

Effect of thermal and nutritional conditions on fatty acid metabolism and oxidative stress response in juvenile European sea bass (Dicentrarchus labrax)

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- 2 response in juvenile European sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*)
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19 Abstract

20 Coastal nursery areas are subjected to a wide range of natural and anthropogenic 21 stressors, including global warming, which indirectly influence trophic food webs. A global 22 rarefaction of n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) in trophic networks is in progress. The 23 aim of this study was to assess the effect of a reduction in the dietary availability of n-3 PUFA 24 on some molecular and biochemical parameters related to lipid metabolism and oxidative stress 25 response in juvenile European sea bass (Dicentrarchus labrax) raised at two temperatures 26 (15°C and 20°C). Fish were fed for five months with a reference diet (RD; 1.65% n-3 PUFA 27 on a dry matter basis, DM), used as a proxy of trophic networks where n-3 PUFA is plentiful, 28 and a lower n-3 PUFA diet (LD; 0.73% n-3 PUFA DM), designed to mimic a decrease in n-3 29 PUFA resulting from global changes (the n-3 PUFA levels tested remained above the nutritional 30 minimum required for this species). Results showed that diet did not affect the hepatic 31 expression of some mRNA coding for transcriptional factors involved in regulating the 32 metabolic pathways related to fatty acid bioconversion. Although our molecular analysis was 33 limited to transcript expression, these data suggest the presence of a threshold in the 34 nutritional supply of PUFA above which the activation of these molecular pathways does not 35 occur. However, the expression for most of the transcripts tested was up-regulated at 20°C. 36 Despite the high peroxidation index in fish fed RD, very few modifications of the oxidative 37 stress response were associated with diet. At 20°C, an increase of the enzymatic antioxidant 38 response was observed, but there was no correlation with the peroxidation index or 39 malondialdehyde products.

40 Introduction

41 Many fish species have life history strategies in which successive ontogenetic stages 42 occupy different habitats. In those characterized by the production of large amounts of small 43 pelagic eggs and the lack of parental care, the survival of eggs, larvae, and juveniles strongly 44 depends on abiotic and biotic environmental factors acting on their habitats (Cushing, 1995; 45 Sogard, 1997; Juanes, 2007; Houde, 2008). Coastal zones and estuaries are productive nursery 46 grounds for a large number of marine species because they provide refuge from predators 47 together with high food availability and enhanced survival, development, and growth of early 48 stages (Beck et al., 2001; Able et al., 2013). However, coastal and estuarine nursery areas are 49 subjected to a wide range of anthropogenic and natural stressors. Coastal habitats in particular 50 face anthropogenic activities, including global warming, which indirectly influence trophic 51 food webs (Harley et al., 2006; Lehodey et al., 2006; Brander, 2007; Rijnsdorp et al., 2009; 52 Gattuso et al., 2015; Hixson and Arts, 2016).

53 Lipids represent an important energy supply and play a crucial role as major components 54 of cell membranes (Sargent et al., 2002). In marine trophic networks, polyunsaturated fatty 55 acids (PUFA) are mainly supplied by the dominant phytoplankton species, such as diatoms and 56 dinoflagellates (Hu et al., 2008; Lang et al., 2011). The n-3 PUFA (also known as omega 3), 57 particularly eicosapentenoic acid (EPA) and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA), are naturally 58 abundant for primary consumers. However, it has been shown that phytoplankton growth and biochemical composition, including fatty acids (FA), are affected by temperature (e.g., Arts et 59 60 al., 2009). An increase in water temperature results in a decrease in the omega 3 content of 61 phytoplankton species (Ackman and Tocher, 1968; Thompson et al., 1992; Renaud et al., 2002; 62 Guschina and Harwood, 2006). At least two recent studies have shown a global decline of n-3 63 PUFA in trophic networks while n-6 tends to be more abundant (Colombo et al., 2016; Hixson 64 and Arts, 2016). The high availability of n-3 PUFA in phytoplankton may explain the lack of 65 selection pressure on its biosynthesis pathway in several marine fish species and thus why 66 piscivorous fish have lost the capacity for de novo synthesis of n-3 PUFA (Tocher et al., 2006). 67 In most other fish species, it has been shown that marine species have low capacities to convert 68 18-carbon fatty acids into n-3 PUFA (Owen et al., 1975; Mourente and Tocher, 1994; Sargent 69 et al., 2002; Geay et al., 2010, 2012) due to apparent deficiencies in one or more steps of the 70 biosynthesis pathway (Ghioni et al., 1999; Tocher and Ghioni, 1999; Santigosa et al., 2010). 71 This makes these fishes highly dependent upon dietary sources of n-3 PUFA (Ghioni et al., 72 1999; Tocher and Ghioni, 1999). To what extent the n-3 PUFA decline induced by global 73 climate change may impact species that depend on phytoplankton to fulfill their needs whether 74 as primary or secondary consumers is not yet known. However, it has also been reported that 75 most of the genes coding for the main components of this biosynthesis pathway are present and 76 that their transcription could be up/down regulated by some nutritional or environmental 77 factors (Dias et al., 1998; Gomez-Requeni et al, 2003; Figueiredo-Silva et al., 2009). Thus it is 78 possible to study the regulation of lipid metabolism and the FA synthesis pathway that directly 79 or indirectly result from climate change.

80 Environmental and nutritional factors may alter the amount of functional protein 81 involved in lipid metabolism through a range of transcriptional (e.g., activity of transcription 82 factors), post-transcriptional (e.g., mRNA stability), translational, and post-translational (e.g., 83 phosphorylation) mechanisms. The transcriptional regulation of genes involved in lipogenesis 84 by PUFA is well documented. PUFA are known to bind and directly influence the activity of a 85 variety of transcription factors including peroxisome proliferator activated receptors (**PPAR**), 86 which in turn have been shown to regulate the transcription of many genes involved in lipid 87 homeostatic processes (Jump, 2002). There appears to be several *ppar* variants expressed in 88 fish tissues: *ppara* is mainly expressed in the liver, *ppary* is mainly expressed in adipose tissue, and *pparb* has been found in most tissues (Boukouvala et al., 2004). Sterol regulatory element 89

binding protein-1 (*srebp-1*) is another key transcription factor known to be involved in
fatty acid synthesis assembly (Horton et al., 2002). It is well documented that expression
of the *ppar* and *srebp-1* genes are regulated at the transcriptional level by dietary FA in
mammals (Lindi et al., 2003; Juliano et al., 2004; MacLaren et al., 2006). Similar results have
been reported in fish (Leaver et al., 2005, 2007; Jordal et al., 2007; Dong et al., 2015), including
the European sea bass (Geay et al. 2010, 2012).

