

1 **Effects of organic plant oils and role of oxidation on nutrient utilization in juvenile**
2 **rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*)**

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14 Running head: Organic plant oils in feed for rainbow trout

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17

18 **Abstract**

19 Producing organic fish diets requires that the use of both fish meal and fish oil is minimized
20 and replaced by sustainable, organic sources. The purpose of the present study was to
21 replace fish oil with organic oils and evaluate the effects on feed intake, feed conversion
22 ratio (FCR), daily specific growth rate (SGR) and nutrient digestibility in diets in which fish
23 meal protein was partly substituted by organic plant protein concentrates. It is prohibited to
24 add anti-oxidants to organic oils, therefore the effects of force-oxidizing the oils (including
25 fish oil) on feed intake and nutrient digestibility was furthermore examined. Four organic
26 oils with either a relatively high - or low content of polyunsaturated fatty acids were
27 considered: Linseed oil; rape seed oil; sunflower oil and grape seed oil. Substituting fish oil
28 with organic oils did not affect feed intake ($P>0.05$), FCR or SGR ($P>0.05$) despite very
29 different dietary FA profiles. All organic plant oils had a positive effect on apparent lipid
30 digestibility compared to the fish oil diet ($P<0.05$), while there were no effects on the
31 apparent digestibility of other macronutrients when compared to the fish oil diet ($P>0.05$).
32 Organic vegetable oils did not undergo auto-oxidation as opposed to the fish oil, and the
33 fish oil diet consequently had a significantly negative effect on the apparent lipid
34 digestibility. Feed intake was not affected by oxidation of any oils. In conclusion, the study
35 demonstrated that it is possible to fully substitute fish oil with plant-based organic oils
36 without negatively affecting nutrient digestibility and growth performance. Furthermore,
37 plant-based organic oils are less likely to oxidize than fish oils, prolonging the shelf life of
38 such organic diets.

39 **Implications**

40 Organic trout farming is a small but growing industry. In near future it is anticipated, that all
41 ingredients in feeds for this segment should be organically approved. Organic plant oils

42 may be suitable alternatives to fish oil, however, may cause lower utilization and growth
43 due to lack of long chain polyunsaturated fatty acids and may be prone to oxidation as
44 supplementation of antioxidants is not allowed. The tested organic plant oils could all
45 replace fish oil, as they showed a higher digestibility in rainbow trout and were very
46 resistant to oxidation due to presence of high levels of natural antioxidants.

47 **Introduction**

48 Fish meal and fish oil are important constituents of feeds for aquaculture due to the high
49 protein content, optimal amino acid composition, and as supplier of healthy omega-3 long
50 chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (LC PUFAs). Due to global shortage of marine fish meal
51 and fish oil, optimized utilization as well as intensive search for alternative protein and lipid
52 sources in diets for farmed fish is urgently needed. Organic aquaculture is an alternative
53 way of production driven by the growing interest of sustainable utilization of resources
54 (Mente *et al.*, 2011). Following the European Union Commission Regulation (EC) No
55 710/2009 (EU, 2009) for organic aquaculture, detailed rules have been laid down on
56 organic aquaculture production including the compliance with the principles to minimize
57 the use of protein and lipids from unsustainable sources and It is not allowed to add
58 synthetic amino acids to the feed or to use chemically solvent purification methods. Oils
59 from particularly leguminous and oil seed plants are potential sources for replacement of
60 fish oils in aquaculture diets given the steadily increasing production, high availability,
61 relatively adequate nutritional quality and better economic value (Fountoulaki *et al.*, 2009).
62 The use of these vegetable oils has gained enormous interest over the past decades.
63 However, most terrestrial vegetable oils possess nutritional drawbacks due to a lack of LC
64 PUFAs. The substitution of fish oil with vegetable oils and the concomitant replacement of
65 fish meal with plant meals may cause essential fatty acid (EFA) deficiency in salmonids.

66 Furthermore, it may affect lipid deposition, resulting in enlarged livers and an increase in
67 the hepatosomatic index (HSI). A few plants contain considerable proportions of the
68 shorter chain, essential PUFA α -linolenic acid (18:3n-3). Linseed oil in particular but also
69 rapeseed oil are relatively rich in this fatty acid, and both oils are therefore considered
70 applicable alternative candidates to fish oils in feeds for farmed fish.

71 Oils with a relative high content of PUFAs are more susceptible to oxidation (Koshio *et al.*,
72 1994) than oils characterized by more saturated shorter chain fatty acids, and lipid auto-
73 oxidation may occur during feed processing and storage. The oxidative process is
74 accelerated at higher temperatures, and oxidative changes may cause formation of low-
75 molecular weight carbonyl compounds, which may give rise to unpleasant off flavors
76 known from rancid oils (Kaitaranta, 1992). Dietary supplementation of synthetic
77 antioxidants is not allowed in feed for organic fish (Mente *et al.*, 2011), and even though
78 recent studies have investigated the possible use of natural antioxidants more information
79 is needed on the nutritional consequences of auto-oxidation in unprotected organic plant
80 oils. Even moderate lipid auto-oxidation may thus affect the dietary nutritional value as well
81 as nutrient utilization, health and growth of fish (Peng *et al.*, 2009). Only few studies have
82 addressed possible additional effects of lipid peroxidation on gustatory palatability and
83 feed intake in fish (Jacobsen *et al.*, 1995), despite that the taste of feeds may significantly
84 influence feed consumption (Kasumyan, 1997). In addition to this, the use of different
85 vegetable oils like linseed oil, sunflower oil or rapeseed oil in feed for rainbow trout have
86 caused discrimination between feeds (Geurden *et al.*, 2005).

