
Will global warming affect the functional need for essential fatty acids in juvenile sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*)? A first overview of the consequences of lower availability of nutritional fatty acids on growth performance

Gourtay Clémence^{1,2,*}, Chabot Denis³, Audet Céline¹, Le Delliou Hervé², Quazuguel Patrick², Claireaux Guy⁴, Zambonino José-Luis²

¹ Univ Quebec Rimouski, Inst Sci Mer Rimouski, 310 Ursulines, Rimouski, PQ G5L 3A1, Canada.

² Ctr Ifremer Bretagne, Inst Francais Rech Exploitat Mer, LEMAR, UMR6539, F-29280 Plouzane, France.

³ Fisheries & Oceans Canada, Inst Maurice Lamontagne, CP 1000, Mont Joli, PQ G5H 3Z4, Canada.

⁴ Univ Bretagne Occidentale, Ctr Ifremer Bretagne, LEMAR, UMR6539, F-29280 Plouzane, France.

* Corresponding author : Clémence Gourtay, email address : Clemence.Gourtay@ifremer.fr

Abstract :

Global climate changes have led to a depletion in omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids (n-3 PUFA) in marine phytoplankton that—with food web transfers—could negatively impact fish performance. The aim of this study was to assess the effect of a reduction in the dietary availability of n-3 PUFA on growth performance, organ allometry, and fatty acid composition in juvenile European sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*) raised at two different temperatures: 15 °C (natural conditions) and 20 °C (global warming scenario). Fish were fed for 5 months with two isoenergetic and isoproteic diets: a reference diet (RD; 1.65% n-3 PUFA on a dry matter basis, DM) used as a proxy of trophic networks where n-3 PUFA were plentiful, and a lower n-3 PUFA diet (LD; 0.73% n-3 PUFA on DM) designed to mimic the expected decrease in n-3 PUFA sources resulting from global climate changes. Results showed decreasing growth rates and slight changes in the muscle polar lipid profile in LD-fed sea bass juveniles, whereas neutral lipids were more affected over the long term. The relative masses of the heart and gastrointestinal system were higher at 20 °C, while liver mass was higher at 15 °C in LD-fed juveniles. However, the mesenteric fat of RD-fed juveniles was higher at 15 °C. Altogether the results suggest that sea bass juveniles are able to implement physiological mechanisms to cope with a decrease in dietary n-3 PUFA and are able to improve growth at the higher temperature, even with a decreased availability of n-3 PUFA. The temperature-driven increase in growth is also observed under the restricted n-3 PUFA diet, and this is accompanied by significant effects on organ allometry and FA profiles. This may indicate the presence of some metabolic costs that remain to be evaluated, but which illustrate that the combination of warming temperatures and n-3 PUFA depletion has significant effects on life history traits.

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32 **Introduction**

33 Oceans, which cover 71% of Earth's surface, play a major role in regulating the global
34 climate (Reid et al. 2009). Over the past 30 years, rising atmospheric greenhouse gas
35 concentrations have increased global average temperatures by $\sim 0.2^{\circ}\text{C}$ per decade (Hansen et
36 al. 2006), with most of this added energy being absorbed by the oceans. The resulting global
37 climate changes have already had a large impact on ecosystems, and especially on marine
38 ecosystems (Harley et al. 2006; Lehodey et al. 2006; Brander 2007; Rijnsdorp et al. 2009;
39 Gattuso et al. 2015) through increasing temperatures (Genner et al. 2010; Johansen et al.
40 2014), acidification (Wittman and Pörtner 2013; Gaylord et al. 2015), and eutrophication
41 (Rijnsdorp and Van Leeuwen 1996; Wasmund et al. 1998).

42 Phytoplankton form the base of most marine food webs. They are a major source of
43 lipids, including fatty acids (FA) that represent an important source of energy for higher
44 trophic levels (e.g. Sargent et al. 2002). FA are crucial constituents of biological membranes
45 (e.g. Sargent et al. 2002). The lipid composition of cell membranes is critical for the structure
46 and function of cells and tissues, and thus has important effects at different
47 biological/ecological levels (Arts et al. 2009; Parrish 2013). It has been shown that water
48 temperature affects FA composition in phytoplankton species and that the omega-3
49 polyunsaturated fatty acid (n-3 PUFA) content generally decreases with warming (Ackman
50 and Tocher 1968; Thompson et al. 1992; Renaud et al. 2002; Guschina and Harwood 2006).
51 This conclusion has been confirmed for six major groups of marine and freshwater
52 phytoplankton (Hixson and Arts 2016): temperature is positively correlated with the relative
53 contents of omega-6 FA (n-6; notably arachidonic acid, 20:4n-6, ARA) and saturated fatty

54 acids (SFA), but inversely correlated with the relative contents of eicosapentaenoic acid
55 (20:5n-3, EPA) and docosahexaenoic acid (22:6n-3, DHA). The same trends were observed
56 by Colombo et al. (2016) in a more comprehensive study, where more than 3000 FA profiles
57 from marine and terrestrial organisms were analyzed. The relationship between water
58 temperature and cell membrane FA content is generally explained through the concept of
59 homeoviscous adaptation: ectotherms are said to adjust membrane lipid and FA composition
60 to preserve its viscosity, fluidity, and function when faced with changes in ambient
61 temperature.

62 DHA, EPA, and ARA are identified as essential fatty acids (EFA) in species that are
63 not able to synthesize them and depend on food intake to fulfill their needs (Sargent 1976).
64 Interestingly, phytoplankton produce most of the DHA and EPA present in the biosphere
65 since land plants are unable to synthesize these molecules (Arts et al. 2009). These two n-3
66 PUFA are of particular interest because they are biochemically important but scarce in nature.
67 They are largely produced by diatoms, cryptophytes, and dinoflagellates (Brett and Muller-
68 Navarra 1997) and are consumed and selectively retained while moving to higher trophic
69 levels (Kainz et al. 2004; Hixson and Arts 2016). Piscivorous marine fish consume prey likely
70 to be situated at lower trophic levels and, therefore, potentially richer in EPA and DHA; this
71 may explain why they have lost the capacity for *de novo* synthesis of n-3 PUFA (Tocher et al.
72 2006). In most other fish species, pathways of *de novo* EFA synthesis are present but their
73 efficiency is reduced, making these species also highly dependent upon dietary sources of n-3
74 PUFA (Ghioni et al. 1999; Tocher and Ghioni 1999). Despite their scarcity in marine food
75 webs, n-3 PUFA are key compounds involved in fish growth, reproduction, behaviour, vision,
76 osmoregulation, cell membrane structure (thermal adaptation), and immune function (Higgs
77 and Dong 2000; for reviews see Sargent et al. 2002; Glencross 2009; Tocher 2010; Kiron et
78 al. 2011; Tian et al. 2014).

79 The European sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*, Linnaeus, 1758) is commercially
80 important along European coasts. It is typically a marine species that spends most of its life in
81 coastal and estuarine areas, although it is occasionally observed in rivers, particularly at early
82 life stages. Until now, the consequences of nutritional n-3 PUFA depletion have been studied
83 under aquaculture conditions and rarely in the field, with an ecological perspective. For
84 example, the substitution of dietary fish oil with vegetable oils (which lack n-3 PUFA) has
85 been extensively investigated in farmed fish. Most studies have concentrated on salmonids
86 (McKenzie et al. 1998; Tocher et al. 2000; Torstensen 2000; Caballero et al. 2002),
87 freshwater fishes (Martino et al. 2002; Ng et al. 2003), and some marine fish species such as
88 European sea bass (Yildiz and Sener 1997; Montero et al. 2005; Chatelier et al. 2006), turbot
89 (*Psetta maxima*) (Regost et al. 2003), gilthead sea bream (*Sparus aurata*) (Kalogeropoulos et
90 al. 1992; Caballero et al. 2003; Montero et al. 2003), and red sea bream (*Pagrus auratus*)
91 (Glencross et al. 2003). In European sea bass juveniles, Skalli and Robin (2004) showed that
92 low dietary n-3 PUFA (0.2% of the diet on a dry matter [DM] basis) significantly lowered
93 growth compared to diets with at least 0.7% n-3 PUFA. Moreover, the level of dietary n-3
94 PUFA modified FA composition in muscle neutral lipids, while muscle polar lipid
95 composition was less affected. Skalli et al. (2006) tested a crossed factorial design combining
96 two diets (0.4 and 2.2% DM n-3 PUFA) and two temperatures (22°C and 29°C). One of the
97 main outcomes of this study was that 0.7% DM was found to be the minimal n-3 PUFA level
98 necessary to sustain juvenile sea bass growth.