96 In mammals, *ppar* and *srebp-1* are the main transcription factors regulating the **mRNA** 97 expression of elongase and desaturase (Nakamura and Nara, 2002, 2003), which are key 98 enzymes involved in PUFA biosynthesis. The first step of the bioconversion pathway 99 requires the delta 6-desaturase gene (fads2; Sprecher, 2000). Another important enzyme 100 system is the fatty acid synthetase complex (FAS), which catalyzes the key lipogenesis pathway 101 in fishes (Sargent et al., 2002). The main products are saturated 16:0 (palmitic acid) and 18:0 102 (stearic acid) FA. In the carnivorous fishes blackspot seabream (Pagellus bogaraveo; 103 Figueiredo-Silva et al., 2009), European sea bass (Dicentrarchus labrax; Dias et al., 1998), and gilthead sea bream (Sparus aurata; Gomez-Requeni et al., 2003), dietary fat intake has been 104 105 shown to inhibit FAS activity.

106 Biological membranes rich in PUFA are highly sensitive to oxidation due to their high 107 level of unsaturation (Pamplona et al., 2000; Hulbert, 2005); this oxidation can lead to the 108 production of reactive oxygen species (ROS). ROS are generated as by-products of cellular 109 metabolism, and mitochondria are a primary site for ROS production (Barja, 2007). Higher 110 temperatures may promote ROS production, especially in organisms rich in membrane PUFA, 111 and this could lead to various cellular and tissular dysfunctions (Kawatsu, 1969; Watanabe et 112 al., 1970; Murai and Andrews, 1974; Sakai et al., 1998). The relative rates of peroxidation of 113 different acyl chains have been used to convert the fatty acid composition of a particular 114 membrane into the peroxidation index (PI; see Hulbert et al., 2007, for details). The PI

115 represents the theoretical susceptibility of membrane lipid composition to lipid peroxidation, 116 and it appears to be homeostatically regulated with respect to dietary PI. In practice, 117 malondialdehyde (MDA) is one lipid peroxidation product that can be measured (Frankel, 118 2005). Under most physiological states, ROS production is closely matched by the antioxidant 119 response. Antioxidant enzymes, such as superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase (CAT), and 120 peroxidases, form an important part of the antioxidant response (Lesser, 2006). In fish species, 121 COX and CS activity have been monitored because they are known to be adjusted to the 122 maximum aerobic metabolism capacity in fish (Childress and Somero, 1979; Thuesen and 123 Childress, 1993, 1994).

124 European seabass migrate offshore to spawn, and the developing larvae drift to sheltered 125 coastal or estuarine nurseries where they spend their first few years of life (Holden and 126 Williams, 1974; Kelley, 1988; Vinagre et al., 2009). During that period, juvenile sea bass 127 exhibit rapid growth and are faced with a broad spectrum of environmental constraints and 128 feeding conditions, making it an attractive model organism to examine the regulatory response 129 of the PUFA biosynthesis pathway. The aim of this study was to test the effects of two levels 130 of n-3 PUFA dietary contents on different molecular (transcript expression) and biochemical 131 (MDA, enzymatic activity) variables related to FA metabolism and antioxidant response, 132 respectively, in European sea bass juveniles raised at two different temperatures. To obtain 133 realistic responses in terms of a global change scenario, we exposed European sea bass to 134 temperatures of 15°C (current average temperature to which the Atlantic sea bass population is 135 exposed) and 20°C (to mimic the temperature rise that is expected over the next 80 years; 136 Gattuso et al. 2015). We hypothesized that a diet poor in n-3 PUFA would activate lipid 137 biosynthesis while a diet richer in n-3 PUFA would lead to oxidative stress and would worsen 138 under higher temperature conditions.

Materials and methods

140 Feeding experiment

141 The protocols for fish maintenance, diet composition, and nutritional conditioning are 142 detailed in Gourtay et al. (2018). They are summarized here to facilitate understanding of the 143 experimental protocol. Adult European sea bass were captured in winter 2013 by fishermen in 144 the Gulf of Morbihan (Plomeur, France) and brought to the Aquastream hatchery (Lorient, 145 France). After three years in captivity, a batch of four females and 10 males were bred in the 146 facility. At day 2 post hatching (dph-2), sea bass larvae were transferred to the Ifremer rearing 147 facility in Brest (France), where experiments were conducted. Larvae were divided among three 148 conical tanks (230 L, 10 µm filtered seawater, UV, salinity 35, initial density 10,000 larvae 149 tank-¹). Water temperature in the tanks was progressively increased from 14°C to 20°C over 150 six days. Larvae were fed with Artemia from mouth opening (dph-8) to dph-39 and with 151 microparticulate feed (Marinstart, Le Gouessant, Lamballe, France) until dph-74. After dph-74, 152 juveniles were fed with larger pellets for ornamental fish (EPA + DHA = 1.5%; Le Gouessant, 153 Lamballe, France) until the beginning of the experiment at d-93.

The two diets tested were identical except for the FA source. The low n-3 PUFA diet (LD) contained only colza oil as a source of FA (essentially oleic acid [18:1n-9], linoleic acid [18:2n-6], and linolenic acid [18:3n-3]; EPA+DHA = 0.73% DM), while the reference diet (RD) contained 50% colza oil and 50% fish oil, the latter being richer in EPA and DHA (20:5n-3, 22:6n-3; EPA+DHA = 1.65% DM). Diets were isoenergetic and contained the same percentages of proteins and lipids (Table 1).

160 At d-93, juveniles $(0.75 \pm 0.02 \text{ g}; 3.57 \pm 0.02 \text{ cm}; \text{mean} \pm \text{SD})$ were divided among 12 161 indoor 500 L tanks supplied with filtered and aerated natural seawater, six of which were 162 maintained at 15°C and the other six at 20°C. Each tank contained 300 fish, representing a mean 163 biomass of 263.93 \pm 0.28 g. During the following 150 days, fish were fed one of the two 164 experimental diets. Feeding took place for 7 h during daytime (08:00 to 15:00) using an automatic distributor (treadmill, 2 cm h^{-1}); daily visual control was done to ensure that the food distributed had been consumed and that fish were fed *ad libitum*. Each diet × temperature combination was replicated in three tanks.

168 Tissue sampling

169 To account for the impact of temperature alone on fish growth, sampling dates were 170 calculated in degree-days (dd) relative to the first day of the experiment (D0) at dph-93 and 0 171 dd. At 720 dd after the beginning of the experiment (dph-129, D36, and dph-141, D48, at 20°C 172 and 15°C, respectively) and at 1660 dd (dph-176, D83, and dph-204, D111, at 20°C and 15°C, 173 respectively), 32 fish were randomly sampled from each tank (three tanks per treatment, N = 96 per treatment), anaesthetized (lethal concentration of MS-222, 200 mg L⁻¹), and their livers 174 175 excised. Because livers were small, the livers of eight juveniles were pooled for a total of four pools per tank and 12 per experimental condition. Pools were stored at -80°C. Two pools per 176 177 tank were used for molecular biology analysis (N = 6 per experimental treatment for a total of 178 24), one pool was used for enzyme activity, and the fourth was used for malondialdehyde (MDA) analysis (N = 3 per experimental condition). 179

180 Peroxidation index, enzyme activity, and malondialdehyde assay

181 The peroxidation index (PI) was calculated for total dietary lipids and the polar fraction 182 of muscle lipids (see Gourtay et al. [2018] for details of fatty acid content) following the 183 equation provided by Hulbert et al. (2007):

