **Temperature comparison of on-growing sites**

281 The temperature profile of each on-growing site differed in terms of the mean
282 daily temperature (16.6°C for the land-based system versus 15.8°C for the ocean-
283 based system) and the summer maximum and winter minimum temperatures, with
284 the ocean-based system generally exhibiting a lower amplitude seasonal
285 temperature variation (Figure 1B) than the land-based system. Using 14°C as a
286 lower threshold for growth, the GDD metric for the land-based system was 2433
287 compared with 1792 for the ocean-based system (a 26% difference) over the course
288 of the trial.

289 **Growth traits**

290 Ocean-based F_4 and F_1 cohorts were both longer (L_F) and heavier (BW) on
291 average for the first 10 months (4 to 14 months old) of the comparison ($p < 0.05$, Table
292 1). From this moment until the end of the study, the inverse was true, with both land-
293 based generations growing faster and presenting significantly higher L_F and BW at
294 the end of the comparison (30 months old) ($p < 0.05$, Table 1). In terms of BW at 30

295 months the ocean-based F_4 and F_1 populations were 68% and 66% of the BW
296 recorded in the land-based cohorts, respectively.

297 Comparisons of F_4 and F_1 cohorts showed clear trends of improved growth
298 performance in the elite strain, irrespectively of the production system. In terms of L_F ,
299 F_4 snapper already showed significant growth improvement at 4 months of age when
300 the populations were divided into their on-growing environments, with 33.8% and
301 12.9% L_F improvement over the F_1 in the land-based and ocean-based cohorts,
302 respectively ($p < 0.05$, Figure 2A and Table 1). The F_4 cohort continued to be larger
303 than the F_1 cohort in the land-based system, with 9.9%, 9.9%, 9.5%, 5.1% and 1.7%
304 improvements at 11, 14, 18, 24 and 30 months respectively. Fork length
305 improvements were also recorded in the ocean-based F_4 cohort, with 6.3%, 2.8%,
306 4.3%, 4.5% and 4.8% trait improvement at 11, 14, 18, 24 and 30 months respectively
307 ($p < 0.05$, Figure 2A and Table 1). The amplitude of L_F improvement in the ocean-
308 based cohorts, however, were not as high as those observed in the land-based
309 cohorts. In terms of BW, improvements between generations were consistently
310 greater than those recorded for L_F (Figure 2B and Table 1), with F_4 cohorts showing
311 significantly higher BW than F_1 cohorts across all sampling points ($p < 0.05$,
312 Supplementary Table 2), irrespectively of production system. In the land-based
313 system, the BW of the F_4 cohort was 149.5%, 32.1%, 38.6%, 30.8%, 22.3%, and
314 9.8% higher at 11, 14, 18, 24, and 30 months, respectively, than the BW of the F_1
315 cohort ($p < 0.05$, Table 1). The same trend was seen in the ocean-based cohorts,
316 where the F_4 cohort showed 41.9%, 19.7%, 10.7% 16.3%, 14.0%, and 14.2%
317 greater BW than the F_1 cohort at 11, 14, 18, 24, and 30 months, respectively
318 ($p < 0.05$, Figure 2B and Table 1). As seen in L_F , these BW gains between cohorts
319 were slightly smaller in the ocean-based system than those documented for the land-

320 based system. The enhancement both L_F and BW between generations was also
321 reflected in the comparison of condition factor (K, Table 1). The K of the F_4 cohort
322 was higher than that of the F_1 cohort at most time points in each production system,
323 with the exception of 18 months in the land-based system and 11 months in the sea
324 pen, where the F_4 K was 0.02 and 0.05 lower than that of the F_1 cohort, respectively
325 (Figure 2C and Table 1).

326 In the F_4 cohort, a statistically significant but moderate correlation was
327 observed between the initial and final BW ($p < 0.001$, correlation coefficient = 0.562),
328 suggesting that factors beyond initial BW influence growth trajectories. In contrast,
329 no significant correlation was found for the F_1 cohort ($p = 0.166$), indicating weaker
330 predictive power of initial BW in this group.

331 Figure 6A illustrates the start and end BW of the surviving individuals from the
332 ocean-based cohorts. In the F_4 cohort, the start and end BW were significantly
333 correlated ($p < 0.001$), with a R^2 value of 0.271. For the F_1 cohort, the start and end
334 BW were also significantly correlated ($p < 0.001$), with a R^2 of 0.031. Figure 6B
335 shows individual snapper rank progressions, based on BW, at 4 and 30 months for
336 F_4 and F_1 cohorts at the sea pen. The lightest 10 and heaviest 10 fish in each
337 generation cohort are highlighted in blue and red, respectively, at each time point.
338 The rank progressions also showed minimal correlations between the start and end
339 of the comparison (F_4 $p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.31$; F_1 $p < 0.05$, $R^2 = 0.027$). Individualised
340 growth data over the same time span were not available for snapper at the land-
341 based system.

342 The coefficients of variation (CV) for both L_F and BW were broadly
343 comparable between the F_1 and F_4 cohorts and between production systems (Table

344 2). There was a slight decrease in CV values variation over time, which was
345 observed consistently across all sampled cohorts and production settings (Table 2).
346 The specific growth rate (SGR) and temperature growth coefficient (TGC) showed
347 that the F₄ and F₁ cohorts were generally comparable within production system.
348 These values showed a marked seasonal pattern, with fish growing more slowly over
349 winter, while faster during summer, irrespective of production system or generation.
350 Internal traits in the F₄ cohorts revealed significant correlations between body weight
351 and the weights of the liver, visceral fat, and GI tract, as well as between heart and
352 GI tract, visceral fat and GI tract, and liver with both visceral fat and GI tract (all
353 correlations, $p < 0.05$; Figure 4). Similarly, in the F₁ population, significant
354 correlations were found between body weight and the weights of the liver, visceral
355 fat, GI tract, gonad, and heart, as well as between liver and visceral fat, GI tract, and
356 gonad; visceral fat and gonad; and GI tract and gonad (all correlations, $p < 0.05$;
357 Figure 4).