87 The objectives of this study were therefore twofold: firstly to test the influence of complete
88 substitution of fish oil with either organic rape seed oil, linseed oil, sunflower oil, or grape
89 seed oil on nutrient digestibility and growth evaluated against fish oil as lipid source in

90 diets in which 47 % fish meal protein was replaced by a matrix of organic plant proteins
91 (Lund *et al.*, 2011). Secondly, to investigate the susceptibility of moderate oxidation of
92 these oils, and how this affects the dietary plant oil fatty acid composition, diet palatability
93 (feed intake) as well as lipid digestibility and utilization in juvenile rainbow trout
94 (*Onchorhynchus mykiss*).

95

96 **Materials and Methods**

97 *Diet preparation and force oxidation*

98 Five iso-energetic and iso-nitrogenous diets were formulated by BioMar Ltd, substituting
99 47% fish meal protein by a fixed matrix of three organic plant protein concentrates as
100 described in Lund *et al.* (2011) (Table 1). The diets were coated with either commercial
101 fish oil (FO), serving as control diet), or one of the following four cold pressed organic oils:
102 linseed oil (LO), sunflower oil (SO), rape seed oil (RO), and grape seed oil (GO). The diets
103 were prepared by the Danish Technological Institute (Kolding, Denmark) using a twin-
104 screw Werner & Pfleider 37 extruder and fabricated as 3.0 mm pellets. After pelletizing,
105 each batch of pellets was divided into two portions and stored at 2 °C until vacuum coated
106 with oil using a non-industrial coater with variable speed and a maximum of 11.6 psi
107 vacuum. One half of the pellet portion was coated with freshly prepared oils and
108 immediately used in feeding studies. The other half was vacuum coated with force
109 oxidized oils. The latter was obtained by storing the oils in closed buckets for 7 months at
110 room temperature (18-20 °C). Prior to start of the experiment, the oils were force oxidized
111 by placing them in 1 L glass beakers on an IKA C-MAG magnetic stirrer/hotplate at a light
112 intensity of 3400 lux (OSRAM L Lumilux 36 W/840 warm white) under continuous heating
113 at 48-49 °C. Pure oxygen was continuously added as a slow flow through the oils by glass

114 pipettes (0.2 L/min for 120 h), slightly modified from a previous description (Koshio et al.,
115 1994).

116 *Experimental design and procedures*

117 Three experimental studies were carried out: 1) A digestibility study to determine the
118 apparent digestibility coefficients (ADCs) of dietary nutrients in the four, non-oxidised
119 organic plant oil based diets and the conventional fish oil control diet; 2) A growth study to
120 evaluate the specific growth rate (SGR) and feed conversion ratio (FCR) of the five diets;
121 and 3) A digestibility study to determine the effects of force-oxidation in nutrient
122 digestibility. The studies were carried out by DTU Aqua (Hirtshals, Denmark) using juvenile
123 organic rainbow trout obtained from Sejbæk Trout Farm (Sjølrup, Denmark).

124 *Digestibility and growth study of non-oxidized plant oil diets (experiment 1 and 2)*

125 Experiment 1 lasted 12 feeding days and was designed as a fully random, single factorial
126 experiment with three replicate tanks for each diet (i.e., n=3, 15 tanks in total). Fish with an
127 initial mean weight of 82.2 ± 2.4 g were sorted from a larger batch of fish and randomly
128 distributed among 15, 189 L, cylindrical-conical, flow-through, thermoplastic tanks at a
129 stocking density of 20 fish tank⁻¹. The tank setup ensured that all faecal particles were
130 collected in separated sedimentation columns submerged in ice-water as previously
131 described (Dalsgaard and Pedersen, 2011). The tanks were supplied with 10° C tap water
132 at a flow rate of 40 L h⁻¹. A 15 h light: 9 h dark diurnal photoperiod was maintained
133 throughout the trial, and oxygen saturation levels were kept between 70 and 100 % during
134 the experiment. The fish were acclimatized to the experimental conditions and to the diets
135 for 8 days prior to commencement of the experiment. They were individually weighed at
136 the start of the experiment (day 0), and subsequently fed 1.5 % of the estimated biomass
137 d⁻¹ (calculated based on an expected FCR) for 9 days. The daily ration was divided into

138 two equal portions, which were fed at 10:00 and 14:00 h, respectively. Feed waste was
139 registered and counted throughout the trial to derive the exact feed intake. All faeces were
140 collected daily prior to feeding at 10:00 h, and samples from each three consecutive days
141 were pooled (i.e. yielding three faecal sampling periods) and stored at -20 °C until
142 chemical analysis was carried out. Faeces from the second and third sampling periods
143 were analysed for protein, lipid, dry matter (DM) and ash. The fish were individually
144 weighed at the end of the digestibility trial (day 10).

145 The growth study (experiment 2) was designed as a fully random, single factorial
146 experiment with two replicate tanks for each experimental diet (i.e., n=2, 10 tanks in total).
147 It was carried out in a recirculation freshwater system consisting of 1.18 m x 1.18 m fibre
148 glass tanks with an average water depth of 0.55 m, a mechanical filter (Hydrotech), a
149 submerged biofilter, and a trickling filter (both BioBlok 150-200, EXPO-NET, Hjørring,
150 Denmark). A 14 h light: 10 h dark regime was maintained throughout the experiment. Fish
151 from the same batch as in experiment 1 were randomly distributed among the 10 tanks.
152 The fish were acclimatized to the system and experimental diets for 12 days. The density
153 in each tank was adjusted to 13 kg m^{-3} at the start of the study, and the fish with an initial
154 mean weight of $78.8 \pm 12.2 \text{ g}$ were fed 1.5 % of the estimated biomass d^{-1} (calculated
155 based on an expected FCR) for 57 days. The feeding period was divided into 3 growth
156 periods of 19 days, each followed by weighing all individuals and adjusting the feed ration.
157 Daily feed waste was collected in swirl unit separators mounted to the tanks and counted
158 to derive the exact feed intake. Dissolved oxygen levels were kept above 70 % saturation
159 at all times during the experiment, and the water temperature was maintained at 15.6 ± 0.5
160 °C. Ammonium-nitrogen ($\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$) was kept below 0.5 mg L^{-1} , nitrite-nitrogen ($\text{NO}_2\text{-N}$) below
161 1 mg L^{-1} , nitrate-nitrogen ($\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$) between $0\text{-}25 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, and pH ranged between 7.82 and

