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- 1 Effect of fish oil replacement and probiotic addition on growth, body composition
- 2 and histological parameters of vellowtail (Seriola dumerili)
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10 Abstract

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Fish (175 g of initial weight) were fed in triplicated groups with four diets formulated by 11 0% (FO 100), 75% (FO 25) and 100% (with and without probiotics, FO 0 and FO 0+) of 12 fish oil replacement consisting of a mixture of linseed, sunflower and palm oils. After 13 109 days, growth and nutritional parameters were not affected by the treatment, however, 14 fish fed with 0% of fish oil showed the lowest survival rate and without differences 15 between the same diet with probiotics. As for biometric parameters, significant 16 differences in the viscerosomatic index (VSI) were observed between fish fed the FO 0+ 17 diet and the FO 100 and FO 25 diets. Results obtained from histological analysis did not 18 19 detect inflammation in gut samples, while liver samples showed a remarkable steatosis in all four treatments. Total fish oil replacement produced a significant difference in the 20 width of the lamina propria. The dietary inclusion of probiotics in the FO 0+ diet seems 21 22 to favor a recovery of intestine histology. In addition, as fish oil substitution increased,

the width of the lamina propria also increased.

- In conclusion, it is possible to affirm that the four diets administrated to *Seriola dumerili* did not compromise the correct development of the animals.
- **Keywords**: fish oil, *Seriola dumerili*, yellowtail, fatty acids, histology, probiotics

1. Introduction

The high demand and insecurity in the supply of fish oil (FO) is causing an increase in the price, which is leading aquaculture industries to search for vegetable oil substitutes.

This situation is relevant to aquaculture activity sustainability; because FO is the main lipidic source for carnivorous marine fish diets, due to its high content of essential fatty acids, in particular n-3 HUFA (Nasopoulou and Zabetakis, 2012). Several vegetable oils have been studied to substitute fish oil, such as soybean, rapeseed, linseed, palm, sunflower, canola oil, etc. A review of fish oil replacement in finfish has been published by Turchini *et al.* (2009) and a meta-analysis of the substitution of marine oil by plant oils has been reported by Sales and Glencross (2011).

Soybean and linseed oil are considered as a very good alternative lipid source for partial substitution in feed for freshwater fish and salmonids (Bell *et al.*, 2001; Rosenlund *et al.*, 2001, Acar *et al.*, 2018). Other sources and the combination of them have been assayed in salmon (Higgs *et al.*, 2006; Menoyo *et al.*, 2006; Nanton *et al.*, 2007; Pratoomyot *et al.*, 2008; Torstensen *et al.*, 2008; Bell *et al.*, 2002; Bogevik *et al.*, 2011), being possible a complete substitution of fish oil when a mixture of rapeseed, palm and cameline oils was used (Bell *et al.*, 2002). Complete replacement of fish oil has been reported by other works, but this is only possible when high/medium dietary levels of fish meal are present in the diets (Drew *et al.*, 2007, Acar and Türker, 2018). Also, several studies have been developed on sea bream

(Kalogeropoulos *et al.*, 1992; El-Kerdawy and Salama, 1997; Montero *et al.*, 2003; Izquierdo *et al.*, 2003, 2005; Caballero *et al.*, 2004; Martínez-Llorens *et al.*, 2007; Benedito-Palos *et al.*, 2008; Dias *et al.*, 2009; Fountoulaki *et al.*, 2009; Wassef *et al.*, 2009; Montero and Izquierdo, 2010) and a study on yellowtail (Monge-Ortiz *et al.*, 2018b). The supplementation with essential fatty acids (EFA) is not habitual, and only Ibeas *et al.* (1996, 1997, 2000) used HUFAs in diets with beef tallow.

Studies on the nutritional requirements of *S. dumerili* are scarce, because the studies have focused on alternative protein fish meal sources and nutrient levels (Jover *et al.*, 1999; Tomás-Vidal *et al.*, 2005, 2008; Takakuwa *et al.*, 2006; Uyan *et al.*, 2009; Monge-Ortiz *et al.*, 2018 a, b). Several species within the Seriola family have been researched both for nutritional requirements and replacement of fishmeal and fish oil in yellowtail kingfish (*S. lalandi*) (Bowyer *et al.*, 2012a, 2013; Collins *et al.*, 2014), and Japanese yellowtail (*S. quinqueradiata*) (Seno-O *et al.*, 2008; Sarker *et al.*, 2012; Khaoian *et al.*, 2014).

The main storage sites for lipids in fish are the liver, the perivisceral adipose tissue and the muscle, the only part that is really edible (Guillaume *et al.*, 2004). In numerous species, such as *Seriola lalandi*, rainbow trout, sea bream, *P. californicus*, and *Maccullochella peelii*, it has been demonstrated that that the fish fillet fatty acid profile is totally conditioned by the diet fatty acid profile (Caballero *et al.*, 2002; Izquierdo *et al.*, 2005; Badillo-Zapata *et al.*, 2010; Turchini *et al.*, 2011; Bowyer *et al.*, 2012b), similarly, this also happens in *S. dumerili*. The nature and content of a fats diet have a considerable influence on muscle composition (Guillaume *et al.*, 2004). Therefore, the composition of body FA reflects the diet FA. So, the substitution of the FO for an alternative lipid source, either plant or animal, not only affects the fish growth and the nutritional efficiency, but also affects (Turchini *et al.*, 2009) the

body fatty acids profile, as a consequence of the capacity of the species to biosynthesize fatty acids.

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In addition to the effects on growth and body composition as a result of the fish oil replacement, intestinal changes can be produced, such as modifications in the submucosa and muscular layers in the case of rainbow trout (Xu et al., 2016). Also in rainbow trout, Caballero et al. (2002) observed an increase in the accumulation of fat in the liver in fish fed diets with high fish oil substitution. Sea bream fed high fish oil substitution diets presented differences in the size of the hepatocytes by the accumulation of fat and also the nuclei moved towards the periphery of the cell (Wassef et al., 2007), altering the cellular structure. Conversely, no intestinal and hepatic changes were found in seabass, Dicentrarchux labrax (Figueiredo-Silva et al., 2005) and sharpsnout seabream, Diplodus puntazzo (Nogales-Mérida et al., 2017) fed diets with soybean oil. In addition, previous studies reported that probiotics might facilitate digestion (Najafabad et al., 2016), due to it can modified the structure of the intestine, such as villi elongation (Je et al. 2019), and intestinal fold height augment (Yang et al., 2019), and function of the gastrointestinal tract (Akter et al., 2016) optimising the nutrients absorption surface and therfore the nutrients digestibility (John et al., 2008). Nevertheless, in almost all of these studies address the interaction beetween probiotics and dietary fish meal subtitution by alternative protein, but the studies focus on the nexus between these additivites with FO susbtituion in fish diets are scarce.