358 **Survival**

359 The survival of the F₁ cohort in the land-based system from 4–30 months was
360 29%, and for the F₄ cohort survival was 53%. Water temperature had a pronounced
361 effect on mortality for both cohorts, particularly in the first year. For the F₁ cohort the
362 majority of mortality (76%) occurred in the first 12 months, with a pulse of mortalities
363 occurring during the winter and autumn when waters were below approximately 15°C
364 (Figure 5A). After this phase mortality was low and intermittent for the remainder of
365 the trial. The F₄ cohort showed a similar pattern of mortality although with a much
366 lower amplitude, with comparatively fewer fish dying during the first winter (Figure
367 5A). The ocean-reared cohorts had similar level of survival to the land-based

368 cohorts, with 51% survival recorded for F₄ and 32% for F₁. This consistency in
369 survival rates across production systems indicates the robustness of the breeding
370 gains, with the F₄ cohort showing a 61-84% survival improvement over the F₁ cohort.

371 The biometric re-identification tool enabled analysis of size-specific mortality
372 for each cohort in the ocean-based system as each surviving fish at 30 months could
373 be linked to its corresponding weight at 4 months (Figure 5B). A logistic regression
374 model that plotted survival probability against weight at 4 months indicated a strong
375 size-selective survival function for both cohorts, with fish around 10 g having a 20%
376 probability of survival to 30 months, whereas fish around 40 g had a more than 60%
377 survival rate (Figure 5C). There was small but consistent separation in the survival
378 function between cohorts, with the F₄ cohort demonstrating a 5-10% elevated
379 survival probability for any given size, however, the confidence intervals for two
380 regressions were overlapping, meaning the difference wasn't statistically significant
381 at the 95% level.

382 **Discussion**

383 To meet the future food needs of a growing global population and amidst
384 warming sea temperatures, species diversification in aquaculture is essential
385 (Lubchenco et al. 2020; Naylor et al. 2021). Indeed, the diversification of species is
386 seen as a key adaptation strategy to enhance the resilience of the aquaculture
387 sector against the impacts of climate change (Cai et al. 2023; Edgar et al. 2024).
388 However, implementing species diversification is a long-term strategy, requiring
389 careful consideration of factors such as species selection and site suitability (Metian
390 et al. 2020). Here, we present for the first time results of a full on-growing cycle of
391 snapper *Chrysophrys auratus* reared in the Top of the South Island, New Zealand.

392 Moreover, we compare the performance of both F₄ (bred for enhanced growth) and
393 F₁ (offspring of wild-caught broodstock) and generations of snapper grown in a flow-
394 through facility (land-based) in Nelson and a sea pen in Marlborough Sounds
395 (ocean-based). The Marlborough Sounds is a traditionally used exclusively for
396 Chinook salmon (*Oncorhynchus tshawytscha*) farming; however, recent climate
397 change has caused frequent and extended marine heatwaves, raising water
398 temperatures above 18°C for extended periods (Law et al. 2018; Cook et al. 2024).
399 This is stressful for Chinook salmon and has been linked to increased mortality rates
400 and heightened vulnerabilities to pathogens.

401 Our aim in this study was to evaluate the performance of snapper in a realistic
402 commercial aquaculture sea pen setting in the Marlborough Sounds, with the
403 ultimate goal of determining the species potentiality as a viable alternative to salmon
404 farming in the region. Our study revealed that the F₄ line grew significantly faster
405 than the unselected snapper, both in land-based and ocean-based production
406 systems. In the land-based cohorts, the elite F₄ cohort achieved 400 grams in
407 approximately 740 days, and 600 grams in about 810 days. In contrast, the F₁ cohort
408 reached 400 grams in around 790 days and 600 grams in approximately 840 days.
409 In the ocean-based cohorts, the F₄ cohort reached 400 grams in roughly 800 days,
410 while the F₁ cohort reached 400 grams in about 850 days. Differences in water
411 temperature was likely the most important explanatory factor, with a substantially
412 lower sum of growing degree days in the ocean-based site (1972 versus 2433, a
413 26% difference) correlating with a 32-34% lower mean body weight compared to fish
414 from the land-based site. The difference in temperature regimes between sites
415 despite a relatively short distance (65 km) reflects the respective coastal
416 typographies, with the land-based Nelson site drawing water from a shallow

417 estuarine harbour that was more influenced by air temperature than the sea pen
418 located in the seaward reaches of the Marlborough Sounds. It is important to note
419 that for our experiments we deliberately used a low level of size grading as we
420 wanted to preserve phenotypic variability to understand how a wide selection of the
421 populations performed. This contrasts with commercial settings, where higher
422 grading would typically be used early during the nursery stage to remove
423 underperforming and small fish, meaning the average growth rates reported in this
424 study are a low-end estimate if one wishes to extrapolate the data to a commercial
425 production model.

426 The fast growth observed in the selectively bred snapper aligns with results
427 from selective breeding programmes in other species within the sparid family,
428 particularly the red sea bream (*Pagrus major*) and gilthead sea bream (*Sparus*
429 *aurata*). The red sea bream is primarily cultured in Japan, while the gilthead sea
430 bream is farmed around the Mediterranean. Typically, both species are harvested
431 between 18 and 24 months, depending on farming practices and market size
432 (Mhalhel et al. 2023). The Aquaculture Research Institute at Kindai University
433 (ARIKU) in Japan has been selectively breeding red sea bream since the early
434 1960s, achieving a harvest weight of approximately 1000 grams after around 738
435 days, plus an additional 48 days for further growth (Murata et al. 1996; Kato 2023).
436 In contrast, gilthead sea bream, which has been selectively bred by various
437 companies since the late 1980s, is harvested at smaller sizes, starting from 400
438 grams (Gulzari et al. 2022). Selective breeding has significantly enhanced growth
439 rates and feed efficiency for both species, with red sea bream exhibiting a 90%
440 weight improvement and gilthead sea bream showing growth rate improvements of
441 15–30% over non-selected lines (Boudry et al. 2021). Phenotypic trait correlations

442 showed strong positive allometry between weight and length for both cohorts,
443 indicating integrated growth and development. This scaling suggests that as snapper
444 grow, traits like internal organ mass adapt proportionally to support physiological
445 demands. These findings are valuable for selective breeding, as selecting for weight
446 and length may indirectly enhance traits critical for growth and health, improving
447 overall aquaculture performance (Klingenberg 1996; Karachle and Stergiou 2012).

448 Survival was also generally higher in the F_4 line than in the unselected F_1
449 cohort, with more than half the F_4 fish surviving in both land-based and ocean-based
450 systems, while only around 30% of the F_1 cohort survived in these environments.
451 Survival of the F_1 cohort was slightly better in the ocean-based environment,
452 suggesting that the sea pen may more closely resemble the natural conditions to
453 which the F_1 snapper, produced from wild-spawned parents, are adapted. These wild
454 snapper were not selected for optimal performance in captive settings, unlike the
455 breeding line, which has been exposed for 20 years to these conditions (Baesjou
456 and Wellenreuther 2021; Moran et al. 2023; Samuels et al. 2024). The consistency in
457 survival rates for each generation, regardless of the production system, strengthens
458 the reliability of these survival results.