184 $PI = (0.025 \times \% \text{ monoenoics}) + (1 \times \% \text{ dienoics}) + (2 \times \% \text{ trienoics}) + (4 \times \% \text{ tetraenoics}) + (6 \times \% \text{$

- 185 \times % pentaenoics) + (8 \times % hexaenoics).
- 186 Liver samples were reduced to powder using a mixer mill (MM 400, Retsch, 30 Hz, 30 s) with
- 187 liquid nitrogen. To extract total proteins, 100 mg of liver powder was diluted in 1 mL lysis

188 buffer (150 mM NaCl, 10 mM Tris-HCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM EGTA, 1% Triton X100, 0.5% 189 Igepal, 1% phosphatase inhibitor cocktail II, 2% NaPPi, and 1 tablet EDTA-free protease 190 inhibitor cocktail, pH adjusted to 7). Samples were then homogenized on ice using a pro 191 polytron® (BioBlock Scientific; Illkirch, Bas-Rhin, France). For protein extraction, samples 192 were left on ice for 40 min and then centrifuged (3-30K Sigma, 6000 g, 1 h, 4°C). The middle 193 phase containing the protein extract was recovered with a Pasteur pipette and centrifuged (3-194 30K Sigma, 10000 g, 45 min, 4°C). The resulting middle phase containing the protein extract 195 was recovered with a Pasteur pipette, separated into aliquots, and stored at -80° C for the 196 enzyme activity assay.

197 Total protein concentrations of the liver homogenates were assayed in triplicate 198 according to the Bio-Rad DC Protein Assay (ref: 5000116, Bio-Rad), which is based on the 199 Lowry assay (Lowry et al., 1951).

Specific CAT activity was measured in triplicate according to Aebi (1984) by observing the decomposition of H₂O₂ into oxygen and water. The reaction mixture consisted of 20 mM phosphate (pH 7) and 10 mM H₂O₂. We used a Multiskan GO (Thermo Scientific) plate reader with GREINER UV-Star 96 (ref: M3812, Sigma). The kinetics of the colouring solutions were monitored at 22°C by reading absorbance at 240 nm every 10 s for 4 min.

The specific enzyme activity of superoxide dismutase (SOD, combined Cu, Zn-SOD, and Mn-SOD) was determined in triplicate using a commercial kit (ref: 19160, Sigma), with a NUNC F-bottom 96-well (Thermo Scientific) and Multiskan GO (Thermo Scientific) plate reader. Final absorbances were read at 450 nm after 20 min incubations at 37°C.

The specific enzyme activity of cytochrome c oxidase (COX) was measured in triplicate using a commercial kit (ref: CYTOCOX1, Sigma) combined with an Evolution 21 UV-Visible Spectrometer (Thermo Scientific). The kinetics of colouring solutions were monitored at 25°C by reading absorbance at 550 nm every 0.25 s for 1 min. The specific enzyme activity of citrate synthase (CS) was measured in triplicate according to Srere (1969) and Bergmeyer et al. (1974). The assay medium contained 100 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8), 10 mM DTNB, and 2 mM acetyl-CoA. Liver homogenates and assay media were protected from light and incubated for 5 min in NUNC F-bottom 96-well plates (Thermo Scientific); 5 mM oxaloacetate solution was added to initiate the reaction. The kinetics of colouring solutions were monitored at 25°C by reading absorbance at 412 nm every 10 s for 4 min.

220 The lipid peroxide assay was adapted from the thiobarbituric acid reactive substances 221 (TBARS) protocol (Uchiyama and Mihara, 1978). Liver samples were ground on ice using a 222 POLYTRON PT-MR 2100 with distilled water containing 1% BHT in methanol, with 50 mg 223 of liver for 1 mL of grinding solution. A total of 500 µL of 1% TBA and 1.5 mL of 1% 224 phosphoric acid were added to 500 μ L of liver homogenate. This mixture was heated for 30 225 min at 100°C and cooled for 30 min on ice, at which point 2 mL of butanol were added and the 226 mixture vortexed. Protein precipitates were removed by centrifugation at 800 g. The absorbance 227 of the supernatant was read in NUNC F-bottom 96-well plates (Thermo Scientific) with a 228 Multiskan GO spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific) at 532 nm. The results were calculated 229 using an MDA standard curve with butanol as the solvent.

230

231 **mRNA** expression analysis

232 RNA extraction

Liver samples were reduced to powder using a mixer mill (MM 400, Retsch, 30 Hz, 30 s) with liquid nitrogen. Samples (50–100 mg) were placed in 1 mL of Extractall reagent (Eurobio; Courtaboeuf, Essone, France) and homogenized using a pro polytron® (BioBlock Scientific; Illkirch, Bas-Rhin, France) tissue disruptor for 30 s. Potential contaminating DNA

was removed using an RTS DNase[™] Kit (MoBio Laboratories Inc., Carlsbad, CA, USA) 237 238 according to the manufacturer's recommendations. Total RNA was extracted following the 239 manufacturer's instructions. The quantity and purity of RNA were assessed using an ND-1000 240 NanoDrop® spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific Inc.; Waltham, MA, USA). RNA integrity 241 was determined by electrophoresis using an Agilent Bioanalyzer 2100 (Agilent Technologies 242 Inc.; Santa Clara, CA, USA). All samples had an RNA integrity number (RIN) higher than 243 seven and could thus be used for real-time quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) 244 analysis. RNA samples were stored at -80° C until use.

cDNA synthesis

246 After extraction, total RNA was reverse transcribed into cDNA using an iScriptTM 247 cDNA Synthesis kit (Bio-Rad Laboratories Inc., Hercules, CA, USA) following the 248 manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, 500 ng total RNA was reverse transcribed into cDNA in a 249 volume of 20 μ L that was composed of 15 μ L of sample; 4 μ L 5 \times iScriptTM Reaction Mix 250 containing oligo (dT), random primers, and RNaseA inhibitor; and 1 µL of iScript[™] reverse 251 transcriptase. Reverse transcription (RT) negative controls were also performed on each sample 252 using the same reaction mix except for the reverse transcriptase (substituted by water). The 253 cDNA synthesis reaction was incubated for 5 min at 25°C followed by 30 min at 42°C and 254 terminated by incubation for 5 min at 85°C to inactivate the enzyme. RT was performed using 255 a T 100 Thermal-cycler (Bio-Rad Laboratories Inc.). cDNA samples were stored at -20° C until 256 use.

