



AQUAculture infrastructures for EXCELlence
in European fish research towards 2020 —
AQUAEXCEL2020

D6.2. – Effect of early life oxygen concentration in sea bream



Executive Summary

Objectives

Identification of potential long-lasting effects on fish performance by exposure of sea bream early rearing stages to a moderate hypoxia challenge.

Rationale:

Environmental conditions encountered by living fish outside their optimum tolerance range, in particular during critical windows of their early life history, can modify their development. Most of these challenges have detrimental effects, but in some cases physiological plasticity allow adaptive responses that become interesting traits for aquaculture production. Thus, trials conducted by AQUAEXCEL²⁰²⁰ were aimed to identify beneficial adaptive and long-lasting effects of sea bream hypoxia exposure. To achieve this goal, a first experiment was conducted in sea bream juveniles to define the best blood biomarkers for functional phenotyping of severe hypoxia. A biomarker approach was also conducted in a short 3 weeks feeding trial to assess the tissue-specific responsiveness of blood, liver, heart and skeletal muscle during crowding stress and chronic moderate hypoxia (above the limiting oxygen saturation, LOS). Such approach together with data on feed intake and growth performance, confirms the high plasticity and stress resilience of farmed sea bream. Once the main responses to severe and moderate hypoxia exposure were defined on the basis of biometrical, haematological, biochemical and molecular parameters, a second set of experiments took place to assess the potential benefits of hypoxia pre-conditioning during juvenile and larval stages. The challenging protocol included swimming performance tests in metabolic chambers, as a low invasive and informative procedure to assess the metabolic performance of endurance training throughout development. The results opened new perspectives in several productive traits other than growth and welfare (e.g. fillet quality).

Main Results:

Severe hypoxia promotes a shift from aerobic to anaerobic metabolism, reduces basal metabolism and triggers more efficient mitochondrial respiration to increase aerobic energy production.

Moderate hypoxia (above LOS levels) during the juvenile stage reduces feed intake and growth. This effect is potentiated by crowding stress, although feed efficiency is not compromised and to some extent is improved, which reflects the high metabolic and growth plasticity of farmed sea bream.

At the molecular level, different adaptive mechanisms in juvenile fish were outlined, highlighting different tissue responsiveness according to the different tissue capabilities and the nature and severity of the hypoxia stimuli.

Hypoxic pre-conditioning (above LOS levels) during early life does not compromise final juvenile weight and triggers persistent metabolic effects that improve the aerobic scope and swimming performance later in life. This very promising result is one of the first evidence in typically marine fish of early environmental imprinting that might involve different epigenetic mechanisms.

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1. Metabolic adaptation to low oxygen concentrations:

Previous AQUAEXCEL project background

The work described in the present Deliverable is a follow up from experiments and results conducted in the AQUAEXCEL project, which focused on the development and application of methodologies for the phenotyping of fish health and welfare status. The key role of mitochondria to cope with adaptive cellular stress in fish and sea bream in particular was evidenced by means of a meta-analysis conducted with the bioinformatics tool “Fish and chips” (online at fishandchips.toulouse.inra.fr). “Fish and chips” aggregates fish transcriptome data from more than 350 microarrays available the public domain and a vast array of experimental challenges (Calduch-Giner *et al.*, 2014). This finding led to the development of specific mitochondrial PCR-arrays for gene sequences extracted from the IATS-CSIC transcriptomic and genomic database (www.nutrigroup-iats.org/seabreamdb, Calduch-Giner *et al.*, 2013). With this approach it was established that most aquaculture stressors, including nutrient availability and daily routine activities, which involve movements and changes in noise and/or light levels, initiate retrograde signals that affect, among other processes, the transcriptional regulation of cell tissue repair and ATP energy production (Bermejo-Nogales *et al.*, 2014a, 2015). Moreover, the gene expression profile of different enzyme subunits of the mitochondrial respiratory chain is highly regulated in a tissue-specific manner by the type and intensity of environmental stressor. Changes in water temperature also lead to variations in the threshold level for acceptable O₂ concentrations (limiting oxygen saturation, LOS; Remen *et al.*, 2015), and the regulated expression of mitochondrial antioxidant enzymes and molecular chaperones has been found to be essential for the improved tolerance of fish fed with seaweeds to acute hypoxia (Magnoni *et al.*, 2017).

To further understand the adaptive and long-lasting effects of hypoxia exposure in sea bream, a set of different hypoxia challenge tests were conducted in AQUAEXCEL²⁰²⁰ to properly define adaptive responses or potential long-term benefits of hypoxia pre-conditioning. As a first step, hematological, biochemical and molecular blood biomarkers were monitored to assess the adaptive responses in fish facing severe hypoxia (20% O₂ saturation). This biomarker approach was extended to other metabolically-relevant tissues (liver, skeletal muscle, heart) for the functional phenotyping of chronic exposure to moderate hypoxia (40% O₂ saturation) in a 3-weeks feeding trial at two different rearing densities. Once the different tissue-contribution to the hypoxia-allostatic load was defined, a third set of experiments of hypoxia pre-conditioning was conducted to assess later fish performance using haematological and hormonal markers, together with a swimming test challenge in metabolic chambers. The final stage of this experimental research included hypoxic training at early life stages, combining two windows of hypoxia exposure, to assess the potential beneficial effects of metabolic priming six month later. The trials conducted in this Deliverable are summarized in **Table 1**.

Table 1. Time schedule of hypoxia tests.

Year/Fish	Challenge test	Targets
2016- Juveniles (230-260 g)	Hypoxia: 1.3 ppm, 8h; 3 ppm, 24h	Blood
2016- Juveniles (40 g)	Hypoxia: 3 ppm at two culture densities (15-30 kg/m ³) for 3 weeks	Blood, liver, heart, skeletal muscle
2017- Juveniles (25 g)	Hypoxia pre-conditioning: 3-4 ppm (6 weeks)	Blood, skeletal muscle, whole animal (swimming tests)
2018- Larva/ juveniles	Hypoxia pre-conditioning: 3-4 ppm larvae/juveniles(2-3 weeks)	Blood, whole animal (swimming tests)

2. Gene expression profiling of whole blood cells during acute hypoxia

Work contained in this section has been published in *Frontiers in Zoology* 14:34 (2017). The publication is provided as Annex 2.

Among the abiotic factors, dissolved O₂ is particularly important as the major limiting factor of fish aerobic metabolism. Thus, when regulatory mechanisms are no longer sufficient to maintain the O₂ consumption rate (MO₂), further reductions in MO₂ occur until the termed limiting O₂ saturation (LOS). This threshold is able to maintain a routine metabolic rate in fed fish, and according to the oxystatic theory of feed intake, fish adjust their feed intake to meet dietary O₂ demands (Saravanan *et al.*, 2012). Therefore, fluctuations in tissue O₂ availability is a major factor to guaranty the welfare of farmed fish fed high or low O₂-demanding diets (Remen *et al.* 2015, 2016). This regulation is mediated through O₂ sensors that trigger anaerobic metabolic rates to compensate for the decreasing aerobic ATP production (Luschak and Bagnyukova, 2006; Bermejo-Nogales *et al.*, 2014a). As a result of this, eukaryotic cells switch from mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) to the less efficient anaerobic glycolytic pathway, which induces stress and lactic acidosis (Khacho *et al.*, 2014). Hence, as reported in humans, the hallmarks of muscle adaptation to hypoxia are a decrease in muscle oxidative capacity concomitant with a decrease in aerobic work capacity (Hoppeler & Vogt, 2001; Murray, 2009). This metabolic depression prevents the accumulation of toxic by-products from anaerobic metabolism (Donohoe *et al.*, 1998) and, thereby, hypo-metabolic states should be considered as part of the adaptive response to hypoxia instead of a negative result in hypoxia-tolerant individuals (Gamboa & Andrade, 2012).

Certainly, metabolic suppression is a key adaptive strategy in the hypoxic *Gillichthys mirabilis* to drive the energy resources from growth towards essential metabolic processes for survival (Gracey *et al.*, 2001). However, in *Fundulus grandis*, this contrast with the observation that both cardiac and hepatic tissues display increases in the gene expression of different enzyme subunits of the OXPHOS pathway in response to short-term hypoxia exposure (Everett *et al.*, 2012). Similarly, confounding results have been reported in European sea bass, as early life exposure to moderate hypoxia has long-lasting detrimental effects on growth performance with no improvement of hypoxia tolerance despite of the enhanced expression of glycolytic enzymes (Vanderplancke *et al.*, 2015). Thus, it appears likely that most hypoxia-mediated effects are tissue- or fish species-specific. In this regard, it must be noted that the red blood cells (RBC) of fish and almost all amphibians, reptiles and birds retain a nucleus and functional mitochondria (Stier *et al.*, 2013). These RBCs opens new research opportunities and previous studies have demonstrated that the expression of mitochondrial uncoupling proteins is highly regulated by hypoxia stimuli in sea bream blood

cells (Bermejo-Nogales *et al.*, 2014b). Thus, to go further in the regulation and adaptive responses of hypoxic metabolism in fish, we combined poorly invasive blood transcriptomics based on mitochondrial markers with conventional measures of blood haematology and biochemistry.

2.1 Experimental setup- acute hypoxia

Sea bream juveniles of Atlantic origin (Ferme Marine du Douhet, Bordeaux, France) were reared from early life stages at the indoor experimental facilities of the Institute of Aquaculture Torre de la Sal (IATS-CSIC, Castellón, Spain) under natural photoperiod and temperature conditions at its latitude (40°5'N; 0°10'E). Fish (230-260 g body weight) were distributed in 500-L tanks (16 fish per tank) allocated in a re-circulatory system equipped with physical and biological filters and programmable temperature. The water temperature was maintained at 20-21 °C. Fish were fed daily to visual satiety using a commercial diet (INICIO Forte 824/EFICO Forte 824; BioMar), and all fish were fasted during the hypoxia challenges. The water conditions for the control fish (normoxic fish) remained unchanged, whereas hypoxic fish experienced a gradual decrease in the water O₂ concentration until reaching i) 3.0 ppm (41-42% O₂ saturation; moderate hypoxia, H1) for 24 h or ii) 1.3 ppm (18-19% O₂ saturation; severe hypoxia, H2) for up to 4 h in two different hypoxic tests (Figure 1). The two tested water O₂ levels were obtained by the cessation of normal aeration in the tank, achieving an accurate balance between the consumption rates of the animals and the supply of clean and oxygenated water by means of an electrovalve within the established O₂ steady-state condition.

In each test, normoxic or hypoxia-challenged fish were sampled at three different sampling points after decreasing the water O₂ concentration (8 fish per time and condition): i) H1: T0, T1 (24 h), T2 (48 h), and ii) H2: T0, T1 (7 h), T2 (11 h). One blood aliquot (150 µL) was directly collected into a microtube containing 500 µL of stabilising lysis solution (REAL Total RNA Spin Blood Kit, Duviz) and stored at -80 °C until total RNA extraction. Other aliquots were processed for haematocrit (Hc) and haemoglobin (Hb) determinations. The remaining blood was centrifuged at 3,000 x g for 20 min at 4 °C, and the plasma samples were frozen and stored at -20 °C until biochemical and hormonal analyses were performed.

Hc was measured using heparinised capillary tubes centrifuged at 1,500 x g for 30 min in a Sigma 1-14 centrifuge. The Hb concentration was assessed using a Hemocue Hb 201+. Plasma glucose was analysed using the glucose oxidase method. Blood lactate was measured in deproteinised samples (perchloric acid 8%) using an enzymatic method based on the use of lactate dehydrogenase. Total antioxidant capacity in plasma samples was measured using a commercial kit (Cayman Chemical) adapted to 96-well microplates. This assay relies on the ability of the antioxidants in the samples to inhibit the oxidation of ABTS (2,2'-azino-di-[3-ethylbenzothiazoline sulphonate]) to the ABTS radical cation by metamyoglobin, a derivatised form of myoglobin. The capacity of the sample to prevent ABTS oxidation was compared with that of Trolox (water-soluble tocopherol analogue) and quantified as mM Trolox equivalents. Plasma cortisol levels were analysed using an EIA kit (RE52061 m IBL, International GmbH). The limit of detection of the assay was 2.46 ng/mL with intra- and inter-assay coefficients of variation lower than 3% and 5%, respectively. Plasma insulin-like growth factors (Igf) were extracted using acid-ethanol cryoprecipitation (Shimizu *et al.*, 2000), and the concentration was measured using a generic fish Igf-I RIA validated for Mediterranean perciform fish (Vega-Rubín de Celis *et al.*, 2004). The sensitivity and midrange of the assay were 0.05 and 0.7-0.8 ng/mL, respectively.

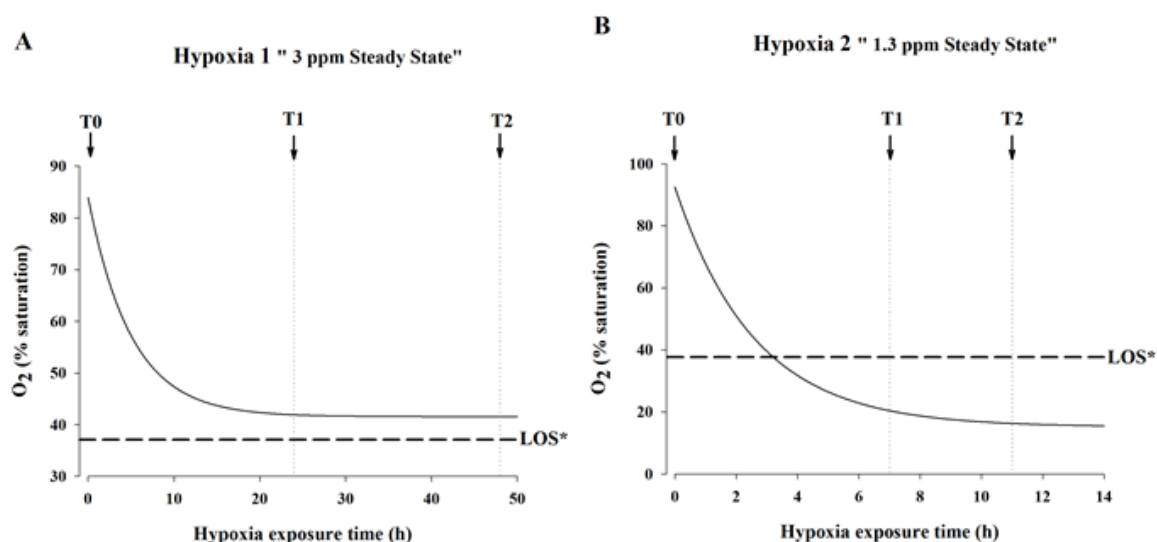


Figure 1. Water O₂ kinetics in fish exposed to hypoxic conditions. The steady state was set at (A) 41-42 % O₂ saturation (3.0 ppm, H1) or (B) 18-19 % O₂ saturation (1.3 ppm, H2). Sampling points (T₀, T₁ and T₂) are indicated by arrow heads. LOS is calculated according to Remen *et al.* (2015).

Total RNA from total blood cells was extracted using the REAL Total RNA Spin Blood Kit including a DNase step. The RNA yield was >2.5 µg, with absorbance measures (A_{260/280}) of 1.9-2.1. The cDNA was synthesised using the High-Capacity cDNA Archive Kit (Applied Biosystems) with random decamers and 500 ng of total RNA in a final volume of 100 µL. Reverse transcription (RT) reactions were incubated for 10 min at 25 °C and 2 h at 37 °C. Samples were then used for qPCR assays by means of the IATS-Nutrigroup analytical platform. Diluted RT reactions in 25 µL volume were combined with a SYBR Green Master Mix (Bio-Rad) and specific primers at a final concentration of 0.9 µM. The 96-well PCR-array layout was designed for the simultaneous profiling of a panel of 85 mitochondrial genes under uniform cycling conditions and associated with different biological processes, such as molecular chaperones (7), antioxidant defence (8), transcription factors (5), outer and inner membrane translocation (8), mitochondrial dynamics and apoptosis (10), fatty acid oxidation and the tricarboxylic acid cycle (5), OXPHOS (41) and respiration uncoupling (1). PCR condition of IATS-Nutrigroup analytical platform and primer nucleotide sequences are available in Methods and Supplementary material sections of Annex 2.

2.2 Effects of acute hypoxia in blood haematology and biochemistry

Over the course of the first hypoxia test (H1, 41-42% O₂ saturation), measurements of haematological parameters and plasma glucose and lactate levels remained unaltered in both normoxic (>85% O₂ saturation) and hypoxia-challenged fish (**Figures 2A, 2C, 2E, 2G**, respectively). In contrast, these parameters significantly increased in fish exposed to severe hypoxia (H2, 18-19% O₂ saturation) (**Figures 2B, 2D, 2F, 2H**). The same trend was observed for total plasma antioxidant activity and plasma cortisol levels (**Figures 3A, 3B**), though the cortisol increase was more pronounced at the last sampling point. The opposite regulation was observed for circulating Igf-I, although a statistically significant effect was observed at the last sampling point (**Figure 3C**). No variations in all the parameters studied were observed in fish maintained under normoxic conditions in the H2 test.

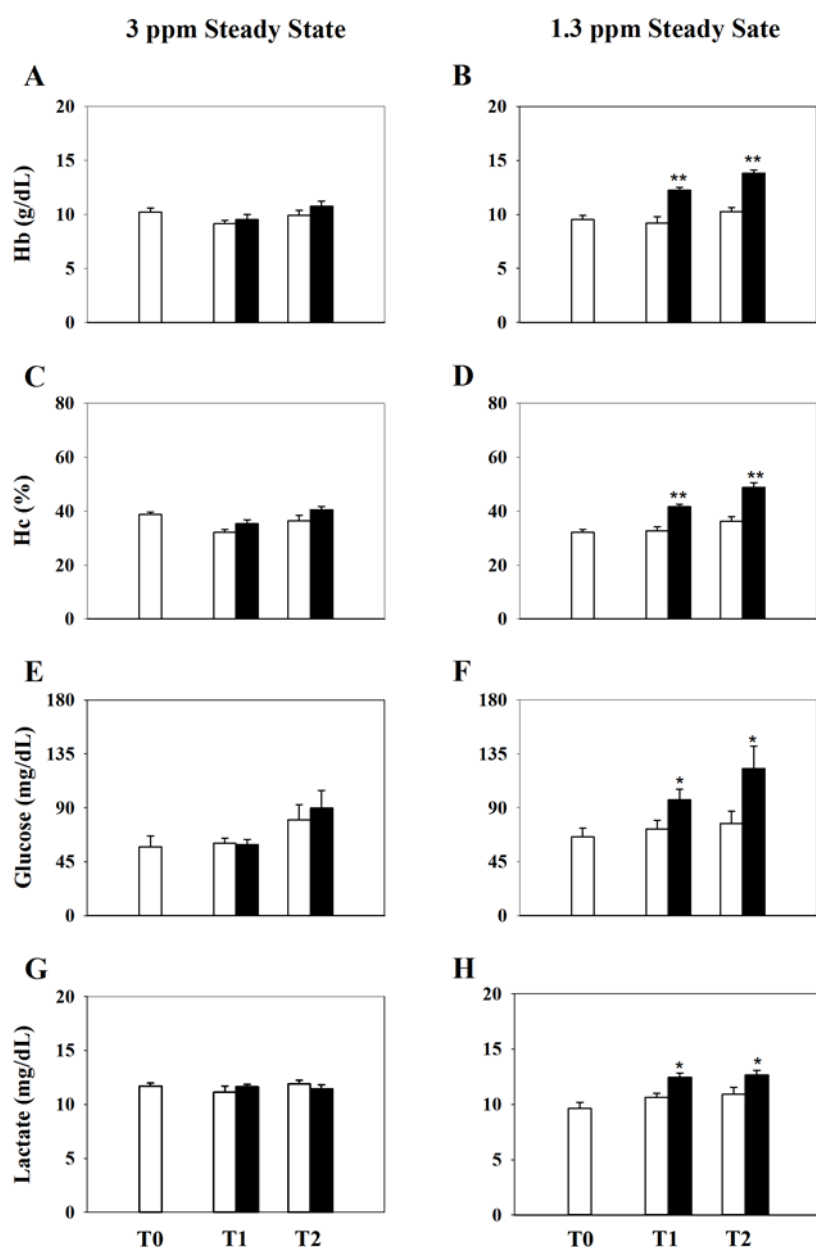


Figure 2. Effects of normoxia (white bars) and hypoxia (black bars) on blood haematology and biochemistry. Hypoxia levels were set above (A, C, E, G; H1) or below the LOS (B, D, F, H; H2). Data are the mean \pm SEM ($n = 7-8$). Statistically significant differences between normoxic and hypoxic fish are indicated (* $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$; two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by the Holm-Sidak test).

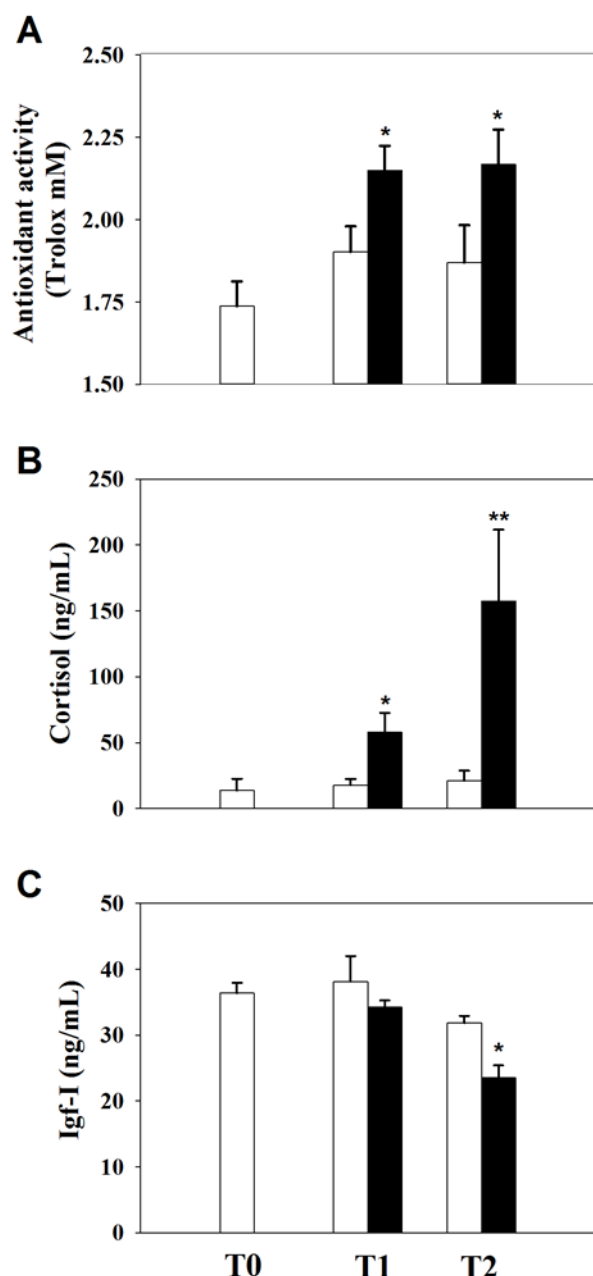


Figure 3. Effects of normoxia (white bars) and hypoxia below the LOS (H2, black bars) on plasma parameters. Antioxidant activity (A), cortisol (B) and Igf-I (C). Data are the mean \pm SEM ($n = 7-8$). Statistically significant differences between normoxic and hypoxic fish are indicated (* $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$; two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by the Holm-Sidak test).

Thus, all measured haematological and biochemical parameters remained mostly unaltered in fish maintained at 20-21 °C and 41-42% O₂ saturation. In contrast, the rapid and pronounced increase in Hc, Hb and plasma glucose and lactate levels after exposure to severe hypoxia (18-19% O₂ saturation) for 4 h could reflect an increase in blood O₂-carrying capacity associated in the short term with erythrocyte release from a storage organ or with a reduction in plasma volume rather than the formation of new Hb (Wood & Johansen, 1972; Soivio *et al.*, 1980). This finding likely reflects metabolic changes mediated by O₂ sensors that drive the shift of the redox cellular status of NADH to a more reduced form with a rapid recycling of NAD⁺ to NADH. Certainly, hypoxic situations must improve and adjust the metabolic and O₂-carrying capacities of challenged fish to cope and reach internal

homeostasis (Storey, 2015). The trigger observed in plasma antioxidant capacity after acute and severe hypoxia demonstrates a general decrease in metabolic rates that also reflects the aerobic/anaerobic shift of metabolism (Dalla Via *et al.*, 1998; Virani *et al.*, 2000).

The increase in plasma cortisol levels observed after severe hypoxia indicates a stressful scenario in the experimental model. Other common features of hypoxic and stress conditions include a decrease in plasma Igf-I levels and concomitant growth inhibition (Mommensen *et al.*, 1999; Dyer *et al.*, 2004). In this sense, a characteristic response in challenged sea bream produced by crowding, and presumably also through hypoxia, is the overall down-regulated expression of hepatic igfs and growth hormone receptors (Saera-Vila *et al.*, 2009). However, the precise mechanisms underlying these Gh/Igf-mediated effects remain mostly unexplored in fish.

2.3. Effects of acute hypoxia in blood transcriptomics

Based on the results of hormonal and metabolic parameters, gene expression profiling of whole blood cells was restricted to the last sampling point of the severe hypoxia experiment (H2). The relative gene expression and fold-changes (FC) of differentially expressed genes (41 out of 84) are summarised in [Table 2](#). The complete expression table of all analysed genes is provided in Table 1 of Annex 2. The overall response to severe hypoxia involved a repression of gene expression. This response was mediated by antioxidant enzymes (*gpx1*, *gst3*, and *sod2*), the transcription factor *nrf1*, outer and inner membrane translocases (*tom70*, *tom22*, *tim44*, *tim10*, and *tim9*), markers of mitochondrial dynamics and apoptosis (*mfn2*, *miffb*, *miro1a*, *miro2*, and *aifm1*), fatty acid β -oxidation (*acaa2* and *hadh*), tricarboxylic acid cycle (*cs*), respiration uncoupling (*ucp2*) and respiratory enzyme subunits of Complex I (*ndufa3*, *ndufa4*, *ndufa7*, *ndufb5*, and *ndufs7*), Complex II (*sdha*, *sdhaf1*, and *sdhaf2*), Complex III (*uqcrc1*, *uqcrc2*, and *uqcrrh*) and Complex V (*atp5c1*, *atp5g1*, *atp5l*, and *atpaf2*), encoded by either mitochondrial or nuclear DNA. The nuclear-encoded assembly factors of Complex IV (*sco1*, *surf1*, and *cox15*) were also significantly down-regulated, but the opposite trend was observed for catalytic (*cox1*) and regulatory (*cox5a2* and *cox8b*) enzyme subunits of mitochondrial or nuclear origin, respectively. This up-regulation was also observed for the transcription factor *pgc1 β* and the outer membrane translocase *tom34*. The molecular chaperones were the only factors that did not significantly change under hypoxic conditions, although the overall trend was a down-regulation in hypoxic fish.

Table 2. Relative gene expression of differentially expressed mitochondrial-related genes in total blood cells of sea bream exposed to normoxic (O₂ saturation >85 %) and hypoxic (1.3 ppm, O₂ saturation = 18-19 %) conditions. Data are the mean \pm SEM (n = 7-8). Statistically significant differences between normoxic and hypoxic fish are indicated (*P < 0.05, **P < 0.01; Student's *t*-test). Gene names of mitochondrial-encoded catalytic subunits of the OXPHOS pathway are highlighted in bold and italics. Gene names of nuclear-encoded catalytic subunits of the OXPHOS pathway are highlighted in bold. Gene names of nuclear-encoded regulatory subunits are presented in normal font. Gene names of nuclear-encoded assembly factors are in italics. Square symbols are used for up- (red) and down-differentially expressed genes (green).

Gene name	Symbol	Relative expression		FC
		Control	Hypoxia	
Antioxidant enzymes				
Glutathione peroxidase 1	<i>gpx1</i>	18.26 ± 1.33	13.90 ± 1.25*	-1.31 ■
Glutathione S-transferase 3	<i>gst3</i>	0.17 ± 0.06	0.02 ± 0.01*	-9.68 ■
Superoxide dismutase [Mn]	<i>sod2</i>	0.55 ± 0.05	0.28 ± 0.05**	-1.97 ■
Transcription factors				
Nuclear respiratory factor 1	<i>nrf1</i>	0.22 ± 0.05	0.10 ± 0.01*	-2.21 ■
Proliferator-activated receptor gamma coactivator 1 beta	<i>pgc1β</i>	0.28 ± 0.09	0.80 ± 0.14*	2.85 ■
Outer membrane translocases (TOM complex)				
Mitochondrial import receptor subunit Tom70	<i>tom70</i>	0.65 ± 0.04	0.36 ± 0.06**	-1.79 ■
Mitochondrial import receptor subunit Tom34	<i>tom34</i>	0.55 ± 0.02	0.76 ± 0.10*	1.39 ■
Mitochondrial import receptor subunit Tom22	<i>tom22</i>	0.23 ± 0.03	0.09 ± 0.02**	-2.47 ■
Inner membrane translocases (TIM complex)				
Mitochondrial import inner membrane translocase subunit 44	<i>tim44</i>	0.16 ± 0.05	0.05 ± 0.02*	-3.62 ■
Mitochondrial import inner membrane translocase subunit Tim10	<i>tim10</i>	0.19 ± 0.06	0.06 ± 0.02*	-3.20 ■
Mitochondrial import inner membrane translocase subunit Tim9	<i>tim9</i>	0.13 ± 0.03	0.05 ± 0.01*	-2.55 ■
Mitochondrial dynamics and apoptosis				
Mitofusin 2	<i>mfn2</i>	0.21 ± 0.02	0.12 ± 0.01*	-1.72 ■
Mitochondrial fission factor homolog B	<i>miffb</i>	0.35 ± 0.04	0.19 ± 0.03*	-1.82 ■
Mitochondrial Rho GTPase 1	<i>miro1a</i>	0.12 ± 0.04	0.03 ± 0.01*	-3.70 ■
Mitochondrial Rho GTPase 2	<i>miro2</i>	0.31 ± 0.05	0.12 ± 0.02**	-2.69 ■
Apoptosis-related protein 1	<i>aifm1</i>	0.23 ± 0.02	0.15 ± 0.03**	-1.53 ■
FA oxidation & TCA				
3-ketoacyl-CoA thiolase	<i>aca2</i>	0.43 ± 0.06	0.18 ± 0.03*	-2.38 ■
Hydroxyacyl-CoA dehydrogenase	<i>hadh</i>	0.82 ± 0.03	0.53 ± 0.08**	-1.56 ■
Citrate synthase	<i>cs</i>	0.62 ± 0.03	0.47 ± 0.05**	-1.32 ■
OXPHOS (Complex I)				
NADH dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 alpha subcomplex subunit 3	<i>ndufa3</i>	0.81 ± 0.06	0.56 ± 0.07*	-1.46 ■
NADH dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 alpha subcomplex subunit 4	<i>ndufa4</i>	1.10 ± 0.07	0.78 ± 0.04**	-1.40 ■
NADH dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 alpha subcomplex subunit 7	<i>ndufa7</i>	0.21 ± 0.02	0.12 ± 0.01**	-1.69 ■
NADH dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 beta subcomplex subunit 5	<i>ndufb5</i>	0.52 ± 0.02	0.32 ± 0.05**	-1.59 ■
NADH dehydrogenase iron-sulfur protein 7	<i>ndufs7</i>	0.60 ± 0.04	0.42 ± 0.05**	-1.42 ■
OXPHOS (Complex II)				
Succinate dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] flavoprotein subunit	<i>sdha</i>	0.27 ± 0.04	0.13 ± 0.02*	-2.10 ■
Succinate dehydrogenase assembly factor 1	<i>sdhaf1</i>	0.20 ± 0.06	0.07 ± 0.02*	-2.99 ■
Succinate dehydrogenase assembly factor 2	<i>sdhaf2</i>	0.19 ± 0.04	0.07 ± 0.02*	-2.61 ■
OXPHOS (Complex III)				
Cytochrome b-c1 complex subunit 1	<i>uqcrc1</i>	0.31 ± 0.06	0.14 ± 0.02*	-2.14 ■
Cytochrome b-c1 complex subunit 2	<i>uqcrc2</i>	0.64 ± 0.06	0.33 ± 0.04**	-1.96 ■
Cytochrome b-c1 complex subunit 6	<i>uqcrh</i>	0.27 ± 0.05	0.16 ± 0.02*	-1.72 ■
OXPHOS (Complex IV)				
Cytochrome c oxidase subunit I	<i>coxi</i>	2.52 ± 0.37	4.69 ± 1.34*	1.86 ■
Cytochrome c oxidase subunit 5A, mitochondrial-like isoform 2	<i>cox5a2</i>	0.04 ± 0.01	0.09 ± 0.02**	2.48 ■
Cytochrome c oxidase subunit 8B	<i>cox8b</i>	1.02 ± 0.10	1.39 ± 0.16*	1.37 ■
SCO1 protein homolog, mitochondrial	<i>sco1</i>	0.19 ± 0.06	0.05 ± 0.02*	-3.83 ■
Surfeit locus protein 1	<i>surf1</i>	0.22 ± 0.04	0.09 ± 0.01*	-2.47 ■
Cytochrome c oxidase assembly protein COX15 homolog	<i>cox15</i>	0.15 ± 0.02	0.10 ± 0.01**	-1.48 ■
OXPHOS (Complex V)				
ATP synthase subunit gamma	<i>atp5c1</i>	0.36 ± 0.04	0.19 ± 0.04*	-1.83 ■
ATP synthase lipid-binding protein	<i>atp5g1</i>	0.61 ± 0.06	0.36 ± 0.06*	-1.68 ■
ATP synthase subunit g	<i>atp5l</i>	0.64 ± 0.06	0.42 ± 0.05*	-1.53 ■
Mitochondrial F1 complex assembly factor 2	<i>atpaf2</i>	0.04 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.00*	-6.02 ■
Respiration uncoupling				
Uncoupling protein 2	<i>ucp2</i>	0.12 ± 0.05	0.02 ± 0.02*	-6.26 ■

Most mitochondrial proteins are encoded by nuclear DNA; thus, a healthy metabolic mitochondria phenotype is highly dependent on the protein import system, which involves two assembly complexes: the translocases of the outer membrane (TOM complex) and the translocases of the inner membrane (TIM complex). Thus, as demonstrated in mammalian cells (Ljubcic *et al.*, 2010), the TOM/TIM complex is highly inducible and regulated at both transcriptional and post-transcriptional levels under conditions of chronic stress or energy deficit to ensure the maintenance of adequate mitochondrial protein import rates. Similarly, sea bream juveniles exhibit a clear up-regulation in the gene expression of hepatic protein subunits of the TOM/TIM complex in response to aerobic energy stimuli after exposure to cyclic decreases in water temperature (Bermejo-Nogales *et al.*, 2014a). Conversely, severe hypoxia induced a pronounced down-regulation of *tom70* and *tom22* subunits in whole blood cells concurrent with decreases in mRNAs encoding protein subunits of TIM23 (*tim44*) and TIM22 (*tim10* and *tim9*) complexes. In addition, co-expression analyses (Faou & Hoogenraad, 2012) revealed the up-regulation of *tom34*, which acts as a co-chaperone of the Hsp70/Hsp90 complex, inhibiting mitochondrial protein translocation when expressed in excess. Taken together, these findings suggest an orchestration in hypoxic fish of the TOM/TIM complex that could enable adjustments in mitochondrial protein translocation to reduce plasma oxidative capacity and the risk of oxidative stress. This feature is consistent with the down-regulated expression of markers of ROS production and scavenging, including *ucp2*, mitochondrial superoxide dismutase (*sod2*), enzymes of the glutathione system (*gpx1* and *gst3*) and enzymes of fatty acid β -oxidation and TCA (*acaa2*, *hadh*, and *cs*). Importantly, the same trend was observed for mitochondrial (*hsp10*, *dnaja3a*, *dnajc20*, *hsp60*, and *grp-75*) and endoplasmic reticulum (*grp-170*) molecular chaperones, suggesting that proper protein folding was primarily assured in the blood cells of sea bream under the depressed metabolism induced by hypoxia exposure.

Mitochondrial dynamics is an essential process that adapts mitochondria morphology to the bioenergetics requirements of the cell and involves the balance of two opposing procedures (fusion and fission), but it is also greatly affected by the organelles used by the mitochondria to move inside the cells. The functionality of these organelles favours the redistribution of mitochondria within the cell to ensure high oxidative capacity under conditions of high energy demand, enabling the removal of dysfunctional or damaged mitochondria. This mechanism is highly conserved from yeast to mammals, and the molecular identity of major components of the fusion (*mfn1* and *mfn2*) and fission (*fis1* and *miffb*) system, as well as those of the MIRO system (*miro1a* and *miro2*) has been characterized in sea bream. Severe hypoxia significantly repressed the expression of most components of this biological process (*mfn2*, *miffb*, *miro1a*, and *miro2*), including the well-known mitochondrial apoptotic factor *aifm1*. The transcriptional regulator *pgc1 β* is essential for proper metabolic tuning in stress situations, contributing to the maintenance of the basal expression of mitochondrial and metabolic-related genes. However, in our experimental model, the opposite regulation was observed for *pgc1 β* and *mfn2*, suggesting that the up-regulated expression of *pgc1 β* was more a consequence than the cause of the overall repressed expression of mitochondria-related genes. This notion was supported by the observation that the mitochondrial transcription factor *nrf1*, another target gene of *pgc1 β* , was also down-regulated in hypoxia-challenged fish. Notably, despite the overlapping gene expression of *pgc1 β* and its homologue *pgc1 α* , the compensation of *Pgc1 α* or *Pgc1 β* functions was not completely observed in *Pgc1 α* or *Pgc1 β* knockout rodents (Arany *et al.*, 2005; Lelliott *et al.*, 2006). In the case of sea bream blood cells, this effect is more exacerbated because *pgc1 α* mRNAs were almost undetectable in both normoxic and hypoxic fish, although the expression of this gene at noticeable levels has previously been reported in other tissues of this fish species (Bermejo-Nogales *et al.*, 2014a). Whether this effect is part of the evolutionary pressure to select the conservation of functional mitochondria in the nucleated RBCs of non-mammalian vertebrates remains to be established.