162 8.06. At the end of the study the fish were slaughtered for further sensory analyses
163 (Petersen et al., accepted) and dressing percentage (i.e. organs + gastrointestinal content)
164 was measured from 15 fish per tank. Likewise hepasotomatic index (HSI) was calculated
165 from 10 fish per tank (Liver weight / body weight x100).

166 *Digestibility of oxidized plant oil diets (experiment 3)*

167 A digestibility study by use of oxidized oil diets was carried out similarly as described for
168 the non-oxidized diets, but using another batch of rainbow trout. The fish were supplied
169 with 9 ° C tap water and a flow rate and oxygen content similar to experiment1. The fish,
170 with an initial mean weight of 103.7±1.5 g, were acclimatized to the experimental
171 conditions for 14 days prior to the study. During the study they were fed 1.3 % of the
172 estimated biomass d⁻¹.

173 *Chemical analysis*

174 Samples of non-oxidized and forced oxidized oils were analysed for fatty acid (FA)
175 composition. Sample preparation trans-esterification and GC-MS fatty acid analyses were
176 carried out as previously described (Lund et al., 2007). Hence, briefly, samples of fish oils
177 and plant oils were collected in pre-weighed glass vials and weighed, followed by trans-
178 esterification by a reagent solution (approximately 1 mL) of acetyl chloride in
179 toluene:methanol (40:50:10, HPLC quality). The fatty acid methyl esters were analysed by
180 gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) on an Agilent 6890 series gas
181 chromatograph equipped with a PTV inlet and an Agilent 5973 mass selective detector.
182 Peaks were quantified by means of the target response factor of the fatty acids relative to
183 a 23:0 internal methyl ester standard from Sigma-Aldrich. Fatty acids are expressed as %
184 of the total fatty acid composition.

185 Feed samples were homogenized using a Krups Speedy Pro homogenizer and analysed
186 for dry matter and ash (NMKL, 1992), crude protein (ISO, 2005; crude protein = Kjeldahl N
187 x 6.25), and crude lipid (Bligh and Dyer, 1959). Nitrogen-free extract (NFE) was calculated
188 as DM less the sum of crude protein, crude lipid, and ash. All diets were analysed for their
189 oxidation stability and resistance to oxidation by fatty acid analyses: i.e., peroxide value
190 (POV, meq O₂ kg oil⁻¹; (Shantha and Decker, 1994) and anisidine value (p-AnV; AOCS
191 2009). The peroxide value indicates initial formation of hydroperoxides during early
192 oxidation, the formation accelerates until the decomposition of hydroperoxides outweighs
193 the formation causing POV to decline. The p-AnV method measures spectrophotometrically
194 the content of aldehydes during decomposition of hydroperoxides (secondary products of
195 oxidation). The free fatty acid (FFA) content was analysed according to AOAC procedure
196 940.28 (AOAC, 1995).

197 Oxidized feed samples were analysed for antioxidants, i.e., α-β-γ-δ tocopherol (E vitamin;
198 AOCS 1990) and ethoxyquin (Ping and Ackman, 2000).

199 Faecal samples from sampling period 2 and 3 in experiments 1 and 3 were thawed,
200 homogenized using an Ultra Turrax, and analysed for DM, ash, protein and lipid as
201 described for the diets.

202 *Calculations*

203 The apparent digestibility coefficients (ADCs, %) of dietary nutrients and minerals were
204 calculated according to the direct collection method (Jobling, 1994), requiring knowledge
205 of all feed consumed and collection of all faeces produced:

206 $ADC_i = 100 \cdot (C - F) / C_i$, where i corresponds to a dietary macronutrient or mineral (i.e.,
207 protein, lipid, NFE or ash), C is the consumed amount of i and F is the faecal loss of i .

208 The feed conversion ratio (FCR, g g^{-1}) was calculated based on the biomass weight gain
209 and feed intake:

210 $\text{FCR} = \text{feed intake} / \text{weight gain}.$

211 The specific growth rate (SGR, $\% \text{ d}^{-1}$) was calculated based on the overall biomass gain in
212 the tanks during the duration of growth:

213 $\text{SGR} = 100 * (\ln W_t - \ln W_{t_0}) / \Delta t$, where W_t refers to weight at day t , W_{t_0} refers to weight at
214 day t_0 , and Δt is the number of days.

215 Hepatosomatic index (HSI) was calculated based on weight of sampled fish and the weight
216 of their liver: $\text{HSI} = (\text{liver weight} / \text{fish body weight}) * 100.$

217 *Statistical analysis*

218 Experimental data were subjected to a single or two factor analysis of variance (ANOVA)
219 or t- test (analytical data) using Sigma Stat 3.5 to detect statistically significant differences
220 between treatment means. In case of two factor ANOVA, dietary lipid origin and oxidation
221 as well as their interactions were used as factors. Levenes test were used to check for
222 homogeneity of variance within the treatment groups, and Holm Sidak all pairwise multiple
223 comparison of means test was applied for testing significance of mean differences
224 between the treatment groups where applicable. Data expressed in percentages were
225 arcsine transformed prior to analysis. The significance level was set at $P < 0.05$.