459 The use of the two production systems to study distinct aspects of survival
460 helped elucidate important biological traits of this species that impact aquaculture
461 production strategies for the South Island. The land-based system enabled easy
462 monitoring of fish populations and characterisation of survival patterns throughout
463 seasons, while the passive biometric tagging of fish in the ocean-based system
464 enabled a longitudinal analysis of juvenile stocking size and survival in a commercial
465 sea pen setting. The land-based observations indicated that survival to harvest is

466 highly impacted by the first winter a juvenile experiences, and the ocean-based data
467 revealed that there is a strong size-selective survival effect. Putting these two pieces
468 of information together, we hypothesize that for snapper to have a high survival rate
469 (>90%) for aquaculture production it is critical that juveniles are at least 60 g before
470 they encounter the cooler winter temperatures that cause feeding to cease at around
471 14°C. We assume that this minimum weight is required to support physiological
472 processes that continue for the 2-3 months of winter when feed intake is low or zero.
473 Tools aquaculturists have to achieve this size and timing specification includes
474 inducing early spawning to ensure snapper have time to reach the target weight
475 before winter and size grading prior to stocking in net pens. These findings for
476 snapper mirror those observed for yellowtail kingfish, where Australian aquaculture
477 researchers found juveniles of this species highly susceptible to low winter
478 temperatures, and larger individuals over 44 g were more robust to the cool winter
479 waters of the Spencer Gulf when stocked in net pens (Booth M, Allan, et al. 2008).

480 Our study design and findings on growth and survival are significant, as they
481 address the challenges of evaluating production-related breeding gains for a new
482 candidate species for aquaculture, particularly in terms of cost-effectiveness and
483 real-world applicability. A key aspect of our approach was the ability to mix cohorts
484 within the same pen and later separate them using phenotypic metrics. This cost-
485 efficient strategy minimizes variability in growing environments, enabling more
486 accurate cohort comparisons and providing realistic insights into comparative gains
487 and their relationship with environmental factors. Our findings also highlight several
488 important challenges. Performance was shown to be cohort-dependent, with the F₄
489 outperforming the F₁ cohort, as well as several indicators showing that performance
490 is both environment- and age-dependent. Notably, we found that optimal

491 performance varied over the course of the 2-year experiment, suggesting that grow-
492 out strategies may need to be tailored to the life stages of fish selected for specific
493 production systems. This has critical implications for maximizing economic gains and
494 production efficiency. Specifically, both F₄ and F₁ snapper cohorts exhibited greater
495 growth gains in the sea pen during the initial 10 months of the comparison. However,
496 over the subsequent 16 months both cohorts grew faster in the land-based system.

497 Future research should prioritize the continued use of selective breeding as a
498 powerful tool to enhance the commercial viability of snapper aquaculture, with a view
499 to enhance not only growth rates but also resilience to cold water temperatures.

500 While significant progress has been made, particularly in earlier generations, such as
501 the feed efficiency improvements observed in the F₃ cohort compared with the F₁
502 cohort (Moran et al. 2023), there remains a critical gap in understanding growth and
503 survival dynamics during the grow-out phase, particularly in coastal and offshore net
504 pen systems. Most studies in New Zealand and Australia to date have been
505 conducted in land-based systems, leaving a lack of data on performance in sea pen
506 environments. A key consideration for any successful commercial breeding
507 programme is the need to replicate real-world farming conditions during the selection
508 process. By doing so, animals evaluated and selected are more likely to express
509 desired traits consistently under commercial operations, such as improved growth
510 and survival. This alignment is critical not only for ensuring that breeding gains
511 translate into tangible benefits for producers but also for supporting the long-term
512 resilience and sustainability of the breeding line.

513 **Conclusions**

514 Aquaculture species diversification is becoming increasingly urgent
515 worldwide, particularly in New Zealand, as climate change-induced marine
516 heatwaves intensify and lengthen (Law et al. 2018; Laufkötter et al. 2020). The Top
517 of the South Island is especially significant in this context, as it already hosts
518 established coastal aquaculture infrastructure for Chinook salmon (*Oncorhynchus*
519 *tshawytscha*). However, rising water temperatures—consistently exceeding 18°C in
520 recent years—have led to substantial losses of Chinook salmon in the top of the
521 south of New Zealand, prompting interest in developing more climate-resilient
522 aquaculture operations. Snapper emerges as a promising candidate for such
523 diversification, thriving in water temperatures between 18 and 24°C (Bowering et al.
524 2023; Collins et al. 2024), a range that fosters improved growth rates. Our results
525 demonstrated that the selectively bred aquaculture line of snapper reached
526 harvestable sizes within two years of being placed in the sea pen, showing better
527 survival rates than unselected snapper. These growth and survival performance
528 metrics are expected to improve significantly if a graded cohort approach is applied,
529 selecting only the top-performing snapper based on body weight, which was not
530 implemented in this study. With such selective grading, coupled with twice-daily
531 optimal feeding, production gains would probably surpass those reported here.
532 Moreover, strategies such as advance broodstock spawning through photothermal
533 manipulation have the potential to anticipate the transference of fingerlings into the
534 sea pen to spring or early summer. This strategy can significantly boost early cohort
535 growth, leading to robust and bigger fish to undergo first winter, probably boosting
536 survival. Furthermore, nutrition strategies as those suggested for Nile tilapia
537 (Nobrega et al. 2020), can boost health, survival and performance of warm-water

538 species during the colder months. Taken together, these initial findings provide
539 valuable insights into the potential of snapper as a climate-resilient species for
540 aquaculture in this region, offering an alternative to traditional salmon farming.
541 Further research is required to optimize grading protocols, production, feeding and
542 nutrition strategies to maximize growth rates, survival and improve economic returns.

