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Abstract

26 The effects of low marine ingredient diets supplemented with graded levels (L1, L2, L3) of a micronutrient package (NP) on growth and metabolic responses were studied in diploid and triploid salmon parr. Diploids fed L2 showed significantly improved growth and reduced liver, hepatic steatosis, and viscerosomatic indices, while fish fed L3 showed suppressed growth rate 14 weeks post feeding. In contrast, dietary NP level had no effect on triploid performance. Whole body mineral composition, with exception of copper, did not differ between diet or ploidy. Whole fish total AAs and N-metabolites showed no variation by diet or ploidy. Free circulating AAs and white muscle N-metabolites were higher in triploids than diploids, while branch-chained amino acids were higher in diploids than triploids. Diploids had higher whole 35 body α -tocopherol and hepatic vitamins K_1 and K_2 than triploids. Increased tissue B-vitamins for niacin and whole-body folate with dietary NP supplementation were observed in diploids but not triploids, while whole body riboflavin was higher in diploids than triploids. Hepatic transcriptome profiles showed that diploids fed diet L2 was more similar to that observed in triploids fed diet L3. In particular, sterol biosynthesis pathways were down-regulated, whereas cytochrome P450 metabolism was up-regulated. One-carbon metabolism was also affected by increasing levels of supplementation in both ploidies. Collectively, results suggested that, for optimised growth and liver function, micronutrient levels be supplemented above current National Research Council (2011) recommendations for Atlantic salmon when fed low marine ingredient diets. The study also suggested differences in nutritional requirements between ploidy.

Keywords: Atlantic salmon; micronutrient; vegetable; ingredients; nutrition

1. Introduction

 All animals, including fish, have specific macro- and micronutrient requirements for optimal growth, development and health (Halver and Hardy, 2002). Whereas macro-nutrient requirements (e.g. protein and lipid) have been extensively studied in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.) (e.g. Hillestad and Johnsen, 1994; Einen and Roem, 1997; Grisdale-Helland et al., 2013), micronutrients (e.g. vitamins and minerals) have been less well researched and only a few have been the subject of empirical studies (see Waagbø, 2010; NRC, 2011; Hansen et al., 2015; Hamre, et al., 2016; Hemre, et al., 2016). This lack of empirically derived data in salmon for many micronutrients has not prevented the development of a large and highly successful salmon farming industry worldwide (Kontali, 2015). Traditionally, many of the micronutrients were provided by raw materials, such as fishmeal (FM) and fish oil (FO) (NRC, 2011). However, FM and FO are finite, on an annual basis, and limited resources (Shepherd and Jackson, 2013; IFFO, 2014) and, with steadily increasing price, their use in fish feed has become commercially less viable (Tacon and Metian, 2008; Jackson and Shepherd, 2012).

 Plant products have increasingly replaced FM and FO in salmon feeds (Gatlin et al., 2007; Hardy et al., 2010; Turchini et al., 2011). For example, in Norwegian salmon feeds from 1990 to 2013, the proportions of marine ingredients decreased from almost 90 % to under 30 %, with plant ingredients increasing from very low levels to around 67 % of feeds (Ytrestøyl et al., 2015). This has been a progressive change as shown by the levels in 2000 (65 % marine and 33 % plant) and 2010 (42 % marine and 56 % plant). Therefore today, commercially available feeds for salmon are predominantly formulated with plant ingredients, with consequent changes to the nutritional profile (Sissener et al., 2013). While it seems that salmon can tolerate and grow well on diets with very low levels of marine ingredients, such that they can be considered as net producers of marine protein and oil (Bendiksen et al., 2011; Crampton et al., 2010; Sanden et al., 2011), in some cases high dietary levels of plant proteins and vegetable oils (VO) can result in lower weight gain, increased adiposity and lower feed efficiency in salmon, even when requirements for all essential nutrients are met (Torstensen et al., 2008, 2011; Collins et al., 2013). Furthermore, replacement of FM and FO with plant-based alternatives has been shown to have a wide range of metabolic effects that can also impact on fish development and health, as well as nutritional quality of the final product (Montero and Izquierdo, 2011; Rosenlund et al., 2011; Oliva-Teles, 2012; Pohlenz and Gatlin, 2014). There are now concerns that, with these major changes in raw materials, low marine / high plant feeds will affect not only the composition and contents of nutrients, but also the bioavailability and, combined with the limited knowledge of micronutrient requirements for Atlantic salmon, this might impact growth performance and health of the fish (Bell and Waagbø, 2008; Hemre et al., 2009; Torstensen and Tocher, 2011; Tocher and Glencross, 2015; Shepherd et al., 2017). Therefore, knowledge of practical nutrient requirements of Atlantic salmon when fed plant-based diets is pivotal (Hansen et al., 2015).

 In this respect, there is growing interest within the Scottish and Norwegian farming sector to consider commercial implementation of triploid Atlantic salmon within certain farming localities. Triploid salmons are fish carrying a chromosomal abnormality (i.e. an extra set of chromosomes) that can be artificially induced by hydrostatic pressure, thermal or chemical shock (Benfey, 2016). As a result of their chromosomal state, triploids are sterile, hence offering potential advantages for farming such as reproductive containment of escapees and potential for faster growth with subsequent reduction of production cycle length (Benfey, 2016). However, specific dietary requirement trials in triploids are limited to date, although it was previously suggested that differences between ploidy might exist (Fjelldal & Hansen, 2010). Apparent digestibility coefficients for dry matter, protein, or lipid do not appear to differ between ploidy (Burke et al., 2010; Tibbetts et al., 2013), whereas energy and nitrogen retention efficiencies may be higher in triploids than diploids (Burke et al., 2010). Evidence exists to hypothesise that triploids may have higher dietary requirement for certain macro-minerals such as phosphorous, which must be met to prevent the onset of skeletal deformities (Fjelldal et al., 2015). In addition, a higher requirement for the essential amino acid histidine was also reported to prevent cataract formation in post-smolts and, possibly, to improve feed conversion efficiency (Taylor et al., 2015). It stands to reason that, similar to phosphorus and histidine, other dietary requirements may vary between ploidy, especially in respect to nutrient profile alterations in low marine ingredients diets. However, few studies have examined triploid performance in response to a diet with low levels of FM or FO (Ganga et al., 2015), or how dietary micronutrient supplementation would affect growth and metabolism. It is therefore essential to establish the dietary requirements of triploid Atlantic salmon, and ensure their performance is at least equal or better than their diploid counterparts under a dietary regime with low marine ingredients in order to establish their viability for integration in commercial operations.

 The present study investigated the effects of feeding graded levels of a nutrient package (NP) containing 24 nutrients in total (NRC, 2011 minimum nutrient recommendations for Atlantic salmon modified based on the studies by Hamre et al., 2016; Hemre et al. 2016) supplemented to feeds formulated with low levels of marine ingredients in diploid and triploid Atlantic salmon from parr until smolt. Specifically, fish were fed a diet supplemented with one of three inclusion levels of the NP (L1, 100 %; L2, 200 % and L3, 400% NP) and the effects on growth performance, biochemical composition, liver histology, hepatic gene expression (transcriptome) and smoltification efficiency determined.

2. Methods and Materials

2.1 Fish Stock

 All experimental procedures and husbandry practices were conducted in compliance with the Animals Scientific Procedures Act 1986 (Home Office Code of Practice) in accordance with EU regulation (EC Directive 2010/63/EU) and approved by the Animal Ethics and Welfare Committee of the University of Stirling. All fish were monitored daily by the Named Animal Care and Welfare Officer (NACWO).

 The feeding trial was carried out at the Niall Bromage Freshwater Research Facility, University of Stirling (Buckieburn, Scotland) for just over a year from March one year to April the following year using a mixed population of fish obtained from a commercial Atlantic salmon stock (Landcatch Natural Selection, Ormsary, UK). Briefly, ova and milt were collected from a total of 20 unrelated dams and 5 sires. Per dam, ova were fertilised as one batch and a 1 L sub-sample was removed to induce triploidy using hydrostatic pressure shock (9500 PSI applied 300 degree minutes post-fertilisation at 8 ˚C for a duration of 6.25 min). This procedure was repeated for each dam x sire cross creating 20 diploid incubators and 20 triploid incubators, 135 reared in constant darkness at 8.0 ± 0.5 °C. Eyed ova (380 °days post fertilisation) were shipped to University of Stirling facilities and ova were pooled per ploidy and reared in 6 x 250 L tanks in complete darkness until first feeding (~ 850 °dpf). At first feeding, diploids were fed a 138 standard commercial salmon fry feed (Inicio Plus, BioMar, UK; 13.0g kg⁻¹ total phosphorus) whereas triploids were fed the same standard commercial formulation but with a boosted 140 phosphorous level $(16.7g \text{ kg}^{-1})$ total phosphorus) based on data obtained in previous studies on triploid salmon (Smedley et al., 2018). All other dietary components were comparable between starter feeds. Fry were reared under constant light, and feed was supplied throughout the 24 h by belt feeders according to manufacturer's tables (specific feeding rate [SFR], 2-3 % body 144 weight day^{-1}).

