

Reduced n-3 highly unsaturated fatty acids dietary content expected with global change reduces the metabolic capacity of the golden grey mullet

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Abstract: In this study, we hypothesised that a reduction in n-3 HUFA availability for higher consumers, as expected with global change, would negatively impact the physiological performances of fish. The aim was to experimentally evaluate the effect of n-3 HUFA dietary content on cardio-respiratory performances of the golden grey mullet (Liza aurata), a microalgae grazer of high ecological importance in European coastal areas. These performances were evaluated in terms of critical swimming speed U_{crit}, associated oxygen consumption MO₂, post-exercise oxygen consumption, and calcium fluxes in cardiomyocytes. Two replicated groups of fish were fed on a rich (Standard Diet SD diet: 1.2% n-3 HUFA on dry matter basis, DMB) or a poor n-3 HUFA (Low n-3 HUFA Diet LD diet: 0.2% n-3 HUFA on DMB) diet during five months, and were called SD and LD groups, respectively. The results showed that the LD diet reduced growth rate as well as the aerobic capacity of Liza aurata at 20°C, suggesting that fish may have to save energy by modifying the proportion of energy allocated to energy-demanding activities, such as digestion or feeding. In addition, this LD diet induced higher levels of haematocrit and plasma osmolality, indicating a stress response at the second and third levels in that group. However, the LD diet caused a massive increase in swimming efficiency. This should improve the capacity of L. aurata to migrate and to forage over a wide area. In turn, these could then compensate for the reduction of growth rate and aerobic metabolism.

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Introduction

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In coastal environments, highly polyunsaturated fatty acids from the n-3 series, otherwise known as n-3 HUFA, are mainly supplied by the dominating diatoms, which represent an important lipid source for secondary producers (Kates and Volcani 1966; Roessler 1988; Pahl et al. 2010; Crawford and Broadhurst 2012). Indeed, n-3 HUFA are weakly synthesised *de novo* by higher organisms, while they function as critical structural and physiological

components of the cell membranes of most tissues (Sargent et al. 2002). In marine fish, membranous n-3 HUFA are dominated by ecosapentaenoic acid (EPA, 20:5n-3) and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA, 22:6n-3; for reviews see Sargent et al. 2002; Glencross 2009; Tocher 2010). They are essential for growth, survival, pigmentation, development and functionality of the brain, vision, and the nervous system, as well as in resistance to stress and disease, as they are precursors of eicosanoids (for reviews see Sargent et al. 2002; Glencross 2009; Tocher 2010).

Over the last twenty years, several studies have shown that diatoms growth rate and n-3 HUFA profile largely decreased because of environmental variability related to global change (*i.e.* increasing temperature, pH, and UV; decreasing salinity and oxygen saturation (Béthoux et al. 1998; Gomez and Souissi 2008; Guschina and Harwood 2009; Pahl et al. 2010; Chen 2012). In addition, the changes in physicochemical parameters, hydrological regimes and precipitation patterns expected with global change would lead to an overenrichment of nitrogen and phosphate with respect to silica and would therefore be responsible for a shift from diatoms towards non-siliceous species (*e.g. Phaeocystis*) dominance, which are poorer in n-3 HUFA than diatoms (Owens et al. 1989; Goffart et al. 2002; Gypens et al. 2007; Gomez and Souissi 2008; Guschina and Harwood 2009).

In the context of global change, the expected variability of n-3 HUFA content at the base of the food web may propagate to higher trophic levels, because, in all animals, the fatty acid composition of the tissue partly depends on that of the diet (Bell et al. 1996; Leu et al. 2006). As mentioned above, n-3 HUFA are the main components of the membrane bilayer. Therefore, variability in n-3 HUFA dietary content may lead to variability in the membranous n-3 HUFA of higher consumers, despite the fact that membrane lipids are regulated to large extent. This would consequently induce changes in their membrane structure and function.

Due to its role in membrane functionality, dietary n-3 HUFA content has been shown to further impact individual physiological performances, and in particular swimming and cardio-respiratory performances (McKenzie 2001; Wagner et al. 2004; Chatelier et al. 2006a; Chatelier 2006b). Swimming performance is essential because it determines food intake, predator avoidance, migratory capability and consequently the selection of favourable environmental conditions (Brett 1964; Domenici et al. 2013). For many researchers, swimming performance is therefore considered determinant of the Darwinian fitness of fish (Martinez 2003; Yan et al. 2013). Swimming performances are widely evaluated through the critical swimming speed U_{crit}, i.e., the water speed at which a fish can no longer maintain its position when exposed to a swim challenge through a step protocol (Brett 1964; Reidy et al. 2000; Lee 2003). Swimming performances are partly limited by the capacity of heart, which provides and regulates the internal energy of fish (Paige et al. 1996; McKenzie 2001; Chatelier et al. 2006a; Guderley et al. 2008). Heart capacity thereby determines aerobic metabolic scope (AS, Fry 1947), which is the difference between the active metabolic rate (AMR) and the standard metabolic rate (SMR), i.e. the maximal metabolic rate of an organism in a highly active state minus its metabolic rate when at rest (Fry 1971). AS estimates the capacity of oxygen allocation, i.e. the energy that an organism may allocate to its different energy-demanding activities (e.g. locomotion, digestion, feeding), and is often monitored because it is claimed to be a relevant proxy of fitness (Claireaux and Lefrancois 2007).

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In the context of the environmental adaptation of organisms, it is essential to understand the influence of fatty acids on the swimming and cardio-respiratory performances of fish. However, only a few studies have reported this effect of fatty acids on fish, and they are conflicting. More than ten years ago, McKenzie (2001) showed that an enriched n-3 HUFA diet resulted in a decrease in SMR and AMR in the Adriatic sturgeon *Acipenser*

naccarii and in the eel Anguilla anguilla. A reduced dietary n-3 HUFA content has also been shown to alter the mitochondrial respiratory capacity of rainbow trout (*Onchorynchus mykiss*) by changing the n-3 HUFA content in membranes, thus influencing the energy status of the animal (Guderley et al. 2008). Moreover, Wagner et al. (2004) suggested that low dietary n-3 HUFA/saturated fatty acids SFA and n-3 HUFA/arachidonic acid (AA; 20:4n-6) ratios may negatively affect the swimming performance of Atlantic salmon, as a negative correlation was found between these ratios and U_{crit}. However, the opposite was reported in the same species by Dosanjh et al. (1998) and McKenzie et al. (1998), as well as in sea bass by Chatelier et al. (2006b). The latter studies reported that low n-3 HUFA dietary levels (replaced by high monounsaturated fatty acids MUFA content) in the diet always led to higher U_{crit} in sea bass, suggesting a preferential use of MUFA than HUFA to provide the necessary energy to the animal. These inconsistent results reveal the importance of a better evaluation of the effect of n-3 HUFA dietary content on the swimming and cardio-respiratory performances of fish, particularly in the context of global change.

Therefore, the aim of this study was to test the effect of a reduction in n-3 HUFA dietary content on critical swimming speed, U_{crit}, and associated oxygen consumption, MO₂, post-exercise oxygen consumption, as well as on calcium fluxes in cardiomyocytes of the golden grey mullet (*Liza aurata*). *L. aurata* is of high ecological importance in European coastal areas because it is a microalgae grazer and a trophic vector of organic matter from intertidal to subtidal area. Because of its diet, the mullet may be directly subject to the variability of n-3 HUFA availability in primary producers, as no intermediate trophic steps will buffer their biochemical variability. To perform this study, two experimental diets were used: a Standard diet (SD) used as a reference, and a Low-n-3 HUFA diet (LD), which was a standard diet with a significantly lower content of n-3 HUFA.

Materials and methods

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Fish maintenance

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128 All fish manipulations were performed according to the French ethics committee.

