Modulation of selenium tissue distribution and selenoproteins

expression in Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar L.) fed diets with

graded levels of plant ingredients

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- 15 **Running title**: Selenium in salmon fed sustainable feeds
- 16 **Keywords**: Selenium, Atlantic salmon, human selenium intake. selenoprotein, gene
- 17 expression

- 19 Abbreviations: BHT, butylated hydroxytoluene; CAT; catalase; COF2, cofilin-2; DHA,
- 20 docosahexaenoic acid; ELF1α, elongation factor 1 α; FAME, fatty acid methyl esters; FM,
- 21 fish meal; FO, fish oil; GPX, glutathione peroxidase; LC-PUFA, long-chain polyunsaturated
- fatty acid; NQC, Norwegian quality cut; NTC, no-template control; PIn, peroxidation index;
- 23 PP, plant protein; qPCR, quantitative PCR; SGR, specific growth rate; SEM, standard error
- of the mean; SECP43, tRNA selenocysteine 1 associated protein 1b; SEPK; selenoprotein K;
- 25 SEPP, selenoprotein P; SOD; superoxide dismutase; TBARS, thiobarbituric acid reactive
- substances; TCA, trichloroacetic acid; VO, vegetable oil.

Abstract

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Increased substitution of marine ingredients by terrestrial plant products in aquafeeds has proved to be suitable for Atlantic salmon farming. However, a reduction in omega-3 longchain polyunsaturated fatty acids is a consequence of this substitution. In contrast, relatively little attention has been paid to the effects of fish meal and oil substitution on levels of micronutrients such as selenium (Se), considering fish are major sources of this mineral for human consumers. To evaluate the effects of dietary marine ingredient substitution on tissue Se distribution and the expression of Se metabolism and antioxidant enzymes genes, Atlantic salmon were fed three feeds based on commercial formulations with increasing levels of plant proteins (PP) and vegetable oil. Lipid content did not vary at any sampling point in flesh, whereas was higher in fish fed higher PP in liver of 1 kg fish. Fatty acid content reflected dietary input and was related to oxidation levels. Liver had the highest Se levels, followed by head kidney whereas the lowest contents were found in brain and gill. The Se concentration of flesh decreased considerably with high levels of substitution, reducing the added value of fish consumption. Only brain showed significant differences in glutathione peroxidase, tRNA selenocysteine associated protein 1 and superoxide dismutase expression, whereas no significant regulation of Se related genes was found in liver. Although Se levels in the diets satisfied essential requirements of salmon, high PP levels led to a reduction in the supply of this essential micronutrient.

Introduction

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Fish are recognised as a healthy food as they are an excellent source of high quality protein and lipids in the human diet. Among lipids, dietary omega-3 (n-3) long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (LC-PUFA) have a range of beneficial effects in several pathological conditions, including cardiovascular and neurological diseases, and some cancers⁽¹⁻⁷⁾. The beneficial effects of fish have been generally attributed largely to the presence of n-3 LC-PUFA, however, fish provide significant levels of a number of other potentially protective components such as selenium (Se), a trace element essential for human health. Fish, especially marine species, are a major source of highly bioavailable dietary Se with average contents around 0.27 $\mu g/g^{(8)}$. As a constituent of selenoproteins, Se has structural and enzymatic roles; for instance it is an essential component of the antioxidant enzyme glutathione peroxidase (GPX) and participates in the production of thyroid hormones. It is also necessary for the proper functioning of the immune system and has been shown to give protection from some cancers⁽⁹⁾. Recommendations for adequate intakes of Se are provided by the European Food Safety Authority⁽¹⁰⁾ and indicate that an intake of Se of 70 μg/day is required for adults, which is increased by further 10 to 15 μg/day for pregnant and lactating women.

Feeds for carnivorous species such as salmonids have traditionally included high proportions of fish meal (FM) and fish oil (FO). However, the finite and limited supply of these marine ingredients as well as the continued increase in aquaculture production has resulted in a research for alternative raw materials for aquafeeds(11-14). In this context, considerable research has focused on sustainable alternatives such as terrestrial plant sources⁽¹⁵⁻¹⁶⁾, which have been demonstrated to be suitable for Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar L.) growth^(11,17-20). A considerable body of literature exists regarding the effect of FM/FO substitution on the n-3 LC-PUFA content of fish, although limited attention has so far been focused on the effect of this substitution on other beneficial nutrients such as Se. Se contents in plant proteins (PP) are highly variable depending on the soil composition where the crops are grown, which varies geographically⁽²¹⁾. For instance, in some areas of China, Finland and New Zealand, the levels of Se in the soil are very low (< 0.05 ppm) while higher concentrations (> 5 ppm) of this element are found in Canada, Ireland and some regions of the western USA⁽²²⁾. In addition, Se incorporation into plants depends on other factors such as soil pH, rainfall, land contour and microbial activity⁽²³⁾. Thus, the inclusion of dietary PP as substitutes for FM, which are naturally rich in Se, may lead to a reduction in the content of this nutrient in the flesh of the farmed fish that, in turn, will reduce its nutritional value to human consumers. In addition, Se is also an essential nutrient for fish as it is for human. Due to the high contents in fish of n-3 LC-PUFA, which are highly susceptible to oxidation due to their high degree of unsaturation, Se exerts a pivotal role as an antioxidant nutrient and deficiency results in altered oxidative status⁽²⁴⁻²⁶⁾.

Teleost fish possess the highest number of selenoproteins of any organisms, and a total of thirty eight have been identified in zebrafish (*Danio rerio*)⁽²⁷⁾. Among them, selenoprotein (SEP) K (SEPK) plays a role in the immune system⁽²⁸⁾ while SEPN affects calcium homeostasis⁽²⁹⁾ and SEPP has an antioxidant protection function⁽³⁰⁾. Moreover, tRNA selenocysteine - associated protein 1 (SECp43) plays a major role in selenoprotein synthesis by inserting selenocysteine into selenoproteins⁽³¹⁾. The most studied selenoprotein family is that of the antioxidant glutathione peroxidase (GPX) which has four members GPX1, GPX 2, GPX 3 and GPX4⁽³²⁾. GPX4 is a phospholipid hydroperoxidase with a unique catalytic activity protecting cell membranes as it acts on hydroperoxides derived from oxidation of phospholipids and cholesterol. This suggests that GPX4 may be an important antioxidant enzyme in marine fish that accumulate high tissue levels of LC-PUFA that are highly susceptible to oxidative damage⁽³³⁾. In addition, other antioxidant enzymes found in most fish species studied to date⁽³⁴⁾ include catalase (CAT) and superoxide dismutase (SOD), which inhibit the lipid peroxidation catalytic cycle by preventing oxidation reactions, intercepting and inactivating the reactive intermediates⁽³⁵⁾.

The overarching objective of the present study was to determine how sustainable aquafeeds, with increased levels of plant ingredients, affect Se contents and metabolism in order to better understand the potential effects of this substitution on fish as well as the human consumer. To achieve this, a long-term feeding trial was performed on Atlantic salmon from 100 g to 3000 g employing three increasing levels of PP and vegetable oil (VO) substitution. Levels of Se in liver, muscle, kidney, anterior intestine, gill and brain were determined. In addition, levels of thiobarbituric reactive substances (TBARS), indicators of lipid peroxidation, were determined in muscle and liver. Analyses of the expression of genes of several SEP and antioxidant enzymes in liver and brain provided new insights on the potential effects of altered Se contents on SEP functions and synthesis, as well as their role in the maintenance of oxidative homeostasis.