226 **Results**

227 *Dietary proximate and FA composition*

228 The protein, lipid and NFE content were similar between the five non-oxidized and
229 oxidized diets, respectively (Table 1). However, the protein content was slightly higher in

230 the non-oxidized diets than in the oxidized diets, while lipid content was highest in the
231 oxidized diets. These minor differences most likely reflected discrepancy in processing
232 techniques during vacuum coating the oils onto the diets.

233 The total dietary fatty acid content (TFA) was slightly lower in FO than in the plant oil
234 based diets (Table 2). The content of identified fatty acids and fatty acid classes reflected
235 the origin of the oils (Table 2), with fish oil containing more FAs than the plant oils. Linseed
236 oil contained 66% 18:3n-3, sunflower oil and grape seed oil contained 63 % - and 72 %
237 18:2n-6, respectively, while rape seed oil contained 61 % 18:1n-9. Fish oil was the only oil
238 containing n-6 and n-3 highly unsaturated essential fatty acids (LC PUFAs), including
239 20:4n-6 (ARA), 20:5n-3 (EPA), and 22:6n-3 (DHA). The fatty acid composition was almost
240 identical between non-oxidized and force oxidized diets, but data revealed slightly lower
241 values of 18:3n-3 in the oxidized LO diet and lower values of 18:2n-6 in the oxidized GO
242 diet. . The main difference observed was a much lower content of DHA in the force-
243 oxidized FO diet compared with the non-oxidized FO diet, which affected the sum of n-3
244 PUFAs (Table 2).

245 *Feed intake and digestibility in experiment 1 and 2 (non-oxidized diets)*

246 All groups consumed on average >97.8% of the offered feed in both experiment 1 and 2
247 with no significant differences (Table 5). The apparent protein digestibility coefficients of
248 both the rape seed oil (RO) and sunflower oil (SO) diets were marginally but significantly
249 higher ($P < 0.002$) than that of the linseed oil (LO) diet (Table 3). The lipid digestibility of all
250 plant oil based diets were significantly higher ($P < 0.007$) than the lipid digestibility of the
251 fish oil based control diet (FO). In addition, the lipid digestibility of the grape seed oil diet
252 (GO) was higher than that of the sunflower oil diet ($P \leq 0.01$).

253 The digestibility of NFE was low for all diets, presumably due to the high plant concentrate
254 inclusion level (see also Lund *et al.* 2011). It was significantly lower of the LO than of the
255 SO diet ($P<0.005$). Dry matter digestibility, reflecting the sum of protein, lipid and NFE
256 digestibility values, was significantly higher ($P<0.004$) of the SO diet than of the FO diet.

257

258 *Feed intake and digestibility in experiment 3 (force-oxidized oil diets)*

259 The feed intake varied to some extent between the diets in this experiment (Table 6).
260 Hence, between 17 and 30 % of the feed offered was either not ingested or was rejected,
261 but the differences between dietary treatment groups were not statistically significant
262 ($P=0.154$). The average feed intake was much lower than in experiment 1 (i.e. 24%), but a
263 further comparison was not possible due to differences in fish size and feeding level.
264 The digestibility coefficients of protein were similar between all diets tested ($P>0.05$), while
265 the digestibility of lipid was much lower in the FO dietary treatment group than in four plant
266 oil based diets ($P<0.001$) (Table 4). The apparent NFE digestibility coefficients were
267 similar between the tested oil types ($P>0.05$), and slightly higher than in experiment 1. Dry
268 matter digestibility was lowest in the FO diet ($P<0.001$), consistent with the much lower
269 lipid digestibility for this dietary treatment group. Ash digestibility was lowest for fish on the
270 RO diet as compared with the FO and LO diets ($P<0.01$).

271

272 *Fish performance (experiment 1-3) and dressing percentage (experiment 2)*

273 Growth rate was higher and FCR was lower in exp. 1 than exp. 3 most likely related to use
274 of different batches of fish and size differences. There were no differences in SGR or FCR
275 between treatments in the digestibility studies (experiment 1 and 3) or in the growth study
276 (experiment 2) ($P\geq 0.05$; Table 5 and 6). Dressing percentage (% body weight) was similar

277 in all groups of fish sampled at the end of the growth study (i.e. from 12.9 % \pm 1.2 to 14.2
278 % \pm 2.1, data not shown). Likewise there were no significant differences ($P=0.07$) in
279 hepatosomatic index between treatments (Table 5),

280

281 *Antioxidants and autoxidation (experiment 3)*

282 The content of tocopherol ($\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$) was highest in the RO diet, followed by the SO, LO,
283 GO, and FO based diets (*i.e.* only oxidised diets analysed) (Table 7). The content of
284 ethoxyquin was relatively higher in the FO diet than in the RO diet and tended to be higher
285 than in the other partly plant based diets consistent with the fact, that ethoxyquin is
286 conventionally added to fish meal and fish oil after processing (Table 7). Main effects of
287 dietary oil source and oxidation could not be properly interpreted due to interactions
288 between the two factors. However, storing the plant oils for 7 months and force-oxidizing
289 them for 5 days seemed to have only minor effects on oil oxidation levels. Hence, each
290 organic plant oil based diet showed no or very minor signs of oxidation as illustrated by
291 almost similar p-AnV and POV values before and after oxidation (Table 7). The fish oil
292 based diet was moderately affected by storage and force oxidation of the fish oil as
293 indicated by higher POV,- p-AnV and FFA values than before storage and oxidation
294 (Table 7).