Juvenile golden grey mullets [initial mean weight \pm standard error (SE): 26.1 \pm 0.4 g; initial mean standard length \pm SE: 13.0 \pm 0.1 cm] were caught in an Italian lagoon (Cabras, Sardinia, Italy) in 2011 and transported in aerated plastic bags (n = 2 fish per plastic bag) to our laboratory (Institut du Littoral et de l'Environnement, UMR 7266 CNRS-Université de La Rochelle, France) where all experiments were conducted. Upon arrival, fish were transferred into four indoor tanks (volume: 400 L; n = 20 fish per tank) that were individually supplied with aerated recirculated sand-filtered natural seawater and equipped with an external biological filter (Eheim professionnel 3 2080, Eheim, Deizisau, Germany). They were progressively acclimated to the water tank temperature, which was kept constant by a recirculating water system (TECO TR20, Conselice, Italy), and maintained in a temperaturecontrolled room (20°C) exposed to a 12L:12D photoperiod cycle. Temperature (19.9 \pm 0.5°C), salinity (33.4 \pm 0.1) and oxygen (87.9 \pm 2.6% air saturation) were monitored daily using a conductimeter (WTW model oxi 340i, WeiLDeim, Germany). After a few days of acclimation to the experimental structure, fish were fed with a commercial diet (Le Gouessant® aquaculture, Lamballe, France) once a day for three weeks. Then, 24h-starved fish were anaesthetised (tricaine methane sulphonate MS-222; 0.1 g L⁻¹, Sigma-Aldrich, St Quentin-Fallavier, France), weighed, and pit-tagged (M120; biolog-id, Réseaumatique, Bernay, France). Two experimental isolipidic and isoproteic diets differing by their n-3 HUFA content, were made at the PFOM unit, UMR 6539 LEMAR (Plouzané, France): A standard diet SD (1.2%

EPA + DHA on dry matter basis), and a low-n-3 HUFA diet LD (LD: 0.2% EPA + DHA on dry matter basis DMB) which was obtained by replacing the fish oil present in the standard diet with soybean oil. For each of these two diets, two groups of fish (n = 2 tanks, *i.e.* 40 fish per dietary condition) were fed for 5 months (2% of biomass day⁻¹). As the HUFA n-3 needs were not known for *L. aurata*, SD was formulated according to the needs known for other species. The n-3 HUFA level of that diet ranged between the optimum recommended in yellow croaker (0.6-0.98%; Zuo et al. 2012), gilthead seabream (0.9%; Kalogeropoulos et al. 1992), juvenile flounder (0.8-1.0%; Kim and Lee 2004) and juvenile starry flounder (at least 0.9% Lee et al. 2003), and that recommended in juvenile cobia *Rachycentron canadum* (1.49%; Liu et al. 2007) and juvenile cod *Hexagrammo sotakii* (1.2-1.7%, Lee and Cho 2009). The composition and fatty acid content of the two diets are summarised in Table 1.

Lipid analysis

Lipid analysis was performed on the muscle of 12 individuals for each experimental condition. For each fish, whole frozen muscle was homogenised rapidly with a Hobart® mixer in order to maintain a low temperature and then more accurately using a Polytron® (PT 2100 Bioblock®, Illkirch, France). A representative portion (~5g) was taken for lipid analysis and ~3g was taken for dry weight measurements (105°C in an oven for 24h). Lipid analysis was conducted on duplicates. Extraction of total lipids was done according to Folch et al. (1957), with chloroform being replaced by dichloro-methane. The separation of neutral NL and polar lipids PL was performed on fish samples according to the procedure described by Juaneda and Roquelin (1985). The total lipids TL extracts were fractionated on silica cartridges (Sep-Pack, Waters®, Guyancourt, France), NL were eluted by chloroform and PL by methanol. Fatty acid methyl esters (FAME) of TL were prepared by saponification and

then methylation while PL FAMEs were prepared by transmethylation with sulphuric acid in methanol. All FAMEs were separated by gas chromatography (Auto-system Perkin-Elmer® with a flame ionisation detector, BPX 70 capillary column: 25 m x 0.22 mm i.d. x 0.25 µm film thickness; split-splitless injector, with helium as a carrier gas). The injector and detector temperatures were 220 and 260°C, respectively. The temperature of the oven was initially 50°C, and then increased to 180°C in increments of 15°C min⁻¹; here, it was maintained for 5 min, and then finally increased to 220°C in increments of 3°C min⁻¹. Data acquisition and handling were carried out by connecting the GLC to a PE Nelson computer. Individual FAMEs were identified by comparing the retention times of authentic standard mixtures. The results of individual fatty acid composition were expressed as percent of total identified FAME. Chemical analyses of feed were performed in triplicate for each sample according to AOAC (Association of Official Analytical Chemists 1984) methods: ash (7 h at 550°C), crude fat (Folch et al. 1957), and crude protein (Dumas method with an Elementary NA 2000[®], N × 6.25). FAME were extracted and analysed on total lipid fraction using the previously described method.

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Growth performance

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Each month, 24h-starved fish (n = 40 per experimental condition) were anaesthetised (tricaine methane sulphonate MS-222; 0.1 g L^{-1} , Sigma-Aldrich, St Quentin-Fallavier, France) and individually identified using a pit-tag reader (MS-120, biolog-id, Réseaumatique, Bernay, France) before measuring fresh weight (\pm 0.1g), total length, standard length (*i.e.* notochord length), height and width (\pm 0.01 cm).

Specific growth rate SGR (% day ⁻¹) was calculated for each experimental condition using Equation 1:

$$SGR = 100 \times \frac{\text{(Ln final body weight - Ln initial body weight)}}{\text{number of days}}$$
 (1)

Swimming performance (U_{crit} test)

Experimental set-up

Fish swimming and metabolic performances were assessed using a swim-tunnel respirometer (Loligo Systems, Tjele, Denmark), which was made of a respirometer and an external bath. The respirometer (volume: 10 L) was composed of (i) a swim chamber with a square working section (40 cm of length, 10 cm height, 10 cm of width) and (ii) a hydraulic system placed upstream to promote a laminar flow in the swim chamber. No correction for solid blocking effects of the fish in the working section was made, since the calculated fractional error was < 5% of the working section area (Webb 1975). The flow in the respirometer was generated by an electric motor with a propeller. It was calibrated before the start of experiments and the speed ranged between 0 and 150 cm s⁻¹. Temperature was kept constant by a recirculating water system from the external bath (TECO TR20, Conselice, Italy). A flush pump allowed water exchange between the respirometer and the external bath, in which water temperature and oxygenation were controlled.

Oxygen consumption measurements

Oxygen concentration in the respirometer was continuously measured during the experiments with an oxygen probe (PreSens, GmbH, Regensburg, Germany) connected to an oxymeter

(Oxy-4, PreSens, GmbH, Regensburg, Germany) transferring oxygen data every 10 s to a storage computer. The oxygen concentration was automatically adjusted according to the real-time temperature recorded in the respirometer. MO₂ was measured by intermittent-flow respirometry, based on an alternation between (i) a flushing phase (5 min) and (ii) a measuring phase (20 min), during which the flush pump was turned off, preventing the inflow of water from the external bath into the respirometer. The MO₂ (mgO₂ kg⁻¹ h⁻¹) was calculated as in Vagner et al. (2008; Equation 2):

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$$MO_{2meas} = \left(\frac{\Delta [O2]}{\Delta t}\right) \times \left(\frac{V}{m}\right)$$
 (2)

- where $\Delta[O_2]$ is the oxygen concentration decrease (mgO₂ L⁻¹) relative to the fish oxygen
- consumption with respect to time Δt (hours), V the swim tunnel water volume (10 L) minus
- 233 the volume of the fish, and m the fish weight (kg).

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- For each MO₂ measurement, a linear regression was adjusted (Graphical Analysis 3.4,
- Beaverton, OR, USA) in order to determine $\Delta[O_2]/\Delta t$ from the graph plotting $[O_2]$ versus
- 236 time. The regression coefficient of the linear relationship determined MO₂ measurement
- accuracy. Only those measurements with a regression coefficient above 0.9 were considered.
- 238 The bacterial MO₂ was measured for half an hour before and after each experiment, and the
- 239 mean of both was subtracted from the MO₂ measured.
- 240 As respiratory metabolism depends on the animal weight, MO₂ was standardised for a 100 g
- fish et al.(Vagner et al. 2008; Equation 3):

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$$MO_{2cor} = MO_{2meas} \times \left(\frac{m_{meas}}{m_{cor}}\right)^{1-A}$$
 (3)

where MO_{2cor} (mgO₂ kg⁻¹ h⁻¹) is the oxygen consumption for a corrected weight ($m_{cor} = 100 \text{ g}$),

MO_{2meas} is the measured MO₂ (mgO₂ kg⁻¹ h⁻¹) and m_{meas} is the fish weight (kg). A is the

allometric exponent describing the relation between the metabolic rate and the fish weight. A

has never been determined for Liza aurata. Therefore, we used a value of 0.8 which was

previously estimated in teleosts (Schurmann and Steffensen 1994), and employed in the study

by Vagner et al. (2008) for the flathead grey mullet Mugil cephalus, a species from the same

family as *L. aurata* (mugilidae).