99 Studies that combine the effects of n-3 PUFA and temperature on fish growth and
100 physiology are scarce. The aim of this study, therefore, was to test the effect of a reduction in
101 n-3 PUFA dietary content on growth performance, organ allometry, and the FA profile in
102 juvenile European sea bass raised at two different temperatures, 15°C and 20°C. Two
103 experimental diets were tested: a reference diet (RD) that mimicked a trophic network where

104 n-3 PUFA are plentiful, and a lower n-3 PUFA diet (LD) that simulated the expected decrease
105 in phytoplankton sources resulting from ocean warming (Colombo et al. 2016; Hixson and
106 Arts 2016). We hypothesized that (1) juveniles fed the depleted diet will show higher EFA
107 tissue retention than those fed RD, and (2) that fish raised at the higher temperature will retain
108 a lower amount of EFA in tissues in accordance with the homeoviscous adaptation concept
109 and also because of higher energetic needs.

110 **Materials and methods**

111 **Fish origin and maintenance**

112 Adult European sea bass were captured in winter 2013 by fishermen in the Gulf of
113 Morbihan (Plomeur, France) and brought to the Aquastream hatchery (Lorient, France). After
114 three years in captivity, four females and 10 males were bred in the facility. At day 2 post
115 hatching (d-2), sea bass larvae were transferred to the Ifremer rearing facility in Brest
116 (France), where experiments were conducted. Larvae were divided among three conical tanks
117 (230 L, 10 µm filtered seawater, UV, salinity 35‰, initial density 10000 larvae tank⁻¹). Water
118 temperature in the tanks was progressively increased from 14°C to 20°C within six days.
119 Larvae were fed with *Artemia* from mouth opening (d-8) to d-39. To condition the larvae to
120 more readily accept the manufactured diet at the end of the live-feed period, they were co-fed
121 with both *Artemia* and a microparticulate diet (Marinstart, Le Gouessant, Lamballe, France)
122 for four days starting at d-40. Larvae were then fed exclusively with the microparticulate diet
123 until d-74. After d-74, juveniles were fed with larger pellets for ornamental fish (EPA + DHA
124 = 1.5%; Le Gouessant, Lamballe, France) until the beginning of the experiment at d-93.

125 **Environmental and nutritional conditioning**

126 At d-93, juveniles (mass = 0.75 ± 0.02 g; standard length = 3.57 ± 0.02 cm; mean ±
127 SD) were divided among 12 indoor 500 L tanks supplied with filtered and aerated natural
128 seawater, six of which were maintained at 15°C and the other six at 20°C. Each tank

129 contained 300 fish, representing a mean biomass of 263.93 ± 0.28 g. During the following 150
130 days, fish were fed one of two experimental diets: a reference n-3 PUFA diet (RD;
131 EPA+DHA = 1.65% DM) and a low n-3 PUFA diet (LD; EPA+ DHA = 0.73% DM). Feeding
132 took place for 7 h during daytime (08:00 to 15:00) using an automatic distributor (2 cm h^{-1}).
133 Each diet \times temperature combination was replicated in three tanks.

134 Experimental diets

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

140 Experimental time line

141 Biometry

142 For the growth survey, seven samplings were done at intervals of 200 degree-days (dd,
143 day \times exposed temperature). Fish were not fed 24 h prior to sampling. A total of 30 fish,
144 randomly sampled in each tank ($n = 90$ per diet–temperature treatment), were lightly
145 anaesthetized with tricaine methanesulfonate (MS-222; dose adapted to water temperature and
146 fish body mass [BM]), weighed, and their standard length (SL) measured. After recovery,
147 individuals were returned to their original tanks.

148 Mass gain (Δmass), specific growth rate (SGR), and thermal growth coefficient (TGC, which
149 is a thermal unit approach; for reviews see Dumas et al. 2010) were calculated as follows:

$$150 \Delta\text{mass (g)} = \text{BM}_{\text{final}} - \text{BM}_{\text{initial}}$$

$$151 \text{SGR (\%BM d}^{-1}\text{)} = 100 (\ln[\text{BM}_{\text{final}}] - \ln[\text{BM}_{\text{initial}}]) \text{ days of feeding}^{-1}$$

$$152 \text{TGC (g degree-days}^{-1}\text{)} = 1000 ([\text{BM}_{\text{final}}^{0.33}] - [\text{BM}_{\text{initial}}^{0.33}]) \Sigma(\text{degree-days})$$

153 Samplings

154 At 720 dd (d-129 and d-141 at 20°C and 15°C, respectively) and 1660 dd (d-176 and
155 d-204 at 20°C and 15°C, respectively), eight fish per tank were randomly sampled, euthanized
156 with an overdose of MS-222 (1 mL L⁻¹), and a piece of white epaxial muscle located under
157 the first dorsal fin was dissected out. Muscle samples obtained from the same tank were
158 pooled and stored at -80°C until analyses (n = 3 per experimental treatment).

159 At the end of the experiment (d-243), 10 fish per tank (30 per diet-temperature combination)
160 were euthanized as described above. After fish were weighed and measured, heart, liver,
161 gastrointestinal system, and mesenteric fat were sampled and weighed for the organ allometry
162 study.

163 Fatty acids

164 Lipid extraction

165 White muscle samples were ground in liquid nitrogen using a mixer (MM 400,
166 Retsch). Lipids were then extracted following a procedure derived from that of Folch et al.
167 (1957). Muscle powder was homogenized in Folch solution and stored at -20°C until polar
168 and neutral lipids were separated.

169 Separation of polar and neutral lipids

170 Samples were sonicated for 5 min at 4°C then centrifuged for 2 min (4°C, 1482 g).
171 Lipids were fractionated into neutral lipids (including triglycerides, free FA, and sterols) and
172 polar lipids (including phospholipids and glycolipids). An aliquot of total lipid extract (1 mL)
173 was evaporated to dryness under nitrogen, recovered with three (0.5 mL) washings of
174 chloroform:methanol (98:2, v:v), and deposited at the top of a silica gel micro-column
175 (40 mm × 5 mm i.d. Pasteur pipette plugged with glass wool and filled with silica gel 60 that
176 had been heated for 6 h at 450°C and deactivated with 6% water by weight). Neutral lipids
177 were eluted with 10 mL of chloroform:methanol (98:2, v:v), and polar lipids were eluted with
178 15 mL of methanol. Tricosanoic acid (23:0, 200 µg) was added as an internal standard.

179 Transesterification

180 Each lipid fraction was vacuum dried and directly transesterified under nitrogen using
181 0.5 mL of 2M methanolic potash (KOH-MeOH) for 3 min at 90°C. A total of 0.5 mL of 6N
182 hydrochloric acid was added and vortex mixed. Before gas chromatography analysis, 2 mL of
183 hexane was added and centrifuged for 10 min at 630 g to collect the organic phase containing
184 fatty acid methyl esters (FAMES). FAMES were washed three times with 1 mL of hexane. The
185 organic phase was finally transferred to tapered vials and stored at -20°C.

186 Gas chromatography analysis

187 FAMES were analyzed in a CLARUS 500 gas chromatograph (Perkin-Elmer)
188 equipped with a split/splitless injector and a flame ionization detector. FAMES were identified
189 using two different capillary columns (BPX70 30 m × 0.25 mm i.d., 0.25 µm thickness; SGE
190 Analytical Science) using a standard 37 component FAME mix (Sigma) and other known
191 standard mixtures (i.e. 18919-1AMP FAME Mix, C4-C24 and 18918-1AMP FAME Mix, C8-
192 C24; Sigma). The FA were expressed as the molar percentage of the total FA content.

193 Statistical and data analysis

194 Data normality and homoscedasticity were tested using Shapiro-Wilk and Levene
195 tests, respectively. Growth rate in BM and SL was regressed against time. The effects of diet
196 and temperature were tested by comparing regression slopes; when slopes were
197 homogeneous, an ANCOVA was run to compare intercepts. Two-way ANOVAs were used to
198 test for significant differences among diets and temperatures for Δ mass, SGR, and TGC.
199 Scatter plots between organ mass and BM for each temperature did not overlap due to a large
200 difference in BM because of the temperature differences. For this reason, the effect of diet on
201 organ allometry was tested separately for each temperature by comparing slopes and using
202 ANCOVA if required. In order to meet normality, BM, SL, and organ mass were log₁₀
203 transformed. Because the response at 1660 dd could be considered as dependent on the

204 response at 720 dd, two-way ANOVA were performed for each sampling period to assess the
205 effects of diet and temperature on muscle FA content and the muscle/dietary FA ratio. When
206 required, pairwise comparisons (Tukey tests) were performed (the homoscedasticity condition
207 was respected). Differences were considered significant at $\alpha = 0.05$. Statistical analyses were
208 conducted in R (ver.3.3.3; R Development Core Team).

209 **Results**

210 Only a few mortalities occurred during the experiment (less than 0.2%), therefore this
211 effect was not considered.