295

296 **Discussion**

297 *Growth and digestibility*

298 The growth results are in accordance with several previous studies finding no effects on
299 growth or feed utilization of rainbow trout or Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) when partly or
300 completely substituting fish oil with non-organic vegetable oils such as rapeseed oil,

301 linseed oil, or sunflower oil (Brandsen *et al.*, 2003; Bell *et al.*, 2004; Petterson *et al.*,
302 2009). To our knowledge, substituting fish oil with grape seed oil in diets for salmonids has
303 not been reported previously.

304 The improved lipid digestibility of the tested organic vegetable oils as compared to fish oil
305 may have been too marginal (i.e. 1.5-2.5 %) to support a measurable effect on growth in
306 the growth study or masked by the formulation of diets optimal in dietary protein content.
307 Dietary methionine level was slightly lower than recommended for rainbow trout (Lund *et*
308 *al.*, 2011), which may also negatively have affected additional protein synthesis and
309 growth in diets with an improved lipid digestibility. Metabolic energy expenditures in fish
310 may increase by elongating and desaturating 18 carbon n-3 and n-6 PUFAs from plant oils
311 to long chain LC PUFAs like EPA and DHA (Geurden *et al.*, 2005). However, levels of EPA
312 and DHA in diets fed on plant oils were probably sufficient to sustain physiological
313 requirements in fish as only part of the fish meal (i.e. with a content of 8-10 % fish oil) was
314 substituted by plant protein meals. Long term performance studies have shown that high
315 dietary inclusion levels of vegetable oils may negatively affect growth and feed utilization
316 due to accumulation of lipid droplets in intestinal cells and hepatocytes (Caballero *et al.*,
317 2002). Data on SGR and FCR as well as dressing percentage and HSI were similar
318 between dietary treatment groups in the present growth study, suggesting no such
319 accumulation or differences in lipid deposition and utilization efficiency.

320 The lipid class and fatty acid composition of the organic plant oils were all within the range
321 previously reported. (The apparent lipid digestibility of all vegetable oils was surprisingly
322 similar taking into account that lipid or FA digestibility may relate to the origin of oils and
323 their chemical and physical properties. The degree of unsaturation, chain length or melting
324 points may thus affect digestive processes (Cabellero *et al.*, 2002; Ng., *et al.*, 2004), and

325 different FAs may compete for the same transport mechanism in case of protein-mediated
326 transport (Geurden *et al.*, 2009). High levels of saturated FA may negatively affect the
327 formation of micelles in the intestinal lumen and hence reduce the FA uptake by
328 enterocytes (Menoyo *et al.*, 2003). As saturated FA in the FO diet comprised
329 approximately 41 % of TFA, far higher than the 7-10% in the vegetable oil based diets, this
330 may potentially explain the relatively lower FO lipid digestibility.

331 The low NFE digestibility coefficients in exp 1 and 3, reflected the high anti nutritional
332 content in the supplemented plant protein concentrates, which has been previously
333 discussed and reported (Lund *et al.*, 2011).

334 *Oxidation of lipids, feed intake and digestibility*

335 Feed intake of the oxidized feed types were lower than for the comparable non oxidized
336 feed types, but direct comparison hampered by use of larger size fish from another batch.
337 The feed intake was not affected by dietary lipid type or by lipid oxidation as the
338 moderately oxidized FO diet was accepted similarly as to the plant oil based diets for
339 which oxidation had limited effect. The effect of oxidization of residual lipids in fish meal on
340 feed intake by rainbow trout has been examined in a previous study, where fresh fish meal
341 was packed in bags with air and stored at 21°C for 52 weeks prior to incorporating it into
342 the feed (Jacobsen *et al.* 1995). Feed rancidity caused the fish to reject a significantly
343 higher amount of administered feed ($28.6\pm 5.2\%$) compared to fish fed a diet with non-
344 oxidized fish meal ($11.0\pm 3.9\%$). Peroxide values were 4 times higher in the referred study
345 and the levels of free fatty acids 1.6 times higher than results obtained for the FO based
346 diet in the present study. Differences in methods may explain these results, as FO was
347 stored and oxidized separately from fish meal in the present study. A combination of lower
348 freshness of the fish meal and higher levels of total volatile nitrogen (TVN), combined with

349 the fact that auto-oxidation and secondary oxidation products may react with amino acids
350 of the fish meal protein causing a reduction in the nutritive quality (Laohabanjong *et al.*,
351 2009) may further have affected palatability negatively in the study by Jacobsen *et al.*
352 (1995).

353 In the present study auto-oxidation values of the plant oils were only slightly affected by
354 storage for 7 months and subsequent force-oxidization for 5 days, explaining why lipid
355 digestibility seemed not affected. In comparison, lipid digestibility of FO decreased
356 significantly, indicating a potential deterioration of fish oil quality by mild auto-oxidation.
357 The marked decrease in DHA content of the oxidized FO diet may suggest that oxidation
358 caused a transition of n-3 LC PUFAs to other less polyunsaturated derivatives, but
359 changes probably too small to be demonstrated. The decline in the content of DHA in the
360 oxidized fish oil compared to the lack of changes in the content of less unsaturated plant
361 oil FAs are in accordance with previous findings, showing that LC PUFAs are more
362 susceptible to oxidation than less unsaturated FAs due to their chemical structure (Tyl *et*
363 *al.*, 2008; Sun-Waterhouse *et al.*, 2011). Thus, oxidized LC PUFAs will result in metabolites
364 with lower unsaturation index and a diminished nutritional value, likely as part of
365 explanation for the negative effect on lipid digestibility.