257 Quantitative real-time RT-PCR analysis

The analysis of **mRNA** expression in liver tissue of European sea bass was carried out by qPCR using the primers listed in Table 2. Primers were designed using Primer3plus (http://primer3plus.com/) based on sequences available from the Genbank database

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/). mRNA expression was quantified using a C1000 261 262 touch thermal cycler (CFX96 system, Bio-Rad Laboratories Inc.). For each primer pair, qPCR 263 efficiencies were estimated by standard curves resulting from serial dilutions (from 1/10 to 264 1/270) of a pool of cDNA. In the present study, qPCR efficiencies for each primer pair ranged from 95 to 100%, with $R^2 > 0.99$. Samples were then analyzed in triplicate. The final well 265 266 volume was 15 μ L containing 5 μ L cDNA (1/30 dilution) and 10 μ L of reaction mix (0.5 μ L 267 of each primer [10 µM]), 1.5 µL RNase/DNase-free water, 7.5 µL iQ[™] SYBR® Green 268 Supermix (Bio-Rad Laboratories Inc.) containing antibody-mediated hot-started iTaq DNA 269 polymerase, dNTPs, MgCl2, SYBR® Green I dye, fluorescein, stabilizers, and enhancers. In 270 each plate, negative controls (RT negative controls) were systematically included to ensure the 271 absence of residual genomic DNA contamination. Non-template controls (H2O) were also 272 analyzed. Each plate contained an inter-run calibrator in triplicate (dilutions of a pool of all 273 samples). The qPCR thermal cycling included an initial activation step at 95°C for 2 min 274 followed by 39 cycles of 5 s at 95°C and 20 s at 60°C. A melting curve was performed at the 275 end of the amplification phase to confirm the amplification of a single product in each reaction. 276 The corresponding Cq (quantification cycle) value was determined automatically for each 277 sample using the Gene Expression Module of the CFX Manager software (Bio-Rad 278 Laboratories Inc.). Cq is the number of cycles required to yield a detectable fluorescence signal. 279 The CFX Manager Software was used to normalize the relative quantity of messenger with the 280 $\Delta\Delta Ct$ method. The expression level of elongation factor 1 (ef1a) and ribosomal (28S) mRNA 281 were tested to correct for loading differences or other sampling variations present in each 282 sample. The efla mRNA was used for normalization in the liver tissue of juvenile fish since 283 it did not show any significant variation of expression among experimental conditions (P >284 0.05).

285 Statistical and data analysis

286	Relative mRNA expressions and enzyme activity data were log10 transformed to obtain
287	normal distributions. The effects of time, temperature, and diet were tested for peroxidation
288	index, relative mRNA expression (<i>ppara</i> , <i>pparβ</i> , <i>pparγ</i> , <i>fas</i> , <i>srebp-1</i> , <i>fads2</i>), enzyme activity
289	(CAT, SOD, CS, COX), and MDA content using three-way ANOVAs. Normality and
290	homoscedasticity of data were tested using Shapiro-Wilk and Levene tests, respectively. When
291	appropriate, Tukey mean comparison tests were done because homoscedasticity was respected.
292	Differences were considered significant at $\alpha = 0.05$. Statistical analyses were conducted in R
293	(ver. 3.3.3; R Development Core Team).

294 **Results**

295 Liver mass and protein content

296 Results showing the effect of diet, temperature, and time on liver mass and hepatic 297 protein content are shown in Table 3A. After 720 dd of feeding, liver mass was significantly 298 higher (+48%) in juveniles reared at 20°C than at 15°C, and diet had no significant effect (Table 299 3A). At 1660 dd, the increase in liver mass was higher for juveniles reared at 20° C (+67%) than 300 for those reared at 15°C (+59%), while liver mass was still higher (+58%) in juveniles reared 301 at 20°C than at 15°C. Again, no diet effect was detected. Liver protein concentration decreased significantly over time $(0.12 \pm 0.01 \text{ mg protein mg liver}^{-1} \text{ at } 720 \text{ dd vs.} 0.10 \pm 0.00 \text{ mg protein}$ 302 mg liver⁻¹ at 1660 dd), and no significant effect of diet or of temperature was observed. 303

304 Peroxidation index and MDA

The PI of the RD diet was 34% higher than that of the LD diet (15.86 ± 1.78 vs. 10.52 306 \pm 0.50). Accordingly, the PI in the polar lipids of juveniles fed RD was significantly higher 307 (+18%) compared to fish fed LD (45.36 ± 6.96 vs. 38.50 ± 5.45 ; Table 3A). The temperature × 308 diet interaction was significant although no difference was detected with the post-hoc test 309 (Table 3A). Surprisingly, MDA content was not affected by diet or temperature; however, MDA

310 content increased with time $(2.06 \pm 0.48 \text{ vs. } 2.77 \pm 0.45 \text{ nmol mg protein}^{-1}; \text{ Table 3A}).$

311 Oxidative metabolism and antioxidant response

312 Results showing the effect of diet, temperature, and time on oxidative stress indicators 313 are also shown in Table 3A. CS activity remained stable regardless of the experimental 314 treatment, while COX activity varied depending on diet \times temperature and degree-days \times 315 temperature interactions. There was no temperature effect on COX activity at 720 dd, but fish 316 raised at 20°C exhibited a higher COX activity at 1660 dd than fish reared at 15°C. COX activity 317 was significantly lower in fish fed RD at 720 dd, although this diet effect was no longer present 318 at 1660 dd. The COX/CS ratio was higher (+15%) in juveniles fed LD than in those fed RD 319 $(6.01 \pm 1.21 \text{ vs. } 5.09 \pm 1.80)$. In addition, the COX/CS ratio remained stable over time for fish 320 raised at 15°C but increased in fish raised at 20°C. CAT activity increased slightly but 321 significantly over time at both 15°C and 20°C (70 ± 7.93 vs. 105 ± 27.01). At 20°C, however, 322 juveniles fed the RD diet displayed CAT activity that was more than twice the activity measured 323 in LD-fed fish. At 1660 dd, the diet effect was no longer present. SOD activity was significantly lower (-8%) in juveniles fed RD compared to those fed LD (3.94 ± 0.36 U mg protein⁻¹ vs. 4.25 324 \pm 0.43 U mg protein⁻¹). SOD activity significantly decreased (-8%) with time (4.25 \pm 0.31 U 325 mg protein⁻¹ at 1660 dd vs. 3.95 ± 0.47 U mg protein⁻¹ at 720 dd). There was also a significant 326 increase in SOD activity (+10%) at the higher temperature $(3.91 \pm 0.43 \text{ U mg protein}^{-1} \text{ at } 15 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ 327 vs. 4.29 ± 0.33 U mg protein⁻¹ at 20°C). 328

329 Relative **mRNA** expressions

The relative **mRNA** expression of *fads2* increased with time. At 720 dd, the relative **level** of *fads2* **mRNA** was highest at 20°C in juveniles fed LD and lowest at 15°C in juveniles fed RD (Table 3, Fig. 1A). After 1660 dd of feeding, there was no significant increase of the 333 fads2 mRNA level in juveniles fed LD at 15°C or RD at 20°C; however, the level was higher 334 in juveniles fed RD at 15°C and LD at 20°C (Table 3B, Fig. 1A). The expressions of other 335 mRNA showed no differences according to diet: expressions of fas, ppary, and srebp-1 mRNA 336 were significantly lower (158%, 29%, and 24%, respectively) for fish raised at 15°C than at 337 20°C (Table 3B, Fig. 1B). These expressions were respectively 630%, 91%, and 118% lower 338 at 720 dd than at 1660 dd (Table 3B, Fig. 1B). The highest relative **mRNA** expression for *ppara*. 339 was observed at 1600 dd for fish raised at 20°C (Table 3B, Fig. 1B); no treatment effect was 340 observed for the expression of $ppar\beta$ mRNA (Table 3B).