212 **Growth performance and organ allometry**

213 BM and SL differed according to time and temperature (higher slopes at 20°C than at
214 15°C, Fig. 1; BM: $F(1,76) = 222.23$, $P < 0.001$; SL: $F(1,76) = 211.46$, $P < 0.001$;
215 Supplementary Table 1). Diet composition also had a significant effect on growth, which was
216 similar at both temperatures: growth was faster in RD-fed fish than in LD-fed fish (BM:
217 $F(1,76) = 19.40$, $P < 0.001$; SL $F(1,76) = 27.48$, $P < 0.001$). In addition, the Δ_{mass} was about
218 20% higher in the juveniles fed RD than in those fed LD independent of temperature, while
219 Δ_{mass} was about twice as high at 20°C than at 15°C (Table 2). The same pattern was
220 observed for TGC, whereas only temperature affected SGR, which was 35% higher at 20°C
221 (Table 2). Linear regressions showed that fish fed RD at 20°C were 14.5% heavier (Fig. 1A)
222 and 34.1% longer (Fig. 1B) at the end of the experiment compared to fish fed LD. The
223 difference was less pronounced at 15°C, with RD-fed fish being 12.8% heavier (Fig. 1A) and
224 5.7% longer (Fig. 1B) than LD-fed fish.

225 Differences in the relationship between organ masses and BM were examined at each
226 rearing temperature. At 20°C, RD-fed fish had lower heart (Fig. 2A; ANCOVA: $F(1,54) =$
227 6.82 , $P < 0.05$) and gastrointestinal (Fig. 2B; ANCOVA: $F(1,54) = 4.52$, $P < 0.05$) masses,
228 but no differences for liver or mesenteric fat were observed. At 15°C, liver mass was lower in

229 RD-fed juveniles (Fig. 2C; ANCOVA: $F(1,54) = 8.73, P < 0.01$), while the quantity of
230 mesenteric fat relative to BM increased more in juveniles fed RD (Fig. 2D; slopes
231 significantly different, $\log_{10} [\text{Body Mass}] \times \text{diet}: F(1,54) = 9.90, P < 0.01$). There were no
232 differences for heart or gastrointestinal mass. Allometric regression parameters are available
233 in Supplementary Table 2.

234 Fatty acids

235 At 720 dd, significant effects of both temperature and diet were observed in the white
236 muscle FA composition. Both temperature and diet affected polar ΣSFA levels and
237 proportions, which were significantly higher at 20°C than at 15°C and with RD compared to
238 LD (Table 3A). Temperature (20°C > 15°C) but not diet significantly affected white muscle
239 polar ΣMUFA (monounsaturated FA) and ΣPUFA . The ΣPUFA to ΣSFA ratio was
240 significantly higher in fish fed LD and raised at 15°C. Polar $\Sigma n-3$ and $\Sigma n-6$ both significantly
241 increased with temperature. However, independently of the temperature conditions, $\Sigma n-3$ was
242 higher in juveniles fed RD while $\Sigma n-6$ dominated in juveniles fed LD in the polar fraction
243 (Table 3A). Consequently, polar $\Sigma n-3/\Sigma n-6$ ratios were higher in RD-fed juveniles. In LD-fed
244 juveniles, the ratio was higher at 15°C than in those reared at 20°C (Table 3A). At both
245 temperatures, the percent content of 18:2n-6 was significantly higher in juveniles fed LD, but
246 the difference between the two diets was larger at 20°C than at 15°C. On the contrary, the
247 18:3n-3 content was higher in juveniles fed RD, although juveniles contained overall more
248 18:3n-3 at 20°C than at 15°C. The ARA and DHA levels were significantly higher in
249 juveniles reared at 20°C, while there was no effect of temperature on DHA present in the
250 polar fraction. A significant diet effect was only present for ARA and EPA, with higher levels
251 in juveniles fed RD than in those fed LD. The lowest DHA/EPA ratios were observed in fish
252 fed RD at both temperatures. Juveniles reared at 20°C and fed LD had a higher DHA/EPA
253 ratio than those raised at 15°C (Table 3A). Changes in the neutral fraction were clearly less

254 pronounced at 720 dd. No effect of either temperature or diet was observed for $\Sigma n-3$, $\Sigma n-6$,
255 $\Sigma n-3/\Sigma n-6$, ΣSFA , $\Sigma MUFA$, $\Sigma PUFA$, or the percent content of 18:2n-6 and 18:3n-3. The ARA
256 and EPA contents were significantly lower in juveniles fed LD, while the DHA/EPA ratio was
257 significantly lower in juveniles fed RD. The ratio was also generally lower at 15°C than at
258 20°C.

259 At 1660 dd, polar ΣSFA , $\Sigma MUFA$, $\Sigma PUFA$, $\Sigma n-3$, and $\Sigma n-6$ percentages were similar
260 regardless of the rearing conditions (Table 3B). However, the $\Sigma n-3/\Sigma n-6$ ratio was 8.4% lower
261 when temperature increased and 51.2% lower in juveniles fed LD compared to those fed RD
262 (Table 3B). As observed at 720 dd, the 18:2n-6 content was the highest in juveniles fed LD,
263 but only at 20°C. A similar response was observed for the 18:3n-3 content. The EPA content
264 was significantly higher in juveniles fed RD, whereas DHA and the DHA/EPA ratio were
265 similar among treatments. However, the ARA content was lowest in juveniles fed LD at both
266 temperatures, while those fed RD at 20°C had the highest proportion (Table 3B). In contrast
267 to what was observed at 720 dd, more pronounced effects of diet and temperature were
268 observed in the neutral fraction at 1600 dd. Indeed, the ΣSFA content was 26.2% higher at
269 20°C than at 15°C, while the $\Sigma MUFA$ was 34.1% higher in juveniles fed LD than in those fed
270 RD (Table 3B). The $\Sigma PUFA$ to ΣSFA ratio was significantly higher in fish fed LD and raised
271 at 15°C, while the $\Sigma PUFA$ to $\Sigma MUFA$ ratio was higher at 20°C. The $\Sigma n-6$ was significantly
272 higher in juveniles fed LD and, consequently, the $\Sigma n-3/\Sigma n-6$ ratio was significantly higher in
273 juveniles fed RD compared to those fed LD (Table 3A, B). Both 18:2n-6 and 18:3n-3 contents
274 were lower in juveniles fed RD. Interestingly, the ARA content was extremely low in
275 juveniles fed LD at both 15°C and 20°C. EPA was significantly higher in juveniles fed RD at
276 20°C compared to the three other treatments, while DHA was overall significantly lower at
277 15°C and in juveniles fed LD. At 20°C, RD-fed fish had the lowest DHA/EPA ratios, while
278 LD-fed fish had the highest.

279 The muscle/dietary FA ratios suggest that the retention of EFA was more pronounced
280 in the polar fraction than in the neutral fraction (Fig. 3A, B). A stronger selective retention of
281 polar ARA, DHA, and EPA was observed in juveniles fed LD compared to those fed RD.
282 Retention of ARA, DHA, and EPA was significantly higher at 20°C than at 15°C, but only at
283 720 dd (Fig. 3A). At 1660 dd, the temperature effect was no longer evident. It should be noted
284 that even though the muscle/dietary 18:2n-6 ratio was higher than one in the neutral fraction,
285 it decreased below one in polar lipids (Fig. 3B). No effect of diet, except for DHA at 1660 dd,
286 and no effect of diet, except for EPA at 1600 dd, was observed in neutral fraction (Fig. 3B).

287 **Discussion**

288 Diet and temperature both induced different growth trajectories. After 720 dd, diet
289 clearly modified the FA composition of muscle; this effect was modulated by temperature for
290 ARA, linolenic acid, and DHA, whereas the FA profiles were more alike at 1660 dd. Diet also
291 influenced organ allometry at both 20°C and 15°C, although with some variations.

292 **Growth performance**

293 As expected, increased water temperature significantly improved the growth of
294 juvenile seabass fed both diets, with the differences in body length and mass increasing with
295 time. Both Δ mass and TGC were higher at 20°C than at 15°C, and higher in RD-fed than in
296 LD-fed fish, which is consistent with the growth trajectories obtained by a linear model.
297 Several indices have been developed to determine the daily growth increment in fish. The
298 most commonly used is SGR (Ricker 1979). SGR may be affected by both the fish's body
299 size (Jobling 1983; Iwama et al. 1997) and environmental temperature (Tidwell et al. 1999;
300 Person-Le Ruyet et al. 2004); to avoid such bias, the thermal unit growth coefficient was
301 proposed by Iwama and Tautz (1981). Even though this estimate is thought to be less
302 sensitive to body size and temperature (Azevedo et al. 1998; Cho and Bureau 1998; Kaushik

303 1998), TGC and SGR of sea bass were affected by temperature in a similar way in our study.
304 Such a result was also reported for the Eurasian perch (*Perca fluviatilis*; Strand et al. 2011).
305 Skalli and Robin (2004) defined the minimal n-3 PUFA levels necessary to sustain juvenile
306 sea bass growth at 0.7% DM, and they observed no improvement with higher n-3 PUFA
307 content. However, we observed better growth with 1.65% DM (RD), indicating that n-3
308 PUFA in excess of 0.7% DM may increase growth further under certain circumstances. This
309 different requirement may also result from the fact that our fish were younger than those used
310 by Skalli and Robin (2004). RD allowed better growth than LD, and this diet-related effect
311 was observed at both temperatures. Consequently, the low dietary levels of n-3 PUFA did not
312 impair the temperature-related growth-promoting effect.