Materials and methods

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Experimental diets and fish

The trial was carried out in Atlantic salmon at Marine Harvest Scotland Feed Trial Unit facilities in Ardnish (Scotland, UK). Three different isolipidic (increasing from approximately 22 % at 100 g to 31% at 3000 g) and isoproteic (decreasing from approximately 42 % at 100 g to 36% at 3000 g) feeds were formulated by including equal amounts of FM/PP and FO/VOP. Feeds contained decreasing levels of FM and FO and containing low (LV), medium (MV) or high (HV) levels of substitution of marine ingredients with plant products were fed from smolt input (~100 g) to harvest (~3000 g) (Table 1). Soy protein concentrate, corn and wheat gluten, pea protein and sunflower expeller were employed as PP sources and rapeseed oil was used as the VO source. The experimental feeds were formulated and produced by BioMar Ltd. (Brande, Denmark), and were based on current commercial specifications (Table 1) to satisfy the nutritional requirements of salmonid fish, using standard commercially available feed materials and without Se supplementation. Diets were tested in triplicate over a period of 265 days. Replacement of FM and FO with PP and VO resulted in increased proportions of oleic acid (OA; 18:1n-9) and decreased percentages of EPA, DPA and DHA (Table 2). The PIn of the feeds was related to the dietary content of LC-PUFA and decreased with increasing substitution with plant products and was consistent in the different feed pellet sizes. The Se concentration was higher in diets LV than in diets MV and HV. Dietary selenium content also decreased with the progressive decline in FM levels in all feeds as pellet size increased throughout the seawater production cycle. Thus, Se concentrations were 1.2 µg/g and 0.7 µg/g in diets LV and HV, respectively, at the start of the trial whereas they decreased to 1.0 and 0.6 µg/g in diets LV and HV, respectively, in the final pellet size prior to harvesting (Table 2).

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A total of 2250 Atlantic salmon with mean initial weight of 108.0 ± 1.5 g (average \pm SD) were randomly distributed into 9 sea pens, 5.5×5.5 m wide and 5 m deep. The seawater temperature ranged from 7.7 to 14.7 °C during the experimental period. Fish were fed twice daily to apparent satiation, using a combination of automatic feeders and hand feeding, with monitoring. Feed waste was collected an hour after the end of each meal, and mortalities were checked 3 times per week. Fish were treated in accordance with British national ethical requirements and the experiment conducted under the UK Government Home Office Project

- 149 Licence number PPL 60/03969 in accordance with the amended Animals Scientific
- 150 Procedures Act 1986 implementing EU directive 2010/63.
- 151 *Growth and survival rate*
- All fish were anesthetised before handling using 60 mg/L metacaine sulphonate (MS-222)
- dissolved in sea water. Bulk weighing was conducted at the start of the trial when the fish
- were small whereas individual fish were weighed on an electronic top loading balance at the
- end of four feeding phases from 100 to 500 g, 500 to 1000 g, 1000 to 2000 g and 2000 to
- 156 3000 g to monitor growth performance. Final survival was determined by counting the total
- fish at the beginning and end of the trial.
- 158 Sample collection and management
- 159 At the end of each feeding phase, eight fish per pen were collected and euthanised by an
- overdose of MS-222. Flesh was sampled by collecting the Norwegian Quality Cut (NQC), the
- region between the dorsal and ventral fins, the steaks skinned and boned, and homogenised in
- a large blender (R23 Robotcoupe, Ultra, UK). The homogenate was immediately frozen and
- stored at -20 °C prior to further analysis. In addition, at the final sampling (3000 g) samples
- of flesh (NQC), brain, head kidney, gill, anterior intestine and liver were excised, pooled per
- pen and frozen for total selenium determination (n = 3 per treatment) of total Se content.
- Approximately 100 mg of liver and brain from two fish per pen (n = 6 per treatment) were
- placed in RNA Later (Sigma Aldrich, Dorset, UK) and frozen at -20 °C for total RNA
- 168 extraction.
- 169 Proximate composition of diets
- 170 The nutrient compositions of experimental diets were determined by proximate analysis
- 171 (Table 2). Moisture was determined by weighing three replicates of between 0.3 and 1.0 g
- into pre-weighed crucibles using a microbalance (AC100, UK) and placing them in an oven
- at 105 °C overnight. After cooling in a desiccator for 1 h, moisture was expressed as a
- percentage of wet weight. Crude protein was determined by Kjeldahl analysis (nitrogen ×
- 175 6.25; Tecator Kjeltec Auto 1030 analyzer, Foss, Warrington, UK). Crude fat content was
- determined after acid hydrolysis using a Soxhlet lipid extraction system (Tecator Soxtec 2050)
- Auto Extraction apparatus, Foss, Warrington, UK). Ash content was determined by heating in
- a porcelain crucible in a muffle furnace at 600 °C overnight. All proximate analysis methods
- were based on those of the Association of Official Analytical Chemists⁽³⁶⁾.

Lipid extraction

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Total lipid of flesh and liver samples was extracted using a modified Folch method⁽³⁷⁾. 181 Samples of homogenised NQC of approximately 1 g were weighed in duplicates (0.5-1 g) 182 into 50 ml quickfit tubes and homogenised in 20 volumes of ice-cold chloroform/methanol 183 (2:1, v/v) using an Ultra Turrax tissue disrupter (Fisher Scientific, Loughborough, UK). 184 Potassium chloride (KCl, 0.88 %) was added to the homogenised samples, mixed and 185 centrifuged at 1500 rpm for 7 min to separate different layers. The upper aqueous phase was 186 removed by aspiration, the bottom layer containing the lipid extract was filtered (Whatman 187 188 No.1) and transferred to pre weighed tubes. The lower solvent phase was evaporated on a nitrogen evaporator and desiccated overnight before reweighing. Chloroform/methanol (2:1, 189 190 v/v) containing 0.01 % (w/v) butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT) was used to re-suspend total lipid at a concentration of 10 mg/ml. Total lipids were stored under nitrogen at -20 °C until 191 192 subsequent analysis. The accepted variance in measured lipid content between samples was \pm 10 %. 193

Fatty acid composition

Fatty acid methyl esters (FAMEs) were prepared by acid - catalysed transesterification of total lipid as described by Christie⁽³⁸⁾. Approximately, 1 mg of dry total lipids were incubated at 50 °C for 16 h following addition of 1 ml toluene and 2 ml of 1 % (v/v) sulphuric acid in methanol. The methylation reaction was terminated using 2.5 ml of 2 % aqueous KHCO₃ (w/v) and FAME extraction was performed with 5 ml of iso-hexane/diethyl ether (1:1, v/v) containing 0.01 % (w/v) BHT and again with 5 ml of iso-hexane/diethyl ether (1:1, v/v) without BHT⁽³⁹⁾. Methyl esters were purified by thin-layer chromatography (TLC) by loading onto 20 × 20 cm plates (Merck, Germany) and that were fully developed with isohexane/diethyl ether/acetic acid (90:10:1, v/v) as solvent system. Plates were sprayed with 1 % (w/v) iodine in chloroform to visualise FAMEs, bands marked and scraped into test tubes and eluted from silica with 10ml of iso-hexane/diethyl ether (1:1, v/v) + 0.001 % (w/v) BHT and re- suspended in isohexane + 0.01 % BHT at a concentration of 1 mg/ml. FAME were separated and quantified by gas liquid chromatography using a Fisons GC-8160 (Thermo Scientific, Milan, Italy) fitted with on-column injector and flame ionisation detector (FID), and equipped with a 30 m x 0.32 mm i.d x 0.25 µm ZB- wax column (Phenomenex, Cheshire, UK). Hydrogen was used as the carrier gas at a flow rate of 2.5mL/min, with an initial oven thermal gradient from 50 °C to 150 °C at 40 °C min⁻¹ and then to a final