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251 Experimental protocol of the U_{crit} test

Next, 96h-starved fish [SD group: mean weight \pm SE: 47.5 \pm 3.1 g; mean standard length \pm SE: 15 ± 0.3 cm, n = 12; LD group: mean weight \pm SE: 45.1 ± 2.1 ; mean standard length \pm SE: 14.6 ± 0.2 cm; n = 12] were randomly sampled in tanks using a net, and individually tested in the swim-respirometer. This long starvation period ensured that U_{crit} and oxygen consumption measurements were not influenced by digestion (Beamish 1964). The day before the test, they were anaesthetised (MS-222; 0.1 g L⁻¹) and transferred into a plastic bag (without exposing gills to the air) from the indoor acclimatising tank to the swim chamber of the swimming respirometer. After a short recovery period (about 5 min), the water flow was stabilised at a very low speed (0.5 Body Length BL s⁻¹) and a screen darkening the upstream part of the swim chamber was placed in order to motivate the fish to occupy upstream positions. The fish were allowed to recover at this low speed for the entire following night. The day after, fish were submitted to a step-protocol involving progressive swimming speed increments of 1.5 BL s⁻¹ over 5 min from 0.5 to 3.5 BL s⁻¹, and increments of 0.75 BL s⁻¹ for further increases until fish exhaustion (Brett 1964). At each swimming step, the velocity was maintained for 20 min and MO₂ was measured. Oxygen saturation never fell below 75% of air saturation during MO₂ measurements. During the phase of swimming speed increment, i.e. between two consecutive swimming steps, water of the respirometer was renewed through the flush pump reactivation. It allowed the oxygen saturation to return over 85% of air saturation. The speed increments were repeated until fish exhaustion. Fish were considered exhausted (1) when they were stuck in a C-shape on the grid placed at the rear of the swim chamber, or (2)

when they were unable to swim away from this grid for more than 10 s of lighting stimulations through the tunnel window at the rear of the swim chamber.

Excess post-exercise oxygen consumption

At the end of the U_{crit} test, the speed was progressively decreased to 0.5 BL s⁻¹and fish were allowed to recover for 70 min according to a cycle of 20 min of measuring and 5 min of recirculating water, *i.e.* 3 MO₂ measurements were recorded (0.33, 0.75, and 1.17 h after the U_{crit} test). For each of these three measurement periods and for each fish, the excess MO₂ (mgO₂ kg⁻¹ h⁻¹) during the 70 min-recovery period following the test was determined by integrating (Graphical Analysis vs. 3.4; Beaverton, OR, USA) the area bounded between the post-test recovery MO₂ curve and the pre-test MO_{2 (0.5 BL s⁻¹)} measured over the entire recovery period before the swimming test (Lee et al. 2003; Luna-Acosta et al. 2011). The 6 first hours of the night recovery period were removed from the MO_{2 (0.5 BL s⁻¹)} calculation, as fish MO₂ was high due to the stress linked to the fish transfer (personal observation). Routine MO₂ while swimming at 0.5 BL s⁻¹ was employed rather than SMR, since it refers to the same and constant level of swimming activity before and after the test (Lee et al. 2003; Luna-Acosta et al. 2011).

Fish sampling after U_{crit} test

After the recovery period following the U_{crit} test, fish were anaesthetised (MS-222; 0.1 g L^{-1}), identified using a pit-tag reader, weighed (\pm 0.1 g), and measured (\pm 0.1 cm). The Fulton index (FI) was determined using Equation 4 (Fulton 1904):

$$FI = \frac{W}{L^3} \tag{4}$$

297 where W is the fish weight in g and L the total fish length in cm.

Blood was sampled (1 mL) by caudal puncture using chilled heparinised syringes. All manipulations were performed quickly so that blood was obtained within 2 to 3 min following transfer into the anaesthetic solution. Plasma was obtained by centrifugation (5 min; 5000 rpm; 4°C) and stored at -80°C until further analyses of plasma osmolality (mmol kg⁻¹; Vapro® Vapour Pressure Osmometer 5520, Wescor, UT, USA; n = 12 per experimental condition, *i.e.* 6 for each replicate tank per condition) in duplicate for all plasma samples. Haematocrit (percentage of red blood cells in the centrifuged blood volume) was measured in duplicate in capillary tubes centrifuged for 3 min at 4000 rpm at 4°C. Fish were dissected on ice (4°C) to collect liver for assessment of the hepato-somatic index HSI using Equation 5:

$$HSI = \frac{(W \text{ liver} \times 100)}{(W \text{ fish-W liver})}$$
 (5)

308 where W_{liver} is the liver weight and W_{fish} is the fish weight.

Moreover, muscle was collected for lipid analysis above the lateral line in the caudal part in order to obtain white muscle (Martinez 2003). It was stored in -80°C under nitrogen until further analysis.

Determination of U_{crit}, SMR, AMR and AS

- For each fish, the following parameters were calculated: critical swimming speed U_{crit}, SMR,
- 316 AMR and AS. U_{crit} (in BL s⁻¹) was calculated using Equation 6 (Brett 1964):

$$U_{crit} = U_t \times \frac{t_1}{t} \times U_1 \tag{6}$$

318 where U_t (BL $s^{\text{-}1}$) is the highest velocity maintained for an entire swimming step, t_1 (min) the

amount of time spent at the fatigue velocity, t (min) the prescribed swimming period (20 min),

and U_1 the last increment velocity (1.5 or 0.75 BL s⁻¹).

- 321 SMR (mgO₂ kg⁻¹ h⁻¹) was extrapolated as the intercept (i.e. MO₂ when U = 0 BL s⁻¹; Brett
- 322 1964) of Equation 7:
- $MO_2 = SMR e^{bU}$ (7)

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- where MO₂ is the oxygen consumption (mgO₂ kg⁻¹ h⁻¹), b a constant, and U the swimming
- 326 speed (BL s⁻¹).
- 327 AMR (mgO₂ kg⁻¹ h⁻¹) was considered the highest MO₂ recorded during the U_{crit} test.
- 328 AS (mgO₂ kg⁻¹ h⁻¹) was determined for each fish as the difference between AMR and SMR.

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330 Cardiomyocyte performance

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332 Solutions

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- 334 All chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St Quentin-Fallavier, France).
- The isolation Ca²⁺-free solution: in mM: NaCl, 100; KCl, 10; KH₂PO₄, 1; MgSO₄, 5.4;
- 336 taurine, 50; αD-glucose, 20; HEPES, 10; EGTA, 0.1 (adjusted to pH 7.1 using KOH,
- 337 osmolality: 300 mOsmol L⁻¹). The enzymatic digestion solution comprised collagenase (Type
- 338 IA, 0.36 mg mL $^{-1}$), trypsin (Type III, 0.24 mg mL $^{-1}$) and BSA (0.5 mgmL $^{-1}$) added to the
- 339 isolation Ca²⁺-free solution.
- The incubation medium Ca²⁺ solution: in mM: Glucose, 10; NaCl, 130; KCl, 5; MgSO₄, 3;
- 341 NaH₂PO₄, 0.5; CaCl₂, 2; HEPES, 10 (adjusted to pH 7.35 using KOH).
- The hyperpotassic 100 mM K⁺ solution (100 K): in mM: glucose, 1; NaCl, 35; KCl, 100;
- 343 MgSO₄, 1.5; NaH₂PO₄, 0.4; CaCl₂, 8; HEPES, 10 (adjusted to pH 7.3 using KOH).