313 Organ allometry

314 From the perspective of evolutionary biology, the functional capacity of an organ
315 should match the demands imposed upon it (Starck 1999). Therefore, individuals ought to
316 respond to changes in actual demands by adjusting their functional capacities (Diamond and
317 Hammond 1992; Elia 1992; Diamond 1998; Weibel 1998), including organ size. In
318 ectotherms, temperature has a direct effect on metabolism. In the sea bass, Claireaux and
319 Lagardère (1999) showed that when temperature was increased from 15°C to 20°C, standard
320 metabolism and active metabolism increased by 37% and 125%, respectively. This implies
321 that more oxygen and nutrients are needed to cover the energetic demand. In sea bass, energy
322 costs related to digestion mobilize a great proportion of the cardiac output (Farrell et al. 2001,
323 Axelsson et al. 2002; Altimiras et al. 2008). In our study, the LD-fed fish reared at 20°C had
324 higher heart and gastrointestinal masses. The change in fatty acids may have induced a
325 thickening or an elongation of the gastrointestinal tract. Our hypothesis, is that this increase in
326 heart mass relative to BM may result from a greater energetic demand due to the simultaneous
327 increase in gastrointestinal mass. It has also been established in vitro that tissues and organs

328 have mass-specific metabolism (Krebs 1950; Schmidt-Nielsen 1984). An evaluation of the
329 heart's working capacity—and, for instance, of the stroke volume—would be necessary to
330 know if the increased heart mass also implied better performance.

331 Why did the gastrointestinal mass increase more in juveniles fed LD? One explanation
332 could be that offering a diet that minimally meets nutritional needs of juveniles may require
333 an optimization of the nutrient assimilation processes, thus increasing the overall energy
334 demand. Indeed, previous studies have shown that size and activity of the gastrointestinal tract
335 are phenotypically plastic and respond strongly to consumption and food availability (Starck
336 1999; Armstrong and Bond 2013). Here, we showed that the type of FA provided in the diet
337 affects the gastrointestinal mass. It seems reasonable to speculate that the higher values of
338 gastrointestinal mass could be explained either by an elongation of the gut or by modifications
339 of the brush border epithelium of the small intestine induced by the necessity to improve FA
340 assimilation. In addition, Torrecillas et al. (2017) showed that fish oil replacement by
341 vegetable oil increases the lipid deposition in anterior gut *lamina propria* in sea bass, which
342 could also explain the largest viscera mass obtained with LD.

343 Knowing that the optimum temperature for European sea bass growth was reported to
344 be about 22°C to 25°C (Barnabé, 1991), colder temperatures represent an additional constraint
345 on juvenile metabolism. The liver has a major role in energy storage, and it is the first site for
346 lipid storage in a number of benthic and demersal species (Drazen 2002; Hoffmayer et al.
347 2006; Lloret et al. 2008). Another important storage site is the mesenteric fat that surrounds
348 the gastrointestinal tract. It is much more labile than other fat stores, such as muscular fat, and
349 therefore mesenteric fat is likely to be the first fat store to be mobilized. In our study, liver
350 mass was higher in fish fed LD than RD at 15°C. This result corroborates the findings of
351 Mourente and Bell (2006), who found that the liver mass of juvenile sea bass fed vegetable oil

352 was higher than that of fish fed fish oil. As n-3 PUFA were scarcer in LD, further experiments
353 will be needed to assess if the higher liver mass could be explained by greater FA storage.

354 Fatty acids

355 Muscle/diet ratios greater than 1 mean that the muscle is richer in FA than the diet is,
356 suggesting that retention occurred. After 720 dd, fish were already showing the effects of their
357 diet, with muscle/dietary ratios > 1 . At 720 dd, both temperature and diet had significant
358 effects on most of the FA in polar lipids. At 1660 dd, however, the differences in the FA
359 profiles among dietary treatments were smaller in the polar than in the neutral lipid fraction.
360 This suggests that, over time, fish regulated their phospholipid composition, possibly
361 membrane phospholipids, in order to maintain tissue functionality; this agrees with previous
362 work (Sargent 1976; Skalli and Robin 2004). It should be noted that a high retention rate,
363 approximately six times higher than the diet content, was observed for polar EFA (EPA,
364 DHA, and ARA) in LD-fed fish, but this high retention rate did not compensate for the low
365 EFA contents induced by this diet.

366 The main representatives of the n-3 and n-6 FA in the dietary lipids were linolenic
367 (18:3n-3) and linoleic (18:2n-6) acids, respectively. In fish, these FA are accumulated without
368 transformation due to the reduced capacity of these species for chain elongation and
369 desaturation (Bell et al. 1986, 1994). However, n-3 intermediates in the desaturation
370 elongation pathway such as 20:5n-3 (EPA), 22:5n-3, and 22:6n-3 (DHA) were found in both
371 lipid fractions at higher values than those present in the diets. This may indicate a certain
372 biochemical capacity to elongate or to selectively preserve specific EFA, even though the
373 conversion rates are probably extremely low (Mourente and Dick 2002; Mourente et al.
374 2005). It should be noted that polar EPA and DHA were high in juveniles fed RD; these two
375 FA are eicosanoid precursors involved in several physiological functions such as stress
376 response or osmoregulation (Sargent et al. 2002). One could then wonder whether low dietary

377 EPA and DHA levels could impair stress response capacity, and this would justify
378 examination of fish response to specific challenge tests. As previously reported, a significant
379 decrease in n-3 PUFA content in fish tissues was observed when fish oil was replaced by
380 vegetable oil (Bell et al. 2001; Mourente et al. 2005; Torstensen et al. 2005; Pettersson et al.
381 2009; Sanden et al. 2011). This was confirmed in the present study, where we observed the
382 same overall tendencies.

383 Fish, as ectothermic species, do not control their body temperature. The relationship
384 between water temperature and cell membrane FA content is generally explained through the
385 concept of homeoviscous adaptation (Sinensky 1974). For instance, the proportion of
386 unsaturated acyl chains in membrane lipids is generally increased under cold conditions to
387 maintain membrane fluidity (Los and Murata 2004). Changes in the proportions of polar
388 Σ PUFA to Σ SFA and/or Σ MUFA were already present at 720 dd but were more pronounced
389 at 1660 dd. At 720 dd, Σ SFA, Σ PUFA, and Σ MUFA polar contents were higher at 20°C than
390 at 15°C. However, the Σ PUFA/ Σ SFA ratio was similar at both 15°C and 20°C (respectively
391 2.31 and 2.22), while a higher proportion of Σ PUFA to Σ MUFA was observed at 15°C than at
392 20°C (respectively 2.10 and 1.83). Such a change in the Σ PUFA/ Σ MUFA ratio would be
393 consistent with adjustments related to homeoviscous adaptation. At 1660 dd, both polar
394 Σ PUFA/ Σ SFA and Σ PUFA/ Σ MUFA ratios were higher at 15°C than at 20°C. Ratios remained
395 very stable in the neutral lipid fraction over time and between temperature conditions. The
396 Σ PUFA/ Σ SFA ratio was about 1.34, while the Σ PUFA/ Σ MUFA ratio was around 0.56. These
397 results clearly indicate remodelling in polar lipids (mostly represented by membrane
398 phospholipids) with temperature changes, while storage lipids remained stable regardless of
399 temperature or time. In marine fishes, n-3 PUFA (EPA + DHA) tend to decrease with
400 increasing temperature, while n-6 PUFA (ARA and linolenic acid) and SFA increase (Hixson
401 and Arts 2016). In salmonids, a classical thermal response is a higher proportion of PUFA at

402 low temperatures (Hazel et al. 1992; Calabretti et al. 2003). Similar effects of temperature
403 were observed in European sea bass, with lower SFA and conversely higher n-3 PUFA
404 contents at 22°C than at 29°C (Skalli et al. 2006). In our study, temperature affected both
405 relative FA contents and the muscle/dietary FA ratio of most polar FA at 720 dd, whereas
406 temperature only affected polar $\Sigma n-3/\Sigma n-6$ at 1660 dd. The fact that n-3 and n-6 PUFA
407 showed an inverse relationship with regard to temperature is coherent from a biosynthesis
408 perspective, since synthesis depends on the activities of the same enzymes (desaturases and
409 elongases). Competition for enzymes, in the context of increasing ambient water temperature,
410 tends to favour n-6 over n-3 production (Hixson and Arts 2016). This hypothesis remains to
411 be tested.