The use of probiotics and its effects on growth and survival has been studied in aquaculture species such as the goldfish, *Carassius auratus* (Abraham *et al.*, 2008) golden pompano, *Trachinotus ovatus* (Liu *et al.*, 2020) and the Nile tilapia, *Oreochromis niloticus* (Aly *et al.*, 2008). The importance of the use of probiotics in

aquaculture is due to the fact that in fish; these would occupy and colonize sites in the digestive tract particularly in the epithelium of the gastrointestinal mucosa which, in turn, would displace pathogens and therefore improve the health status of organisms (Jöborn et al., 1997; Macey and Covne, 2006; Merrifield et al., 2010; Lazado et al., 2011; Korkea-Aho et al., 2012). Likewise, the use of probiotics improves the activities of the innate immune system such as phagocytes (neutrophils macrophages), respiratory status, lysozyme activity and the activity of peroxidase and antiprotease (Akhter et al., 2015), modulates GI communities and improves the systemic immune responses (Merrifield and Ringø, 2014,). This is important since it helps the fish in the face of an adverse situation such as the appearance of pathogens and diseases in fish that have been fed with high replacement of fish meal and fish oil diets. It is also known that the use of probiotics in diets can modified in the microbiota associated with the gastrointestinal tract of the host and generate beneficial effects such as increased feed conversion and digestibility (De Schrijver and Ollevier, 2000; Ten Doeschate and Coyne, 2008; Diaz and Martinez-Silva, 2009, Je et al., 2019). Stress and immunosuppression in fish fed non-fish meal and non-fish oil are subjected to increase the chances that the fish will be affected by pathogens specially in liver (Montero et al., 2008; Martin and Król, 2017), since when marine ingredients replacement are high, mortality increases (Estruch et al., 2018a, 2018b; Monge-Ortiz et al., 2018a, 2018b). In order to improve the survival of fish fed with high vegetal ingredients dietary inclusion and its effect on immunosuppression, probiotics can be added with the objective to enhance the immune system of depressed fish (Dimitroglou et al., 2011, Merrifield and Ringø, 2014, Ringø, 2020). The use of probiotics has been shown to significantly increase survival and fish performance (Acar et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2020).

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The aim of this study was to evaluate the replacement of fish oil for a mixture of vegetable oils and the effect of the addition of a probiotic composed of *Lactobacillus brevis* and *L. buchneri*, to analyse the repercussion on the growth and nutritional parameters of *S. dumerili*, its fatty acid composition and the digestive histology effects.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Fish and experimental diets

The trial was carried out with juvenile fish (*S. dumerili*) obtained from the Futuna Blue S.A. company (Cádiz, Spain). The average weight of fish was 175 g. Before starting the growth trial, the animals had been allowed to acclimatize (one month) to the new conditions of the laboratory. During this time, fish were fed up to apparent satiation, twice daily (9:00 a.m.-16:00 p.m.) with a control diet, six days a week. Water parameters had been constantly monitored: temperature 21.5± 2.4°C, salinity 31 g·L⁻¹ (31.5 ± 4.1 g·L⁻¹), pH 7.5 to 8.0 and dissolved oxygen 8 mg·l⁻¹. The photoperiod was natural and all tanks had similar light conditions. Following the acclimatization period, a total of 300 fish were randomly distributed in 12 tanks (25 fish/tank). The fish re-distribution into tanks was conducted in a way that limited stress. The animals were anaesthetized with clove oil at 30 mg·L⁻¹, containing 87% of euglenol (Guinamas, Valencia, Spain). The period of the trial was of 109 days.

Four isolipidic diets (15% CF, crude fat) and isoproteic diets (52% CP, crude protein) were formulated. Diets were formulated with different levels of fish oil replacement with a mixture of vegetable oils. The diets composition is shown in Table 1. FO 0+ diet had the same formulation than FO 0 with the addition of probiotics

148 Lactobacillus brevis and L. buchneri, which were added daily to the pellet by spraying it directly before eating (50 ml for 500 g). 149 150 2.2. Biometric parameters, growth indices and proximate composition 151 At the end of the growth trial, five fish were randomly sampled from each tank to 152 determine the biometric parameters and to carry out the proximate composition analysis. The following indices were calculated: 153 154 Specific Growth Rate [% d^{-1}], SGR = {100 x ln [Final weight/Initial weight]}/d Feed Intake ratio [g 100 g fish-1 day-1], $FI = \{100 \text{ x feed intake [g]}\}/\{\text{Average biomass}\}$ 155 156 [g]. d157 Feed Conversion Ratio, FCR = Feed intake [g]/Weight gain [g] 158 Condition Factor [g·cm⁻³], CF = 100 x Total fish weight [g]/Total length³ [cm³] Viscerosomatic Index [%], VSI = 100 x Visceral weight [g]/Total fish weight [g] 159 Hepatosomatic Index [%], HSI = 100 x Liver weight [g]/Total fish weight [g] 160 Mesenteric Fat Index [%], MFI = 100 x Mesenteric fat weight [g]/Total fish weight 161 162 [g] Dressout Percentage [%]: $DP = 100 \times (Total fish weight [g] - Visceral weight [g] - Vis$ 163 164 Head weight [g])/Total weight Muscle Index [%], MI: 100 x Muscle weight [g]/Total fish weight [g] 165 166 2.3. Chemical analysis Chemical analyses of the dietary ingredients were performed prior to diet 167 168 formulation. The proximate composition of whole fish and fish diets were analysed 169 according to (AOAC, 1990) procedures: dry matter, official method 934.01 (105°C

to constant weight); ash, official method 942.05 (incinerated at 550°C for 5 h); crude protein, official method 990.03 (determined by direct combustion method DUMAS using LECO CN628) and crude lipid, official method 920.39 (extracted with methylether using ANKOMXT10 Extractor). All analyses were performed in triplicate. The following indices were calculated:

Protein Productive Value [%], PPV = 100 x Protein fish gain [g]/Protein intake [g]

Fat Productive Value [%], FPV = 100 x Fat fish gain [g]/Fat intake [g]

Energy Productive Value [%], EPV = 100 x Energy fish gain [g]/Energy intake [g]

Fatty acids were determined by direct synthesis of methyl esters (FAME), and analysed by gas chromatography on a FINNIGAN FOCUS 6C chromatograph (AI 3000) (O'Fallon *et al.* 2007).