 To verify ploidy status, smears were prepared according to Woznicki & Kuzminski, (2002) from blood collected following the caudal peduncle from euthanised fish at 5 g (100 / ploidy). After air drying, slides were fixed in 100 % methanol and then placed into Giemsa 148 stain for 10 min. Erythrocyte length and diameter were measured at $100\times$ magnification using image capture software (Image-Pro Premier, MediaCybernetics, Rockville, USA). A total of 20 randomly chosen nuclei per slide were measured to the nearest 0.01 μm. Diploid control groups

had significantly smaller erythrocyte nuclear lengths with no overlaps with the pressure shock

triploid groups (2N 6.8–7.7 μm; 3N 9.0–10.2 μm) confirming that the majority of fish subjected

to hydrostatic pressure shock were likely to be triploids. Cumulative mortality from first-

- 154 feeding to start of the feeding trial was 2.8 ± 0.02 % for diploids and 3.5 ± 0.01 % for triploids.
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2.2 Feeding Trial

157 Two groups of Atlantic salmon parr of mean weight 37.5 ± 2.2 g (diploid) and 27.4 ± 1.5 158 0.7 g (triploid) were stocked into 12 x 1.8 m³ circular fibreglass tanks (6 tanks / ploidy, n = 1000 / tank). Fish were acclimated to the experimental conditions for 2 weeks before being fed 160 the experimental diets. Duplicate groups were fed low FM / FO diets ($\equiv 15\%$ FM / 8% FO) 161 formulated to have identical protein / oil content $(480 / 215 g kg⁻¹$ respectively of which $72 / 17$ 162 g kg⁻¹ were of marine origin) and supplemented with a nutrient package (NP) at graded 163 inclusion levels. The NP contained 24 nutrients in total these being; vitamins (A, D_3, E, K_3, C, F_4) thiamin, riboflavin, B6, B12, niacin, pantothenic acid, folic acid and biotin), minerals (Ca, Co, I, Se, Fe, Mn, Cu and Zn), crystalline amino acids (L-histidine and taurine) and cholesterol. Specifically, the NP was added at three inclusion levels to produce 3 dietary treatments: L1, 100 % NP; L2, 200 % NP; L3, 400 % NP, the assumption being that the 100% NP package should contain 100 % of assumed requirement based on the given requirement levels reported for Atlantic salmon at the time (NRC, 2011) and modified according to an earlier trial as part of the EU-funded ARRAINA project (Hamre et al., 2016). Total and available phosphorus were 171 fixed in all diets at 13.0 and 9.0 g kg^{-1} respectively, and magnesium at 1.5 g kg^{-1} , and were not part of the NP. Pellet size was adjusted according to fish weight, with a 2 mm pellet fed for 23 weeks and a 3 mm pellet fed for the final 8 weeks. All non-oil ingredients were mixed and pellets produced by extrusion to produce three base pellets that had oil added by vacuum coating. All feeds were produced at the BioMar Tech-Centre (Brande, Denmark). Feed formulations, added micronutrient concentrations within the nutrient package and analysed micronutrient concentration are provided in Tables 1, 2 and 3 respectively, while fatty acid profiles are provided in **Supplementary file 1**. With the exception of histidine, there were generally positive relationships between added and analysed nutrients in the 2 mm pellet (Table 3). In the 3 mm pellet, vitamin A, vitamin K3, pantothenic and folic acid, vitamin C, iron and manganese deviated from the positive relationship.

 Fish were fed continuously during the light period of the light-dark cycle by automatic feeders (Arvotec T2000, Arvotec, Finland) controlled by a PC system. Although feed collection was not possible due to system constraints, presence of waste feed was ensured each day prior to tank flushing. Specific feeding rates (SFR; % tank biomass per day) were adjusted automatically according to predicted growth and daily temperature. A simulated natural photoperiod (SNP) was applied to produce S1+ smolts, with lighting provided by two 28 W fluorescent daylight bulbs (4000 °K, RS Components, UK) mounted centrally within the tank 189 lid. Water was supplied by an upstream reservoir under flow through conditions $(10 L min^{-1})$, with ambient temperatures decreasing from 15.5 ˚C (September) to 2.0 ˚C (February), and 191 increasing to 9 °C by April. Oxygen levels were consistently >8 mg L^{-1} .

2.3 Sampling Procedures

 Fish were sampled for growth at 3, 7, 14 and 31 weeks post application of the experimental feeds. At each time point, 50 fish / tank were anaesthetised (MS222, PHARMAQ, 196 UK), individual weights $(\pm 0.1 \text{ g})$ and fork lengths $(\pm 1.0 \text{ mm})$ measured, and fish allowed to recover in aerated water before returning to experimental tanks. Sex was not assessed. Fulton's 198 condition factor (K) was calculated using: $K = (WL^{-3})100$; where W is body weight (g) and L 199 is fork length (cm). Weight data were used to calculate specific growth rate (SGR_{wt}) , and feed 200 conversion rate (FCR) for each sampling period where SGR_{wt} was calculated as: $(e^{g-1}) \times 100$, 201 where $g = (\ln(W_f) - \ln(W_i)) \times (t_2 - t_1)^{-1}$. Relative Weight gain (RWG) was calculated as (*Wf*-*Wi*)/W*i* x 100. FCR was calculated as: $F / (B_f - B_i + B_m)^{-1}$ where *F* is the feed fed (kg), B_f is the 203 final biomass (kg), B_i is the initial biomass (kg), and B_m is the mortality biomass for the period (kg). Uneaten feed recovery was not feasible for this study and, therefore, FCR provided only a crude estimate of feed conversion.

 At the end of the feeding trial (31 weeks), a total of 7 fish / tank were euthanised by an overdose of MS222 and 3 carcasses frozen at -20 ˚C for whole fish proximate composition 208 analyses. Livers were dissected from the remaining 4 fish / tank ($n = 8$ / diet) and a small sample (~ 100 mg) collected into RNALater® (Sigma, Poole, UK) for transcriptomic analyses, before the liver was divided into two portions. One portion was stored in 10 % neutral buffered formalin prior to histological analyses with the remaining portion snap frozen in liquid nitrogen, 212 then stored at -20 °C prior to fatty acid composition analysis. Finally, further 10 fish / tank were euthanised and viscera (intestines and associated fat deposits without liver or gonad) and livers dissected, individually weighed to calculate viscerosomatic (VSI, %) and hepatosomatic (HSI, %) indices: where VSI was calculated as viscera weight / (body weight – viscera weight) x 100; and HSI as liver weight / (body weight – liver weight) x 100.

 Liver and white muscle were dissected after fish were anaesthetised from five fish per tank, divided into two, and used for analysis of vitamins, S-adenosylmethionine (SAM), S-219 adenosylhomocysteine (SAH) and free amino acids at week 31. Samples were frozen at -30 $^{\circ}$ C until analysed. In addition, samples of whole fish were collected, minced and analysed for total amino acids and vitamins. Whole fish were pooled into 3 samples of 2 fish (1 per tank/replicate) and homogenised in a blender (Waring Laboratory Science, Winsted, CT, USA) to produce pates, and feeds were ground prior to analyses.

2.4 Histological analysis

226 Formalin-fixed livers from 4 fish per tank ($n = 8 /$ diet) were assessed for micro- and macro-vesicular steatosis by light microscopy of haematoxylin and eosin-stained sections (Gu 228 et al., 2013). Sections were viewed at $20 \times$ original magnification and scored for presence of vesicles in individual hepatocytes. The term steatosis was applied when clear vacuoles with a diameter greater than 5 μm were observed in the hepatocytes, and measurement was achieved 231 using a four-point scoring system (Fig.1; 0 - no vacuolation; 1 - mild vacuolation, $\langle 25 \times 10^4 \rangle$ hepatocyte area (one small vacuole not displacing the nucleus); 2 - moderate vacuolation, 25- 75 % of hepatocyte area (one or more small vacuoles mildly displacing the nucleus); and 3 - severe vacuolation, > 75 % of hepatocyte area (one large vacuole filling the cytoplasm, and displacing the nucleus).