543

544

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553

554 **Disclosure statement**

555 The authors report there are no competing interests to declare.

556

557 **Data availability**

558 Raw data sets are available on request from the corresponding author.

559

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729 **Tables**

730 **Table 1.** Growth of Australasian snapper (*Chrysophrys auratus*), from 4 to 30 months of age, for land-based and ocean-
 731 based F₄ and F₁ cohorts. The table shows the age in months down the side, then growth data for fork length (L_F , mm, mean \pm SE
 732 (n)). Additionally, this table shows the statistical results of a Welch's t-test with p -values for within each generation across the
 733 production systems, and between generations within the production systems. This is repeated below for body weight (BW, g).
 734 Condition factor (K) is displayed at the bottom of the table, for statistics refer to the initial traits (L_F and BW) prior to calculation of K.

		Land-based		Ocean-based		p -values (Welch t-test)		System	
Fork length (L_F , mm)		F ₄	F ₁	F ₄	F ₁	F ₄	F ₁	Land-based	Ocean-based
Age (months)	4	99 \pm 1 (129)	74 \pm 1 (198)	105 \pm 0 (1056)	93 \pm 0 (1056)	< 0.005	< 0.005	< 0.005	< 0.005
	11	144 \pm 1 (100)	131 \pm 1 (100)	152 \pm 1 (206)	143 \pm 1 (100)	< 0.005	< 0.005	< 0.005	< 0.005
	14	177 \pm 1 (140)	161 \pm 1 (140)	181 \pm 1 (124)	176 \pm 1 (80)	< 0.005	< 0.005	< 0.005	< 0.005
	18	230 \pm 1 (130)	210 \pm 1 (130)	216 \pm 1 (215)	207 \pm 1 (116)	< 0.005	0.04248	< 0.005	< 0.005
	24	246 \pm 1 (172)	234 \pm 1 (160)	234 \pm 1 (162)	224 \pm 1 (151)	< 0.005	< 0.005	< 0.005	< 0.005
	30	301 \pm 2 (80)	296 \pm 1 (90)	286 \pm 1 (520)	273 \pm 1 (330)	< 0.005	< 0.005	0.01469	< 0.005
Body weight (BW, g)		F ₄	F ₁	F ₄	F ₁	F ₄	F ₁	Land-based	Ocean-based
Age (month)	4	24.2 \pm 0.5 (129)	9.7 \pm 0.5 (198)	25.4 \pm 0.2 (1056)	17.9 \pm 0.2 (1056)	0.02425	< 0.005	< 0.005	< 0.005
	11	61.8 \pm 1.5 (100)	46.8 \pm 1.4 (100)	63.1 \pm 2.5 (21)	52.7 \pm 1.9 (22)	0.6731	0.01274	< 0.005	< 0.005

	132.5 ± 2.7 (140)	95.6 ± 2.0 (140)	131.9 ± 2.4 (124)	119.1 ± 2.7 (80)	0.0871	< 0.005	< 0.005	< 0.005
14	315.4 ± 5.2 (130)	241.1 ± 3.7 (130)	247.1 ± 3.0 (215)	212.5 ± 3.5 (116)	< 0.005	< 0.005	< 0.005	< 0.005
18	380.2 ± 5.8 (172)	310.8 ± 4.3 (160)	280.5 ± 3.6 (162)	246.1 ± 3.7 (151)	< 0.005	< 0.005	< 0.005	< 0.005
24	754.9 ± 13.4 (80)	687.6 ± 9.7 (90)	517.2 ± 3.7 (520)	452.9 ± 4.0 (330)	< 0.005	< 0.005	< 0.005	< 0.005
30								
Condition factor (K)								
	● F ₄	● F ₁	● F ₄	● F ₁				
	2.42 ± 0.23 (129)	1.97 ± 0.35 (198)	2.18 ± 0.19 (1056)	2.13 ± 0.27 (1056)				
4	1.91 ± 0.08 (100)	1.89 ± 0.09 (100)	2.00 ± 0.18 (206)	2.05 ± 0.17 (100)				
11	2.33 ± 0.17 (140)	2.29 ± 0.26 (140)	2.18 ± 0.12 (124)	2.18 ± 0.31 (80)				
14	2.56 ± 0.23 (130)	2.58 ± 0.25 (130)	2.42 ± 0.22 (215)	2.38 ± 0.15 (116)				
18	2.54 ± 0.26 (172)	2.40 ± 0.17 (160)	2.17 ± 0.14 (162)	2.16 ± 0.11 (151)				
24			2.20 ± 0.16 (520)	2.20 ± 0.15 (330)				
30	2.75 ± 0.28 (80)	2.65 ± 0.24 (90)						

736 **Table 2.** Coefficient of Variation (CV, %) for fork length (L_F) and body weight
 737 (BW) of Australasian snapper (*Chrysophrys auratus*), from 4 to 30 months of age for
 738 land-based and ocean-based F_4 and F_1 cohorts.

		Land-based		Ocean-based	
Coefficient of Variation (CV, %) for L_F					
		● F_4	● F_1	● F_4	● F_1
Age (months)	4	8	21	7	9
	11	8	10	6	6
	14	8	7	6	6
	18	6	5	6	6
	24	6	5	5	6
	30	5	5	5	6
Coefficient of Variation (CV, %) for BW					
		● F_4	● F_1	● F_4	● F_1
Age (months)	4	25	74	24	31
	11	24	29	18	17
	14	24	25	20	20
	18	19	17	18	18
	24	20	17	16	19
	30	16	13	16	16

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742 **Figures**

743 **Figure 1.** Panel A depicts a map of New Zealand highlighting the production
744 locations, Nelson (land-based) and Marlborough (ocean-based), where Australasian
745 snapper (*Chrysophrys auratus*) were grown in this study. Additionally, this shows the
746 land-based and ocean-based systems next to each location. Panel B displays the
747 temperature profile coloured by production setting, with land-based system shown in
748 orange and ocean-based in yellow. The temperature is shown from incubation of
749 eggs until completion of the study. An asterisk marks 4 and 30 months of age, the
750 start and end points for this comparison.