2.4. Histological analysis

Samples of proximal and distal intestine from three fish per tank were taken at the end of the experiment, fixed in formalin, dehydrated in a different ethanol concentration and fixed in paraffin. Sections (5µm) were stained with PAS-Alcian blue and observed through light microscopy.

The histological analysis performed was a quantitative analysis. Measurements used a combination of parameters proposed by different authors (Santigosa *et al.*, 2008, Adamidou *et al.*, 2009, Øverland *et al.*, 2009). Specifically, the histological analysis focused on the measurement of length and width of the intestinal villus. Six villi were measured for each of the three fish collected in each of the three tanks belonging to the same treatment. In addition, the thickness of the lamina propria, of the submucosa, muscular and serous layer were analysed

All the images of samples were taken with an optical microscope Nikon JAPON 0.90. The images were analysed using Photoshop software and a conversion into metric units.

2.5. Statistical analysis

Growth data, nutrient utilization, biometric parameters, body composition, fatty acids composition and histological analysis were treated using multifactor analysis of variance (ANOVA). The Newman–Keuls test was used to assess specific differences among diets at 0.05 significant levels (Statgraphics, Statistical Graphics System, Version Centurion XVI, Warrenton, Virginia, USA).

2.6. Ethical statement

The *Seriola dumerili* study complied with the European Union Council Directive 2010/63/UE, which sets out standards for the protection of animals and Spanish legislation (Spanish Royal Decree 53/2013) that protect animals used in experimentation. The experimental protocol was approved by the Ethics and Animal Welfare Committee of the Universitat Politècnica de València (UPV).

Fish in the tanks were checked twice daily. Additionally, every month fish were weighed individually and their health status was assessed by way of observation after sedation with clove oil dissolved in water (0.01 mg·L⁻¹ of water). Animals were euthanized by an excess of clove oil (150 mg·L⁻¹) and later dissected and analyzed.

3. Results

3.1. Composition of diets

Composition and concentration of the fatty acids diets reflect the concentrations of the types of oils used in each of them (Table 2). Thus, the diets containing fish oil lipid source had a higher quantity of highly unsaturated essential fatty acids of the n-

3 chain (HUFA n-3). On the other hand, diets where vegetable oils such as linseed, sunflower and palm were used as a lipid source were characterized by a greater quantity of linoleic and linolenic fatty acids respectively.

3.2. Growth, nutritional and biometric parameters

During the 109 days of the growth trial no negative effects were found with either partial and complete fish oil substitution with vegetable oil or the inclusion of probiotics on growth and feed performance of *S. dumerili* (Table 3). However, if differences in survival were found, fish fed the FO 25 treatment showed the highest value, while fish fed the FO 0+ diet the lowest. All diets were readily accepted by the fish and no significant differences were reported in feed intake (1.1 g/100 fish per day), food conversion ratio (1.6) or specific growth ratio (0.8 %/day).

In general, biometric indices were similar in all treatments analysed as is shown in Table 4, except the viscerosomatic index (VSI), which was higher in yellowtail fed with the FO0+diet.

3.3. Body composition

Body composition and productive values are shown in Table 5. No significant differences were found in crude fat, dry matter and ashes in fish composition. Conversely, crude protein results indicated significant differences between treatments FO 25 and FO 0+. No significant differences were found in productive values.

The fatty acids profile (g 100 /g in wet weight) of the juveniles of yellowtail fed during the experiment is shown in Table 6. Fish fed the FO 25, FO 0 and FO 0+ diets (including high levels of vegetable oils) presented significantly higher concentrations of α -linolenic acid and the EPA / DHA ratio, while fish fed the control diet (FO 100), presented significantly greater proportions of 20:3n6 acid, arachidonic acid and

docosahexaenoic acid (DHA). The amount of eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) did not differ significantly between treatments that contained fish oil lipid source (FO 100 and FO 25) (Table 6).

Results of the fatty acids productive values are shown in Table 7. In comparison with the control diet (58.9 g/100 g), the retention efficiency of fish fed diets with 100% vegetable mixtures oils (FO 0 (88.7 g/100 g) and FO 0+ (88.5 g/100 g)) showed higher retention efficiencies of 17:0 acid, while only the group of fish fed the FO 0 diet indicated significant efficiencies under 18:3n-6, 22:4n-6 acid and 18:3n-3.In the case of EPA and DHA, no significant differences were found between treatments.

3.4. Histological observations

The results of anterior and posterior intestine measurements are reported in Table 8 and 9, respectively.

In the anterior intestine differences only appear in the thickness of the submucosa layer, thinner in the control diet. No statistically significant differences were identified in the length and width of the villi and lamina propria. For all treatments, the ratio between the width of the lamina propria and the width of the villus were very similar.

In the posterior intestine the thickness of serosa (SL), muscularis (ML) and submucosa (SML) of the four treatments showed no statistically significant differences among fish fed the different diets. However, significant differences were identified in the length of the villi and in the width of the lamina propria. Particularly, FO 25 shows the lower length of villi value, which is statistically different from the FO 100, FO 0 and FO 0+ diets.

Regarding liver histology, the cells count and their respective measurement (diameter and core) were not possible because of the remarkable steatosis present in samples of all treatments (Figure 1). As *Seriola dumerili* is a lean fish, accumulates lipids in the liver. The hepatocytes, which should be of polygonal form with a central nucleus, are deformed by the diffuse presence of lipid droplets to the point that their shape is not perceptible.