2.5 Biochemical analysis of diets, whole fish and liver

 Proximate compositions of feeds and whole fish were determined according to standard 239 procedures (AOAC, 2000). Moisture contents were obtained after drying in an oven at 110 °C 240 for 24 h and ash content determined after incineration at 600 °C for 16 h. Crude protein content 241 was measured by determining nitrogen content $(N \times 6.25)$ using automated Kjeldahl analysis (Tecator Kjeltec Auto 1030 analyser, Foss, Warrington, U.K), and crude lipid content determined after acid hydrolysis followed by Soxhlet lipid extraction (Tecator Soxtec system 2050 Auto Extraction apparatus, Foss, Warrington, U.K). Total lipid was extracted from liver 245 by homogenisation in chloroform/methanol $(2:1, v/v)$ and content determined gravimetrically (Folch et al., 1957). Fatty acid methyl esters (FAME) were prepared from total lipid by acid-247 catalysed transesterification at 50 °C for 16 h (Christie, 2003), and FAME extracted and purified as described previously (Tocher and Harvie, 1988). FAME were separated and quantified by gas-liquid chromatography using a Fisons GC-8160 (Thermo Scientific, Milan, Italy) equipped 250 with a 30 m \times 0.32 mm i.d. \times 0.25 µm ZB-wax column (Phenomenex, Cheshire, UK), on column injector and a flame ionisation detector. Data were collected and processed using Chromcard for Windows (version 2.01; Thermoquest Italia S.p.A., Milan, Italy). Individual FAME were identified by comparison to known standards and published data (Tocher and Harvie, 1988). Whole fish samples were hydrolysed in 6M HCL for 22 h before being analysed for total amino acid content and composition by UPLC as described (Espe et al., 2014), while free amino acids and N-metabolites in muscle and liver were analysed after deproteinisation using sulfosalicylic acid, and separated on Biochrome and detected by post-column derivatisation with ninhydrin, as described elsewhere (Espe et al., 2006). Liver, plasma and muscle samples were analysed for SAM and SAH after extraction using 4 % per chloric acid and separated on HPLC as described in detail previously (Espe et al., 2008). The B-vitamins, biotin, niacin, folate, pantothenic acid and cobalamin were all determined by microbiological methods (Feldsine et al., 2002; Mæland et al., 2000). Other B-vitamins were determined by HPLC; thiamine (CEN, 2003), vitamin B6 (CEN, 2006) and riboflavin (Brønstad et al., 2002). Ascorbic acid was determined by HPLC (Mæland and Waagbø, 1998), as were tocopherols and vitamin K [\(CEN, 1999\)](#page-21-0). Total TBARS was determined according to Hamre et al. [\(2001\)](#page-24-0). Multi- element determination of macro- and microminerals in the feed and tissue samples was performed by ICP-MS (inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry) [\(Julshamn et al., 1999\)](#page-25-0).

2.6 Smoltification assessment

 Smoltification was confirmed through a combination of smolt index scoring (Sigholt et 271 al, 1995), gill $Na+K^+ATP$ ase activity, and 24 h saltwater challenge and plasma chloride analysis were conducted during the feeding trial on 28-Jan, 27-Feb, 21-Mar, and at final smolt, 21-Apr 2014 (equivalent to 122, 199, 324 and 430 ˚days post-winter solstice rise in daylength 274 respectively). Thirty individuals per tank were scored for smolt index. Na^+K^+ -ATPase activity 275 was determined from 5 individual gill biopsy / tank (3-6 gill filaments in 100 µl SEI buffer, 276 snap frozen in liquid nitrogen), with a kinetic assay run in 96-well microplates at 26 \degree C and read at a wavelength of 340 nm for 10 min according to the method of McCormick (1993). Protein concentrations were determined thereafter using a BCA (Bicinchoninic acid) protein assay kit (SIGMA, Aldrich, UK). Saltwater challenge was conducted for 24 h in 100 L tanks of 280 10 °C aerated seawater (35 ppt) (Instant Ocean; Animal House, Batley, UK). Ten individual fish per diet (5 / tank) were placed into separate 100 L saltwater challenge tanks at respective time points, and following challenge, all fish were removed, numbers of surviving fish counted to determine seawater survival, and were then culled and blood removed from the caudal vein before centrifugation at 500 g for 15 min at 4 °C. Plasma was collected and stored at −20 °C

 until analysis using a chloride analyser (Sherwood Instruments Inc., UK). Plasma samples were analysed in triplicate per individual and the average taken of the three technical replicates.

2.7 Hepatic transcriptome analysis

 Transcriptomic analysis was conducted using a custom-made 4 x 44K Atlantic salmon oligo microarray (Agilent Technologies, Wokingham, UK; ArrayExpress accession no. **A- MEXP-2065**) as described in detail previously (Tacchi et al., 2011). Furthermore, this salmon custom array and the laboratory protocols used in the present study have been used widely and validated by previous studies (Morais et al., 2012; Betancor et al., 2016; Vera et al., 2017). Briefly, RNA was extracted from 50 mg of liver tissue, originating from six individual fish from each feed group, using TRI Reagent (Sigma-Aldrich, Dorset, UK). The resulting RNA 296 samples were amplified using TargetAmp™ 1-Round Aminoallyl-aRNA Amplification Kit, (Epicentre Technologies Corporation, Madison, Wisconsin, USA) following recommended procedures. Aminoallyl-amplified RNA (aRNA) samples were labelled with Cy3 dye (GE HealthCare Life Sciences, Buckinghamshire, UK) while a pool of all aRNA samples was labelled with Cy5 dye (GE HealthCare Life Sciences) and used as a common reference in a dual-label common reference design, and finally hybridised to one array. Scanning was performed using a GenePix 4200 AL Scanner (Molecular Devices (UK) Ltd., Wokingham, UK), and the resulting images analysed with Agilent Feature Extraction Software v.9.5 (Agilent Technologies) to extract intensity values and identify the features. Features considered outliers 305 (i.e., defined as those probes whose background intensity was between the $0.05th$ and 99.95th percentile of the distribution) in two or more replicates within at least one treatment were excluded from further analyses. Additionally, features consistently expressed just above 308 background noise (defined as those features whose intensity was lower than $5th$ percentile of the distribution in 75 % or more of the analysed samples) were also removed. The full protocol for microarray laboratory and data analysis has been reported previously (De Santis et al., 2015). The output of the microarray experiment was submitted to ArrayExpress under accession number **E-MTAB-6302**. In order to avoid confounding effects associated with differential expression associated with the increased genetic material possessed by triploid fish, the two ploidy were analysed separately and independently and are herein presented relative to diet L1.

2.8 Statistical and data analysis

317 Differences between weight, condition factor (K), plasma chloride and gill Na^+K^+ -ATPase activity were assessed using a general linear model (GLM) and two-way ANOVA (diet x ploidy) with replicate tank nested within treatment. Percentage data (Mortality, SGRwt, HSI and VSI) were subjected to arcsine square-root transformation prior to statistical analyses. Data were tested for normality and homogeneity of variances with Levene's test prior to two-way ANOVA (diet x ploidy) followed by a Tukey–Kramer HSD multiple comparisons of means. Contingency Chi-square tests were used to compare significant differences between survival under saltwater challenge. Vitamins, minerals, amino acids, SAM and SAH were analysed by two-way ANOVA (ploidy x diet) using the tank means as the statistical unit. ANOVA was used to test the hypothesis that diet was more influential than ploidy. Tank means were accepted as 327 statistical different at $p < 0.05$. Results are reported as mean \pm standard deviation (SD).

 Transcriptomic data analysis was performed using Bioconductor v.2.13 (Gentleman et al., 2004). Quality control, data pre-processing and analysis of differential expression were conducted using the software package limma (Smyth, 2004). To avoid redundancy, features representing the same target gene as implied from KEGG annotation were reduced into a unique value obtained by selecting the feature with the highest F-value calculated on all contrasts. For analysis of gene expression, gene-set testing was adopted using the function *roast* of the limma package (Wu et al., 2010). Gene set testing is a differential expression analysis in which a set of *a priori* defined (putatively co-regulated) genes is treated as a unit. All *p*-values reported in this work were corrected for false discovery rate (FDR) unless otherwise specified (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995).

3. Results

3.1 Mortality, Maturation, Growth and Deformity

 There were no significant differences in cumulative mortality between dietary treatments or between ploidy (Table 4). However, in diploids, for diet L1 there was a tank effect, in which one tank showed higher mortality due to fungus in the final 3 weeks of the trial (7.5 % out of 9.1 % total mortality).

345 Precocious parr-maturation ($n = 50$ /tank) was not observed in any of the populations assessed any time point.

 Diploids had a significantly higher initial weight than triploids that was maintained for the 31 weeks of experimental feeding until smolt (Table 4). However, diet significantly affected weight in diploids, with fish fed diet L2 having a significantly higher final smolt weight than fish fed diets L1 and L3. In contrast, diet did not affect final smolt weight in triploids (Table 4). Although weight differed between ploidy, overall growth rate (SGRwt) and subsequent weight gain did not differ between ploidy and diet, with the exception of diploids fed diet L2, which showed a significantly higher SGRwt than all other treatments. However, examining growth profiles over time showed that diploids fed diets L2 and L3 exhibited the fastest weight gain, with significant differences evident as early as 3 weeks of feeding on the experimental diets. By 14 weeks post-feeding, diet L3 weight gain slowed, such that weight of fish fed diets L3 and L1 were no longer significantly different (Fig. 2). As such, ploidy did not affect relative % 358 weight gain (RWG, $p = 0.215$), while a significant effect of diet and an interaction with ploidy was evident (Table 4). RWG was not statistically different between ploidy in fish fed diet L1, significantly higher in triploids fed diet L3 relative to diploids, but significantly lower in triploids fed diet L2 relative to diploids. Within triploids, RWG did not differ between diets, while in diploids RWG was significantly higher in fish fed diet L2 than diets L1 and L3. The crude FCR data suggested an interaction between diet and ploidy, whereby diploids fed diet L2 had lower FCR than triploids fed L2, while there were no other significant effects on FCR between ploidy or diet (Table 4).