412 **Conclusions**

413 Depletion of n-3 PUFA and a decreased temperature contributed to the decrease in sea
414 bass growth rate while only slightly altering the muscle polar lipid profile. Neutral lipid
415 profiles were more affected than polar ones. However, regarding the PUFA/SFA and
416 PUFA/MUFA ratios, a higher proportion of PUFA at low temperature was present in polar
417 lipids. This effect increased with time. These results are consistent with the homeoviscious
418 adaptation theory. Higher contents of SFA and MUFA compared to PUFA were present in the
419 storage lipids, but ratios remained stable regardless temperature and time. A depleted n-3
420 PUFA diet induced low EFA contents in muscle even though a higher retention of EFA was
421 noted in fish fed this diet. For the first time in fish, the allometry of several organs has been
422 shown to respond to the type of dietary FA acid provided. This topic has been little
423 investigated in fish even though it is easily achievable and inexpensive, and can reveal
424 valuable information on key organs like the heart, liver, and gastrointestinal system. We also
425 showed that the allometric organ response depends on temperature conditions. Dietary n-3
426 PUFA affected organ allometry of the heart and gastrointestinal system at the higher

427 temperature (20°C), while liver and mesenteric fat were affected at the lower temperature
428 (15°C). Juvenile sea bass are able to implement rapid phenotypic change in response to
429 dietary FA. This is interesting from the point of view of global warming, where fish species
430 are faced with rapid changes in mean temperature. More broadly, these results open up new
431 perspectives in the study of seasonal adaptations. Altogether, these results suggest that
432 juvenile sea bass are able to implement compensatory mechanisms to cope with a reduced
433 availability of dietary n-3 PUFA. Because of this, the temperature-driven increase in growth is
434 still observed under a restricted diet. However, the fact that this was accompanied by
435 significant effects on organ allometry and FA profiles may indicate the presence of some
436 metabolic cost, although this physiological adjustment remains to be evaluated. Further
437 studies should be conducted to assess the impacts of these modifications of FA profiles on sea
438 bass life history traits.

439 **Compliance with ethical standards**

440 **Conflict of interest**

441 The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

442 **Ethical approval**

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

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691 fish oil on the growth of seabass (*Dicentrarchus labrax* L. 1758). *Cah Options Mediterr*
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693 **Table index**

694 Table 1: Composition of experimental diets. For dry matter, proteins, total lipids,
 695 triglycerides, and phospholipids, data are presented as % of dry mass. Data for specific fatty
 696 acid (FA) categories are presented as % of total lipids. LD: low n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acid
 697 (PUFA) diet, RD: reference n-3 PUFA diet; SFA: saturated FA; MUFA: monounsaturated
 698 FA; ARA: arachidonic acid; EPA: eicosapentaenoic acid; DHA: docosahexaenoic acid

	LD Mean	RD Mean
	% of dry mass	
Dry matter	94.84	95.12
Proteins	50.48	50.23
Total lipids	21.98	21.63
Triglycerides	16.99	17.05
Phospholipids	4.70	4.71
	% of total lipids in diet	
SFA	2.18	2.97
MUFA	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 (ARA)	0.03	0.07
20:5n-3 (EPA)	0.28	0.94
22:5n-3	0.03	0.07
22:6n-3 (DHA)	0.45	0.71

699

700 Table 2: Effect of temperature and diet on growth indices (Δ mass: mass gain; TGC: thermal growth coefficient; SGR: specific growth rate). LD:
 701 low n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acid (PUFA) diet, RD: reference n-3 PUFA diet; BM: body mass; d: day. Values are means \pm standard deviations

	15°C		20°C		Two-way ANOVA		
	RD	LD	RD	LD	Temperature	Diet	Interaction
Δ mass (g)	2.5 \pm 0.51	1.9 \pm 0.07	5.6 \pm 0.11	4.7 \pm 0.49	P < 0.001	P < 0.01	—
TGC (g degree-days ⁻¹)	0.36 \pm 0.06	0.30 \pm 0.01	0.61 \pm 0.02	0.55 \pm 0.04	P < 0.001	P < 0.01	—
SGR (%BM d ⁻¹)	1.3 \pm 0.18	1.1 \pm 0.02	1.9 \pm 0.07	1.8 \pm 0.10	P < 0.001	—	—

702

703 Table 3: Effect of temperature and diet on muscle fatty acid (FA) profiles. Values are given as
704 % of dry matter (DM) in the neutral and polar lipid fractions at A) 720 degree-days and B)
705 1660 degree-days. LD: low n-3 polyunsaturated FA (PUFA) diet, RD: reference n-3 PUFA
706 diet. When factor interactions were significant, groups were compared with a posteriori tests
707 ($\alpha = 0.05$). For temperature \times diet interactions, significantly different groups were assigned
708 different letters. $\Sigma n-3$ includes 18:3n-3, 18:4n-3, 20:3n-3, 20:4n-3, 20:5n-3, 22:5n-3, 22:6n3;
709 $\Sigma n-6$ includes 18:2n-6, 18:3n-6, 20:2n-6, 20:3n-6, 20:4n-6; ΣSFA (saturated FA) includes
710 20:0s, 22:0s, 24:0s; $\Sigma MUFA$ (monounsaturated FA) includes 14:1n-9, 18:1n-11, 18:1n-7,
711 20:1n-7, 22:1n-9, 24:1n-9; $\Sigma PUFA$ includes 18:3n-6, 18:4n-3, 20:2n-6, 20:3n-3, 20:3n-6,
712 20:4n-3. Values are means \pm standard deviations

A		POLAR						
FA % DM	15°C		20°C		Two-way ANOVA			
	RD	LD	RD	LD	Temperature	Diet	Interaction	
18:2n-6	1.29 ^a ± 0.06	1.82 ^b ± 0.06	1.44 ^a ± 0.09	2.19 ^c ± 0.05	—	—	P < 0.05	
ARA	0.29 ± 0.02	0.2 ± 0.01	0.34 ± 0.03	0.21 ± 0.01	P < 0.05 15°C < 20°C	P < 0.001 LD < RD	—	
18:3n-3	0.33 ± 0.01	0.49 ± 0.02	0.38 ± 0.02	0.6 ± 0.02	P < 0.001 15°C < 20°C	P < 0.001 RD < LD	—	
EPA	1.94 ± 0.12	1.41 ± 0.04	2.03 ± 0.1	1.3 ± 0.04	—	P < 0.001 LD < RD	—	
DHA	3.13 ± 0.26	2.99 ± 0.19	3.55 ± 0.3	3.34 ± 0.11	P < 0.05 15°C < 20°C	—	—	
DHA/EPA	1.61 ^a ± 0.05	2.12 ^b ± 0.11	1.75 ^a ± 0.09	2.57 ^c ± 0.1	—	—	P < 0.05	
Σn-3	5.76 ± 0.41	5.22 ± 0.24	6.34 ± 0.44	5.56 ± 0.14	P < 0.05 15°C < 20°C	P < 0.01 LD < RD	—	
Σn-6	1.68 ± 0.09	2.13 ± 0.06	1.89 ± 0.13	2.55 ± 0.06	P < 0.001 15°C < 20°C	P < 0.001 RD < LD	—	
Σn-3/Σn-6	3.42 ^c ± 0.06	2.45 ^b ± 0.05	3.34 ^c ± 0	2.18 ^a ± 0.03	—	—	P < 0.01	
ΣSFA	3.33 ± 0.16	3.07 ± 0.09	3.73 ± 0.27	3.62 ± 0.11	P < 0.001 15°C < 20°C	P < 0.001 LD < RD	—	
ΣMUFA	3.33 ± 0.21	3.7 ± 0.02	4.12 ± 0.28	4.88 ± 0.05	P < 0.05 15°C < 20°C	—	—	
ΣPUFA	7.44 ± 0.5	7.34 ± 0.29	8.23 ± 0.56	8.11 ± 0.2	P < 0.01 15°C < 20°C	—	—	
ΣPUFA/ΣSFA	2.23 ± 0.12	2.39 ± 0.11	2.21 ± 0.01	2.24 ± 0.02	P < 0.001 20°C < 15°C	P < 0.001 RD < LD	—	
ΣPUFA/ΣMUFA	2.23 ± 0.03	1.98 ± 0.07	2.00 ± 0.03	1.66 ± 0.02	—	—	—	
ΣTotal	14.1 ± 0.82	14.12 ± 0.34	16.07 ± 1.11	16.62 ± 0.36	P < 0.001 15°C < 20°C	—	—	

