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- 1 Effect of increasing DHA content in weaning diets on survival,
- 2 growth and skeletal anomalies of longfin yellowtail (Seriola rivoliana,
- 3 valenciennes 1833).
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18 Abstract

Five isoproteic (54.8%) and isolipidic (24.1%) microdiets, which varied 19 20 in their docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) content (0.25, 0.75, 1.64, 1.99 and 3.17%; dw), were manufactured to determine its effects on longfin 21 yellowtail Seriola rivoliana larvae in terms of fish biological 22 performance, whole body fatty acid profile and incidence of skeletal 23 anomalies from 30 dah (11.31 ± 1.79 Total Length, TL) to 50 dah 24 25 (19.80±0.58 mm TL). The inclusion of dietary DHA up to 3.17% (dw) improved larval resistance to air exposure, although DHA did not 26 significantly affect fish final growth or final survival. Indeed, high levels 27 of dietary DHA (1.99% and 3.17%, dw) tended to increase the incidence 28 of skeletal anomalies in S. rivoliana larvae, albeit no significant 29 differences were observed. Furthermore, the occurrence of severe 30 anomalies such as kyphosis and lordosis, was mainly associated to the 31 larvae fed with the highest levels of dietary DHA. In terms of survival, 32 increasing dietary DHA levels did not significantly affect longfin 33 34 yellowtail survival rate, despite a tendency for enhanced survival. The results of the present study proved that the inclusion of dietary DHA in 35 36 inert diets up to a 3.17% (dw) and a DHA/EPA ratio above 3.1 increased the final survival and stress resistance in S. rivoliana larvae. 37

- 38 Keywords: longfin yellowtail, fish larvae, docosahexaenoic acid,
- 39 microdiets, skeletal anomalies.

40 1. Introduction

- 41 The recent interest on marine fast-growing teleost for aquaculture
- 42 diversification has lead to research in fish species such as Atlantic bluefin
- 43 tuna (Thunnus thynnus), greater amberjack (Seriola dumerili), yellowtail
- 44 kingfish (Seriola lalandi), Japanese yellowtail (Seriola quinqueradiata) or
- 45 meagre (Argyrosomus regius). Longfin yellowtail, (Seriola rivoliana,
- Valenciennes 1833) is a carangid with a high commercial interest due to
- 47 its fast growth rate and worldwide distribution (Roo et al., 2012; Mesa-
- 48 Rodriguez et al., 2014; Mesa-Rodriguez et al., 2016). Moreover, S.
- 49 rivoliana is already commercially produced in Hawaii (Sims & Key,
- 50 2011) and under pilot scale experimental production in Gran Canaria
- 51 (Canary Islands; Spain) from 2010 (GIA, 2011).
- Nonetheless, very few studies have been performed in order to determine
- 53 S. rivoliana nutritional requirements (Roo et al., 2012; Fernández-
- 54 Palacios, Schuchardt, Roo, Hernández-Cruz & Izquierdo, 2015). In this
- sense, several studies have been reported for other species from the same
- 56 genus, such as Seriola dumerili (Garcia-Gomez, 2000; Tomas, de la
- 57 Gandara, Garcia-Gomez, Perez & Jover, 2005; Takakuwa, Fukada,

- 58 Hosokawa & Masumoto, 2006; Papadakis, Chatzifotis, Divanach &
- 59 Kentouri, 2007; Hamasaki, Tsuruoka, Teruya, Hashimoto & Hamada,
- 60 2009; Matsunari et al., 2012; Matsunari et al., 2013), Seriola lalandi
- 61 (Cobcroft, Pankhurst, Poortenaar & Tait, 2004) and Seriola
- 62 quinqueradiata (Masuda et al., 1998; Ishizaki et al., 2001; Yamamoto et
- 63 *al.*, 2008; Takeuchi, 2014).
- Among the nutrients, long chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (LC-PUFAs)
- are determinant for the success of larvae rearing (Izquierdo, 2005).
- 66 Moreover, the adequate culture performance of marine fish larvae is
- 67 related to the inclusion of the omega 3 (n-3) LC-PUFA docosahexaenoic
- acid (DHA; 22:6n-3) in the diet, due to its direct relationship with tissues
- 69 and cell functioning (Izquierdo & Koven, 2011). Not only DHA is an
- 70 essential fatty acid (EFA) for larval rearing success, but also the
- 71 importance of other n-3 LC-PUFA (eicosapentaenoic acid; EPA; 20:5n-3)
- 72 as well as n-6 LC-PUFA (arachidonic acid; ARA; 20:4n-6) has been
- 73 emphasized (Izquierdo, 1996). Besides, several studies indicated that
- 74 DHA had a greater potential than EPA as an EFA for marine fish larvae
- 75 (Watanabe, Izquierdo, Takeuchi, Satoh & Kitajima 1989; Takeuchi, 2001;
- 76 Izquierdo & Koven, 2011), being the DHA requirements more limiting
- 77 for growth, survival (Izquierdo, 1996) and development of schooling