 Both VSI and HSI were affected by diet, ploidy and their interaction (Table 4). Within diploids, fish fed diet L2 had a significantly lower VSI and HSI than fish fed diets L1 and L3, while in triploids VSI and HSI were not affected by diet. Within diets, VSI and HSI differed only in diet L1 between ploidy.

 Externally visible deformity was < 1 % in fish fed all diets and ploidy at the end of the freshwater phase.

3.2 Proximate composition of fish and fatty acid composition of liver

 Whole fish % oil and ash composition did not differ significantly between dietary micronutrient inclusion level or ploidy (Table 5). Triploids had significantly lower whole body % protein and a higher % moisture at smolt than diploids, but was not affected by diet. Although not always statistically different, the fatty acid compositions of liver showed some trends that might be informative. Specifically, in diploids the proportion of total saturated fatty acids, particularly 16:0, significantly increased, and total monoenes, especially 18:1n-9 and 20:1n-9, significantly decreased with increasing micronutrient supplementation (Table 5). Furthermore, there was an increasing trend, albeit non-significant, in the proportions of total polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) and total n-3 PUFA, due mainly to increasing trends in eicosapentaenoic (EPA, 20:5n-3) and docosahexaenoic (DHA, 22:6n-3) acids, whereas the proportions of n-6 PUFA showed a decreasing trend with increasing dietary micronutrient concentrations.

 The effect of dietary micronutrient supplementation on liver fatty acid composition in triploid salmon was less pronounced than in diploids and the trends appeared to be in the opposite direction compared with diploid fish (Table 5). Thus, in triploids lower proportions of saturated fatty acids and n-3 PUFA, and higher proportions of monoenes and n-6 PUFA were found in fish fed diet L3 compared to those fed diet L1.

 3.3 Total amino acid concentration in whole body and free amino acids and N-metabolites in white muscle tissue

 Whole fish total amino acids and N-metabolites, at the end of the experiment, showed no variation by treatment (Table 6). There was a tendency that whole fish taurine was slightly 395 higher in triploids than in diploids ($p = 0.048$). Muscle free amino acids and N-metabolites including taurine, asparagine, hydroxyproline, glutamine, glutamate, and β-alanine were all higher in triploids than in diploids, while branched chain amino acids, lysine and anserine were higher in diploids than in triploids (Table 7). All the other metabolites analysed in muscle were not affected by treatments (data not shown). The varying dietary nutrient package had little influence on muscle free amino acids or N-metabolites as only a significant increase in threonine and a decrease in cystathionine was observed.

3.4 Vitamin concentrations in whole fish and tissues

 For the B-vitamins, increasing dietary levels led to increasing tissue levels for niacin (p 405 = 0.006), while whole body pantothene showed a trend of dietary effect ($p = 0.051$) (Table 8). Whole body folate increased in diploids, but not in triploids, giving a significant interaction 407 between diet and ploidy ($p = 0.035$). Riboflavin was higher in whole body of diploids compared 408 to triploids ($p = 0.016$). The tissue concentrations of the lipid soluble vitamins and vitamin C 409 increased with increasing concentration in the diet ($p < 0.015$), except for muscle α -TOH where the apparent increase was non-significant. Αlpha-tocopherol (TOH) and vitamin K showed higher retention in diploids compared to triploids (p < 0.001). Gamma-TOH, which was present in the feed ingredients but not supplemented in the diets, decreased in response to increasing 413 nutrient supplementation in both muscle and whole body ($p < 0.001$).

3.5 Mineral concentrations in whole fish

 Whole body mineral concentrations were not affected by diet (Table 9). Diploid fish 417 had a slightly higher whole body concentration of Cu than triploid fish ($p = 0.01$) but the other minerals were not affected by ploidy.

3.6 Liver histology and steatosis

 A significant interaction between diet and ploidy was evident (*p* = 0.003). In diploids, steatosis was significantly greater in fish fed diet L2 than fish fed diet L1, but not diet L3, while fish fed diets L1 and L3 were comparable (Table 4). Steatosis did not differ significantly 424 between diets in triploids. However, steatosis was affected by ploidy ($p = 0.004$), and was generally higher in triploids than diploids. Surprisingly, steatosis scores appeared to be inversely related to HSI (Table 4).

3.7 Smoltification efficiency

 Diploid salmon fed dietary treatment L2 showed 100 % survival during seawater challenge from 28-Jan final smolt (21-Apr) (Fig. 3). Diploids fed diet L1 had 100 % mortality on 28-Jan 2014. A slight dip in survival was observed in diploids fed diets L1 and L3 at 300 ˚days post-winter solstice (21-Mar), but survival at smolt (21-Apr) was 100 % irrespective of diet. In triploid salmon, seawater challenge mortalities were only observed on 28-Jan, thereafter and irrespective of diet, survival was 100 % during seawater challenge until smolt (21-Apr).

 In both ploidy, plasma chloride levels decreased with time post-winter solstice (Fig. 3). Significant differences were apparent between diploids fed diets L2 and L3 on 28-Jan, and between fish fed diet L1 and diets L2 and L3 on 21-Mar (~300 ˚days), however, no differences were apparent between dietary treatments at final smolt (21-Apr 2014). In triploids, fish fed 439 diet L1 had significantly higher plasma chloride levels on 28-Jan 2014 (~100 °days) than fish fed diet L2, with fish fed diet L3 intermediary to both. Thereafter, plasma chloride level steadily declined to smolt, at which point triploids fed diet L3 had a significantly higher plasma chloride level than fish fed either diets L1 or L2.

443 In both ploidy, gill Na^+ , K^+ -ATPase activity increased post-winter solstice until final smolt 21-Apr 2014 (Fig. 3). In diploids, fish fed diet L1 showed lower activity than fish fed 445 diets L2 and L3 on 21-Mar (\sim 300 °days), which correlated with differences evident in seawater challenge survival at this time point. At no other time point were significant differences observed between diets in diploids. In triploids, no significant differences were observed between fish fed the different diets at any time point.

3.8 Liver gene expression

 At individual gene level and using cut-off measures generally applied to microarray studies (i.e. FDR *p* < 0.1, Fold Change, FC > 1.3) no significant differences were found in any of the contrasts except for diet L3 versus L1 in triploids, where 7 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were identified. However, to identify interesting trends similarly affected in both ploidies a less stringent cut-off was used (*p* < 0.05, FC > 1.3). Under these conditions a larger 456 number of affected genes were identified ($L2_{\text{dip}}$ vs. $L1_{\text{dip}} = 300$, $L3_{\text{dip}}$ vs. $L1_{\text{dip}} = 192$, $L2_{\text{trip}}$ vs. 457 L1_{trip} =134, L2_{trip} vs. L3_{trip} =398). To restrict the range of potentially interesting pools of candidate markers affected by micronutrient supplementation, genes affected in diploids (either diets L2 or L3 versus L1) were intersected with those affected in triploids (either L2 or L3 versus L1) (Fig. 4). A total of 63 DEGs were obtained explaining common mechanisms affected in diploids and triploids. Noteworthy, this pool of markers suggested that diet L2 in diploids triggered a hepatic profile that highly resembled that triggered by diet L3 in triploids, sharing approximately 80 % of the similarities. This list of genes contained several genes regulating the terpenoid backbone biosynthesis and sterol biosynthetic processes, such as sterol 14- demethylase, 7-dehydrocholesterol reductase, squalene monooxygenase genes, and farnesyl diphosphate synthase. KEGG pathway analysis suggested that the DEGs were enriched for biological processes involved in cholesterol and lipid biosynthetic process, whereas for the cellular components indicated that endoplasmic reticulum and membranes structures were differentially regulated between diet groups. In addition, microarray analysis revealed that lipid digestion and absorption, steroid biosynthesis and PPAR signalling pathways were significantly altered due to diet nutrient package.