The ultimate effector for coping with changes in energy needs and aerobic ATP production is the regulation of the OXPHOS pathway, which comprises five enzyme complexes (I-V) with catalytic enzymatic subunits encoded by both nuclear or mitochondrial DNA, whereas the

enzyme subunits with regulatory or assembly properties are strictly of nuclear origin (Bermejo-Nogales *et al.*, 2015). Gene expression profiling of liver, skeletal muscle and cardiac muscle tissues revealed that both the direction and magnitude of change in the enzymatic activities of the OXPHOS pathway is highly dependent on the metabolic capabilities of each tissue (Bermejo-Nogales *et al.*, 2014a). Thus far, the molecular fingerprinting of the OXPHOS pathway remained primarily unexplored in blood cells, evidencing the general depletion of several components of Complexes I, II, III and V in response to severe hypoxia. Assembly factors of Complex IV (*sco1*, *surf1* and *cox15*), that were also down-regulated, play an important role in energy production, and mutations or defects in these molecules produce adverse effects in the appropriate function of the OXPHOS pathway in mammals (Antonicka *et al.*, 2003; Stiburek *et al.*, 2005; Smith *et al.*, 2005). However, this observation contrasted with the overall overexpression of catalytic and regulatory subunits of Complex IV, which was statistically significant for the catalytic *cox1* and the regulatory *cox5a2* and *cox8b* subunits. *Cox1* protein is encoded by mitochondrial DNA and represents one of the largest subunits of Complex IV, which contains the bimetallic centre where O₂ binds and is reduced to H₂O (Lenka *et al.*, 1998). In addition, the observed increase in the gene expression of *Cox5a* and *Cox8* family subunits highlights their importance during the completion of the holocomplex monomer, which contains the functional structure of the cytochrome c binding site (Ghezzi & Zeviani, 2012). Therefore, the net effect should be a reduced mitochondrial ATP production due to the overall suppression of mRNAs encoding the enzyme subunits of Complexes I, II, III and IV, although the opposite regulation of the catalytic/regulatory components of Complex IV should be accompanied by subsequent mechanisms that allow a better exploitation of available O₂ in the most energetically favourable way. Modifications in mitochondrial properties also occur in other vertebrates, and the hypo-metabolic steady-state observed in overwintering frogs occurred during hypoxic submergence by increases in mitochondrial O₂ affinity and a reduction in resting and active respiration rates in mitochondria isolated from skeletal muscle (St-Pierre *et al.*, 2000). Similarly, early studies in the freshwater European eel suggest that the efficiency of OXPHOS is increased after acclimation to high hydrostatic pressure, decreasing the enzymatic activity of Complex II in red muscle, whereas that of Complex IV is significantly increased (Theron *et al.*, 2000). This situation would enable a reduction in the electron leak and the optimisation of the respiratory chain. Similarly, studies in sea bream have revealed that the gene expression ratio of the enzyme subunits of Complexes I and IV is altered in heart and liver tissue during the recovery state after severe hypoxia exposure (Magnoni *et al.*, 2017). Thus, variations in the mitochondrial efficiency of ATP production exist among individuals, populations and environments, and even within the same individual over time. This spatial and temporal variability in mitochondrial machinery adds an additional layer of complexity to the regulation of energy metabolism, and the maintenance of aerobic metabolism is becoming recognised as a primary hypoxia survival strategy in most organisms, including fish (Rogers *et al.*, 2016).

2.4. Main outcomes- acute hypoxia phenotyping

In a previous AQUAEXCEL study (Remen *et al.*, 2015), the threshold level of LOS determined in 400-g fish varied between 17% O₂ saturation at 12 °C and 36% O₂ saturation at 20 °C. Therefore, these O₂ concentrations can be considered as the lower limit for acceptable decreases in O₂ concentration with respect to the physiological function and welfare of farmed sea bream. Accordingly, data on blood biochemistry and haematology in fish exposed to O₂ concentrations above the theoretically LOS did not significantly vary after 24 h of hypoxia challenge. In contrast, a consistent response, exacerbated over time, was observed for blood parameters measured few hours after exposure to O₂ concentrations below the LOS. In this case, the gene expression profile of whole blood cells was analysed, and the molecular signatures of hypoxic fish revealed important changes consistent with a reduced but more efficient aerobic ATP production.

Changes in plasma antioxidant capacity and circulating levels of hormones and metabolites supported reduced energy needs with the aerobic/anaerobic shift. These results were further confirmed by gene expression profiling of a wide representation of mitochondrial-related markers, including antioxidant enzymes and molecular chaperones, effectors of mitochondrial dynamics and apoptosis, and key components of the respiratory chain, suggesting that the mitochondrial bioenergetic of fish blood cells is finely adjusted at the transcriptional level by drastic changes in water O₂ concentrations. Moreover, the induced gene expression of catalytic and regulatory enzyme subunits of Complex IV should be considered an adaptive process to ensure reduced but more efficient aerobic ATP production, which was consistent with a reduced mitochondrial respiration uncoupling (decreased *ucp2* expression).

3. Sea bream resilience to moderate hypoxia and high stocking density

Work contained in this section has been submitted for publication in *Frontiers in Physiology*. The original manuscript is provided as Annex 3.

In most aquaculture scenarios, the adaptive features in response to hypoxia are commonly associated to increases in temperature and high stocking rearing densities, which in turn can compromise water quality resulting in impaired fish growth and immunity (Person-Le Ruyet *et al.*, 2008; Vikeså *et al.*, 2017). Indeed, beneficial effects on growth performance have been reported in Arctic charr or meagre with the preservation of water quality at high stocking densities (Jørgensen *et al.*, 1993; Millán-Cubillo *et al.*, 2016). The opposite is also true and the impact of crowding stress is minimized when O₂ concentrations are not below LOS (Araújo-Luna *et al.*, 2018). Unravelling the combined effects of hypoxia and high rearing density are, thereby, crucial to warrant fish welfare during intensive farming conditions. Thus, we aimed to assess the effect of two different initial stocking densities (9.5 kg/m³ and 19 kg/m³, increasing up to 30 kg/m³ during the challenge) and O₂ saturation levels (85%, 42-43% O₂ saturation) in a 3-weeks trial with fast growing sea bream juveniles. For this purpose, the different tissue contribution of blood, liver, skeletal muscle and heart to the homeostatic load was monitored by data on growth performance, haematology and blood biochemistry in combination with blood and tissue transcriptomic analysis of selected biomarkers of growth, energy and lipid metabolism.

3.1 Experimental setup- sea bream stress resilience

Twelve days prior to the start of the experimental trial, juvenile fish (~34 g average body weight) were randomly distributed in twelve 90-L tanks coupled to a re-circulatory system equipped with physical and biological filters, and programmable temperature and O₂ devices (Figure 4). Water temperature was daily monitored and maintained at 25-27 °C. Fish were arbitrarily allocated to constitute two different initial stocking densities (six tanks per condition) fed daily to visual satiety with a commercial diet (EFICO Forte 824, BioMar): i) LD (low density, 25 fish/tank, 9.5 kg/m³) and ii) HD (high density, 50 fish/tank, 19 kg/m³). After the acclimation period, the water parameters of three tanks of each initial stocking density were kept unchanged, constituting the normoxic (>5.5 ppm O₂; >85% O₂ saturation) groups of each experimental condition (LDN, low density normoxia; HDN, high density normoxia). Fish maintained in the remaining six tanks experienced a gradual decrease in the water O₂ level until reaching 3.0 ppm (42-43% O₂ saturation), constituting the hypoxic groups of each experimental condition (LDH, low density hypoxia; HDH, high density hypoxia). The normal range of variation in O₂ concentrations was marked by a rapid drop 15-30 minutes after feeding (3.8-4 ppm normoxic groups; 2.3 ppm hypoxic groups), with a rapid restoration of

reference values in less than 1 hour by the automatic entrance of clean water from the main reservoir tank. This system allowed maintaining unionized ammonia below toxic levels (<0.50 mg/L) in both HDN and HDH groups.

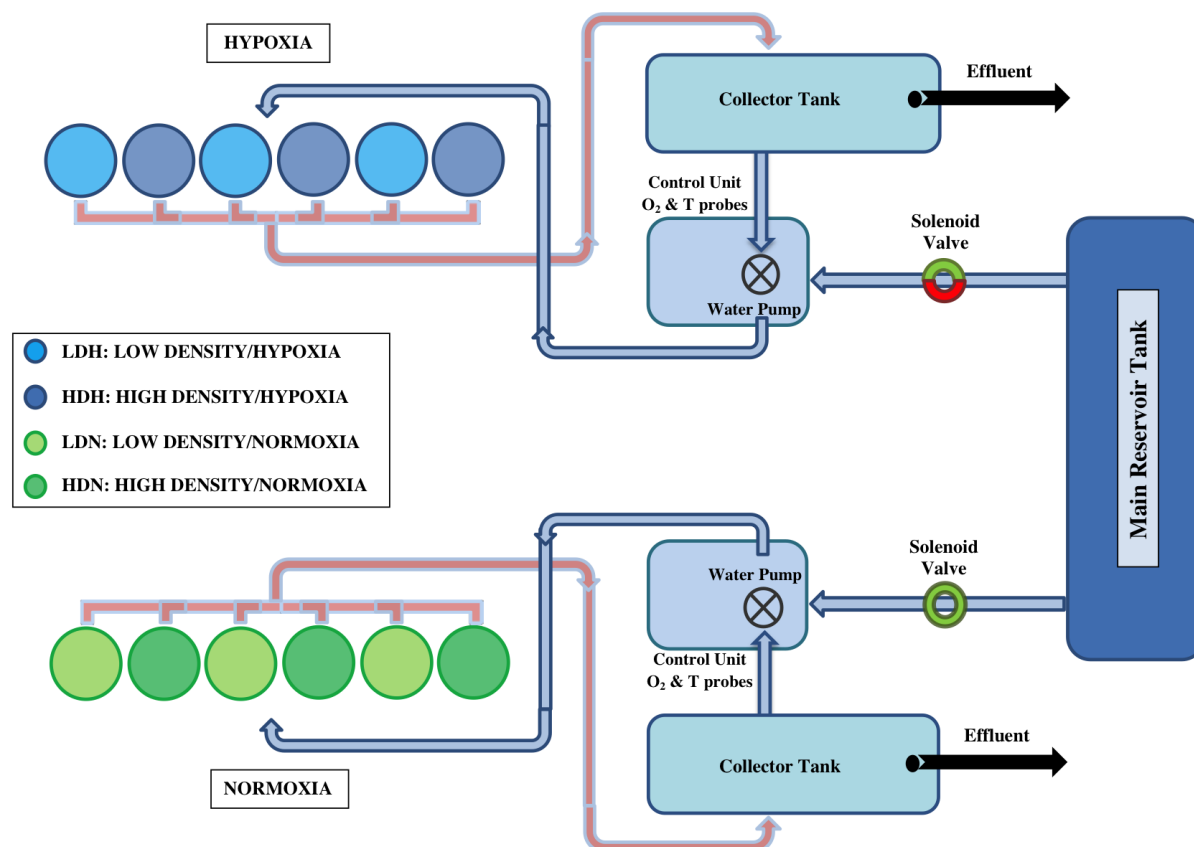


Figure 4. Experimental setup used to control dissolved O₂ levels in the experimental tanks to implement hypoxic conditions under different stocking densities. The O₂ steady-state was set at ~3.0 ppm (42-43% O₂ saturation) in fish kept under hypoxia (LOS), whereas fish maintained in normoxia were at a concentration of >5.5 ppm (>85 % O₂ saturation).

After twenty-two days under these experimental conditions and following overnight fasting, twelve fish (four per tank) per experimental condition (LDN, LDH, HDN, HDH) were anaesthetized with 3-aminobenzoic acid ethyl ester (100 mg/L), weighed and blood was taken from caudal vessels with EDTA-treated syringes. All lethal samples were collected between 10:00 am and 12:00 am to reduce the biologic variability due to circadian rhythms and postprandial-mediated effects. Prior to tissue collection, fish were killed by cervical section. Liver and viscera were weighed, and representative biopsies of liver, muscle and complete hearts were immediately snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until extraction of total RNA. One blood aliquot (25 µL) was directly collected into a microtube containing 500 µL of stabilizing lysis solution (REAL total RNA spin blood kit) and stored at -80 °C until total RNA extraction. Other aliquots were processed for Hc, and Hb using the same procedure as previously detailed. Counts of RBC were made in a Neubauer chamber, using an isotonic solution (1% NaCl). Plasma biochemical and hormonal analysis were conducted as previously detailed. Plasma growth hormone (Gh) was determined by a homologous sea bream RIA as reported elsewhere (**Martínez-Barbera et al., 1995**). The sensitivity and midrange (ED50) of the assay were 0.15 and 1.8 ng/mL, respectively.

Total RNA from liver, white muscle and heart was extracted using a MagMax-96 total RNA isolation kit (Life Technologies), whereas total RNA from total blood cells was extracted using the REAL total RNA spin blood kit including a DNase step. The RNA yield in all tissues was >3.5 µg, with absorbance measures ($A_{260/280}$) of 1.9-2.1. Synthesis of cDNA was performed as previously detailed. The 96-well PCR-array layout was designed for the simultaneous profiling of a panel of 43 (liver), 44 (white muscle and total blood cells) or 34 (heart) genes (Table 1 of Annex 3), including markers of GH/IGF system (13), lipid metabolism (10), energy sensing and oxidative metabolism (12), antioxidant defense and tissue repair (10), muscle growth and cell differentiation (8), respiration uncoupling (3), xenobiotic metabolism (2), nuclear receptors (3), transmembrane translocation (8), mitochondrial dynamics and apoptosis (5), as well as OXPHOS (22). Diluted RT samples 25 µL volume were used for qPCR assays by means of the IATS-Nutrigroup analytical platform using the same procedure as previously detailed. Primer nucleotide sequences are presented in Supplemental Table 1 of Annex 3. Fluorescence data acquired during the extension phase were normalized by the delta-delta C_T method (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001) using *actb* in the liver, white muscle and heart, or *cox4a* in total blood cells, as the housekeeping gene due to its stability among different experimental conditions. For multi-gene analysis, data on gene expression were in reference to the expression level of *cs* in the liver, *igfr2* in the white muscle, *gcr* in the heart, and *tim8a* in total blood cells of LDN fish, for which a value of 1 was arbitrarily assigned.

3.2 Combined effects of moderate hypoxia and stocking density in growth performance and blood parameters

Data on feed intake, growth and somatic indexes (hepatosomatic index, HSI; mesenteric fat index, MSI) are shown in Table 3. Two-way ANOVA revealed an O₂ effect with an overall growth reduction under hypoxic conditions. This general impairment of feed intake and growth is further evidenced in fish kept at the highest density, though feed efficiency was improved in moderate hypoxia and more especially in fish kept at HD (HDH group).

Data on blood haematology and biochemistry are shown in Table 4. The results show a significant effect of O₂ concentration, with a generalized increase in Hb, Hc, RBC content, mean corpuscular Hb (MCH), cortisol and Gh plasma levels, as well as a widespread decrease in MCH concentration (MCHC), mean corpuscular volume and plasma lactate levels. Overall this feature was more accused in fish maintained under LD conditions. In contrast, the rearing density effect was mostly reduced to plasma cortisol levels, which showed a pronounced rise in HD fish that was exacerbated by hypoxic conditions. Noticeably, significant O₂ concentration and rearing density interactions were found for cortisol, but also for Hc, MCHC, MCH and total antioxidant activity.

Growth impairments due to long-term hypoxia exposure have been noticed in a wide-range of farmed fish, including turbot, European sea bass and Atlantic salmon (Pichavant *et al.*, 2001; Remen *et al.*, 2016; Cadiz *et al.*, 2017; Vikeså *et al.*, 2017). As reported herein in sea bream, a primary response was the inhibition of feed intake which would favor a hypo-metabolic state with a reduced ROS production and risk of oxidative stress. This is supported by lowered plasma levels of lactate, which would reflect in hypoxic fish, and in a lower extent in HDN, a low basal metabolism rather than a shift of aerobic to anaerobic metabolism. This metabolic re-adjustment has also been reported in sea bream juveniles facing multiple sensorial stressors in a model of chronic stress that mimic daily aquaculture operations (Bermejo-Nogales *et al.*, 2014a). Thus, according with the oxystatic theory, fish finely adjust feed intake and basal metabolism to available O₂, prioritizing feed efficiency at the expenses of maximum growth under restricted mitochondrial respiration. This seems to be especially effective in sea bream, a protandrous hermaphroditic fish with a high metabolic plasticity that makes feasible to be eurytherm, euryhalin and euryoxic thanks, at least in part, to a permissive regulation of feed intake which allows to cope an efficient energy metabolism at

slow growth rates. As a proof of this, the best feed efficiency and hormonal signatures for fast and efficient growth generally occurs before the achievement of maximum growth at the greater ration size (**Brett, 1979; Pérez-Sánchez et al., 1995**). This also applies at the cellular level, where the maximum ATP yield per molecule of O₂ (P/O ratio) is highly dependent on ration size, as evidenced the increased P/O ratio of king penguins during periods of food shortage (**Monternier et al., 2014**).

Most of the hypoxia-mediated effects are accompanied by an enhanced O₂-carrying capacity denoted by a swelling, formation and/or release of new erythrocytes together with plasma volume reduction (**Gallaugh and Farrell, 1998**). This was also inferred from our haematological data with changes in the measured Hc and corpuscular concentrations of Hb, which were affected by O₂ concentration and secondly by rearing density. Conversely, changes in HSI, reflecting the amount of lipid and glycogen depots, were more informative of feed intake rather than hypoxic condition, though it is difficult to disclose the main factor. At the hormonal level, this is also inferred from the measurements of circulating levels of cortisol and Gh, which are well-known regulators of metabolic rates by their involvement on mitochondria function (**Bergan-Roller & Sheridan, 2018**). In fact, cortisol is a well marker of crowding stress in sea bream, being enhanced the responsiveness of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis by fasting or restricted feeding (**Sangiao-Alvarellos et al., 2005**). This agrees with the observation that the greater circulating concentration of cortisol was achieved herein in the HDH group, which also experienced a higher feed intake inhibition. However, this system cannot be continuously refed and glucocorticoid receptors in rodents and perhaps other animal models translocate cortisol into mitochondria to reduce mitochondrial activity and the risk of oxidative stress (**Du et al., 2009**). Thus, in the absence of a cortisol response, chronic cold-thermal stress up-regulates OXPHOS in sea bream, whereas the cortisol rise in fish facing multiple aquaculture sensorial stressors is accompanied by a pronounced transcriptional repression of all the hepatic complex units of the mitochondrial respiratory chain (**Bermejo-Nogales et al., 2014a**). The aerobic scope and gene expression profiling of mitochondria is also highly regulated at the nutritional level by synthetic and natural dietary oils (**Pérez-Sánchez et al., 2013; Martos-Sitcha et al., 2018**), and the suppression of heptanoate effects upon exercise endurance is viewed as a protective measure to counteract disproportionate oxidative metabolic rates in fish fed fast energy-delivery nutrients (short/medium chain fatty acids). In other words, stimulatory and inhibitory effects of energy metabolism coexist as a trade-off mechanism that might reflect the changing energy needs rather than the availability of metabolic fuels. Accordingly, the increased circulating levels of Gh in hypoxic/crowded fish will reflect a reduced feed intake and energy demand rather than a minor capacity to combat oxidative stress, as referenced in fish and other animal models overexpressing GH (**McKenzie et al., 2003; Almeida et al., 2013**).

Table 3. Effects of rearing density and dissolved O₂ concentration on sea bream growth performance on a 21-days feeding trial. Values on body weight, feed intake, growth and feed efficiency are the mean \pm SEM of triplicate tanks. Values on tissue biometric indexes are the mean \pm SEM of 12 fish (4 fish per replicate tank). P-values are the result of two-way analysis of variance. Asterisks in each row indicate significant differences with O₂ concentration for a given rearing density (SNK test, P < 0.05).

¹Weight gain (%) = (100 x body weight increase)/initial body weight

²Specific growth rate = 100 x (ln final body weight - ln initial body weight)/days

	LD		HD		P-value		
	Normoxia	Hypoxia	Normoxia	Hypoxia	[O ₂]	Density	Interaction
Initial body weight (g)	34.54 \pm 1.11	34.22 \pm 0.27	34.32 \pm 0.34	33.25 \pm 0.45	0.305	0.376	0.571
Final body weight (g)	56.04 \pm 1.89	51.65 \pm 0.71	54.02 \pm 0.50	48.54 \pm 1.05**	0.003	0.059	0.651
Feed intake (g DM/fish)	23.78 \pm 1.63	18.52 \pm 0.7*	24.57 \pm 1.06	17.54 \pm 0.47**	<0.001	0.932	0.427
Weight gain (%) ¹	62.21 \pm 0.31	50.94 \pm 1.34**	57.43 \pm 1.42	45.97 \pm 1.31**	<0.001	0.003	0.941
SGR (%) ²	2.30 \pm 0.01	1.96 \pm 0.04**	2.16 \pm 0.04	1.80 \pm 0.04**	<0.001	0.004	0.832
FE (%) ³	0.91 \pm 0.03	0.94 \pm 0.02	0.80 \pm 0.02	0.87 \pm 0.01*	0.039	0.003	0.445
Liver weight (g)	0.94 \pm 0.07	0.67 \pm 0.03**	0.90 \pm 0.06	0.63 \pm 0.03***	<0.001	0.436	0.987
Viscera weight (g)	4.41 \pm 0.28	3.84 \pm 0.18	4.42 \pm 0.19	3.68 \pm 0.10**	0.002	0.690	0.681
HSI (%) ⁴	1.64 \pm 0.07	1.33 \pm 0.06**	1.58 \pm 0.07	1.25 \pm 0.06**	<0.001	0.281	0.866
VSI (%) ⁵	7.78 \pm 0.29	7.65 \pm 0.25	7.87 \pm 0.24	7.38 \pm 0.22	0.224	0.720	0.487

³Feed efficiency = wet weight gain/dry feed intake

⁴Hepatosomatic index = (100 x liver weight)/fish weight

⁵Viscerosomatic index = (100 x viscera weight)/fish weight



Table 4. Effects of rearing density and dissolved O₂ concentration on blood haematology and plasma levels of metabolites, hormones and total antioxidant capacity. Values are the mean \pm SEM of 10-12 fish (4 fish per replicate tank). P-values are the result of two-way analysis of variance. Asterisks in each row indicate significant differences with O₂ concentration for a given rearing density (SNK test, P < 0.05).

	LD		HD		P-value		
	Normoxia	Hypoxia	Normoxia	Hypoxia	[O ₂]	Density	Interaction n
Haemoglobin (g/dl)	7.18 \pm 0.24	7.73 \pm 0.21	7.38 \pm 0.14	7.77 \pm 0.26	0.041	0.591	0.718
Haematocrit (%)	22.18 \pm 1.10	32.91 \pm 1.65***	28.27 \pm 1.77	29.90 \pm 1.39	<0.001	0.313	0.004
RBC x 10 ⁻⁶ (cells/ μ l) ¹	2.45 \pm 0.07	2.74 \pm 0.07**	2.38 \pm 0.06	2.82 \pm 0.08***	<0.001	0.924	0.345
MCHC (pg/10 μ m ³) ²	34.07 \pm 1.12	24.00 \pm 1.18***	26.62 \pm 1.73	26.46 \pm 1.10	<0.001	0.067	<0.001
MCH (pg/cell) ³	89.79 \pm 4.21	116.6 \pm 4.46**	116.5 \pm 8.28	109.5 \pm 7.21	0.118	0.123	0.010
MCV (μ m ³) ⁴	29.50 \pm 1.02	28.33 \pm 0.76	31.36 \pm 0.93	27.73 \pm 0.96*	0.014	0.501	0.194
Glucose (mg/dl)	54.39 \pm 1.58	52.17 \pm 2.44	58.04 \pm 1.78	52.73 \pm 2.79	0.091	0.339	0.482
Lactate (mg/dl)	16.30 \pm 2.78	4.81 \pm 1.41**	10.22 \pm 3.06	4.99 \pm 0.84	0.001	0.225	0.199
TAA (mM Trolox) ⁵	1.34 \pm 0.04	1.45 \pm 0.04	1.48 \pm 0.03	1.43 \pm 0.03	0.447	0.104	0.026
Cortisol (ng/ml)	23.40 \pm 5.67	21.08 \pm 5.32	35.69 \pm 11.15	79.25 \pm 9.05**	0.036	<0.001	0.027
Growth hormone (ng/ml)	2.34 \pm 0.83	6.71 \pm 1.17*	5.39 \pm 1.29	8.33 \pm 4.20	0.069	0.337	0.767
Insulin-like growth factor-I (ng/ml)	46.06 \pm 4.76	46.59 \pm 4.77	45.78 \pm 2.27	41.03 \pm 6.29	0.659	0.544	0.582

¹Red blood cells

²Mean corpuscular haemoglobin concentration

³Mean corpuscular haemoglobin

⁴Mean corpuscular volume

⁵Total antioxidant activity



3.3 Combined effects of moderate hypoxia and stocking density in tissue gene expression profiling

Results of gene expression profiling in hepatic selected genes are presented in Suppl. Table 2 of Annex 3. Among them, 22 out of 43 genes were affected by at least one of the experimental factors or by its interaction, being 11 differentially expressed (DE) in response to O₂ concentration. Relative expression of markers from GH/IGF system (*ghr-i*), oxidative metabolism (*nd2*), and antioxidant defence and tissue repair (*gpx4*, *prdx5*) was significantly down-regulated by moderate hypoxia in LDH and HDH groups. In addition, several genes of lipid metabolism (*elov11*, *fads2* and *scd1b*) were up-regulated in the LD group, whereas markers of oxidative metabolism (*nd5*), and antioxidant defence and tissue repair (*gr*, *sod2*, *grp-75*) were down-regulated in fish kept at HD conditions. Stocking density also affected 11 genes related with the GH/IGF system (*ghr-i*, *ghr-ii*, *igf-i*), lipid metabolism (*elov16*, *fads2*, *scd1a*, *scd1b*, *lpl*), oxidative metabolism (*ucp1*, *pgc1a*) and antioxidant defence and tissue repair (*grp-75*). A statistically significant interaction of O₂ concentration and rearing density was found for *igf-ii*, *fads2*, *scd1a*, *scd1b*, *pgc1b*, *gr*, *prdx3* and *grp-170* genes.

In white skeletal muscle, 20 out of 44 DE genes were affected at least by one of the experimental condition or even by their interaction (Suppl. Table 3 of Annex 3). Markers of the GH/IGF system were mostly affected by stocking density (*ghr-i*, *igf-ii*, *igfbp3*, *igfbp5b*, *igfbp6b*, *insr*, *igfr1*) rather than by O₂ concentration (*igfr2*). Moderate hypoxia up-regulated *myod2* expression as the sole effect on genes related to muscle growth and cell differentiation. In contrast, a relative high number of genes related to energy sensing, oxidative metabolism, and antioxidant defence and tissue repair were down-regulated by low O₂ concentrations (*sirt1*, *ucp3*, *hif-1a*, *prdx5*, *sod2*) or up-regulated in HD conditions (*sirt4*, *sirt7*, *coxi*, *hif-1a*, *gpx4*). Additionally, a significant interaction between O₂ concentration and rearing density is reported for *cpt1a* and *grp-170*.

In heart, changes in O₂ saturation and stocking density triggered significant differences in 19 out of 34 genes presented in the array (Suppl. Table 4 of Annex 3). Up to 13 genes, including markers of the GH/IGF system (*ghr-i*), energy sensing and oxidative metabolism (*sirt1*, *sirt5*, *sirt6*, *sirt7*, *cs*, *nd5*, *pgc1a*, *pgc1b*, *hif-1a*) and antioxidant defence and tissue repair (*cat*, *prdx5*, *sod2*) were down-regulated under moderate hypoxia, especially in HD conditions. The xenobiotic metabolism marker *cyp1a1* was up-regulated by hypoxia in both LD and HD. Stocking density also down-regulated the expression of several genes involved in energy sensing and oxidative metabolism (*sirt3*, *sirt5*, *cs*, *nd2*) as well as antioxidant defence and tissue repair (*gr*, *prdx3*, *prdx5*, *grp-170*, *grp-75*), preferentially under low O₂ concentrations.

In total blood cells, only 5 out of 44 genes were DE mainly by the interaction among different experimental conditions (Suppl. Table 5 of Annex 3), being responsive to the stress challenge enzyme subunits of Complex I (*ndufaf2*) and Complex IV (*coxi*, *coxii*, *cox6a2*, *cox15*) of the mitochondrial respiratory chain.

In order to assess the differential contribution of the DE genes in the physiological response to moderate hypoxia and rearing density, the tissue (liver, white skeletal muscle, heart) gene expression dataset was jointly analysed by Partial Least-Squares Discriminant Analysis (PLS-DA). Results from total blood cells were not included due to its low contribution to the total variance. The contribution of differential genes along liver, white muscle and heart tissues was assessed by means of Variable Importance in Projection (VIP) measurements. A VIP score > 1.1 was considered to be an adequate threshold to determine discriminant variables in the PLS-DA model (Wold et al., 2001; Li et al., 2012; Kieffer et al., 2016). The resulting discriminant model was based on six components, which explained (R²) 95% and predicted (Q²) 65% of total variance (Figure 5A). Of these, the first three components showed cumulative values for R² and Q² of 83.6% and 49.3%, respectively. A clear separation between normoxic (LDN, HDN) and hypoxic (LDH, HDH) groups was observed

along the first component that explained 28.89% of total variance (**Figures 5B, 5C**). Component 2 (29.27% of variance) clearly separated LDN and HDN normoxic groups (*Figure 2B*), whereas component 3 (25.42% of variance) discriminated LDH and HDH hypoxic groups (**Figure 5C**).

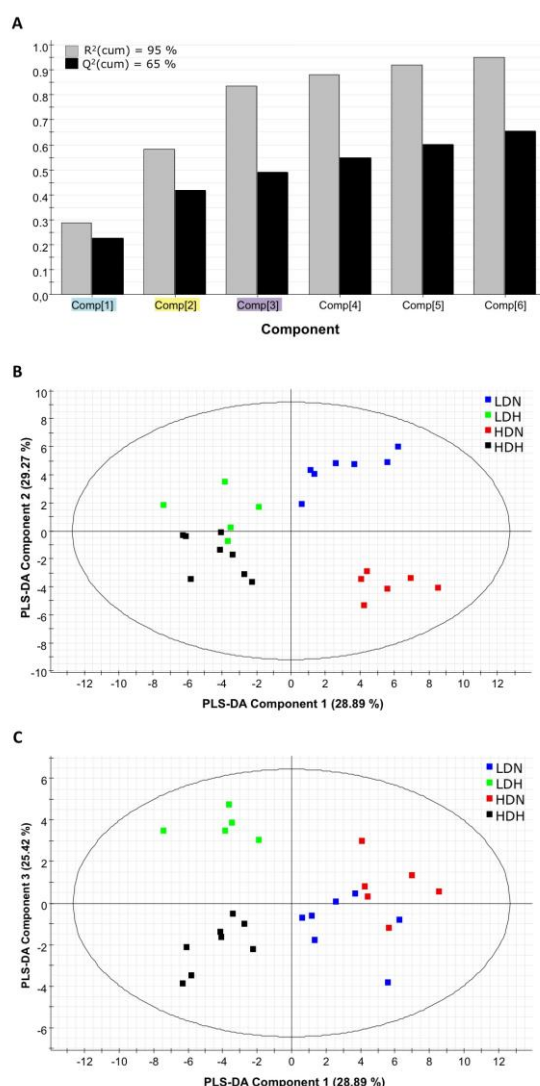


Figure 5. A) Graphical representation of the goodness-of-fit of the PLS-DA model. B) Two-dimensional PLS-DA score plot representing the distribution of the samples between the first two components in the model. C) Two-dimensional PLS-DA score plot representing the distribution of the samples between the first and third components in the model. $R^2(\text{cum})$: explained variance; $Q^2(\text{cum})$: predicted variance; LDN: low density normoxia; LDH: low density hypoxia; HDN: high density normoxia; HDH: high density hypoxia.

Genes with a contribution to VIP > 1.1 in component 1 were a total of 39, with a main contribution of heart (19) and liver (14) genes involved in energy sensing and oxidative metabolism (14), antioxidant defence and tissue repair (12) and OXPHOS (**Figure 6**). When the second component was also considered, a total of 44 genes presented VIP values > 1.1 (**Figure 7**), and 11 out of the 21 new genes (highlighted in yellow) were from white skeletal muscle. Energy sensing and oxidative metabolism (12), antioxidant defence and tissue repair (11), GH/IGF system (11) and OXPHOS (6) were the main categories. Considering the VIP

values from the 3 main components (**Figure 8**), most of the genes due to component 3 contribution (highlighted in purple) were related to lipid metabolism.

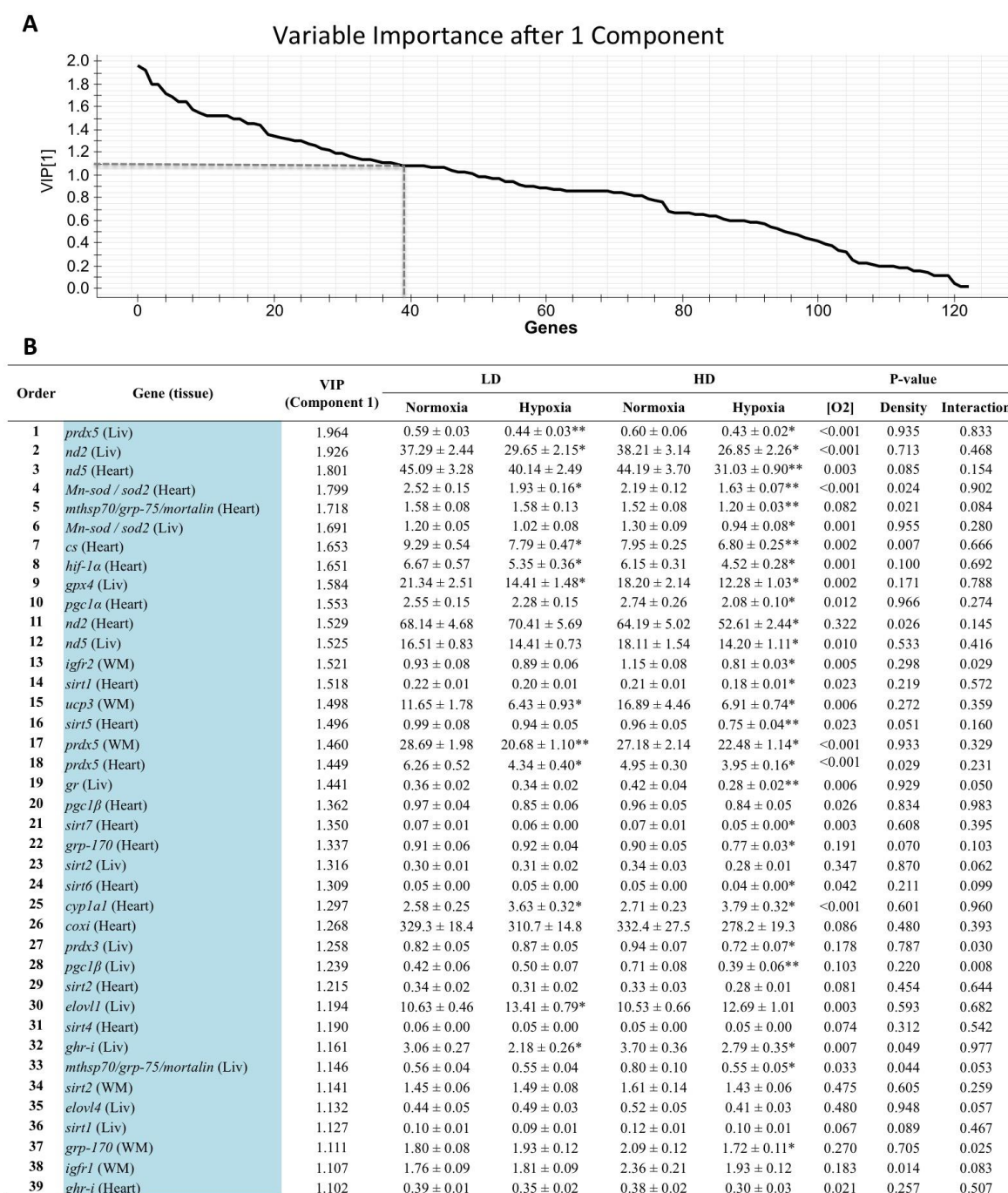


Figure 6. A) Graphical representation of the variable importance (VIP) scores after component 1. B) Ranking list of genes showing VIP score values above 1.1 and their relative gene expression. Values on relative expression are the mean ± SEM of 8 fish (2-3 fish per replicate tank). P-values are the result of two-way analysis of variance. Asterisks in each row indicate significant differences with O₂ concentration for a given rearing density (SNK test, P < 0.05).