- 78 behaviour (Masuda et al., 1998; Ishizaki et al., 2001) than EPA.
- 79 Contrarily, some studies observed that high levels of dietary DHA may
- 80 cause muscular dystrophy (Betancor et al., 2011) or lead to the
- 81 appearance of supernumerary vertebrae (Villeneuve, Gisbert, Moriceau,
- 82 Cahu & Zambonino-Infante, 2006) in *Dicentrarchus labrax* larvae due to
- 83 the peroxidation of DHA and the formation of toxic oxidized compounds.
- 84 On the other hand, the effects of dietary DHA deficiency have been
- 85 reported in a variety of marine fish species, being characterized by an
- 86 increase in the incidence of skeletal deformities in larvae of *Sparus aurata*
- 87 (Roo, Hernandez-Cruz, Socorro, Fernandez-Palacios & Izquierdo, 2010;
- 88 Izquierdo et al., 2013) and Pagrus pagrus (Roo et al., 2009; Izquierdo,
- 89 Socorro & Roo, 2010), as well as jaw anomalies in Latris lineata
- 90 (Cobcroft, Pankhurst, Sadler & Hart, 2001). Additionally, the deficiency
- 91 of DHA could lead to alteration in gut and liver in Latris lineata
- 92 (Bransden, Battaglene, Morehead, Dunstan & Nichols, 2005), or to
- 93 malpigmentation and irregular eye migration in flatfish (Bell, McEvoy,
- 94 Estévez, Shields & Sargent, 2003) as well as reduced stress resistance in
- 95 *Huso huso* (Jalali, Hosseini & Imanpour, 2008).
- 96 Apart from all the negatives effects caused by inadequate dietary DHA
- 97 levels in larval feeds previously described, the low culture performance

and survival has been identified as the main issue in different larval 98 species (Watanabe, Izquierdo, Takeuchi, Satoh & Kitajima, 1989; Furuita, 99 Takeuchi, Toyota & Watanabe, 1996a; Furuita et al., 1996b; Copeman, 100 Parrish, Brown & Harel, 2002; Rezek, Watanabe, Harel & Seaton, 2010). 101 102 Due to the relevance of DHA as a main dietary fatty acid for larval marine 103 finfish rearing success, the purpose of this study was to evaluate the effect of increasing dietary DHA levels on growth performance and larval 104 quality of S. rivoliana with the intention to elucidate the adequate dietary 105 DHA level for this species. In order to do so, five feeds containing 106 107 increasing levels of DHA were fed to longfin yellowtail larvae from 30 to 50 dah and larvae growth, final survival, survival after activity test, larvae 108 109 fatty acid profile and incidence of skeletal anomalies evaluated.

2. Materials and methods

111 2.1 Experimental diets

- 112 Five isoproteic and isolipidic diets were formulated to contain increasing
- 113 DHA contents (Table 1). DHA, EPA (DHA-50 and EPA-50, Croda
- 114 Chemicals Ltd. Goole, U.K.) and ARA (Vevodar DSM Food Specialities,
- Netherlands) oils were added in graded amounts in substitution of oleic
- acid to maintain a constant lipid content (~ 20%; Table 1). Diets were
- 117 named according to their analysed DHA content (dw) as follows: DHA0

(0.25% DHA); DHA1 (0.75% DHA); DHA1.5 (1.64% DHA); DHA2 118 (1.99% DHA) and DHA3 (3.17% DHA). Microdiets were manufactured 119 according to Betancor et al., 2012a,b by mixing squid meal and water-120 121 soluble components, then the lipid and fat soluble vitamins and, finally, 122 gelatin dissolved in warm water. The paste was compressed pelleted (Severin, Suderm, Germany) and dried in an oven (Ako, Barcelona, 123 Spain) at 38 °C for 24 h. Pellets were ground (Braun, Kronberg, 124 Germany) and sieved (Filtra, Barcelona, Spain) to obtain two particle 125 sizes, from 250 to 500 µm and from 500-710 µm. Formulated diets were 126 127 analysed for proximate and fatty acid composition.

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2.2 Broodstock and larval rearing

S. rivoliana eggs were obtained from induced spawning of fifteen wild adults (1.76 ± 0.25 kg) adapted to captivity at GIA (Grupo de Investigación en Acuicultura) facilities 10 m³ squared glass fiber tanks in land. Gonadotropin releasing hormone analogue (LHRHa, des-Gly10, [D-134 Ala6]; Sigma- Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) was used at a dose of 20 μg kg⁻¹ body weight, based on the reported dosage for longfin yellowtail (Roo et al., 2012). Larvae were reared under mesocosms rearing system

following the methodology described by Roo et al. (2012). In this way, 137 4.5 eggs 1⁻¹ were stocked in two 40 m³ tanks up to 29 days after hatching 138 (dah). At 30 dah (11.31 \pm 1.79 total length, TL; 11.72 \pm 0.97 mg), larvae 139 140 were settled in 200 l fibreglass cylinder tanks with conical bottom and 141 painted a light grey colour (90 larvae per tank, in triplicates). Filtered seawater was supplied (37 g l⁻¹ salinity) and water conditions were daily 142 measured (temperature: 22.5 ± 0.6 °C; oxygen levels: 6.5 ± 0.3 g l⁻¹; 143 OxyGuard, Denmark). Photoperiod was kept at 12:12 (12 h light:12 h 144 dark) by fluorescent daylights at 1700 lux (digital Lux Tester YF-1065; 145 146 Powertech Rentals, Osborne, Australia).