- 212 temperature of 225 °C at 2 °C min⁻¹. Peak area was processed by using Chrom- Card for
- Windows software (version 1.19; Thermoquest Italia S.p.A., Milan, Italy). Individual FAME
- was identified by comparison of the retention time and known standards (Supelco 37-FAME
- 215 mix, Sigma Aldrich Ltd., Poole, UK).
- 216 Selenium determination
- 217 Total selenium concentrations were measured in feeds, muscle, brain, head kidney, gill,
- anterior intestine and liver according to the method established in Betancor et al. (24). Dried
- samples were weighed in three replicates between 0.04 and 0.1 g and digested in a
- 220 microwave digester (MarsXpress, CEM, USA) with 5 % of 69 % pure nitric acid in three
- steps as follows; 21° C to 190° C for 10 min at 800 W then 190° C for 20 min at 800 W and
- finally a 30 min cooling period. The digested solution was poured into 10 ml volumetric
- 223 flasks and made up to volume with distilled water. A total of 0.4 ml of this solution was
- added to 10 ml tubes, 10 µl of the internal standard (Gallium and Scandium, 10 ppm, BDH,
- 225 UK) included and 0.2 ml of methanol added. The tube was made up to volume with distilled
- water and total selenium was measured in a reaction cell by Inductively Coupled Plasma
- Mass Spectrometry (Thermo Scientific, XSeries2 ICP-MS, USA) using argon and hydrogen
- as carrier gas.
- 229 Thiobarbituric acid reactive substances (TBARS)
- TBARS were determined in total lipid extracts (10 mg/ml) of liver and brain at each sampling
- point according to a modification of the protocol of Burk et al. (40). Briefly, 50 µl of 0.2 %
- (w/v) BHT in ethanol was added to 200 mg of lipid samples followed by 0.5 ml of 1 % (w/v)
- TBA and 0.5 ml 10 % (w/v) trichloroacetic acid, both solutions freshly prepared. The
- reagents were mixed in a stoppered test tube and heated at 100 °C for 20 min. After cooling,
- particulate matter was removed by centrifugation at 2000 g, and absorbance in the
- supernatant determined in a spectrophotometer at 532 nm against a blank sample. The
- concentration of TBARS, expressed as mmol malondialdehyde (MDA)/g lipid was calculated
- using the absorption coefficient $0.156 \, \mu M^{-1} \, cm^{-1}$.
- 239 RNA extraction and quantitative real time PCR (qPCR)
- Liver and muscle from six individual fish per dietary treatment were homogenised in 1 ml of
- TriReagent® (Sigma-Aldrich, Dorset, UK) RNA extraction buffer using a bead tissue
- 242 disruptor (Bio Spec, Bartlesville, Oklahoma, USA). These two tissues were chosen because

liver is the main metabolic tissue and muscle is the most abundant tissue in whole fish. Total RNA was isolated following manufacturer's instructions and quantity and quality determined by spectrophotometry using a Nanodrop ND-1000 (Labtech Int., East Sussex, UK) and electrophoresis using 200 ng of total RNA in a 1 % agarose gel. Expression of genes of interest (Table 3) was determined by quantitative PCR (qPCR) from fish fed all diets. Results were normalised using reference genes, elongation factor 1α (elf1 α) and cofilin 2 (cof2), which were chosen as the most stable according to GeNorm. cDNA was synthesised using 2 μg of total RNA and random primers in 20 μl reactions and the high capacity reverse transcription kit without RNase inhibiter according to the manufacturer's protocol (Applied Biosystems, Warrington, UK). The resulting cDNA was diluted 20-fold with milliQ water. The efficiency of the primers for each gene was previously evaluated by serial dilutions to ensure that it was close to 100 %. qPCR was performed using a Biometra TOptical Thermocycler (Analytik Jena, Goettingen, Germany) in 96-well plates in duplicate 20 µl reaction volumes containing 10 µl of Luminaris Color HiGreen qPCR Master Mix (Thermo Scientific, Hemel Hempstead, UK), 1 µl of the primer corresponding to the analysed gene (10 pmol), 3 µl of molecular biology grade water and 5 µl of cDNA, with the exception of the reference genes, which were determined using 2 µl of cDNA. In addition amplifications were carried out with a systematic negative control (NTC-non template control) containing no cDNA. Standard amplification parameters contained an UDG pre-treatment at 50 °C for 2 min, an initial denaturation step at 95 °C for 10 min, followed by 35 cycles: 15 s at 95 °C, 30 s at the annealing Tm and 30 s at 72 °C.

Calculations

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The peroxidation index (PIn) was used as an estimate of susceptibility of lipids to oxidation 265 and was calculated using the formula: PIn= $0.025 \times (percentage of monoenoics) + 1 \times 10^{-6}$ 266 (percentage of dienoics) $+2 \times$ (percentage of trienoics) $+4 \times$ (percentage of tetraenoics) +6267 \times (percentage of pentaenoics) + 8 \times (percentage of hexaenoics)⁽⁴¹⁾. Specific growth rate 268 $(SGR) = 100 \times (lnWf - lnWo) / t$, where Wo = initial weight (g) and Wf = final weight (g) at 269 time t (days). Thermal growth coefficient (TGC) = $(Wf^{1/3} - Wo^{1/3}) \times (1000/DD)$, where Wf 270 and Wo are as previously addressed for SGR, and DD is the thermal sum (feeding days × 271 272 average temperature). Feed conversion ratio (FCR) = (wet feed intake; kg)/(wet weight gain; 273 kg).

Statistical analysis

All the data were presented as mean \pm S.E. (standard error). Percentage data for survival rate, total lipid content and fatty acid composition were all arcsin transformed prior to statistical analysis. Data were tested for normality and homogeneity of the variances with Levene's test. Normal distribution data were analysed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed, when appropriate, by a Tukey comparison of means test. Two-way ANOVA was used to determine the interaction between dietary treatments and sampling point (weight). Significant differences were accepted at p \leq 0.05. All statistical analysis was performed using Minitab (version 16.1; Minitab Inc., State College, PA, USA). Gene expression results were analysed using the relative expression software tool (REST, Qiagen, http://rest.gene-quantification.info/) with efficiency correction⁽⁴²⁾ to determine the statistical significance of expression ratios (gene expression fold changes) between the three treatments.

Results

- Growth and survival rate
- All experimental feeds were well accepted by the fish. The average survival rate of fish fed the three dietary treatments throughout the experimental period was high (>98 %) and was not affected by dietary treatments (p > 0.05). In terms of growth performance, specific growth rate (SGR) and thermal growth coefficient (TGC) were not affected by dietary treatment over the 265 day feeding period (p > 0.05). However, feed conversion ratios (FCR) of fish fed the LV and MV diets were slightly lower than that of fish fed the HV diet (p \leq 0.05; Table 4), although differences were only observed at the final sampling point (2.0 to 3.0 kg; Supplementary Fig. 1).
- 296 Nutritional composition of muscle and liver
 - Increasing inclusion of plant ingredients in the diets had no significant effect on the lipid content of salmon muscle (flesh) within each sampling period (p > 0.05; Table 5). In addition, flesh lipid levels of fish fed all three dietary treatments tended to increase with increasing fish weight, although size did not influence total lipid deposition (Table 6). The total lipid content in flesh was lowest at the 1000 g sampling point at 8.0 9.0 % (of wet weight, w.w.), and was highest at 11.3 12.7 %, (w.w.) in harvest size (Table 5) albeit not significant (p > 0.05). Fatty acid compositions of the flesh were influenced by those of the diets, with OA increased whereas EPA and DHA were significantly reduced with increased inclusion of PP and VO in the feeds (p \leq 0.05; Table 5). Furthermore, the n-3/n-6 PUFA ratio

of flesh in each feeding phase tended to decrease with increasing inclusion of plant ingredients, although significant differences were only present for 2 and 3 kg fish ($p \le 0.05$; Table 5). The n-3/n-6 PUFA ratio was also related to weight gain, with a tendency to increase with increasing weight in fish fed the LV diet whereas it decreased with increasing weight in fish fed the MV and HV diets ($p \le 0.05$; Table 5). Thus, the ratio increased in fish fed diet LV as the dietary oil had high FO (high n-3 LC-PUFA), whereas the MV and HV diets had higher n-6 PUFA and so the n-3/n-6 ratio declined as dietary lipid was accumulated in the flesh.