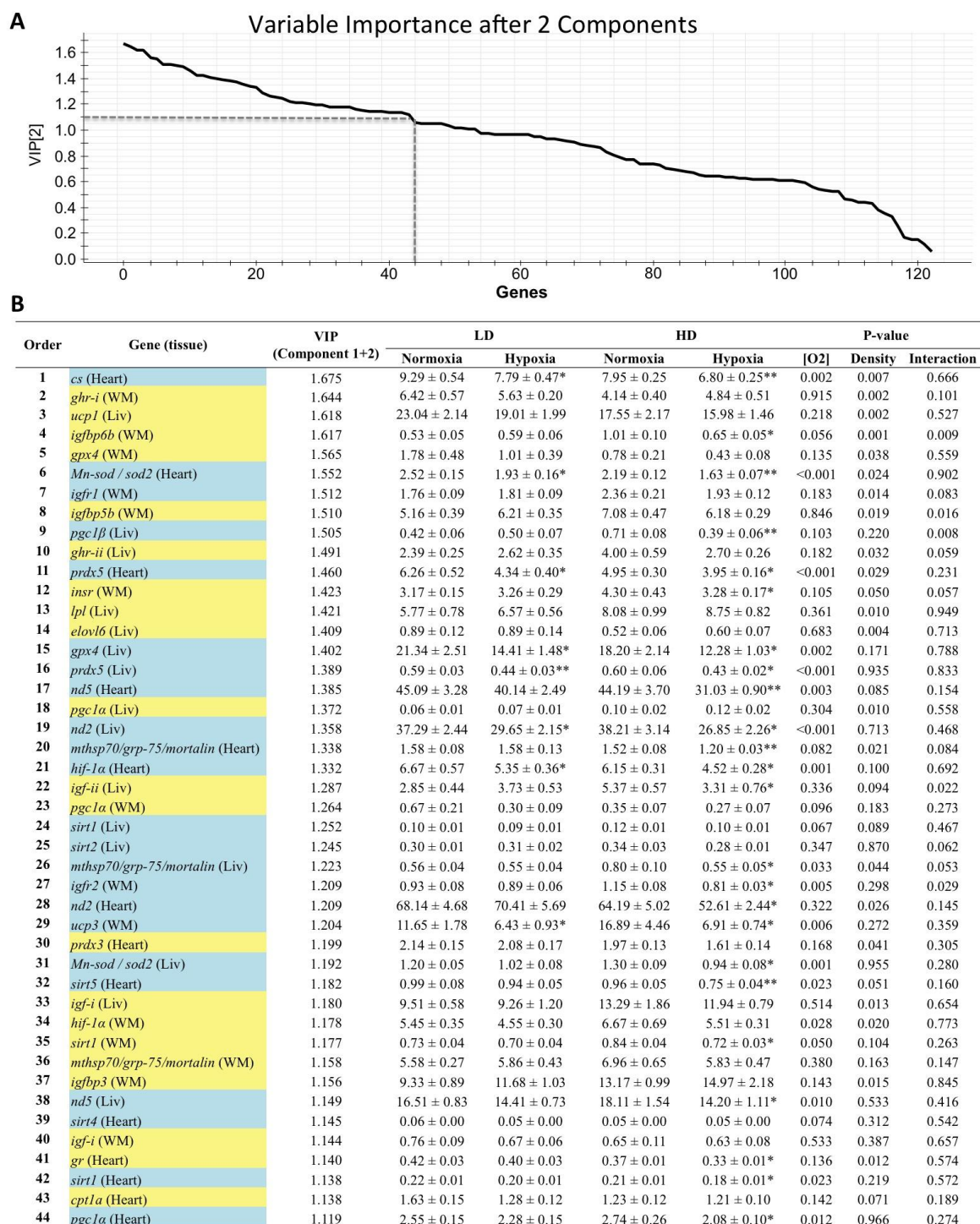


Figure 7. A) Graphical representation of the variable importance (VIP) scores after component 2. B) Ranking list of genes showing VIP score values above 1.1 and their relative gene expression. Cells shaded in blue highlight genes detected as VIP after component 1; cells shaded in yellow highlight genes detected as VIP after component 2. For further details, see legend on Figure 6.

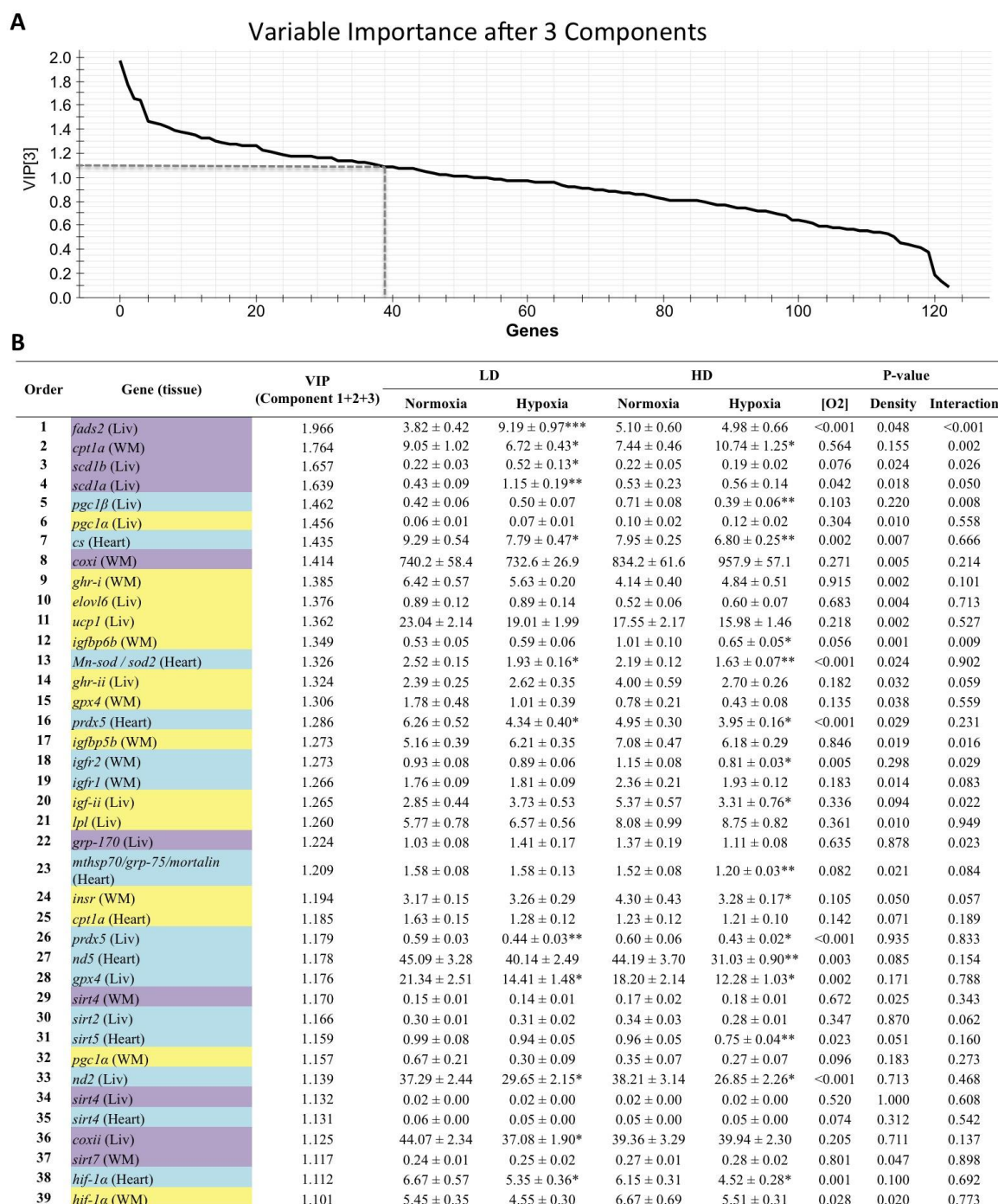


Figure 8. A) Graphical representation of the variable importance (VIP) scores after component 3. B) Ranking list of genes showing VIP score values above 1.1 and their relative gene expression. Cells shaded in blue highlight genes detected as VIP after component 1; cells shaded in yellow highlight genes detected as VIP after component 2; cells shaded in purple highlight genes detected as VIP after component 3. For further details, see legend on Figure 6.

From the gene expression profiling of key metabolic biomarkers, it is noteworthy that liver, white skeletal muscle and heart remained responsive at long-term to changing O₂ and rearing density, whereas the expression pattern of blood cells was mostly unaltered with the imposed stress stimuli of medium intensity. In previous studies in sea bream and other animal models, liver and cardiac muscle are highly responsive to hypoxia (Everett *et al.*, 2012; Hermes-Lima *et al.*, 2015; Magnoni *et al.*, 2017), and genes of these two tissues highly contribute herein to separate normoxic and hypoxic fish along the first component that predicts more than 28% of total variance. One of the most relevant genes participating in this discriminant feature is the *hif-1α*, a well-documented regulator of O₂ homeostasis. This transcriptional factor acts at a multi-regulatory level, managing the hypoxic responsiveness of a vast array of transcribed proteins including antioxidant enzymes. Concretely, herein, we show a clear down-regulation of *hif-1α* that was coincident with the repressed expression of other down-stream markers of antioxidant defence and tissue repair (*prdx5*, *sod2*, *mortalin*, *gpx4*, *gr*, *grp-170*, *prdx3*). This intriguing result can be cautiously interpreted since Hif-1 is mostly regulated at the post-translational level, though this finding should be understood as a steady-state in which O₂ availability is reduced but maintained high enough to preserve aerobic metabolism at a relatively high level. This fact is supported by a reduced expression of *cs* and associated enzyme subunits of Complex I (*nd2*, *nd5*), markers of mitochondria abundance and Krebs cycle activity (Larsen *et al.*, 2012; Magnoni *et al.*, 2017). In addition to that, several *sirts* (*sirt1*, 2, 5, 6, 7) of liver or cardiac muscle were overall down-regulated in hypoxic fish, especially in the case of HDH fish. These NAD⁺-dependent deacetylases are energy sensors that act in sea bream as a link between nutrition and energy metabolism in different growth models with nutrients and genetic variables as source of variation (Simó-Mirabet *et al.*, 2017a; 2017b; 2018). This was extended herein to hypoxia/crowding stress, which indicates that most of the envisaged adaptive responses should include changes in the acetylation status of both nuclear histones, and cytoplasmic and mitochondrial metabolic enzymes.

The second component of the PLS-DA ($R^2=29.27\%$) differentiated normoxic fish held at different stocking densities. White skeletal muscle clearly promoted this separation mainly by the expression pattern of genes related to GH/IGF system (*ghr-i*, *igfbp6b*, *igfbp5b*, *insr*, *igfbp3*, *igf-i*). Components of liver and muscle GH/IGF system are differentially regulated by nutrients and seasonal environmental cues (reviewed by Pérez-Sánchez *et al.*, 2018), but herein this observation becomes especially relevant for muscle *ghr-i* that highly contributed to discriminate the detrimental growth effects of crowding stress from those more related to hypoxia or water quality. Likewise, genes of *igfbp* repertoire highly contribute to this differentiation, though the discriminant role of *igfbp* counterparts (*igfbp6b* > *igfbp5b* > *igfbp3*) were mostly reduced to skeletal muscle and *igfbp3/5/6* clade. The overall depressed expression of the muscle *igfbp* clade in HD fish is consistent with inhibitory rather than stimulatory growth-promoting effects, which also involves the regulation of insulin and *igfbp* receptors with important implications on the final arrangements of carbohydrate, growth and energy metabolism (Reindl & Sheridan, 2012; Vélez *et al.*, 2017). Indeed, fish are the first group in the vertebrate tree in which there is evidence of distinct insulin and *Igf* receptors, though certain cross-reactivity between ligand and receptors of insulin and *Igfs* occurs and the specific-mediated effects are sometimes confounding. However, it is well-recognized that insulin stimulates Hif-1, whereas intermittent hypoxia induces insulin resistance in mice (Poulain *et al.*, 2017). It is also conclusive that the muscle expression of *igfr1* and *igfr2* are especially responsive to hypoxia, but importantly *insr* in sea bream seems to be more receptive to crowding stress rather than hypoxic stress stimuli, though it remains to be established the functional relevance of this differential responsiveness to environmental stressors.

The third component of the multivariate approach ($R^2=25.42\%$) discriminated the effect of stocking density in fish exposed to moderate hypoxia, with a marked contribution of hepatic fatty desaturases with $\Delta 6$ (*fads2*) or $\Delta 9$ (*scd1a*, *scd1b*) activities due to its strong and specific induction in LDH fish. A muscle marker of FA oxidation (*cpt1a*) was also consistently up-

regulated in this group, but this response was opposite to that found in HDH group, which is indicative of the different regulation of muscle lipid catabolism by hypoxia in fish stocked at standard or high densities. Likewise, the major discriminant capacity of other factors related to lipid metabolism (*e/ov/6*) was achieved between normoxic fish held at LD and HD. Previous studies, in sea bream (**Benedito-Palos *et al.*, 2013; 2014**) and European sea bass (**Rimoldi *et al.*, 2016**) have also evidenced an important effect of ration size on the hepatic and muscle regulation of most of the lipid biomarkers assessed, but again it is difficult to disclose what is the main factor (feed intake or the imposed stress condition). However, as a general rule, stressors enhance the demand of specific nutrients and hypoxia in particular promote the cellular uptake of extracellular unsaturated fatty acids in mice cell lines (**Ackerman *et al.*, 2018**). Moreover, in hypoxic stress, cancer cells enhance lipid synthesis that is important for membrane biosynthesis and energy storage for cell survival and proliferation (**Huang *et al.*, 2014**). All this together supports the pronounced stimulation of *fads2* and *scd* desaturases in our stress model, which will promote the increase of the unsaturation index of structural lipids as previously reported during feed restriction in sea bream (**Benedito-Palos *et al.*, 2013**).

3.4 Main outcomes- hypoxia and high stocking density phenotyping

The combined effects of moderate hypoxia and rearing density in a 3-week feeding trial highlighted a different contribution of target tissues to the homeostatic load in challenged fish. The re-adjustment of several biological functions was evidenced, and most of the hypoxia-mediated effects on growth performance and energy metabolism were exacerbated in fish held at HD. Interestingly, the integrated data on blood haematology, biochemistry and hormonal profiling evidenced a hypo-metabolic state with the enhancement of O₂-carrying capacity, accompanied by a more efficient energy metabolism that could be considered a convenient feature, though it has been achieved at the expense of a reduction in voluntary feed intake leading to lower growth rates. Transcriptional results also support these findings, and the tissue-specific orchestration of stress response reflected the different metabolic capacities of targeted tissues. Indeed, the number of DE genes in response to studied stress stimuli varied across tissues (liver ≥ heart > skeletal muscle > blood). As a practical issue, the validity of blood for a non-invasive monitoring at the molecular level of hypoxia responses becomes limited to severe hypoxia, whereas the liver, heart and skeletal appears more sensitive, contributing to differentiate hypoxia and crowding stress responses.

4. Transient effects of hypoxia pre-conditioning during juvenile stages on metabolic condition and swimming performance

Environmental conditions encountered by living organisms during critical windows of early life stages can affect their development. This concept is termed developmental plasticity, and although the resulting modification of traits derived from an early challenge can often end in detrimental features, some of them can derive in adaptive changes. Indeed, adaptive developmental plasticity allows organisms to tune their phenotypes in response to certain environmental conditions in order to produce animals that are able to better tolerate similar conditions at later life stages. Thus, the application of metabolic priming becomes a tool of interest with a great potential for aquaculture production.

In zebrafish, for instance, it has been suggested that early hypoxia exposure may increase the subsequent hypoxia tolerance at adult stage (**Robertson *et al.*, 2014**). Similar long-term beneficial effects remain to be determined in marine water species. In European sea bass, the combined effect of hypoxia and temperature during the larval period resulted in adverse

carry-over effects in juvenile performance, including the prevalence of opercular abnormalities (Cádiz *et al.*, 2018). If this is the case of sea bream remains mostly unexplored, and we first assessed during the juvenile window stage the prevalence of potential benefits of hypoxia pre-conditioning upon metabolism and swimming performance, taking advantage of the new knowledge generated in previous sections.

4.1 Experimental setup- hypoxia pre-conditioning at juvenile stages

Juvenile fish (~24 g average body weight) were distributed in 90-L tanks of re-circulatory system previously detailed in Figure 4. Water temperature was daily monitored and maintained at 25-26°C. After 5 days of acclimation period, the water parameters of six tanks were kept unchanged, constituting the normoxic (>5.5 ppm O₂; >85% O₂ saturation) group. Fish maintained in the remaining six tanks experienced a gradual decrease in the water O₂ level until LOS (3.0 ppm, 42-43% O₂ saturation), constituting the hypoxic group (LOS). This hypoxic challenge lasted for six weeks, being fed all LOS fish to visual satiety one time per day with a commercial diet (EFICO Forte 824, BioMar). Three tanks of normoxic fish were also fed close to satiety, constituting the Normoxia group. The feeding level of the three remaining tanks was adjusted to that of the LOS group (Normoxia pair-fed).

At day 46, 6-10 fish (2-3 per tank) per experimental condition and following overnight fasting were anaesthetized with 3-aminobenzoic acid ethyl ester, weighed and sampled for blood and tissues. Liver and viscera were weighed, and representative biopsies of tissues (liver, skeletal muscle, heart, gills, anterior and posterior intestine) were immediately snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C for RNA extraction. Blood aliquots were processed for Hc and Hb using the same procedures as previously detailed. Plasma triglycerides (TG) were determined using lipase/glycerol kinase/glycerol-3-phosphate oxidase reagent (ThermoFisher Scientific). Quantitation of non-esterified fatty acids in plasma was conducted by means of the *in vitro* enzymatic colorimetric method of NEFA C test kit (Wako Chemicals GmbH). Other plasma biochemical and hormonal analysis were conducted as previously detailed.

At this stage, all the remaining fish were weighed and normoxia conditions were restored for all groups. This recovery period lasted for three weeks, and all fish were daily fed to visual satiety. During this period, swimming performance test were run at three time points: at the end of hypoxia challenge (T1, for all three experimental groups), one week after hypoxia pre-conditioning (T2, for Normoxia and LOS groups) and 3 weeks after hypoxia pre-conditioning (T3, Normoxia ad libitum and LOS). A schematic representation of the experimental procedure is detailed in Figure 9.

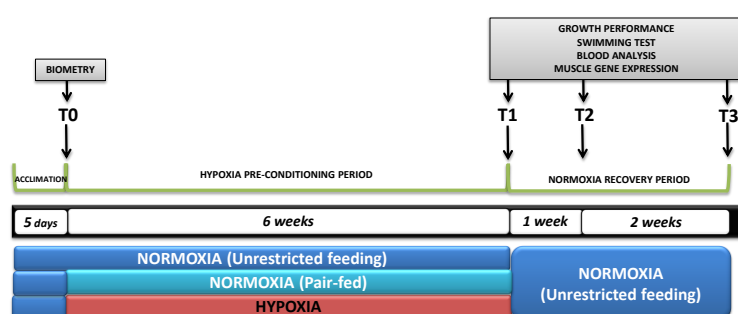


Figure 9. Experimental procedure of the hypoxia pre-conditioning of juvenile fish. The O₂ steady-state was set at ~3.0 ppm (42-43% O₂ saturation) in fish kept at LOS, whereas pair-fed and non-restricted normoxic fed fish were maintained above 5.5 ppm (>85 % O₂ saturation). After 6 weeks, all groups were restored to normoxia condition under non-restricted feeding for a 3-weeks extended period.

Fish metabolic rates and swimming performance were assessed in an intermittent-closed swim tunnel respirometer with a swimming chamber measuring 10 x 10 x 40 cm (10 L water volume, Model PA10500, Loligo® Systems; **Figure 10**). The swim tunnel was submerged into a water bath that served as a water reservoir for flushing the respirometer after each closed respirometry run (flush pump: Eheim 1048, 10 L/min). The water bath was connected by a second flush pump (Eheim 1250, 20 L/min) to a 100 L-reservoir tank coupled to the recirculatory system that provided water O₂ content close to LOS for all swimming performance tests. Unionized ammonia, nitrites and nitrates were at undetectable concentrations along experiments. A thruster within the respirometer was used to generate a swimming current. Water velocities in the swimming section were calibrated at the experimental temperature using a hand-held digital flow meter (Handheld flowtherm NT, Höntzsch GmbH) prior to experimentation, and ordered by the controller Movitrac® LTE 0.37kW/0.5HP (SEW Eurodrive). Respirometry runs and chamber flushing were controlled with the DAQ-M instrument (Loligo® Systems) connected to a PC equipped with AutoResp™ software (Loligo® Systems). Water temperature and O₂ saturation within the respirometer was measured using a Witrox 1 single channel oxygenmeter (Loligo® Systems), equipped with a needle-type fibre optical micro-sensor (NTH, PreSens-Precision Sensing GmbH) and a temperature probe (HTF50 Pt1000 1/3DIN, S+S Regeltechnik GmbH), suspended into the water current within the respirometer. Sensors were calibrated according to the manufacturer's instructions. The oxygen meter's analog output was also fed into the DAQ-M interface and processed using AutoResp™ software.

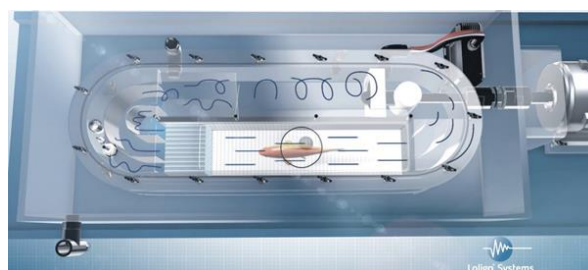


Figure 10. Loligo® System swimming chamber with respirometer.

Prior each exercise test, overnight fasted fish were slightly anaesthetized with MS-222 (100 mg/L seawater) to guarantee a safe transfer into the swim tunnel respirometer. Fish were then allowed to recover and acclimate to the swimming chamber at a swimming speed of 0.50-1.0 body lengths per second (BL/s) until their O₂ consumption rate (MO₂, mgO₂/kg/h) levelled out to a constant low plateau. This typically happened after 30-45 min, reaching values around 240-250 mgO₂/kg/h. Swim trials were performed between 9.00 and 16.00 h, but no differences associated circadian rhythms were observed. Trials started with a swimming velocity of 1.0 BL/s. Then, swimming velocity was increased in 0.50 BL/s steps per interval until the fish was exhausted. A fish was considered exhausted when it rested at the back grid of the swimming chamber for at least 10 s. Each swimming interval at a given velocity lasted 5 min, consisting in “flush-wait-measurement” cycles (a 60 s flush interval to exchange the respirometer water = “flush”; a 30 s mixing phase in closed mode = “wait”; and a 210 s MO₂ measuring period in closed mode). During the measurement interval, O₂ saturation of the swim tunnel water was recorded every second. MO₂ was automatically

calculated by the AutoRespTM software from linear decreases in chamber O₂ saturation using the appropriate constants for O₂ solubility in seawater (salinity, temperature and barometric pressure). The critical swimming speed (U_{crit}) was calculated using the equation previously described by **Brett (1964)**:

$$U_{crit} = u_{high} + [(t_{exh}/t_{inter}) \cdot u_{incr}]$$

being u_{high} the highest swimming velocity maintained for the entire time interval (BL/s); t_{exh} the time interval spent at the exhaustion velocity (min); t_{inter} the time interval at each swimming speed (5 min); and u_{incr} the velocity increment in each new interval (0.50 BL/s).

After the exercise test, fish were anesthetized and blood was withdrawn for biochemical and hormonal analysis as previously detailed. Fish were then killed by cervical section and representative biopsies of skeletal muscle were extracted for lactate determination and liquid nitrogen storage for subsequent RNA extraction and RNA-Seq analysis.

4.2 Growth and swimming performance after hypoxia pre-conditioning and normoxia recovery

During the hypoxia pre-conditioning period, normoxic unrestricted fed fish grew faster (78.69 g vs 66.06 g; SGR 2.59 % vs 2.23 %) than LOS fish ([Table 5](#)). The same trend was stated in the previous section in a 3 weeks factorial model of hypoxia and stocking densities. However, when the ration size in normoxia was lowered to that of the LOS group (Normoxia Pair-fed), biometric parameters were undistinguishable for both groups, pointing out that the differences in growth performance between normoxic and hypoxic groups can be mostly attributed to a reduced feed intake, which becomes especially evident in hypoxic crowded fish (see section 3).

As also shown in [Table 5](#), the return to normoxia values in the LOS group rapidly increased the voluntary feed intake at the same rates as the other two experimental groups under non-restricted feeding. Thus, the feed intake and percentage of weight gain one week after hypoxia pre-conditioning was almost the same in all three groups. Along the two following weeks, feed intake remained almost equal among experimental groups, though some compensatory growth was observed in Normoxia pair-fed and LOS groups, with a statistically significant increase of weight gain and SGR. Nonetheless, this compensatory growth was not enough to achieve in three weeks the same final body weight than that of the normoxic group fed to satiety along the entire experimental period.

Table 5. Effects of feeding regime and O₂ availability on sea bream growth performance during hypoxia pre-conditioning and the subsequent normoxic-unrestricted feeding period. Values on body weight, feed intake, growth and feed efficiency are the mean \pm SEM of replicate tanks. P-values are the result of one-way ANOVA. Different superscript letters indicate significant differences between experimental groups (SNK test, $P < 0.05$).

	Normoxia	Normoxia Pair-fed	LOS	P-value
<i>T0-T1 period</i>				
Initial body weight (g)	24.58 \pm 0.11	24.1 \pm 0.10	24.19 \pm 0.03	0.112
Final body weight (g)	78.69 \pm 0.79 ^b	66.13 \pm 1.41 ^a	66.06 \pm 0.97 ^a	<0.001
Feed intake (g DM/fish)	53.36 \pm 0.15 ^b	40.77 \pm 0.22 ^a	40.08 \pm 0.84 ^a	<0.001
Weight gain (%) ¹	220.30 \pm 2.03 ^b	174.51 \pm 4.50 ^a	173.22 \pm 3.86 ^a	<0.001
SGR (%) ²	2.59 \pm 0.01 ^b	2.24 \pm 0.04 ^a	2.23 \pm 0.03 ^a	<0.001
FE (%) ³	1.014 \pm 0.009	1.031 \pm 0.030	1.044 \pm 0.008	0.285
<i>T1-T2 period</i>				
Initial body weight (g)	78.69 \pm 0.67 ^b	66.13 \pm 1.41 ^a	66.06 \pm 0.97 ^a	<0.001
Final body weight (g)	98.76 \pm 1.20 ^b	83.50 \pm 0.50 ^a	82.00 \pm 1.14 ^a	<0.001
Feed intake (g DM/fish)	21.34 \pm 1.14	21.31 \pm 0.85	19.59 \pm 0.53	0.239
Weight gain (%) ¹	25.00 \pm 0.58	26.50 \pm 1.50	22.60 \pm 1.63	0.292
SGR (%) ²	2.48 \pm 0.05	2.61 \pm 0.16	2.27 \pm 0.15	0.351
FE (%) ³	0.92 \pm 0.04	0.89 \pm 0.01	0.83 \pm 0.06	0.552
<i>T2-T3 period</i>				
Initial body weight (g)	98.76 \pm 1.20 ^b	83.50 \pm 0.50 ^a	82.00 \pm 1.14 ^a	<0.001
Final body weight (g)	126.5 \pm 1.30 ^b	114.7 \pm 0.33 ^a	111.3 \pm 1.81 ^a	0.001
Feed intake (g DM/fish)	37.62 \pm 1.28	36.57 \pm 1.50	35.66 \pm 0.50	0.329
Weight gain (%) ¹	28.54 \pm 0.46 ^a	37.22 \pm 1.33 ^b	35.50 \pm 0.85 ^b	0.001
SGR (%) ²	1.79 \pm 0.03 ^a	2.26 \pm 0.07 ^b	2.19 \pm 0.04 ^b	<0.001
FE (%) ³	0.82 \pm 0.02	0.89 \pm 0.01	0.87 \pm 0.01	0.103

¹Weight gain (%) = (100 x body weight increase)/initial body weight

²Specific growth rate = 100 x (ln final body weight - ln initial body weight)/days

³Feed efficiency = wet weight gain/dry feed intake

⁴Hepatosomatic index = (100 x liver weight)/fish weight

⁵Viscerosomatic index = (100 x viscera weight)/fish weight

Blood parameters did not provide a clear group differentiation at the end of the hypoxia pre-conditioning period, except for plasma lactate levels, that were significantly decreased in Normoxia pair-fed and LOS fish (**Table 6**). Normoxia pair-fed fish also evidenced lower Hb levels. These features would be indicative of a state of hypo-metabolism, which was reinforced by a lowest concentration of circulating free fatty acids (lower tissue lipolytic rates) in LOS group. In contrast, these animals showed the highest concentration of circulating free fatty acids after exhaustive exercise at T1 (**Table 7**), which would support a better swimming performance in a state of low energy demand, as evidenced by lowered circulating cortisol and Gh levels, a trend that was also shown in exercised fish following one week of hypoxia pre-conditioning (T2). Exercise also induced higher accumulation of muscular lactate in LOS fish after the pre-conditioning period (T1), a feature that was retained in those animals in subsequent swimming tests conducted at one (T2) or three weeks (T3) after hypoxia-pre-conditioning. Plasma lactate levels were also increased in LOS fish after exercise at T2 and T3, as an indication of a higher activation of anaerobic metabolism in hypoxia pre-conditioned fish.

Table 6. Effects of feeding regime and O₂ availability on blood haematology and biochemistry at the end of hypoxia pre-conditioning period. Values are the mean \pm SEM of 6-10 fish (2-3 fish per replicate tank). P-values are the result of one-way ANOVA. Different superscript letters indicate significant differences between experimental groups (SNK test, P <0.05).

T1 sampling time	Normoxia	Normoxia Pair-fed	LOS	P-value
Haemoglobin (g)	8.36 \pm 0.38 ^b	6.43 \pm 0.64 ^a	7.88 \pm 0.22 ^b	0.011
Haematocrit (%)	34.67 \pm 1.24	33.67 \pm 0.99	31.00 \pm 1.41	0.175
Glucose (mg/dl)	57.14 \pm 5.98	55.73 \pm 2.29	56.86 \pm 2.35	0.493
Lactate (mg/dl)	14.14 \pm 0.15 ^b	6.32 \pm 0.57 ^a	4.18 \pm 0.77 ^a	<0.001
Triglycerides (mg/dl)	2.80 \pm 0.28	4.02 \pm 0.34	3.02 \pm 0.46	0.128
Free fatty acids (nmol/ μ l)	0.426 \pm 0.052 ^{ab}	0.595 \pm 0.045 ^b	0.388 \pm 0.045 ^a	0.029
Cortisol (ng/ml)	24.12 \pm 5.43	29.27 \pm 10.56	14.29 \pm 4.71	0.270
Growth hormone (ng/ml)	9.19 \pm 3.94	12.42 \pm 5.30	13.90 \pm 4.87	0.752
Insulin-like growth factor-I (ng/ml)	57.89 \pm 4.49	60.56 \pm 3.42	51.56 \pm 3.54	0.285

Table 7. Effects of hypoxia pre-conditioning and subsequent recovery (1 or 3 weeks) on blood and tissue biochemistry after swimming exercise until exhaustion. Values are the mean \pm SEM of 6-7 fish (2-3 fish per replicate tank). Statistically significant differences between experimental groups are indicated (* $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$; Student's t -test).

<i>T1 sampling time</i>	Normoxia	LOS	P-value
Glucose (mg/dl)	215.8 \pm 12.34	179.9 \pm 28.10	0.227
Lactate (mg/dl)	103.7 \pm 4.41	92.27 \pm 5.06	0.120
Muscular lactate (mg/g bm)	44.91 \pm 0.75	56.10 \pm 1.56***	<0.001
Triglycerides (mg/dl)	2.99 \pm 0.49	1.82 \pm 0.15	0.187
Free fatty acids (nmol/ μ l)	0.497 \pm 0.06	1.142 \pm 0.32*	0.047
Cortisol (ng/ml)	235.0 \pm 23.74	160.3 \pm 41.65	0.151
Growth hormone (ng/ml)	16.17 \pm 7.13	9.02 \pm 2.28	0.529
Insulin-like growth factor-I (ng/ml)	77.34 \pm 5.65	61.49 \pm 4.76	0.058
<i>T2 sampling time</i>			
Glucose (mg/dl)	225.6 \pm 10.18	168.6 \pm 17.39*	0.018
Lactate (mg/dl)	104.1 \pm 6.57	124.1 \pm 2.64*	0.017
Muscular lactate (mg/g bm)	50.65 \pm 1.86	59.27 \pm 3.13*	0.039
Triglycerides (mg/dl)	2.51 \pm 0.55	1.88 \pm 0.24	0.323
Free fatty acids (nmol/ μ l)	0.423 \pm 0.031	0.789 \pm 0.301	0.253
Cortisol (ng/ml)	293.5 \pm 41.24	165.3 \pm 46.59	0.066
Growth hormone (ng/ml)	21.85 \pm 3.51	10.51 \pm 2.84*	0.031
Insulin-like growth factor-I (ng/ml)	84.73 \pm 7.83	65.72 \pm 7.09	0.102
<i>T3 sampling time</i>			
Glucose (mg/dl)	211.9 \pm 11.76	210.5 \pm 13.54	0.936
Lactate (mg/dl)	104.5 \pm 7.19	126.4 \pm 4.59*	0.025
Muscular lactate (mg/g bm)	51.46 \pm 2.03	59.01 \pm 1.72*	0.015
Triglycerides (mg/dl)	2.66 \pm 0.32	2.75 \pm 0.25	0.836
Free fatty acids (nmol/ μ l)	0.537 \pm 0.119	0.635 \pm 0.114	0.549
Cortisol (ng/ml)	235.2 \pm 44.61	246.7 \pm 19.39	0.818
Growth hormone (ng/ml)	11.13 \pm 4.76	11.99 \pm 2.43	0.874
Insulin-like growth factor-I (ng/ml)	72.17 \pm 6.14	71.98 \pm 6.20	0.983

Swimming tests conducted at the end of the pre-conditioning period (T1) displayed similar MO_2 in fish coming from the normoxic or LOS groups (**Figure 11A**), but the latter fish were able to attain a much higher U_{crit} (**Figure 11D**). After one week in normoxia and unrestricted feeding (T2), the MO_2 consumption in the swimming test was sustainably higher for fish from the LOS group at water speeds higher than 4.5 BL/s, and the maximum rate of O_2 consumption (maximum metabolic rate, MMR) was also higher for this group (**Figure 11B**). This feature was accompanied by a much higher U_{crit} for hypoxia pre-conditioned fish (**Figure 11E**). Both results were indicative of an improvement of the aerobic scope and the swimming performance in the group of hypoxia pre-conditioning. This better performance was still reported after three weeks of return to normoxia (T3), though differences with the normoxic control group were diminished with respect to the previous T2 test (**Figures 11C, 11F**).

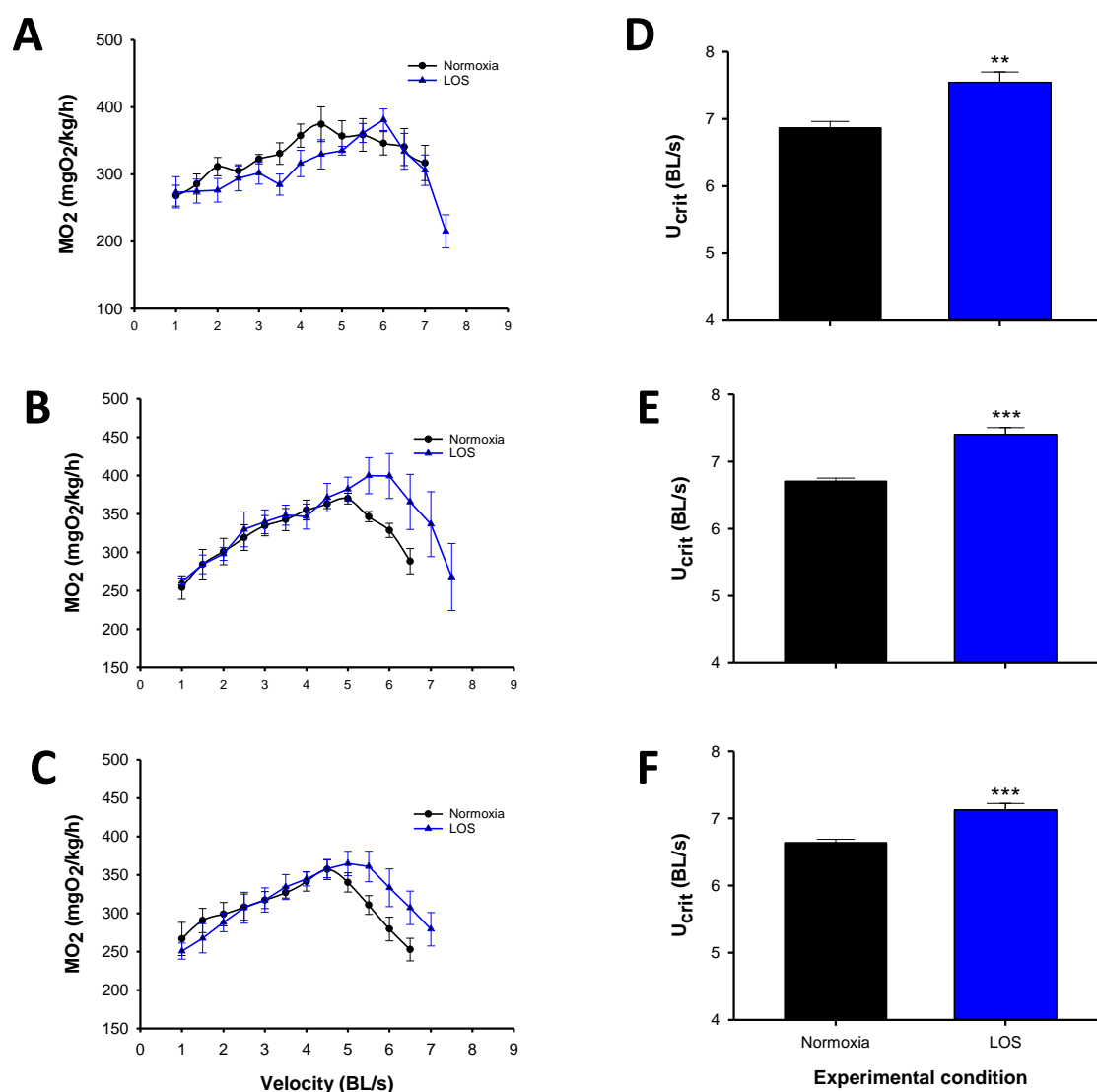


Figure 11. Effects of hypoxia pre-conditioning and subsequent recovery over swimming performance. (**A, B, C**) O_2 consumption rates for Normoxia (black) and LOS (blue) fish at T1, T2 and T3, respectively. (**D, E, F**) critical swimming speed (U_{crit}) at T1, T2 and T3, respectively. Values are the mean \pm SEM of 6-7 fish (2-3 fish per replicate tank). Asterisks indicate significant differences between experimental groups (t-test; ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$).