147 2.3 Growth, survival and activity test

148 Larval growth was assessed by estimating the TL of the larvae using a profile projector (Nikon V-12A, NIKONTM, Tokyo, Japan) at 30, 42 and 149 50 dah. Final larvae survival was calculated by individually counting the 150 151 larvae at the beginning and at the end of the trial. Additionally, an activity test was performed by subjecting fifteen larvae per tank to 30 seconds of 152 air exposure at 42 and 50 dah and counting all the remaining alive larvae 153 after 24 h as previously described (Izquierdo, Watanabe, Takeuchi, 154 Arakawa & Kitajima, 1989). 155

2.4 Biochemical analyses of diets and larvae

A sample of 50 dah larvae from each tank was washed with distilled water 157 158 and kept at -80 °C for proximate analysis and fatty acid composition. Besides, 5 g of each diet was stored (-20 °C) at the beginning of the 159 experimental trial in order to conduct the same analysis. Crude protein, 160 moisture and ash content were analysed following A.O.A.C. methods 161 (A.O.A.C., 2000). Total lipids were extracted (Folch, Lees & Sloane-162 Stanley, 1957) and fatty acids were prepared by trans-etherification 163 (Christie, 1989). Separation and identification of the fatty acids was 164 realized with gas chromatography (GC, THERMO FINNIGAN FUCUS 165 166 GC, Milan, Italy) under the conditions reported in Izquierdo, Arakawa, Takeuchi, Haroun & Watanabe (1992). 167

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2.5 Osteological studies

For the characterisation of skeletal anomalies, a total of 15 larvae (50 dah)
per tank were fixed in 10% buffered formalin and stained with alizarin red
according to the methodology of Vandewalle, Gluckmann & Wagemans
(1998). Terminology described by Mesa-Rodriguez *et al.* (2014) and
Mesa-Rodriguez *et al.* (2016) was used for *S. rivoliana* bone structures

- identification. The different regions of the axial column were divided and
- evaluated according to Boglione, Gagliardi, Scardi & Cataudella (2001).

177 2.6 Statistical analysis

- 178 All data were statistically treated using a SPSS Statistical Software
- 179 System 15.0 (SPSS, www.spss.com). The significant level for all the
- analysis was set at 5% and results are given as mean values and standard
- deviation. All values presented as percentage were arcsine transformed.
- All variables were checked for normality and homogeneity of variance,
- using the Kolmogorov-Smirnoff and the Levene tests, respectively. To
- 184 compare means, the group data were statistically tested using one-way
- 185 ANOVA. When variances were not homogenous, a non-parametric
- 186 Kruskal-Wallis test was done. To evaluate the differences in skeletal
- 187 frequency of deformities log lineal statistical analysis were performed
- 188 (Sokal & Rolf, 1995).

3. Results

- 190 S. rivoliana larvae survival was positively correlated with increasing
- 191 dietary DHA levels (y=1.137 x^2 4.121x + 73.48; R^2 = 0.890); with values
- ranging from 69.63% at 0.25% (dw) dietary DHA to 81.48% with 3.17%
- 193 (dw) dietary DHA (Fig. 1). In addition, the increase of dietary DHA

significantly (*P*<0.05) enhanced resistance to stress test (Fig. 2). On the other hand, no significant differences among treatments were observed in growth (Table 2) at middle (15.08±0.48 mm TL) or final sampling points

197 (19.80±0.58 mm TL).

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Fatty acid profiles of experimental fish was affected by increasing dietary DHA levels in weaning diets after 20 days of feeding the experimental feeds (Table 3). Total sum of saturated fatty acids (SFA) was highest in larvae fed the highest DHA levels (3.17%, dw; Diet 5), showing intermediate values in the larvae fed with a 2% of DHA (dw). Differences were also found in total monounsaturated fatty acid (MUFA) contents, finding the highest levels in larvae fed the lowest DHA levels (Diet DHA0), mainly due to increased contents of oleic acid (18:1n-9) in the feeds. The main SFA present in total body of S. rivoliana larvae were palmitic acid (16:0) and stearic acid (18:0). DHA contents in larval tissue showed a positive correlation with dietary DHA content, finding the lowest DHA levels in fish fed with DHA0 (0.25% DHA, dw) and the highest in DHA3 (3.17% DHA, dw; Table 3). ARA levels showed minor variations among dietary treatments, while a significant progressive decrease of EPA content was observed along with the increase in dietary DHA (P<0.05). Total n-3 and total n-3 PUFA levels were positively