In contrast to muscle, liver total lipid content did not increase with time, indeed a decrease in the fat content was observed, particularly in fish fed diets with high levels of substitution, although significant differences were only found in 2 kg fish (HV; $p \le 0.05$; Table 7). No differences in the fatty acid profile were found in 1 kg fish among the three different dietary treatments, although clear differences were found at the other two sizes. In this sense, and similar to flesh, inclusion of high levels of plant ingredients lead to increased levels of OA and n-6 PUFA whereas n-3 LC-PUFA decreased ($p \le 0.05$; Table 7). The factor "diet" had a marked effect on both tissues fatty acid profile, affecting all the studied fatty acids (Table 6). Additionally the factor "size" had a greater effect on liver than on flesh, affecting all of the evaluated fatty acids except total saturated fatty acids and n-3/n-6 ratio (Table 6). An interaction between size at sampling and dietary treatment on total lipids and fatty acid profile only occurred for n-3/n-6 ratio for flesh and total n-6 PUFA and EPA for liver (Table 6).

Tissue Se content

Increased inclusion of plant ingredients had significant effects on Se concentrations in all the studied tissues (Fig. 1A). Liver had the highest average Se content (3.09 μ g/g), followed by head kidney (0.99 μ g/g) and intestine (0.49 μ g/g), whereas brain and gill displayed the lowest contents (0.26 and 0.16 μ g/g respectively). There was a strong correlation between dietary Se content and the concentration of this trace element in the different tissues. This was particularly true for liver, head kidney and brain where differences were found in Se contents between fish fed the MV and HV diets, whereas in gills and intestine these differences were not as obvious (Fig. 1A). Both factors, size at sampling and diet influenced the flesh Se content, although an interaction between both factors was also evident albeit not as significant (p = 0.025). Se content of the flesh over the entire growth cycle reflected dietary

content of Se, with decreased Se content in fish fed diets with higher levels of terrestrial plant ingredients. In addition, interaction was found between dietary treatment and duration of feeding in tissue Se concentrations ($p \le 0.05$). The amount of Se in flesh decreased ($p \le 0.05$) with increasing fish weight, which is in agreement with reduced Se levels in the diets, with the average Se content in fish at the 1000 g sampling point being 0.45 μ g/g in fish fed the LV diet, whereas at harvest size the level was 0.29 μ g/g in flesh of fish fed the lowest substitution levels (LV; Fig. 1B).

TBARS content and peroxidation index in flesh and liver

Analysis of lipid peroxidation products in liver and muscle showed differences between the two tissues and among dietary treatments. Muscle exhibited higher TBARS content than liver for all diets and sampling points ($p \le 0.05$; Tables 5 and 7). For both tissues, TBARS increased from 1000 g to 2000 g fish, although TBARS values were reduced in 3000 g fish ($p \le 0.05$; Tables 5 and 7). In liver, no differences were observed between fish fed the LV and MV diets (p = 0.061) and 1000 g fish only displayed differences between fish fed the MV and HV diets ($p \le 0.05$; Table 7). Conversely, flesh of 1000 g fish fed LV feeds did not show differences in TBARS content with HV-fed fish ($p \le 0.01$; Table 5). Furthermore, fish fed the LV diet had the highest TBARS contents at 2000 and 3000 g. In contrast, TBARS contents were correlated with tissue PIn and DHA contents both in flesh and liver (Tables 5 and 7). The higher dietary plant ingredient levels led to decreased contents of LC-PUFA that translated to lower peroxidation risk and thus, lower levels of lipid peroxidation products (TBARS). No interactions between fish size and diets were observed in either tissues for PIn and TBARS, whereas diet did influence these values (Table 6). Fish size influenced PIn and TBARS contents in liver but not in flesh (Table 6).

Gene expression in liver and brain

Differing levels of plant ingredients did not elicit a differential response in the studied genes in liver (p > 0.05; Fig. 2) whereas significant differential expression of some of the genes was observed in brain (Fig. 3). Generally, brain showed higher expression of both selenoprotein and oxidative stress-related genes than liver. The general pattern of selenoprotein gene expression in both tissues was up-regulation with increased dietary plant ingredients. Thus, salmon fed diet LV showed the lowest expression of gpx4b (p = 0.04) in brain when compared to fish fed MV and HV diets, whereas gpx7, sepp and sepk showed variable expression with no clear dietary effects on the expression of these genes in either tissue (p >

370 0.05; Fig. 3). With oxidative stress-related genes, both *cat* and *sod* showed variable expression in brain and liver and the only statistically significant difference was lower *sod* gene expression in brain of fish fed diet LV (p = 0.043). In addition, *secp43* also showed the lowest expression in brain when fish were fed diet LV (p = 0.028; Figs. 2 and 3).

Discussion

The current increasing substitution of high levels of dietary marine ingredients by terrestrial plant products in aquafeeds due to sustainability and availability issues may lead to altered nutritional value of the final farmed fish products. A large body of data is available regarding the effect of substitution of FM and FO by plant products on the n-3 LC-PUFA content of fish flesh in several species⁽⁴³⁻⁴⁵⁾. Nevertheless, fish provide many other key nutrients components including vitamins D and B_{12} , iodine, taurine and Se, whose levels could be affected by the origin of the raw materials employed in the formulation of aquafeeds. In the present report we focussed on the effect of inclusion of plant ingredients on Se status in Atlantic salmon because fish is an ideal package to deliver this essential micronutrient to human consumers. In addition, a reduction in the intake in certain nutrients may lead to adverse health status of the fish itself.

In the present study, increasing levels of plant ingredients in feeds led to decreased concentrations of Se in all the studied tissues in salmon. Six tissues including liver, brain, gill, head kidney, intestine and muscle were chosen in the present study based on the different roles they play in the absorption and incorporation of Se, as well as biosynthesis of selenoproteins. Fairweather et al. indicated that liver is the primary organ involved in Se metabolism, where SEPP is synthesised prior uptake by kidney and brain via the apoER2 receptor and megalin. The results of the present study showed that the highest Se content was found in the liver $(3.09 \,\mu\text{g/g})$ of fish fed LV diet, slightly higher than levels reported in a previous study $(2.33 \,\mu\text{g/g})^{(47)}$. Furthermore, the Se content of liver was three and seven times higher in comparison to the kidney and muscle respectively, whereas the lowest Se concentrations were found in brain and gill. This is in agreement with Burger et al. indicated that levels of Se were similarly low in brain and gill of bluefish (*Pomatomus saltatrix*) but in the previous study the highest Se content was found in head kidney.

It was noteworthy that increased inclusion of PP and VO in the diets dramatically reduced the Se content in flesh of fish fed the HV diets at all three sampling points. Se concentration in flesh of fish fed the HV diet was 2-fold lower than fish fed the LV diet after the 9 month

feeding period. The present study showed that a portion of fish (130 g) of the commercial size (3 kg) fed the LV diet can supply 28.6 µg of Se, which covers 41 % of the recommended daily intake of Se. In contrast, 130 g portion of fish fed the HV diet can supply only 22 % of the recommended Se intake. Despite of the reduction in flesh Se content, salmon could still contribute highly to the overall Se intake for humans. For instance, in the UK one hen egg (60 g) provides only 6.6 µg of Se (9.4 % of the recommended intake) and 100 g of bread contains only 9 µg of this essential micronutrient (12.8% of the recommended intake)⁽⁴⁹⁾. This highlighted that substitution of marine ingredients by terrestrial plant products leads to a substantial decrease in Se in flesh reducing the ability of farmed fish to supply an adequate Se dose to human consumers. Therefore, it would be interesting to study the possible restoration of Se content by returning fish to a "finishing" diet containing higher levels of FM and FO for a period of time before harvest, as has been shown for n-3 LC-PUFA⁽⁵⁰⁻⁵²⁾. Alternatively, the supplementation of aquafeeds with organic sources of Se (Se enriched yeast), less likely to cause toxicity than inorganic sources could be used as a measure to maintain adequate Se levels in salmon flesh as shown for several other fish species (53-56). Additionally, the use of processed animal proteins such as poultry by-product meal with an average Se content of ~0.78 mg/kg⁽⁵⁷⁾ could supply Se of high digestibility for aquafeeds. In addition, it was perhaps surprising to observe a reduction in Se contents in muscle as fish size increased. However, previous studies have shown that in certain marine fish species such as yellowfin tuna (Thunnus albacares) or windowpane flounder (Scopthalmus aquosus) a significant negative correlation exists between muscle Se contents and fish size⁽⁵⁸⁾, similar to that found in the present study. Although a slight reduction was observed in dietary Se content along time, the feeds employed during the periods in which samplings were performed (from 500 to 3000 g) did not vary at all in LV feeds (1.0 µg/g), what indicates that the reduction in Se in the different tissues is mainly related to fish size/age.