341 **Discussion**

342 In a previous study, Gourtay et al. (2018) showed that the depletion of n-3 PUFA and a 343 lower temperature (15°C) contributed to a decreased growth rate in sea bass: the depleted n-3 344 PUFA diet resulted in lower contents of essential fatty acids (EFA, ARA, DHA, EPA) in muscle 345 even though a higher retention of those FA was noted in fish fed this diet (Gourtay et al., 2018). 346 The aim of the present work was to examine to what extent these diets and temperatures (15°C 347 and 20°C) can affect the expression of mRNA coding for enzymes/transcription factors 348 involved in lipid metabolism and biochemical variables related to antioxidant response in liver. 349 We hypothesized that a diet poor in n-3 PUFA would activate lipid biosynthesis while a diet 350 richer in n-3 PUFA would lead to oxidative stress.

We are aware that our quantitative analyses of transcripts coding for actors involved in lipid metabolism do not necessarily reflect the activities of the proteins and thus cannot be used to infer metabolic activities. However, the relative levels of transcripts reflect the transcriptional regulation of metabolic constituents, which may reflect the sensitivity of the associated metabolic pathway to environmental or dietary factors.

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357 mRNA expression, lipid metabolism, and antioxidant enzymes

358 Our results based on *fads2* mRNA level quantification only partly support the hypothesis of an activation of the pathway involved in lipid biosynthesis. Indeed, the 359 360 relative expression of *fads2* mRNA was affected by diet, but even though the highest mRNA 361 level was observed in LD-fed fish at 20°C on the first sampling date, the situation was 362 completely reversed at the end of the study, making the results difficult to interpret. We 363 observed no effect of diet on fas, ppar α , ppar β , ppar γ , or srebp-1 mRNA expression. Regulation 364 at translational and post-translational levels certainly cannot be excluded, but data on mRNA 365 expression suggest no diet effects on these indicators at the dietary PUFA levels tested here. 366 This indicates that LD was probably not low enough in PUFA to exert negative effects at the 367 transcriptional level on these constituents, even though it did result in a lower growth rate in 368 both length and mass (Gourtay et al., 2018). Comparable conclusions were drawn by Yilmaz et 369 al. (2016) for juvenile sea bass and by Tocher et al. (2006) for cod. Our results contrast with 370 those obtained for sea bass by Vagner et al. (2007a, b, 2009), who showed that the fads2 mRNA 371 level was higher in larvae fed a low PUFA diet (0.5% or 0.7% EPA+DHA, % DM) compared 372 to those fed a high PUFA diet (1.7% or 3.7% EPA+ DHA, % DM). González-Rovira et al. 373 (2009) also showed a significantly higher fads2 mRNA level in the liver of sea bass fed linseed 374 and rapeseed oils compared to those fed fish oil, while it remained stable in individuals fed a 375 diet based on olive oil. Because all these sea bass studies were based on different dietary 376 formulations and different developmental stages, it is difficult to determine why our results 377 would differ from theirs. As mentioned above, previous studies reporting modulation of the 378 elongation and desaturation pathways used diets that were highly deficient in EPA + DHA 379 (Vagner et al. 2007a, b, 2009). We could have used a diet that would have been more deficient. 380 However, LD was already sufficiently low in n-3 PUFA to significantly slow the growth rate, 381 and an effect on *fads2* mRNA level in the liver was expected. Obviously, the level of depletion

we used does not seem to dramatically affect regulation of the lipid metabolism pathway
because the requirements are still met in this species (Skalli et al., 2006), even though this was
not tested at all the possible steps from mRNA to the number of proteins.

385 There is growing evidence that inclusion of high levels of PUFA in fish diet, because of their high degree of unsaturation, can induce oxidative lipid damage (Álvarez et al., 1998; Luo 386 387 et al., 2012). Thus, we were expecting lower response indicators of oxidative stress in fish fed 388 LD. The CS enzyme catalyzes the first step of the tricarboxylic acid cycle, while COX has 389 a specific role as terminal electron acceptor in the electron transport system. They are 390 both key enzymes involved in aerobic metabolism and can be used as indicators of aerobic 391 metabolic capacity (Marie et al. 2006). The tricarboxylic acid cycle in liver also supports 392 biosynthetic processes such as lipid biosynthesis or gluconeogenesis from malate (Owen 393 et al., 2002; Windisch et al., 2011). Accordingly, the COX to CS ratio can be used to reflect 394 preferred metabolic pathways and relative metabolic adjustments in response to warming 395 in a tissue. Furthermore, changes in COX activity may be related to alterations in 396 mitochondrial membrane structure (Wodtke, 1981; O'Brien and Mueller, 2010) and those 397 in CS activity to changes in mitochondrial matrix volume (e.g., Hardewig et al., 1999; Guderley and St-Pierre, 2002; Guderley, 2004). In our study, COX activity was the lowest 398 399 in fish fed RD at 720 dd; low COX activity can suggest decreased oxidative capacities, 400 which may support lower metabolic costs with the RD diet. The COX/CS ratio was higher 401 in LD-fed fish, suggesting higher aerobic metabolism and possibly indicating a functional 402 adaptation of mitochondria to adjust energy demand and metabolic fuel availability (i.e., lipids 403 biosynthesis). PI is a theoretical index that is calculated with *in vitro* oxidation rate values 404 (Holman, 1954; Cosgrove et al., 1987; Hulbert et al., 2007), and it does not account for all the 405 in vivo processes that occur to deal with ROS production. CAT activity (degradation of hydrogen peroxide into water and oxygen) was twice as high in RD-fed juveniles compared to 406

407 those fed LD, and they showed the highest PI—which is consistent with our expectations—but 408 only at 20°C. On the other hand, MDA content remained stable regardless of diet, but we are 409 aware that the method we used was not the most reliable one, even though it is commonly used 410 in fish studies (Mourente et al., 2002; Simonato et al., 2015; Sobjak et al., 2017). However, the 411 activity of SOD (catalyzing the dismutation of superoxide radicals into oxygen or hydrogen 412 peroxide) was higher in juveniles fed LD than in those fed RD, suggesting the presence of more 413 substrate to be catalyzed.

414 **Temperature and diet effects**

415 Higher temperatures in combination with poor n-3 PUFA could affect the lipid 416 metabolism pathway. The relative mRNA expressions of *fas*, *ppary*, and *srebp-1* increased over 417 time and with acclimation temperature, but the temperature effect was independent of the diet 418 effect, indicating that a positive transcriptional regulation of lipid metabolism may occur at 419 high temperatures. The fads2 mRNA expression tended to increase over time, but not 420 significantly due to the high inter-individual variability within experimental treatments at 1660 421 dd. Such a variability in relative **mRNA** expression has been observed in this species (Geay et 422 al., 2010), and more investigation is required to determine the reasons. Gourtay et al. (2018) 423 showed that higher growth was observed in juveniles fed the same experimental diets at 20°C 424 compared to 15°C, accompanied with higher polar DHA and ARA contents and neutral DHA 425 content (only at 1660 dd for this parameter). Again, it must be remembered that the quantity 426 of transcripts measured by qPCR does not necessarily reflect the amount of proteins, 427 especially since temperature may affect the transcription-translation relationship. 428 Nevertheless, our results support the hypothesis that acclimation temperature enhanced the 429 expression of mRNA associated with regulation of the lipid metabolism.