 Gene-set testing enables focus on biologically meaningful processes and provides a more powerful and robust approach than traditional gene-wise tests as evidence is accumulated from many genes. Using this approach, a significantly higher number of processes potentially affected by dietary micronutrient supplementation was identified (**Supplementary file 2**). In diploids, diets L2 and L3 differed from L1 for only one gene-set, respectively circadian rhythm (increased expression in fish fed diet L2 vs. L1) and insulin signalling pathway (lower expression in fish fed diet L3 vs. L1). In contrast, triploid livers appeared to be more affected by dietary treatments compared with diploids. In fact, diet L2 resulted in at least six gene-sets significantly affected whereas diet L3 triggered the response of 43 gene-sets. Within these 43 sets, up-regulation of key pathways involved in carbohydrate

 metabolism, digestion and absorption of carbohydrate, protein and lipid as well as bile acid biosynthesis was observed. Immune functions were also up-regulated in triploid salmon fed diet L3 (complement and coagulation cascades, leukocyte transendothelial migration and intestinal immune network for IgA production), as well as metabolism of xenobiotics by cytochrome P450. However, diet L3 in triploids resulted in down-regulation of steroid biosynthesis, terpenoid backbone biosynthesis and energy metabolism (oxidative phosphorylation). In addition, several functional categories within genetic information processing were also down-regulated (RNA degradation, proteasome, RNA polymerase, spliceosome and ribosome).

 Different supplementation levels of micronutrients affected the expression of key enzymes involved in one-carbon metabolism in both ploidies. In particular, increasing levels of supplementation resulted in up-regulation of genes involved in cysteine biosynthesis and catabolism (*cysteine beta-synthase, cysteine dioxygenase*), methionine synthesis (*betaine- homocysteine S-methyltransferase*), folate homeostasis (*folylpolyglutamate synthase*), histidine catabolism and glutamate synthesis (*glutamate formiminotransferase*) and serine conversion to glycine and tetrahydrofolate (*glycine hydroxymethyltransferase*). In diploids, several genes involved in carbohydrate and lipid metabolism, and using B-vitamins as cofactors and coenzymes, were also affected. Thus, *acetyl-CoA carboxylase* (fatty acid biosynthesis), *6- phosphogluconate dehydrogenase* and *transketolase* (pentose phosphate pathway) were up- regulated in diploid fish fed diet L2 (compared to fish fed diet L1). In addition, the expression of specific *cytochrome P450* genes were also up-regulated in fish fed diets L2 and L3 in both diploids and triploids (**Supplementary file 3**).

4. Discussion

 In the present study, diploids were significantly larger at the start of the trial, and maintained a significantly greater weight than their triploid siblings irrespective of dietary micronutrient supplementation. However, growth rates (SGRwt) were comparable between ploidy and relative weight gain did not differ between ploidy, with the exception of diet L2. Recent studies have shown triploids to have greater growth potential than diploids in freshwater phases of development (Fjelldal & Hansen, 2010; Taylor et al., 2012; Fraser et al., 2013; Taylor et al., 2013; Fjelldal et al., 2016), so the apparent lack of better growth was unexpected. This may in part be due to higher water temperatures (15-16 °C) experienced for 7 weeks prior to, and the initial first two weeks of feeding at start of the trial, under which conditions triploids have been reported to show sub-optimal growth (Sambraus et al., 2017). However, specific dietary requirement trials in triploids are also limited to date, although it has been suggested that differences between ploidy might exist (Fjelldal & Hansen, 2010) particularly with regards to energy and nitrogen retention efficiencies (Burke et al., 2010), dietary phosphorous (Fjelldal et al., 2015; Smedley et al., 2018) and histidine requirements (Taylor et al., 2015; Sambraus et al., 2017). To date, no study has examined the interaction of ploidy and micronutrients when fed low marine ingredient diets. However, the results of the current study may indicate that specific dietary micronutrients could be different between diploid and triploid siblings when they are fed low marine feeds. More specifically, the present data may suggest that dietary micronutrient levels could be rate-limiting for triploid growth potential when fed low marine ingredient diets. However, the specific nutrients that may be rate-limiting could not be determined within the present study. As such, it was evident that diploids supplemented with double the nutrient package levels significantly outperformed their diploid siblings and all triploid groups when fed a low marine ingredient diet. They also had lower HSI and VSI than the diploids fed the L1 diet, which was consistent with results from Hemre et al., (2016). Given the approximate halving of the FM/FO content compared to a traditional marine ingredient based salmon diet, it appeared that a doubling of the specific nutrients is required to satisfy all dietary requirements for growth in diploid Atlantic salmon at least. However, care must be taken with respect to regulation for feed additive inclusion that they do not exceed current EU limits (**Supplementary File 4)**. Should recommendations for any nutrient exceed current limits, then successful implementation within industrial aquafeeds may require revision of current legislation. Of further interest was the apparent loss in growth performance of diploids fed diet L3 (400 % premix) after 14 weeks of feeding. Collectively, the results suggest that, for minerals at least, dietary levels provided by diet L1 were probably sufficient, as there was no significant effect on whole body mineral composition of diet or ploidy with the exception of copper. It is plausible that the addition of extra minerals and vitamins, especially with respect to diet L3 in the case of diploids, may require that the fish expend additional energy in detoxification and excretion, which may subsequently be the cause of reduced growth in these fish towards the latter part of the experiment. In fact, high levels of some minerals in fish diets has been previously associated with reduced growth and feed efficiency (Al-Ghanem, 2011; Berntssen et al., 2017), indicating that mineral levels in fish diets need to be optimised and that their inclusion in excess might be counterproductive.

 Regarding amino acid and N-metabolite concentrations, higher levels of free amino acids and N-metabolites including taurine, asparagine, hydroxyproline, glutamine, glutamate and β-alanine were observed in muscle of triploids. Methionine was not included in the nutrient package thus the higher taurine present in muscle in triploids might indicate that more methionine has been trans-sulfurated to taurine in triploids as compared to diploids (Espe et al 2008). Free amino acids are precursors for protein synthesis and so these data are consistent with other studies that have provided evidence of higher nitrogen retention and growth potential in triploid salmon as compared to diploids (Burke et al., 2010; Smedley et al., 2016). In particular, elevated levels of free hydroxyproline have been associated to high connective tissue degradation and protein turnover for remodelling of protein in white muscle during growth (Rungruangsak-Torrissen and Fosseidengen, 2007). In addition, glutamine has been shown to inhibit muscle proteolysis and correlates with muscle protein synthesis (Millward, 1989), whereas high levels of free alanine and taurine may be related to higher intracellular buffering capacity in white muscle (Rungruangsak Torrissen and Male, 2000).

560 Although some variation in plasma chloride and gill Na⁺,K⁺-ATPase activity was observed during the spring increase in daylength, diet or ploidy appeared to have little effect on achieving successful parr-smolt transformation and osmotic competence. However, in diploids, 563 it was apparent that the rate of increase in gill Na^+, K^+ -ATPase activity was slower in fish fed diet L1 than in fish fed diets L2 and L3. This may reflect a stimulatory effect on increased gill ion excretion following increased dietary mineral supplementation as in diets L2 and L3, which has been previously reported to stimulate osmoregulatory adaptation in salmonids (Zaugg, 1992). Conversely, it may also represent a deficiency in certain minerals such as magnesium, which have been reported to impair osmoregulation when in deficit (El-Mowafi et al., 1997). This effect was, however, not evident in triploids, but may reflect differential patterns of smoltification between ploidy (Taylor et al., 2012) or differences in gill architecture between ploidy (Leclercq et al., 2011) and cellular physiology and function (Maxime, 2008).

 Microarray analysis revealed that the hepatic transcriptome profile of diploid fish fed diet L2 was more similar to that observed in triploids fed diet L3 than to those fed L2, suggesting that micronutrient requirements of triploid salmon may differ from levels accepted in diploid salmon, as reported previously (Taylor et al., 2015; Fjelldall et al., 2016; Smedley et al., 2016). Different levels of micronutrient supplementation affected the expression of key genes involved in lipid metabolism. In particular sterol biosynthesis pathways (steroid and terpenoid backbone synthesis) were down-regulated in both L2-fed diploids and L3-fed triploids, when compared with diet L1-fed diploids and triploids, respectively. This effect on gene expression may be in response to the increased supplementation of cholesterol in the L2 and L3 diets, as part of the micronutrient premix, and therefore probably reflects increased requirement and synthesis of this lipid in fish fed diet L1. However, bile acid biosynthesis was up-regulated in these groups. These results are consistent with a previous study by Kortner et al. (2014) showing that supplementation of plant-based diets with cholesterol suppressed cholesterol synthesis and induced bile acid production in Atlantic salmon. In fact, the conversion of cholesterol into bile acids represents the main route for cholesterol elimination in fish and, consequently, the transcriptomic response observed in the present study would be a mechanism of cholesterol homeostasis in fish being fed diets containing higher levels of cholesterol.