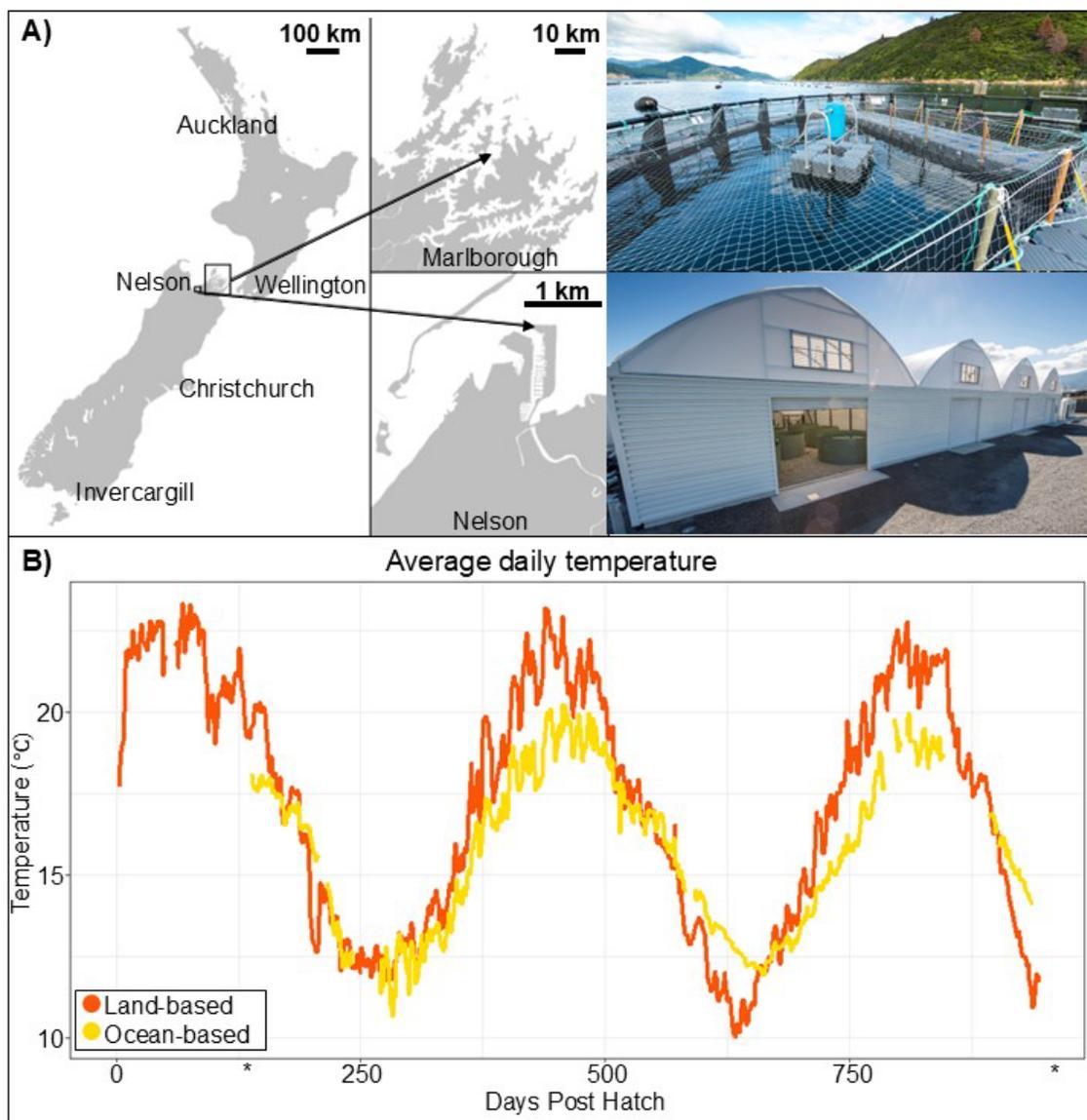
751 **Figure 2.** Mean fork length (panel A), mean body weight (panel B), mean
752 condition factor (K) (panel C) of F₄ and F₁ Australasian snapper (*Chrysophrys*
753 *auratus*), and degree days (panel D) for cohorts in land-based and ocean-based
754 systems. Graphs are from egg incubation to end of the study. Asterisks mark 4 and
755 30 months of age, the start and end points for the direct comparison. Additionally,
756 panel B highlights the harvest body weight (g) for the gilt-head sea bream (*Sparus*
757 *aurata*) (Mhalhel et al. 2023), the sister species to the Australasian snapper. Graphs
758 have each been coloured by cohort.

759 **Figure 3.** Illustration of biometric identification (bio-ID) of Australasian
760 snapper (*Chrysophrys auratus*). The figure shows a benchtop image of the left side
761 of the same individual at the start (4 months old) and end (30 months old) of the
762 study. The similarities in the triangle patterns between the two time points are
763 compared based on the methods described by Arzoumanian et al. (2005).

764 **Figure 4.** A correlation matrix between body traits for individual Australasian
765 snapper (*Chrysophrys auratus*), including whole weight, visceral fat weight, and
766 organ weights. Ellipse size, direction, and shade reflects R^2 value, and the numbers
767 in each ellipse represent the p -value of each correlation.

768 **Figure 5.** Total monthly mortality counts of land-based F_4 and F_1 Australasian
769 snapper (*Chrysophrys auratus*) cohorts, from 4 to 30 months of age, coloured by
770 cohort (F_4 in dark green and F_1 in light green) and the temperature profile over the
771 same timeframe, with grey-shading areas highlighting winter months in New
772 Zealand. Survival of ocean-based cohorts are shown in panel B, where all individual
773 snapper are arranged by body weight at 4 months of age for both F_4 and F_1 cohorts.
774 Surviving individuals at the end of the comparison (30 months) are highlighted, while
775 those who did not survive are in grey. Panel C shows a logistic regression model of
776 survival versus body weight, based on body weight at 4 months of age and their
777 survival outcome at the end of the comparison. Shading indicates the 95%
778 confidence interval for each model.