correlated with the DHA increase in the different dietary treatments. All 214 the FA ratios were significantly (P<0.05) affected by dietary treatment, 215 thus ARA/EPA, DHA/EPA, DHA/ARA and n-3/n-6 ratios were increased 216 217 according to the DHA contents in microdiets while the opposite trend was 218 observed in oleic/DHA and oleic/n-3 PUFA ratios (Table 3). Regarding the characterization of skeletal anomalies, scores showed no 219 significant differences among dietary treatments (P>0.1). The occurrence 220 of cranial (jaw) abnormalities (6.7 - 4.4%) was only observed in larvae 221 fed with the lowest dietary DHA treatments (Diets DHA0 and DHA1; 222 223 0.25 and 0.75% DHA, respectively). However, a reduced incidence of 224 skeletal deformities was observed in larvae fed the lowest dietary DHA 225 treatment (DHA0), whereas increasing the dietary DHA content seemed to promote an increase in the number of total skeletal anomalies 226 (kyphosis, lordosis, abnormal vertebra and cranial). In this sense, larvae 227 228 fed with DHA2 (1.99% DHA, dw) showed the highest number of total 229 anomalies. Furthermore, severe anomalies such as kyphosis and lordosis were absent in larvae fed DHA0 (0.25% DHA, dw). The occurrence of 230 231 kyphosis and lordosis increased along with the dietary DHA contents (Fig. 3). Moreover, the occurrence of kyphosis was only observed in 232

larvae fed with the highest dietary DHA treatments (Diets DHA2 and

- DHA3; 1.99 and 3.17% DHA, respectively). Additionally, the incidence of abnormal vertebra centra was also in concordance with the increasing
- 236 dietary DHA content.

237 Discussion

The inclusion of dietary DHA in inert diets up to 3.71 % (dw) increased 238 the final survival in S. rivoliana larvae (81.5 %), being higher than 239 240 previous studies with other marine finfish species such as 25% (Eryalçin et al., 2017), 45% (Saleh et al., 2013) and 48% (Hernández-Cruz et al., 2015) in S. aurata or 49% (Betancor et al., 2012b) and 73% in 242 Dicentrarchus labrax (Cahu, Zambonino-Infante & Takeuchi, 2003). In 243 agreement, larvae from species from the same genus fed with live preys 244 245 enriched with DHA displayed enhanced final larval survival (Furuita et 246 al., 1996b; Ishizaki, Takeuchi, Watanabe, Arimoto & Shimizu, 1998; Takeuchi, Ishizaki, Watanabe, Imaizumi & Shimizu, 1998; Yamamoto et 247 248 al., 2008; Matsunari et al., 2012). For instance, S. quinqueradiata larvae fed with Artemia sp. enriched with DHA (2.5 %, dw), showed enhanced 249 final survival (88.5%) at 13 dah (Ishizaki et al., 1998). Another study in S. 250 dumerili found the highest larval survival during the first 7 days (22%), 251 when DHA contents increased up to 2.0% (dw; Matsunari et al., 2012). 252 253 On the other hand, Yamamoto et al. (2008) stated that DHA contents between 0.7-1.3 % (dw) in rotifers and 1.2-2.1 % (dw) in *Artemia sp.* did

255 not satisfy DHA larval requirements for *S. dumerili*.

256 The increase of dietary DHA and EPA can improve, not only larval 257 performance, but also stress resistance (Liu et al., 2002; Izquierdo, 2005; Eryalçin et al., 2013). In this sense, EFA play an important role as 258 eicosanoids precursors (Ganga et al., 2005) which play a pivotal role in 259 stress response and immune system (Sargent, Bell, Bell, Henderson & 260 261 Tocher, 1995). In the present study, S. rivoliana larvae fed increasing DHA levels from 0.25 % to 3.17 % (dw) showed improved resistance to 262 air exposure along with the dietary increase of DHA. Similar results have 263 264 been observed for S. aurata larvae fed with high DHA levels coming from 265 marine phospholipids which showed better survival rate after handling (Saleh et al., 2013; Saleh et al., 2015). Additionally, the deficiency of 266 DHA may reduce the tolerance to stressful conditions as observed in *Huso* 267 huso larvae (Jalali et al., 2008). It is known that deficiencies in structural 268 269 components due to nutritional privation may produce a range of effects in the membrane of immune cells. These structural changes caused by 270 271 component deficiencies in the membrane can alter eicosanoids production 272 and membrane permeability. Moreover, cell membrane changes can also modulate the alternative complement pathway (ACP) activity as well as 273

- 274 the immune response in fish (Montero, Tort, Izquierdo, Robaina &
- 275 Vergara, 1998).
- 276 On the other hand, inclusion of dietary DHA did not significantly affect *S*.
- 277 rivoliana larval growth. Similar results have been reported in other marine
- 278 teleost species, such as Sparus aurata (Izquierdo et al., 2013; Hernández-
- 279 Cruz et al., 2015), Pagrus pagrus (Roo et al., 2009), Coryphaena
- 280 hippurus (Kraul, 1993) and Centropomus parallelus (Seifert, Cerqueira &
- 281 Madureira, 2001), where fish performance was not influenced by
- 282 increasing dietary levels of DHA. Contrarily to what could be expected
- 283 taking into account other studies from the Seriola genus (Furuita et al.,
- 284 1996b; Takeuchi et al., 1998; Matsunari et al., 2012), larval growth was
- slightly higher among the larvae fed the lowest DHA dietary content (Diet
- 286 DHA0; 0.25% DHA, dw), albeit no significant differences were observed.
- This fact could indeed be related to larvae survival. Given that DHA0- fed
- 288 larvae showed the lowest survival rate (although not significantly
- 289 different), a higher amount of feed would be available per larvae.
- 290 Moreover, an unbalanced DHA/EPA ratio seems to affect the growth in
- 291 certain fish species (Izquierdo, 1996, 2005; Takeuchi, 1997; Shiozawa,
- 292 Takeuchi & Hirokawa, 2003), indicating that not only the increasing
- 293 levels of dietary DHA could promote the larvae final survival and growth,