4. Discussion

The present study indicates that it is possible to substitute practically all FO from the feed for juveniles of yellowtail (*S. dumerili*) with a mixture of vegetable oils (palm, linseed and sunflower), without causing adverse effects on growth, fish performance and nutritional parameters. This is similar to what happens in other species, such as the California halibut (*Paralichthys californicus*) (Badillo-Zapata *et al.*, 2010), the gilthead seabream (*Sparus aurata*) in a work of Benedito-Palos *et al.* (2007) or rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) (Thanuthong *et al.*, 2011, Acar *et al.*, 2018, Parrino *et al.*, 2019).

The fatty acid composition of the diets formulated with 100 (FO 100) and 25% (FO 25) fish oil as a lipid source, showed higher concentrations of essential fatty acids (EFA), ARA, EPA and DHA, while, as was expected, feed formulated with 100% mixtures of linseed, palm and sunflower oils without (FO 0) and with probiotic supplementation (FO 0+), were characterized by high levels of 18: 1n-9, 18: 2n-6 and 18: 3n-3, respectively. The mixture of vegetable oils provides n-3 / n-6 and EPA / DHA balanced ratios, similar to that obtained in our previous formulation in diets for Mediterranean yellowtail (Monge-Ortiz *et al.*, 2018b). This did not suppose a disadvantage, neither in the growth nor in the nutritious parameters of the M. yellowtail, due to all the diets covered the requirements of EPA, DHA and of highly

unsaturated fatty acids of chain n-3 (n-3 HUFA), possibly because the amount of FO present in FM (350g/kg) was sufficient to reach the minimum needs of EFA in yellowtail 175 g initial weight. It is possible to make diets for *Seriola spp*. with levels of EPA and DHA around 0.5% (Guillaume *et al.*, 2004), even in the case of EPA, it could be with levels of 0.3%, since no differences in growth have been found

Although the substitution of fish oil for mixtures of vegetable oils did not affect the growth and nutritional parameters in Mediterranean yellowtail, it has a negative effect on survival, it could be explained by the deficiency of essential fatty acids in diets without fish-oil, because this reduction may lead to immunosuppression in fish (Montero *et al.*, 1998, 2003), as it has been reported in other fish species.

Substitutions above 75% of the FO by mixtures of VO significantly affect yellowtail survival. The addition of the probiotic did not improve survival in this experiment, similar to were reported in rabbitfish (Siganus rivulatus) (El-Dakar et al., 2007) and in dentex (Dentex dentex) (Hidalgo et al., 2006). Probiotics act on both innate and adaptive gut immunity. The microorganisms they contain can stimulate the production of certain components of the immune system, such as the secretion of cytokines. In addition, certain probiotics can induce differentiation of mature B lymphocytes and the production of antibodies, such as IgA. Despite the large number of studies, it is currently unknown exactly how probiotics interact with lymphoid cells in the intestine to achieve activation of the intestinal immune system but it is a fact that so happens. The use of probiotics that had been studied in other species such as poultry, pigs or cattle, has given good results, improving intestinal health and growth in fish (Dimitroglou et al., 2009). Probiotics (Lactobacillus brevis and L. buchneri) were added to improve the digestibility of nutrients and to strengthen the immune system of the host (Akhter et al., 2015) in non-fish oil diet, but results were not as

expected. In other species, such as tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*) (Aly *et al.*, 2008), sole (*Solea senegalensis*) (Sáenz De Rodrigáñez *et al.* 2009) and golden pompano (*Trachinotus ovatus*) (Liu *et al.* 2020) the use of probiotics in diets has been shown to improve nutrient digestibility and survival.

Nonetheless, the use of probiotics in aquaculture can pose difficulties, and it is important to take into account two factors of great influence: the selection of the strains and their stability that allows obtaining an effective density. It can be the cause of the non-effectivity in present work, probiotics must be specifically selected from the hosts in which they are to be used, since in this way the effects caused by the wide differences between the environments in which organisms develop are minimized. But similar results were obtained in Atlantic salmon, the use of probiotics increased their mortality (Gildberg *et al.*, 1995) or in sea bream (*Sparus aurata*) where probiotics addition caused intestinal damage (Cerezuela *et al.*, 2012, 2013). Therefore, it is possible that the probiotics used could not have helped to strengthen the immune system in the FO 0+ treatment because the species used are not the most suitable for the yellowtail.

A close relationship between FA dietary level and fish survival was observed in present trial. In fact, Izquierdo *et al.* (2003) reported that sea bream fed diets without fish oil for 204 days demonstrated effects in both humoral and cellular immunology. Montero *et al.*, (2008) reported that the inclusion of dietary vegetable oils modified the fish content and ratio of arachidonic and eicosapentaenoic acids, altering in turn the production of immunologically active eicosanoids derived from these fatty acids. Specifically, in present work conditions, it is therefore possible to hypothesize that the monthly handling of fish may have generated stressful situations for the animals. Probably, fish fed with FO 0 and FO 0+ diets received enough *n*-3 HUFA, EPA and

DHA for their growth but insufficient to complete the immunologic system, whereas diets FO 0 and FO 0+ showed the lowest *n*-3 HUFA values. Specifically, *n*-3 HUFA requirements for marine species, such as red seabream (*Pagrus major*), yellowtail (*Seriola lalandi*) and turbot (*Psetta maxima*), range from 0.5 to 2.0% of dry diet (Kiron *et al.*, 1995; Montero *et al.*, 1998; Salze *et al.*, 2010) detected that the immune response of rainbow trout and sea bream was depressed when the diet was deficient in EPA and DHA. Furthermore, an EFA unbalanced contribution could change the membrane fatty acid composition of immune cells such as leukocytes (Montero *et al.*, 2008).

In fact, dietary fatty acids influence the lipid composition of membrane cells and their physical properties, exerting a profound effect on the activity of enzymes associated with membranes and receptors, and on immune response, as many of these responses are based on interactions on the cell membrane of leukocytes (e.g. cytokinin production). Although, dietary fatty acids may affect the production of eicosanoids derived from fatty acids of 20 carbon atoms (mainly EPA and arachidonic acid, AA). Eicosanoids include prostaglandins, leukotrienes and lipoxins, which are involved in various physiological processes such as osmoregulation and immune response (Uhing *et al.*, 1990; Rola-Pleszczynski and Stankova 1992).