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The use of high levels of terrestrial plant products did not cause any noticeable adverse effects on fish physiology. Fish grew adequately on diets with high substitution levels and only FCR was slightly increased in fish fed the HV diet. One of the first symptoms of Se deficiency in fish is reduced growth, which was not observed in the present study with increased dietary terrestrial plant ingredients. Similarly, a limited response was observed in the expression of several selenoproteins and oxidative stress-related genes. Differences were only found in the expression of *secp43* and antioxidant enzymes *gpx4b* and *sod* in brain, whereas more stable expression was observed in liver. This different pattern of expression

could indicate that fish develop tissue-specific adaptive responses to protect cells against oxidative stress as suggested previously⁽⁵⁹⁾. In this sense, brain is a tissue rich in n-3 LC-PUFA^(39,60-61) with naturally low Se contents, as shown in this study and thus, is more prone to suffering peroxidation. In agreement, a study in Manchurian trout ($Brachymystax\ lenok$) showed that brain together with gills were the most sensitive tissues to oxidative damage⁽⁶²⁾. Up-regulation of the expression of the antioxidant enzyme sod in fish fed the diets with lowest Se contents may indicate an enhancement of enzymatic antioxidant protection to compensate for the deficiency in this essential micronutrient. On the other hand, a recent study in rainbow trout ($Oncorhynchus\ mykiss$) found an up-regulation of gpx1a, another gpx isoform, in the liver and kidney of fish fed low dietary organic Se in comparison to fish fed higher levels of this mineral⁽⁶³⁾. An up-regulation of gpx4 was also observed in chicken fed low Se feeds⁽⁶⁴⁾. The reason for an up-regulation of gpx4 is not clear and has be found to be tissue and species-specific⁽⁶⁴⁾.

On the other hand, tRNA^{[ser]sec} (SECP43) is a key player in orchestrating the interactions and localizations of factors involved in selenoprotein biosynthesis by increasing selenocysteine incorporation and selenoprotein mRNA levels⁽³¹⁾. In the present study, higher expression of this gene was observed in brain of fish fed diets with high substitution levels and thus, lower Se contents, which could indicate an up-regulation in the biosynthesis of new selenoproteins. Although in mammals transcriptional changes in the brain in response to Se are rare⁽⁶⁵⁾, some studies in fish brain have found differential expression when Se was supplemented to the diet. For instance, Benner et al. (66) found increased expression of secp43 in brain with increased dietary Se supplementation in zebrafish. This contrasted with the results obtained in the present study, where the lowest Se levels induced increased expression in secp43. This difference could be related to the different dietary Se levels employed in these studies, being lower in the present study, which may indicate that both low and supranutritional levels trigger activation of the synthesis of selenoproteins. Besides, the level of n-3 LC-PUFA and PIn in feeds appears to have an effect on secp43 expression. A recent study in zebrafish fed diets of high and low oxidation risk, down-regulation was observed in hepatic secp43 expression when fish were fed a high DHA/high oxidation risk diet⁽²⁵⁾. This is in agreement with the present study, where down-regulation was observed in fish fed the feed with highest DHA level. Therefore, transcriptional or post-transcriptional regulation of selenoproteins by LC-PUFA is a possibility, as was shown *in vitro* for GPX1 and GPX4⁽⁶⁷⁻⁶⁸⁾. Furthermore, the lack of effect in the expression of the other studied selenoproteins may indicate that not all

respond in the same way when Se levels are altered, with a hierarchy existing as described previously in mammals⁽⁶⁹⁾. In the case of brain, SECP43 appears to have priority in this tissue over the other studied selenoproteins, resulting in them responding earlier to alterations in Se levels. The lack of effect on selenoprotein expression observed in liver could be attributed to variations among selenoproteins and tissues in response to Se which has been shown in mammals⁽⁷⁰⁾.

Although antioxidant properties of Se are widely recognised both in mammals and fish⁽⁹⁾, in the present study, decreased levels of dietary Se did not lead to increased levels of TBARS, an indicator of lipid oxidation, in liver or flesh. However, inclusion of terrestrial plant ingredients in aquafeeds also leads to decreased contents of LC-PUFA, not allowing us to check a direct effect of Se on TBARS. The reduction in these highly unsaturated fatty acids, highly susceptible to oxidation, can increase the stability of the tissues to peroxidation, as indicated by the PIn. These results are in agreement with previous studies in rainbow trout and Atlantic salmon, where replacement of FO with VO reduced formation of primary oxidation products such as lipid hydroperoxides⁽⁷¹⁾ or TBARS⁽⁷²⁾. Other studies have not found differences in oxidative stability in salmon muscle when FO was substituted by VO⁽⁴³⁾, or have found lower oxidation rates in VO-fed fish than in FO-fed ones⁽⁷⁰⁾, which indicates that the presence of other antioxidant nutrients such as α -tocopherol or carotenoids may be more critical for oxidative stability in flesh than the degree of unsaturation of the feeds or Se levels in the flesh.

Overt Se deficiency in humans has been associated with dilated cardiomyopathy, skeletal muscle myopathy, osteoarthropathy, cretinism, reduced immune function, some cancers and viral diseases⁽⁷⁴⁾. In the UK, the daily Se intake is estimated to be around 29-39 µg/day⁽⁷⁵⁾, which is lower than the recommended dietary intake. Therefore, individuals are encouraged to consume foods with high Se content such as salmon. The present study demonstrated that, although reduced levels of FM/FO in feeds did not result in any difference in fish performance or health, it did reduce the n-3 and n-6 LC-PUFA contents as well as Se levels in Atlantic salmon, potentially affecting the nutritional value of farmed products. Therefore, the present study highlights that even if fish Se requirements are satisfied in diets with high levels of plant ingredients, the Se content will be reduced to human consumers such that their Se intake can be almost halved when high levels of plant ingredients are used.

Acknowledgements

- The authors' contributions are as follows: M.B.B. participated in the sampling, performed
- some of the analysis and participated in the writing of the manuscript; D.T.M.C. performed
- part of the analysis and participated in the writing of the manuscript; J.W. and T.M. designed
- 503 the study and participated in the writing; P.J.C. and D.R.T. were involved in data
- interpretation and edited the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.
- None of the authors has any conflicts of interest to declare.

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Figure legends

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- 698 Fig. 1. Selenium content (µg/g) in liver, head kidney, brain, gill and anterior intestine of
- Atlantic salmon fed diets with differing contents of PP/VO after 9 months of feeding (3000 g)
- 700 (A); in flesh of fish fed the three dietary treatments at each sampling point (B). Data are
- 701 presented as mean \pm SEM. Different letter denote statistically significant differences between
- the three dietary groups at the final time point of finishing feeding period identified by one-
- 703 way ANOVA. The inset Table presents p values for the effect of weight, diet and their
- interaction of the selenium content of the flesh; *p<0.05; **p<0.01.
- Fig. 2. Selenoprotein and other antioxidant stress genes expression measured by qPCR in
- Atlantic salmon liver after 9 months feeding (3000 g). Diet LV to HV represents feeds with
- 707 increasing levels of PP/VO as described in Materials and Methods section. Data are
- 708 normalized expression ratios (mean ± SEM, n=6) of the expression of these genes fed
- 709 different diets in relation to fish fed diet LV. Different letter denote statistically significant
- 710 differences between the three dietary group identified by one- way ANOVA. sepk,
- selenoprotein K; sepp, selenoprotein P; secp43, tRNA selenocysteine associated protein 1;
- 712 gpx4b, glutathione peroxidase 4b; gpx7, glutathione peroxidase 7; cat, catalase; sod,
- 713 superoxide dismutase.
- Fig. 3. Selenoprotein and other antioxidant stress genes expression measured by qPCR in
- Atlantic salmon brain after 9 months feeding (3000 g). Diet LV to HV represents feeds with
- 716 increasing levels of PP/VO as described in Materials and Methods section. Data are
- normalized expression ratios (mean ± SEM, n=6) of the expression of these genes fed
- 718 different diets in relation to fish fed diet LV. Different letter denote statistically significant
- 719 differences between the three dietary group identified by one- way ANOVA. sepk,
- selenoprotein K; sepp, selenoprotein P; secp43, tRNA selenocysteine associated protein 1;
- 721 gpx4b, glutathione peroxidase 4b; gpx7, glutathione peroxidase 7; cat, catalase; sod,
- 722 superoxide dismutase.