- but also an adequate ratio DHA to EPA. In this sense, Matsunari et al.
- 295 (2012) observed the maximum total length in S. dumerili larvae fed a
- 296 DHA/EPA ratio between 1.4 and 2.9, being this ratio much lower than the
- ones used in the present trial (up to 7.2).
- 298 The DHA/EPA ratio has been correlated with the dietary DHA
- 299 supplementation. In the present study, an enhancement in survival after a
- 300 challenge was observed when the DHA/EPA ratio was above 3.1
- 301 (DHA1). This result is in agreement with the DHA/EPA ratio obtained in
- the tissues of wild specimens of the same genus such as S. lalandi and S.
- 303 dumerili with DHA/EPA ratios of 3.5 and 5.6 respectively (O'neill, Le
- 304 Roux & Hoffman, 2015; Haouas, Zayene, Guerbej, Hammami & Achour,
- 305 2010). Whitmore, S. rivoliana larvae fed with DHA0 and DHA1 with a
- 306 DHA/EPA ratio lower than 1.4 showed significantly poor survival after
- 307 activity test (Fig. 2), being in concordance with the minimum ratio
- 308 suggested by Matsunari et al. (2012) of at least 1.4 for S. dumerili larvae.
- 309 However, in other marine fish species, the optimum dietary DHA/EPA
- 310 ratio during larval development seemed to be about 1.4 as it is the case for
- 311 Pagrus pagrus (Hernández-Cruz et al., 1999), 0.32 for Dentex dentex
- 312 (Mourente, Tocher, Diaz-Salvago, Grau & Pastor, 1999), 1.2 for S. aurata
- 313 (Rodríguez et al., 1997) and 1.5 for Lateolabrax japonicus (Xu et al.,

314 2014). In these sense, it seems that S. rivoliana larvae needs higher

315 DHA/EPA ratios than other commercially produced marine species,

316 maybe related to the fast growth of this teleost.

317 As expected, the fatty acid compositions of the larvae mirrored the increasing dietary DHA levels. Therefore, larvae fed with high DHA 318 contents consequently accumulated higher DHA and total n-3 LC-PUFA 319 levels. Whitmore, the increase of MUFA levels, mainly oleic acid (18:1n-320 9) in larvae, was correlated with the low dietary DHA inclusion, given 321 that olive oil, naturally rich in 18:1n-9, was used to equalize the lipid 322 323 levels in the feeds. Contrarily, total body larvae fatty acid profile 324 displayed increasing levels of total SFA when dietary DHA levels were increased, instead of decreasing its content with the minor amount of 325 oleic. This is in agreement with other studies from species of the same 326 genus, in which the comparison between wild and reared specimens 327 showed that the main MUFA presented in muscle samples of both wild 328 329 and reared fish was 18:1n-9, being the total amount of MUFA higher in wild specimens rather than in reared fish (S. lalandi; O'Neill et al., 2015; 330 S. dumerili; Rodriguez-Barreto et al., 2012, 2014). In this sense, a 331 comparison between reared and wild specimens of S. quinqueradiata 332 determined that the triglycerides content observed in reared fish was 333

334 higher than in wild fish, as well as the amount of n-3 PUFA, particularly

335 DHA (Arakawa et al., 2002). Curiously, in other marine teleost species,

increased DHA levels did not result in alterations in the total SFA content

in larvae (Izquierdo et al, 2013; Hernández-Cruz et al., 2015).

Regarding skeletal abnormalities, the occurrence of cranial abnormalities in *Seriola sp.* has been previously reported (Cobcroft *et al.*, 2004). This author suggested that the inclusion of high DHA/EPA ratios, particularly around notochord flexion stages, and certain environmental factors such as light conditions may contribute to "wall-nosing" behaviour and the apparition of jaw malformations in yellowtail kingfish (*Seriola lalandi*). Conversely, in the present study, the reduction of cranial abnormalities was concomitant with the increased dietary DHA content. In previous studies, the appearance of skeletal muscle lesions (Betancor *et al.*, 2011) and the occurrence of skeleton anomalies (Villeneuve, Gisbert, Le Delliou, Cahu & Zambonino-Infante, 2005; Izquierdo *et al.*, 2010; Izquierdo *et al.*, 2013) were associated with increased dietary DHA levels. In this way, the incidence of skeletal anomalies in *S. rivoliana* larvae in the present study could be related with the high dietary DHA levels, albeit no significant differences were observed. Furthermore, the occurrence of