While the effect of improving nutritional parameters in the diet is not reflected, due to fish fed with and without probiotics exhibited very similar results, some differences between both treatments were found in gut histology. The anterior intestine submucosa thickness of fish fed control and the FO 0+ diet was similar as the width of the lamina propria in the posterior, which can be explained by the assumption that probiotics have helped to reduce LP inflammation. In the other

histological parameters studied no differences were found between diet, as it has been reported in olive flounder (Paralichthys olivaceus) where the probiotic slightly modified the size of the villi without finding significant differences (Je et al. 2019). Despite this, in present work, the substitution of fish oil has not noticed very relevant effects on intestinal histology. The massive steatosis observed in all liver samples highlights a dysregulation of lipid metabolism. These results are in agreement with several previous works; Fountoulaki et al., (2009) found that sea bream fed dietary lipids from vegetable origin seemed to increase lipid accumulation in liver at a different degree according to the fat origin, palm oil being superior to soybean oil, which was superior to rapeseed oil which was superior to fish oil. In particular, livers from fish fed with palm oil diet showed apparent steatosis, with intense lipid accumulation. The integrity of the hepatocytes was also affected; swelling and nuclei displacement were evident in all examined livers. Again, Benedito-Palos et al. (2008) studied the effect of feeding sea bream with diets rich in vegetable oil, and reported that fish showed fatty livers, in particular with signs of lipoid liver disease. Under present work conditions, all livers studied present steatosis, perhaps it is because the yellowtail needs diets with low fat level and the excess is accumulated in the liver, as was demonstrated by Tomás-Vidal et al. (2005) where yellowtail fed with 14% CF diets got better growth and nutritional results than fishes fed with 17% CF.

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In particular, linoleic acid had perhaps been included in diets at too high concentrations for the requirements of yellowtail. As reported by Caballero *et al.*, (2004), this PUFA could be one of the main causes of lipid accumulation in the liver. The authors suggest that the type of non-essential fatty acid, characteristic of vegetable oils, induces the appearance of steatosis in the following order: linoleic acid > linolenic acid > oleic acid. Moreover, another possible explanation of the

remarkable steatosis presented could be related to the lack of the dietary phospholipids. Lu *et al.*, (2008) reported that the dietary inclusion of soybean phospholipid (PL) to *Pelteobagrus fulvidraco* larvae decreased the degree of lipid accumulation in the hepatocytes. Specifically, Ipatova *et al.*, (2004) reported that proven health benefits in the case of soybean phospholipids supplementation include lipid decrease, control of blood levels of cholesterol and triglycerides, stabilization of membrane functions and support of hepatic functions. In the case of *Seriola dumerili*, it is also possible to hypothesize that the rearing conditions have influenced the energy consumption of fish. It is possible to suppose that swimming limited to the area of the tanks compared to swimming in natural habitat may have contributed to decreasing energy consumption.

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Data availability statement

No data to share.

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	FO 100	FO 25	FO 0
Ingredients (g/kg) ^u			
Fishmeal	350	350	350
Wheat meal	100	100	100
Wheat gluten	140	140	140
Soybean meal	185	185	185
Iberian pig meal	110	110	110
Fish oil	95	24	0
Linseed oil	-	28	38
Sunflower oil	-	21	28
Palm oil	-	22	29
^v Multivitamin and minerals mix	20	20	20
Analysed composition (% dry weight)			
Dry matter (%DM)	89.3	89.7	89.4
Crude protein (%CP)	52.2	52.5	52.1
Crude lipid (%CL)	14.5	14.4	14.4
Ash (%)	7.3	9.1	7.4
Calculated values			
^μ Energy (kJ/g)	21.4	21.3	21.2

^u Fishmeal (crude protein, CP: 70.7%; crude lipids, CL: 8.9%; Carbohydrates, CHO: 6,0%; Ash: 15.1%); Wheat meal (CP: 14.0%; CL: 2.4%; CHO: 83.0%; Ash: 2.4); Wheat gluten (CP: 70.9%; CL: 1.3%; CHO: 34.1%; Ash: 1.5%), Soybean meal (CP: 34.3%; CL: 1.3%; CHO: 34.1%; Ash: 1.5%), Iberian pig meal (CP: 66.4%; CL: 16.3%; Ash: 1.9%)

^vMultivitamin and minerals mix(values are g/kg except those in parenthesis): Premix: 25; Choline, 10; DL-a-tocopherol, 5; ascorbic acid, 5; (PO₄)₂Ca₃, 5. Premix composition: retinol acetate, 1000000 IU kg−1; calcipherol, 500 IU/kg; DL-a-tocopherol, 10; menadione sodium bisulfite, 0.8; thiamine hydrochloride, 2.3; riboflavin, 2.3; pyridoxine hydrochloride, 15; cyanocobalamin, 25; nicotinamide, 15; pantothenic acid, 6; folic acid, 0.65; biotin, 0.07; ascorbic acid, 75; inositol, 15; betaine, 100, polypeptides 12.

 $^{\mu}$ Energy (%) = (51.8 x (%C/100)) – (19.4 x (%N/100)). Calculated according to Brouwer (1965)

Table 2. Fatty profile (g 100/g, wet matter) of experimental diets.