4.3 Main outcomes- hypoxia pre-conditioning at juvenile stages

Hypoxia pre-conditioning during juvenile stages reduced feed intake and growth, but some compensatory catch-up growth was evidenced thereafter with the return to normoxia under unrestricted feeding. At the end of trial, fish coming from LOS conditions still had a lower mean weight but their better growth during the recovery period suggested that similar body weight should be shortly achieved.

The exercise test under low O₂ concentration was aimed to evaluate the swimming performance after hypoxia pre-conditioning, and the results highlighted a higher resistance to exercise exhaustion. Nevertheless, this improved trait tended to disappear progressively over time. Hence, at 3 weeks after hypoxia pre-conditioning, the differences in blood parameters were less evident. Wide-transcriptomic profiling of skeletal muscle (RNA-seq) after exercise exhaustion also confirmed this issue (unpublished/non-delivered results), and the number of DE genes between both groups (Normoxia and LOS) consistently decreased during the normoxia recovery period.

Therefore, a transient improvement in swimming performance has been achieved by means of low O₂ metabolic priming in sea bream juveniles. However, effects on swimming and metabolic performance seem to be diluted over time, and we tested in a final set of experiments if this can be prolonged by earlier life interventions.

5. Potential benefits of metabolic endurance during early life stages to cope with more robust juvenile fish

5.1 Experimental setup of early life hypoxia pre-conditioning

Larvae of sea bream at 45 days post-hatching (dph) and weaned with inert diet were provided by Piscimar (Burriana, Spain) and transferred to IATS-CSIC facilities. The specimens were acclimated in 500-L tanks under natural photoperiod and temperature conditions for 15 days. Feeding was carried out to visual satiety seven times every day with commercial fish diets (Gemma wean 0.2, 0.3, 0.5 Skretting) and water quality was daily checked. After the acclimatization period, 60 dph larvae (mean weight 137 mg) were distributed in six 90-L tanks (n = 150 larvae per tank). The level of dissolved O₂ was maintained in all tanks at 5.8 ppm for two days, and then the O₂ level was gradually decreased in 3 tanks up to 3.8 ppm after 24 h. This low O₂ concentration (3.6-3.8 ppm) was maintained for 21 days (60-81 dph) and normoxia was restored for all tanks up to 112 dph. Then, fish from each tank were distributed in other two tanks (n = 40 fish per tank, mean weight 6.95 g) and O₂ levels were lowered for half of them to 3.6-3.8 ppm during 15 days in order to get four experimental groups according to the normoxic (N) or hypoxic (H) conditions during the 60-81 dph and 112-127 dph time windows (**Figure 12**): NNN, NNH, HNN and HNH. At this stage, overnight fasted fish (n = 12 for each experimental condition) were retrieved, anaesthetized with MS-222 and blood was taken from caudal vessels with EDTA-treated syringes. Blood aliquots were processed as described elsewhere for Hc and Hb. After centrifugation (3,000 x g, 20 min, 4 °C), plasma samples were frozen and stored at -20 °C until determination of glucose and lactate levels as previously detailed. Other aliquots were processed as described elsewhere for Hc and Hb.

Then, all groups were returned to normoxia for 15 days, and 50 randomly selected fish (mean weight 24.4 g) per experimental condition were individually tagged in the dorsal muscle with passive integrated transponders (PIT-tags, ID-100A 1.25 Nano Transponder). These fish were reared together in 3000-L tanks ("common garden") for 3 months until final assessment of swimming performance, following the procedure detailed in Section 4.1 under moderate hypoxic conditions (3.6-3.8 ppm) at 23-24°C.

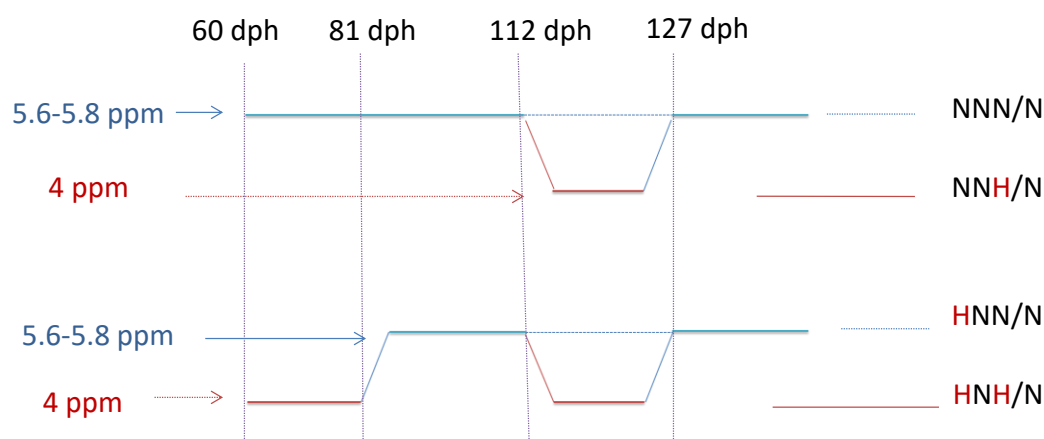


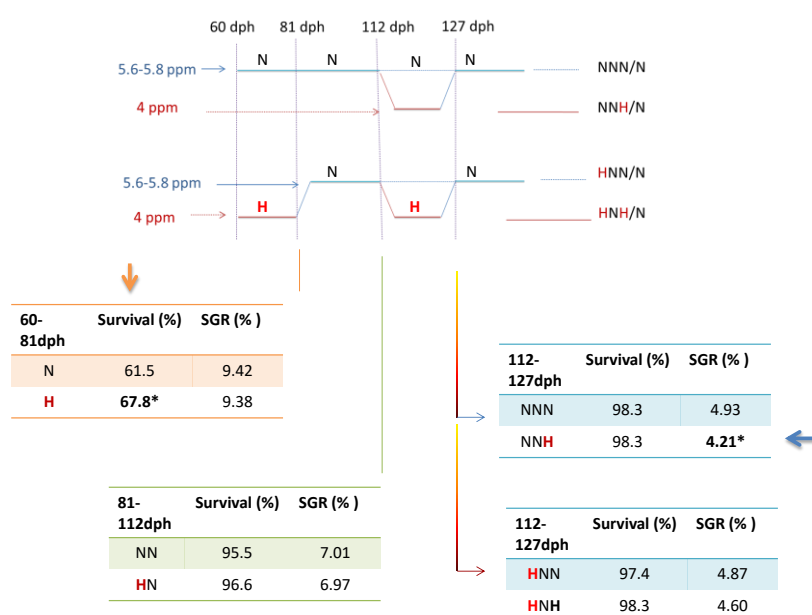
Figure 12. Experimental procedure of the metabolic priming of sea bream early life stages to low O₂ concentration in two time windows (60-81 dph and/or 112-127 dph). The steady-state was set at ~3.6-3.8 ppm O₂ in fish kept under hypoxia (H), whereas fish maintained in normoxia (N) were at a concentration of > 5.5 ppm O₂. Recovery of normoxic conditions for all groups (/N) lasted for 3 months in common garden until final swimming performance tests.

5.2 Early effects on growth and metabolic performance

Fish grew at very high rates at the beginning of trial (SGR >9) and exposure of fish to reduced O₂ concentrations during the 60-200 dph period did not have a negative impact of growth. Moreover, the reduction of O₂ availability increased survival rates more than 10% in NH group (Figure 13). A possible explanation is that hypoxia protocol helps to minimize the oxidative stress of the disproportionate growth of early life stages. This is supported by the observation that other sparid fish, such as common dentex, have increased growth but also very high mortalities, which do not make feasible its farming at industrial scale.

Noticeably, with the reduction of SGR until 5%, mortality rates were mostly negligible and hypoxia priming minimized the reduction of growth in fish exposed again at low O₂ concentrations in HNH group. In contrast, a significant reduction of SGR was found in NNH group in comparison to NNN.

Figure 13. Survival rates and SGR for each experimental group at each normoxia (N) /hypoxia (H) time window.



After the second hypoxia challenge (112-127 dph), plasma Hb levels clearly reflected the O₂ concentration, being the measured values in NNN and HNN fish significantly lower than those found in NNH and HNH fish (**Figure 14A**). In contrast, plasma lactate levels highly revealed the early hypoxia exposure, with the lowest levels in NNN and NNH fish (**Figure 14B**). This apparent controversial finding would be indicative of a higher basal metabolism in HNN and HNH. Likewise, acute embryonic anoxia exposure favors the development of a dominant and aggressive phenotype in adult zebrafish (*Ivy et al., 2017*). If this is also indicative of a different behavior in sea bream remains unclear, though as reported below a different swimming performance was evidenced as a persistent phenotypic trait in fish early exposed to moderate hypoxia.

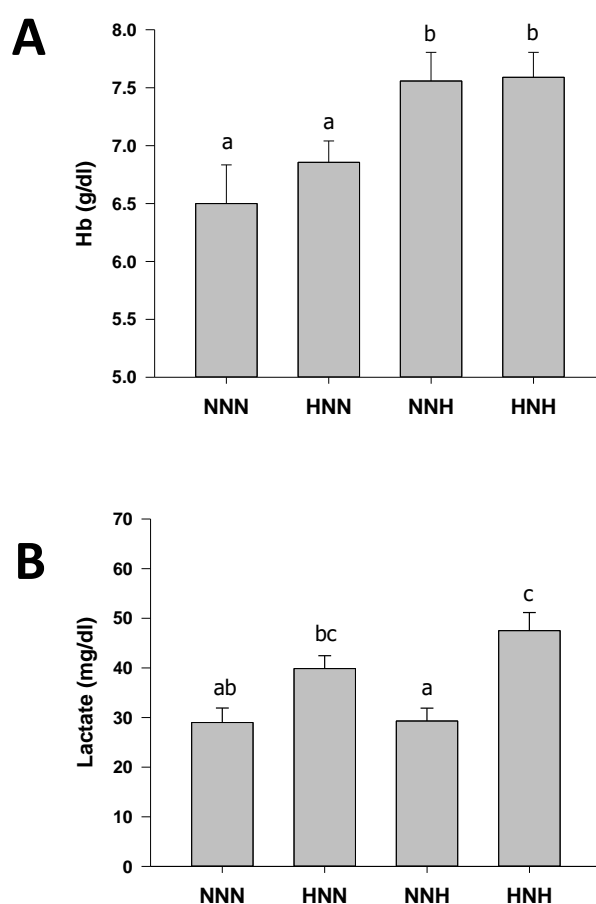


Figure 14. Blood physiological hallmarks in response to early (60-81 dph) and late (112-127 dph) hypoxia priming. **(A)** Blood hemoglobin levels. **(B)** Plasma lactate levels. All values are the mean \pm SEM of 12 fish. Different superscript letters indicate significant differences between experimental groups (one-way ANOVA followed by SNK test, $P < 0.05$).

5.3 Persistence of early hypoxia pre-conditioning in sea bream

After the second exposure to low O₂ concentrations, fish continued to grow normally with a final body weight close to 60 g at the last recording time. At this stage, no significant differences were found among groups, and all fish were put together for graph simplicity.

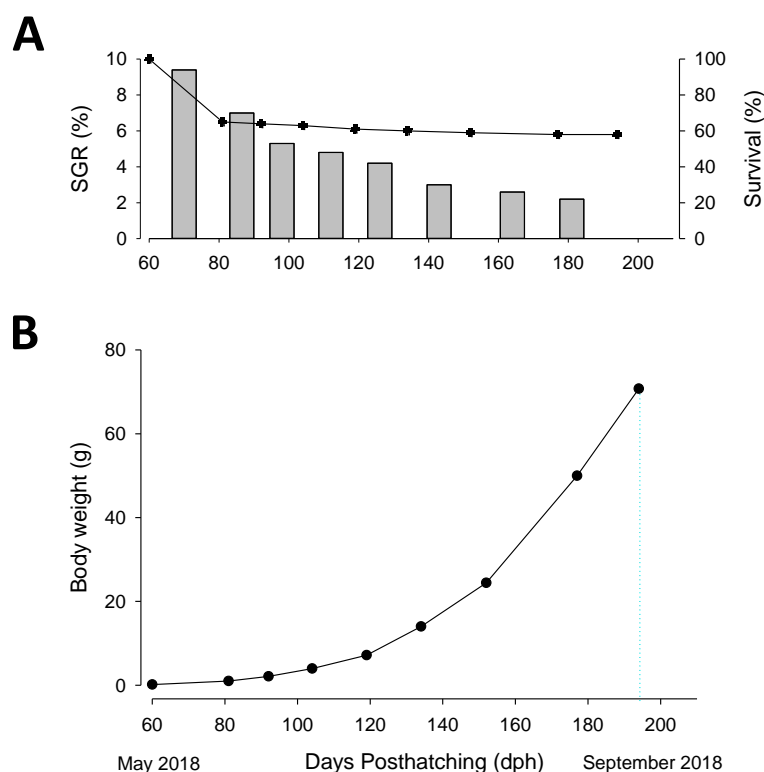


Figure 15. **(A)** Data on growth and survival rates through all the experimental period (60-200 dph). **(B)** Body weight evolution.

Also, the four experimental groups attained similar U_{crit} (around 5.5-5.9 BL/s) and MMR values (290-325 mgO₂/kg/h) in the swimming test (Table 8). However, when data were analysed more in depth, two main metabolic patterns with different rates of MO₂ at high speed levels was observed. This corresponded to two merged groups: NNN-NNH (N ini) and HNN-HNH (H ini). Such approach revealed a different aerobic scope for the two groups, and although the MO₂ were quite variable at each swimming speed (Figure 16), it became evident that at water speeds of 4.0 BL/s or higher, fish early primed with low O₂ concentrations showed significantly lowered MO₂. This is indicative of an increased anaerobic contribution to the swimming activity. If this is related to different fish behaviour in normally exercised fish remains unclear, and further studies are underway to determine if this feature is associated to productive traits related to fish exercise and fillet quality.

Table 8. Performance parameters (U_{crit} and MMR) of experimental fish forced to swimming till exhaustion in a swim tunnel respirometer. No significant differences were found between experimental groups. Values represent the mean and SEM of 5-6 fish. One-way ANOVA analysis did not evidence significant ($P < 0.05$) differences between experimental groups.

Group	U_{crit}		MMR	
	(BL/s)	SEM	(mgO ₂ /kg/h)	SEM
NNN	5.85	0.20	323.45	13.83
HNN	5.79	0.08	289.16	20.30
NNH	5.57	0.13	306.30	11.35
HNH	5.48	0.10	307.03	5.01

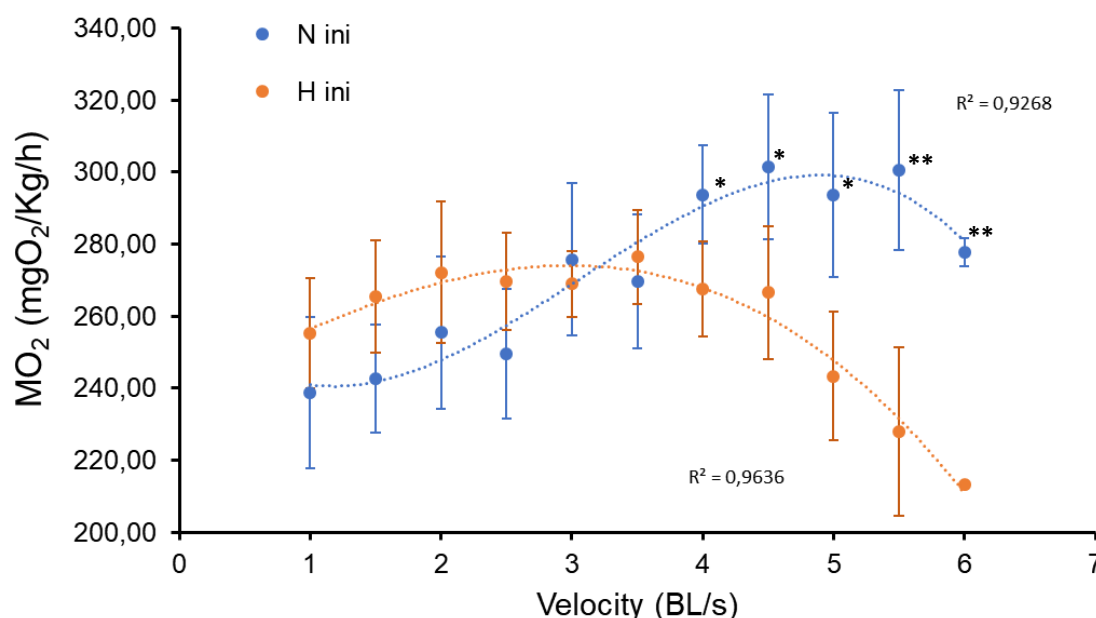


Figure 16. Effect of swimming speed and 60-81 dph priming on O₂ consumption rates (MO₂). Values are the mean \pm SEM of 10 fish. Polynomial regression of the MO₂ dynamic of each experimental group is represented for clarification. Asterisks indicate significant differences between experimental groups at a given velocity (t -test, * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$).

5.4 Main outcomes- hypoxia pre-conditioning at early stages

Exposure to low O₂ levels at early life stages (60-81 dph) did not result in any detrimental trait in the later juvenile performance. Moreover, convenient endurance features have been reported up to five months after the first challenging stimulus. Plasma lactate emerged as a fair indicator of this earlier metabolic priming, with increased levels in “H ini” fish (HNN-HNH). This feature should be envisaged not only as a better adaptation to shift from aerobic to anaerobic metabolism, but also as a putative indicator of different fish behavior in tank/cages, which become of potential interest for fillet quality traits. This was supported by the results of swimming performance, which evidenced a higher contribution of anaerobic metabolism at high speed. If this implies a different endurance training or recovery time after exhaustive exercise remains to be determined in current studies.

Concluding remarks

Long-lasting effects of hypoxia exposure have been assessed in order to identify metabolic indicators that ensure proper adaptive responses to low O₂ concentrations in sea bream juveniles.

Severe hypoxia promotes a shift from aerobic to anaerobic metabolism, reduces basal metabolism and triggers more efficient mitochondrial respiration to increase aerobic energy production.

Moderate hypoxia (above LOS levels) during the juvenile stage reduces feed intake and growth. This effect is potentiated by crowding stress, although feed efficiency is not compromised and to some extent it is improved, which reflects the high metabolic and growth plasticity of farmed sea bream.

At the molecular level, different adaptive mechanisms in juvenile fish were outlined, highlighting different tissue responsiveness according to the different tissue capabilities and the nature and severity of the hypoxia stimuli.

Hypoxic pre-conditioning (above LOS levels) during early life does not compromise final juvenile weight and triggers persistent metabolic effects that improve the aerobic scope and swimming performance later in life. This very promising result is one of the first evidence in typically marine fish of early environmental imprinting that might involve different epigenetic mechanisms.

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Glossary

AQUAEXCEL²⁰²⁰: AQUAculture Infrastructures for EXCELlence in European Fish Research towards 2020

BL/s: Body lengths per second

DE: Differentially expressed

dph: Days post-hatching

FE: Feed efficiency

Gh: Growth hormone

Hb: Haemoglobin

Hc: Haematocrit

HSI: Hepatosomatic index

Igf: Insulin-like growth factor

LOS: Limiting oxygen saturation

MCH: Mean corpuscular haemoglobin

MCHC: Mean corpuscular haemoglobin concentration

MCV: Mean corpuscular volume

MMR: maximum metabolic rate

MO₂: Oxygen consumption rate

MSI: Mesenteric fat index

OXPHOS: Oxidative phosphorylation

PLS-DA: Partial least-squares discriminant analysis

RBC: Red blood cells

SGR: Specific growth rate

TAA: Total antioxidant activity

TG: Triglycerides

U_{crit}: Critical swimming speed

VIP: Variable importance in projection

Document information

EU Project N°	652831	Acronym	AQUAEXCEL ²⁰²⁰
Full Title	AQUAculture Infrastructures for EXCELlence in European Fish Research towards 2020		
Project website	www.aquaexcel2020.eu		

Deliverable	N°	D6.2	Title	Effect of early life oxygen concentration in sea bream
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Date of delivery	Contractual	31/10/2018 (Month 36)	Actual	06/03/2019 (Month 42)
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		CO Confidential, restricted under conditions set out in Model Grant Agreement		
		CI Classified, information as referred to in Commission Decision 2001/844/EC.		

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Annex 1: Check list

Deliverable Check list (to be checked by the “Deliverable leader”)

	Check list		Comments
BEFORE	I have checked the due date and have planned completion in due time	Yes	<i>Please inform Management Team of any foreseen delays</i>
	The title corresponds to the title in the DOW	Yes	<i>If not please inform the Management Team with justification</i>
	The dissemination level corresponds to that indicated in the DOW	Yes	
	The contributors (authors) correspond to those indicated in the DOW	Yes	
	The Table of Contents has been validated with the Activity Leader	Yes	<i>Please validate the Table of Content with your Activity Leader before drafting the deliverable</i>
	I am using the AQUAEXCEL ²⁰²⁰ deliverable template (title page, styles etc)	Yes	<i>Available in “Useful Documents” on the collaborative workspace</i>
The draft is ready			
AFTER	I have written a good summary at the beginning of the Deliverable	Yes	<i>A 1-2 pages maximum summary is mandatory (not formal but really informative on the content of the Deliverable)</i>
	The deliverable has been reviewed by all contributors (authors)	Yes	<i>Make sure all contributors have reviewed and approved the final version of the deliverable. You should leave sufficient time for this validation.</i>
	I have done a spell check and had the English verified	Yes	
	I have sent the final version to the WP Leader, to the 2 nd Reviewer and to the Project coordinator (cc to the project manager) for approval	Yes	<i>Send the final draft to your WPLLeader, the 2nd Reviewer and the coordinator with cc to the project manager on the 1st day of the due month and leave 2 weeks for feedback. Inform the reviewers of the changes (if any) you have made to address their comments. Once validated by the 2 reviewers and the coordinator, send the final version to the Project Manager who will then submit it to the EC.</i>

Annex 2: Open Access scientific publication

Martos-Sitcha et al. *Frontiers in Zoology* (2017) 14:34

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Background

Among the abiotic factors, dissolved oxygen (O_2) is particularly important as the major limiting factor of fish aerobic metabolism [1, 2]. When regulatory mechanisms are no longer sufficient to maintain the O_2 consumption rate (MO_2), further reductions in MO_2 occur at a certain level of O_2 saturation [3]. This threshold is termed the limiting oxygen saturation (LOS) in fed fish able to maintain a routine metabolic rate, and according to the oxystatic control theory of feed intake, fish adjust their feed intake to meet dietary O_2 demands [4]. Therefore, changes in LOS, produced by fluctuations in O_2 solubility associated with variations in water temperature, should be considered and regulated to ensure a non-compromised physiological function and guarantee the welfare of farmed fish fed high or low O_2 -demanding diets [5, 6]. This regulation is mediated through O_2 sensors that trigger anaerobic metabolic rates to compensate for the decreasing aerobic ATP production [7, 8]. For this purpose, eukaryotic cells switch from mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) to the less efficient anaerobic glycolytic pathway, which induces stress and lactic acidosis (reviewed in [9]). The hallmarks of human muscle adaptation to hypoxia are a decrease in muscle oxidative capacity concomitant with a decrease in aerobic work capacity [10, 11]. In this regard, hypo-metabolic states should be considered as part of the adaptive response to hypoxia instead of a negative result in hypoxia-tolerant individuals [12] since this metabolic depression prevents the accumulation of toxic by-products from anaerobic metabolism [13].

In fish, microarray gene expression profiling of liver and skeletal muscle demonstrated that metabolic suppression is a key adaptive strategy in the hypoxic goby fish, *Gillichthys mirabilis*, to drive energy resources from growth towards metabolic processes that are essential for hypoxia survival [14]. However, in *Fundulus grandis*, both cardiac and hepatic tissues displayed increases in the gene expression of different enzyme subunits of the OXPHOS pathway in response to short-term hypoxic exposure [15]. Similarly, confounding results have been reported in European sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*), as early life exposure to moderate hypoxia has long-lasting detrimental effects on growth performance with no improvement of hypoxia tolerance in juvenile fish despite the enhanced expression of glycolytic enzymes, which are target genes of hypoxia-inducible factors [16]. Whether this response is tissue- or fish species-specific remains unclear. Importantly, the red blood cells (RBC) of fish and almost all amphibians, reptiles and birds retain a nucleus and functional mitochondria [17]. These RBCs present new research opportunities, and previous research attempts have demonstrated that the expression of mitochondrial uncoupling proteins is highly regulated

by hypoxia stimuli in the whole blood cells of gilthead sea bream (*Sparus aurata*) [8]. Certainly, fish microarray meta-analysis revealed that mitochondria are particularly sensitive to cellular stress triggered by a wide range of nutritional and environmental stress stimuli [18]. Hence, a PCR-array containing 88 mitochondrial-related markers has been useful to examine changes in hepatic and muscle metabolism in response to short-term fasting [19] or aquaculture stressors that mimic thermal stress and daily operational farming activities in gilthead sea bream [20]. There is little information on blood transcriptomics, and the aim of the present study was to provide new insights into the regulation and adaptive responses of hypoxic metabolism in fish, combining non-invasive transcriptional approaches based on mitochondrial markers with conventional measures of blood haematology and biochemistry. This type of approach is crucial to determine whether samples collected without sacrificing animals provide a reliable measure of mitochondrial functioning and energy metabolism at the level of the whole organism.

Methods

Animal care

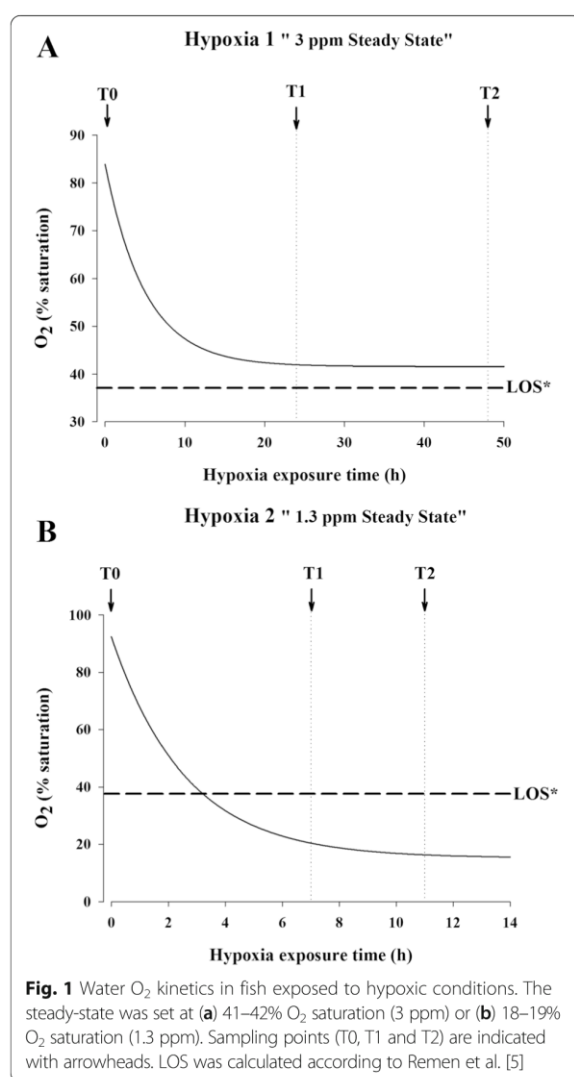
Juvenile gilthead sea bream of Atlantic origin (Ferme Marine du Douhet, Bordeaux, France) were reared from early life stages at the indoor experimental facilities of the Institute of Aquaculture Torre de la Sal (IATS-CSIC, Castellón, Spain) under natural photoperiod and temperature conditions at our latitude (40°5'N; 0°10'E). Seawater was pumped ashore (open system) and filtered through a 10- μ m filter. The O_2 content of water effluents under standard conditions remained consistently higher than 85% saturation, and unionised ammonia under both control and experimental conditions remained below toxic levels (<0.02 mg/L). For sampling, the fish were anaesthetised using 3-aminobenzoic acid ethyl ester (100 mg/L), and blood was drawn from caudal vessels using EDTA-treated syringes.

Experimental setup and sampling

Juvenile fish of 230–260 g body weight were distributed in 500-L tanks (16 fish per tank) allocated in a recirculatory system equipped with physical and biological filters and programmable temperature. The water temperature was maintained at 20–21 °C. Fish were fed daily to visual satiety using a commercial diet (INICIO Forte 824/EFICO Forte 824; BioMar, Palencia, Spain), and all fish were fasted during the hypoxia challenges. The water conditions for the control fish (normoxic fish) remained unchanged, whereas hypoxic fish experienced a gradual decrease in the water O_2 concentration until reaching i) 3.0 ppm (41–42% O_2 saturation; moderate hypoxia, H1) for 24 h or ii) 1.3 ppm (18–19% O_2 saturation; severe hypoxia, H2) for up to 4 h in two different

hypoxic tests (Fig. 1). Both low dissolved O₂ levels tested were obtained by the cessation of normal aeration in the tank, achieving an accurate balance between the consumption rates of the animals and the supply of clean and oxygenated water by means of an electrovalve within the established O₂ steady-state condition.

In each test, normoxic or hypoxia-challenged fish were sampled at three different sampling points after decreasing the water O₂ concentration (8 fish per time and condition): i) H1: T0, T1 (24 h), T2 (48 h), and ii) H2: T0, T1 (7 h), T2 (11 h). One blood aliquot (150 µL) was directly collected into a microtube containing 500 µL of stabilising lysis solution (REAL Total RNA Spin Blood Kit, Durviz, Valencia, Spain) and stored at -80 °C until total RNA extraction. Other aliquots were processed for haematocrit (Hc) and haemoglobin (Hb) determinations.



The remaining blood was centrifuged at 3000 × g for 20 min at 4 °C, and the plasma samples were frozen and stored at -20 °C until biochemical and hormonal analyses were performed.

Blood biochemistry and hormonal parameters

Hc was measured using heparinised capillary tubes centrifuged at 1500 × g for 30 min in a Sigma 1–14 centrifuge (Sigma, Osterode am Harz, Germany). The Hb concentration was assessed using a Hemocue Hb 201+ (Hemocue, Ängelholm, Sweden). Plasma glucose was analysed using the glucose oxidase method (Thermo Electron, Louisville, CO, USA). Blood lactate was measured in deproteinised samples (perchloric acid 8%) using an enzymatic method based on the use of lactate dehydrogenase (Instruchemie, Delfzijl, The Netherlands). Total antioxidant capacity in plasma samples was measured using a commercial kit (Cayman Chemical, Ann Arbor, MI, USA) adapted to 96-well microplates. This assay relies on the ability of the antioxidants in the samples to inhibit the oxidation of ABTS (2,2'-azino-di-[3-ethylbenzothiazoline sulphonate]) to the ABTS radical cation by metamyoglobin, a derivatised form of myoglobin. The capacity of the sample to prevent ABTS oxidation was compared with that of Trolox (water-soluble tocopherol analogue) and quantified as mM Trolox equivalents. Plasma cortisol levels were analysed using an EIA kit (Kit RE52061 m IBL, International GmbH, Germany). The limit of detection of the assay was 2.46 ng/mL with intra- and inter-assay coefficients of variation lower than 3% and 5%, respectively. Plasma insulin-like growth factors (Igf) were extracted using acid-ethanol cryoprecipitation [21], and the concentration was measured using a generic fish Igf-I RIA validated for Mediterranean perciform fish [22]. The sensitivity and midrange of the assay were 0.05 and 0.7–0.8 ng/mL, respectively.

Gene expression analysis

Total RNA from total blood cells was extracted using the REAL Total RNA Spin Blood Kit (Durviz) including a DNase step. The RNA yield was >2.5 µg, with absorbance measures (A_{260/280}) of 1.9–2.1. The cDNA was synthesised using the High-Capacity cDNA Archive Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) with random decamers and 500 ng of total RNA in a final volume of 100 µL. Reverse transcription (RT) reactions were incubated for 10 min at 25 °C and 2 h at 37 °C. Negative control reactions were run without the RT enzyme. qPCR was performed using an Eppendorf Mastercycler Ep Realplex Real-Time Detection System (Eppendorf, Wesseling-Berzdorf, Germany). Diluted RT reactions were conveniently used for qPCR assays in 25 µL volume in combination with a SYBR Green Master

Mix (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA) and specific primers at a final concentration of 0.9 μ M (Additional file 1: Table S1). The 96-well PCR-array layout was designed for the simultaneous profiling of a panel of 85 mitochondrial genes under uniform cycling conditions and associated with different biological processes, such as molecular chaperones (7), antioxidant defence (8), transcription factors (5), outer and inner membrane translocation (8), mitochondrial dynamics and apoptosis (10), fatty acid oxidation and the tricarboxylic acid cycle (5), OXPHOS (41) and respiration uncoupling (1). The programme used for PCR amplification included an initial denaturation step at 95 °C for 3 min, followed by 40 cycles of denaturation for 15 s at 95 °C and annealing/extension for 60 s at 60 °C. All the pipetting operations were conducted using an EpMotion 5070 Liquid Handling Robot (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany) to improve data reproducibility. The efficiency of PCRs (>92%) was assessed, and the specificity of the reactions was verified through an analysis of melting curves (ramping rates of 0.5 °C/10 s over a temperature range of 55–95 °C) and linearity of serial dilutions of the RT reactions (>0.99). Fluorescence data acquired during the extension phase were normalised using the delta-delta C_T method [23]. A range of potential housekeeping genes (β -actin, *cox4a*, *elongation factor 1*, α -tubulin and 18S rRNA) was initially tested for gene expression stability using Genorm software. The most stable gene in relation to different experimental conditions (normoxia and hypoxia) was *cox4a* (M score = 0.31); therefore, this gene was used as the housekeeping gene in the normalisation procedure. For multi-gene analysis, the data on gene expression were in reference to the expression level of *sod1* obtained in normoxic fish, for which a value of 1 was arbitrarily assigned (Table 1).

This manuscript follows the ZFIN Zebrafish Nomenclature Guidelines for gene and protein names and symbols (<https://wiki.zfin.org/display/general/ZFIN+Zebrafish+Nomenclature+Guidelines>).

Statistical analysis

The data on biochemical and hormonal parameters were analysed using two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), followed by the Holm-Sidak test. The data on gene expression were analysed using Student's *t* test. The significance level was set at $P < 0.05$. All analyses were performed using SigmaPlot Version 13 for Windows.

Results

Hypoxic effects on blood haematology and biochemistry

Over the course of the first hypoxia test (H1, 41–42% O₂ saturation), measurements of haematological parameters

and plasma glucose and lactate levels remained unaltered in both normoxic (>85% O₂ saturation) and hypoxia-challenged fish (Fig. 2a, c, e and g, respectively). In contrast, these parameters significantly increased in fish exposed to severe hypoxia (H2, 18–19% O₂ saturation) (Fig. 2b, d, f and h). The same trend was observed for total plasma antioxidant activity and plasma cortisol levels (Fig. 3a, b), although the cortisol increase was more pronounced at the last sampling point. The opposite regulation was observed for circulating Igf-I, although a statistically significant effect was observed at the last sampling point (Fig. 3c). No variations in all the parameters studied were observed in fish maintained under normoxic conditions in sub-experiment H2.