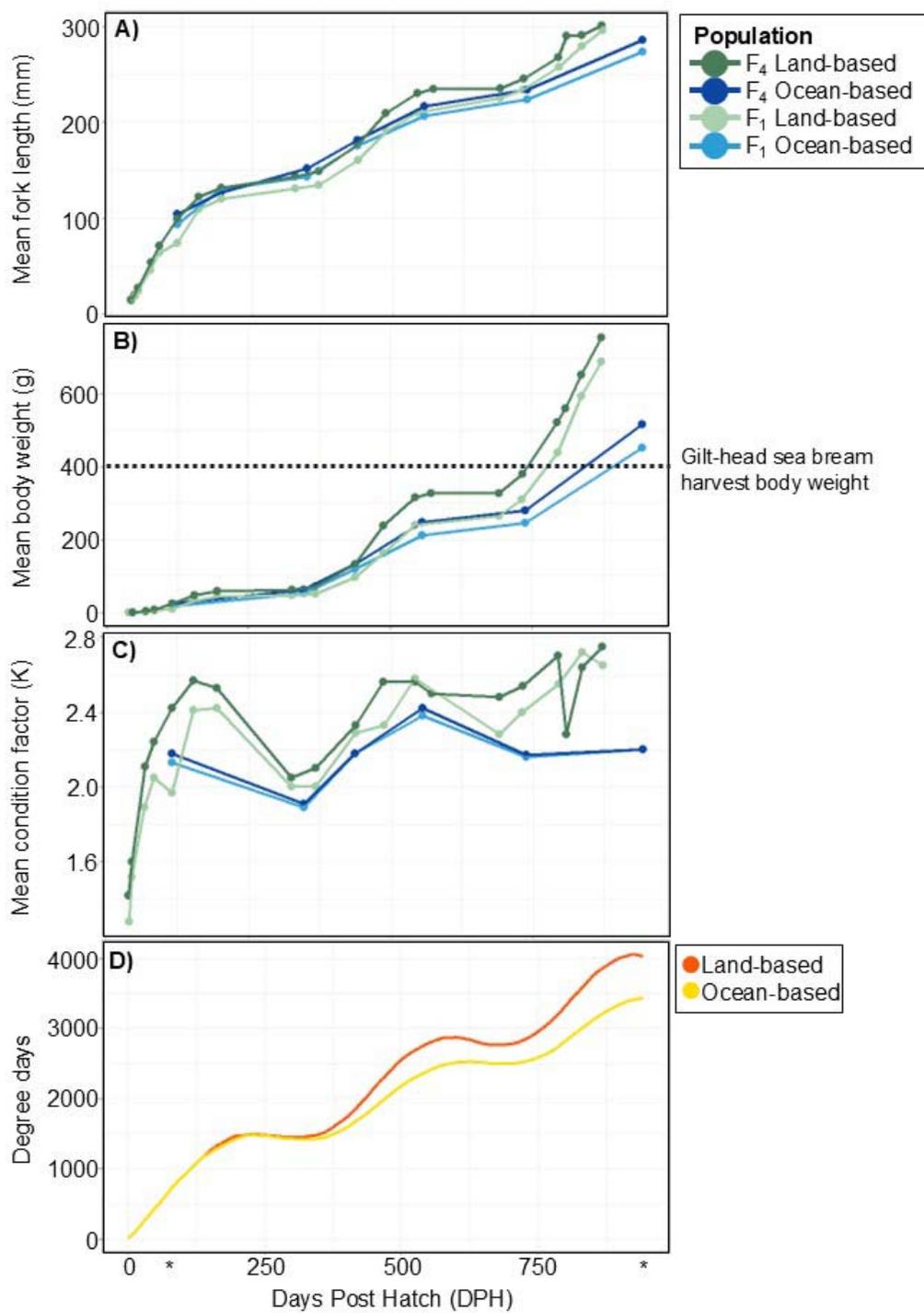
779 **Figure 6.** Panel A: Scatterplot showing the body weight of ocean-based
780 grown F_4 and F_1 Australasian snapper (*Chrysophrys auratus*) at two time points—4
781 months (start) and 30 months (end) of the comparison—fitted with a linear
782 regression line and associated 95% confidence interval to illustrate the relationship
783 between early and later body weight. Panel B: Rank progression plot of individual
784 snapper based on body weight at the start and end of the comparison. The lightest
785 10 and heaviest 10 individuals at each time point are highlighted in blue and red,
786 respectively.



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Figure 1 A–B

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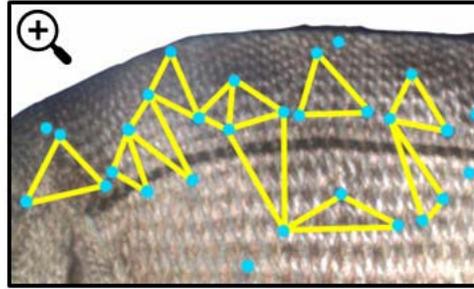
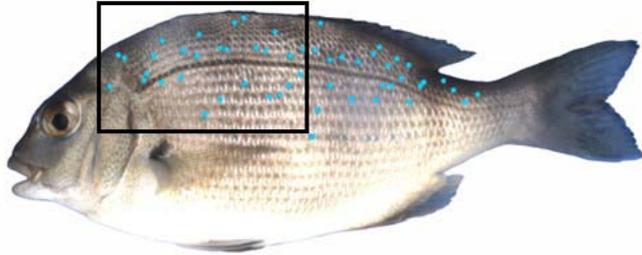


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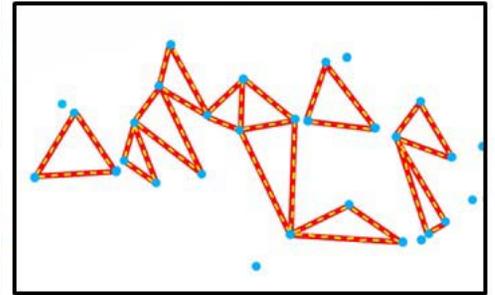
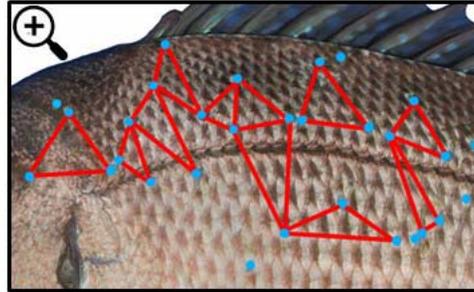
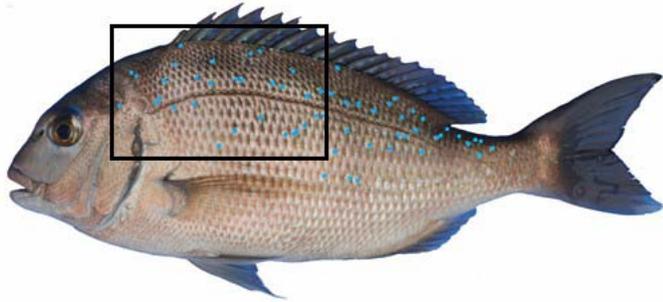
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Figure 2 A–D