		NEUTRAL						
FA % DM	15°C		20°C		Two-way ANOVA			
	RD	LD	RD	LD	Temperature	Diet	Interaction	
18:2n6	2.14 ± 1.62	2.03 ± 1.34	2.99 ± 0.51	2.99 ± 1.14	—	—	—	
ARA	0.05 ± 0.04	0.02 ± 0.01	0.08 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.01	—	P < 0.01 LD < RD	—	
18:3n3	0.69 ± 0.52	0.7 ± 0.47	0.97 ± 0.17	1.06 ± 0.42	—	—	—	
EPA	0.6 ± 0.44	0.22 ± 0.13	0.84 ± 0.15	0.27 ± 0.11	—	P < 0.05 LD < RD	—	
DHA	0.65 ± 0.46	0.33 ± 0.14	0.99 ± 0.16	0.57 ± 0.26	—	—	—	
DHA/EPA	1.09 ± 0.04	1.6 ± 0.31	1.18 ± 0.04	2.12 ± 0.16	P < 0.05 15°C < 20°C	P < 0.001 RD < LD	—	
Σn-3	2.16 ± 1.56	1.39 ± 0.81	3.1 ± 0.53	2.08 ± 0.85	—	—	—	
Σn-6	2.3 ± 1.75	2.12 ± 1.4	3.2 ± 0.55	3.11 ± 1.18	—	—	—	
Σn-3/Σn-6	0.96 ± 0.04	0.68 ± 0.05	0.97 ± 0.01	0.66 ± 0.02	—	P < 0.001 LD < RD	—	
ΣSFA	3.58 ± 2.6	2.4 ± 1.39	5.16 ± 0.77	3.7 ± 1.71	—	—	—	
ΣMUFA	7.43 ± 5.57	6.53 ± 4.18	10.56 ± 1.52	9.85 ± 4.16	—	—	—	
ΣPUFA	4.46 ± 3.31	3.52 ± 2.21	6.3 ± 1.07	5.18 ± 2.03	—	—	—	
ΣPUFA/ΣSFA	1.23 ± 0.06	1.44 ± 0.08	1.22 ± 0.05	1.43 ± 0.10	P < 0.001 20°C < 15°C	P < 0.001 RD < LD	—	
ΣPUFA/ΣMUFA	0.60 ± 0.02	0.54 ± 0.00	0.66 ± 0.03	0.53 ± 0.00	—	—	—	
ΣTotal	15.47 ± 11.47	12.44 ± 7.77	22.02 ± 3.35	18.73 ± 7.9	—	—	—	

B		POLAR						
FA % DM	15°C		20°C		Two-way ANOVA			
	RD	LD	RD	LD	Temperature	Diet	Interaction	
18:2n-6	1.61 ^{ab} ± 0.02	1.83 ^{ab} ± 0.51	1.22 ^a ± 0.1	2.27 ^b ± 0.31	—	—	P < 0.05	
ARA	0.38 ^b ± 0.01	0.18 ^a ± 0.05	0.3 ^b ± 0.03	0.19 ^a ± 0.03	—	—	P < 0.05	
18:3n-3	0.43 ^a ± 0	0.5 ^{ab} ± 0.12	0.34 ^a ± 0.01	0.62 ^b ± 0.08	—	—	P < 0.05	
EPA	2.04 ± 0.07	0.97 ± 0.33	1.54 ± 0.34	1.07 ± 0.13	—	P < 0.001 <i>LD < RD</i>	—	
DHA	4.41 ± 0.23	3.38 ± 0.9	3.12 ± 0.61	3.15 ± 0.53	—	—	—	
DHA/EPA	2.17 ± 0.12	3.55 ± 0.41	2.05 ± 0.26	3.05 ± 0.28	—	—	—	
Σn-3	7.3 ± 0.27	5.14 ± 1.4	5.31 ± 0.95	5.05 ± 0.84	—	—	—	
Σn-6	2.14 ± 0.03	2.16 ± 0.58	1.61 ± 0.14	2.46 ± 0.49	—	—	—	
Σn-3/Σn-6	3.42 ± 0.07	2.37 ± 0.02	3.28 ± 0.31	2.06 ± 0.13	P < 0.05 <i>20°C < 15°C</i>	P < 0.001 <i>LD < RD</i>	—	
ΣSFA	4.6 ± 0.29	3.23 ± 0.92	3.45 ± 0.4	3.77 ± 0.75	—	—	—	
ΣMUFA	4.29 ± 0.02	3.91 ± 0.8	3.62 ± 0.2	4.7 ± 0.85	—	—	—	
ΣPUFA	9.44 ± 0.3	7.3 ± 1.98	6.92 ± 1.09	7.51 ± 1.32	—	—	—	
ΣPUFA/ΣSFA	2.06 ± 0.17	2.27 ± 0.07	2.00 ± 0.08	2.00 ± 0.12	P < 0.01 <i>20°C < 15°C</i>	P < 0.01 <i>RD < LRD</i>	—	
ΣPUFA/ΣMUFA	2.20 ± 0.08	1.85 ± 0.14	1.91 ± 0.20	1.60 ± 0.09	P < 0.05 <i>20°C < 15°C</i>	—	—	
ΣTotal	18.33 ± 0.26	14.43 ± 3.69	13.99 ± 1.68	15.98 ± 2.89	—	—	—	

		NEUTRAL						
FA % DM	15°C		20°C		Two-way ANOVA			
	RD	LD	RD	LD	Temperature	Diet	Interaction	
18:2n-6	2.76 ± 0.47	5.38 ± 2.74	3.97 ± 0.54	5.99 ± 0.5	—	P < 0.05 <i>RD < LD</i>	—	
ARA	0.07 ^b ± 0.01	0.04 ^a ± 0.02	0.11 ^c ± 0.01	0.0 ^a ± 0	—	—	P < 0.05	
18:3n-3	0.91 ± 0.16	1.87 ± 1	1.44 ± 0.07	2.18 ± 0.17	—	P < 0.05 <i>RD < LD</i>	—	
EPA	0.68 ^a ± 0.14	0.42 ^a ± 0.2	1.14 ^b ± 0.08	0.48 ^a ± 0.05	—	—	P < 0.05	
DHA	1.06 ± 0.2	0.63 ± 0.24	1.34 ± 0.09	1.13 ± 0.15	P < 0.01	P < 0.05	—	

714						<i>15°C < 20°C</i>	<i>LD < RD</i>	
	DHA/EPA	20.09 ^b ± 3.56	32.41 ^b ± 14.36	29.87 ^a ± 1.72	35.95 ^c ± 5.53	—	—	P < 0.001
715	Σn-3	2.88 ± 0.51	3.19 ± 1.56	4.25 ± 0.12	3.92 ± 0.69	—	—	—
	Σn-6	2.97 ± 0.5	5.62 ± 2.81	4.25 ± 0.56	5.91 ± 0.88	—	P < 0.05 <i>RD < LD</i>	—
	Σn-3/Σn-6	0.97 ± 0.01	0.57 ± 0.01	1.01 ± 0.11	0.66 ± 0.02	—	P < 0.001 <i>LD < RD</i>	—
	ΣSFA	4.28 ± 0.82	5.9 ± 1.7	6.96 ± 0.03	6.83 ± 1.14	P < 0.05 <i>15°C < 20°C</i>	—	—
	ΣMUFA	9.95 ± 1.74	17.7 ± 8.29	14.41 ± 1.03	19.29 ± 2.88	—	P < 0.05 <i>RD < LD</i>	—
	ΣPUFA	5.86 ± 1.02	8.81 ± 4.37	8.5 ± 0.67	9.82 ± 1.57	—	—	—
	ΣPUFA/ΣSFA	1.37 ± 0.03	1.42 ± 0.40	1.22 ± 0.09	1.44 ± 0.09	P < 0.01 <i>20°C < 15°C</i>	P < 0.01 <i>RD < LD</i>	—
	ΣPUFA/ΣMUFA	0.59 ± 0.01	0.49 ± 0.02	0.59 ± 0.01	0.51 ± 0.02	P < 0.05 <i>15°C < 20°C</i>	—	—
	ΣTotal	2.88 ± 0.51	3.19 ± 1.56	4.25 ± 0.12	3.92 ± 0.69	—	—	—

716 **Figure captions**

717 **Fig. 1** Effect of diet and temperature on A) body mass (g) and B) standard length (mm) in
718 logarithmic scale. LD: low omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acid (n-3 PUFA) diet; RD:
719 reference n-3 PUFA diet. Values are means \pm standard deviations

720 **Fig. 2** Effect of diet (LD, low omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acid [n-3 PUFA] diet; RD,
721 reference n-3 PUFA diet) on organ allometry of fish raised at 20°C: A) heart; B)
722 gastrointestinal system; and for fish raised at 15°C: C) liver; D) mesenteric fat

723 **Fig. 3** Effect of diet on muscle/dietary lipid ratios for linoleic acid (18:2n-6), arachidonic acid
724 (ARA, 20:4n-6), eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA, 20:5n-3), and docosapentenoic acid (DHA,
725 22:6n-3) in A) the polar fraction and B) the neutral fraction. When factor interactions were
726 significant, groups were compared with a posteriori tests ($\alpha = 0.05$). For temperature \times diet
727 interactions, significantly different groups were assigned different letters. *: $P < 0.05$; **: $P <$
728 0.01 ; ***: $P < 0.001$. LD: low omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acid (n-3 PUFA) diet; RD:
729 reference n-3 PUFA diet; d: diet; t: temperature. Values are means \pm standard deviations