430 In several organisms including fish, it has been shown that COX and CS activities reflect 431 maximum aerobic metabolic capacity (Childress and Somero, 1979; Thuesen and Childress, 432 1993, 1994). Elevated temperature stimulates metabolic processes in ectotherms, increasing 433 ATP demand and, therefore, electron transfers along the mitochondrial respiratory chain, 434 possibly explaining the higher COX activity and COX/CS ratio recorded at 20°C. These results 435 corroborate those of Seebacher et al. (2005) in Pagothenia borchgrevinki, which responds 436 to warming by increasing muscle COX activity. The authors suggest that high COX 437 activity comes along with increased oxidative capacities, and these may support elevated 438 metabolic costs at warmer temperatures. Such circumstances are also likely to enhance ROS 439 production as a side product, which can imply higher likelihood of oxidative stress, but only 440 if the rates of ROS production exceed the system's capacity to eliminate those ROS that 441 result in oxidative stress. Increased environmental temperature has been associated with 442 oxidative stress in fish (Parihar and Dubey, 1995; Heise et al., 2006a, b; Lushchak and 443 Bagnyukova, 2006; Bagnyukova et al., 2007). Vinagre et al. (2012) studied the impact of 444 temperature on oxidative stress in sea bass juveniles and found that lipid peroxidation and 445 catalase activity were very sensitive to environmental temperature. Accordingly, SOD activity 446 was higher at 20°C than at 15°C, and the highest CAT activity was observed at 720 dd in fish 447 fed LD at 20°C.

Liver mass increased with time and temperature, but proteins remained relatively stable. This means that total enzymatic activity (per mg of tissue) was related to liver mass only. At 20°C, total enzymatic activity should be higher and thus enable fish to cope with oxidative stress. The absence of change with temperature in the MDA content, which is one of the products of lipid peroxidation (Frankel, 2005), again did not match the original hypothesis. Some of the variables that we measured showed differences during the experiment without interaction with either diet or temperature. Thus, liver protein concentration and 455 liver SOD activity decreased over time in juveniles, while the MDA content and relative 456 mRNA expression of *fads2* increased with time. Whether these modifications related to 457 development or with acclimation to physical experimental conditions is hard to say, but 458 obviously they were independent of diet or temperature conditions.

459 **Conclusion**

460 Our objective was to use long-term experimental conditions with treatment levels that 461 were realistic in terms of a global change scenario to test the hypothesis that a diet poor in n-3 462 PUFA would activate lipid biosynthesis while a diet richer in n-3 PUFA would lead to oxidative 463 stress and would worsen under higher temperature conditions. We were unable to confirm this 464 working hypothesis. We conclude that both levels of n-3 PUFA tested in this study were high 465 enough so as not to impair lipid metabolism in sea bass juveniles. The combination of a decrease 466 in dietary n-3 PUFA along with an increase in temperature conditions will modify the oxidative 467 stress response, but at a level that juveniles can cope with.

468

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475 Compliance with ethical standards

476 Conflict of interest

- 477 The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.
- 478 Ethical approval

479	All applicable international, national, and/or institutional guidelines for the care and use
480	of animals were followed. Experiments were performed under French national regulations and
481	approved by the Comité d'Éthique Finistérien en Expérimentation Animale (CEFEA,
482	registration code C2EA-74) (Authorization APAFIS 3056# 20151207173873100).
483	

484 List of symbols and abbreviations

ARA:	arachidonic acid
CAT:	catalase enzyme
COX:	cytochrome c oxidase enzyme
CS:	citrate synthase enzyme
d-:	days post hatch
dd:	degree-days
DHA:	docosahexaenoic acid
DM:	dry matter
efla:	elongation factor 1
EFA:	essential fatty acid
EPA:	eicosapentaenoic acid
FA:	fatty acid
fads2:	delta 6 desaturase gene
fas:	fatty acid synthase gene
LD:	low n-3 polyunsaturated diet
MDA:	malondialdehyde
MUFA:	monounsaturated fatty acid
n-3:	omega 3
n-6:	omega 6
PI:	peroxidation index
ppar:	peroxisome proliferator activated receptors
PUFA:	polyunsaturated fatty acid
qPCR:	quantitative polymerase chain reaction
RD:	reference diet
RIN:	RNA integrity number
ROS:	reactive oxygen species
RT:	reverse transcription
SOD:	superoxide dismutase enzyme
TBARS:	thiobarbituric acid reactive substances

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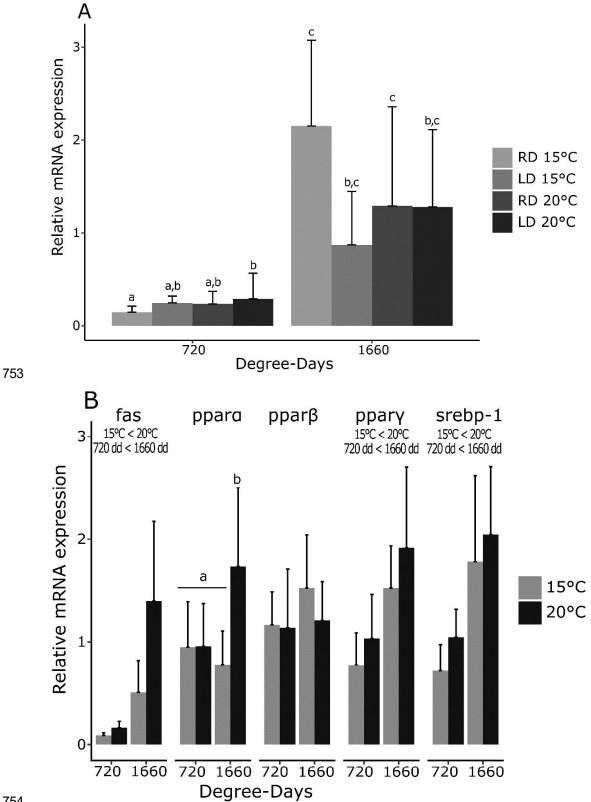
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746 Figures

747 Figure 1: Results of three-way ANOVAs on lipid metabolism. A) Interaction between diet,

- time (in degree-days [dd]), and temperature on *fads2* mRNA expression level. B) Effect of
- 749 time (dd) and temperature on relative **mRNA** expression for *fas*, *ppara*, *pparb*, *ppary*, and
- *srebp-1*. When factor interactions were significant, groups were compared with Tukey post-hoc
- tests ($\alpha = 0.05$); significantly different groups were assigned different letters. Bars represent
- 752 means and error bars are standard deviations; N = 6.