4 months



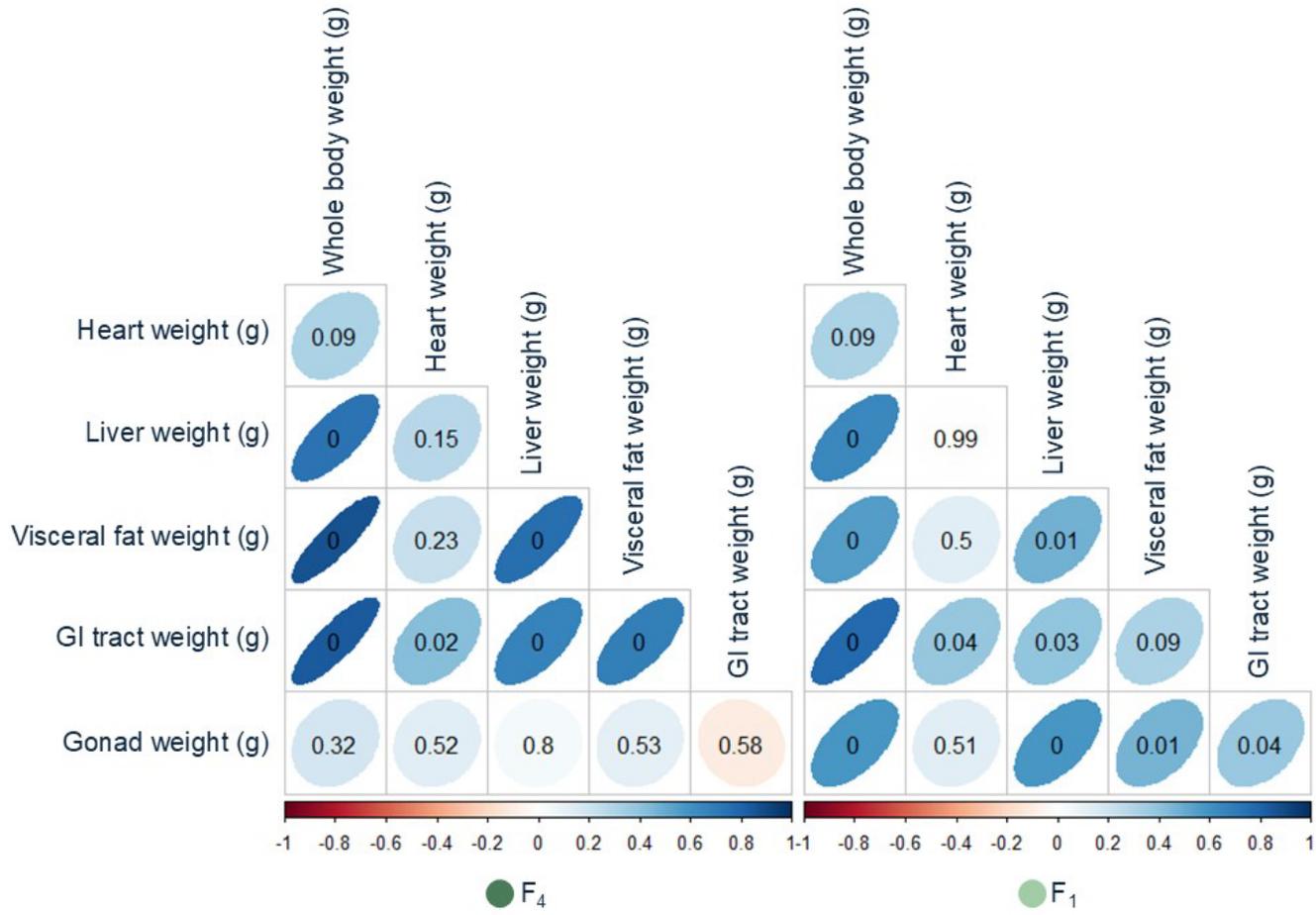
30 months



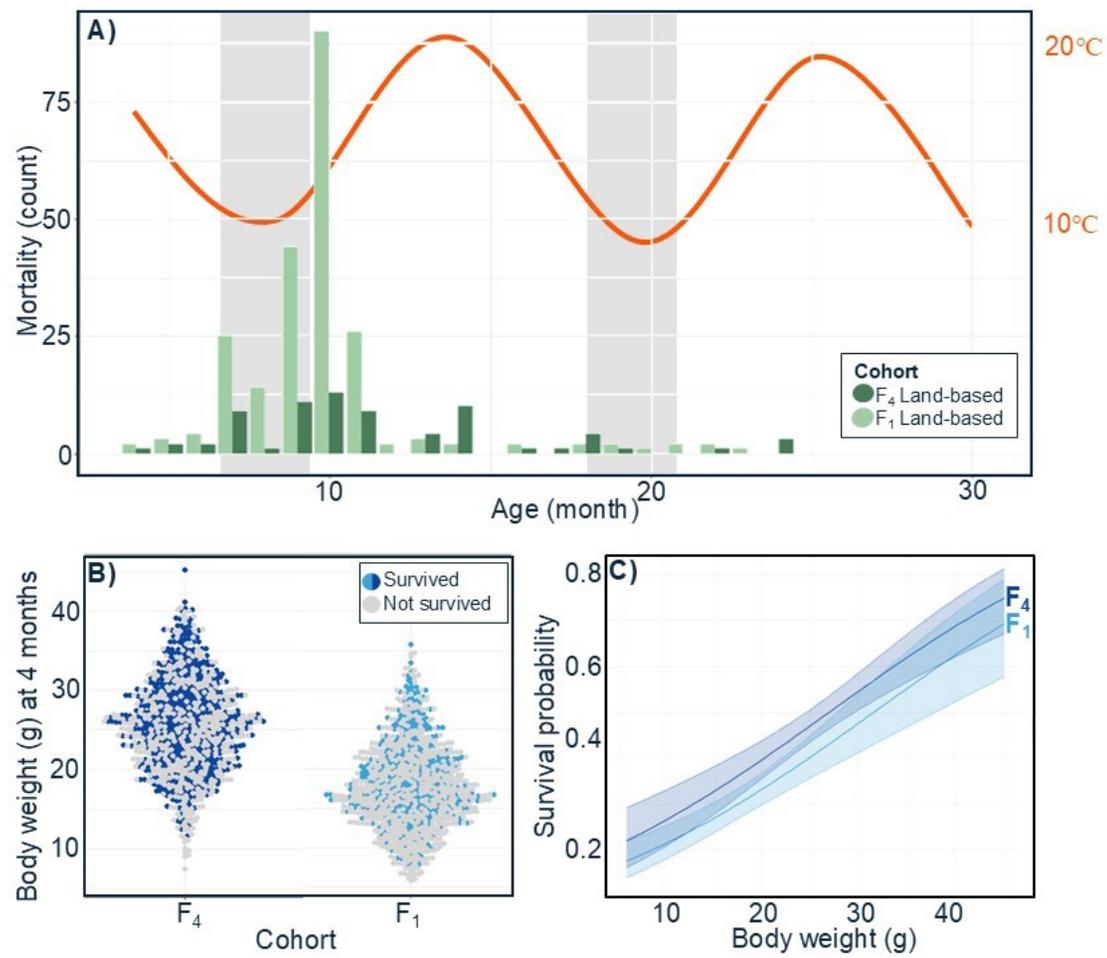
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Figure 3