366 Previous studies have thus shown that n-3 LC PUFA levels in fish oils decreased following
367 oxidation (Koshio *et al.* 1994; Børsting *et al.*, 1994). In the present FO diet DHA was the
368 only LC PUFA to show this decline. Thus, data indicated that measurement of changes in
369 fatty acid composition may be a less sensitive way of assessing oxidative deterioration
370 than for example POV, in accordance with previously suggested (Shahidi and
371 Wanasundara, 2002).

372 The resistance of organic plant oils to auto-oxidation may be explained by lack of LC
373 PUFAs, as well as the fact that plant oils are known to contain high levels of natural
374 antioxidants such as tocopherol (E vitamin) and phenols protecting the oils. Consistent
375 with this, higher levels of tocopherol were found in the plant based diets (especially RO
376 and SO) comparable to the FO diet. Various antioxidants are used in the food industry as
377 well as supplemented in manufacturing of fish meal and fish oil and may be added to
378 prolong oxidative stability, and are often chemically synthesized (Singh *et al.*, 2005;
379 Lutterodt *et al.*, 2011). Conventional vegetable oils may be heated, solvent extracted and
380 refined during processing, while in contrast organic vegetable oils are extracted by cold
381 pressing, a method that involves no heat or chemical treatment, and hence may retain a
382 high level of natural antioxidants removing the concern of solvent residues (Lutterodt *et al.*,
383 2011). Consequently, the incidence of feed rancidity may be substantially reduced by the
384 use of organic plant oils. Feeds in which fish meal and fish oils have been replaced by
385 organic plant protein concentrates and plant oils may therefore be stored for longer time
386 and at higher temperatures while maintaining freshness and palatability as compared to
387 fish meal and fish oil based diets. As a further advantage, natural plant phenolic
388 antioxidants possess diverse consumer health promoting properties including antioxidant
389 activity and protection against cardiovascular diseases as opposed to health risks by
390 supplementing synthetic antioxidants (Sun-Waterhouse *et al.*, 2011).

391 In terms of growth performance and utilization of rainbow trout the present studies
392 suggested that the tested organic plant oils are all candidate alternatives to similar non-
393 organic plant oils or fish oils added synthetic antioxidants. The absence of LC PUFAs in
394 plant seed oils, however, necessitates the use of finisher diets with a certain content of LC
395 PUFAs in order to secure a healthy LC PUFA composition in terms of human dietary

396 recommendations (Pickova and Mørkøre, 2007), and a more balanced n-3/n-6 ratio due to
397 the high n-6 contents of some of the tested oils (e.g.. SO and GO). Furthermore, data on
398 the slaughtered fish indicated that the vegetable organic oils had significant effects on filet
399 lipid content, fatty acid composition, texture and sensory quality (see Petersen *et al*,
400 accepted).

401

402 *Conclusion and recommendations*

403 Organic linseed oil, rape seed oil, sunflower oil or grape seed oil may all be potential
404 sustainable alternatives to FO or non-organic plant oils in diets for organic rainbow trout
405 juveniles. The tested plant oils were all very resistant to auto-oxidation, and no
406 deterioration of lipid quality or FA composition was observed, which was probably due to
407 the high content of natural antioxidants. Supplementation of non-organic, synthetic
408 antioxidants may consequently be omitted during diet preparation, which is very promising
409 in terms of use in organic aquaculture. Costs of these organic oils compared to non
410 organic oils are higher, but future scenarios may include production volume and market
411 demands.

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530 Table 1

531 *Diet formulation (% inclusion) and proximate composition (% ww) of the 5 test diets. Values for*
 532 *both non oxidized and oxidized diets shown (X/X). Gross energy given as MJ kg⁻¹.*

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¹ Diet	FO	LO	SO	RO	GO
<i>Ingredients</i>					
Fish meal ^a	35.2	35.2	35.2	35.2	35.2
Wheat gluten ^b	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
Pea concentrate ^c	16.0	16.0	16.0	16.0	16.0
Horse bean concentrate ^d	15.0	15.0	15.0	15.0	15.0
Rape seed concentrate ^e	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0
Fish oil ^f	22.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Linseed oil ^g	0.0	22.6	0.0	0.0	0.0
Sunflower oil ^h	0.0	0.0	22.6	0.0	0.0
Rape seed oil ⁱ	0.0	0.0	0.0	22.6	0.0
Grape seed oil ^j	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	22.6
Vitamin and minerals ^k	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
Moisture change	-1.6	-1.6	-1.6	-1.6	-1.6
<i>Proximate composition</i>					
Crude protein	45.6 /43.5	46.0 /42.5	46.0/42.3	45.4/42.1	45.2/42.8
Crude fat	27.9 /28.7	28.9 /30.1	28.7/30.4	28.8/30.0	28.9/29.0
N-free extracts (incl. crude fiber)	13.5 /13.9	13.6 /13.9	13.4/13.6	13.2/13.0	13.4/13.9
Dry matter	95.8 /93.5	97.0 /94.6	96.7/94.3	95.9/93.0	96.1/93.9
Ash	8.7 /8.4	8.6 /8.1	8.6/8.0	8.5/8.0	8.5/8.1
Total P	1.41	1.42	1.41	1.38	1.40
Gross energy	25.2 / 25.7	25.2 / 25.8	25.1/25.9	25.2/25.8	25.3/25.6