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Supplementary Fig. 1. Feed conversion ratio calculations of Atlantic salmon fed the three dietary treatments with differing substitution levels at each sampling point. Diet LV to HV represents feeds with increasing levels of PP/VO as described in Materials and Methods section.

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Table 1.- Formulation of experimental diets (all values are g/kg)

	100 to 500 g			5	500 to 1000 g			1000 to 2000 g			2000 to 3000 g		
(3 - 4.5 mm)			n)	(6 mm)			(9 mm)			(10 mm)			
Ingredients	LV	MV	HV	LV	MV	HV	LV	MV	HV	LV	MV	HV	
North Atlantic LT FM	175.0	100.0	50.0	150.0	100.0	50.0	125.0	75.0	50.0	125.0	75.0	50.0	
South American Super Prime FM	175.0	100.0	50.0	150.0	100.0	50.0	125.0	75.0	50.0	125.0	75.0	50.0	
Plant protein concentrates*	220.0	400.0	440.0	263.0	427.0	440.0	317.0	419.0	430.0	231.0	401.0	451.0	
Wheat Gluten	9.0	33.0	82.0	0.0	0.0	73.8	0.0	25.7	54.0	0.0	0.0	16.9	
Sunflower expeller	92.0	13.0	4.0	92.9	11.4	8.5	45.8	0.0	0.0	100.0	21.3	0.0	
Purified wheat	120.0	120.0	120.0	120.0	120.0	120.0	120.0	120.0	120.0	120.0	120.0	120.0	
Fish oil	131.0	98.0	60.0	164.0	121.0	72.2	192.0	140.0	84.0	210.0	151.0	90.0	
Rapeseed oil	56.0	98.0	140.0	70.1	121	169	82.2	140.0	197.0	90.0	151.0	209.0	
Yttrium	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	
Crystalline amino acids	4.4	11.3	19.0	2.4	5.7	12.9	2.5	6.8	9.8	1.2	4.2	6.5	
Monocalcium phosphate	17.5	23.4	29.4	6.7	12.1	18.1	6.2	11.8	14.8	3.7	9.1	11.2	
Lucanthin Pink 10% (BASF)	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	
Vitamins and minerals**	5.2	6.4	7.7	5.3	6.3	8.3	5.6	7.0	8.5	11.2	12.2	13.8	

*Plant protein concentrates comprised of soya protein concentrate, maize gluten and pea protein in similar ratio across diets independent of fishmeal level.

**Proprietary blend of vitamins and minerals sufficient to meet nutrient requirement⁽⁵⁷⁾.

Diets LV to HV represent feeds with increasing levels of PP/VO in three feeding periods as described in Materials and Methods section

Table 2.- Proximate and fatty acid composition (percentage of total fatty acids) of the experimental feeds employed in the present study

	100-200 g/3 mm		200-5	200-500 g/4.5 mm		500-1	500-1000 g/6 mm			1000-2000 g/9 mm			2000-3000 g/10 mm		
	LV	MV	HV	LV	MV	HV	LV	MV	HV	LV	MV	HV	LV	MV	HV
Proximate															
Dry matter	902	924	922	919	922	911	948	940	935	923	926	930	940	936	933
Protein	425	426	419	431	442	417	404	403	405	374	382	373	353	375	365
Fat	223	219	233	214	227	214	271	275	253	310	327	313	341	317	313
Ash	77	67	61	80	67	60	68	57	52	59	52	47	58	51	48
Energy	22	23	22	22	22	22	24	23	23	23	24	24	24	24	23
Fatty acid															
(%)															
$\Sigma SAFA^1$	21.0	18.0	15.0	22.0	18.0	15.0	21.0	18.0	14.0	24.0	22.0	21.0	25.0	21.0	20.0
OA	25.0	34.0	42.0	25.0	34.0	42.0	25.0	34.0	42.0	20.0	23.0	25.0	23.0	26.0	32.0
ARA	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.7	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.1
Σ n-6 PUFA ²	13.0	16.0	19.0	13.0	16.0	19.0	12.4	14.0	18.0	16.0	24.0	32.0	12.0	21.0	26.0
EPA	5.6	3.7	2.1	5.4	3.8	2.0	5.8	4.2	2.8	7.4	5.1	3.0	6.1	4.9	2.7
DPA	0.9	0.6	0.3	0.9	0.6	0.3	0.7	0.5	0.4	1.1	0.7	0.4	0.9	0.7	0.4
DHA	6.9	4.7	2.6	6.9	4.9	2.5	6.5	4.6	3.2	5.8	4.2	2.6	5.3	4.2	2.5
Σ n-3 PUFA ³	19.0	16.0	12.0	19.0	16.0	12.0	19.4	16.0	14.0	20.0	16.0	11.0	17.0	16.0	12.0
n-3/n-6	1.5	1.0	0.6	1.5	1.0	0.6	1.6	1.1	0.8	1.2	0.7	0.3	1.4	0.8	0.5
PIn	126.3	98.0	72.4	124.5	101.2	59.0	115.6	98.1	77.4	124.3	118.1	83.5	119.1	102.8	73.5
Se	1.2	0.9	0.7	1.2	1.0	0.7	1.0	0.9	0.7	1.0	0.8	0.7	1.0	0.8	0.6

Dry matter (DM), g/kg DM; Protein, g/kg DM; Fat, g/kg DM; Ash g/kg DM; Energy, MJ/kg; Se, μg/g. Diets LV to HV represent feeds with increasing levels of PP/VO in three feeding periods as described in Materials and Methods section. ¹contains 14:0, 15:0, 16:0, 18:0, 20:0, 22:0 and 24:0; ²contains 18:2n-6, 18:3n-6, 20:2n-6, and 20:3n-6; ³contains 18:3n-3, 18:4n-3, 20:3n-3 and 20:4n-3. SAFA, saturated fatty acids; OA, oleic acid; ARA, arachidonic acid; PUFA, polyunsaturated fatty acids; EPA, eicosapentaenoic acid; DPA, docosapentaenoic acid; DHA; docosahexaenoic acid; PIn, peroxidation index.

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AF321836^a

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gpx4b, glutathione peroxidase 4b; gpx7, glutathione peroxidase 7; sepp, selenoprotein P; sepk; selenoprotein K; secp43; tRNA selenocysteine associated protein1; cat, catalase; sod, superoxide dismutase; cof2, cofilin 2; $elf1\alpha$, elongation factor 1α .

759 ^aGenBank (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/)

cof2

 $elfl\alpha$

^bAtlantic salmon Gene Index (http://compbio.dfci.harvard.edu/tgi/) 760

R: TGTTCACAGCTCGTTTACCG F:CTGCCCCTCCAGGACGTTTACAA

R: CACCGGGCATAGCCGATTCC

	LV		M	V	HV	7
	Mean	SEM	Mean	SEM	Mean	SEM
Start weight (g)	107.70	0.46	109.10	1.74	106.90	0.35
End weight (g)	2737.60	30.71	2692.00	39.62	2573.00	44.51
SGR (%/day)	1.28	0.01	1.27	0.01	1.26	0.01
TGC (g (days/°C))	3.12	0.02	3.09	0.03	3.03	0.03
FCR	$1.01^{\ b}$	0.01	1.01 ^b	0.01	1.09 ^a	0.02
Survival rate (%)	98.0	0.40	98.8	0.61	98.8	0.22

Diets LV to HV represent feeds with increasing levels of PP/VO as described in Materials and Methods section. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM (n=3). Different superscript letters denote statistical differences as determined by one-way ANOVA followed by Turkey's test (p<0.05). SGR, Specific growth rate; TGC, Thermal Growth Coefficient; FCR, Feed conversion ratio.