 Gene sets analysis showed an up-regulation of genes involved in immune processes in triploid salmon fed diet L3. This fact might be related to higher levels of vitamin C in whole body and liver as well as higher vitamin E levels in whole body of fish from this experimental group, when compared to triploid salmon fed diet L1. In particular, there was an up-regulation of complement and coagulation cascades, which agreed with previous research showing an effect of vitamin C supplementation on complement activity in Atlantic salmon (Hardie et al., 1991). Vitamin E content in salmon diets has also been correlated to variations in the response of fish to infectious diseases and immune response (Hardie et al., 1990). Both vitamin C and E can improve the immune status of fish due to their antioxidant activity and previous studies have indicated interaction between these vitamins(Hamre et al., 1997, 2011). In diploid salmon, there was also a positive correlation between increasing levels of micronutrient supplementation and body content of vitamins C and E, however no sets of genes involved in immune functions were differentially expressed. This fact further supports the hypothesis that triploid salmon may have different micronutrient requirements and responses to feed supplementation with vitamins. The expression of cytochrome P450 enzymes was also up- regulated in response to higher levels of micronutrient supplementation in both ploidies. These enzymes are involved in the activation of vitamin D to its hormonal form, which then regulates the expression of a broad range of genes, including osteocalcin, osteopontin, calbindin and calcium channels that play key roles in the control of calcium homeostasis and skeletal integrity (Suzuki et al., 2008). In addition, different P450 enzymes control vitamin D metabolism and inactivation, which can also be induced by vitamin D itself via CYP24A1 activation (Schuster, 2011). In the present study, up-regulation of *cyp24a1* (*vitamin D3 24-hydroxylase*) was observed in diploid salmon fed diet L3. However, in triploid fish the expression of this gene was not affected by diet. In the present study, vitamin D was included in the micronutrient mix and therefore vitamin D concentration in diet L3 was four times higher than in diet L1, which might have induced the expression of its metabolising enzyme, suggesting that levels in diet L3 may be excessive for diploid Atlantic salmon. However, the microarray results also suggested that this may not be the case for triploids. In fact, triploid salmon have a higher predisposition to develop skeletal deformities, when compared to diploid fish, which seems to be reduced when feeds are supplemented with phosphorus (Fjelldal et al., 2016; Smedley et al., 2016, 2018). It is also known that vitamin D is an important regulator of phosphorus metabolism (DeLuca, 1980) and, consequently, results suggest that vitamin D requirements in triploid salmon may also be different, although further research is required to define its optimal concentration in feeds for triploids.

 Another biological category affected by diet in triploid salmon was genetic information processing. In fish fed diet L3, down-regulation of RNA degradation, proteasome, RNA polymerase, spliceosome and ribosome was observed, suggesting a decrease in protein turnover in this group, which may indicate a decrease in energy expenditure (Houlihan et al., 1995) that was consistent with down-regulation of oxidative phosphorylation in this group. However, this was in contrast to the growth and feed conversion rates observed in triploid fish, since no differences were found in these parameters between dietary treatments. In contrast, growth was affected by micronutrient supplementation in diploid salmon that showed better performance when fed diet L2. In addition, microarray data also revealed higher expression of *igf1* in this group. Regarding carbohydrate metabolism, there was up-regulation of key pathways in triploids fed diet L3, which could be related to higher availability of B-vitamins, when compared to L1-fed fish. Vitamins B1 (thiamine), B7 (biotine) and B12 (cobalamine) are involved in several reactions of carbohydrate metabolism, acting as coenzymes, and vitamin B12 deficiency has been linked to gluconeogenesis impairment in mammals (Mahmood, 2014). In diploids, microarray analysis also found a number of vitamin B-dependent genes that were up-regulated in the fish fed diet L2. In particular, these genes were involved in lipid and carbohydrate metabolism, in accordance with the functions previously reported for these vitamins (Waagbø, 2010).

 One-carbon metabolism comprises a number of biochemical reactions that provide methyl groups for biological methylation of proteins, phospholipids and nucleic acids (Friso et al., 2017). B-vitamins act as coenzymes and methyl acceptors and donors in one-carbon metabolism and, consequently, deficiency of some of these vitamins can have an impact on these biochemical processes. In the present study, one-carbon metabolism was affected by diet in diploid and triploid salmon. In diploids, homocysteine re-methylation to form methionine by *betaine-homocysteine S-methyltransferase* (*bhmt*) was up-regulated in fish fed L2 compared to L1. Previous studies have shown an inverse correlation between B-vitamins status and homocysteine concentrations (Wallace et al., 2008) and therefore higher dietary levels of these vitamins may increase methionine synthesis from homocysteine. In addition, homocysteine can also enter the transulfuration pathway and be degraded to cystathionine by *cysteine beta- synthase* (*cbs*) and then to cysteine, which can be metabolised ultimately into glutathione and taurine (Friso et al., 2017). In diploids fed diet L2, there was up-regulation of *cbs* and cysteine catabolism by *cysteine dioxygenase* that, in turn, could be related to up-regulation of glutathione metabolism in this group, since cysteine is one of the major determinants of glutathione synthesis (Stipanuk et al., 2006). Regarding triploid salmon, microarray data revealed up regulation of *glycine hydroxymethyltransferase*, a vitamin B6-containing enzyme that converts glycine to serine, and tetrahydrofolate (THF) to 5,10-methylenetetrahydrofolate (5,10-MTHF) in the folate cycle (Friso et al., 2017), suggesting than higher dietary levels of B-vitamins may have induced up-regulation of this key pathway within one-carbon metabolism. In addition, *glutamate formiminotrasferase* was also up-regulated in this group. This enzyme is involved in glutamate synthesis and depends on histidine and folate (Mahmood, 2014).

Conclusions

 As the industry moves towards achieving increased sustainability and greater utilisation of plant-based ingredients there is a clear need adjust micronutrient supplementation accordingly to ensure optimal growth and metabolic function. Results, certainly in the case of diploids, suggest that under low marine ingredient diets, while micromineral requirements appear to be met within the refined NP levels as suggested by the short-term studies of Hamre et al., (2016) and Hemre et al., (2016), that for other micronutrients (specific amino acids, water- and fat-soluble vitamins) it is recommended that levels be supplemented above current NRC (2011) recommendations for optimised growth and liver function of Atlantic salmon in long-term freshwater grow out. The differential effect between ploidy for certain micronutrients also supports the hypothesis that there are yet further differences in nutritional requirements beyond the previously established increased histidine and phosphorous requirements of triploid salmon.

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Figure Legends

 Figure 1. Scoring system for hepatocyte steatosis. Representative examples of the 958 histopathological scoring of steatosis in hepatic sections. Bars represent 100 µm.

 Figure 2. Weight gain profiles (mean ± SD) of diploid and triploid Atlantic salmon parr fed a low FM/FO formulation (15/8 %) supplemented with a micronutrient premix (modified NRC 2011 recommendation) at three inclusion levels: Diet L1 100 % premix, Diet L2 200 % premix, and Diet L3 400 % premix. Superscripts denote significant differences (Two-Way ANOVA, p < 0.05) between dietary treatments.

 Figure 3. Changes in survival, plasma chloride concentration of seawater (SWC) challenged 967 (24h, 35ppt at 10° C) and gill Na⁺,K⁺-ATPase of diploid and triploid Atlantic salmon parr fed a low FM/FO formulation (15/8 %) supplemented with a micronutrient premix (modified NRC 2011 recommendation) at three inclusion levels: Diet L1 100 % premix, Diet L2 200 % premix, and Diet L3 400 % premix. Superscripts denote significant differences (Two-Way ANOVA, p \leq 0.05) between diets. SWC or gill Na⁺,K⁺-ATPase were conducted were conducted on 28-Jan, 27-Feb, 21-Mar, and 21-Apr 2014 (equivalent to 122, 199, 324 and 430 ˚days post-winter solstice rise in daylength respectively).

 Figure 4. Heatmap of differentially expressed genes (p < 0.05, FC > 1.3) in both diploids (either diets L2 or L3 compared with diet L1) and triploids (either diets L2 or L3 compared with diet L1). Red denotes upregulation whereas green denotes downregulation. Expression data is log2 transformed. P-values were corrected for false discovery rate. The heatmap was generated using the package gplots (Warnes et al., 2013).

Supplementary File Captions

 Supplementary File 1. Fatty acid compositions (percentage of total fatty acids) of the experimental base feed.

 Supplementary File 2. Gene sets significantly affected by different micronutrient supplementation in diploid and triploid salmon. Red denotes upregulation and green downregulation.

 Supplementary File 3. - List of genes differentially expressed and affected by different micronutrient levels in diploid and triploid salmon. Red denotes upregulation and green downregulation.