755 **Tables**

756 Table 1: Composition of experimental diets. For dry matter, proteins, total lipids, triglycerides,

- 757 and phospholipids, data are presented as % of dry mass. Data for specific fatty acid (FA)
- categories are presented as % of total lipids. LD: low n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acid (PUFA)
- diet, RD: reference n-3 PUFA diet; SFA: saturated FA; MUFA: monounsaturated FA; ARA:
- 760 arachidonic acid; EPA: eicosapentaenoic acid; DHA: docosahexaenoic acid

	Low n-3 PUFA diet	Reference n-3 PUFA diet			
	LD	RD			
	Proximal composition (%DM)				
Dry matter	94.84	95.12			
Ash	5.16	4.88			
Proteins	50.48	50.23			
Nitrogen Free Extract (NFE) ^a	22.38	23.26			
Total lipids	21.98	21.63			
Triglycerides	16.99	17.05			
Phospholipids	4.70	4.71			
Energy (kJ) ^b	2045.41	2042.73			
	% of total lipids in diet				
SFA	2.18	2.97			
Monosaturated FA	7.32	6.48			
n-3	1.93	2.68			
n-6	2.65	2.28			
n-9	6.56	5.46			
EPA+DHA	0.73	1.65			
18:1n-9	5.69	4.65			
18:2n-6	2.50	2.16			
18:3n-3	0.97	0.77			
18:3n-6	0.00	0.01			
18:4n-3	0.08	0.14			
20:4n-6	0.03	0.07			
20:5n-3	0.28	0.94			
22:5n-3	0.03	0.07			

22:6n-3	0.45	0.71

- 761 ^aCalculated as 100 (%proteins + %total lipids + %ash)
- 762 ^b Calculated as %proteins \times 16.7 kgJ g⁻¹ + %total lipids \times 37.7 kgJ g⁻¹ + NFE \times 16.7 kgJ g⁻¹
- 763 Each diet (LD and RD) was manufactured in a single batch of 50 kg to supply the entire
- respective to the experiment. Since diets were only produced once, there was no variation during the experiment.

765

766 Table 2: Specific primers used for quantitative PCR with Genbank accession numbers

Gene name (abbreviation)	Accession number	Forward primer sequence (5'-3')	Reverse primer sequence (5'-3')
28S ribosomal RNA (28S)	CBXY010007006	TTTCCCATGAGAGAGCAGGT	TCAGATGCGCTTCTTAGGATGT
Elongation factor 1 a (<i>ef1a</i>) *	AJ866727.1	GCTTCGAGGAAATCACCAAG	CAACCTTCCATCCCTTGAAC
Fatty acid synthase (fas)	MF566098.1	CCTCTGAACCTGGTCTGGTG	ATTGGAGAGAGCCTCCACGA
Delta-6-desaturase (fads2)	EU439924.1	AGCATCACGCTAAACCCAAC	CAAGCCAGATCCACCCAGTC
Peroxisome proliferator activated receptors alpha (ppara)	AJ880087.1	ACCTCAGCGATCAGGTGACT	AACTTCGGCTCCATCATGTC
Peroxisome proliferator activated receptors beta ($ppar\beta$)	AJ880088.1	GCTCGGATCTGAAGACCTTG	TGGCTCCATACCAAACCACT
Peroxisome proliferator activated receptors gamma (ppary)	AY590303	CAGATCTGAGGGCTCTGTCC	CCTGGGTGGGTATCTGCTTA
Sterol regulatory element binding protein 1 (srebp-1)	FN677951	CTGGAGCCAAAACAGAGGAG	GACAGGAAGGAGGAGGAAG

767 *Used as housekeeping gene

Table 3: A) Effect of diet, temperature, and time on liver oxidative stress indicators (N=3) and B) lipid metabolism (N=6). When factor interactions were significant, groups were compared with Tukey post-hoc tests ($\alpha = 0.05$); significantly different groups were assigned different letters. RD: reference diet, LD: low n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acid diet, dd: degree-days, Temp.: temperature.

Α		720 D	egree-days		1660 Degree-days				Three-way ANOVA				
	15 °C		20	20°C		15 °C		20°C		Timee-way ANOVA			
	RD	LD	RD	LD	RD	LD	RD	LD	Time	Temperature	Diet	Interaction	
Liver mass (g)	0.3 ± 0.02^{a}	0.31 ± 0.01^a	0.62 ± 0.07^{bc}	0.55 ± 0.14^{b}	0.86 ± 0.07^{c}	0.61 ± 0.06^{bc}	1.77 ± 0.4^{d}	$1.74\pm0.19^{\hbox{d}}$	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	$\begin{array}{l} \text{Time} \times \text{Temp.} \times \text{Diet } P < 0.05 \\ F(1,16) = 4.89 \end{array}$	
Protein (mg prot mg liver ⁻¹)	0.13 ± 0.01	0.13 ± 0.01	0.12 ± 0	0.11 ± 0.02	0.11 ± 0	0.1 ± 0.01	0.1 ± 0.01	0.1 ± 0.01	$\begin{array}{l} P < 0.001 \\ F(1,16) = 24.71 \\ 1600 \ \text{dd} < 720 \ \text{dd} \end{array}$	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	
CAT (mU mg prot ⁻¹)	60.05 ± 2.9^a	69.62 ± 4.59^{ab}	78.28 ± 1.94^{bc}	143.37 ± 22.97^{e}	78.12 ± 5.82^{bc}	73.62 ± 4.04^{ab}	103.75 ± 7.3^{d}	97.68 ± 8.5^{cd}	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	Time \times Temp. \times Diet P < 0.001 F(1,16) = 11.67	
SOD (U mg prot ⁻¹)	3.98 ± 0.36	4.35 ± 0.17	4.09 ± 0.08	4.56 ± 0.23	3.47 ± 0.22	3.84 ± 0.45	4.22 ± 0.18	4.27 ± 0.57	$\begin{array}{c} P < 0.05 \\ F(1,16) = 5.83 \\ 1600 \ \text{dd} < 720 \ \text{dd} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} P < 0.01 \\ F(1,16) = 8.86 \\ 15^{\circ}\mathrm{C} < 20^{\circ}\mathrm{C} \end{array}$	P < 0.05 F(1.16) = 5.66 RD < LD	n.s.	
COX (mU mg prot ⁻¹)	46.5 ± 13.16	65.3 ± 3.97	39.12 ± 8.78	71.04 ± 6.38	67.9 ± 9.52	61.84 ± 11.06	98.39 ± 2.04	88.16 ± 6.61	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	$\begin{array}{l} \text{Time} \times \text{Temp. P} < 0.01 \\ F(1,16) = 16.63 \\ 15^{\circ}\text{C} \ 20^{\circ}\text{C} \ 720 \ dd \leq 15^{\circ}\text{C} \ 1660 \\ dd \leq 20^{\circ}\text{C} \ 1660 \ dd \end{array} \\ \\ \text{Time} \times \text{Diet P} < 0.001 \\ F(1,16) = 8.26 \end{array}$	
CS (mU mg prot ⁻¹)	9.75 ± 1.06	10.22 ± 0.64	12.84 ± 1.29	13.53 ± 5.24	13.6 ± 0.8	11.99 ± 1.16	13.12 ± 0.43	12.38 ± 1.41	n.s.	n.s.	n.s	RD 720 dd < other groups n.s.	
COX/CS	4.72 ± 0.98	6.4 ± 0.48	3.11 ± 1.02	5.61 ± 1.4	5.03 ± 0.96	5.14 ± 0.64	7.51 ± 0.39	7.22 ± 1.3	n.s.	n.s.	P < 0.05 F(1.16) = 7.56 RD < LD	$\begin{array}{l} Time \times Temp. \ P < 0.001 \\ F(1,16) = 16.63 \\ 20^\circ \mathrm{C} \ 720 \ dd \leq 15^\circ \mathrm{C} \ 720 \ dd \ 1660 \\ dd \leq 20^\circ \mathrm{C} \ 1660 \ dd \end{array}$	
MDA	0.27 ± 0.04	0.3 ± 0.08	0.23 ± 0.08	0.21 ± 0.02	0.28 ± 0.06	0.28 ± 0.03	0.32 ± 0.05	0.25 ± 0.03	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	
PI	41.88 ± 3.07	37.90 ± 1.83	46.33 ± 3.31	40.73 ± 1.05	54.07 ± 2.07	38.24 ± 10.44	39.15 ± 7.12	37.13 ± 6.25	n.s.	n.s.	P < 0.01 F(1,16) = 9.90 LD < RD	Time × Temp. P < 0.05 F(1,16) = 7.16 Tukey test not significant	