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113								
		L		M		HV		
776		Mean	SEM	Mean	SEM	Mean	SEM	
	NQC 1000 g							
777	Lipids	9.0	0.7	8.0	0.4	8.4	0.7	
///	$\Sigma \hat{SAFA}^1$	21.0^{a}	0.3	20.0^{a}	0.3	17.2 ^b	0.1	
	OA	28.2^{c}	0.9	33 ^b	0.2	38.2a	0.6	
778	ARA	0.3^{a}	0.0	0.3^{a}	0.0	0.2^{b}	0.0	
	Σn-6 PUFA ²	14.6	0.9	15.2	0.4	17.4	0.6	
779	EPA	3.5	0.5	2.9	0.0	2.3	0.1	
	DPA	2.2	0.6	1.0	0.2	0.9	0.0	
700	DHA	6.2^{a}	0.1	5.3a	0.1	3.9 ^b	0.2	
780	Σ n-3 PUFA ³	16.6a	1.0	15.3 ^b	0.2	13.6 ^b	0.5	
	n-3/n-6	1.1	0.1	1.0	0.0	0.8	0.0	
781	PIn	119.0a	4.2	110.8 ^b	2.1	87.3°	2.1	
	TBARS	2305.2	172.1a	1097.5	165.7 ^b	1393.5	291.1ab	
782								
702	NQC 2000 g							
	Lipids	10.2	0.1	10.7	0.1	11.3	0.3	
783	$\Sigma SAFA^1$	22.7a	0.4	20.3 ^b	0.5	17.2°	0.5	
	OA	26.6°	1.0	30.4 ^b	0.2	37.0 ^a	1.5	
784	ARA	0.4^{a}	0.0	0.2 ^b	0.0	0.2^{b}	0.0	
	Σn-6 PUFA ²	14.3	0.9	18.8	0.2	21.5	2.3	
785	EPA	3.4a	0.5	2.9 ^b	0.1	2.0^{c}	0.1	
763	DPA	1.3	0.2	1.3	0.1	0.8	0.0	
	DHA	6.3a	0.4	4.6^{b}	0.2	3.5°	0.3	
786	Σ n-3 PUFA ³	16.3	0.8	14.4	0.6	12.1	0.6	
	n-3/n-6	1.1 ^a	0.0	0.8^{b}	0.0	0.6^{b}	0.1	
787	PIn	112.4a	6.5	99.6 ^{ab}	4.0	83.5 ^b	0.9	
	TBARS	2103.8	119.3a	1715.8ab	84.0	1332.3 ^b	125.7	
788								
700	NQC 3000 g							
	Lipids	12.7	0.6	11.3	0.5	12.2	0.3	
789	$\Sigma SAFA^1$	21.2a	0.4	18.9 ^b	0.2	17.6 ^b	0.3	
	OA	25.0°	0.3	29.0^{b}	0.1	33.1a	0.0	
790	ARA	0.5^{a}	0.0	0.4^{b}	0.0	0.3^{c}	0.0	
, , ,	Σ n-6 PUFA ²	14.4°	0.1	19.9 ^b	0.0	25.0a	0.3	
704	EPA	4.8a	0.2	3.5 ^b	0.1	2.2°	0.0	
791	DPA	2.0^{a}	0.1	1.5 ^b	0.0	0.9^{c}	0.0	
	DHA	7.2a	0.4	5.8 ^b	0.2	3.8^{c}	0.0	
792	Σ n-3 PUFA ³	19.7a	0.8	16.7 ^b	0.4	12.9°	0.1	
	n-3/n-6	1.4 ^a	0.0	0.8^{b}	0.0	0.5°	0.0	
793	PIn	130.8a	5.5	113.8 ^b	3.3	90.8°	0.8	
, 55	TBARS	2233.9a	121.1	1802.9b	122.9	1199.4°	72.2	

Lipids, %; Fatty acids, % of total fatty acids; TBARS, nmol MDA/ g lipid. Data expressed as means ± SEM (n=3 for fatty acids; n=6 for TBARS). Different superscript letters within a row denote significant differences among diets for a given sampling point. Statistical differences were determined by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's comparison test (p<0.05). Diets LV to HV represent feeds with increasing levels of PP/VO in three feeding periods as described in Materials and Methods section. ¹contains 14:0, 15:0, 16:0, 18:0, 20:0, 22:0 and 24:0; ²contains 18:2n-6, 18:3n-6, 20:2n-6, and 20:3n-6; ³contains 18:3n-3, 18:4n-3, 20:3n-3 and 20:4n-3. SAFA, saturated fatty acids; OA, oleic acid; ARA, arachidonic acid; PUFA, polyunsaturated fatty acids; EPA, eicosapentaenoic acid; DPA, docosapentaenoic acid; DHA; docosahexaenoic acid; PIn, peroxidation index; TBARS, thiobarbituric reactive substances.

Table 6.- Effects of the dietary treatment, fish weight and their interaction on flesh and liver selected fatty acids, PIn and TBARS of Atlantic salmon fed increasing substitution levels of vegetable oil and meal.

		Two-way ANOVA p values							
9]	Flesh	•		Liver			
		Weight	Diet	W*D	Weight	Diet	W*D		
0	Lipids	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	*	n.s.		
	$\Sigma SAFA$	*	***	n.s.	n.s.	***	n.s.		
1	OA	n.s.	***	n.s.	***	***	n.s.		
	ARA	***	***	n.s.	***	***	n.s.		
	Σn-6 PUFA	***	***	n.s.	***	***	**		
	EPA	*	***	n.s.	***	***	**		
	DPA	n.s.	***	n.s.	***	**	n.s.		
	DHA	*	***	n.s.	**	***	n.s.		
	Σn-3 PUFA	*	***	n.s.	**	***	n.s.		
	n-3/n-6	**	***	*	n.s.	***	n.s.		
	PIn	n.s.	**	n.s.	**	***	n.s.		
	TBARS	n.s.	***	n.s.	***	**	n.s.		

*p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; n.s., indicates no significant differences. W, weight; D, diet; SAFA, saturated fatty acids; OA, oleic acid; ARA, arachidonic acid; PUFA, polyunsaturated fatty acids; EPA, eicosapentaenoic acid; DPA, docosapentaenoic acid; DHA; docosahexaenoic acid; PIn, peroxidation index; TBARS, thiobarbituric reactive substances

Table 7.- Selected fatty acid compositions, peroxidation index and TBARS content of the liver of Atlantic salmon at 1000 g, 2000 g and 3000 g fed the three experimental feeds with reducing levels of fish meal and oil and increasing levels of vegetable oil and meal.