730

Figure 1

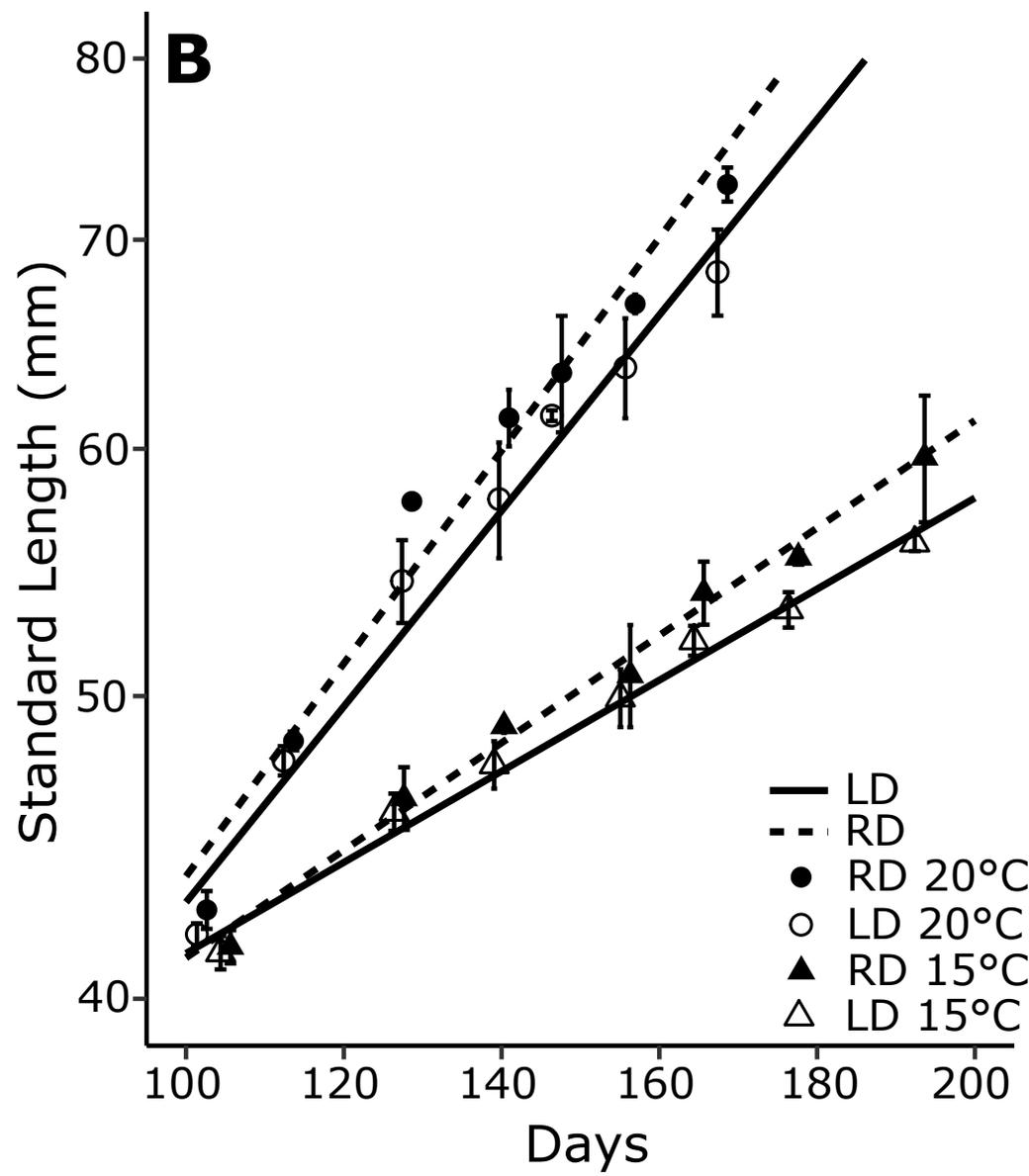
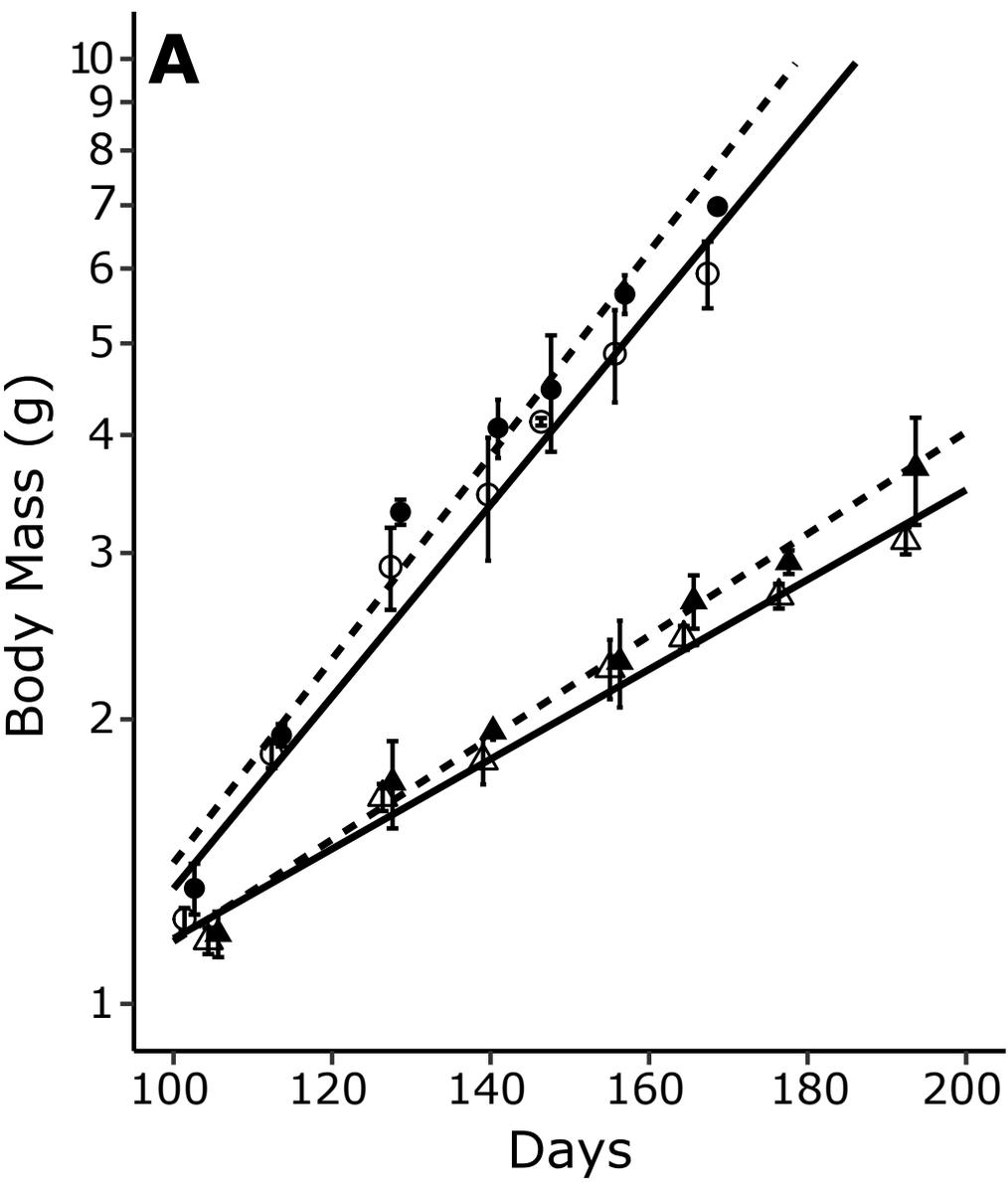
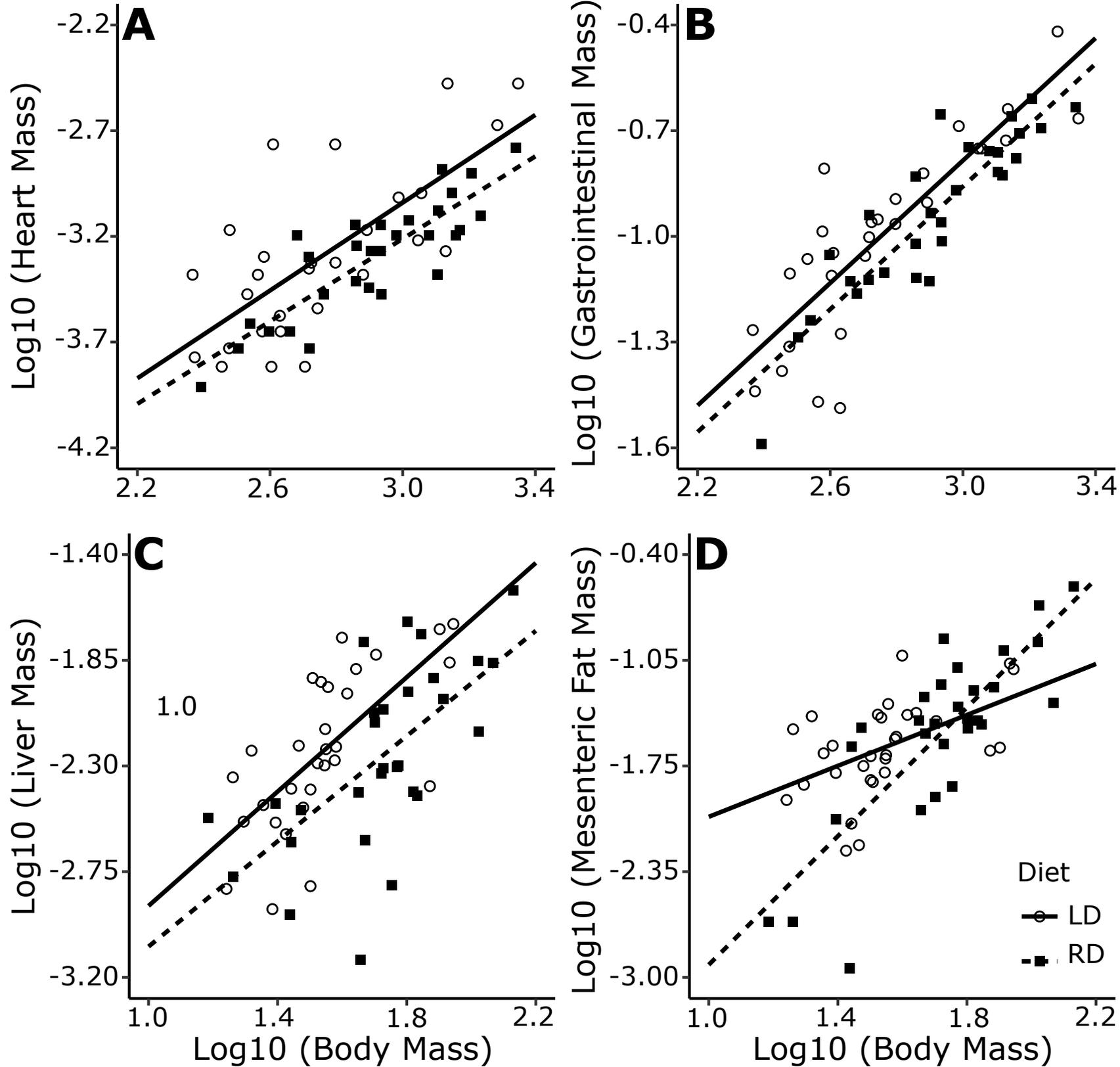
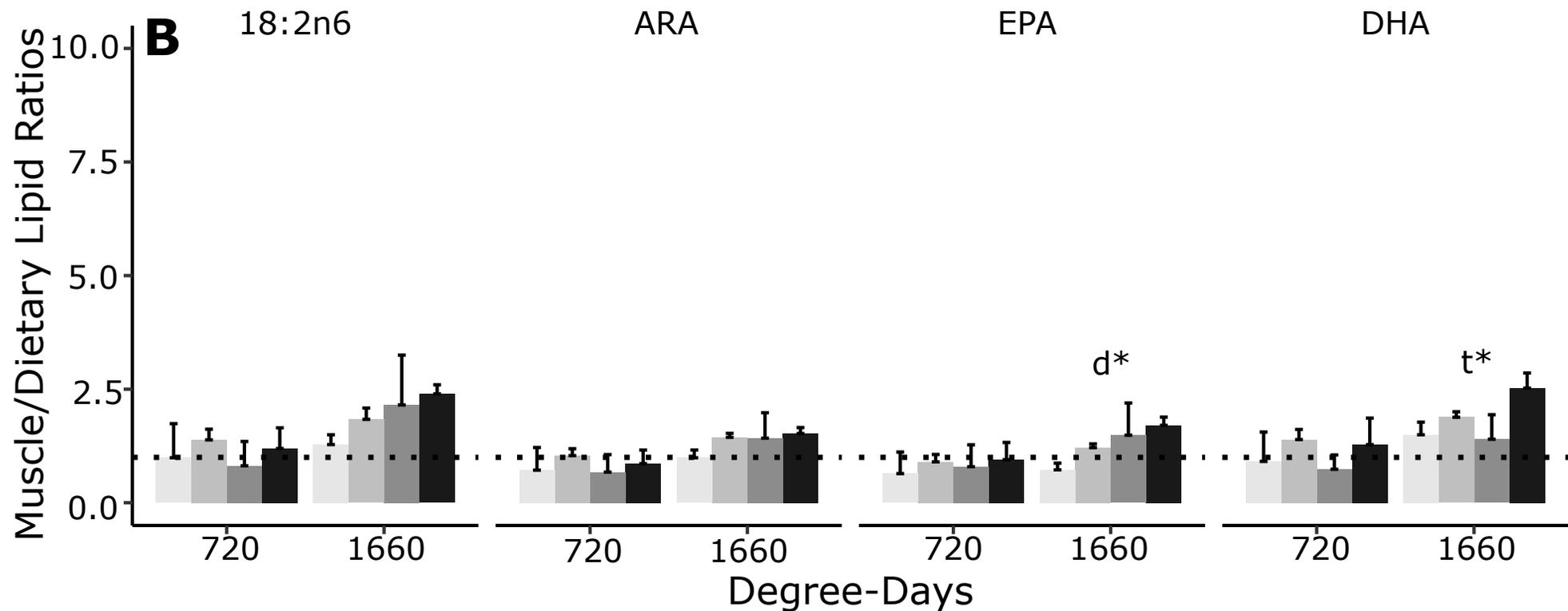