Supplementary File 4. Current EU limits for additive inclusion within fish feeds

993 diets

		Diet			
Ingredients	L1	L2	L ₃		
Fish Meal ¹	13.00	13.00	13.00		
Krill Meal ²	2.00	2.00	2.00		
Soy Protein Concentrate ³	17.94	18.00	17.65		
Corn Gluten ⁴	4.49	3.00	3.00		
Pea Protein Concentrate ⁵	17.94	18.49	18.15		
Wheat Gluten ⁴	14.36	14.79	14.52		
Wheat ⁶	8.63	8.26	7.46		
Fish Oil ⁷	8.00	8.00	8.00		
Rapeseed oil ⁴	5.25	5.32	5.47		
Linseed oil	1.27	1.28	1.32		
Palm kernel oil	3.17	3.21	3.30		
ARRAINA Nutrient Package ⁸ †‡	0.75	1.50	3.00		
Monosodium phosphate	2.52	2.53	2.54		
Amino acid Premix ^{9,*}	0.68	0.62	0.59		
Proximate Composition (Analysed)					
Moisture $(\%)$	6.3	6.8	6.1		
Crude lipid (%)	20.8	21.1	22.7		
Crude protein $(\%)$	48.9	47.0	48.1		
Ash $(\%)$	6.5	6.8	7.4		
Energy (MJ / kg)	23.4	23.4	23.4		

⁹⁹⁴

995 ¹Feed Services, Bremen, Germany; ²Aker Biomarine, Norway; ³Caramuru, Brazil; ⁴Cargill, Germany; 996 ⁵Agrident, Germany; ⁶WN Lindsey, UK; ⁷ED & F Man, Germany; ⁸DSM, Netherlands; ⁹Evonik,

997 Germany; †Added as components of the nutrient package (NP), and times requirement based on NRC

998 (2011) minimum requirement for Atlantic salmon and modified according to Hamre et al., (2016), diet

999 L1 achieving assumed 100 % minimum requirement; *Balanced for lysine, methionine, threonine and

1000 valine. Contains antioxidant.

1002 Table 2. Added micronutrient concentrations (mg.kg⁻¹) within the nutrient package (NP): 1003 selected amino acids (histidine and taurine), minerals, vitamins and cholesterol.

1005 **Table 3.** Analysed concentrations of selected amino acids (taurine, histidine and methionine 1006 g.kg⁻¹) macro-minerals (calcium, magnesium and phosphorous, g.kg⁻¹) micro-minerals and 1007 vitamins $(mg.kg^{-1})$ of the experimental diets for the 2 mm and 3 mm pellets. Nutrients added at 1008 graded levels to the feeds are shown with an asterisk. "-" denotes not analysed.

Pellet Size		2mm			3mm		
	L1	L2	L3	L1	L2	L3	NRC 2011 #
Vitamin A*	5.2	7.2	14.2	6.2	5.1	7.2	$0.75^{\rm a}$
Vitamin D3*	0.17	0.19	0.29	0.17	0.18	0.26	$0.04^{\rm a}$
Vitamin E*	85	146	203	75	151	273	60 ^b
Vitamin K3*	0.43	0.78	1.60	0.70	1.12	1.12	< 10 ^b
Thiamin*	3.3	5.8	9.3	3.7	20.2	29.9	1^a ,
Riboflavin*	12.1	20.6	35.8	11.7	34.4	57.6	4^a ,
Vitamin B6*	11.5	14.3	22.2	11.0	18.1	30.5	$5^{\rm b}$
Vitamin B12*	0.17	0.30	0.49	0.14	0.34	0.66	NT
Niacin*	75	107	163	80	221	434	10^a ,
Pantothenic acid*	18.6	33.2	50.2	20.2	74.3	66.0	20^{a}
Folic acid*	2.82		7.53	2.82	19.95	12.54	1 ^a
Biotin*	0.44	0.71	1.03	0.47	1.10	1.91	0.15^{a}
Vitamin C*	83	180	312	77	238	244	20 ^b
Cobalt*	1.0	1.6	3.5	0.95	2.3	3.4	NT
Iodine*	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	1.1	3.4	6.1	1.1 ^a
Selenium*	1.2	1.5	2.2	1.3	1.6	2.5	$0.15^{\rm a}$
Iron*	300	330	510	330	310	410	$30 - 60^b$
Manganese*	43	57	110	47	49	75	10 ^b
Copper*	10	12	19	10	13	19	5 ^b
Zinc*	160	190	300	100	200	350	37 ^b
Taurine*	2.8	4.6	8.1	2.7	5.0	9.5	NR^b
Methionine	8.7	8.8	8.6	9.0	8.8	9.1	7.0 ^b
Histidine*	11.6	11.7	14.0	11.9	13.1	14.5	8.0 ^b
Calcium*	6.6	6.9	8.6	6.3	6.7	7.5	NR^{b*}
Magnesium	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.3	0.4 ^b
Phosphorus	12.0	12.0	12.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	8.0 ^b
Cholesterol*	n.a.	n.a.	n.a	n.a	n.a.	n.a.	NR

 $\frac{1}{2}$ Current NRC, 2011 minimum requirement recommendations determined in ^a rainbow trout, ^b

1010 Atlantic salmon are shown for comparison. n.a. not analysed; NR* no requirement freshwater;

1011 NT, not tested.

1012 **Table 4.** Mortality, initial and final weight and somatic indices recorded at the end (week 31) of freshwater rearing of juvenile diploid and triploid

1013 Atlantic salmon fed low marine diets (FM 15 % / FO 8 %) diets with differing micronutrient supplementation level (diets L1, L2 and L3).

1015 Data are presented as means ± SD. † Mortality data analysed by Contingency Chi-square tests

1016 FCR, feed conversion ratio; HSI, hepatosomatic index; RWG, relative weight gain (%); SGRwt, specific growth rate weight (% day⁻¹); VSI, viscerosomatic index

1018 **Table 5.** Whole fish proximate composition (%) and fatty acid compositions (% of total fatty acids) of liver of diploid and triploid salmon fed 1019 low marine diets with differing micronutrient supplementation level. Significant effect is highlighted in bold and superscripts denote significant 1020 differences between diets and ploidy (two-way ANOVA).