- 539 ¹ Diet abbreviations: FO = fish oil; LO: linseed oil SO: sunflower seed oil; RO: rape seed oil; GO: grape seed oil.
- 540 ^{a f} Sprat (*Sprattus sprattus*), fish meal: low temperature (LT) Supreme, FF, Skagen, Denmark
- 541 ^b BioMar, Brande, Denmark
- 542 ^c Peas (*Pisum sativum*), Toft Food A/S, Denmark Denmark
- 543 ^d Horse beans (*Vicia faba*), DLF-Trifolium A/S, Roskilde, Denmark
- 544 ^{e,i} Rape seeds (*Brassica napus*), Lehnsgaard, Aakirkeby, Denmark
- 545 ^g Linseed (*Linum usitatissimum*), Nyborggaard, Vildbjerg, Denmark
- 546 ^h Sunflower (*Helianthus annuus*), Urtekram International, Mariager, Denmark
- 547 ^j Grape (*Vitis* sp), Earthoil, Bury St. Edmunds, United Kingdom
- 548 ^k BioMar, Brande, Denmark, the following was supplied (mg kg⁻¹ except as noted): vitamin A 3750 IU; cholocalciferol 750 IU; α-tocopherol, 131.3;
- 549 thiamine, 7.5; riboflavin, 15; pyridoxine, 7.5; vitamin B12, 0.002; vitamin K3, 7.5; zinc, 75; iodine, 0.9; copper, 3.75; manganese, 22.5; cobalt, 0.75;
- 550 selenium, 0.19.
- 551
- 552

553 Table 2.

554 *Total fatty acid (TFA) content (mg g dw⁻¹) and analysed fatty acid (FA) composition (% TFA) of*
 555 *non-oxidised and oxidised oils (mean). Fatty acids below 0.1 % are referred to as non-detected*
 556 *(n.d.).*

557

¹ Diet	FO	FOoxi	LO	LOoxi	SO	SOoxi	RO	ROoxi	GO	GOoxi
TFA	848	803	952	957	911	903	977	985	972	905
FA										
14:0	13.1	13.5	n.d.	n.d.	0.1	0.1	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
16:0	23.5	24.5	4.8	5.3	6.1	5.9	4.5	4.4	6.4	7.1
18:0	2.4	2.6	3.3	3.6	3.4	3.4	1.6	1.5	3.7	4.0
20:0	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.5	0.1	0.1
22:0	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.3	0.3	n.d.	n.d.
24:0	0.0	0.0	n.d.	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	n.d.	n.d.
∑ saturates	41.1	42.4	8.4	9.3	10.3	10.3	7.0	6.9	10.4	11.5
16:1 (n-7)	9.0	8.9	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1
18:1 (n-9)	18.1	18.3	12.7	13.6	26.7	26.3	61.3	61.0	16.9	18.1
20:1 (n-9)	17.3	17.5	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.0	1.0	0.1	0.2
24:1 (n-9)	1.2	1.4	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	0.0	0.1	0.1	n.d.	n.d.
∑ monoenes	45.9	46.3	12.8	13.7	26.9	26.5	62.6	62.3	17.1	18.4
18:2 (n-6)	4.6	4.7	13.1	13.6	62.6	63.0	18.7	19.1	72.1	69.7
18:3 (n-6)	0.2	0.2	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
20:2 (n-6)	0.5	0.4	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
20:3 (n-6)	0.1	0.2	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	0.1	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
20:4 (n-6)	0.6	0.5	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
22:2 (n-6)	0.1	0.1	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
∑(n-6)	6.1	6.1	13.2	13.6	62.7	63.1	18.8	19.2	72.2	69.8
PUFA										
18:3 (n-3)	3.1	2.8	65.6	63.3	n.d.	n.d.	11.6	11.7	0.3	0.3
20:3 (n-3)	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
20:5 (n-3)	0.3	0.3	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
22:6 (n-3)	3.3	1.9	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
∑ (n-3)	7.1	5.2	65.6	63.3	0.0	0.0	11.6	11.7	0.3	0.4
PUFA										
DHA/EPA	9.8	7.5								
ARA/DHA	0.2	0.3								
ARA/EPA	1.8	1.9								
(n-3)/(n-6)	1.2	0.8	5.0	4.7			0.6	0.6	0.0	0.0

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559 ¹ Diet abbreviations: FO = fish oil; LO: linseed oil, SO: sunflower seed oil; RO: rape seed oil; GO: grape seed oil. Oxi: oxidised oil equivalent. ARA:
 560 arachidonic acid; EPA: eicosapentaenoic acid; DHA: docosahexaenoic acid. mean values, n=2

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563 Table 3.

564 *Effects of diets on apparent digestibility coefficients (ADC %) of protein, lipid, NFE and ash in fish*
565 *(experiment 1)*

¹ Diet	FO	LO	SO	RO	GO	Pooled s.e.	P value
Crude protein	90.6 ^{ab}	89.8 ^a	91.0 ^b	91.1 ^b	90.5 ^{ab}	0.58	*
Crude lipid	94.8 ^a	97.1 ^{bc}	96.4 ^b	96.3 ^b	97.3 ^c	0.19	***
NFE	10.7 ^{ab}	6.0 ^a	13.8 ^b	12.3 ^{ab}	11.2 ^{ab}	1.50	*
Ash	61.7	62.3	64.4	63.8	63.6	0.61	ns
DM	79.7 ^a	79.9 ^{ab}	81.3 ^b	81.2 ^{ab}	81.0 ^{ab}	0.33	**

566 ¹ Diet abbreviations: FO = fish oil; LO: linseed oil, SO: sunflower seed oil; RO: rape seed oil; GO: grape seed oil.

567 † mean values, n=6. ns= non significant (P>0.05) , * , ** , *** refer to significance levels P<0.05, P<0.01, P<0.001. Values not sharing a common superscript

568 letter abc in a horizontal row are significantly different (P<0.05)

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584 Table 4.