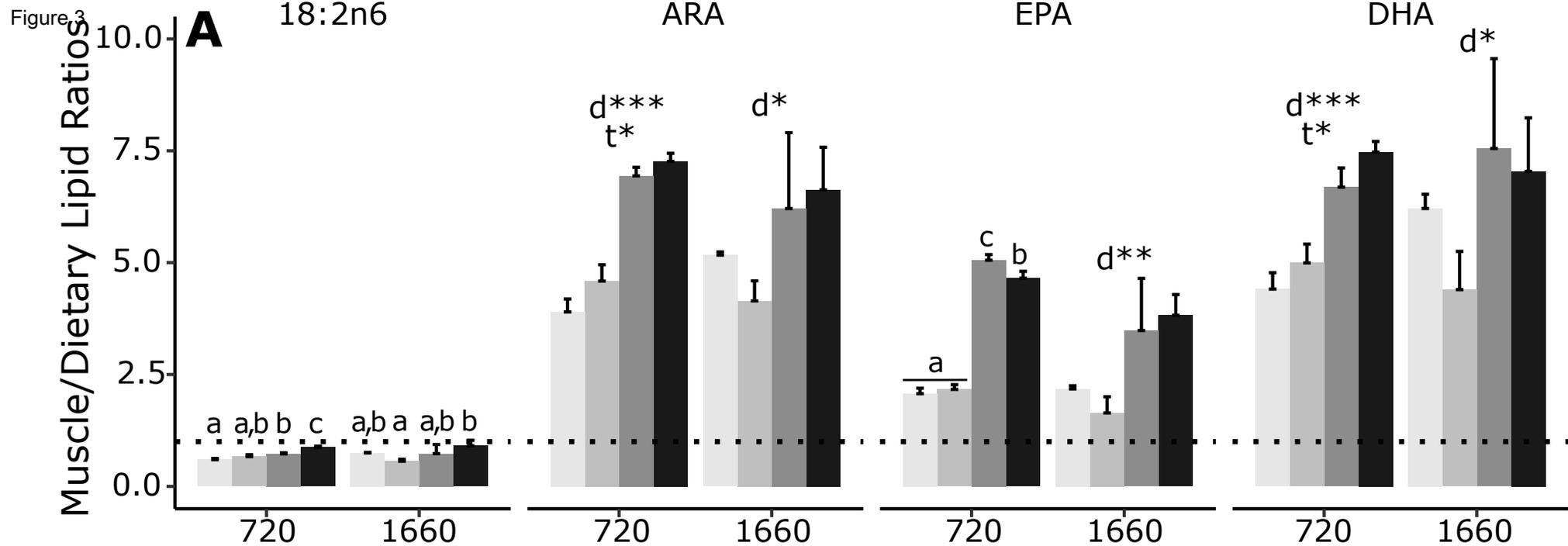
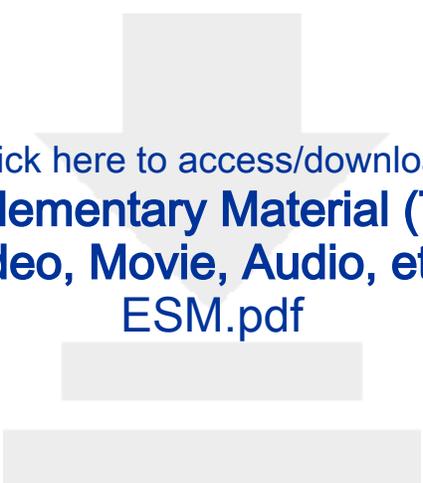


Figure 2





RD 15°C RD 20°C LD 15°C LD 20°C



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