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345 Ventricular cardiomyocytes isolation

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Here, 24h-starved fish [SD group: mean weight \pm SE: 54.6 \pm 5.3 g; mean standard length \pm SE: 15.0 ± 0.4 cm; LD group: mean weight \pm SE: 40.8 ± 5.3 ; mean standard length \pm SE: 14.1± 0.5 cm] were randomly sampled in tanks using a net, and individually anaesthetised (MS-222; 0.1 g L⁻¹). The heart was rapidly excised and immersed in a Ca²⁺-free solution in order to disrupt Ca²⁺-dependent cellular bonds. The atrium and bulbus arteriosus were removed. Single ventricular cells were obtained by enzymatic dissociation using a protocol modified from that described by Vornanen (1997) and Chatelier et al. (2006a). The ventricle was cut into small pieces with scissors and immersed in 2 ml of Ca²⁺-free solution containing proteolytic enzymes. They were gently homogenised for 10 min at 20°C. Following enzymatic treatment, (1) the ventricle was transferred in a Petri dish containing 2 mL of fresh Ca²⁺ solution with enzymes. This was then (2) mechanically triturated for 5 min through the opening of a Pasteur pipette; (3) the small pieces of ventricle not yet dissociated were removed and placed in a new Petri dish containing 2 ml of fresh Ca²⁺-free solution with enzymes, while the supernatant was centrifuged (5 min, 2500 rpm, 4°C); and (4) the pellet was gently suspended in 500 µL of Ca²⁺-free solution without enzymes. Steps 1 to 4 were repeated until all of the pieces of ventricle were dissociated (in general 3-4 times). Isolated cardiomyocytes were then transferred in a new dish equipped with a glass bottom to allow their fixation. Cells were progressively dropwise immersed in an incubation medium Ca²⁺ solution containing 2 µM of blebbistatin (Sigma-Aldrich, St Quentin-Fallavier, France) dissolved in dimethyl sulphoxide DMSO in order to avoid cell contracture, and maintained in a dark room at 20°C for at least 1h15.

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Measure of Ca²⁺fluxes

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Ca²⁺ fluxes were measured using the permeant form of the fluorescent dye FLUO-4 (FLUO-4 AM acetoxy-methyl-ester, Invitrogen, Saint-Aubin, France), dissolved in DMSO. The probe was added (2 µM) to the physiological medium in the dish in which cells were fixed. After 1h of loading in a dark room, cells were carefully washed with the incubation medium. Fluorescence was recorded using a microscope LEICA DMI6000B (Saint-Jorioz, France) equipped with a FLUO Oligochrome lamp and a camera ORCA-R2. The acquisition software was Morpho Strider (Explora-Nova, La Rochelle, France). Excitation of FLUO-4 was set at 494 nm, and the fluorescence emission was collected through a dichroic filter at 505 nm. Cells were individually stimulated with 100 K solution in order to change the potassium equilibrium potential, resulting in a decrease of the inward rectifier potassium current which is known to stabilise the resting membrane potential (Galli et al. 2009and). Thus, cardiomyocytes exposed to 100 K solution were depolarised, inducing global Ca²⁺ fluxes, possibly via the activation of L-type Ca^{2+} channels and Na^{+}/Ca^{2+} exchangers. Cells (n = 14 for SD group and n = 16 for LD group) were locally perfused with incubation medium via a small delivery tube positioned near the cell (less than 1 mm). This solution was rapidly exchanged for 100K (one drop, 20 µL). Then, stimulation of the cardiomyocytes was stopped by the fast change of the 100 K solution by the incubation medium. Ryanodin solution (RYA; 1 mM; Ascent Scientific, Bristol, UK) was used to evaluate calcium mobilization from the sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR) when stimulation occurs. Ryanodin (10 μM) binds to the ryanodin receptor located on the SR, and locks the SR- Ca²⁺ release channel in the open state, rendering it unable to contribute to Ca²⁺ transient (Rousseau et al. 1987). As a consequence, by subtracting the concentration of Ca²⁺ measured in cells stimulated with RYA to that measured with 100 K, the Ca²⁺ concentration released by SR can be estimated. Adrenaline solution (AD; 10 µM, Sigma-Aldrich; St Quentin-Fallavier, France) was used to investigate the effects of β-adrenergic receptors upon the cellular calcium responses. As a β₂-

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type adrenergic receptor agonist, AD increased the density of the L-type calcium current by elevating the open-probability of the L-type calcium channels (Vornanen 1997; 1998; Hove-Madsen et al. 1998) after phosphorylation (Shiels et al. 1998). This is supposed to increase the force of contraction. AD also stimulates the Ca^{2+} ATPase pump of the RS, inducing the Ca^{2+} re-pumping after the contraction phase, and then accelerating the relaxation. To perform these experiments, fish cells (RYA: n=16 for SD group and n=13 for LD group; AD: n=13 for SD group and n=10 for LD group) were bathed in the stimulating solution (RYA or AD) diluted in incubation medium for 30 s (one drop, 20 μ L). This allowed the fixation of RYA and AD to the SR ryanodin and beta-adrenergic receptors respectively. Cells were then briefly perfused with the stimulating solution (RYA or AD) diluted in 100 K in order to stimulate intracellular Ca^{2+} release.

All perfusions were rapid, in order to prevent excessive stimulation and possible contracture followed by cell death, and a maximum of two cells were stimulated in each dish.

For each stimulated cell, the fluorescence was normalised (F/F0), where F0 was the mean of the data points recorded during the first 30 s in which cells were perfused with incubation medium. Then, for each cell, the maximal amplitude of calcium mobilised, the time to reach the peak (tp), and the time to reach 50% relaxation (decay 50%, tr) were measured (Imbert-Auvray et al. 2013).

All the analyses performed in this study are summarized in Table 2.

Statistical analysis

The data are presented as mean \pm standard error (SE). All statistical analyses were performed with Statistica® software vs.7 (StatSoft, Maison-Alfort, France). Concerning growth during the experimental period, slopes of regression curves were determined for each fish. The effect

of diet on these slopes, as well as on SGR, U_{crit} , SMR, AMR, plasma haematocrit, plasma osmolality, HSI, FI, and the MO₂ excess during the recovery period integral was tested using a one-way ANOVA with n = the number of fish replicates for each dietary condition. Moreover, the effect of diet on each of the three successive measurements of $MO_{2 r(t)}$ was tested using a repeated-measure ANOVA with the three successive measurements used as the within effect. Concerning cardiomyocyte performance, the effect of diet on the amplitude, tp, and tr recorded when cells were stimulated with 100K, RYA, or AD was tested using a one-way ANOVA with n = the number of cell replicates for each dietary condition. Prior to ANOVA analyses, normality distribution and homeodasticity were controlled using Kolmogorov-Smirnov and the Levene test, respectively. Differences were considered significant when $\alpha < 0.05$.

Results

All groups of fish appeared healthy and survival was close to 100% at the end of the experiment.

Fatty acid composition in fish

- No significant difference of TL, NL or PL content was found between the two dietary groups of fish (Table 3). As expected, fish fatty acid composition reflected that of the diet, and EPA and DHA were preferentially incorporated in phospholipids (PL) for both groups (One-way
- 443 ANOVA: EPA: P < 0.001; $F_{1,86} = 86.75$; DHA: P < 0.001; $F_{1,86} = 20.8$) (Table 3).
 - In both lipid classes (PL and NL), the sum of saturated fatty acids (∑ SFA) was 15% higher in the group fed the standard n-3 HUFA content diet (SD group) than in that fed the

low n-3 HUFA content diet (LD group; Table 3). In NL, this difference reflected that of all SFA tested (14:0, 16:0, 18:0, and 20:0), while in PL, this mostly reflected the difference in 14:0 and 16:0 FA content, as the 18:0 and 20:0 FA contents were similarly incorporated in both groups. Σ monounsaturated fatty acids MUFA levels were also 15% higher in SD than in LD fish, and reflected a difference in both 16:1 and 18:1 in the two dietary groups (Table 3).