	FO 100	FO 25	FO 0	FO 0+
14:0	0.319	0.249	0.185	0.160
15:0	0.002	0.003	0.002	0.002
16:0	1.839	2.045	2.122	1.894
17:0	0.052	0.025	0.018	0.016
18:0	0.494	0.510	0.528	0.482
Σ Saturate d ^a	2.707	2.831	2.855	2.554
16:1	0.411	0.289	0.204	0.180
18:1n-9	2.643	3.096	3.663	3270
18:1n-7	0.384	0.307	0.273	0.245
22:1n-9	0.031	0.004	0.007	0.008
Σ MUFA ^a	3.470	3.695	4.147	3.703
18:2n-6	1.233	1.395	1.666	1.508

18:3n-6	0.010	0.009	0.010	0.008
20:3n-6	0.010	0.004	0.004	0.005
20:4n-6	0.099	0.061	0.039	0.036
22:4n-6	0.023	0.020	0.010	0.010
Σ n-6 PUFA ^a	1.375	1.488	1.730	1.567
18:3n-3	0.218	1.095	1.637	1.444
20:3n-3	0.015	0.008	0.006	0.005
20:5n-3 EPA	0.566	0.453	0.311	0.283
22:5n-3	0.126	0.076	0.047	0.046
22:6n-3 DHA	1.264	0.795	0.480	0.448
Σ n-3 PUFA ^a	2.189	2.427	2.481	2.227
Σ n-3 HUFA ^a	1.956	1.324	0.838	0.777
EPA/DHAb	0.448	0.569	0.648	0.632
DHA/EPA ^b	2.23	1.75	1.54	1.58
n-3/n-6	1.592	1.631	1.434	1.421

 $[\]Sigma$ Saturated: saturated fatty acids sum; Σ MUFA: monounsaturated fatty acids sum; Σ n-6 PUFA: n-6 polyunsaturated fatty acids sum; Σ n-3 PUFA: n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids sum. Σ n-3 HUFA: n-3 highly unsaturated fatty acids sum.

Table 3. Effect of dietary fish oil replacement on growth performance, survival and nutrient utilization of *S. dumerili* after 109 days of feeding.

	Diets			
	FO 100	FO 25	FO 0	FO 0+
Initial weight (g)	175.2 ± 3.62	171.5 ± 3.62	175.3 ± 3.62	180.8 ± 3.62
Final weight (g)	422.7 ± 5.25	409.1 ± 5.25	419.3 ± 5.25	422.6 ± 5.25
WIa (g)	247.4 ± 7.03	241.0 ± 7.03	244.0 ± 7.03	241.8 ± 7.03
Survival (%)	89.67 ± 2.88^{ab}	92.67 ± 2.88^{a}	80.33 ± 2.88 bc	$77.33 \pm 2.88^{\circ}$
SGR ^b (% day)	0.8 ± 0.013	0.8 ± 0.013	0.8 ± 0.013	0.8 ± 0.013
FI ^c	1.1 ± 0.034	1.1 ± 0.034	1.1 ± 0.034	1.1 ± 0.034
FCR ^d	1.5 ± 0.07	1.5 ± 0.07	1.6 ± 0.07	1.6 ± 0.07

The values represent the mean \pm SD (n=3). Different superscripts letters indicate significant differences between treatments (p<0.05). Newman-Keuls Test..

Table 4: Biometric indices of *S. dumerili* after 109 of feeding the experimental diets.

	FO 100	FO 25	FO 0	FO 0+
CFa	1.51 ± 0.02	1.50 ± 0.02	1.53 ± 0.02	1.58 ± 0.02
VSI ^b (%)	5.94 ± 0.15^{b}	5.99 ± 0.15^{b}	6.36 ± 0.15^{ab}	6.55 ± 0.15^{a}
HSI ^c (%)	1.69 ± 0.09	1.86 ± 0.09	1.94 ± 0.04	1.96 ± 0.09
MSI ^d (%)	0.36 ± 0.05	0.49 ± 0.05	0.45 ± 0.05	0.45 ± 0.05
DP ^e (%)	72.4 ± 0.32^{a}	72.2 ± 0.32^{ab}	71.2 ± 0.32^{b}	71.9 ± 0.32^{ab}

^aIncluding some minor components not shown.

^bDHA/EPA, 22:6 n-3/20:5 n-3; EPA/ARA, 20:5 n-3/20:4n-6

^a Weight Increase = final weight – initial weight

^b Specific growth rate (%/day) SGR = 100 x ln (final weight/initial weight)/feeding days.

^c Feed Intake (g 100 g /(fish day)). FI = 100 x feed intake (g)/average biomass (g) x days.

^d Feed Conversion Ratio FCR = feed intake (g)/weight gain (g).

MI ^f (%)	48.5 ± 0.6	48.5 ± 0.6	47.5 ± 0.6	48.6 ± 0.6

The values represent the mean \pm SD (n=3). Different superscripts letters indicate significant differences between treatments (p<0.05). Newman-Keuls Test.

Table 5: Initial and final proximal composition (g 100/g, wet weight), crude energy content (MJ/kg) and productive values in *S. dumerili* fed with the different experimental diets, after 109 days of feeding the experimental diets.

	Initial	FO 100	FO 25	FO 0	FO 0+
Crude protein	17.94	18.65 ± 0.22^{ab}	19.5 ± 0.22^{a}	18.73 ± 0.22^{ab}	18.3 ± 0.22^{b}
Crude fat	6.07	8.69 ± 0.35	8.92 ± 0.35	8.58 ± 0.35	9.13 ± 0.35
Dry matter	26.4	30.45 ± 0.31	30.84 ± 0.31	29.64 ± 0.31	30.09 ± 0.31
Ash	2.65	2.87 ± 0.16	2.82 ± 0.16	2.79 ± 0.16	2.61 ± 0.16
Energy	6.02	7.18 ± 0.12	7.33 ± 0.12	7.11 ± 0.12	7.32 ± 0.12
PPV ^a (%)		25.7 ± 1.33	26.3 ± 1.33	24.1 ± 1.33	22.5 ± 1.33
FPV ^b (%)		52.6 ± 3.39	56.1 ± 3.39	46.7 ± 3.39	52.3 ± 3.39
EPV ^c (%)		26.1 ± 1.51	26.9 ± 1.51	24.0 ± 1.51	24.7 ± 1.51

The values represent the mean \pm standard error (n=3). Different superscripts letters indicate significant differences between treatments (p<0.05). Newman-Keuls Test.

Table 6: Composition of fatty acids (g 100/g, wet weight) of the whole body of *S. dumerili* fed with experimental diets for 109 days.