severe anomalies such as kyphosis and lordosis, were mainly found in

- larvae fed with the highest levels of DHA (Spearman correlation, p=0.9).
- 355 In this sense, severe deformities of the vertebral column always involve
- 356 abnormalities over a relative wide range of vertebrae, which can appear
- 357 fused and deformed, particularly in the region of the maximal axis
- 358 curvature (Boglione et al., 2001). This may explain the relationship
- 359 between the numbers of severe abnormalities with abnormal vertebral
- 360 bodies observed in the present study.
- 361 The relationship between n-3 LC-PUFA and the bone formation
- 362 mechanism is still unknown. Previous studies in sea bream larvae
- 363 indicated that DHA inclusion increased the n-3/n-6 ratio and could
- promote ossification (Izquierdo et al., 2013), reduce vertebral fusion and
- 365 cranial deformities in P. pagrus (Roo et al., 2009) and decrease the
- 366 incidence of opercular deformities in *Chanos chanos* (Gapasin & Duray,
- 367 2001). Moreover, low dietary DHA levels can delay early mineralization
- and increase the risk of cranial and axial skeletal deformities in sea bream
- 369 larvae (Izquierdo et al., 2013). Thus, high dietary DHA levels and
- 370 adequate balance between pro and antioxidant nutrients seem to promote
- 371 good skeletal health.
- 372 In summary, the results of the present study proved that the inclusion of
- 373 dietary DHA in inert diets up to a 3.17% (dw) and a DHA/EPA ratio

- 374 above 3.1 increased the final survival and stress resistance in S. rivoliana
- 375 larvae. Further studies on EFA requirements are required in order to
- 376 enhance *S. rivoliana* larval production.

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68 The late of the experimental microdiets **68** That aining increasing levels of DHA.

Diet	DHA0	DHA1	DHA1.5	DHA2	DHA3	
Ingredients (g kg^{-1} diet)						
Defatted Squid meal †	626.9	626.9	626.9	626.9	626.9	
DHA-50 ‡	0	20	50	70	90	
EPA 50 §	20.5	17.5	12.5	10.0	6.5	
ARA \P	12.5	12.5	10.0	10.0	8.0	
Oleic acid	114.5	97.5	75.0	57.5	43.0	
Soy Lecithin	30.0	30.0	30.0	30.0	30.0	
Vitamin mixture ††	64	64	64	64	64	
Mineral mixture ††	45.7	45.7	45.7	45.7	45.7	
Attractant ††	55.9	55.9	55.9	55.9	55.9	
Gelatin	30	30	30	30	30	
Proximate and FA analysis (g kg ⁻¹ diet)						
Proteins ($N \times 6.25$)	517.7	590.3	592.2	596.4	603.9	
Lipids	205.4	194.6	204.9	191.1	185.2	
Moisture	33.6	32.6	27.8	27.2	27.9	
Ash	64.1	64.1	65.0	63.7	65.7	
Energy (MJ/kg) ‡‡	1,638.92	1,719.44	1,761.45	1,716.44	1,706.72	
DHA (%TFA/DW)	2.76/ 0.25	8.90/ 0.75	18.35/ 1.64	25.83/ 1.99	35.26/ 3.17	
EPA	6.42/ 0.58	6.58/ 0.56	5.91/0.53	5.64/ 0.44	4.88/ 0.44	
ARA	3.36/ 0.3	3.73/ 0.32	3.76/ 0.94	4.14/ 0.32	4.11 / 0.37	
Saturated	15.83/1.43	15.04/1.27	14.20/1.27	12.97/1.00	11.59/1.04	
Monosaturated	56.74/5.12	50.87/4.3	42.07/3.75	36.00/2.78	28.40/2.55	

⁶⁸⁵

 $^{686 \}hspace{0.5cm} \textit{\'T} \hspace{0.1cm} \textbf{Squid meal (Agramar, Lorient, France),}$

⁶⁸⁷ $\stackrel{\mathcal{T}}{\downarrow}$ DHA-50 Croda Chemicals Ltd. Goole, U.K.

[§] EPA-50 Croda Chemicals Ltd. Goole, U.K.

[¶] VEVODAR Oil.

^{††} Betancor et al., 2012

^{###} Energy calculated as: fat×37.7 MJ/kg; protein×16.7 MJ/kg;

Table 2. *S. rivoliana* total length from 30 to 50 dah fed formulated diets with increasing levels of dietary DHA (0.25, 0.75, 1.65, 2.0 and 3.17 g.kg⁻¹dw DHA). No significant differences were observed (*P*<0.05).

696				
		30 dah	42 dah	50 dah
697	DHA0	11.31 ± 1.79	15.91 ± 2.18	20.78 ± 3.54
698	DHA1	11.31 ± 1.79	14.87 ± 2.01	19.82 ± 3.49
	DHA1.5	11.31 ± 1.79	15.02 ± 2.00	19.47 ± 2.86
699	DHA2	11.31 ± 1.79	14.66 ± 2.09	19.60 ± 3.35
	DHA3	11.31 ± 1.79	14.94 ± 2.07	19.32 ± 2.59
700				

706

702 DHA0, feed containing 0.25% DHA (dw); DHA1, feed containing 0.75% DHA 703 (dw); DHA1.5, feed containing 1.64% DHA (dw); DHA2, feed containing 1.99% DHA (dw); DHA3, feed containing 3.17% DHA (dw). Data expressed as 705 means \pm SD (n = 3).