The \sum n-6 FA content, as well as the 18:2n-6 FA content, were more than two-fold higher in the LD group than in the SD group, for both PL and NL. However, arachidonic acid (ARA; 20:4n-6) was similarly present in the PL of both groups (P > 0.05), but was significantly more incorporated (30%) in the NL of SD than in that of LD groups (Table 3).

The \sum n-3, as well as n-3 HUFA including EPA and DHA were 1.5- to 2-fold more present in the NL and PL of the SD group than in the LD group (P < 0.05; Table 3). Only the 18:3n-3 FA content was almost 2-fold lower in the SD than LD group. The n-3/n-6 ratio was only above one in the PL of the SD group, whereas it was below one in the PL of the LD group, as well as in the NL of the two dietary groups (Table 3).

The DHA/EPA ratio was significantly higher in the NL of SD groups, while it was similar in the PL of fish fed the SD and LD diet. Finally, the ARA/EPA ratio was significantly higher in the NL of the LD group, but was not different in the PL, regardless of the dietary group investigated (Table 3).

Growth performances and body condition

The SGR of the SD group was significantly higher (25%) than that of the LD group (Table 4). In addition, fish from the SD group exhibited a significantly higher increase in standard length throughout the entire experiment than fish from the LD group (P < 0.001; $F_{2,72} = 24.01$). However, the hepatosomatic index (HSI) and FI were not affected by diet (P > 0.05; Table 4).

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472	Swimming performance, energetics and blood parameters
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474	As expected, MO ₂ increased exponentially with swimming speed for both the SD and LD
475	groups (Fig. 1; e.g. Brett 1964; Webb 1975; Vagner et al. 2008; Milinkovitch et al. 2012).
476	Results concerning the effect of HUFA dietary content on U_{crit} , SMR, AMR, AS, haematocrit,
477	and plasma osmolality, are summarised in the Table 3. U_{crit} was not affected by diet ($P > 0$
478	0.05). On the contrary, both AMR and AS measured in the LD group were more than two-fold
479	lower than in the SD group ($P < 0.001$). Moreover, this was associated with an increase of
480	more than 20% of haematocrit and 7% of plasma osmolality ($P < 0.05$).
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482	Excess Post-exercise Oxygen Consumption
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484	The excess MO ₂ measured during the post-exercise period at low speeds was found to be
485	dependent on diet ($P < 0.05$; Fig. 2), and was more than 45% higher in the SD than in the LD
486	group.
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488	Cardiomyocytes performances
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490	Variables representative of the kinetics of calcium fluxes (peak amplitude, the time to reach
491	the peak, tp , and the time to reach 50% relaxation, tr), in response to stimulation
492	(hyperpotassic solution 100K, ryanodin RYA, or adrenaline AD) are presented in Figs 3a, b,
493	and c for each dietary group. Whatever stimulator was used, there was no effect of diet
494	reported for these variables (P > 0.05). Moreover, no significant effect of the stimulator,

neither on peak amplitude nor on tr, was observed (P > 0.05). However, tp was significantly

reduced by more than 50% in cells stimulated with RYA compared to those stimulated with 100K and AD (P < 0.01).

Discussion

This study is the first to measure the effect of a reduction in n-3 HUFA dietary content, as expected with global change, on physiological performances of the golden grey mullet, a species of high ecological importance in European coastal areas. The results showed that the low n-3 HUFA dietary content reduced growth rate and the aerobic capacity of Liza~aurata at $20^{\circ}C$. This diet also induced higher levels of haematocrit and plasma osmolality. However, this diet did not impact SMR or U_{crit} .

The n-3 HUFA content of the LD diet was about six-fold lower than that of the SD diet, suggesting a deficiency of n-3 HUFA in that diet. The immediate consequence of feeding with both of these diets was a modification of the n-3 HUFA membranous content in fish. As expected, the cell membrane bilayer reflected the HUFA dietary content in both groups (Linares and Henderson 1991; Jobling 2001), as (1) fish fed the LD diet presented a significantly lower n-3 HUFA, including EPA and DHA, content than those fed the SD diet, and (2) both of these fatty acids were preferentially incorporated in PL rather than NL in both dietary groups, indicating their integration in cell membranes (Linares and Henderson 1991).

As said earlier, the LD diet induced a significantly lower growth rate in *L. aurata* over the five month experimental period. This result confirms the importance of dietary HUFA, and especially EPA and DHA, for normal growth, as observed in other species such as juvenile flounder (Kim and Lee 2004), cod (Lee and Cho 2009), yellow croaker (Zuo et al. 2012), or juvenile cobia (Liu et al. 2007). This lower growth rate did not appear to be due to a lower food intake in the LD group, as even though the feed intake was not accurately

monitored during our experiment for technical reasons, visual daily observations performed during the meal time allowed us to hypothesise that SD and LD fish ate similarly. In addition to their lower growth rate, fish from the LD group exhibited a lower increase in standard length from the beginning to the end of the experiment (results not shown). This resulted in a similar body condition as shown by FI and HSI measured in both dietary groups (Equation 4).

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While it reduced growth rate, the low n-3 HUFA diet did not impair the ability of fish to maintain vital functions such as ventilation and osmoregulation. This was shown by the similar SMR values measured in both dietary groups (Fry 1971), which were close to that previously reported in another mugilid species (Vagner et al. 2008). Moreover, the n-3 HUFA dietary content did not significantly affect U_{crit} at 20°C, as the LD group achieved the same U_{crit} as the SD group. As suggested by previous authors, sustained swimming performances may not only depend on the n-3 HUFA metabolism, but also on other FA metabolism as an energy source, such as MUFA or SFA (Chatelier et al. 2006b; Regan et al. 2010). Despite this similar U_{crit} measurement in both groups, the lower n-3 HUFA diet significantly reduced AMR and AMS. This indicates that LD fish achieved the same Ucrit as SD fish but with a significantly lower metabolic cost. This is in contrast with results obtained in previous studies, which showed that lower AMR and AMS were both linked to lower swimming performances (Chatelier et al. 2006b). Our original results could be partially explained by the marked accumulation of n-6 FA in both the NL and PL of fish fed the LD diet, which may have compensated for the lower levels of n-3 FA in that group. In particular, the high levels of linoleic and oleic acids have been shown to be positively correlated with U_{crit} performance in Atlantic salmon (McKenzie et al. 1998) and sea bass (Chatelier et al. 2006b). Linoleic acid (18:2n-6) has also been shown to increase carnitine palmitoyl transferase activity, which may improve the aerobic metabolism of fatty acids in red muscle (Sidell and Driedzic 1985; Egginton 1996).

While LD fish performed the same U_{crit} as SD fish, the decrease in AMS measured in that group suggests that the low n-3 HUFA diet could reduce the capacity for oxygen allocation toward energy-demanding activities such as foraging, growth and digestion (Fry 1971). This result is in accordance with the lower growth rate found in that group. The lower AMS caused by the low n-3 HUFA dietary content could reflect a lower capacity of oxygen transport in that group. The n-3 HUFA dietary content may have modified the membrane lipid composition of mitochondria, and consequently reduced the respiratory rate of mitochondria, as suggested in rainbow trout by Guderley et al. (2008). These authors reported a higher respiratory rate in the mitochondria of rainbow trout fed a diet enriched in EPA and DHA compared to fish fed a diet poorer in those FA, and suggested that the level of these specific FA would be statistically correlated with mitochondria capacity. Another hypothesis to explain the higher aerobic metabolism in fish fed the enriched n-3 HUFA diet would be an increasing number of mitochondria as the n-3 HUFA dietary content increased, as previously demonstrated by Kjaer et al. (2008) in the liver of Atlantic salmon fed a diet that was rich in EPA. This would induce the higher production of ATP. In other vertebrates such as several mammals and bird species, a high positive correlation between the molecular activity (ATP min⁻¹) of individual Na⁺K⁺ATPase units and the content of DHA in the surrounding membranes bilayer was found, suggesting a higher metabolic activity in tissue (Turner et al. 2003). However, one consequence of the higher aerobic metabolism measured in fish fed the SD diet would be an increasing lipid peroxidation in membranes, as phospholipids are particularly vulnerable to oxidation (Crockett 2008). Lipid peroxidation represents a distinct set of oxidations initiated by reactive oxygen species that possess sufficient energy to remove a hydrogen atom from a methylene group within the parent lipid (Girotti 1985). Lipid peroxidation in biological membranes may be deleterious because of influences on membrane physical properties likely to affect protein function (Crockett 2008).