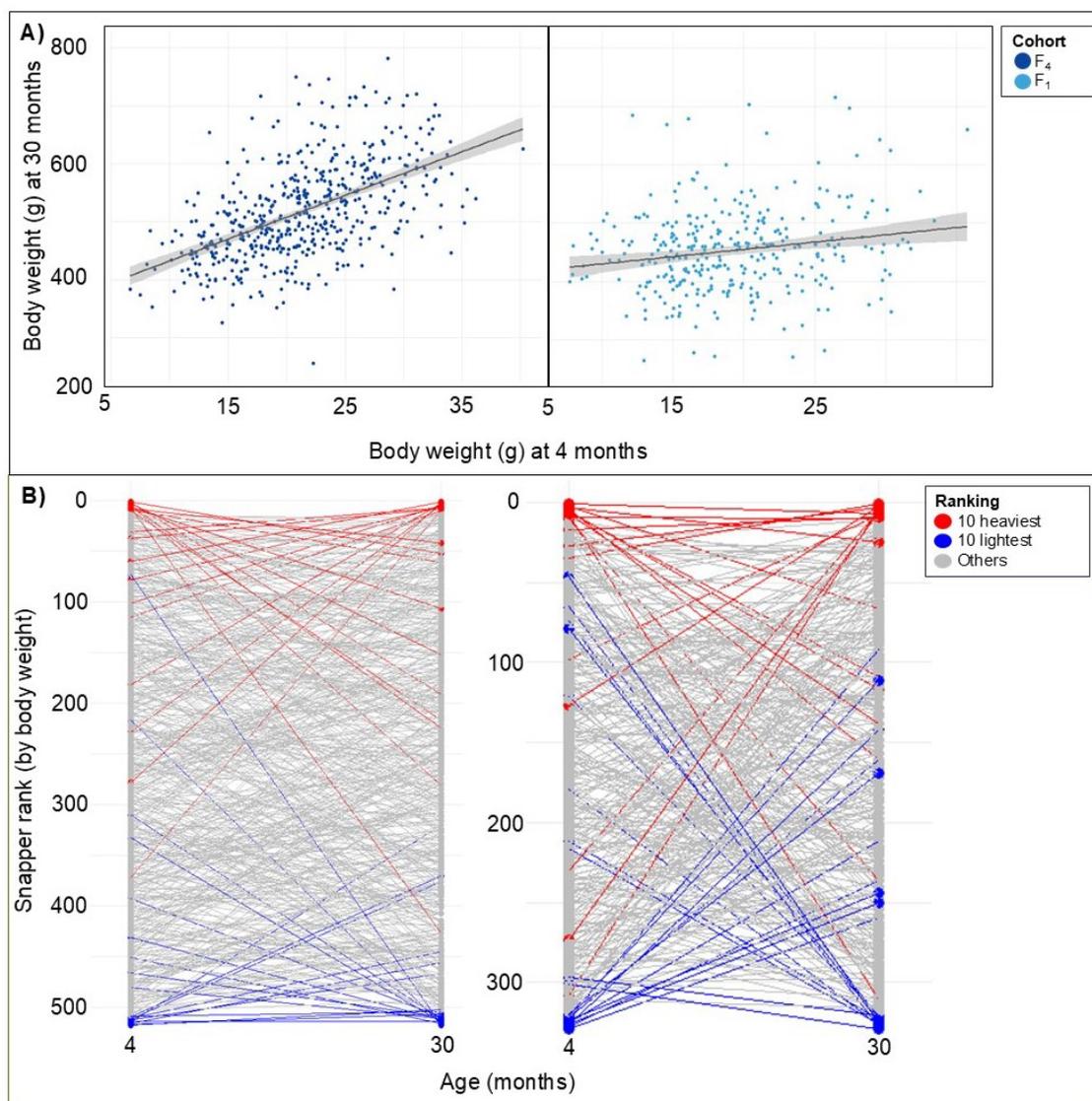
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795 **Figure 4**



796

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Figure 5



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Figure 6

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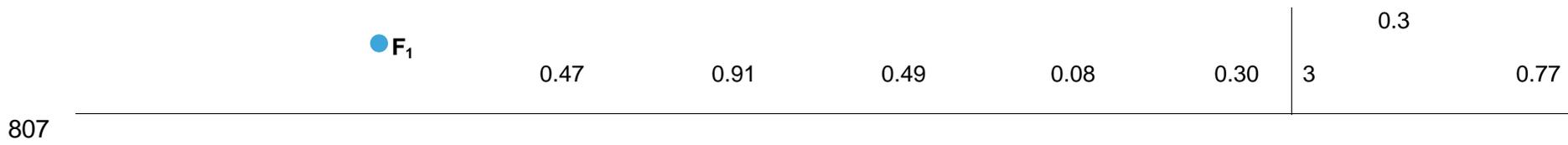
801 **Supplementary Materials**

802 **Tables**

803

804 **S. Table 1.** Specific Growth Rate (SGR, % day⁻¹) and Thermal Growth Coefficient (TGC% day⁻¹), based on body weight of
 805 Australasian snapper (*Chrysophrys auratus*) between sampling events from 4 to 30 months of age, for land-based and ocean-
 806 based F₄ and F₁ cohorts.

System	Cohort	SGR					TGC	
		4-11	11-14	14-18	18-24	24-30	4-11	11-14
Land-based	● F ₄	0.45	0.68	0.83	0.10	0.49	3	0.56
	● F ₁	0.75	0.65	0.87	0.14	0.57	6	0.48
Ocean-based	● F ₄	0.39	0.82	0.53	0.07	0.30	0	0.73



807

808 **Figures**

809 **S Figure 1.** Plots of Specific Growth Rate (% body weight day⁻¹) and Thermal Growth Coefficient versus body weight
810 (geometric mean for measurement interval) of Australasian snapper (*Chrysophrys auratus*) and water temperature (mean
811 temperature for measurement interval).