	Initial	FO 100	FO 25	FO 0	FO 0+
14:0	0.120	0.178 ± 0.009^{a}	0.141 ± 0.009^{b}	0.119 ± 0.009^{b}	0.126 ± 0.009^{b}
15:0	0.007	0.006 ± 0.0003	0.007 ± 0.0003	0.007 ± 0.0003	0.007 ± 0.0003
16:0	0.762	1.20 ± 0.06	1.18 ± 0.06	1.14 ± 0.06	1.21 ± 0.06
17:0	0.017	$0.031\ \pm0.001^{a}$	$0.022\ \pm0.001^{b}$	$0.019\ \pm 0.001^{b}$	$0.020\ \pm0.001^{b}$
18:0	0.365	0.46 ± 0.02	0.48 ± 0.02	0.47 ± 0.02	0.51 ± 0.02
Σ Saturate d^a	1.13	1.87 ± 0.10	1.82 ± 0.10	1.76 ± 0.10	1.88 ± 0.10
16:1	0.161	$0.296\ \pm0.013^{a}$	$0.225\ \pm0.013^{b}$	$0.189\ \pm0.013^{b}$	$0.204\ \pm0.013^{b}$
18:1n-9	1.290	$2.286\ \pm0.126^{b}$	2.436 ± 0.126^{ab}	2.655 ± 0.126^{ab}	2.900 ± 0.126^{a}
18:1n-7	0.171	$0.306\ \pm0.012^{a}$	$0.261\ \pm0.012^{ab}$	$0.231\ \pm0.012^{b}$	$0.259\ \pm0.012^{ab}$
22:1n-9	0.013	$0.023\ \pm 0.001^{a}$	$0.008\ \pm 0.001^{b}$	$0.004\ \pm 0.001^{b}$	$0.004\ \pm0.001^{b}$
Σ MUFA ^a	1.635	2.911 ± 0.149	2.929 ± 0.149	3.079 ± 0.149	3.368 ± 0.149
18:2n-6	0.967	$1.144\ \pm0.062^{b}$	1.273 ± 0.062^{ab}	1.313 ± 0.062^{ab}	$1.440\ \pm0.062^{a}$
18:3n-6	0.006	0.007 ± 0.0006	0.007 ± 0.0006	0.007 ± 0.0006	0.007 ± 0.0006

^aCondition factor. CF== 100 x Total fish weight [g]/Total length³ [cm³]

^bViscerosomatic index(%). VSI = 100 x Visceral weight [g]/Total fish weight [g]

^cHepatosomatic index(%). HSI = 100 x Liver weight [g]/Total fish weight [g]

^dMesenteric fat index(%). MSI 100 x Mesenteric fat weight [g]/Total fish weight [g]

[°]Dressout percentage (%). $DP = 100 \times (Total \text{ fish weight } [g] - Visceral \text{ weight } [g] - Head \text{ weight } [g])/Total \text{ weight } [g]$

^fMuscle index(%). MI = 100 x Muscle weight [g]/Total fish weight [g]

^aProtein productive value. PPV= 100 x Protein fish gain [g]/Protein intake [g]

^bFat productive value. FPV= 100 x Fat fish gain [g]/Fat intake [g]

^cEnergy productive value. EPV = 100 x Energy fish gain [g]/Energy intake [g]

20:3n-6	0.005	0.010 ± 0.0007^{a}	0.005 ± 0.0007^{b}	0.003 ± 0.0007^{b}	0.003 0.0007b
20:4n-6	0.409	0.066 ± 0.003^a	$0.049\ \pm0.003^{b}$	$0.036\ \pm0.003^{b}$	$0.039\ \pm 0.003^{b}$
22:4n-6	0.009	$0.016\ \pm0.0009^{a}$	$0.013\ \pm0.0009^{ab}$	$0.009\ \pm0.0009^{b}$	0.010 ±
					0.0009^{b}
Σ n-6 PUFA ^a	1.396	1.244 ± 0.067	1.347 ± 0.067	1.368 ± 0.067	1.500 ± 0.067
18:3n-3	0.256	0.279 ± 0.056^{c}	$0.672\ \pm0.056^{b}$	0.830 ± 0.056^{ab}	0.913 ± 0.056^{a}
20:3n-3	0.007	$0.016\ \pm0.002^{b}$	$0.020\ \pm 0.002^{ab}$	0.023 ± 0.002^{ab}	0.028 ± 0.002^{a}
20:5n-3 EPA	0.180	0.281 ± 0.020^{a}	$0.220\ \pm0.020^{ab}$	0.163 ± 0.020^{b}	0.173 ± 0.020^{b}
22:5n-3	0.071	$0.138\ \pm0.009^{a}$	$0.102\ \pm0.009^{b}$	$0.069\ \pm0.009^b$	$0.081 \ 0.009^{b}$
22:6n-3 DHA	0.525	$0.851\ \pm0.051^{a}$	$0.584\ \pm0.051^{b}$	$0.406\ \pm0.051^{b}$	$0.446\ \pm0.051^{b}$
Σ n-3 PUFA ^a	1.039	1.565 ± 0.120	1.599 ± 0.120	1.490 ± 0.120	1.643 ± 0.120
n-3/n-6	0.744	1.258 ± 0.057	1.189 ± 0.057	1.085 ± 0.057	1.094 ± 0.057
EPA/DHA ^b	0.342	0.330 ± 0.011^{b}	0.376 ± 0.011^a	0.407 ± 0.011^{a}	0.386 ± 0.011^{a}

The values represent the mean \pm standard error (n=3). Different superscripts letters indicate significant differences between treatments (p<0.05). Test de Newman-Keuls. Σ Saturated: saturated fatty acids sum; Σ MUFA: monounsaturated fatty acids sum; Σ n-6 PUFA: n-6 polyunsaturated fatty acids sum; Σ n-3 PUFA: n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids sum.

Table 7: Fatty acids productive values (FAPV) (% by wet weight) in *S. dumerili* fed with experimental diets for 109 days.