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Contrary to the present study, previous works have reported that a high n-3 HUFA dietary content reduced AMR and AMS, suggesting that aerobic metabolism in fish is primarily fuelled by FA oxidation, with MUFA being preferred over SFAs which, in turn, are preferred over HUFA as substrates (Henderson and Sargent 1985; Egginton 1996; McKenzie 2001; Chatelier et al. 2006b). Indeed, MUFA and SFA are mostly incorporated in triacylglycerols which constitute lipid reserve used as fuels by tissues, while HUFA are mainly used as structural lipids incorporated in biological membranes or as precursors of eicosanoids (for review, see Sargent et al. 2002). However, while there is no doubt that dietary and tissue FA exert profound effects on metabolic and cardio-respiratory physiology of vertebrates, the explanation of such contrasting results is not known, and further studies are required to understand the mechanisms responsible for these effects.

The lower aerobic metabolic rate induced by the low n-3 HUFA dietary content does not appear to be due to a lower capacity of oxygen transport by blood. Indeed, the lower AMS measured in the LD group was associated with a higher haematocrit at the end of the U_{crit} test, indicating higher red cells production, and a consequently higher capacity of oxygen transport in that group. This could have contributed to maintaining swimming at the same velocity, as in the SD group (Thorarensen et al. 1993). This higher haematocrit could reflect the need for those fish to increase their oxygen supply in order to survive in a stressful environment, since a higher haematocrit is one of the indicators of fish health, and may reflect a stress response in fish. This has already been reported in fish submitted to crowding stress (Trenzado, Morales and de la Higuera 2006; 2009) or hypoxic conditions (Zambonino et al. 2013). This stress response is corroborated by (1) the higher plasma osmolality, (2) the lower AMS and AMR, and (3) the lower growth rate measured in the LD group. Indeed, after a primary response during which activation of the brain-sympathetic-chromaffin cell axis and the brain-pituary inter-renal axis, resulting in the release of stress hormones such as cortisol (not measured in

the present study), stress response is characterised by a secondary response during which these hormones have an effect at blood and tissues levels, including a disturbance of ionic and osmotic balance, and by a third response characterised by the inhibition of growth and changes in metabolic rate (Schreck 1982; Barton and Iwama 1991; Wendelaar Bonga 1997; Mommsen et al. 1999).

The higher haematocrit measured in the LD group could also be due to alterations of the mitochondrial membranes by the low n-3 HUFA dietary content, as suggested in rainbow trout by Guderley et al. (2008). This would have led to an alteration of the conformation and activity of the embedded protein, reducing the capacity of oxygen transport across the membrane and toward mitochondria. This would have resulted in a higher oxygen demand from mitochondria, and consequently, to increasing red cell production as a strategy to cope with elevated energy demand.

In addition to indicating a secondary stress response, the higher osmolality measured at the end of the U_{crit} test in the LD group could also suggest a higher ventilation rate (not measured) developed in order to increase oxygen supply during the effort. It is well described that swimming leads to an improving gas exchange at the gills through ventilation rate, and that the consequence is passive ion movement across the gills. In seawater fish, the ion movement is from the water to the animal, and the consequence is dehydration. Through an increasing ventilation rate, fish would have an increased passive ion movement from water to the gills, increasing osmolality in their system. This ion movement is normally compensated by water absorption through the intestinal membrane, as well as by ion excretion through the sodium-chloride channels of the gill membrane in order to maintain the osmotic balance. However, as this ion excretion represents an energetic cost because it is against the concentration gradient, fish fed the low n-3 HUFA content diet may have spared that cost in order to save energy, as their aerobic capacity was reduced.

While fish fed the low n-3 HUFA diet displayed a lower capacity for oxygen transport, they did not show any lower cardiomyocyte performance, measured by the Ca²⁺ fluxes in response to different chemical stimulations, compared to the group fed the standard n-3 HUFA diet. The measure of similar cardiomyocyte performances is in accordance with the measurements of similar U_{crit} values in both dietary groups, as several studies have argued that U_{crit} in active teleosts may be primarily limited by aerobic myocardial performance (Farrell 2002; Claireaux et al. 2005). These results could suggest that modification of the membranous n-3 HUFA content in response to diet did not impact the functionality of those calcium channels embedded in cardiomyocyte membranes or the SR membranes of cardiomyocytes. However, the cardiomyocyte lipid composition was not measured in the present study. While our results showed that the white muscle FA composition reflected that of the diet, we do not know how it varied in heart tissue. Indeed, recent studies showed that the FA composition of the different fish tissues (liver, heart, kidney, intestine, liver, eyes...) does not respond in the same way to diet (Benedito-Palos et al. 2010; Böhm et al. 2014). The absence of any significant differences between dietary groups could also be due to the experimental temperature used (20°C), as many previous studies have shown differences in the thermal sensitivity of the mechanisms involved in calcium regulation in fish cardiomyocytes. For example, the effects of adrenaline were mainly observed in coldacclimated teleosts (perch: Tirri and Ripatti, 1982; Tirri and Lehto, 1984; rainbow trout: Graham and Farrell 1989; Keen et al. 1994). Moreover, SR- Ca²⁺ loading and mobilisation has been shown to depend on species and thermal acclimation (Imbert-Auvray et al. 2013).

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At 20°C, Ca²⁺ release did not seem to depend on the SR in *Liza aurata*, but mainly on the calcium L-type channel located on the cytoplasmic membrane, as similar amplitudes of Ca²⁺ release in response to the stimulation with ryanodine added to 100 K or 100 K alone were measured. This is in accordance with other authors who showed that Ca²⁺ release from

the SR was rather limited in the ectothermic vertebrate heart, such as those of fish (Shiels et al. 2004) and amphibians (Fischmeister and Horackova 1983; Nabauer et al. 1989).

The lower anaerobic metabolism measured in fish fed the low n-3 HUFA diet is coincident with their lower swimming cost measured during the U_{crit} test, and indicated that these fish recovered very quickly. Their lower anaerobic capacity was confirmed by their lower excess MO₂ measured during the 70 min recovery period (Lee et al. 2003; Luna-Acosta et al. 2011; Zhao et al. 2012). This lower excess MO₂ reflects a lower quantity of oxygen required to restore tissue and cellular stores of oxygen and high-energy phosphates, biochemical imbalances in metabolites such as lactate and glycogen, and other functions such as ionic and osmotic balance in this group (Lee et al. 2003). The higher haematocrit content measured in that group could have contributed to this better recovery.

To conclude, the results of the present study show that a reduction in n-3 HUFA availability in diet until 0.2% EPA+DHA (on dry matter basis) would reduce the growth rate as well as the aerobic capacity of *Liza aurata* at 20°C. As stated earlier, aerobic capacity represents the energy available to perform energy-demanding activities, and the excess energy will be allocated to growth once other activities have been allocated (Fry 1971). The reduction of aerobic metabolism by the low n-3 HUFA content diet suggests that fish may have to save energy by modifying the proportion of energy allocated to energy-demanding activities, such as digestion or feeding. This also suggests that the growth rate will consequently be reduced. This long-term strategy of energy allocation could explain the decreasing growth rate measured when fish were given the deficient diet over the 5 month experimental period. In addition to a lower growth rate and aerobic metabolism, the lower n-3 HUFA diet induced higher levels of haematocrit and plasma osmolality, which are all indicators of a stress response at the second and third levels in that group.

However, our results showed that the lower n-3 HUFA diet (or higher MUFA and linoleic acids) caused a massive change in swimming efficiency and recovery capacity that should bring ecological advantages in the capacity of fish to migrate or avoid predators. This is of particular importance to *L. aurata* which is a migratory species that reproduces at sea and uses coastal areas to grow and to feed.

The higher swimming efficiency caused by a deficient n-3 HUFA dietary content would allow fish to increase their mobility and distribution, thus increasing the range over which feeding and reproduction occurs. These changes in turn would compensate for the reduction of growth and aerobic metabolism induced by diet.