	DHA0	DHA1	DHA1.5	DHA2	DHA3	
	Fatty acid content (%TFA)					
14:0	0.26	0.27	0.29	0.30	0.39	
14:1n-5	0.03	0.02	0.05	0.04	0.04	
14:1n-7	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	
15:0	0.12	0.13	0.16	0.16	0.21	
15:1n-5	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	
16:0iso	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.04	
16:0	13.44	12.8	13.83	14.43	16.78	
16:1 n-7	0.84	0.65	0.61	0.53	0.60	
16:1n-5	0.07	0.07	0.10	0.13	0.16	
16:2n-6	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.03	
16:2n-4	0.17	0.21	0.24	0.31	0.38	
17:0	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.04	
16:3n-4	0.18	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.16	
16:3n-3	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.06	0.07	
16:3n-1	0.47	0.71	0.71	0.89	0.97	
16:4n-3	0.45	0.64	0.58	0.68	0.65	
16:4 n-1	0.05	0.10	0.11	0.13	0.14	
18:0	5.8	6.48	6.90	8.01	9.19	
18:1 n-9	41.11 ^d	31.02°	23.79 ^b	20.58ab	17.67 ^a	
18:1 n-7	1.19	1.99	2.06	2.02	2.19	
18:1 n-5	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.06	
18:2n-9	0.09	0.09	0.08	0.09	0.11	
18:2 n-6	12.18 ^b	10.73 ^b	10.72^{a}	8.66a	8.40^{a}	
18:2n-4	0.09	0.09	0.07	0.07	0.06	
18: 3n-6	0.30	0.31	0.29	0.18	0.22	
18:3n-4	0.06	0.063	0.05	0.03	0.04	
18:3 n-3	1.30	1.16	1.18	0.94	0.94	
18:3n-1	0.006	0.007	0.004	0.004	0.002	
18:4 n-3	0.30	0.33	0.31	0.25	0.22	
18:4 n-1	0.037	0.033	0.024	0.024	0.028	
20:0	0.35	0.32	0.34	0.40	0.47	

20:1 n-9	0.041	0.044	0.06	0.06	0.07
20: 1n-7	0.95	0.88	0.89	0.98	1.11
20: 1n-5	0.065	0.076	0.08	0.09	0.12
20: 2n-9	0.04	0.041	0.04	0.037	0.046
20:2 n-6	0.27	0.25	0.26	0.31	0.35
20:3n-9+n-	0.02	0.02	0.015	0.017	0.015
20:3 n-6	0.35	0.31	0.24	0.24	0.20
20:4 n-6 (ARA)	4.68 ^{ab}	5.25 ^b	4.74 ^{ab}	4.92^{ab}	4.51a
20: 3n-3	0.17	0.18	0.20	0.22	0.24
20:4 n-3	0.31	0.26	0.21	0.18	0.17
20:5 n-3 (EPA)	5.34°	5.23°	4.19 ^{ab}	3.28^{bc}	2.55 ^a
22:1 n-11	0.05	0.07	0.10	0.08	0.12
22:1 n-9	0.23	0.25	0.24	0.25	0.30
22:4 n-6	0.28	0.32	0.34	0.40	0.42
22:5 n-6	0.20	0.69	1.13	1.37	1.49
22:5 n-3	1.28	1.30	1.12	1.06	0.98
22:6 n-3 (DHA)	6.68 ^a	16.26 ^b	23.26 ^c	27.23°	26.97°
Satured	19.97a±2.66	20.04 ^a ±1.19	21.55°±1.49	$23.35^{ab} \pm 0.97$	27.09b±3.47
Monoenoics	44.63 ^d ±4.44	35.12°±0.98	28.05b±1.89	24.82 ^{ab} ±0.83	22.47 ^a ±2.49
Total n-3	15.87±3.36	25.40±2.28	31.10±2.35	33.91±1.93	32.80±5.22
Total n-6	18.27±0.92	17.90±1.10	17.76±0.86	16.11±0.78	15.62±1.37
Total n-9	41.51±3.26	31.44±0.71	24.20±1.55	21.01±0.62	18.19±1.78
Total n-3PUFA	13.78±3.01	23.22±2.18	28.98±2.16	31.98±1.80	30.91±5.09
ARA	4.67±0.44	5.25±0.19	4.74±0.08	4.92±0.04	4.51±0.25
EPA	5.34±0.93	5.23±0.26	4.18±0.39	3.28±0.20	2.55±0.37
DHA	6.68±1.68	16.26±1.78	23.26±1.70	27.23±1.57	26.97±4.53
ARA/EPA	$0.88^{a}\pm0.10$	1.01 ^a ±0.72	1.13 ^a ±0.21	1.50 ^b ±0.19	1.76 ^b ±0.69
DHA/EPA	1.25°±0.11	3.11 ^b ±0.21	5.55°±0.62	$8.30^{d} \pm 0.25$	10.55e±0.63
DHA/ARA	1.43°a±0.27	3.09b±0.22	4.90°±0.27	5.53°±0.28	5.97°±0.74
oleic/DHA	6.16±1.91	1.91±0.38	1.02±0.87	0.76±0.37	0.65±0.37
oleic/n-3PUFA	2.98±1.07	1.34±0.31	0.82±0.69	0.64±0.3	0.57±0.33
n-3/n-6	0.87°±0.16	1.42 ^b ±0.15	1.75 ^{bc} ±0.15	2.11°±0.17	2,10°±0.23