Ploidy (P)		Diploid			Triploid			<i>p</i> values	
$\textbf{Diet}(\mathbf{D})$	L1	L2	L3	L1	L2	L3	${\bf P}$	D	$P * D$
Moisture $(\%)$	68.9 ± 0.1	68.2 ± 0.1	69.0 ± 0.2	69.7 \pm 0.3	69.2 ± 0.1	69.2 ± 0.7	0.011	0.087	0.316
$Oil\left(\frac{9}{6}\right)$	10.4 ± 1.0	10.5 ± 0.4	10.4 ± 0.1	9.9 ± 0.0	10.6 ± 0.0	10.5 ± 0.3	0.719	0.429	0.493
Protein $(\%)$	17.5 ± 0.6	18.1 ± 0.6	17.7 ± 0.6	17.2 ± 0.4	16.8 ± 0.1	16.9 ± 0.6	0.035	0.885	0.443
Ash $(\%)$	2.3 ± 0.1	2.3 ± 0.1	2.2 ± 0.1	2.3 ± 0.0	2.3 ± 0.0	2.3 ± 0.0	0.191	0.546	0.955
14:0	2.3 ± 0.3^{ab}	$2.3 \pm 0.3^{\rm a}$	1.9 ± 0.1^{ab}	$1.7 \pm 0.1^{\rm b}$	$1.7 \pm 0.3^{\rm b}$	2.1 ± 0.3^{ab}	0.006	0.888	0.015
16:0	16.1 ± 0.6^b	17.5 ± 0.5^{ab}	$18.7 \pm 0.8^{\text{a}}$	18.4 ± 1.8^a	$18.8 \pm 0.5^{\text{a}}$	16.9 ± 0.9^b	0.250	0.354	0.015
18:0	$4.7 \pm 0.2^{\rm a}$	4.3 ± 0.5^{ab}	4.2 ± 0.4^{ab}	$4.6 \pm 0.3^{\rm a}$	4.2 ± 0.5^{ab}	3.6 ± 0.2^b	0.126	0.009	0.508
Total Saturated ¹	$23.4 \pm 0.3^{\rm b}$	24.4 ± 0.5^{ab}	$25.1 \pm 0.5^{\rm a}$	$25.0 \pm 1.7^{\rm a}$	$25.0 \pm 0.7^{\rm a}$	$22.9 \pm 0.9^{\rm b}$	0.968	0.457	0.017
$16:1n-7$	$2.4 \pm 0.3^{\rm a}$	2.2 ± 0.3^{ab}	1.9 ± 0.1^{ab}	$1.8 \pm 0.0^{\rm b}$	$1.8 \pm 0.1^{\rm b}$	2.1 ± 0.2^{ab}	0.009	0.777	0.009
$18:1n-9$	$21.6 \pm 2.9^{\rm a}$	17.3 ± 1.9^{ab}	$16.5 \pm 0.8^{\rm b}$	15.3 ± 1.6^b	$14.7 \pm 1.1^{\rm b}$	18.0 ± 2.5^{ab}	0.019	0.130	0.015
$18:1n-7$	$2.8 \pm 0.3^{\rm a}$	2.4 ± 0.2^{ab}	2.3 ± 0.1^{ab}	2.2 ± 0.2^b	2.0 ± 0.0^b	$2.1 \pm 0.$ ^b	0.001	0.056	0.177
$20:1n-9$	$2.5 \pm 0.4^{\rm a}$	2.4 ± 0.2^{ab}	$1.8 \pm 0.0^{\rm b}$	1.7 ± 0.3^b	$1.7 \pm 0.6^{\rm b}$	$2.6 \pm 0.4^{\text{a}}$	0.213	0.756	0.002
$22:1n-11$	0.6 ± 0.1	0.6 ± 0.1	0.4 ± 0.1	0.5 ± 0.1	0.5 ± 0.2	0.7 ± 0.1	0.307	0.865	0.150
Total Monoenes²	$31.3 \pm 3.7^{\rm a}$	26.3 ± 2.6^{ab}	$24.2 \pm 0.7^{\rm b}$	$23.3 \pm 1.6^{\mathrm{b}}$	$22.4 \pm 2.2^{\rm b}$	27.4 ± 3.2^{ab}	0.031	0.168	0.007
$18:2n-6$	6.8 ± 0.7 ^{ab}	6.6 ± 0.2 ^{ab}	5.9 ± 0.1 ^{ab}	$5.5 \pm 0.7^{\rm b}$	6.1 ± 1.1^{ab}	$7.4 \pm 0.1^{\text{a}}$	0.710	0.412	0.004
$20:4n-6$	$2.3 \pm 0.1^{\text{a}}$	$1.6 \pm 0.1^{\rm bc}$	2.1 ± 0.3^{ab}	1.9 ± 0.2 abc	1.8 ± 0.3 abc	$1.4 \pm 0.2^{\circ}$	0.017	0.008	0.10
Total n-6 PUFA ³	12.0 ± 0.6	10.8 ± 0.3	10.5 ± 1.0	9.7 ± 1.3	9.9 ± 1.0	11.6 ± 0.6	0.103	0.447	0.022
$18:3n-3$	1.7 ± 0.3	1.9 ± 0.1	1.6 ± 0.1	1.5 ± 0.1	1.8 ± 0.3	2.0 ± 0.3	0.460	0.226	0.066
18:4n-3	0.4 ± 0.2	0.3 ± 0.0	0.3 ± 0.0	0.3 ± 0.0	0.3 ± 0.1	0.4 ± 0.0	0.824	0.329	0.156
$20:4n-3$	$0.7 \pm 0.2^{\mathrm{b}}$	0.9 ± 0.1 ^{ab}	$0.7 \pm 0.1^{\mathrm{b}}$	0.8 ± 0.1 ^{ab}	0.9 ± 0.2 ab	1.1 ± 0.1^a	0.023	0.80	0.058
$20:5n-3$	4.4 ± 0.5	5.0 ± 0.3	5.3 ± 0.4	4.7 ± 0.3	4.9 ± 0.2	5.2 ± 0.2	0.744	0.017	0.600
$22:5n-3$	0.9 ± 0.2	1.1 ± 0.1	1.2 ± 0.2	1.1 ± 0.0	1.1 ± 0.1	1.2 ± 0.1	0.288	0.049	0.833
$22:6n-3$	$25.0 \pm 3.5^{\mathrm{b}}$	29.0 ± 2.5 ^{ab}	30.9 ± 1.5 ^{ab}	$33.3 \pm 0.7^{\circ}$	33.3 ± 3.4 ^a	27.8 ± 2.9 ^{ab}	0.020	0.337	0.006
Total n-3 PUFA ⁴	$33.2 \pm 4.1^{\mathrm{b}}$	38.3 ± 2.7 ab	$40.1 \pm 1.0^{\text{ ab}}$	$41.9 \pm 0.6^{\text{a}}$	$42.6 \pm 2.5^{\text{a}}$	38.0 ± 3.0 ab	0.011	0.186	0.010
Total PUFA⁵	$45.3 \pm 3.5^{\mathrm{b}}$	49.2 \pm 3.0 ab	50.7 ± 0.3 ^{ab}	$51.6 \pm 1.2^{\text{a}}$	$52.6 \pm 1.5^{\rm a}$	49.6 ± 2.6 ab	0.019	0.201	0.45

Data are mean \pm SD (n = 2). ¹Totals include 15:0, 20:0, 22:0 and 24:0 at up to 0.3%; ²Totals include 16:1n-9, 20:1n-11, 20:1n-7, 22:1n-9 and 24:1n-9 at up to 1.9%; ³Totals include 10:1n-9, 20:1n-11, 20:1n-7, 22:1 include 18:3n-6, 20:2n-6, 20:3n-6 and 22:5n-6 at up to 2.9%; ⁴Totals include20:3n-3 at up to 0.2%; ⁵Includes C16 PUFA at up to 0.1%

1023 **Table 6.** Whole fish total amino acids $(g.kg wet wt⁻¹)$ in diploid and triploid salmon fed low

1024 marine diets with differing micronutrient supplementation level. The supplemented amino

1025 acids (histidine, taurine and methionine) are marked with an asterisk (*). Superscripts denote

1026 significant differences between diets within ploidy (two-way ANOVA).

1027 Data are presented as mean \pm SD (n=2).

 Table 7. Free amino acids and N-metabolites within white muscle tissues (µmol / 100g wet wt) of diploid and triploid salmon fed low marine diets with differing micronutrient supplementation level. Only the N-metabolites being significantly affected are shown (two-way 1032 ANOVA, Tukey $p < 0.05$, Kruskall Wallis when not fulfilling ANOVA assumptions). Histidine and taurine were supplemented in graded levels. Significant effect is highlighted in bold and superscripts denote significant differences between diets within ploidy (two-way ANOVA).

1035

1036 Data are presented as mean \pm SD (n=2). Muscle N-metabolites (μ mol/100g wet wt, n=2), Cystath, cystathionine.

1043 Data are presented as mean \pm SD (n=2). ¹Menadione sodium bisulfate (vitamin K₃) was added.

1044

1046 Table 9. Concentrations of minerals (mg kg⁻¹ wet wt) in whole body of diploid and triploid 1047 salmon fed low marine diets with differing micronutrient supplementation level. The 1048 supplemented elements are marked with an asterisk. Significant effect is highlighted in bold 1049 (two-way ANOVA)

Ploidy (P)		Dip			Trip			<i>p</i> -values		
$\textbf{Diet}(\mathbf{D})$	L1	L2	L3	L1	L2	L3	Ploidy	Diet	$P * D$	
Ca^*	$3782 + 1018$	4788±1182	$4634 + 565$	4094 ± 684	3536 ± 378	3850±981	0.28	0.87	0.45	
$Cu*$	$0.98 + 0$	$0.96 + 0$	1 ± 0	$0.9 + 0$	$0.9 + 0$	0.85 ± 0	0.01	0.96	0.36	
$Fe*$	9.03 ± 0.7	$8.8 + 0$	10 ± 1	10 ± 0.8	10 ± 0.7	10 ± 0.3	0.24	0.27	0.7	
I^*	$0.08 + 0$	n.d.	0.12 ± 0	0.30 ± 0.3	0.14 ± 0	0.25 ± 0.1	0.11	0.66	0.61	
K	3528 ± 40	3663 ± 18	3469 ± 118	3523 ± 2	$3570+56$	3609 ± 262	0.84	0.54	0.43	
$Mn*$	$1.6 + 0.4$	1.8 ± 0.2	2 ± 0	1.7 ± 0.2	1.3 ± 0	1 ± 0.3	0.19	0.83	0.43	
Mg	274 ± 3	$292 + 7$	283 ± 16	291 ± 6	$277 + 7$	$287 + 33$	0.85	0.96	0.39	
Na	551 ± 24	605 ± 88	$588+9$	$669{\pm}56$	$600+5$	589 ± 63	0.24	0.83	0.23	
\mathbf{P}	3925 ± 369	$4616 + 748$	$4423 + 352$	4135 ± 324	$3918 + 220$	4064 ± 560	0.33	0.73	0.42	
Se^*	0.22 ± 0	0.25 ± 0	0.26 ± 0	0.25 ± 0	0.2 ± 0	0.3 ± 0	0.46	0.09	0.60	
Zn^*	32 ± 1.8	42 ± 11	34 ± 6	39 ± 6	28 ± 0.8	$32+1$	0.19	0.83	0.43	

1050 Data are presented as mean \pm SD (n=2).

Figure 1.

1055 **Figure 2.**

1063 **Supplementary File 1.**

- 1064 Values are the averaged data for the L1, L2, and L3 in both 2 and 3 mm feeds $(\pm SD)$ provided
- 1065 to illustrate variance between feeds).
- 1066 PUFA, polyunsaturated fatty acids.
- 1 1067 Totals include 14:0, 15:0, 20:0 and 22:0;
- 1068 ²Totals include 16:1n-9, 20:1n-11, 20:1n-722:1n-9 and 24:1n-9;
- 3 1069 Totals include 18:3n-6, 20:2n-6, and 22:5n-6;
- 1070 ⁴Totals include 20:3n-3; ⁵Totals include C16 PUFA.

1071

1073 **Supplementary File 2.**

1075 **Supplementary File 3.**

1076 **Diploid L2 vs L1**

1080

1082 **Diploid L3 vs L1**

1086 **Triploids L2 vs L1**

1090 **Triploids L3 vs L1**

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