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Conflict of interest

The authors have no conflict of interest to declare and note that the sponsors of the issue had no role in the study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript

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Table 1 Formulation (ingredient proportion in g 100 g^{-1}), chemical composition (% dry matter DM \pm standard error SE; n=3) and fatty acid composition in total lipids TL (% fatty acid methyl ester FAME \pm SE; n=3) of the two experimental diets (standard n-3 HUFA diet SD and low-n-3 HUFA LD diet). Fatty acids for which percentage was lower than 0.2% FAME are not represented. Each MUFA is represented as a sum of n-7, n-9 and n-11 FA

Ingredients ^a	SD diet	LD diet
Fish meal LT 94	17	17
Casein	30	30
Soy oil	2	10
Fish oil	8	0
Precooked starch	30	30
Vitamin mixture ^b	8	8
Mineral mixture ^c	4	4
Betaine	1	1
Chemical composition		
Dry matter (%)	91.0 ± 0.1	92.0 ± 0.1
Crude protein (% DM)	34.7 ± 0.0	41.3 ± 0.2
Crude fat (% DM)	11.7 ± 0.3	10.7 ± 0.1
Ash (% DM)	7.8 ± 0.2	6.6 ± 0.4
HUFA n-3 (% DM)	1.2 ± 0.0	0.2 ± 0.0
FA composition in TL		
14:0	3.59 ± 0.04	0.59 ± 0.02
16:0	11.84 ± 0.04	11.32 ± 0.02
18:0	2.94 ± 0.01	4.62 ± 0.01
20:0	0.27 ± 0.00	0.46 ± 0.01
Σ SFA	19 ± 0.09	17.63 ± 0.04
16:1	4.03 ± 0.04	0.80 ± 0.02
18:1	26.80 ± 0.05	23.09 ± 0.02
20:1	4.25 ± 0.12	1.20 ± 0.00
22:1	4.69 ± 0.05	1.17 ± 0.01
24:1	0.43 ± 0.01	0.12 ± 0.00
Σ MUFA	40.58 ± 0.14	26.42 ± 0.03
18:2n-6	15.3 ± 0.03	3.63 ± 0.09
20:4n-6	0.38 ± 0.00	0.09 ± 0.00
Σ n-6	16.54 ± 0.02	45.84 ± 0.01
18:3n-3	3.73 ± 0.01	6.38 ± 0.01
18:4n-3	1.05 ± 0.00	0.18 ± 0.00
20:4n-3	0.91 ± 0.00	0.08 ± 0.00
20:5n-3	4.49 ± 0.01	0.79 ± 0.01
22:5n-3	1.62 ± 0.01	0.11 ± 0.00
22:6n-3	6.24 ± 0.06	1.32 ± 0.01
Σ n-3	18.28 ± 0.07	8.87 ± 0.03

	Σ HUFA n-3	13.51 ± 0.08	2.31 ± 0.02
	n-3 / n-6	1.11 ± 0.01	0.19 ± 0.00
	DHA / EPA	1.39 ± 0.01	1.68 ± 0.02
000	ARA / EPA	0.08 ± 0.00	0.12 ± 0.00
922	^a Sources: fish n	neal LT 94: Norse (Fyllingsdale	n, Norway); casein: Sigma-Aldrich
923	(Germany); soy oil: Sy	stème U (Créteil, France); fish	oil: pure cod oil Cooper (Melun,
924	France); precooked star	rch: Prégéflo Roquette frères (Lestrem, France); vitamin mixture
925	(INRA Jouy-en-Josas, Fr	rance)	
926	^b Vitamin mixtur	e (g kg ⁻¹ vitamin mix): retinyl ac	retate, 1; cholecalciferol, 2 5; DL-α-
927	tocopheryl acetate, 5;	menadione, 1; thiamine-HCL,	0 1; riboflavin, 0 4; D-calcium
928	panththenate, 2; pyridox	ine-HCL, 0 3; cyanocobalamin,	1; niacin, 1; choline, 200; ascorbic
929	acid (ascorbyl polyphosp	shate), 5; folic acid, 0 1; D-biotin,	1; meso-inositol, 30
930	^c Mineral mixture	e (g kg ⁻¹ mineral mix): KCl, 90; F	XI, 0 04; CaHPO ₄ 2H ₂ O, 500; NaCl,
931	40; CuSO ₄ 5H ₂ O, 3; ZnS	5O ₄ 7H ₂ O, 4; CoSO ₄ , 0 02; FeSO	4 7H ₂ O, 20; MnSO ₄ H ₂ O, 3; CaCo ₃ ,
932	215; MgOH, 124; Na ₂ Se	O ₃ , 0 03; NaF, 1	
933	Abbreviations: ARA: ar	achidonic acid; DHA docosahex	aenoic acid; EPA: ecosapentaenoic
934	acid; HUFA: highly un	saturated fatty acids; MUFA: n	nono-unsaturated fatty acids; SFA:
935	saturated fatty acids		
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Table 2 Summary of all physiological and biochemical analyses performed in this study. For each analyse, the number of fish sampled (N) for each experimental condition (standard n-3 HUFA dietary group and low-n-3 HUFA LD dietary group), and the sampling period are indicated. † Indicates paired data points, *i.e.* measurements performed on the same fish

Analyses	Fish replication for each	Sampling period		
	experimental condition	947		
Growth performances (fresh weight, total and standard length, height, width, SGR, Fulton index)	N = 40	Each month during 48 months 949		
Lipid analyses in white muscle†	N = 12	After the 5-month experimental period		
Swimming performance (U _{crit} , SMR, AMR, AS) †	N = 12	After the 5-month experimental period 952		
Anaerobic metabolism †	N = 12	After the 5-month experimental period 953		
Haematocrit †	N = 12	After the 5-month experimental peri 99 4		
Osmolality†	N = 12	After the 5-month experimental peri9a5		
Hepato-somatic index †	N = 12	After the 5-month 956 experimental period		
Cardiac performances	N = 8	After the 5-month ₅₇ experimental period		

Abbreviations: AMR: active metabolic rate; AS: aerobic scope; SGR: specific growth

rate; SMR: standard metabolic rate; U_{crit}: critical swimming speed.

Table 3 Total lipid TL content, neutral lipid NL content, polar lipid PL content (mg g⁻¹ of dry weight), fatty acid profile of NL and PL (% of fatty acids methyl esters FAME) in *Liza aurata* white muscle according to rearing conditions (LD: fish fed the low-n-3 HUFA diet; and SD: fish fed the standard n-3 HUFA diet) Values are mean \pm standard error (n = 28 for SD group and n = 16 for LD group) Statistical significance of diet is indicated through the *P*, *F* and *df* values (one-way ANOVA)