825		LV	J	M	7	Н	V
		Mean	SEM	Mean	SEM	Mean	SEM
826	Liver 1000 g						
	Lipids	5.8	1.3	5.5	0.3	5.6	0.3
827	$\Sigma SAFA^1$	19.5	2.2	20.7	0.4	17.9	0.6
027	OA	28.9	3.8	31.5	1.3	35.1	1.1
	ARA	1.5	0.3	1.3	0.1	1.1	0.1
828	Σ n-6 PUFA ²	15.1	3.8	12.4	0.3	15.4	0.3
	EPA	5.2	1.0	4.7	0.3	4.0	0.2
829	DPA	1.6	0.4	1.4	0.1	1.1	0.1
	DHA	12.2	2.9	11.5	0.5	9.9	0.3
830	Σ n-3 PUFA ³	22.4	3.9	21.1	1.0	18.9	0.4
630	n-3/n-6	1.8	0.6	1.7	0.1	1.2	0.0
	PIn	169.4	49.0	156.3	12.8	140.4	6.3
831	TBARS	846.4 ^{ab}	33.3	1008.7a	61.4	831.1 ^b	38.5
832	Liver 2000 g						
	Lipids	3.9^{b}	0.3	4.0^{b}	0.1	5.6a	0.6
833	$\Sigma SAFA^1$	22.9a	0.8	22.0^{a}	0.7	17.4 ^b	0.8
033	OA	19.3 ^b	1.4	20.6^{b}	0.4	27.2^{a}	1.4
	ARA	2.4ª	0.1	2.3^{a}	0.2	1.4 ^b	0.2
834	Σ n-6 PUFA ²	13.4°	0.2	18.4 ^b	0.2	27.1a	1.0
	EPA	8.7a	0.4	7.3 ^a	0.3	4.1 ^b	0.4
835	DPA	2.6^{a}	0.1	2.0^{b}	0.1	1.1 ^b	0.1
	DHA	16.7a	1.2	16.5 ^a	0.6	10.2 ^b	1.4
026	Σ n-3 PUFA ³	30.8^{a}	1.6	28.7^{a}	0.8	18.9 ^b	1.9
836	n-3/n-6	1.7 ^a	1.2	1.6 ^b	0.1	0.7^{c}	0.0
	PIn	323.8	22.1	223.6	12.0	155.2	27.3
837	TBARS	1113.2 ^a	65.0	1101.0 ^a	54.5	773.8 ^b	73.8
838	Liver 3000 g						
	Lipids	4.4	0.3	4.1	0.1	6.2	1.3
839	$\Sigma SAFA^1$	22.7^{a}	0.9	20.8^{ab}	0.5	17.6 ^b	1.2
039	OA	22.0^{b}	1.6	20.9^{b}	0.9	31.3a	2.4
	ARA	2.5 ^a	0.1	2.3a	0.1	1.3 ^b	0.2
840	Σ n-6 PUFA ²	11.4°	0.5	16.2 ^b	0.2	21.9 ^a	0.5
	EPA	6.4^{a}	2.6	8.1a	0.4	4.3 ^b	0.6
841	DPA	2.6^{a}	0.0	2.1 ^b	0.1	1.1 ^b	0.1
0	DHA	17.8^{a}	0.6	17.3a	0.8	9.4 ^b	1.5
0.42	Σ n-3 PUFA ³	29.6a	2.9	30.7 ^a	1.2	18.4 ^b	2.2
842	n-3/n-6	2.6^{a}	0.4	1.9 ^a	0.1	0.8^{b}	0.1
	PIn	223.3	31.4	234.6	16.3	144.6	29.2
843	TBARS	600.9ª	36.7	602.5a	31.9	418.3 ^b	24.8

Lipids, %; Fatty acids, % of total fatty acids; TBARS, mmol MDA g/lipid. Data expressed as means ± SEM (n=3 for fatty acids; n=6 for TBARS). Different superscript letters within a row denote significant differences among diets for a given sampling point. Statistical differences were determined by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's comparison test (p<0.05). Diets LV to HV represent feeds with increasing levels of PP/VO in three feeding periods as described in Materials and Methods section. ¹contains 14:0, 15:0, 16:0, 18:0, 20:0, 22:0 and 24:0; ²contains 18:2n-6, 18:3n-6, 20:2n-6, and 20:3n-6; ³contains 18:3n-3, 18:4n-3, 20:3n-3 and 20:4n-3. SAFA, saturated fatty acids; OA, oleic acid; ARA, arachidonic acid; PUFA, polyunsaturated fatty acids; EPA, eicosapentaenoic acid; DPA, docosapentaenoic acid; DHA; docosahexaenoic acid; PIn, peroxidation index; TBARS, thiobarbituric reactive substances.

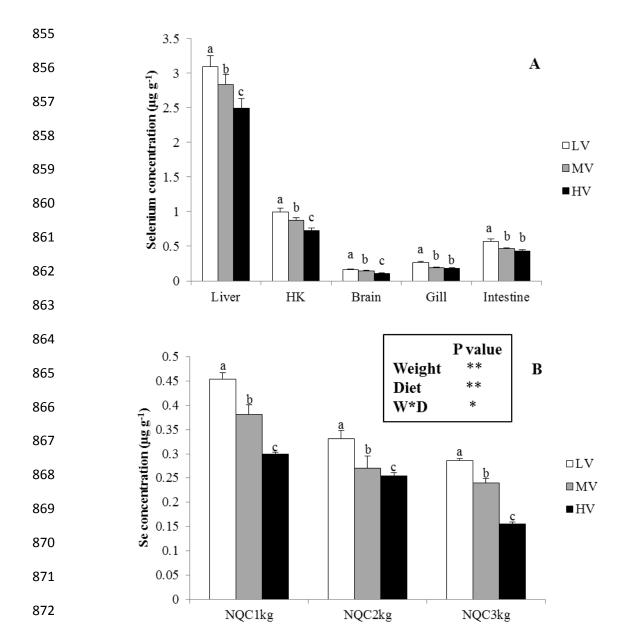
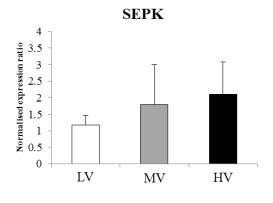
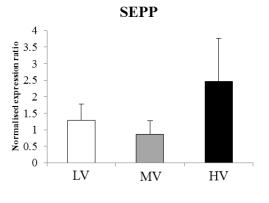
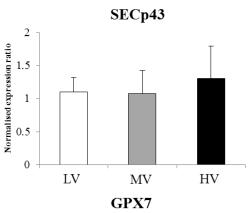
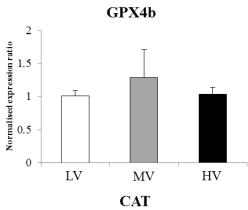


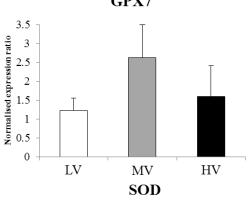
Figure 1

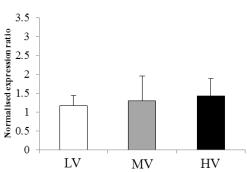












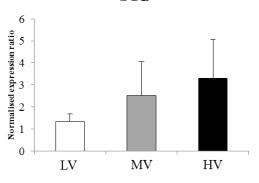
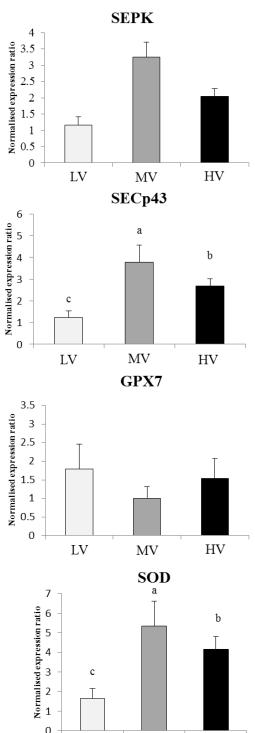
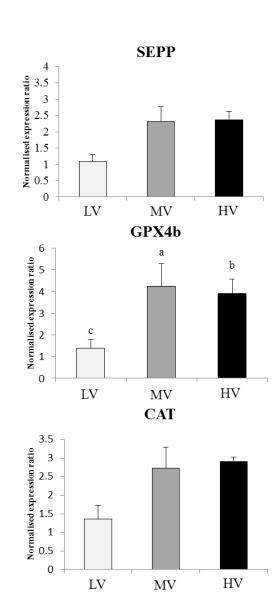


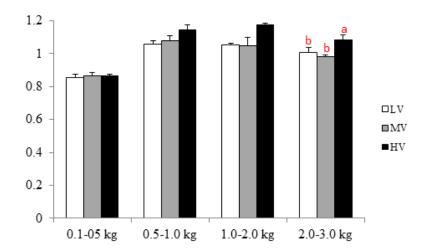
Figure 2





0 LV MVHV

Figure 3



Supplementary Figure 1