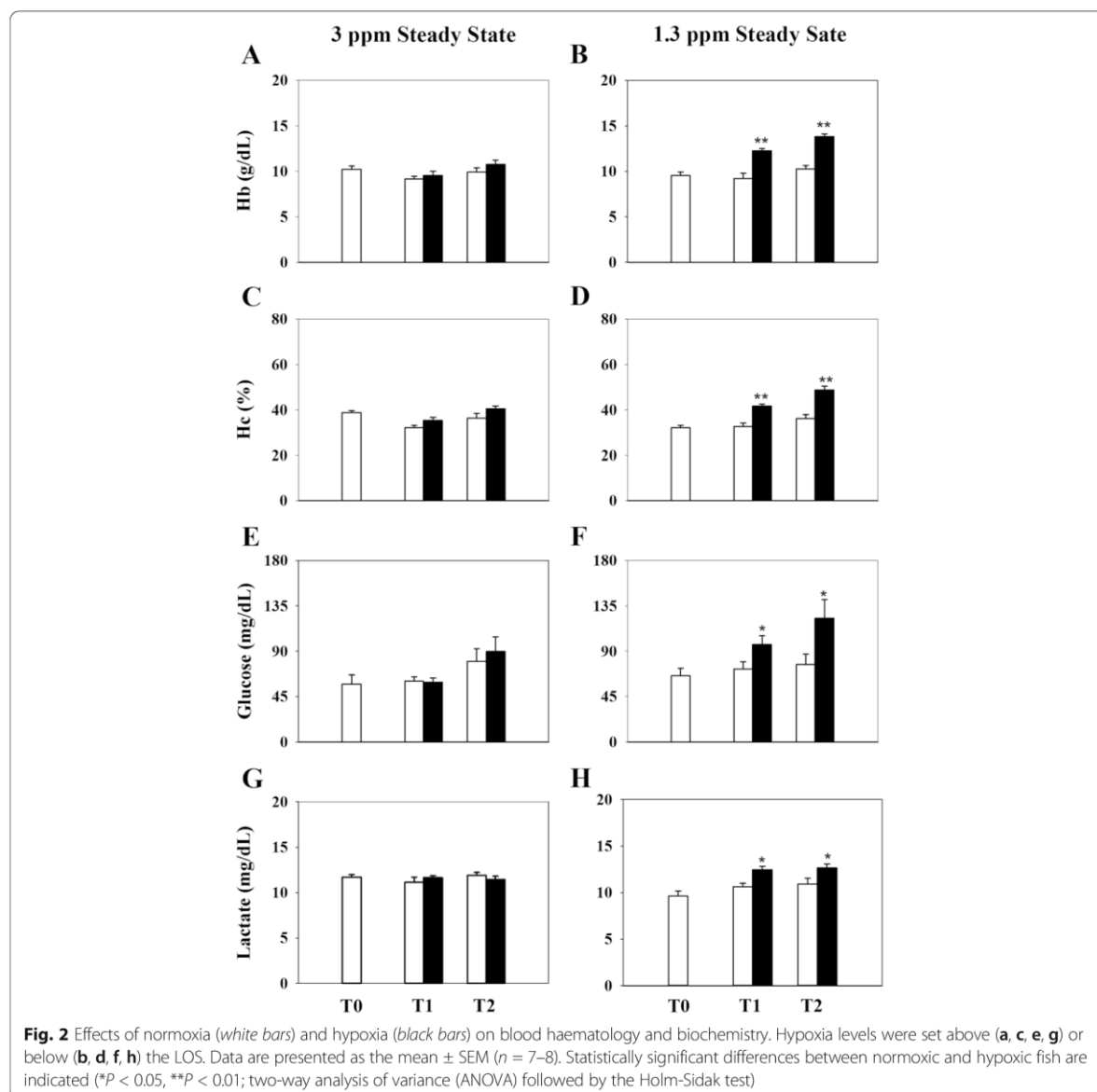
Hypoxic effects in whole blood cell gene expression profiling

Based on the results of hormonal and metabolic parameters, gene expression profiling of whole blood cells was restricted to the last sampling point of the severe hypoxia experiment (H2). The relative gene expression and fold-changes (FC) of mitochondrial-related genes are summarised in Table 1. For easier interpretation and visualisation of the results, the FC of differentially expressed genes is indicated using square symbols in red (up-regulated) or green (down-regulated). With the exception of *pgc1 α* , all the genes included in the array were detected in all samples analysed. Among these genes, 41 out of 84 were differentially expressed, and the overall response involved repressed expression in response to severe hypoxia. This response was mediated by antioxidant enzymes (*gpx1*, *gst3*, and *sod2*), the transcription factor *nrf1*, outer and inner membrane translocases (*tom70*, *tom22*, *tim44*, *tim10*, and *tim9*), markers of mitochondrial dynamics and apoptosis (*mfn2*, *miffb*, *miro1a*, *miro2*, and *aifm1*), fatty acid β -oxidation (*acaa2* and *hadh*), tricarboxylic acid cycle (*cs*), respiration uncoupling (*ucp2*) and respiratory enzyme subunits of Complex I (*ndufa3*, *ndufa4*, *ndufa7*, *ndufb5*, and *ndufs7*), Complex II (*sdha*, *sdhaf1*, and *sdhaf2*), Complex III (*uqcrc1*, *uqcrc2*, and *uqcrh*) and Complex V (*atp5c1*, *atp5g1*, *atp5l*, and *atpaf2*), encoded by either mitochondrial or nuclear DNA. The nuclear-encoded assembly factors of Complex IV (*sco1*, *surf1*, and *cox15*) were also significantly down-regulated, but the opposite trend was observed for catalytic (*coxi*) and regulatory (*cox5a2* and *cox8b*) enzyme subunits of mitochondrial or nuclear origin, respectively. This up-regulation was also observed for the transcription factor *pgc1 β* and the outer membrane translocase *tom34*. The molecular chaperones were the only factors that did not significantly change under hypoxic conditions, although the overall trend was a down-regulation in hypoxic fish.

Table 1 Relative gene expression of mitochondrial-related genes in total blood cells

Gene name	Symbol	Relative expression		FC
		Control	Hypoxia	
Molecular chaperones				
10 kDa heat shock protein	<i>hsp10</i>	0.40 ± 0.03	0.30 ± 0.07	-1.34
40 kDa heat shock protein DnaJ (Hsp40) homolog, subfamily A, member 3A	<i>dnaja3a</i>	0.17 ± 0.02	0.12 ± 0.02	-1.49
Iron-sulfur cluster co-chaperone protein HscB	<i>dnajc20</i>	0.06 ± 0.01	0.05 ± 0.01	-1.26
60 kDa heat shock protein	<i>hsp60</i>	0.19 ± 0.02	0.15 ± 0.03	-1.25
75 kDa Glucose-regulated protein	<i>grp75</i>	0.30 ± 0.03	0.23 ± 0.03	-1.34
Derlin-1	<i>der-1</i>	0.19 ± 0.02	0.23 ± 0.04	1.19
Glucose-regulated protein, 170 kDa	<i>grp-170</i>	0.36 ± 0.06	0.27 ± 0.04	-1.35
Antioxidant enzymes				
Catalase	<i>cat</i>	4.85 ± 0.52	3.94 ± 0.38	-1.23
Glutathione peroxidase 1	<i>gpx1</i>	18.26 ± 1.33	13.90 ± 1.25*	-1.31
Glutathione reductase	<i>gr</i>	0.38 ± 0.06	0.26 ± 0.03	-1.47
Glutathione S-transferase 3	<i>gst3</i>	0.17 ± 0.06	0.02 ± 0.01*	-9.68
Peroxisdioxin 3	<i>pxd3</i>	0.23 ± 0.04	0.21 ± 0.03	-1.14
Peroxisdioxin 5	<i>pxd5</i>	0.34 ± 0.04	0.26 ± 0.03	-1.30
Superoxide dismutase [Cu-Zn]	<i>sod1</i>	1.08 ± 0.08	1.12 ± 0.11	1.05
Superoxide dismutase [Mn]	<i>sod2</i>	0.55 ± 0.05	0.28 ± 0.05**	-1.97
Transcription factors				
GA-binding protein alpha chain	<i>gabpa</i>	0.31 ± 0.06	0.18 ± 0.02	1.66
Mitochondrial transcription factor A	<i>mt-tfa</i>	0.13 ± 0.02	0.09 ± 0.02	-1.52
Nuclear respiratory factor 1	<i>nr1</i>	0.22 ± 0.05	0.10 ± 0.01*	-2.21
Proliferator-activated receptor gamma coactivator 1 alpha	<i>pgc1a</i>	<i>nd</i>	<i>nd</i>	
Proliferator-activated receptor gamma coactivator 1 beta	<i>pgc1b</i>	0.28 ± 0.09	0.80 ± 0.14*	2.85
Outer membrane translocases (TOM complex)				
Mitochondrial import receptor subunit Tom70	<i>tom70</i>	0.65 ± 0.04	0.36 ± 0.06**	-1.79
Mitochondrial import receptor subunit Tom34	<i>tom34</i>	0.55 ± 0.02	0.76 ± 0.10*	1.39
Mitochondrial import receptor subunit Tom22	<i>tom22</i>	0.23 ± 0.03	0.09 ± 0.02**	-2.47
Inner membrane translocases (TIM complex)				
Mitochondrial import inner membrane translocase subunit 44	<i>tim44</i>	0.16 ± 0.05	0.05 ± 0.02*	-3.62
Mitochondrial import inner membrane translocase subunit 23	<i>tim23</i>	0.28 ± 0.02	0.28 ± 0.04	1.02
Mitochondrial import inner membrane translocase subunit Tim8A	<i>tim8A</i>	0.83 ± 0.06	1.14 ± 0.22	1.38
Mitochondrial import inner membrane translocase subunit Tim10	<i>tim10</i>	0.19 ± 0.06	0.06 ± 0.02*	-3.20
Mitochondrial import inner membrane translocase subunit Tim9	<i>tim9</i>	0.13 ± 0.03	0.05 ± 0.01*	-2.55
Mitochondrial dynamics and apoptosis				
Mitochondrial fission 1 protein	<i>fxs1</i>	0.63 ± 0.04	0.72 ± 0.09	1.14
Mitofusin 1	<i>mf1</i>	0.06 ± 0.01	0.08 ± 0.02	1.37
Mitofusin 2	<i>mf2</i>	0.21 ± 0.02	0.12 ± 0.01*	-1.72
Mitochondrial fission factor homolog B	<i>mf1b</i>	0.35 ± 0.04	0.19 ± 0.03*	-1.82
Mitochondrial Rho GTPase 1	<i>miro1a</i>	0.12 ± 0.04	0.03 ± 0.01*	-3.70
Mitochondrial Rho GTPase 2	<i>miro2</i>	0.31 ± 0.05	0.12 ± 0.02**	-2.69
Apoptosis-related protein 1	<i>aifm1</i>	0.23 ± 0.02	0.15 ± 0.03**	-1.53
Apoptosis-related protein 3	<i>aifm3</i>	0.28 ± 0.05	0.24 ± 0.05	-1.15
Apoptosis regulator BAX	<i>bax</i>	0.33 ± 0.04	0.31 ± 0.02	-1.06
Bcl-2-like protein 1	<i>bclxl</i>	0.65 ± 0.08	0.52 ± 0.07	-1.25
FA oxidation & TCA				
3-ketoadyl-CoA thiolase	<i>aca2</i>	0.43 ± 0.06	0.18 ± 0.03*	-2.38
Carnitine palmitoyltransferase 1A	<i>cpt1a</i>	0.53 ± 0.07	0.33 ± 0.05	-1.59
Enoyl-CoA hydratase	<i>ech</i>	0.16 ± 0.01	0.17 ± 0.03	1.07
Hydroxyacyl-CoA dehydrogenase	<i>hadh</i>	0.82 ± 0.03	0.53 ± 0.08**	-1.56
Citrate synthase	<i>cs</i>	0.62 ± 0.03	0.47 ± 0.05**	-1.32
OXPHOS (Complex I)				
<i>NADH-ubiquinone oxidoreductase chain 2</i>	<i>nd2</i>	4.95 ± 0.60	5.07 ± 1.49	1.02
<i>NADH-ubiquinone oxidoreductase chain 5</i>	<i>nd5</i>	0.98 ± 0.26	0.80 ± 0.21	-1.22
NADH dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 alpha subcomplex subunit 1	<i>ndufa1</i>	0.83 ± 0.06	0.77 ± 0.10	-1.08
NADH dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 alpha subcomplex subunit 3	<i>ndufa3</i>	0.81 ± 0.06	0.56 ± 0.07*	-1.46
NADH dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 alpha subcomplex subunit 4	<i>ndufa4</i>	1.10 ± 0.07	0.78 ± 0.04**	-1.40
NADH dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 alpha subcomplex subunit 7	<i>ndufa7</i>	0.21 ± 0.02	0.12 ± 0.01**	-1.69
NADH dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 beta subcomplex subunit 5	<i>ndufb5</i>	0.52 ± 0.02	0.32 ± 0.05**	-1.59
NADH dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 beta subcomplex subunit 10	<i>ndufb10</i>	0.59 ± 0.03	0.75 ± 0.11	1.28
<i>NADH dehydrogenase iron-sulfur protein 2</i>	<i>nduf2</i>	0.54 ± 0.04	0.44 ± 0.04	-1.23
<i>NADH dehydrogenase iron-sulfur protein 7</i>	<i>nduf7</i>	0.60 ± 0.04	0.42 ± 0.05**	-1.42
<i>NADH dehydrogenase (ubiquinone) 1 alpha subcomplex, assembly factor 2</i>	<i>ndufaf2</i>	0.46 ± 0.05	0.32 ± 0.05	-1.43
OXPHOS (Complex II)				
<i>Succinate dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] flavoprotein subunit</i>	<i>sdha</i>	0.27 ± 0.04	0.13 ± 0.02*	-2.10
Succinate dehydrogenase cytochrome b560 subunit	<i>sdhc</i>	0.16 ± 0.02	0.19 ± 0.03	1.20
Succinate dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] cytochrome b small subunit B	<i>sdhd</i>	0.13 ± 0.02	0.17 ± 0.01	1.29
<i>Succinate dehydrogenase assembly factor 1</i>	<i>sdhaf1</i>	0.20 ± 0.06	0.07 ± 0.02*	-2.99
<i>Succinate dehydrogenase assembly factor 2</i>	<i>sdhaf2</i>	0.19 ± 0.04	0.07 ± 0.02*	-2.61
OXPHOS (Complex III)				
<i>Cytochrome b</i>	<i>cyb</i>	3.81 ± 0.42	5.08 ± 1.37	1.33
<i>Cytochrome b-c1 complex subunit Rieske</i>	<i>uqcrl1</i>	0.12 ± 0.03	0.06 ± 0.01	-2.01
Cytochrome b-c1 complex subunit 1	<i>uqcrl1</i>	0.31 ± 0.06	0.14 ± 0.02*	-2.14
Cytochrome b-c1 complex subunit 2	<i>uqcr2</i>	0.64 ± 0.06	0.33 ± 0.04**	-1.96
Cytochrome b-c1 complex subunit 6	<i>uqcrh</i>	0.27 ± 0.05	0.16 ± 0.02*	-1.72
Cytochrome b-c1 complex subunit 8	<i>uqcrq</i>	2.21 ± 0.26	2.09 ± 0.32	-1.06
Cytochrome b-c1 complex subunit 9	<i>uqcrl10</i>	0.46 ± 0.02	0.40 ± 0.05	-1.15
<i>Ubiquinol-cytochrome c reductase complex chaperone CBP3 homolog</i>	<i>uqc</i>	0.17 ± 0.02	0.11 ± 0.02	-1.50
OXPHOS (Complex IV)				
<i>Cytochrome c oxidase subunit I</i>	<i>cox1</i>	2.52 ± 0.37	4.69 ± 1.34*	1.86
<i>Cytochrome c oxidase subunit II</i>	<i>cox2</i>	0.96 ± 0.09	1.28 ± 0.31	1.33
<i>Cytochrome c oxidase subunit III</i>	<i>cox3</i>	1.44 ± 0.18	1.76 ± 0.46	1.22
Cytochrome c oxidase subunit 4 isoform 1	<i>cox4a</i>	0.59 ± 0.00	0.59 ± 0.00	1.00
Cytochrome c oxidase subunit 5A, mitochondrial-like isoform 2	<i>cox5a2</i>	0.04 ± 0.01	0.09 ± 0.02**	2.48
Cytochrome c oxidase subunit 6A isoform 2	<i>cox6a2</i>	0.79 ± 0.07	1.09 ± 0.22	1.38
Cytochrome c oxidase subunit 6C-1	<i>cox6c1</i>	0.44 ± 0.06	0.35 ± 0.03	-1.25
Cytochrome c oxidase subunit 7B	<i>cox7b</i>	0.68 ± 0.09	0.78 ± 0.08	1.14
Cytochrome c oxidase subunit 8B	<i>cox8b</i>	1.02 ± 0.10	1.39 ± 0.16*	1.37
<i>SCO1 protein homolog, mitochondrial</i>	<i>sco1</i>	0.19 ± 0.06	0.05 ± 0.02*	-3.83
<i>Surf1 locus protein 1</i>	<i>surf1</i>	0.22 ± 0.04	0.09 ± 0.01*	-2.47
<i>Cytochrome c oxidase assembly protein COX15 homolog</i>	<i>cox15</i>	0.15 ± 0.02	0.10 ± 0.01**	-1.48
OXPHOS (Complex V)				
<i>ATP synthase subunit gamma</i>	<i>atp5c1</i>	0.36 ± 0.04	0.19 ± 0.04*	-1.83
<i>ATP synthase subunit beta</i>	<i>atp5b</i>	0.40 ± 0.05	0.29 ± 0.04	-1.39
<i>ATP synthase lipid-binding protein</i>	<i>atp5gl</i>	0.61 ± 0.06	0.36 ± 0.06*	-1.68
<i>ATP synthase subunit g</i>	<i>atp5l</i>	0.64 ± 0.06	0.42 ± 0.05*	-1.53
<i>Mitochondrial F1 complex assembly factor 2</i>	<i>atpaf2</i>	0.04 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.00*	-6.02
Respiration uncoupling				
Uncoupling protein 2	<i>ucp2</i>	0.12 ± 0.05	0.02 ± 0.02*	-6.26

Gilthead sea breams were exposed to normoxic (oxygen saturation > 85%) and hypoxic (1.3 ppm, oxygen saturation = 18–19%) conditions. Data are presented as the mean ± SEM ($n = 7-8$). Statistically significant differences between normoxic and hypoxic fish are indicated (* $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$; Student's t test). *nd*: non-detected. Gene names of mitochondrial-encoded catalytic subunits of the OXPHOS pathway are highlighted in bold and italicised. Gene names of nuclear-encoded catalytic subunits of the OXPHOS pathway are highlighted in bold. Gene names of nuclear-encoded regulatory subunits are presented in normal font. Gene names of nuclear-encoded assembly factors are italicised. Square symbols are used for up- (red) and down-regulated genes (green).

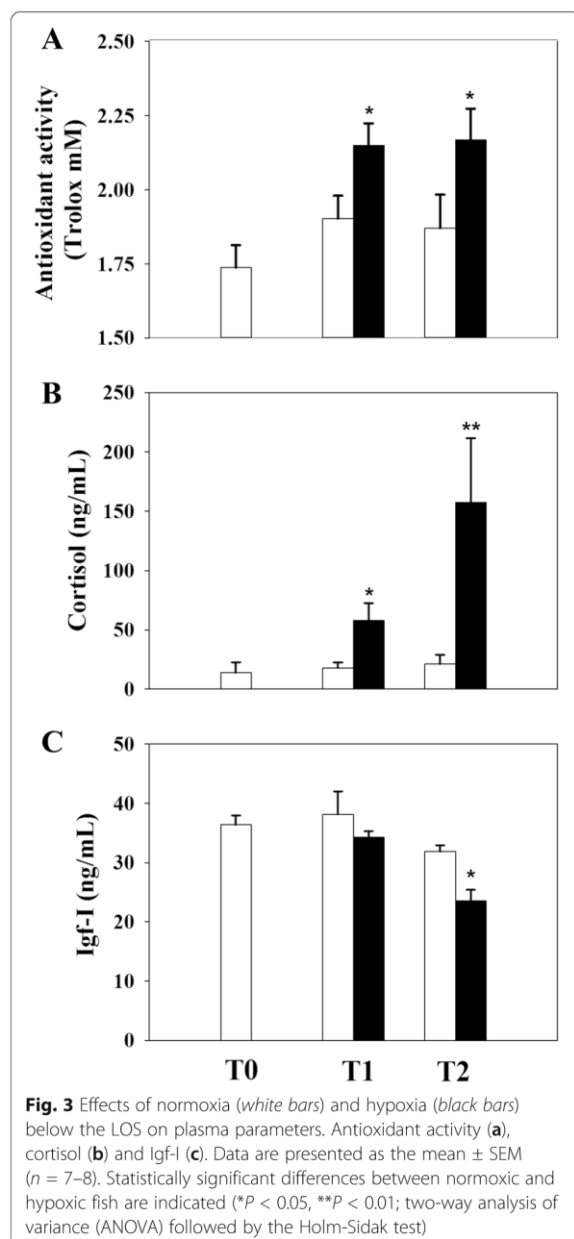


Discussion

Studies in gilthead sea bream have indicated that the response of this species to a progressive decline in O_2 concentration is to reduce its swimming activity, indicative of an increasing metabolic stress and/or a coping strategy to prolong survival time when hypoxia cannot be avoided [5]. In the same study, the threshold level of LOS determined in 400-g fish varied from 17% O_2 saturation at 12 °C and 36% O_2 saturation at 20 °C. These O_2 concentrations can be implemented in aquaculture as a lower limit for acceptable decreases in O_2 concentration with respect to the physiological function and welfare of farmed gilthead sea bream. Therefore, as further explained below, it

is not surprising that data on blood biochemistry and haematology in fish exposed to O_2 concentrations above the LOS did not significantly vary after 24 h of hypoxia challenge. In contrast, a consistent response, exacerbated over time, was observed for blood parameters measured a few hours after exposure to O_2 concentrations below the LOS. In this case, the gene expression profile of whole blood cells was analysed, and the molecular signatures of hypoxic fish revealed important changes consistent with reduced but more efficient aerobic ATP production.

Living organisms are characterised by continuous switching between resting and active states, which includes long resting periods with low ATP production



[24]. Similarly, the response to hypoxia has two main aspects characterised by defence and rescue, where the early defence stage is achieved by reducing energy needs (hypo-metabolic state) and the dependence on aerobic metabolism [25]. In the case of gilthead sea bream, the antioxidant defences in fish fed diets supplemented with methionine and white tea were insufficient to avoid oxidative stress under moderate hypoxia induced by 40% O_2 saturation at 22–23 °C [26]. However, LOS increases with decreasing temperature [6], and the results of the

present study showed that all measured haematological and biochemical parameters remained mostly unaltered in fish maintained at 20–21 °C and 41–42% O_2 saturation. In contrast, a pronounced increase in Hc, Hb and plasma glucose and lactate levels was reported after exposure to severe hypoxia (18–19% O_2 saturation) for 4 h under steady-state conditions. Indeed, this rapid response could reflect an increase in blood O_2 -carrying capacity [27] associated in the short term with erythrocyte release from a storage organ or with a reduction in plasma volume rather than the formation of new Hb [28]. Consistent with [8], this finding likely reflects metabolic changes mediated by O_2 sensors that drive the shift of the redox cellular status of NADH to a more reduced form with a rapid recycling of NAD^+ to NADH. Certainly, hypoxic situations must improve and adjust the metabolic and O_2 -carrying capacities of challenged fish to cope and reach internal homeostasis [29]. The trigger observed in plasma antioxidant capacity after acute and severe hypoxia demonstrates a general decrease in metabolic rates that also reflects the aerobic/anaerobic shift of metabolism [25, 30, 31].

The increase in plasma cortisol levels observed after severe hypoxia indicates a stressful scenario in the experimental model used in the present study. Other common features of hypoxic and stress conditions include a decrease in plasma Igf-I levels and concomitant growth inhibition [32, 33]. In this sense, a characteristic response in challenged gilthead sea bream produced by crowding, and presumably also through hypoxia, is the overall down-regulated expression of hepatic *igfs* and growth hormone receptors [34]. Studies in rodents support the involvement of the Gh/Igf system in the regulation of key antioxidant enzymes, ROS production and scavenging as well mitochondrial biogenesis and activity [35, 36]. However, thus far, the precise mechanisms underlying these Gh/Igf-mediated effects remain unexplored in fish. Moreover, confounding results have been reported for the aerobic/anaerobic shift during hypoxia exposure, although studies in the euryoxic mudsucker *Gillichthys mirabilis* showed a tissue-specific gene regulation resulting in suppressed protein synthesis in skeletal muscle and enhanced anaerobic ATP production in the liver tissue [14]. Similarly, zebra fish (*Danio rerio*) embryos survive during severe hypoxia (0–5% O_2 saturation) through changes in the gene and protein expression of master regulators of O_2 homeostasis, such as the hypoxia-inducible factor 1 alpha (*hif-1 α* /Hif-1 α) [37–40]. Additionally, long-term adaptive responses in the gene expression of several pathways related to cell architecture, cell division and energy metabolism have been underlined in the gills of adult hypoxic fish [41]. In our experimental model, this hypothesis was perfectly consistent with hypoxic-mediated effects on mitochondrial-related markers of blood cells (see below).

Most mitochondrial proteins are encoded by nuclear DNA; thus, a healthy metabolic mitochondria phenotype is highly dependent on the protein import system, which involves two assembly complexes: the translocases of the outer membrane (TOM complex) and the translocases of the inner membrane (TIM complex) (see [42, 43] for review). Thus, as demonstrated in mammalian cells [44], the TOM/TIM complex is highly inducible and regulated at both transcriptional and post-transcriptional levels under conditions of chronic stress or energy deficit to ensure the maintenance of adequate mitochondrial protein import rates. Similarly, juveniles of gilthead sea bream exhibit a clear up-regulation in the gene expression of hepatic protein subunits of the TOM/TIM complex in response to aerobic energy stimuli after exposure to cyclic decreases in water temperature [20]. Conversely, the present study demonstrated that severe hypoxia induced a pronounced down-regulation of *tom70* and *tom22* subunits in whole blood cells concurrent with decreases in mRNAs encoding protein subunits of TIM23 (*tim44*) and TIM22 (*tim10* and *tim9*) complexes. In addition, co-expression analyses revealed the up-regulation of *tom34*, which acts as a co-chaperone of the Hsp70/Hsp90 complex, inhibiting mitochondrial protein translocation when expressed in excess [45]. Taken together, these findings suggest in hypoxic fish an orchestration of the TOM/TIM complex that could enable adjustments in mitochondrial protein translocation to reduce plasma oxidative capacity and the risk of oxidative stress, a feature that is consistent with the down-regulated expression of markers of ROS production and scavenging, including *ucp2*, mitochondrial superoxide dismutase (*sod2*), enzymes of the glutathione system (*gpx1* and *gst3*) and enzymes of fatty acid β -oxidation and TCA (*acaa2*, *hadh*, and *cs*). Importantly, the same trend was observed for mitochondrial (*hsp10*, *dnaja3a*, *dnajc20*, *hsp60*, and *grp-75*) and endoplasmic reticulum (*grp-170*) molecular chaperones, suggesting that proper protein folding was primarily assured in the blood cells of gilthead sea bream under the depressed metabolism induced by hypoxia exposure. Similarly, severe hypoxia did not induce the gene expression of heat shock proteins in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) RBCs cultured in vitro when the hypoxia challenge was not accompanied by a heat shock treatment [46].

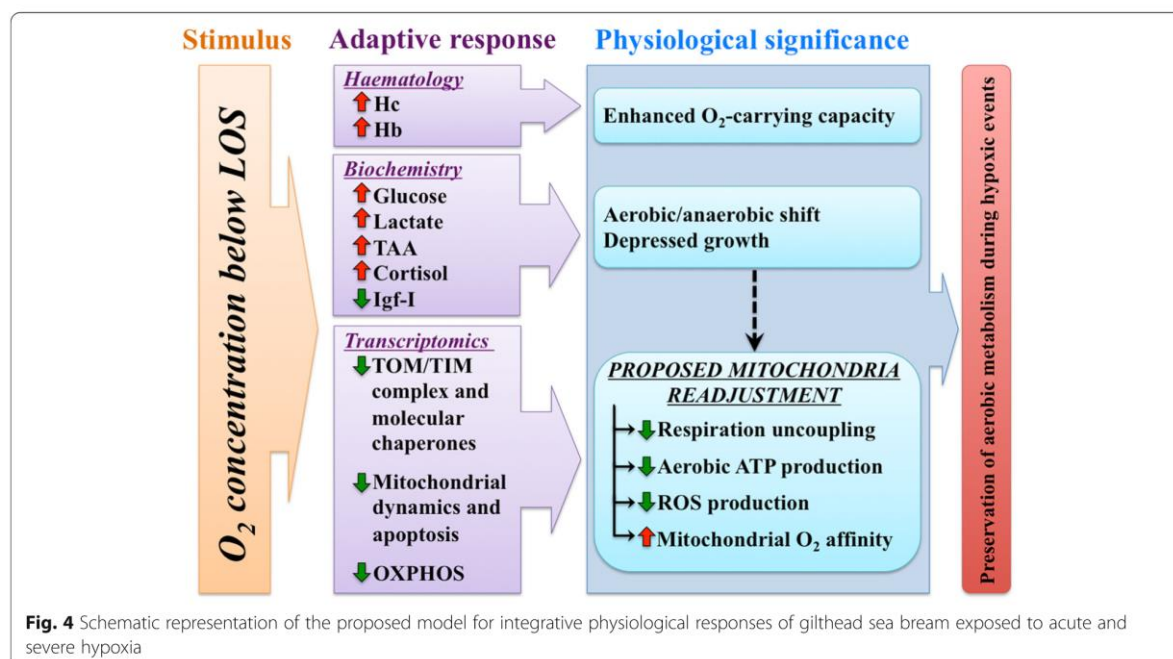
Mitochondrial dynamics is an essential process that adapts mitochondria morphology to the bioenergetics requirements of the cell (see [47] for review). The mechanism of this biological process involves the balance of two opposing procedures (fusion and fission), but it is also greatly affected by the “railways” used by the mitochondria to move inside the cells. The functionality of these organelles favours the redistribution of mitochondria within the cell to ensure high oxidative capacity

under conditions of high energy demand, enabling the removal of dysfunctional or damaged mitochondria. This mechanism is highly conserved from yeast to mammals [48], and the molecular identity of major components of the fusion (*mfn1* and *mfn2*) and fission (*fis1* and *miffb*) system, as well as those of the MIRO system (*miro1a* and *miro2*) has been characterised in gilthead sea bream and uploaded to public database repositories [20]. Nevertheless, experimental evidences demonstrated that the gene expression of some of these effectors is highly induced in response to aerobic stimuli after cold-water exposure. In contrast, in the present study, severe hypoxia significantly repressed the expression of most components of this biological process (*mfn2*, *miffb*, *miro1a*, and *miro2*), including the well-known mitochondrial apoptotic factor *aifn1*. Consistently, the knockout of the transcriptional regulator *pgc1 β* is associated with a selective reduction in the expression in mice [49]. The lack of *Pgc1 β* also impaired the thermogenic response of adipose tissue and hepatic lipid metabolism in response to high fat dietary loads [50]. Therefore, *Pgc1 β* is essential for proper metabolic tuning in stress situations, contributing to the maintenance of the basal expression of mitochondrial and metabolic-related genes. However, in the present experimental model, the opposite regulation was observed for *pgc1 β* and *mfn2*, suggesting that the up-regulated expression of *pgc1 β* was more a consequence than the cause of the overall repressed expression of mitochondria-related genes. This notion was supported by the observation that the mitochondrial transcription factor *nrf1*, another target gene of *pgc1 β* [50], was also down-regulated in hypoxia-challenged fish. Notably, despite the overlapping gene expression of *pgc1 β* and its homologue *pgc1 α* , the compensation of *Pgc1 α* or *Pgc1 β* functions was not completely observed in *Pgc1 α* or *Pgc1 β* knockout rodents [51–53]. In the case of gilthead sea bream blood cells, this effect is more exacerbated because *pgc1 α* mRNAs were almost undetectable in both normoxic and hypoxic fish, although the expression of this gene at noticeable levels has previously been reported in other tissues of this fish species [20]. Whether this effect is part of the evolutionary pressure to select the conservation of functional mitochondria in the nucleated RBCs of non-mammalian vertebrates remains to be established [17].

The ultimate effector for coping with changes in energy needs and aerobic ATP production is the regulation of the OXPHOS pathway, which comprises five enzyme complexes (I–V) with catalytic enzymatic subunits encoded by both nuclear or mitochondrial DNA, whereas the enzyme subunits with regulatory or assembly properties are strictly of nuclear origin [19]. Changes in the enzymatic activities of the OXPHOS pathway have been studied for many years both in mammals and fish

(e.g., [54–56]). Little is known at the molecular level, although gene expression profiling of liver, skeletal muscle and cardiac muscle tissues revealed that both the direction and magnitude of change is highly dependent on the metabolic capabilities of each tissue [8]. Thus far, the molecular fingerprinting of the OXPHOS pathway remains primarily unexplored in blood cells, and this is the first to address the specific regulation of this pathway in response to environmental stressors, evidenced by the general depletion of several components of Complexes I, II, III and V in response to severe hypoxic stimuli. Assembly factors of Complex IV (*sco1*, *surf1* and *cox15*) were also down-regulated in the present experimental model. These enzyme subunits play an important role in energy production, and mutations or defects in these molecules produce adverse effects in the appropriate function of the OXPHOS pathway in mammals [57–61]. However, this observation contrasted with the overall overexpression of catalytic and regulatory subunits of Complex IV, which was statistically significant for the catalytic *cox1* and the regulatory *cox5a2* and *cox8b* subunits. CoxI protein is encoded by mitochondrial DNA and represents one of the largest subunits of Complex IV, which contains the bimetallic centre where O_2 binds and is reduced to H_2O [62, 63]. In addition, the observed increase in the gene expression of Cox5a and Cox8 family subunits highlights their importance during the completion of the holocomplex monomer, which contains the functional structure of the cytochrome *c* binding site (see [64] for review). Therefore, we hypothesised that the net

effect should be a reduced mitochondrial ATP production due to the overall suppression of mRNAs encoding the enzyme subunits of Complexes I, II, III and IV, although the opposite regulation of the catalytic/regulatory components of Complex IV should be accompanied by subsequent mechanisms that allow a better exploitation of available oxygen in the most energetically favorable way. Modifications in mitochondrial properties also occur in other vertebrates, and the hypo-metabolic steady-state observed in overwintering frogs (*Rana temporaria*) occurred during hypoxic submergence by increases in mitochondrial O_2 affinity and a reduction in resting (state 4) and active (state 3) respiration rates in mitochondria isolated from skeletal muscle [65]. Similarly, early studies in the freshwater European eel (*Anguilla anguilla*) suggest that the efficiency of OXPHOS is increased after acclimation to high hydrostatic pressure, decreasing the enzymatic activity of Complex II in red muscle, whereas that of Complex IV is significantly increased [66]. This situation would enable a reduction in the electron leak and the optimisation of the respiratory chain. Similarly, more recent studies in gilthead sea bream have revealed that the gene expression ratio of the enzyme subunits of Complexes I and IV is altered in heart and liver tissue during the recovery state after severe hypoxia exposure [67]. Thus, as reviewed by [68], it is now evident that variations in the mitochondrial efficiency of ATP production exist among individuals, populations and environments, and even within the same individual over time. This spatial and temporal variability in mitochondrial machinery adds an



additional layer of complexity to the regulation of energy metabolism, and the maintenance of aerobic metabolism is becoming recognised as a primary hypoxia survival strategy in most organisms, including fish [69]. Even so, the usage of transcriptomic analysis with other experimental approaches related to mitochondrial activity and respiration would be necessary for the better understanding about the proposed re-adjustment of mitochondrial function in hypoxia-challenged fish.

Conclusions and future perspectives

As summarized in Fig. 4, the integrated data on blood haematology, biochemistry and transcriptomics in response to water O₂ concentrations below the LOS highlighted an enhanced O₂-carrying capacity as a result of higher Hc and Hb concentrations in response to strong hypoxic stimuli. Changes in plasma antioxidant capacity, as well as hormone and metabolite levels supported reduced energy needs and also reflected an aerobic/anaerobic shift. These results were further confirmed by gene expression profiling of a wide representation of mitochondrial-related markers, including antioxidant enzymes and molecular chaperones, effectors of mitochondrial dynamics and apoptosis, and key components of the respiratory chain, suggesting that the mitochondrial bioenergetics of fish blood cells are finely adjusted at the transcriptional level through changes in water O₂ concentrations. The induced gene expression profiles of catalytic and regulatory enzyme subunits of Complex IV should be considered an adaptive process to ensure reduced but more efficient aerobic ATP production consistent with reduced respiration uncoupling, as suggested by the decreased expression of *ucp2*. These results indicate that the gilthead sea bream is a highly euryoxic fish. Further studies are underway to determine the resilience of gilthead sea bream to high rearing densities and low O₂ concentrations, exploring the potential benefits of hypoxic preconditioning for improving the aerobic scope and swimming metabolic activity of farmed fish.

Additional file

Additional file 1: Table S1. Forward (F) and reverse (R) primers used for real-time PCR. (DOCX 50 kb)

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Availability of data and materials

The datasets supporting the conclusions of this study are included within the article and its additional Supporting Information file.

Authors' contributions

JACG and JPS conceived and designed the study. ABN, JACG and JAMS performed the experimental procedures. JAMS, JACG and JPS analysed and interpreted the data. JAMS and JPS drafted the original manuscript. All authors reviewed, edited and approved the final manuscript.

Ethics approval

All procedures were approved by the Ethics and Animal Welfare Committee of Institute of Aquaculture Torre de la Sal and carried out according to the National (Royal Decree RD53/2013) and the current EU legislation (2010/63/EU) on the handling of experimental fish.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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Annex 3: Manuscript submitted to Frontiers in Physiology (Open Access)



Tissue-specific Orchestration of Gilthead Sea Bream Resilience to Hypoxia and High Stocking Density

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The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest

Author contribution statement

JM-S, JC-G and JP-S: conceived and designed the study; JM-S, PS-M and VH: carried out experimental procedures; JM-S and JP-S: wrote the original draft; All authors analysed and interpreted the data, reviewed, edited and approved the final manuscript.