	Fish con	Statistical analysis				
	SD group	D group LD group		$\boldsymbol{\mathit{F}}$	df_1	df_2
TL	29.34 ± 2.33	30.65 ± 3.46	0.747	0.1	1	43
NL	23.45 ± 2.41	22.34 ± 3.03	0.77	0.08	1	43
PL	5.79 ± 0.46	7.87 ± 1.53	0.12	2.47	1	43
NL						
14:0	4.06 ± 0.10	2.71 ± 0.12	< 0.001	70.8	1	43
16:0	19.08 ± 0.25	17.44 ± 0.42	< 0.001	12.9	1	43
18:0	2.27 ± 0.04	2.55 ± 0.04	< 0.001	23.5	1	43
20:0	0.23 ± 0.01	0.27 ± 0.01	< 0.001	16.7	1	43
Σ SFA	25.86 ± 0.30	23.17 ± 0.49	< 0.001	24.5	1	43
16:1	7.92 ± 0.21	5.52 ± 0.22	< 0.001	56.0	1	43
18:1	26.10 ± 0.34	23.98 ± 0.35	< 0.001	16.1	1	43
Σ MUFA	44.22 ± 0.49	35.85 ± 0.61	< 0.001	109.2	1	43
18:2n-6	11.85 ± 0.75	28.05 ± 1.26	< 0.001	139.9	1	43
20:4n-6	0.37 ± 0.03	0.26 ± 0.02	< 0.001	7.6	1	43
Σ n-6	13.03 ± 0.75	29.14 ± 1.26	< 0.001	137.8	1	43
18:3n-3	2.23 ± 0.06	3.20 ± 0.09	< 0.001	89.3	1	43
20:5n-3	2.38 ± 0.09	1.35 ± 0.15	< 0.001	40.4	1	43
22:6n-3	3.78 ± 0.11	1.62 ± 0.24	< 0.001	86.8	1	43
Σ n-3	11.47 ± 0.22	7.62 ± 0.49	< 0.001	66.3	1	43
Σ HUFA n-3	8.55 ± 0.22	3.98 ± 0.50	< 0.001	94.7	1	43
n-3 / n-6	0.92 ± 0.03	0.29 ± 0.05	< 0.001	144.4	1	43
DHA / EPA	1.62 ± 0.06	1.22 ± 0.07	< 0.001	19.2	1	43
ARA / EPA	0.15 ± 0.01	0.21 ± 0.01	< 0.001	18.7	1	43
PL						
14:0	5.02 ± 0.29	4.00 ± 0.24	0.02	5.7	1	42
16:0	19.40 ± 0.49	17.77 ± 0.55	0.03	4.5	1	42
18:0	5.46 ± 0.54	4.73 ± 0.48	0.37	0.8	1	42
20:0	0.18 ± 0.01	0.17 ± 0.01	0.40	0.7	1	42
Σ SFA	30.41 ± 0.55	26.96 ± 0.52	< 0.001	17.3	1	42
16:1	7.64 ± 0.40	6.18 ± 0.38	0.02	5.8	1	42
18:1	18.01 ± 0.49	16.47 ± 0.44	0.04	4.4	1	42
ΣMUFA	31.85 ± 0.86	26.59 ± 0.76	< 0.001	17.0	1	42

18:2n-6	10.06 ± 0.72	24.79 ± 1.19	< 0.001	127.3	1	42
20:4n-6	1.42 ± 0.17	1.13 ± 0.15	0.25	1.4	1	42
Σ n-6	12.28 ± 0.69	26.81 ± 1.16	< 0.001	132.6	1	42
18:3n-3	2.62 ± 0.15	4.22 ± 0.17	< 0.001	44.1	1	42
20:5n-3	4.85 ± 0.22	3.24 ± 0.26	< 0.001	20.6	1	42
22:6n-3	6.69 ± 0.76	3.80 ± 0.66	< 0.05	6.5	1	42
Σ n-3	18.74 ± 0.98	13.94 ± 0.92	< 0.01	10.5	1	42
Σ HUFA n-3	15.06 ± 1.11	8.88 ± 1.04	< 0.001	13.8	1	42
n-3 / n-6	1.60 ± 0.10	0.56 ± 0.07	< 0.001	51.4	1	42
DHA / EPA	1.34 ± 0.11	1.16 ± 0.14	0.35	0.9	1	42
ARA / EPA	0.28 ± 0.02	0.35 ± 0.03	0.07	3.5	1	42

Abbreviations: ARA: arachidonic acid; df_1 : degree of freedom of numerator; df_2 : degree of freedom of denominator; DHA docosahexaenoic acid; EPA: ecosapentaenoic acid; HUFA: highly unsaturated fatty acids; MUFA: mono-unsaturated fatty acids; SFA: saturated fatty acids

Table 4 Critical swimming speed (U_{crit}), standard metabolic rate (SMR), active metabolic rate (AMR), aerobic scope (AS), haematocrit, plasma osmolality, Fulton index, and hepatosomatic index (HSI) in SD (standard n-3 HUFA fed fish) and LD (low-n-3 HUFA fed fish) groups (mean \pm standard error). N (number of replicates) is indicated below each value. The statistical difference between both groups is indicated (F, P, df_1 : degree of freedom of numerator; df_2 : degree of freedom of denominator) for each parameter measured (one-way ANOVA)

	SGR	U _{crit}	SMR	AMR	AS	Haematocrit	Osmolality	Fulton	HSI
	(% day ⁻¹)	$(BL s^{-1})$	$(mgO_2 kg^{-1} h^{-1})$	$(mgO_2 kg^{-1} h^{-1})$	$(mgO_2 kg^{-1} h^{-1})$	(%)	$(mosmol L^{-1})$	index	
SD	0.4 ± 0.02	6.4 ± 0.2	66.5 ± 11.8	590.2 ± 72.0	523.7 ± 67.1	35.3 ± 2.4	374.1 ± 6.3	0.96 ± 0.02	0.22 ± 0.05
group	(n = 40)	(n=11)	(n=10)	(n=10)	(n=10)	(n = 12)	(n=11)	(n=12)	(n=12)
LD	0.3 ± 0.01	6.9 ± 0.4	38.5 ± 8.7	266.0 ± 24.8	227.5 ± 23.3	44.1 ± 2.9	400.2 ± 10.5	0.99 ± 0.02	0.56 ± 0.32
group	(n = 40)	(n=10)	(n=10)	(n=10)	(n=10)	(n=12)	(n=10)	(n=12)	(n=12)
Statistical	analysis								_
P	0.009	0.276	0.071	0.001	0.001	0.041	0.048	0.305	0.304
F	7.26	1.26	3.67	18.12	17.36	4.72	4.43	1.10	1.10
dfI	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
df_2	72	19	18	18	18	22	19	22	22

Figure Legends

Fig 1 Oxygen consumption (MO₂; mg O₂ Kg⁻¹ h⁻¹; mean \pm standard error SE) as a function of swimming speed (BL s⁻¹) for each fish dietary group: Standard-n-3 HUFA fed fish (SD) are represented by squares, and Low-n-3 HUFA fed fish (LD) are represented by triangles (n = 10 per experimental condition). Solid line and dotted line indicate exponential curves fitted on MO₂ as a function of swimming speed before a plateau was attained for the SD and LD groups, respectively (SD group curve: y = 74.003 e $^{0.3061x}$; $r^2 = 0.98$; LD group curve: y = 45.051 e $^{0.2609x}$: $r^2 = 0.98$).

Fig 2 Recovery status of *L aurata* after the U_{crit} test for each fish dietary group: 987 Mean excess of post-exercise oxygen consumption (\pm standard error SE, EPOC in mgO₂ kg⁻¹) 988 for each dietary group assessed over the whole recovery period (70 min). A significant 989 difference was observed between the groups (P = 0.0037; $F_{I-18} = 4.98$)

Fig 3 Kinetics of calcium fluxes as a function of chemical stimulation for each fish dietary group (standard-n-3 HUFA SD or low-n-3 HUFA LD diet): (a) time to rise (s), (b) time to decay at 50% (s), and (c) amplitude (V) of calcium concentration measured in fish ventricular myocytes following stimulation by hyperpotassic solution (100 k at 100 mM), ryanodine (RYA at 1 μ M), or adrenaline (AD at1 mM). Results are mean \pm standard error SE with the number of cells tested indicated on each mean. One-way ANOVA revealed no significant effect of diet (P > 0.05); ** indicates that RYA had a significant effect on time to rise at P < 0.01 ($F_{2,41} = 10.29$).

Fig 1

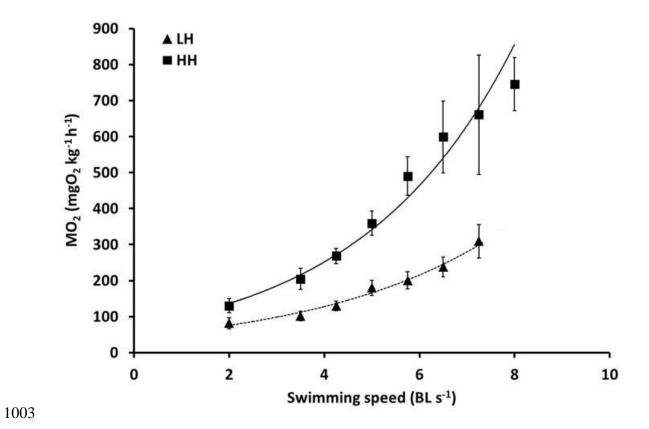


Fig 2