	FO 100	FO 25	FO 0	FO 0+
14:0	51.1 ± 3.47	47.9 ± 3.47	49.9 ± 3.47	51.3 ± 2.83
16:0	59.3 ± 3.07	54.3 ± 3.07	50.5 ± 3.07	52.6 ± 2.51
17:0	58.9 ± 6.67^{b}	73.7 ± 5.44^{ab}	88.7 ± 6.67^{a}	88.5 ± 5.44^{a}
18:0	68.6 ± 4.63	82.0 ± 4.63	79.6 ± 4.63	82.0 ± 3.78
Σ Saturated	69.1 ± 5.82	64.3 ± 5.82	61.6 ± 5.82	73.6 ± 5.82
16:1	70.6 ± 5.07	70.0 ± 5.07	78.3 ± 5.07	83.6 ± 4.14
18:1n-9	75.9 ± 5.14	71.9 ± 4.19	74.5 ± 5.47	81.0 ± 4.19
18:1n-7	76.77 ± 4.0	77.5 ± 4.0	75.9 ± 4.0	84.7 ± 3.26
Σ MUFA ^a	83.8 ± 5.72	79.3 ± 5.72	77.2 ± 5.71	88.6 ± 5.71
18:2n-6	66.2 ± 3.68	79.6 ± 3.68	69.9 ± 3.68	75.9 ± 3.0
18:3n-6	56.1 ± 2.88^{a}	71.0 ± 3.52^{a}	34.4 ± 3.52^{b}	59.5 ± 3.52^{a}
20:4n-6	55.1 ± 9.58	56.6 ± 9.58	63.5 ± 9.58	73.6 ± 9.58
22:4n-6	67.3 ± 3.53^{ab}	56.1 ± 3.53 bc	$47.0 \pm 3.53^{\circ}$	74.8 ± 3.53^{a}
Σ n-6 PUFA ^a	90.4 ± 5.76	90.5 ± 5.76	81.3 ± 5.76	92.7 ± 5.76
18:3n-3	93.8 ± 3.24^{a}	65.8 ± 3.24^{b}	$45.2 \pm 3.24^{\circ}$	67.3 ± 3.24^{b}
20:5n-3 EPA	39.5 ± 5.94	41.2 ± 5.94	38.9 ± 5.94	45.5 ± 5.94
22:6n-3 DHA	64.2 ± 8.91	54.1 ± 7.27	56.3 ± 8.91	63.0 ± 8.91
Σ n-3 PUFA ^a	71.5 ± 6.87	65.9 ± 6.87	60.1 ± 6.87	73.7 ± 6.87

The values represent the mean \pm standard error (n=3). Different superscripts letters indicate significant differences between treatments (p<0.05). Newman-Keuls Test.

 Σ Saturated: saturated fatty acids sum; Σ Ms: monounsaturated fatty acids sum; Σ n-6 PUFA: n-6 polyunsaturated fatty acids sum; Σ n-3 PUFA: n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids sum.

^aIncluding some minor components not shown.

^bEPA/DHA calculated as 20:5 n-3/22:6 n-3

Table 8: Histological measurements of the anterior intestine in yellowtail fed the experimental diets for 109 days.

	FO100	FO25	FO0	FO0+
SL (µm)	76.8 ± 10.1	102.8 ± 10.7	92.1 ± 9.6	94.4 ± 10.2
ML (µm)	258.4 ± 23.0	321.3 ± 25.0	329.7 ± 22.4	286.9 ± 24.0
SML (µm)	$167.4\pm16.3^{\mathrm{a}}$	241.1 ± 19.3^{b}	230.4 ± 171.1^{b}	$202.8\pm17.0^{\rm ab}$
VL (μm)	1623.8 ± 91.3	1692.0 ± 125.9	1555.6 ± 104.1	1796.7 ± 92.1
WVL (µm)	139.5 ± 6.0	119.2 ± 8.0	123.4 ± 6.7	139.5 ± 6.0
WLP (µm)	26.4 ± 2.0	26.4 ± 2.5	21.4 ± 2.1	26.8 ± 2.0
WLP/WVL	0.2 ± 0.01	0.2 ± 0.02	0.2 ± 0.01	0.2 ± 0.01

The values represent the mean \pm standard error (n= 3). Different superscripts letters indicate significant differences between treatments (p<0.05). Newman-Keuls Test.

SL: Thickness of serosa layer, ML: Thickness of muscular layer, SML: Thickness of submucosa layer, VL: Villus length, WVL: Width villi, WLP: Width of *lamina propria*, WLP/WVL: ratio between Width of *lamina propria* and villi.

Table 9: Histological measurements of the posterior intestine in fish fed the experimental diets for 109 days.

	FO100	FO25	FO0	FO0+
SL(µm)	95.1 ± 8.4	67.0 ± 11.3	83.2 ± 8.1	96.9 ± 9.0
ML(µm)	200.8 ± 26.2	217.7 ± 33.0	278.2 ± 22.3	269.6 ± 24.9
SML(µm)	195.3 ± 15.3	207.3 ± 19.8	176.0 ± 14.7	199.7 ± 16.8
VL(µm)	$1447.3^{b} \pm 68.4$	$993.7^{a} \pm 65.5$	$1448^{b} \pm 59.4$	$1539.2^{b} \pm 68.4$
WVL(μm)	129.1 ± 6.6	136.8 ± 6.2	145.5 ± 5.7	131.9 ± 6.6
WLP(µm)	$18.5^{a}\pm1.6$	$22.0^{ab}\pm1.5$	$25^{\text{b}} \pm 1.4$	$18.2^a \pm 1.6$
WLP/WVL	0.1 ± 0.01	0.2 ± 0.01	0.2 ± 0.01	0.1 ± 0.01

The values represent the mean \pm standard error (n=3). Different superscripts letters indicate significant differences between treatments (p<0.05). Newman-Keuls Test.

SL: Thickness of serosa layer, ML: Thickness of muscular layer, SML: Thickness of submucosa layer, VL: Villus length, WVL: Width villi, WLP: Width of *lamina propria*, WLP/WVL: ratio between Width of *lamina propria* and villi.

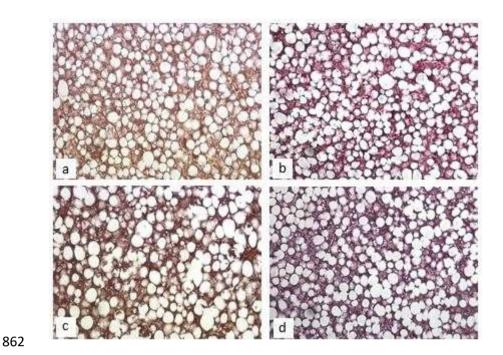


Figure 1: Microphotographs of liver section (a) FO 100 (20x). b) FO 25 (20x). c) FO 0+ (20x). d) FO 0 (20x)) of yellowtail. Hematoxylin and eosine staining.