772

В		720 Deg	gree-days			1660 Degree-days				Three-way ANOVA*			
	15	5°C	20°C		15°C		20°C		Three-way ANOVA				
	RD	LD	RD	LD	RD	LD	RD	LD	Temperature	Time	Interactions		
fads2	0.15 ± 0.07^a	0.25 ± 0.07^{ab}	0.24 ± 0.14^{ab}	0.29 ± 0.28^{b}	$2.15\pm0.93^{\scriptsize c}$	0.87 ± 0.58^{bc}	1.29 ± 1.07^{bc}	$1.28\pm0.83^{\textbf{C}}$	n.s.	n.s.	Time \times Temp. \times Diet P < 0.05 F(1,38) = 4.47		
fas	0.1 ± 0.02	0.09 ± 0.03	0.15 ± 0.02	0.18 ± 0.08	0.7 ± 0.31	0.35 ± 0.23	1.36 ± 0.86	1.43 ± 0.79	P < 0.001 F(1,38) = 30.37 15°C < 20°C	P < 0.001 F(1,38) = 153.77 720 dd < 1660 dd	n.s.		
ppara	0.9 ± 0.42	1 ± 0.5	0.93 ± 0.28	0.99 ± 0.55	0.74 ± 0.22	0.82 ± 0.42	1.89 ± 1.05	1.6 ± 0.5	n.s.	n.s.	Time × Temp. P < 0.01 F(1,38) = 9.91 Other groups < 20°C 1660 dd		
pparβ	1.09 ± 0.31	1.25 ± 0.33	1.22 ± 0.55	1.06 ± 0.63	1.82 ± 0.66	1.29 ± 0.2	1.28 ± 0.47	1.15 ± 0.32	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.		
ppary	0.83 ± 0.37	0.72 ± 0.27	1.22 ± 0.46	0.85 ± 0.33	1.68 ± 0.33	1.4 ± 0.45	2.13 ± 0.95	1.74 ± 0.66	P < 0.05 F(1,38) = 4.68 15°C < 20°C	$\begin{array}{l} P < 0.001 \\ F(1,38) = 38.46 \\ 720 \ dd < 1660 \ dd \end{array}$	n.s.		
Srebp-1	0.77 ± 0.32	0.67 ± 0.18	1.12 ± 0.28	0.98 ± 0.27	2.13 ± 0.89	1.49 ± 0.74	2.12 ± 0.66	1.99 ± 0.71	$\begin{array}{l} P < 0.05 \\ F(1,38) = 6.95 \\ 15^{\circ}\mathrm{C} < 20^{\circ}\mathrm{C} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} P < 0.001 \\ F(1,38) = 43.41 \\ 720 \ dd < 1660 \ dd \end{array}$	n.s.		

775 *No significant effect of diet was observed; diet column has been removed from the table.

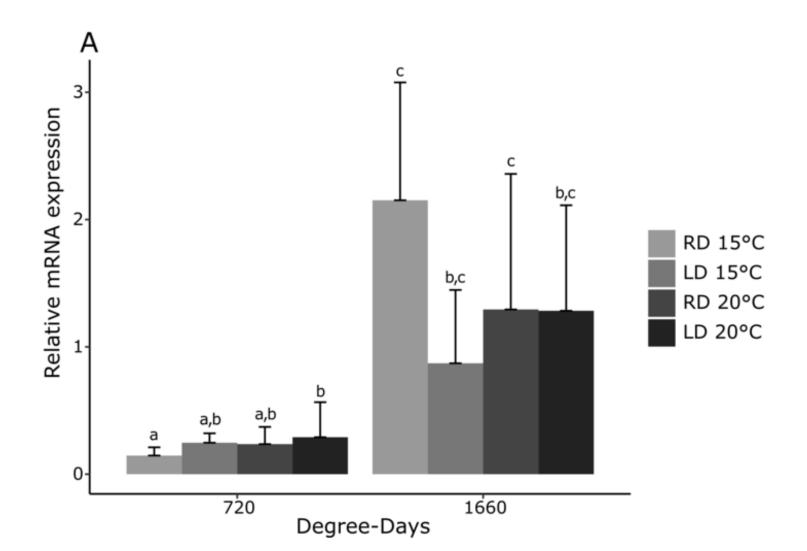


Figure1A

Click here to access/download;Figure;fig A mRNA.png

Click here to access/download;Figure;fig B mRNA.png

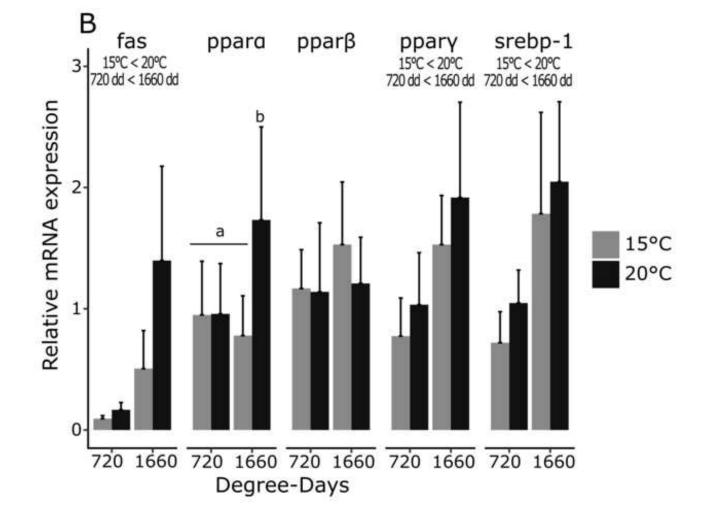


Figure1B