585 *Effects of diets on apparent digestibility coefficients (ADC %)[†] of protein, lipid, nitrogen free*
 586 *extracts (NFE) and ash in fish (experiment 3).*

¹ Diet	FO oxi	LO oxi	SO oxi	RO oxi	GO oxi	Pooled s.e.	P value
Crude protein	89.5	90.1	90.3	90.8	90.6	0.59	ns
Crude lipid	86.0 ^a	95.4 ^b	95.7 ^b	96.0 ^b	96.4 ^b	0.21	***
NFE	16.1	19.4	17.4	16.1	21.1	2.34	ns
Ash	70.0 ^b	69.1 ^b	65.9 ^{ab}	64.6 ^a	68.2 ^{ab}	0.81	**
DM	78.3 ^a	81.4 ^b	81.1 ^b	81.4 ^b	81.8 ^b	0.38	***

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588 ¹ Diet abbreviations: FO = fish oil; LO: linseed oil, SO: sunflower seed oil; RO: rape seed oil; GO: grape seed oil. Oxi: oxidized.

589 [†] mean values, n=6. ns= non significant (P>0.05) , * , ** , *** refer to significance levels P<0.05, P<0.01, P<0.001. Values not sharing a common
 590 superscript letter abc in a horizontal row are significantly different (P<0.05)

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593 Table 5.

594 *Effects of diets on feed intake (% of offered feed), feed conversion ratio (FCR) and specific growth*
 595 *rate (SGR, % d⁻¹) in fish shown for digestibility study (exp. 1) and growth study (exp. 2)[†]. Mean*
 596 *initial and final weight (g fish⁻¹), total mortality (% final biomass) and hepatosomatic index (HSI, %*
 597 *body weight) are presented for each diet in growth study.*

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¹ Diet	FO	LO	SO	RO	GO	Pooled s.e.	P values
Digestibility study							
Feed intake	99.7	99.3	95.1	99.2	97.9	1.44	ns
FCR 9 days	0.68	0.69	0.69	0.70	0.71	0.01	ns
SGR 9 days	2.17	2.14	2.09	2.12	2.07	0.03	ns
Growth study							
Feed intake	99.1	98.9	99.2	99.4	99.4	0.68	ns
FCR 57 days	0.92	0.94	0.92	0.91	0.94	0.01	ns
SGR 57 days	1.65	1.63	1.67	1.67	1.59	0.03	ns
Mean weight initial	79.4	79.4	78.4	80.6	78.6	10.8	ns
Mean weight final	204.2	198.9	203.5	199.4	204.1	27.7	ns
Mortality	0.64	0	0.11	0.41	0.63	0.23	ns
HSI	0.89	0.93	0.82	0.94	0.87	0.03	ns

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¹ Diet abbreviations: FO = fish oil; LO: linseed oil, SO: sunflower seed oil; RO: rape seed oil; GO: grape seed oil.

615

[†] mean values, n=3. ns= non significant (P>0.05).

616 Table 6.

617 *Effects of diets on feed intake (% of offered feed), feed conversion ratio (FCR) and specific growth*
 618 *rate (SGR) in fish shown for digestibility experiment using oxidized diets (exp 3)[†].*

619	¹ Diet	FO	LO	SO	RO	GO	Pooled s.e.	P values
620	Digestibility study							
621	Feed intake	69.6	70.1	73.8	82.2	76.1	3.20	ns
622	FCR 9 days	0.91	0.81	0.82	0.79	0.81	0.03	ns
623	SGR 9 days	1.22	1.17	1.17	1.49	1.24	0.08	ns
624								
625								
626								

627 ¹ Diet abbreviations: FO = fish oil; LO: linseed oil, SO: sunflower seed oil; RO: rape seed oil; GO: grape seed oil.

628 [†] mean values, n=3. ns= non significant (P>0.05).

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637 Table 7

638 *Analytical content of ($\alpha\beta\gamma\delta$) tocopherol ($\mu\text{g/g}$); ethoxyquin (ppm); peroxide value (POV, meq O_2/kg oil), anisidine (P-AnV, absorbance*
 639 *units/g of oil) and free fatty acids (FFA, %) in non oxidized and oxidized diets. †*

¹ Diet	Diets non oxidized					Diets oxidized					Pooled s.e.	P- values for effect		
	FO	LO	SO	RO	GO	FO oxi	LO oxi	SO oxi	RO oxi	GO oxi		Dietary oil source	Treatment (oxidation)	Oil source vs. treatment
² Tocopherol						18.0 ^a	36.4 ^b	51.5 ^c	71.7 ^d	25.5 ^a	1.09	***		
³ Ethoxyquin						5.5 ^a	4.8 ^{ab}	3.6 ^{ab}	2.9 ^b	4.8 ^{ab}	0.34	*		
POV	14.2	23.5	21.1	14.9	15.5	26.3	21.7	28.9	14.8	15.6	1.21	**	*	*
P-AnV	10.4	11.0	9.1	17.1	20.7	144.4	13.3	24.3	20.7	17.1	3.43	***	***	***
FFA	5.1	3.7	2.8	3.2	2.6	6.0	3.5	3.3	2.6	2.5	0.07	***	ns	**

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641 ¹ Diet abbreviations FO: fish oil; LO: linseed oil; SO: sunflower oil; RO: rape seed oil; GO: grape seed oil; oxi: oxidised

642 ²⁻³ Analysed for oxidized diets only. † mean values, n=2. ns= non significant (P>0.05).*, **, *** refer to significance levels P<0.05, P<0.01, P<0.001. Mean values not sharing a common superscript letter abc in a
 643 horizontal row are significantly different (P<0.05)

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