PUFA, polyunsaturated fatty acid; DHA, docosahexaenoic acid; EPA, eicosapentaenoic acid; ARA, arachidonic acid. DHA0, feed containing 0.25% DHA (dw); DHA1, feed containing 0.75% DHA (dw); DHA1.5, feed containing 1.64% DHA (dw); DHA2, feed containing 1.99% DHA (dw); DHA3, feed containing 3.17% DHA (dw).Data expressed as means \pm SD (n = 3). Different superscript letters within a row denote significant differences among diets (P < 0.05).

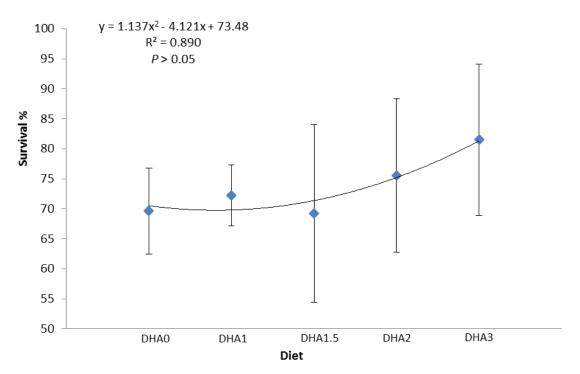


Figure 1. Survival rates (% of initial population) of *S. rivoliana* larvae fed formulated diets with increasing levels of dietary DHA (0.25, 0.75, 1.65, 2.0 and 3.17 g.kg⁻¹dw DHA) from 30 to 50 dah. Points show mean \pm standard deviation of three replicate tanks per diet, same letters denote that data are not significantly different (P>0.05).The regression model represented by a line: survival = 1.137*(DHA)² - 4.121*DHA + 73.48, where DHA is g kg⁻¹ of dietary DHA (polynomial regression, order 2).

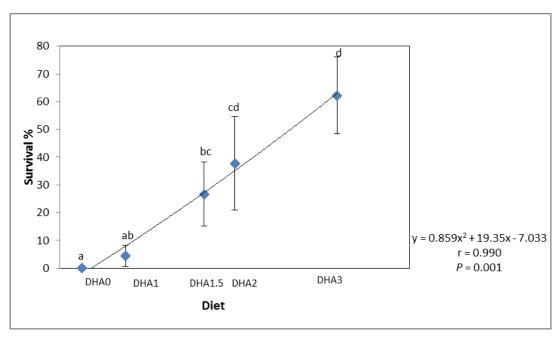


Figure 2. Survival rates 24 h after activity test of *S. rivoliana* larvae fed formulated diets with increasing levels of dietary DHA (0.25, 0.75, 1.65, 2.0 and 3.17 g.kg⁻¹dw DHA) from 30 to 50 days after hatch. Activity test at 50 dah consisted of 30 s air exposure. Points show mean \pm standard deviation of different treatments, different letters denote that data were significantly different (P < 0.05). (Pearson correlation, r, is 0.99 with a significance of P=0.001). The regression model represented by a line: survival = 0.859*(DHA)² - 19.35*DHA + 7.033, where DHA is g. kg⁻¹ dw of dietary DHA (polynomial regression, order 2).

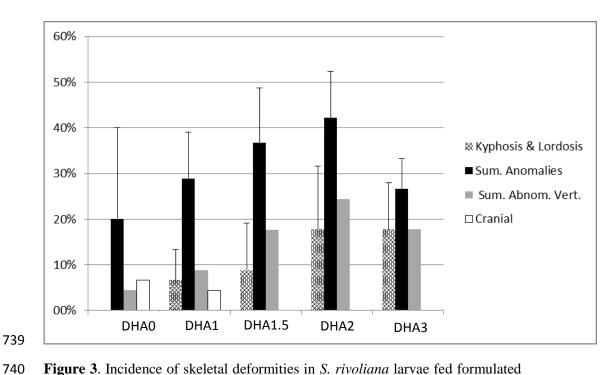


Figure 3. Incidence of skeletal deformities in *S. rivoliana* larvae fed formulated diets with increasing levels of dietary DHA (0.25, 0.75, 1.65, 2.0 and 3.17 g kg⁻¹dw DHA) at 50 dah. Sum. Anomalies (cranial + abnormal vertebra + fusion of vertebra + Kyphosis + Lordosis); Sum. Abnormal vertebra (fusion of vertebra + abnormal vertebra); Cranial (abnormal jaw).