Keywords

haematology, Hypometabolism, hypoxia, Limiting oxygen saturation, Sparus aurata, stocking density, Tissue-specific transcriptomics

Abstract

Word count: 350

Two different levels of O₂ concentration (normoxia: 75–85% O₂ saturation; moderate hypoxia: 42–43% O₂ saturation) and stocking densities (LD: 9.5, and HD: 19 kg/m³) were assessed on gilthead sea bream in a 3-weeks feeding trial. Reduced O₂ availability had a negative impact on feed intake and growth rates, which was exacerbated by HD despite of the improvement in feed efficiency. Blood physiological hallmarks disclosed the enhancement in O₂-carrying capacity in fish maintained under moderate hypoxia. This feature was related to a hypo-metabolic state to cope with a chronic and widespread environmental O₂ reduction, which was accompanied by a differential regulation of circulating cortisol and growth hormone levels. Customized PCR-arrays were used for the simultaneous gene expression profiling of 34–44 selected markers of liver, white skeletal muscle, heart and blood cells, informing about the stress- and metabolic-tissue condition. The number of differentially expressed genes ranged between 22–19 in liver, heart and white skeletal muscle to 5 in total blood cells. Partial Least-Squares Discriminant Analysis (PLS-DA) explains (R²) and predicts (Q²) up to 95% and 65% of total variance, respectively. The first component (R²=28.89%) gathers fish on the basis of O₂ availability, and liver and cardiac genes on the category of energy sensing and oxidative metabolism (cs, hif-1α, pgc1α, pgc1β, sirt1, sirt2, sirt3, sirt4, sirt6, sirt7, sirt8, sirt9, sirt10, sirt11, sirt12, sirt13, sirt14, sirt15, sirt16, sirt17, sirt18, sirt19, sirt20, sirt21, sirt22, sirt23, sirt24, sirt25, sirt26, sirt27, sirt28, sirt29, sirt30, sirt31, sirt32, sirt33, sirt34, sirt35, sirt36, sirt37, sirt38, sirt39, sirt40, sirt41, sirt42, sirt43, sirt44, sirt45, sirt46, sirt47, sirt48, sirt49, sirt50, sirt51, sirt52, sirt53, sirt54, sirt55, sirt56, sirt57, sirt58, sirt59, sirt60, sirt61, sirt62, sirt63, sirt64, sirt65, sirt66, sirt67, sirt68, sirt69, sirt70, sirt71, sirt72, sirt73, sirt74, sirt75, sirt76, sirt77, sirt78, sirt79, sirt80, sirt81, sirt82, sirt83, sirt84, sirt85, sirt86, sirt87, sirt88, sirt89, sirt90, sirt91, sirt92, sirt93, sirt94, sirt95, sirt96, sirt97, sirt98, sirt99, sirt100). The second component (R²=29.27%) differentiates normoxic fish at different stocking densities, and the white muscle clearly promotes this separation by a high over-representation of genes related to GH/IGF system (ghr-i, igfbp6b, igfbp5b, insr, igfbp3, igf i). The third component (R²=25.42%) discriminates the effect of stocking density in fish exposed to moderate hypoxia by means of hepatic fatty acid desaturases (fads2, scd1a, scd1b) and muscle markers of fatty acid oxidation (cpt1a). All these findings disclose the different contribution of analysed tissues (liver: heart > muscle > blood) and specific genes to the hypoxic- and crowding stress-mediated responses. This new knowledge will contribute to better explain and understand the different stress resilience of farmed fish across individuals and species.

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(Authors are required to state the ethical considerations of their study in the manuscript, including for cases where the study was exempt from ethical approval procedures)

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Ensure that your statement is phrased in a complete way, with clear and concise sentences.

All procedures described here were approved by the Ethics and Animal Welfare Committee of Institute of Aquaculture Torre de la Sal and carried out according to national (Royal Decree RD53/2013) and EU legislation (2010/63/EU) on the handling of animals for experiments.

Data availability statement

Generated Statement: The datasets for this manuscript are not publicly available because The datasets generated for this study are available on request to the corresponding authors. Requests to access the datasets should be directed to The datasets generated for this study are available on request to the corresponding authors.

In review

Tissue-specific Orchestration of Gilthead Sea Bream Resilience to Hypoxia and High Stocking Density

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Running head title: stress resilience in *Sparus aurata*

Keywords: Haematology, Hypometabolism, Hypoxia, Limiting oxygen saturation, *Sparus aurata*, Stocking density, Tissue-specific transcriptomics

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31 **Abstract**

32 Two different levels of O₂ concentration (normoxia: 75-85% O₂ saturation; moderate
33 hypoxia: 42-43% O₂ saturation) and stocking densities (LD: 9.5, and HD: 19 kg/m³)
34 were assessed on gilthead sea bream in a 3-weeks feeding trial. Reduced O₂
35 availability had a negative impact on feed intake and growth rates, which was
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37 physiological hallmarks disclosed the enhancement in O₂-carrying capacity in fish
38 maintained under moderate hypoxia. This feature was related to a hypo-metabolic
39 state to cope with a chronic and widespread environmental O₂ reduction, which was
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41 levels. Customized PCR-arrays were used for the simultaneous gene expression
42 profiling of 34-44 selected markers of liver, white skeletal muscle, heart and blood
43 cells, informing about the stress- and metabolic-tissue condition. The number of
44 differentially expressed genes ranged between 22-19 in liver, heart and white skeletal
45 muscle to 5 in total blood cells. Partial Least-Squares Discriminant Analysis (PLS-
46 DA) explains (R²) and predicts (Q²) up to 95% and 65% of total variance,
47 respectively. The first component (R²=28.89%) gathers fish on the basis of O₂
48 availability, and liver and cardiac genes on the category of energy sensing and
49 oxidative metabolism (*cs*, *hif-1a*, *pgc1a*, *pgc1β*, *sirts 1-2-4-5-6-7*), antioxidant
50 defence and tissue repair (*prdx5*, *sod2*, *mortalin*, *gpx4*, *gr*, *grp-170*, *prdx3*) and
51 oxidative phosphorylation (*nd2*, *nd5*, *coxi*) highly contribute to this separation. The
52 second component (R²=29.27%) differentiates normoxic fish at different stocking
53 densities, and the white muscle clearly promotes this separation by a high over-
54 representation of genes related to GH/IGF system (*ghr-i*, *igfbp6b*, *igfbp5b*, *insr*,
55 *igfbp3*, *igf-i*). The third component (R²=25.42%) discriminates the effect of stocking
56 density in fish exposed to moderate hypoxia by means of hepatic fatty acid
57 desaturases (*fads2*, *scd1a*, *scd1b*) and muscle markers of fatty acid oxidation (*cpt1a*).
58 All these findings disclose the different contribution of analysed tissues (liver ≥ heart
59 > muscle > blood) and specific genes to the hypoxic- and crowding stress-mediated
60 responses. This new knowledge will contribute to better explain and understand the
61 different stress resilience of farmed fish across individuals and species.
62

63 1. Introduction

64 Several attempts have been made over the course of last years to monitor the
 65 ecological and physiological impacts of a reduced O₂ availability in aquatic
 66 environments (Ekau et al., 2010; Richards, 2011; Zhu et al., 2013; Deutsch et al.,
 67 2015). The magnitude and orchestration of adaptive responses will reflect the duration
 68 and intensity of hypoxic stimuli (Martos-Sitcha et al., 2017; Cadiz et al., 2018), being
 69 defined the limiting O₂ saturation (LOS) as the threshold level where regulatory
 70 mechanisms are no longer sufficient to maintain O₂ consumption without compromising
 71 any physiological function (Remen et al., 2015; 2016). To minimize the hypoxia
 72 impact, fish reduce feed intake and reorganize its metabolism to limit the tissue O₂
 73 demand (Hopkins and Powell, 2001; Bermejo-Nogales et al., 2014a), which allows to
 74 preserve aerobic metabolism by means of a restricted mitochondrial respiration and a
 75 shift in substrate preferences, as it has been reported in humans and rodents during the
 76 metabolic adaption of skeletal muscle to high altitude hypoxia (Murray, 2009). Other
 77 adaptive responses include changes in the production and scavenging of reactive
 78 oxygen species (ROS) (Lushchak and Bagnyukova, 2006; Bermejo-Nogales et al.,
 79 2014b), gill surface functionality (Nilsson, 2007) and haemoglobin (Hb)-O₂ binding
 80 characteristics (Jensen and Weber, 1982; Nikinmaa, 2001). In most aquaculture
 81 scenarios, these adaptive features are commonly associated to increases in
 82 temperature and high stocking rearing densities (Person-Le Ruyet et al., 2008; Vikeså
 83 et al., 2017), which in turn can compromise water quality resulting in impaired fish
 84 growth and immunity (Pickering, 1993; Van Weerd and Komen, 1998; Montero et al.,
 85 1999; Ashley, 2007). Indeed, beneficial effects on growth performance have been
 86 reported in Arctic charr (*Salvelinus alpinus*, Jørgensen et al., 1993) or meagre
 87 (*Argyrosomus regius*, Millán-Cubillo et al., 2016) with the preservation of water
 88 quality at high stocking densities. The opposite is also true and early studies pointed
 89 out that the impact of crowding stress is minimized when O₂ concentrations are not
 90 below LOS (Ruer et al., 1987; Araújo-Luna et al., 2018). Unravelling the combined
 91 effects of hypoxia and high rearing density are, thereby, crucial to warrant fish
 92 welfare during intensive farming in a scenario of global change with a greater
 93 stratification and deoxygenation of oceans (Keeling et al., 2009; Helm et al., 2011;
 94 Schmidtke et al., 2017).

95 Progress towards a more sustainable and environmentally friendly aquaculture
 96 requires important investments in both conventional and new methodologies for a less
 97 invasive and more refined phenotyping of individual farmed fish. Main achievements
 98 so far include the use of acoustic telemetry or stand-alone biosensors for the non-
 99 disturbing monitoring of feeding behavior or metabolic capabilities (Føre et al., 2017;
 100 Martos-Sitcha et al., submitted). In addition to that, major progress has been done
 101 with the advent of wide-holistic omics based on functional genomics, proteomics,
 102 metabolomics and metagenomics as powerful toolsets for the development of a highly
 103 technified aquaculture in both salmonid and non-salmonid fish (Yáñez et al., 2015;
 104 Martín and Król, 2017; Martínez-Porchas and Vargas-Albores, 2017; Alfaro and
 105 Young, 2018; Rodrigues et al., 2018). Such approaches are increasingly used in
 106 gilthead sea bream (*Sparus aurata*), a highly and economically important cultured fish
 107 species in all the Mediterranean area. Thus, a first draft genome based on genetic-
 108 linkage maps (Pauletto et al., 2018) and other current genome initiatives will
 109 contribute to have major progress in selective breeding and epigenetic research in
 110 gilthead sea bream. Also, in this species, important research efforts have been
 111 conducted to define a reference pattern for skin/intestine mucus proteome (Estensoro

et al., 2016; Pérez-Sánchez et al., 2017), gut microbiota (Piazzon et al., 2017) or serum metabolome (Gil-Solsona et al., 2019). Moreover, the use of high-density microarrays (Calduch-Giner et al., 2010; 2012; 2014), pathway-focused PCR-arrays (Benedito-Palos et al., 2014; 2016; Bermejo-Nogales et al., 2014a; 2015; Pérez-Sánchez et al., 2015; Magnoni et al., 2017; Martos-Sitcha et al., 2017) and more recently NGS (Piazzon et al., 2019, submitted) have contributed to define tissue-specific gene expression patterns in response to nutritional, environmental and parasite challenges. Current progress in this way has been reviewed to unravel the differential regulation of somatotrophic axis at the systemic and local tissue-level by nutritional and environmental factors in marine fish and gilthead sea bream in particular (Pérez-Sánchez et al., 2018). Likewise, the synchronization of the molecular clock of sea bream larvae, involving more than 2,500 genes with a clear circadian rhythmicity, has been proposed as certification of juvenile quality later in life (Yúfera et al., 2017). In the present study, we aim to go further on the definition of criteria of fish welfare and quality, regarding in depth the effect of two different stocking densities (9.5 kg/m³, 19 kg/m³) and O₂ saturation levels (85%, 42-43% O₂ saturation) in a 3-weeks trial with fast growing juveniles of gilthead sea bream. The analysed parameters included the gene expression pattern of a set of growth and metabolic markers of liver, skeletal muscle, heart and blood cells in combination with data on growth performance, as well as blood haematology and biochemistry. The working hypothesis is that each tissue contributes differentially to the homeostatic load achievement, helping the generated knowledge to better exploit the plasticity and stress resilience of gilthead sea bream.

2. Material and Methods

2.1. Animal care

Gilthead sea bream juveniles of Atlantic origin (Ferme Marine du Douhet, Bordeaux, France) were reared from early life stages in the indoor experimental facilities of Institute of Aquaculture Torre de la Sal (IATS-CSIC, Castellón, Spain) under natural photoperiod and temperature conditions at our latitude (40°5'N; 0°10'E). Sea water was pumped ashore (open system) and filtered through a 10-µm filter. The O₂ content of water effluents in standard conditions was always higher than 85% saturation, and unionized ammonia remained below 0.02 mg/L.

All procedures described here and elsewhere were carried out according to national (Royal Decree RD53/2013) and EU legislation (2010/63/EU) on the handling of animals for experimentation.

2.2. Experimental set-up and sampling

Twelve days prior to the start of the experimental trial, juvenile fish (~34 g average body weight) were randomly distributed in twelve 90 L tanks coupled to a recirculatory system equipped with physical and biological filters, and programmable temperature and O₂ devices (Figure 1). Water temperature was daily monitored and maintained at 25-27°C. Fish were arbitrarily allocated to constitute two different initial stocking densities (six tanks per condition) fed daily to visual satiety with a commercial diet (EFICO Forte 824, BioMar, Palencia, Spain): i) LD (low density, 25 fish/tank, 9.5 kg/m³) and ii) HD (high density, 50 fish/tank, 19 kg/m³). After the acclimation period, the water parameters of three tanks of each initial stocking density were kept unchanged, constituting the normoxic (>5.5 ppm O₂; >85% O₂ saturation)

groups of each experimental condition (LDN, low density normoxia; HDN, high density normoxia). Fish maintained in the remaining six tanks experienced a gradual decrease in the water O₂ level until reaching 3.0 ppm (42-43% O₂ saturation), constituting the hypoxic groups of each experimental condition (LDH, low density hypoxia; HDH, high density hypoxia). The normal range of variation in O₂ concentrations was marked by a rapid drop (3.8-4 ppm normoxic groups; 2.3 ppm hypoxic groups) 15-30 minutes after feeding, with a rapid restoration of reference values in less than 1 hour by the automatic entrance of clean water from the main reservoir tank. This system allowed maintaining unionized ammonia below toxic levels (<0.50 mg/L) in both HDN and HDH groups.

After twenty-two days under these experimental conditions and following overnight fasting, twelve fish (four per tank) per experimental condition (LDN, LDH, HDN, HDH) were anaesthetized with 3-aminobenzoic acid ethyl ester (100 mg/L), weighed and blood was taken from caudal vessels with EDTA-treated syringes (less than 5 min for all the fish sampled for each tank). All lethal samples were collected between 10.00 am and 12.00 am to reduce the biologic variability due to circadian rhythms and postprandial-mediated effects. One blood aliquot (25 µL) was directly collected into a microtube containing 500 µL of stabilizing lysis solution (REAL total RNA spin blood kit, Durviz, Valencia, Spain) and stored at -80°C until total RNA extraction. Other aliquots were processed for haematocrit, haemoglobin and red blood cells (RBC) counting. The remaining blood was centrifuged at $3,000 \times g$ for 20 min at 4°C, and plasma samples were frozen and stored at -20°C until biochemical and hormonal analyses were performed. Prior to tissue collection, fish were killed by cervical section. Liver and viscera were weighed, and representative biopsies of liver, muscle and complete hearts were immediately snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until extraction of total RNA.

2.3. Blood biochemistry and hormonal parameters

Haematocrit was measured using heparinized capillary tubes centrifuged at $1,500 \times g$ for 30 min in a Sigma 1-14 centrifuge (Sigma, Germany). Haemoglobin was assessed using a Hemocue Hb 201+ (Hemocue, Sweden). Counts of RBC were made in a Neubauer chamber, using an isotonic solution (1% NaCl). Plasma glucose was analysed using the glucose oxidase method (Thermo Electron, Louisville, CO, USA). Lactate was measured in deproteinized samples (perchloric acid 8%) by an enzymatic method based on the use of lactate oxidase and peroxidase (SPINREACT S.A., Girona, Spain). Total antioxidant capacity in plasma samples was measured with a commercial kit (Cayman Chemical, Ann Arbor, MI, USA) adapted to 96-well microplates. This assay relies on the ability of antioxidants in the samples to inhibit the oxidation of ABTS (2,2'-azino-di-[3-ethylbenzthiazoline sulphonate]) to ABTS radical cation by metmyoglobin, a derivatized form of myoglobin. The capacity of the sample to prevent ABTS oxidation is compared with that of Trolox (water-soluble tocopherol analogue) and is quantified as mM Trolox equivalents. Plasma cortisol levels were analysed using an EIA kit (Kit RE52061m IBL, International GmbH, Germany). The limit of detection of the assay was 3.01 ng/mL with intra- and inter-assay coefficients of variation lower than 3% and 5%, respectively. Plasma growth hormone (Gh) was determined by a homologous gilthead sea bream RIA as reported elsewhere (Martínez-Barbera et al., 1995). The sensitivity and midrange (ED50) of the assay were 0.15 and 1.8 ng/mL, respectively. Plasma insulin-like growth factors (Igf) were extracted by acid-ethanol cryoprecipitation (Shimizu et al., 2000), and the

concentration of Igf-I was measured by means of a generic fish Igf-I RIA validated for Mediterranean perciform fish (Vega-Rubín de Celis et al., 2004). The sensitivity and midrange of the assay were 0.05 and 0.7–0.8 ng/mL, respectively.

2.4. Gene expression analysis

Total RNA from liver, white muscle and heart was extracted using a MagMax-96 total RNA isolation kit (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA), whereas total RNA from total blood cells was extracted using the REAL total RNA spin blood kit including a DNase step. The RNA yield in all tissues was >3.5 µg, with absorbance measures ($A_{260/280}$) of 1.9–2.1. Synthesis of cDNA was performed with the High-Capacity cDNA Archive Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) using random decamers and 500 ng of total RNA in a final volume of 100 µL. Reverse transcription (RT) reactions were incubated 10 min at 25°C and 2 h at 37°C. Negative control reactions were run without RT.

The 96-well PCR-array layout was designed for the simultaneous profiling of a panel of 43 (liver), 44 (white muscle and total blood cells) or 34 (heart) genes, including markers of GH/IGF system (13), lipid metabolism (10), energy sensing and oxidative metabolism (12), antioxidant defence and tissue repair (10), muscle growth and cell differentiation (8), respiration uncoupling (3), xenobiotic metabolism (2), nuclear receptors (3), transmembrane translocation (8), mitochondrial dynamics and apoptosis (5), as well as OXPHOS (22) (Table 1). qPCR reactions were performed using an iCycler IQ Real-time Detection System (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA). Diluted RT reactions were conveniently used for qPCR assays in 25 µL volume in combination with a SYBR Green Master Mix (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA) and specific primers at a final concentration of 0.9 µM (Supplemental Table S1). The program used for PCR amplification included an initial denaturation step at 95°C for 3 min, followed by 40 cycles of denaturation for 15 s at 95°C and annealing/extension for 60 s at 60°C. All the pipetting operations were made by means of an EpMotion 5070 Liquid Handling Robot (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany) to improve data reproducibility. The efficiency of PCRs (>92%) was checked, and the specificity of reactions was verified by analysis of melting curves (ramping rates of 0.5°C/10s over a temperature range of 55–95°C) and linearity of serial dilutions of RT reactions (>0.99). Fluorescence data acquired during the extension phase were normalized by the delta-delta C_T method (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001) using *actb* in the liver, white muscle and heart, or *cox4a* in total blood cells, as the housekeeping gene due to its stability among different experimental conditions. For multi-gene analysis, data on gene expression were in reference to the expression level of *cs* in the liver, *igfr2* in the white muscle, *gcr* in the heart, and *tim8a* in total blood cells of LDN fish, for which a value of 1 was arbitrarily assigned (Supplemental Tables 2–5, respectively).

This manuscript follows the ZFIN Zebrafish Nomenclature Guidelines for gene and protein names and symbols (<https://wiki.zfin.org/display/general/ZFIN+Zebrafish+Nomenclature+Guidelines>).

253 2.5. Statistical analysis

254 Data on growth performance, blood biochemistry and gene expression were analysed
 255 by two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by the Holm-Sidak test. The
 256 significance level was set at $P < 0.05$. All analyses were performed using the
 257 SigmaPlot Version 13 for Windows. To achieve the maximum separation among
 258 experimental groups, Partial Least-Squares Discriminant Analysis (PLS-DA) was
 259 applied jointly in liver, heart and white muscle, avoiding the inclusion of results from
 260 total blood cells due to its low contribution to the total variance. The quality of the
 261 PLS-DA model was evaluated by R^2Y and Q^2 parameters, which indicated the fitness
 262 and prediction ability, respectively. The contribution of differential genes along liver,
 263 white muscle and heart tissues was assessed by means of Variable Importance in
 264 Projection (VIP) measurements. A VIP score > 1.1 was considered to be an adequate
 265 threshold to determine discriminant variables in the PLS-DA model (Wold et al.,
 266 2001; Li et al., 2012; Kieffer et al., 2016).

269 3. Results

270 3.1. Growth performance

271 Data on feed intake, growth and somatic indexes (hepatosomatic index, HSI;
 272 mesenteric fat index, MSI) are shown in *Table 2*. Two-way ANOVA reveals an O_2
 273 effect with an overall reduction under hypoxic conditions. This general impairment of
 274 feed intake and growth is further evidenced in fish kept at the highest density, though
 275 FE was improved in moderate hypoxia and more especially in fish kept at HD (HDH
 276 group).

278 3.2. Blood analysis

279 Data on blood haematology and biochemistry are shown in *Table 3*. The results show
 280 a significant effect of O_2 concentration, with a generalized increase in Hb, Hc, RBC
 281 content, MCH, cortisol and Gh plasma levels, as well as a widespread decrease in
 282 MCHC, MCV and plasma lactate levels. Overall this feature was more accused in fish
 283 maintained under LD conditions. In contrast, the rearing density effect was mostly
 284 reduced to plasma cortisol levels, which showed a pronounced rise in HD fish that
 285 was exacerbated by hypoxic conditions. Noticeably, significant O_2 concentration and
 286 rearing density interactions were found for cortisol, but also for Hc, MCHC, MCH
 287 and TAA.

289 3.3. Gene expression profiling

290 All genes selected for PCR-arrays were found at detectable levels in the four tissues
 291 analysed. Results of gene expression profiling in hepatic selected genes are presented
 292 in *Suppl. Table 2*. Among them, 22 out of 43 genes were affected by at least one of
 293 the experimental factors or by its interaction, being 11 differentially expressed (DE)
 294 in response to O_2 concentration. Relative expression of markers from GH/IGF system
 295 (*ghr-i*), oxidative metabolism (*nd2*), and antioxidant defence and tissue repair (*gpx4*,
 296 *prdx5*) was significantly down-regulated by moderate hypoxia in LDH and HDH
 297 groups. In addition, several genes of lipid metabolism (*elovl1*, *fads2* and *scd1b*) were
 298 up-regulated in the LD group, whereas markers of oxidative metabolism (*nd5*), and
 299 antioxidant defence and tissue repair (*gr*, *sod2*, *grp-75*) were down-regulated in fish
 300 kept at HD conditions. Stocking density also affected 11 genes related with the

GH/IGF system (*ghr-i*, *ghr-ii*, *igf-i*), lipid metabolism (*elovl6*, *fads2*, *scd1a*, *scd1b*, *lpl*), oxidative metabolism (*ucp1*, *pgc1a*) and antioxidant defence and tissue repair (*grp-75*). A statistically significant interaction of O₂ concentration and rearing density was found for *igf-ii*, *fads2*, *scd1a*, *scd1b*, *pgc1β*, *gr*, *prdx3* and *grp-170* genes.

In white skeletal muscle, 20 out of 44 DE genes were affected at least by one of the experimental condition or even by their interaction (*Suppl. Table 3*). Markers of the GH/IGF system were mostly affected by stocking density (*ghr-i*, *igf-ii*, *igfbp3*, *igfbp5b*, *igfbp6b*, *insr*, *igfr1*) rather than by O₂ concentration (*igfr2*). Moderate hypoxia up-regulated *myod2* expression as the sole effect on genes related to muscle growth and cell differentiation. In contrast, a relative high number of genes related to energy sensing, oxidative metabolism, and antioxidant defence and tissue repair were down-regulated by low O₂ concentrations (*sirt1*, *ucp3*, *hif-1a*, *prdx5*, *sod2*) or up-regulated in HD conditions (*sirt4*, *sirt7*, *coxi*, *hif-1a*, *gpx4*). Additionally, a significant interaction between O₂ concentration and rearing density is reported for *cpt1a* and *grp-170*.

In heart, changes in O₂ saturation and stocking density triggered significant differences in 19 out of 34 genes presented in the array (*Suppl. Table 4*). Up to 13 genes, including markers of the GH/IGF system (*ghr-i*), energy sensing and oxidative metabolism (*sirt1*, *sirt5*, *sirt6*, *sirt7*, *cs*, *nd5*, *pgc1a*, *pgc1β*, *hif-1a*) and antioxidant defence and tissue repair (*cat*, *prdx5*, *sod2*) were down-regulated under moderate hypoxia, especially in HD conditions. The xenobiotic metabolism marker *cyp1a1* was up-regulated by hypoxia in both LD and HD. Stocking density also down-regulated the expression of several genes involved in energy sensing and oxidative metabolism (*sirt3*, *sirt5*, *cs*, *nd2*) as well as antioxidant defence and tissue repair (*gr*, *prdx3*, *prdx5*, *grp-170*, *grp-75*), preferentially under low O₂ concentrations.

In total blood cells, only 5 out of 44 genes were DE mainly by the interaction among different experimental conditions (*Suppl. Table 5*), being responsive to the stress challenge enzyme subunits of Complex I (*ndufaf2*) and Complex IV (*coxi*, *coxii*, *cox6a2*, *cox15*) of the mitochondrial respiratory chain.

In order to assess the differential contribution of the DE genes in the physiological response to moderate hypoxia and rearing density, the tissue (liver, white skeletal muscle, heart) gene expression dataset was analysed by PLS-DA. The discriminant model was based on six components, which explained (R²) 95% and predicted (Q²) 65% of total variance (*Figure 2A*). Of these, the first three components showed cumulative values for R² and Q² of 83.6% and 49.3%, respectively. A clear separation between normoxic (LDN, HDN) and hypoxic (LDH, HDH) groups was observed along the first component that explained 28.89% of total variance (*Figure 2B and 2C*). Component 2 (29.27% of variance) clearly separated LDN and HDN normoxic groups (*Figure 2B*), whereas component 3 (25.42% of variance) discriminated LDH and HDH hypoxic groups (*Figure 2C*).

Genes with a contribution to VIP > 1.1 in component 1 were a total of 39, with a main contribution of heart (19) and liver (14) genes involved in energy sensing and oxidative metabolism (14), antioxidant defence and tissue repair (12) and OXPHOS (*Figure 3*). When the second component was also considered, a total of 44 genes presented VIP values > 1.1 (*Figure 4*), and 11 out of the 21 new genes (highlighted in yellow) were from white skeletal muscle. Energy sensing and oxidative metabolism (12), antioxidant defence and tissue repair (11), GH/IGF system (11) and OXPHOS (6) were the main categories. Considering the VIP values from the 3 main

components (*Figure 5*), most of the genes due to component 3 contribution (highlighted in purple) were related to lipid metabolism.

4. Discussion

Hypoxia in aquatic habitats is a common disturbance that is predicted to occur in the future more extensively, more frequently and for longer periods of time (IPCC, 2014), becoming a major aquaculture stressor around the world. This is especially true in the case of intensive fish farming, and unraveling the adaptive hypoxic responses helps to better understand the nature of metabolic disturbances after short- and long-term exposures to challenging O₂ concentrations. Certainly, blood physiological landmarks remain mostly unaltered in juveniles of gilthead sea bream exposed over 24 h to moderate hypoxia (40% O₂ saturation), whereas changes in Hc and circulating levels of Hb, glucose and lactate are reported few hours after acute hypoxia (20% O₂ saturation) (Martos-Sitcha et al., 2017). In the same study, gene expression profiling of total blood cells evidenced a consistent transcriptional response after strong hypoxic insults, which serve to ensure a reduced but more efficient aerobic ATP production during severe hypoxia. Herein, we assessed the combined effects of moderate hypoxia and rearing density in a 3-weeks feeding trial, which highlights a reduced growth and a different contribution of target tissues to the homeostatic load in challenged fish. As discussed below, the ultimate mechanisms remain far to be established, though probably they have a major impact in mitochondrial respiration uncoupling, which varies across life, tissues, individuals and species (Rolfe et al., 1996; Hulbert et al., 2002; 2006). Indeed, as reviewed by Salin et al. (2015), rates of O₂ consumption are not by itself a good marker of energy metabolism as they do not distinguish between the energy used to produce ATP and the energy dissipated through H⁺ leakage. These two processes are apparently irreconcilable and natural selection can promote respiration uncoupling, faster growth and/or greater reproductive output in conditions of energy excess, whereas improved energy efficiency and reduced mitochondrial respiration uncoupling becomes a priority with low food availability (Auer et al., 2015). Of course, mitochondrial functioning also varies from one tissue to another, and the efficiency of aerobic energy production differs substantially between pectoralis and gastrocnemius muscles in fasted cold-acclimated birds (Monternier et al., 2017). Likewise, in gilthead sea bream, the expression of mitochondrial uncoupling proteins (UCP2/UCP3) is differentially regulated by feed restriction in glycolytic (white skeletal muscle) and highly oxidative (heart and skeletal red muscle) tissues (Bermejo-Nogales et al., 2014b).

Growth impairments due to long-term hypoxia exposure have been noticed in a wide-range of farmed fish, including turbot, European sea bass and Atlantic salmon (Pichavant et al., 2001; Remen et al., 2016; Cadiz et al., 2017; Vikeså et al., 2017). As reported herein in gilthead sea bream, a primary response is the inhibition of feed intake which would favor a hypo-metabolic state with a reduced ROS production and risk of oxidative stress. This is supported by lowered plasma levels of lactate, which would reflect in hypoxic fish, and in a lower extent in HDN, a low basal metabolism rather than a shift of aerobic to anaerobic metabolism. This metabolic re-adjustment has also been reported in gilthead sea bream juveniles facing multiple sensorial stressors in a model of chronic stress that mimic daily aquaculture operations (Bermejo-Nogales et al., 2014a). Thus, according with the oxystatic theory (Dam and Pauly, 1995; Saravanan et al., 2012), fish finely adjust feed intake and basal metabolism to available O₂, prioritizing feed efficiency at the expenses of maximum

398 growth under restricted mitochondrial respiration. This seems to be especially
399 effective in gilthead sea bream, a protandrous hermaphroditic fish with a high
400 metabolic plasticity that makes feasible to be eurytherm, euryhalin and euryoxic
401 thanks, at least in part, to a permissive regulation of feed intake which allows to cope
402 an efficient energy metabolism at slow growth rates. As a prove of this, the best FE
403 and hormonal signatures for fast and efficient growth generally occurs before the
404 achievement of maximum growth at the greater ration size (Brett, 1979; Pérez-
405 Sánchez et al., 1995). This also applies at the cellular level, where the maximum ATP
406 yield per molecule of O₂ (P/O ratio) is highly dependent on ration size, as evidenced
407 the increased P/O ratio of king penguins during periods of food shortage (Monternier
408 et al., 2014).

409 Most of the hypoxia-mediated effects are accompanied by an enhanced O₂-carrying
410 capacity denoted by a swelling, formation and/or release of new erythrocytes together
411 with plasma volume reduction (Gallaughier and Farrell, 1998). This is also inferred
412 from our haematological data with changes in the measured Hc and corpuscular
413 concentrations of Hb, which were affected by O₂ concentration and secondly by
414 rearing density. Conversely, changes in HSI, reflecting the amount of lipid and
415 glycogen depots, are more informative of feed intake rather than hypoxic condition,
416 though it is difficult to disclose the main factor. At the hormonal level, this is also
417 inferred from the measurements of circulating levels of cortisol and Gh, which are
418 well-known regulators of metabolic rates by their involvement on mitochondria
419 function (see Mommsen et al., 1999; Bergan-Roller and Sheridan, 2018 for review).
420 In fact, cortisol is a well marker of crowding stress in gilthead sea bream (Arends et
421 al., 1999; Skrzynska et al., 2018), being enhanced the responsiveness of the
422 hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis by fasting or restricted feeding (Sangiao-
423 Alvarillos et al., 2005). This agrees with the observation that the greater circulating
424 concentration of cortisol was achieved herein in the HDH group, which also
425 experienced a higher feed intake inhibition. However, this system cannot be
426 continuously refed and glucocorticoid receptors in rodents and perhaps other animal
427 models translocate cortisol into mitochondria to reduce mitochondrial activity and the
428 risk of oxidative stress (Du et al., 2009). Thus, in the absence of a cortisol response,
429 chronic cold-thermal stress up-regulates OXPHOS in gilthead sea bream, whereas the
430 cortisol rise in fish facing multiple aquaculture sensorial stressors is accompanied by a
431 pronounced transcriptional repression of all the hepatic complex units of the
432 mitochondrial respiratory chain (Bermejo-Nogales et al., 2014a). A similar response
433 has been reported after strong hypoxic insults, though in this case the catalytic and
434 regulatory enzyme subunits of Complex IV (the last electron acceptor of respiratory
435 chain involved in the O₂ reduction) were up-regulated, maximizing the use of
436 available O₂ for aerobic ATP generation (Martos-Sitcha et al., 2017). The aerobic
437 scope and gene expression profiling of mitochondria is also highly regulated at the
438 nutritional level by synthetic and natural dietary oils (Pérez-Sánchez et al., 2013;
439 Martos-Sitcha et al., 2018), and the suppression of heptanoate effects upon exercise
440 endurance is viewed as a protective measure to counteract disproportionate oxidative
441 metabolic rates in fish fed fast energy-delivery nutrients (short/medium chain fatty
442 acids). In other words, stimulatory and inhibitory effects of energy metabolism
443 coexist as a trade-off mechanism that might reflect the changing energy needs rather
444 than the availability of metabolic fuels. Accordingly, in the present study, the increased
445 circulating levels of Gh in hypoxic/crowded fish will reflect a reduced feed intake and
446 energy demand rather than a minor capacity to combat oxidative stress, as it is generally

referenced in fish and other animal models overexpressing GH (Brown-Borg et al., 1999, 2000; McKenzie et al., 2003; Almeida et al., 2013).

The gene expression profiling of key metabolic biomarkers also contributes to better understand the search of allostatic load in a challenging environment. Thus, the two-way ANOVA reveals the different involvement of tissues and gene categories into the stress-mediated responses. This observation is reinforced by the use of multivariate analysis, which offers the possibility to identify, at a high level of confidence, the most responsive tissues and biomarkers for a given stress stimuli in a factorial stress design. Using such approach, we are able to explain and to predict a high percentage of total variance, being noteworthy that liver, white skeletal muscle and heart remain responsive at long-term to changing O₂ and rearing density, whereas the expression pattern of blood cells becomes mostly unaltered with the imposed stress stimuli of medium intensity. In previous studies in gilthead sea bream and other animal models, liver and cardiac muscle are highly responsive to hypoxia (Everett et al., 2012; Hermes-Lima et al., 2015; Magnoni et al., 2017), and genes of these two tissues highly contribute herein to separate normoxic and hypoxic fish along the first component that predicts more than 28% of total variance. One of the most relevant genes participating in this discriminant feature is the *hif-1a*, a well-documented regulator of O₂ homeostasis. This transcriptional factor acts at a multi-regulatory level, managing the hypoxic responsiveness of a vast array of transcribed proteins including antioxidant enzymes (Nikinmaa and Rees, 2005; Lushchak and Bagnyukova, 2006). Concretely, herein, we show a clear down-regulation of *hif-1a* that was coincident with the repressed expression of other down-stream markers of antioxidant defence and tissue repair (*prdx5*, *sod2*, *mortalin*, *gpx4*, *gr*, *grp-170*, *prdx3*). This intriguing result can be cautiously interpreted since Hif-1 is mostly regulated at the post-translational level (Ke and Costa, 2006), though this finding should be understood as a steady-state in which O₂ availability is reduced but maintained high enough to preserve aerobic metabolism at a relatively high level. This fact is supported by a reduced expression of *cs* and associated enzyme subunits of Complex I (*nd2*, *nd5*), used successfully in several studies as markers of mitochondria abundance and Krebs cycle activity (Larsen et al., 2012; Magnoni et al., 2017). In addition to that, several *sirts* (*sirt1*, 2, 5, 6, 7) of liver or cardiac muscle were overall down-regulated in hypoxic fish, especially in the case of HDH fish. These NAD⁺-dependent deacetylases are energy sensors that act in gilthead sea bream as a link between nutrition and energy metabolism in different growth models with nutrients and genetic variables as source of variation (Simó-Mirabet et al., 2017a; 2017b; 2018). This was extended herein to hypoxia/crowding stress, which indicates that most of the envisaged adaptive responses should include changes in the acetylation status of both nuclear histones, and cytoplasmic and mitochondrial metabolic enzymes.

The second component of our PLS-DA (R²=29.27%) differentiates normoxic fish held at different stocking densities. In this case, the white skeletal muscle clearly promotes this separation mainly by the expression pattern of genes related to GH/IGF system (*ghr-i*, *igfbp6b*, *igfbp5b*, *insr*, *igfbp3*, *igf-i*). Components of liver and muscle GH/IGF system are differentially regulated by nutrients and seasonal environmental cues (reviewed by Pérez-Sánchez et al., 2018), but herein this observation becomes specially relevant for muscle *ghr-i* that highly contributes to discriminate the detrimental growth effects of crowding stress from those more related to hypoxia or water quality. Likewise, genes of *igfbp* repertoire highly contribute to this

differentiation, though the discriminant role of Igfbp counterparts (*igfbp6b* > *igfbp5b* > *igfbp3*) was mostly reduced to skeletal muscle and *Igfbp3/5/6* clade. In this regard, it is noteworthy that the ancestral *Igfbp* gene was duplicated in tandem during an early stage of vertebrate evolution to produce pairs of *Igfbps* that gave rise in subsequent genome duplication events the two *Igfbp* clades of modern vertebrates (*Igfbp1/2/4*; *Igfbp3/5/6*) (Kajimura et al., 2005; Ning et al., 2006; Shimizu et al., 2017; Garcia de la Serrana and Macqueen, 2018). Additionally, the third and fourth round of whole-genome duplication create the corresponding paralog pairs, being the Igfbp subtypes of *igfbp3/5/6* clade overexpressed in the skeletal muscle whereas those of *igfbp1/2/4* clade are more characteristic of liver in adult animals (Pérez-Sánchez et al., 2018). Functional divergence regarding the growth-inhibitory or growth-promoting action of *igfbps* have been reported across species and physiological context (Garcia de la Serrana and Macqueen, 2018), but herein the overall depressed expression of the muscle *Igfbp* clade in HD fish is consistent with inhibitory rather than stimulatory growth-promoting effects, which also involves the regulation of insulin and Igfbp receptors with important implications on the final arrangements of carbohydrate, growth and energy metabolism (reviewed by Reindl and Sheridan, 2012; Vélez et al., 2017). Indeed, fish are the first group in the vertebrate tree in which there is evidence of distinct insulin and Igf receptors, though certain cross-reactivity between ligand and receptors of insulin and Igfs occurs and the specific-mediated effects are sometimes confounding. However, it is well-recognized that insulin stimulates Hif-1, whereas intermittent hypoxia induces insulin resistance in mice (Treins et al., 2002; Poulain et al., 2017). Likewise, *Igfbp1* knock-down alleviates the hypoxia-induced growth retardation in zebrafish (Kajimura et al., 2005), whereas the IGFBP4 expression is induced by hypoxia in U87 glioma cells (Minchenko et al., 2016). From our results it is also conclusive that the muscle expression of *igfr1* and *igfr2* are specially responsive to hypoxia, but importantly *insr* in gilthead sea bream seems to be more receptive to crowding stress rather than hypoxic stress stimuli, though it remains to be established the functional relevance of this differential responsiveness to environmental stressors.

Finally, the third component of our multivariate approach ($R^2=25.42\%$) discriminates the effect of stocking density in fish exposed to moderate hypoxia, with a marked contribution of hepatic fatty desaturases with $\Delta 6$ (*fads2*) or $\Delta 9$ (*scd1a*, *scd1b*) activities due to its strong and specific induction in LDH fish. A muscle marker of FA oxidation (*cpt1a*) was also consistently up-regulated in this group, but this response was opposite to that found in HDH group, which is indicative of the different regulation of muscle lipid catabolism by hypoxia in fish stocked at standard or high densities. Likewise, the major discriminant capacity of other factors related to lipid metabolism (*elovl6*) was achieved between normoxic fish held at LD and HD. Meanwhile, other elongases (*elovl5*) with a well-recognized role in the control of hepatic triglyceride storage did not take part of the group separation in the present study, though *elovl5* highly contributes to differentiate two gilthead sea bream strains with differences in growth performance and metabolic capacities (Simó-Mirabet et al., 2018). Previous studies, in gilthead sea bream (Benedito-Palos et al., 2013; 2014) and European sea bass (Rimoldi et al., 2016) have also evidenced an important effect of ration size on the hepatic and muscle regulation of most of the lipid biomarkers assessed in the present study, but again it is difficult to disclose what is the main factor (feed intake or the imposed stress condition) due to the logistic limitations of our experiment design that did not include pair-fed groups. However, as a general rule, stressors enhance the demand of specific nutrients and hypoxia in particular

promote the cellular uptake of extracellular unsaturated fatty acids in mice cell lines (Ackerman et al., 2018). Moreover, in hypoxic stress, cancer cells enhance lipid synthesis that is important for membrane biosynthesis and energy storage for cell survival and proliferation (Huang et al., 2014), being induced this hypoxia lipogenic phenotype via dependent- and HIF1 α -independent pathways (Valli et al., 2015). All this together supports the pronounced stimulation of *fads2* and *scd* desaturases in our stress model, which will promote the increase of the unsaturation index of structural lipids as previously reported during feed restriction in gilthead sea bream (Benedito-Palos et al., 2013). In agreement with this, hypoxia stress on HeLa cells leads to significant changes in their membrane lipid profiles, and polyunsaturated phospholipid species are becoming stronger biomarkers for discriminating the effect of hypoxia treatment on membrane fluidity and further membrane-dependent functions (Yu et al., 2014).

5. Concluding Remarks

The findings described herein evidence the re-adjustment of several biological functions in a factorial model of chronic stress, where most of the hypoxia-mediated effects on growth performance and energy metabolism were exacerbated in fish held at HD. The integrated data on blood haematology, biochemistry and hormonal profiling highlights a hypo-metabolic state with the enhancement of O₂-carrying capacity, being this metabolic feature accompanied by a reduction in voluntary feed intake and a more efficient energy metabolism at the expenses of slow growth rates. This notion was supported at the transcriptional level by global changes of tissue-gene expression profiles, which also evidenced tissue-specific orchestration of stress response reflecting the nature and intensity of stress stimuli, but also the different metabolic capacities of targeted tissues. Thus, the number of DE in response to a given stress stimuli varies across the targeted tissues (liver \geq heart > muscle > blood), but importantly PLS-DA analysis also informs of the different tissue contribution to the allostatic load. Thus, liver and heart mostly contribute to cope with a global hypoxic response involving changes in energy sensing and production as well as antioxidant defence and tissue repair. In contrast, metabolic markers of skeletal muscle with a high over-representation of GH/IGF system mostly contribute to disclose the effects of rearing density not necessarily mediated by low O₂ concentrations. Likewise, lipid metabolism and hepatic fatty acid desaturases are becoming strong biomarkers of crowding stress in hypoxic fish, which reveals the complexity and metabolic plasticity of gilthead sea bream to cope with stress resilience under intensive fish farming.

FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1. Experimental set-up used to control dissolved O₂ levels in the experimental tanks to implement hypoxic conditions under different stocking densities. The steady-state was set at ~3.0 ppm O₂ (42-43% oxygen saturation) in fish kept under hypoxia (LOS), whereas fish maintained in normoxia a concentration of >5.5 ppm O₂ (>85 % O₂ saturation) was always assured.

Figure 2. A) Graphical representation of the goodness-of-fit of the PLS-DA model. B) Two-dimensional PLS-DA score plot representing the distribution of the samples between the first two components in the model. C) Two-dimensional PLS-DA score plot representing the distribution of the samples between the first and third components in the model. R²(cum): explained variance; Q²(cum): predicted variance; LDN: low density normoxia; LDH: low density hypoxia; HDN: high density normoxia; HDH: high density hypoxia.

Figure 3. A) Graphical representation of the variable importance (VIP) scores after component 1. B) Ranking list of genes showing VIP score values above 1.1 and their relative gene expression. Values on relative expression are the mean ± SEM of 8 fish (2-3 fish per replicate tank). P-values are the result of two-way analysis of variance. Asterisks in each row indicate significant differences with oxygen concentration for a given rearing density (SNK test, P < 0.05).

Figure 4. A) Graphical representation of the variable importance (VIP) scores after component 2. B) Ranking list of genes showing VIP score values above 1.1 and their relative gene expression. Cells shaded in blue highlight genes detected as VIP after component 1; cells shaded in yellow highlight genes detected as VIP after component 2. For further details, see legend on Figure 3.

Figure 5. A) Graphical representation of the variable importance (VIP) scores after component 3. B) Ranking list of genes showing VIP score values above 1.1 and their relative gene expression. Cells shaded in blue highlight genes detected as VIP after component 1; cells shaded in yellow highlight genes detected as VIP after component 2; cells shaded in purple highlight genes detected as VIP after component 3. For further details, see legend on Figure 3.

619 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

620 JM-S, JC-G and JP-S: conceived and designed the study; JM-S, PS-M and VH:
621 carried out experimental procedures; JM-S and JP-S: wrote the original draft; All
622 authors analysed and interpreted the data, reviewed, edited and approved the final
623 manuscript.

624

625 COMPETING INTERESTS

626 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial
627 or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

628

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- 1039

1040 **Table 1.** Genes included in the liver (†), white muscle (#), heart (‡) and total blood
 1041 cells (*) pathway-focused PCR arrays.

Gene name/category	Symbol	Gene name/category	Symbol
<i>GH/IGF system</i>		<i>Lipid metabolism</i>	
Growth hormone receptor I	<i>ghr-i</i> †#‡	Elongation of very long chain fatty acids 1	<i>elovl1</i> †
Growth hormone receptor II	<i>ghr-ii</i> †#‡	Elongation of very long chain fatty acids 4	<i>elovl4</i> †
Insulin-like growth factor-I	<i>igf-i</i> †#‡	Elongation of very long chain fatty acids 5	<i>elovl5</i> †
Insulin-like growth factor-II	<i>igf-ii</i> †#‡	Elongation of very long chain fatty acids 6	<i>elovl6</i> †
Insulin-like growth factor binding protein 1a	<i>igfbp1a</i> †	Fatty acid desaturase 2	<i>fads2</i> †
Insulin-like growth factor binding protein 2b	<i>igfbp2b</i> †	Stearoyl-CoA desaturase 1a	<i>scd1a</i> †
Insulin-like growth factor binding protein 3	<i>igfbp3</i> #	Stearoyl-CoA desaturase 1b	<i>scd1b</i> †
Insulin-like growth factor binding protein 4	<i>igfbp4</i> †	Lipoprotein lipase	<i>lpl</i> †
Insulin-like growth factor binding protein 5b	<i>igfbp5b</i> #	Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor α	<i>ppara</i> †
Insulin-like growth factor binding protein 6b	<i>igfbp6b</i> #	Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ	<i>ppary</i> †
Insulin receptor	<i>insr</i> #	<i>Antioxidant defence and tissue repair</i>	
Insulin-like growth factor receptor I	<i>igfr1</i> #	Catalase	<i>cat</i> †#‡
Insulin-like growth factor receptor II	<i>igfr2</i> #	Glutathione peroxidase 4	<i>gpx4</i> †#‡
<i>Energy sensing and oxidative metabolism</i>		Glutathione reductase	<i>gr</i> †#‡
Sirtuin 1	<i>sirt1</i> †#‡	Peroxisiredoxin 3	<i>prdx3</i> †#‡*
Sirtuin 2	<i>sirt2</i> †#‡	Peroxisiredoxin 5	<i>prdx5</i> †#‡*
Sirtuin 3	<i>sirt3</i> †#‡	Mn-sod/sod2	<i>Mn-sod/sod2</i> †#‡*
Sirtuin 4	<i>sirt4</i> †#‡	Superoxide dismutase [Mn]	<i>superoxide dismutase [Mn]</i> †#‡*
Sirtuin 5	<i>sirt5</i> †#‡	Glucose-regulated protein, 170 kDa	<i>grp-170</i> †#‡
Sirtuin 6	<i>sirt6</i> †#‡	Glucose-regulated protein, 94 kDa	<i>grp-94</i> †#‡
Sirtuin 7	<i>sirt7</i> †#‡	70 kDa heat shock protein, mitochondrial	<i>mthsp70/grp-75/mortalin</i> †#‡
Carnitine palmitoyltransferase 1A	<i>cpt1a</i> †#‡*	Glutathione S-transferase 3	<i>gst3</i> *
Citrate synthase	<i>cs</i> †#‡*	<i>Muscle growth and cell differentiation</i>	
Proliferator-activated receptor gamma coactivator 1 alpha	<i>pgc1a</i> †#‡	Myoblast determination protein 1	<i>myod1</i> #
Proliferator-activated receptor gamma coactivator 1 beta	<i>pgc1β</i> †#‡*	Myogenic factor MYOD2	<i>myod2</i> #
Hypoxia inducible factor-1 alpha	<i>hif-1α</i> †#‡	Myogenic factor 5	<i>myf5</i> #
<i>Respiration uncoupling</i>		Myogenic factor 6	<i>myf6/mrf4/herculin</i> #
Uncoupling protein 1	<i>ucp1</i> †	Myostatin/Growth differentiation factor 8	<i>mstn/gdf-8</i> #
Uncoupling protein 2	<i>ucp2</i> *	Myocyte-specific enhancer factor 2A	<i>mef2a</i> #
Uncoupling protein 3	<i>ucp3</i> #	Myocyte-specific enhancer factor 2C	<i>mef2c</i> #
<i>Xenobiotic metabolism</i>		Follistatin	<i>fst</i> #
Aryl hydrocarbon receptor 1	<i>ahr1</i> ‡	<i>Nuclear receptors</i>	
Cytochrome P450 1A1	<i>cyp1a1</i> ‡	Glucocorticoid receptor	<i>gcr</i> ‡
		Estrogen receptor alpha	<i>er-α</i> ‡
		Nuclear respiratory factor 1	<i>nrf1</i> *

Table 1. (continued)

Outer and Inner transmembrane translocation (TOM and TIM complex)		Mitochondrial dynamics and apoptosis	
Mitochondrial import receptor subunit Tom70	<i>tom70</i> *	Mitofusin 2	<i>mfn2</i> *
Mitochondrial import receptor subunit Tom34	<i>tom34</i> *	Mitochondrial fission factor homolog B	<i>miffb</i> *
Mitochondrial import receptor subunit Tom22	<i>tom22</i> *	Mitochondrial Rho GTPase 1	<i>miro1a</i> *
Mitochondrial import inner membrane translocase subunit 44	<i>tim44</i> *	Mitochondrial Rho GTPase 2	<i>miro2</i> *
Mitochondrial import inner membrane translocase subunit 23	<i>tim23</i> *	Apoptosis-related protein 1	<i>aifm1</i> *
Mitochondrial import inner membrane translocase subunit Tim8A	<i>tim8a</i> *		
Mitochondrial import inner membrane translocase subunit Tim10	<i>tim10</i> *		
Mitochondrial import inner membrane translocase subunit Tim9	<i>tim9</i> *		
OXPHOS (Complex I)		OXPHOS (Complex IV)	
NADH-ubiquinone oxidoreductase chain 2	<i>nd2</i> †#‡*	Cytochrome c oxidase subunit I	<i>coxi</i> †#‡*
NADH-ubiquinone oxidoreductase chain 5	<i>nd5</i> †#‡*	Cytochrome c oxidase subunit II	<i>coxii</i> †#‡*
NADH dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 alpha subcomplex subunit 1	<i>ndufa1</i> *	Cytochrome c oxidase subunit III	<i>coxiii</i> *
NADH dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 alpha subcomplex subunit 3	<i>ndufa3</i> *	Cytochrome c oxidase subunit 4 isoform 1	<i>cox4a</i> *
NADH dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 alpha subcomplex subunit 4	<i>ndufa4</i> *	Cytochrome c oxidase subunit 5A, mitochondrial-like isoform 2	<i>cox5a2</i> *
NADH dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 alpha subcomplex subunit 7	<i>ndufa7</i> *	Cytochrome c oxidase subunit 6A isoform 2	<i>cox6a2</i> *
NADH dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 beta subcomplex subunit 5	<i>ndufb5</i> *	Cytochrome c oxidase subunit 6C1	<i>cox6c1</i> *
NADH dehydrogenase iron-sulfur protein 2	<i>ndufs2</i> *	Cytochrome c oxidase subunit 7B	<i>cox7b</i> *
NADH dehydrogenase iron-sulfur protein 7	<i>ndufs7</i> *	Cytochrome c oxidase subunit 8B	<i>cox8b</i> *
NADH dehydrogenase (ubiquinone) 1 alpha subcomplex, assembly factor 2	<i>ndufaf2</i> *	SCO1 protein homolog, mitochondrial	<i>sco1</i> *
		Surfeit locus protein 1	<i>surf1</i> *
		Cytochrome c oxidase assembly protein COX15 homolog	<i>cox15</i> *

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Table 2. Effects of rearing density and dissolved oxygen concentration on gilthead sea bream growth performance on a 21-days feeding trial. Values on body weight, feed intake, growth and feed efficiency are the mean \pm SEM of triplicate tanks. Values on tissue biometric indexes are the mean \pm SEM of 12 fish (4 fish per replicate tank). P-values are the result of two-way analysis of variance. Asterisks in each row indicate significant differences with oxygen concentration for a given rearing density (SNK test, $P < 0.05$).

	LD		HD		P-value		
	Normoxia	Hypoxia	Normoxia	Hypoxia	[O ₂]	Density	Interaction
Initial body weight (g)	34.54 \pm 1.11	34.22 \pm 0.27	34.32 \pm 0.34	33.25 \pm 0.45	0.305	0.376	0.571
Final body weight (g)	56.04 \pm 1.89	51.65 \pm 0.71	54.02 \pm 0.50	48.54 \pm 1.05**	0.003	0.059	0.651
Feed intake (g DM/fish)	23.78 \pm 1.63	18.52 \pm 0.7*	24.57 \pm 1.06	17.54 \pm 0.47**	<0.001	0.932	0.427
Weight gain (%) ¹	62.21 \pm 0.31	50.94 \pm 1.34**	57.43 \pm 1.42	45.97 \pm 1.31**	<0.001	0.003	0.941
SGR (%) ²	2.30 \pm 0.01	1.96 \pm 0.04**	2.16 \pm 0.04	1.80 \pm 0.04**	<0.001	0.004	0.832
FE (%) ³	0.91 \pm 0.03	0.94 \pm 0.02	0.80 \pm 0.02	0.87 \pm 0.01*	0.039	0.003	0.445
Liver weight (g)	0.94 \pm 0.07	0.67 \pm 0.03**	0.90 \pm 0.06	0.63 \pm 0.03**	<0.001	0.436	0.987
Viscera weight (g)	4.41 \pm 0.28	3.84 \pm 0.18	4.42 \pm 0.19	3.68 \pm 0.10**	0.002	0.690	0.681
HSI (%) ⁴	1.64 \pm 0.07	1.33 \pm 0.06**	1.58 \pm 0.07	1.25 \pm 0.06**	<0.001	0.281	0.866
VSI (%) ⁵	7.78 \pm 0.29	7.65 \pm 0.25	7.87 \pm 0.24	7.38 \pm 0.22	0.224	0.720	0.487

¹Weight gain (%) = (100 x body weight increase)/initial body weight

²Specific growth rate = 100 x (ln final body weight - ln initial body weight)/days

³Feed efficiency = wet weight gain/dry feed intake

⁴Hepatosomatic index = (100 x liver weight)/fish weight

⁵Viscerosomatic index = (100 x viscera weight)/fish weight

Table 3. Effects of rearing density and dissolved oxygen concentration on blood haematology and plasma levels of metabolites, hormones and total antioxidant capacity. Values are the mean \pm SEM of 10-12 fish (4 fish per replicate tank). P-values are the result of two-way analysis of variance. Asterisks in each row indicate significant differences with oxygen concentration for a given rearing density (SNK test, $P < 0.05$).

	LD		HD		P-value	
	Normoxia	Hypoxia	Normoxia	Hypoxia	[O ₂]	Interaction
Haemoglobin (g)	7.18 \pm 0.24	7.73 \pm 0.21	7.38 \pm 0.14	7.77 \pm 0.26	0.041	0.591
Haematocrit (%)	22.18 \pm 1.10	32.91 \pm 1.65***	28.27 \pm 1.77	29.90 \pm 1.39	<0.001	0.313
RBC $\times 10^6$ (cells/ μ l) ¹	2.45 \pm 0.07	2.74 \pm 0.07**	2.38 \pm 0.06	2.82 \pm 0.08***	<0.001	0.924
MCHC (pg/10 μ m ³) ²	34.07 \pm 1.12	24.00 \pm 1.18***	26.62 \pm 1.73	26.46 \pm 1.10	<0.001	0.067
MCH (pg/cell) ³	89.79 \pm 4.21	116.6 \pm 4.46**	116.5 \pm 8.28	109.5 \pm 7.21	0.118	0.123
MCV (μ m ³) ⁴	29.50 \pm 1.02	28.33 \pm 0.76	31.36 \pm 0.93	27.73 \pm 0.96*	0.014	0.501
Glucose (mg/dl)	54.39 \pm 1.58	52.17 \pm 2.44	58.04 \pm 1.78	52.73 \pm 2.79	0.091	0.339
Lactate (mg/dl)	16.30 \pm 2.78	4.81 \pm 1.41**	10.22 \pm 3.06	4.99 \pm 0.84	0.001	0.225
TAA (mM Trolox) ⁵	1.34 \pm 0.04	1.45 \pm 0.04	1.48 \pm 0.03	1.43 \pm 0.03	0.447	0.104
Cortisol (ng/ml)	23.40 \pm 5.67	21.08 \pm 5.32	35.69 \pm 11.15	79.25 \pm 9.05**	0.036	<0.001
Growth hormone (ng/ml)	2.34 \pm 0.83	6.71 \pm 1.17*	5.39 \pm 1.29	8.33 \pm 4.20	0.069	0.337
Insulin-like growth factor-I (ng/ml)	46.06 \pm 4.76	46.59 \pm 4.77	45.78 \pm 2.27	41.03 \pm 6.29	0.659	0.544

¹Red blood cells

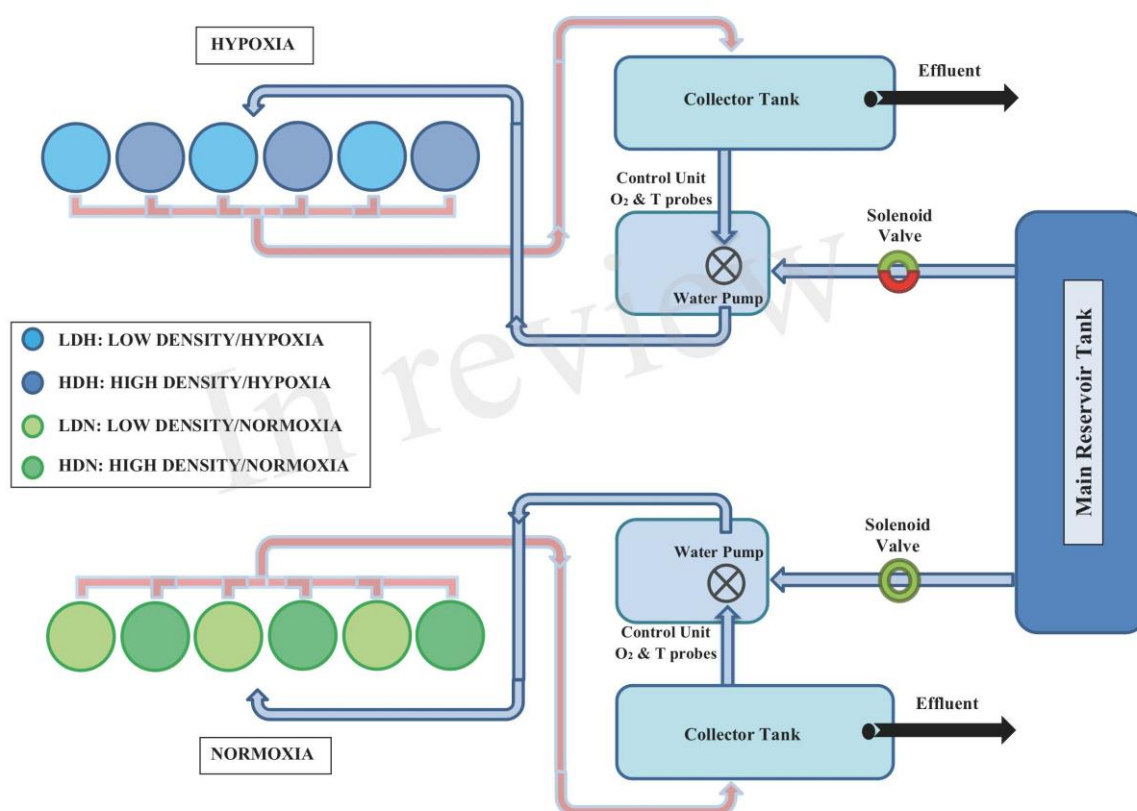
²Mean corpuscular haemoglobin concentration

³Mean corpuscular haemoglobin

⁴Mean corpuscular volume

⁵Total antioxidant activity

Figure 1.TIFF



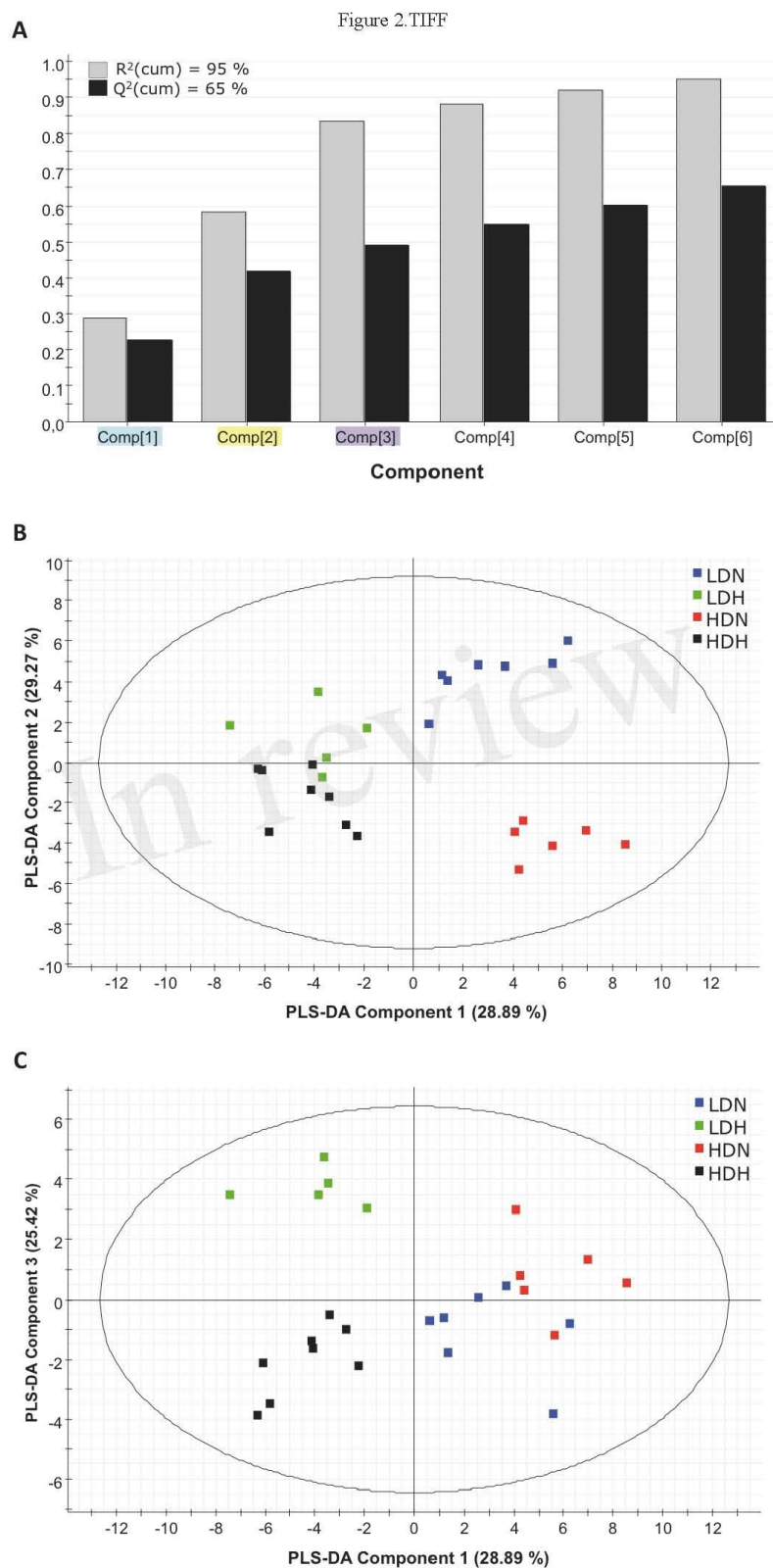


Figure 3.TIFF

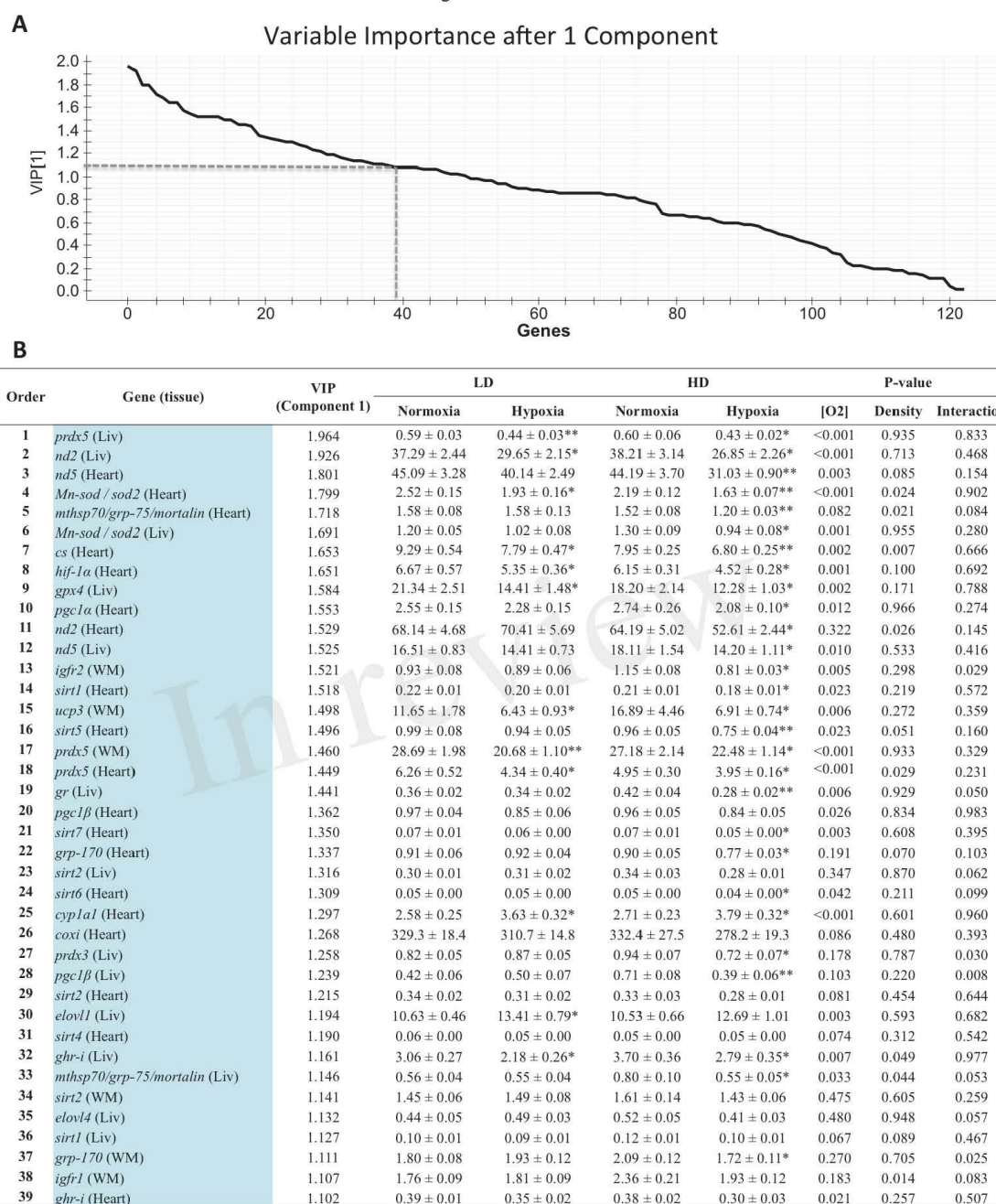


Figure 4.TIFF

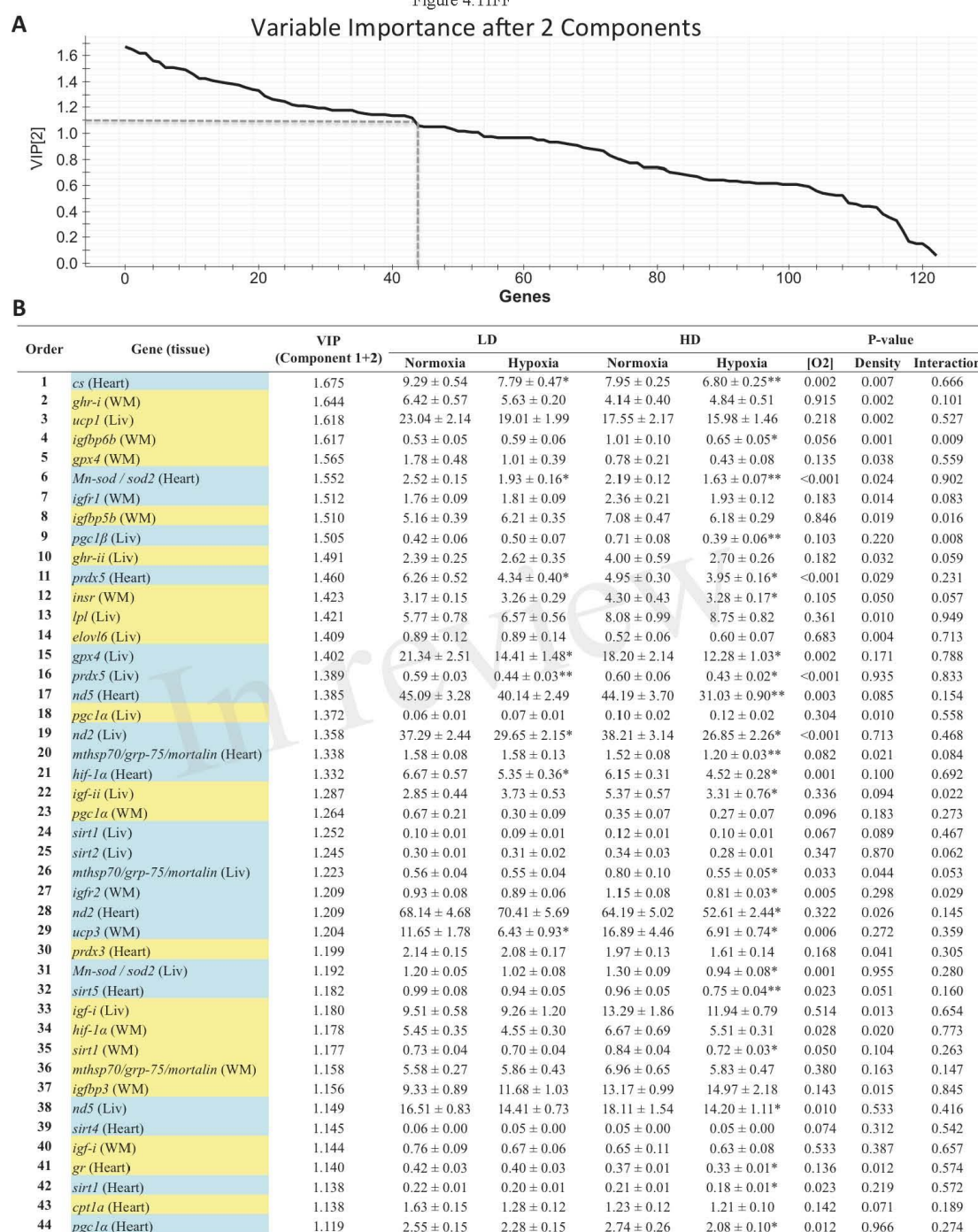
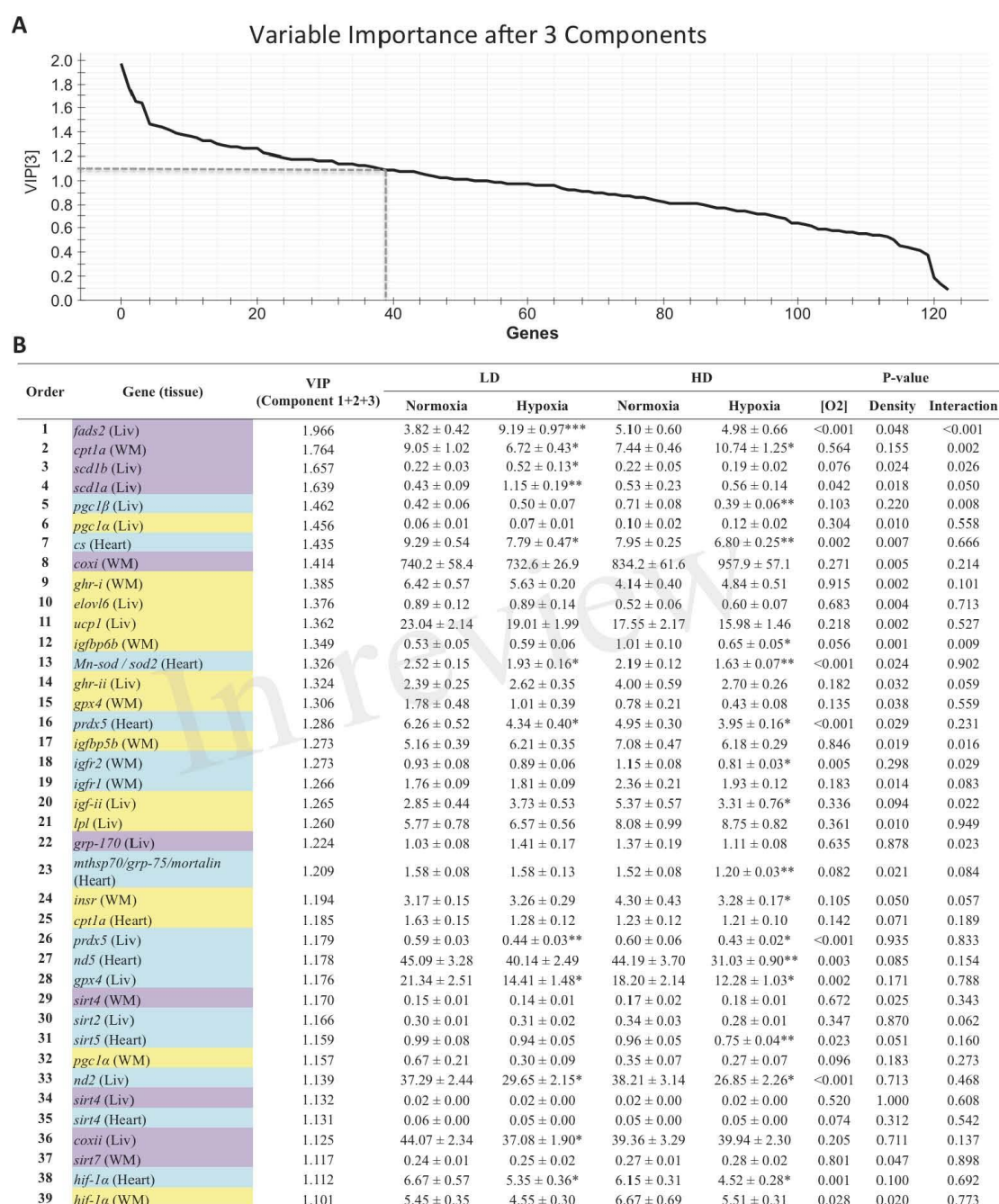


Figure 5.TIFF



Suppl. Table 1. Forward (F) and reverse (R) primers used for real-time PCR.

Gene name	Symbol	Acc. No.	Primer sequences (5' → 3')
70 kDa heat shock protein, mitochondrial	<i>mtbsp70/grp-75/mortalin</i>	DQ524993	F TCC GGT GTG GAT CTG ACC AAA GAC R TGT TTA GGC CCA GAA GCA TCC ATG
Apoptosis-related protein 1	<i>aifm1</i>	JX975255	F ACA GAG GAG TCA GGA ACC R GGA GCA GGC AAT GAA GAG
Aryl hydrocarbon receptor 1	<i>ahr1</i>	EU254480	F CCT GGG ACT GAA CGC CGA AG R GCT AAG TGT TGG GAT GTG GTT GG
β-Actin	<i>actb</i>	X89920	F TCC TGC GGA ATC CAT GAG A R GAC GTC GCA CTT CAT GAT GCT
Carnitine palmitoyltransferase 1A	<i>cpt1a</i>	JQ308822	F GTG CCT TCG TTC GTT CCA TGA TC R TGA TGC TTA TCT GCT GCC TGT TTG
Catalase	<i>cat</i>	JQ308823	F TGG TCG AGA ACT TGA AGG CTG TC R AGG ACG CAG AAA TGG CAG AGG
Citrate synthase	<i>cs</i>	JX975229	F TCC AGG AGG TGA CGA GCC R GTG ACC AGC AGC CAG AAG AG
Cytochrome c oxidase assembly protein COX15 homolog	<i>cox15</i>	KC217651	F CAT ACT AGG TCG CTG GTT AG R GAT TCC GTG AGC CTT GTG
Cytochrome c oxidase subunit 4 isoform 1	<i>cox4a</i>	JQ308835	F ACC CTG AGT CCA GAG CAG AAG TCC R AGC CAG TGA AGC CGA TGA GAA AGA AC
Cytochrome c oxidase subunit 5A, mitochondrial-like isoform 2	<i>cox5a2</i>	KC217635	F CGC CAT CCG CAT CCT TGA R GGC TTC AAC TCT TGG ATC AGG TAG G
Cytochrome c oxidase subunit 6A isoform 2	<i>cox6a2</i>	KC217639	F TGT TGG CTG CTG CGT CAC ATT C R CAG AAT CTT CCA GGT CCT CGC TCC
Cytochrome c oxidase subunit 6C1	<i>cox6c1</i>	KC217642	F TCT CTC TGT CAC TCC TGG CTG CGA TAG R CCT GGG CTC TGT CAC TGC GTA CTT G
Cytochrome c oxidase subunit 7B	<i>cox7b</i>	KC217645	F TCT TCT GTG TGG CTG TGT GGT CAT ACG R TTC CCA ACA GGT GAC AAA TTC CAG GTG AT
Cytochrome c oxidase subunit 8B	<i>cox8b</i>	KC217648	F TCC GCT GGT CCC TGT GGC TAA R CCT CCA CTG ATA TTG TGT TTG GCA GGT TTG
Cytochrome c oxidase subunit I	<i>coxi</i>	KC217652	F GTC CTA CTT CTT CTG TCC CTT CCT GTT CT R AGG TTT CGG TCT GTA AGG AGC ATT GTA ATC
Cytochrome c oxidase subunit II	<i>coxii</i>	KC217653	F ACT GCC TAC ACA GGA CCT TGC C R GTC TGC TTC CAG GAG ACG GAA TTG T
Cytochrome c oxidase subunit III	<i>coxiii</i>	KC217654	F CCA AGC ACA CGC ATA CCA CAT A R GCG GCA ACT GCA CCT GTA



Suppl. Table 1. (Continued)

Gene name	Symbol	Acc. No.	Primer sequences (5' → 3')
Cytochrome P450 1A1	<i>cyp1a1</i>	AF011223	F GCA TCA ACG ACC GCT TCA ACG C R CCT ACA ACC TTC TCA TCC GAC ATC TGG
Elongation of very long chain fatty acids 1	<i>elovl1</i>	JX975700	F CTT CCT ACA CAT CTT CCA CCA CTC R CCA TTC CAC CAG GAG CAA AGG
Elongation of very long chain fatty acids 4	<i>elovl4</i>	JX975701	F CGG TGG CAA TCA TCT TCC R TCA ACT GGC TGT CTG TGT
Elongation of very long chain fatty acids 5	<i>elovl5</i>	AY660879	F CCT CCT GGT GCT CT ACA AT R GTG AGT GTC CTG GCA GTA
Elongation of very long chain fatty acids 6	<i>elovl6</i>	JX975702	F GTG CTG CTC TAC TCC TGG TA R ACG GCA TGG ACC AAG TAG T
Estrogen receptor alpha	<i>er-α</i>	AF136979	F TCT AAG GGT CTG GAG CAC R TCG GTA TAG GGT CGG TTC
Fatty acid desaturase 2	<i>fads2</i>	AY055749	F GCA GGC GGA GAG CGA CGG TCT GTT CC R AGC AGG ATG TGA CCC AGG TGG AGG CAG AAG
Follistatin	<i>fst</i>	AY544167	F GGA CCA GAC AAA CAA CGC ATA TTG R CAT AGA TGA TCC CGT CGT TTC CAC
Glucocorticoid receptor	<i>gcr</i>	DQ486890	F CCA GGA CAG GTG CCG AAC G R TGG AGG AAC TGC TGC TGA ACC
Glucose-regulated protein, 170 kDa	<i>grp-170</i>	JQ308821	F CAG AGG AGG CAG ACA GCA AGA C R TTC TCA GAC TCA GCA TTT CCA GAT TTC
Glucose-regulated protein, 94 kDa	<i>grp-94</i>	JQ308820	F AAG GCA CAG GCT TAC CAG ACA G R CTT CAG CAT CAT CGC CGA CTT TC
Glutathione peroxidase 4	<i>gpx4</i>	AM977818	F TGC GTC TGA TAG GGT CCA CTG TC R GTC TGC CAG TCC TCT GTC GG
Glutathione reductase	<i>gr</i>	AJ937873	F TGT TCA GCC ACC CAC CCA TCG G R GCG TGA TAC ATC GGA GTG AAT GAA GTC TTG
Glutathione S-transferase 3	<i>gst3</i>	JQ308828	F CCA GAT GAT CAG TAC GTG AAG ACC GTC R CTG CTG ATG TGA GGA ATG TAC CGT AAC
Growth hormone receptor I	<i>ghr-i</i>	AF438176	F ACCTGTCAGCCACCACATGA R TCGTGCAGATCTGGGTCGTA
Growth hormone receptor II	<i>ghr-ii</i>	AY573601	F GAGTGAACCCGGCCTGACAG R GCGGTGGTATCTGATTCATGGT
Hypoxia inducible factor-1 alpha	<i>hif-1α</i>	JQ308830	F CAG ATG AGC CTC TAA CTT GTG GAC R TTA GCA AGA ATG GTG GCA AGA TGA G



Suppl. Table 1. (Continued 2)

Gene name	Symbol	Acc. No.	Primer sequences (5' → 3')
Insulin receptor	<i>insr</i>	KM522774	F ACG GAC AGC AAG AAG GCA GAG AAT C R GGC TTC AAC GGT CGG ATC AGG T
Insulin-like growth factor binding protein 1a	<i>igfbp1a</i>	KM522771	F ACA AAC CAA AAC AGT GCG AGT CCT C R CCG TTC CAA GAG TTC ACA CAC CAG
Insulin-like growth factor binding protein 2b	<i>igfbp2b</i>	AF377998	F AGC GAT GTG TCC TGA GAT AGT GAG R GCA CCG TGG CGT GTA GAC C
Insulin-like growth factor binding protein 3	<i>igfbp3*</i>	MH577191 MH577192	F ACA GTG CCG TCC ATC CAA R GCT GCC CGT ATT TGT CCA
Insulin-like growth factor binding protein 4	<i>igfbp4</i>	KM658998	F GGC ATC AAA CAC CCG CAC AC R ATC CAC GCA CCA GCA CTT CC
Insulin-like growth factor binding protein 5b	<i>igfbp5b</i>	MH577194	F CGA CAG GGC AGT CAA AGA AGC TAA CC R GTC TCG AAG GCA TGT GAG CAG AAG G
Insulin-like growth factor binding protein 6b	<i>igfbp6b</i>	MH577196	F GAT TGC TCA CTG CGG ATC R GGA GGG ACA GAC CTT GAA
Insulin-like growth factor receptor I	<i>igfr1</i>	KM522775	F TCA ACG ACA AGT ACG ACT ACC GCT GCT R CAC ACT TTC TGG CAC TGG TTG GAG GTC
Insulin-like growth factor receptor II	<i>igfr2</i>	KM522776	F ACA TTC GGG CAG CAC TCC TAA GAT R CCA GTT CAC CTC GTA GCG ACA GTT
Insulin-like growth factor-I	<i>igf-i</i>	AY996779	F TGTCTAGCGCTCTTTCCTTTCA R AGAGGGTGTGGCTACAGGAGATAC
Insulin-like growth factor-II	<i>igf-ii</i>	AY996778	F TGGGATCGTAGAGGAGTGTGT R CTGTAGAGAGGTGGCCGACA
Lipoprotein lipase	<i>lpl</i>	AY495672	F CGT TGC CAA GTT TGT GAC CTG R AGG GTG TTC TGG TTG TCT GC
Mitochondrial fission factor homolog B	<i>miffb</i>	JX975252	F CGC AGC AGC ATT CCC TTC R CTC GTA CTG GAT TCG GTT CAT CT
Mitochondrial import inner membrane translocase subunit 23	<i>tim23</i>	JX975240	F CAA GTC AGG AAG TGG CGT AA R AGA GCG TAG GCA CCA GAT A
Mitochondrial import inner membrane translocase subunit 44	<i>tim44</i>	JX975239	F GAT GAC CTG GGA CAC ACT GG R TCA CTC CTC TTC CTG AGT CTG G
Mitochondrial import inner membrane translocase subunit Tim10	<i>tim10</i>	JX975247	F TAC CGC CAC ATT ACA AGG AGC R ATC CAG GCA CAC CGA CTC
Mitochondrial import inner membrane translocase subunit Tim8A	<i>tim8a</i>	JX975245	F CGA CAC CAC CCT GAC CAT CAC R CGC CCT TCT GCA CCA TCT GT



Suppl. Table 1. (Continued 3)

Gene name	Symbol	Acc. No.	Primer sequences (5' → 3')	
Mitochondrial import inner membrane translocase subunit Tim9	<i>tim9</i>	JX975248	F	CGT CAA AGA TTT CAC CAC CAG AGA G
			R	GGA GAC ACG ACT CGG AGC A
Mitochondrial import receptor subunit Tom22	<i>tom22</i>	JX975236	F	CGC TCT GGG TGG GTA CTA CCT CCT T
			R	CGA ACA CAA CAG GCA GCA CCA GGA T
Mitochondrial import receptor subunit Tom34	<i>tom34</i>	JX975235	F	GCT ACC GCC ACT TCT CCA CAA
			R	TCT GTT TGG TGC CGT TCT GCT
Mitochondrial import receptor subunit Tom70	<i>tom70</i>	JX975234	F	GAG TCA GGT GGT CGA TAC A
			R	CCA ATG AGC AGG TAG AAT GTG
Mitochondrial Rho GTPase 1	<i>aifm1</i>	JX975255	F	ACA GAG GAG TCA GGA ACC
			R	GGA GCA GGC AAT GAA GAG
Mitochondrial Rho GTPase 2	<i>aifm1</i>	JX975255	F	ACA GAG GAG TCA GGA ACC
			R	GGA GCA GGC AAT GAA GAG
Mitofusin 2	<i>mfn2</i>	JX975251	F	GGG ATG CCT CAG CCT CAG AAC CT
			R	CTG CCT GCG GAC CTC TTC CAT GTA TT
Myoblast determination protein 1	<i>myod1</i>	AF478568	F	ATG GAG CTG TCG GAT ATC TCT TTC
			R	GAA GCA GGG GTC ATC GTA GAA ATC
Myocyte-specific enhancer factor 2A	<i>mef2a</i>	KM522777	F	ATG GAC GAG AGG AAC AGG CAG GTT A
			R	GGC TAT CTC ACA GTC ACA TAG TAC GCT CAG
Myocyte-specific enhancer factor 2C	<i>mef2c</i>	KM522778	F	TAG CAA CTC CCA CTC TAC CAG GAC AAG
			R	GGA ATA CTC GGC ACC ATA AGA AGT CG
Myogenic factor 5	<i>myf5</i>	JN034420	F	GCA TGG TTG ACA GCA ACA GTC CAG TGT
			R	TGT CTT ATC GCC CAA AGT GTC GTT CTT CAT
Myogenic factor 6	<i>myf6/mrf4/herculin</i>	JN034421	F	GCA GCA ATG ACA AAC CAG AGA GAC GGA ACA
			R	GAG GCT GGA GGA CGC CGA AGA TTC A
Myogenic factor MYOD2	<i>myod2</i>	AF478569	F	CCA ACT GCT CTG ATG GCA TGA TGG ATT TC
			R	GAC CGT TTG CTT CTC CTG GAC TCG TAT G
Myostatin/Growth differentiation factor 8	<i>mstn/gdf-8</i>	AF258448	F	AAG AGC AGA TCA TCT ACG GCA AGA TCC
			R	TCA AGA GCA TCC ACA ACG GTC TAC CA
NADH dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 alpha subcomplex, assembly factor 2	<i>ndufaf2</i>	KC217598	F	AGG CAG CAT ACC GAT AGA G
			R	ACT CAT TCT TCA GCA ACT CCT
NADH dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 alpha subcomplex subunit 1	<i>ndufa1</i>	KC217562	F	CGG GTT CCG TGG CAG TGG TA
			R	TCC TGT TCC TGA TAC TCG CTT GTC TCT



Suppl. Table 1. (Continued 4)

Gene name	Symbol	Acc. No.	Primer sequences (5' → 3')	
NADH dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 alpha subcomplex subunit 3	<i>ndufa3</i>	KC217564	F	TCG GAG CGT TCC TGA AGA ATG C
			R	GAA GAG CCA TAC CTA TCA GTC CAA TAC CA
NADH dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 alpha subcomplex subunit 4	<i>ndufa4</i>	KC217565	F	GCT CGT CTG GGC TTG AGA AAC C
			R	GCT CTG GGT TGT TCT TGC GAT CC
NADH dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 alpha subcomplex subunit 7	<i>ndufa7</i>	KC217569	F	CCG AGC CAC AAG TAT GCC AGC AAC TA
			R	AGC CTC CCT GCG TCC ATC TCT G
NADH dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 beta subcomplex subunit 5	<i>ndufb5</i>	KC217580	F	TGC GTC GGC AGA TGA GGA T
			R	CTT GTT GAG GGT GTT CAC CTG GAA
NADH dehydrogenase iron-sulfur protein 2	<i>ndufs2</i>	KC217589	F	GTA TCA GAC GGC TCC AGC AGA C
			R	AGA CCA GCC AAG TGA GCG AAT
NADH dehydrogenase iron-sulfur protein 7	<i>ndufs7</i>	KC217594	F	AAC GGA GGA GGC TAC TAC CAC TAC T
			R	CGG TAC GAT TCG GTC ACA ACC TCT AAC
NADH-ubiquinone oxidoreductase chain 2	<i>nd2</i>	KC217558	F	TAG GTT GAA TGA CCA TCG TA
			R	GGC TAA GGA GTT GAG GTT
NADH-ubiquinone oxidoreductase chain 5	<i>nd5</i>	KC217559	F	CCT AAA CGC CTG AGC CCT GG
			R	GCT GTA AAC GAG GTG GCT AGA AGG
Nuclear respiratory factor 1	<i>nrf1</i>	JX975263	F	CAG ATA GTC CTG GCA GAG A
			R	GAC CTG TGG CAT CTT GAA
Peroxiredoxin 3	<i>prdx3</i>	GQ252681	F	ATC AAC ACC CCA CGC AAG ACT G
			R	ACC GTT TGG ATC AAT GAG GAA CAG ACC
Peroxiredoxin 5	<i>prdx5</i>	GQ252683	F	ATC AAC ACC CCA CGC AAG ACT G
			R	TCC ACA TTG ATC TTC TTC ACG ACT CC
Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor α	<i>ppara</i>	AY590299	F	TCT CTT CAG CCC ACC ATC CC
			R	ATC CCA GCG TGT CGT CTC C
Peroxisomeproliferator-activated receptor γ	<i>ppary</i>	AY590304	F	CGC CGT GGA CCT GTC AGA GC
			R	GGA ATG GAT GGA GGA GGA GGA GAT GG
Proliferator-activated receptor gamma coactivator 1 alpha	<i>pgc1a</i>	JX975264	F	CGT GGG ACA GGT GTA ACC AGG ACT C
			R	ACC AAC CAA GGC AGC ACA CTC TAA TTC T
Proliferator-activated receptor gamma coactivator 1 beta	<i>pgc1β</i>	JX975265	F	TCA GAG GAA GAG GCG GAT
			R	GAC ACA GGT GGA GGA TGG
SCO1 protein homolog, mitochondrial	<i>sco1</i>	KC217649	F	ACA ACA ACA AGC CCA CCA AGA
			R	GAC AGT GAG TGA ACC CGA AGT AGA T



Suppl. Table 1. (Continued 5)

Gene name	Symbol	Acc. No.	Primer sequences (5' → 3')
Sirtuin1	<i>sirt1</i>	KF018666	F GGT TCC TAC AGT TTC ATC CAG CAG CAC ATC R CCT CAG AAT GGT CCT CGG ATC GGT CTC
Sirtuin2	<i>sirt2</i>	KF018667	F GAA CAA TCC GAC GAC AGC AGT GAA G R AGG TTA CGC AGG AAG TCC ATC TCT
Sirtuin3	<i>sirt3</i>	KF018668	F CTG CCA AGT CCT CAT CCC R CTT CAC CAG ACG AGC CAC
Sirtuin4	<i>sirt4</i>	KF018669	F GGC TGG CGG AGT CGG ATG R TCC TGA ATA CAC CTG TGA CGA AGA C
Sirtuin5	<i>sirt5</i>	KF018670	F CAG ACA TCC TAA CCC GAG CAG AG R CCA CGA GGC AGA GGT CAC A
Sirtuin6	<i>sirt6</i>	KF018671	F ACT CCA CCA CCA CCG ATG TCA A R CTC CTC CTC CTT CAC CTT TCG CTT TG
Sirtuin7	<i>sirt7</i>	KF018672	F CTG GAG CAA CCT CTA AAC TGG AA R CAC CTT CAG ACT GGA GCC TAA
Stearoyl-CoA desaturase 1a	<i>scd1a</i>	JQ277703	F CGG AGG CGG AGG CGT TGG AGA AGA AG R AGG GAG ACG GCG TAC AGG GCA CCT ATA TG
Stearoyl-CoA desaturase 1b	<i>scd1b</i>	JQ277704	F GCT CAA TCT CAC CAC CGC CTT CAT AG R GCT GCC GTC GCC CGT TCT CTG
Superoxide dismutase [Mn]	<i>Mn-sod/sod2</i>	JQ308833	F CCT GAC CTG ACC TAC GAC TAT GG R AGT GCC TCC TGA TAT TTC TCC TCT G
Surfeit locus protein 1	<i>surf1</i>	KC217650	F AGA TGG AAG GTG AAG TGG AGG TGG TC R GCG TTG CTC TGT CTG CCG AAC T
Uncoupling protein 1	<i>ucp1</i>	FJ710211	F GCA CAC TAC CCA ACA TCA CAA G R CGC CGA ACG CAG AAA CAA AG
Uncoupling protein 2	<i>ucp2</i>	JQ859959	F CGG CGG CGT CCT CAG TTG R AAG CAA GTG GTC CCT CTT TGG TCA T
Uncoupling protein 3	<i>ucp3</i>	EU555336	F AGG TGC GAC TGG CTG ACG R TTC GGC ATA CAA CCT CTC CAA AG

(*) Acc. No. MH577191: *igfbp3a*; Acc. No. MH577192: *igfbp3b*. Primers used for *igfbp3* gene expression jointly amplify both *igfbp3a* and *igfbp3b* isoforms.



Suppl. Table 2. Effects of rearing density and dissolved oxygen concentration on gilthead sea bream relative expression of hepatic selected genes on a 21-days feeding trial. Values on relative expression are the mean \pm SEM of 8 fish (2-3 fish per replicate tank). P-values are the result of two-way analysis of variance. Asterisks in each row indicate significant differences with oxygen concentration for a given rearing density (SNK test, $P < 0.05$).

Category	Symbol	LD		HD		P-value		
		Normoxia	Hypoxia	Normoxia	Hypoxia	[O ₂]	Density	Interaction
GH/IGF system	<i>ghr-i</i>	3.06 \pm 0.27	2.18 \pm 0.26*	3.70 \pm 0.36	2.79 \pm 0.35*	0.007	0.049	0.977
	<i>ghr-ii</i>	2.39 \pm 0.25	2.62 \pm 0.35	4.00 \pm 0.59	2.70 \pm 0.26	0.182	0.032	0.059
	<i>igf-i</i>	9.51 \pm 0.58	9.26 \pm 1.20	13.29 \pm 1.86	11.94 \pm 0.79	0.514	0.013	0.654
	<i>igf-ii</i>	2.85 \pm 0.44	3.73 \pm 0.53	5.37 \pm 0.57	3.31 \pm 0.76*	0.336	0.094	0.022
	<i>igfbp1a</i>	0.03 \pm 0.00	0.03 \pm 0.00	0.03 \pm 0.00	0.04 \pm 0.00	0.736	0.174	0.736
	<i>igfbp2b</i>	3.17 \pm 0.22	3.29 \pm 0.22	3.64 \pm 0.40	3.11 \pm 0.17	0.459	0.595	0.240
	<i>igfbp4</i>	0.81 \pm 0.09	0.79 \pm 0.10	0.82 \pm 0.13	0.85 \pm 0.06	0.975	0.712	0.856
Lipid metabolism	<i>elovl1</i>	10.63 \pm 0.46	13.41 \pm 0.79*	10.53 \pm 0.66	12.69 \pm 1.01	0.003	0.593	0.682
	<i>elovl4</i>	0.44 \pm 0.05	0.49 \pm 0.03	0.52 \pm 0.05	0.41 \pm 0.03	0.480	0.948	0.057
	<i>elovl5</i>	2.67 \pm 0.55	3.32 \pm 0.65	4.14 \pm 1.11	2.17 \pm 0.25	0.388	0.827	0.096
	<i>elovl6</i>	0.89 \pm 0.12	0.89 \pm 0.14	0.52 \pm 0.06	0.60 \pm 0.07	0.683	0.004	0.713
	<i>fads2</i>	3.82 \pm 0.42	9.19 \pm 0.97***	5.10 \pm 0.60	4.98 \pm 0.66	<0.001	0.048	<0.001
	<i>scd1a</i>	0.22 \pm 0.03	0.52 \pm 0.13*	0.22 \pm 0.05	0.19 \pm 0.02	0.076	0.024	0.026
	<i>scd1b</i>	0.43 \pm 0.09	1.15 \pm 0.19**	0.53 \pm 0.23	0.56 \pm 0.14	0.042	0.018	0.050
	<i>lpl</i>	5.77 \pm 0.78	6.57 \pm 0.56	8.08 \pm 0.99	8.75 \pm 0.82	0.361	0.010	0.949
	<i>ppara</i>	2.26 \pm 0.26	2.69 \pm 0.20	2.29 \pm 0.28	2.84 \pm 0.24	0.055	0.732	0.807
	<i>ppary</i>	0.78 \pm 0.06	0.83 \pm 0.09	0.87 \pm 0.09	0.71 \pm 0.04	0.456	0.803	0.165
Energy sensing and oxidative metabolism	<i>sirt1</i>	0.10 \pm 0.01	0.09 \pm 0.01	0.12 \pm 0.01	0.10 \pm 0.01	0.067	0.089	0.467
	<i>sirt2</i>	0.30 \pm 0.01	0.31 \pm 0.02	0.34 \pm 0.03	0.28 \pm 0.01	0.347	0.870	0.062
	<i>sirt3</i>	0.05 \pm 0.00	0.05 \pm 0.00	0.05 \pm 0.00	0.04 \pm 0.00	0.406	0.780	0.102
	<i>sirt4</i>	0.02 \pm 0.00	0.02 \pm 0.00	0.02 \pm 0.00	0.02 \pm 0.00	0.520	1.000	0.608
	<i>sirt5</i>	0.32 \pm 0.02	0.33 \pm 0.02	0.33 \pm 0.03	0.30 \pm 0.02	0.555	0.598	0.231
	<i>sirt6</i>	0.03 \pm 0.00	0.04 \pm 0.00	0.04 \pm 0.00	0.03 \pm 0.00	0.821	0.821	0.264



Antioxidant defence and tissue repair	<i>sirt7</i>	0.05 ± 0.00	0.05 ± 0.00	0.05 ± 0.00	0.05 ± 0.00	0.319	0.188	0.754
	<i>cpt1a</i>	0.71 ± 0.11	0.50 ± 0.04	0.62 ± 0.10	0.59 ± 0.06	0.129	0.965	0.251
	<i>cs</i>	1.02 ± 0.08	0.93 ± 0.05	0.98 ± 0.08	0.93 ± 0.07	0.289	0.756	0.782
	<i>nd2</i>	37.29 ± 2.44	29.65 ± 2.15*	38.21 ± 3.14	26.85 ± 2.26*	<0.001	0.713	0.468
	<i>nd5</i>	16.51 ± 0.83	14.41 ± 0.73	18.11 ± 1.54	14.20 ± 1.11*	0.010	0.533	0.416
	<i>coxi</i>	65.74 ± 4.70	71.34 ± 7.10	76.95 ± 7.56	69.25 ± 3.24	0.860	0.448	0.270
	<i>coxii</i>	44.07 ± 2.34	37.08 ± 1.90*	39.36 ± 3.29	39.94 ± 2.30	0.205	0.711	0.137
	<i>ucp1</i>	23.04 ± 2.14	19.01 ± 1.99	17.55 ± 2.17	15.98 ± 1.46	0.218	0.002	0.527
	<i>pgc1a</i>	0.06 ± 0.01	0.07 ± 0.01	0.10 ± 0.02	0.12 ± 0.02	0.304	0.010	0.558
	<i>pgc1β</i>	0.42 ± 0.06	0.50 ± 0.07	0.71 ± 0.08	0.39 ± 0.06**	0.103	0.220	0.008
	<i>hif-1α</i>	1.12 ± 0.07	1.14 ± 0.09	1.24 ± 0.13	1.05 ± 0.04	0.332	0.862	0.281
	<i>cat</i>	23.55 ± 1.75	22.09 ± 2.76	21.97 ± 1.98	21.21 ± 1.10	0.582	0.542	0.862
	<i>gpx4</i>	21.34 ± 2.51	14.41 ± 1.48*	18.20 ± 2.14	12.28 ± 1.03*	0.002	0.171	0.788
	<i>gr</i>	0.36 ± 0.02	0.34 ± 0.02	0.42 ± 0.04	0.28 ± 0.02**	0.006	0.929	0.050
	<i>prdx3</i>	0.82 ± 0.05	0.87 ± 0.05	0.94 ± 0.07	0.72 ± 0.07*	0.178	0.787	0.030
	<i>prdx5</i>	0.59 ± 0.03	0.44 ± 0.03**	0.60 ± 0.06	0.43 ± 0.02*	<0.001	0.935	0.833
	<i>Mn-sod / sod2</i>	1.20 ± 0.05	1.02 ± 0.08	1.30 ± 0.09	0.94 ± 0.08*	0.001	0.955	0.280
	<i>grp-170</i>	1.03 ± 0.08	1.41 ± 0.17	1.37 ± 0.19	1.11 ± 0.08	0.635	0.878	0.023
	<i>grp-94</i>	3.44 ± 0.40	3.90 ± 0.48	3.37 ± 0.46	3.60 ± 0.42	0.456	0.685	0.794
	<i>mtsp70/grp-75/mortalin</i>	0.56 ± 0.04	0.55 ± 0.04	0.80 ± 0.10	0.55 ± 0.05*	0.033	0.044	0.053



Suppl. Table 3. Effects of rearing density and dissolved oxygen concentration on gilthead sea bream relative expression of white muscle selected genes on a 21-days feeding trial. Values on relative expression are the mean \pm SEM of 8 fish (2-3 fish per replicate tank). P-values are the result of two-way analysis of variance. Asterisks in each row indicate significant differences with oxygen concentration for a given rearing density (SNK test, $P < 0.05$).

Category	Symbol	LD		HD		P-value		
		Normoxia	Hypoxia	Normoxia	Hypoxia	[O ₂]	Density	Interaction
GH/IGF system	<i>ghr-i</i>	6.42 \pm 0.57	5.63 \pm 0.20	4.14 \pm 0.40	4.84 \pm 0.51	0.915	0.002	0.101
	<i>ghr-ii</i>	2.71 \pm 0.41	3.32 \pm 0.50	2.83 \pm 0.42	3.44 \pm 0.71	0.267	0.835	0.996
	<i>igf-i</i>	0.76 \pm 0.09	0.67 \pm 0.06	0.65 \pm 0.11	0.63 \pm 0.08	0.533	0.387	0.657
	<i>igf-ii</i>	3.16 \pm 0.28	3.50 \pm 0.28	2.49 \pm 0.27	3.03 \pm 0.25	0.114	0.043	0.725
	<i>igfbp3</i>	9.33 \pm 0.89	11.68 \pm 1.03	13.17 \pm 0.99	14.97 \pm 2.18	0.143	0.015	0.845
	<i>igfbp5b</i>	5.16 \pm 0.39	6.21 \pm 0.35	7.08 \pm 0.47	6.18 \pm 0.29	0.846	0.019	0.016
	<i>igfbp6b</i>	0.53 \pm 0.05	0.59 \pm 0.06	1.01 \pm 0.10	0.65 \pm 0.05*	0.056	0.001	0.009
	<i>insr</i>	3.17 \pm 0.15	3.26 \pm 0.29	4.30 \pm 0.43	3.28 \pm 0.17*	0.105	0.050	0.057
	<i>igfr1</i>	1.76 \pm 0.09	1.81 \pm 0.09	2.36 \pm 0.21	1.93 \pm 0.12	0.183	0.014	0.083
	<i>igfr2</i>	0.93 \pm 0.08	0.89 \pm 0.06	1.15 \pm 0.08	0.81 \pm 0.03*	0.005	0.298	0.029
Muscle growth and cell differentiation	<i>myod1</i>	27.87 \pm 2.12	25.73 \pm 1.72	31.73 \pm 2.85	29.29 \pm 2.00	0.309	0.105	0.946
	<i>myod2</i>	10.96 \pm 0.82	12.83 \pm 0.61	10.78 \pm 0.63	13.29 \pm 1.03	0.010	0.859	0.688
	<i>myf5</i>	1.41 \pm 0.09	1.41 \pm 0.11	1.32 \pm 0.11	1.63 \pm 0.14	0.199	0.572	0.195
	<i>myf6/mrf4</i>	0.85 \pm 0.05	0.85 \pm 0.04	0.95 \pm 0.06	0.92 \pm 0.04	0.783	0.093	0.764
	<i>mstn/gdf-8</i>	11.95 \pm 1.31	13.93 \pm 1.95	9.89 \pm 0.36	12.45 \pm 1.54	0.125	0.227	0.842
	<i>mef2a</i>	53.53 \pm 4.03	57.79 \pm 5.17	59.61 \pm 3.72	57.52 \pm 2.69	0.788	0.473	0.434
	<i>mef2c</i>	14.88 \pm 0.89	13.95 \pm 0.66	15.38 \pm 0.91	14.87 \pm 0.74	0.382	0.385	0.796
	<i>fst</i>	1.63 \pm 0.06	1.66 \pm 0.19	1.39 \pm 0.18	1.69 \pm 0.16	0.303	0.490	0.396
Energy sensing and oxidative metabolism	<i>sirt1</i>	0.73 \pm 0.04	0.70 \pm 0.04	0.84 \pm 0.04	0.72 \pm 0.03*	0.050	0.104	0.263
	<i>sirt2</i>	1.45 \pm 0.06	1.49 \pm 0.08	1.61 \pm 0.14	1.43 \pm 0.06	0.475	0.605	0.259
	<i>sirt3</i>	0.19 \pm 0.01	0.19 \pm 0.02	0.20 \pm 0.02	0.20 \pm 0.01	0.905	0.605	0.780
	<i>sirt4</i>	0.15 \pm 0.01	0.14 \pm 0.01	0.17 \pm 0.02	0.18 \pm 0.01	0.672	0.025	0.343
	<i>sirt5</i>	2.15 \pm 0.22	2.23 \pm 0.17	2.28 \pm 0.18	2.34 \pm 0.16	0.690	0.522	0.941



Antioxidant defence and tissue repair	<i>sirt6</i>	0.16 ± 0.01	0.14 ± 0.01	0.15 ± 0.01	0.17 ± 0.02	0.742	0.541	0.128
	<i>sirt7</i>	0.24 ± 0.01	0.25 ± 0.02	0.27 ± 0.01	0.28 ± 0.02	0.801	0.047	0.898
	<i>cpt1a</i>	9.05 ± 1.02	6.72 ± 0.43*	7.44 ± 0.46	10.74 ± 1.25*	0.564	0.155	0.002
	<i>cs</i>	53.95 ± 3.69	50.43 ± 3.17	53.22 ± 4.00	55.01 ± 2.65	0.802	0.577	0.443
	<i>nd2</i>	251.51 ± 20.79	217.53 ± 15.18	250.45 ± 25.13	231.71 ± 20.24	0.212	0.753	0.715
	<i>nd5</i>	151.75 ± 13.47	125.16 ± 6.09	135.62 ± 8.33	123.75 ± 10.63	0.069	0.395	0.475
	<i>coxi</i>	740.24 ± 58.36	732.57 ± 26.90	834.22 ± 61.65	957.89 ± 57.10	0.271	0.005	0.214
	<i>coxii</i>	471.08 ± 49.13	453.37 ± 26.52	496.06 ± 57.85	474.56 ± 27.28	0.655	0.599	0.965
	<i>ucp3</i>	11.65 ± 1.78	6.43 ± 0.93*	16.89 ± 4.46	6.91 ± 0.74*	0.006	0.272	0.359
	<i>pgc1a</i>	0.67 ± 0.21	0.30 ± 0.09	0.35 ± 0.07	0.27 ± 0.07	0.096	0.183	0.273
	<i>pgc1β</i>	1.30 ± 0.18	1.01 ± 0.06	1.12 ± 0.14	1.15 ± 0.09	0.333	0.849	0.232
	<i>hif-1α</i>	5.45 ± 0.35	4.55 ± 0.30	6.67 ± 0.69	5.51 ± 0.31	0.028	0.020	0.773
	<i>cat</i>	9.19 ± 0.61	7.64 ± 0.46	9.19 ± 0.80	9.17 ± 0.49	0.203	0.215	0.218
	<i>gpx4</i>	1.78 ± 0.48	1.01 ± 0.39	0.78 ± 0.21	0.43 ± 0.08	0.135	0.038	0.559
	<i>gr</i>	0.99 ± 0.05	0.88 ± 0.07	1.08 ± 0.08	0.98 ± 0.06	0.127	0.137	0.925
	<i>prdx3</i>	10.44 ± 0.97	9.60 ± 0.45	9.96 ± 0.77	9.42 ± 0.94	0.402	0.683	0.857
	<i>prdx5</i>	28.69 ± 1.98	20.68 ± 1.10**	27.18 ± 2.14	22.48 ± 1.14*	<0.001	0.933	0.329
	<i>Mn-sod / sod2</i>	9.81 ± 0.68	8.31 ± 0.33	11.16 ± 1.25	8.92 ± 0.46	0.021	0.211	0.627
	<i>grp-170</i>	1.80 ± 0.08	1.93 ± 0.12	2.09 ± 0.12	1.72 ± 0.11*	0.270	0.705	0.025
	<i>grp-94</i>	4.28 ± 0.28	4.70 ± 0.35	4.76 ± 0.40	4.29 ± 0.31	0.955	0.914	0.205
	<i>mthsp70/grp-75/mortalin</i>	5.58 ± 0.27	5.86 ± 0.43	6.96 ± 0.65	5.83 ± 0.47	0.380	0.163	0.147



Suppl. Table 4. Effects of rearing density and dissolved oxygen concentration on gilthead sea bream relative expression of cardiac selected genes on a 21-days feeding trial. Values on relative expression are the mean \pm SEM of 8 fish (2-3 fish per replicate tank). P-values are the result of two-way analysis of variance. Asterisks in each row indicate significant differences with oxygen concentration for a given rearing density (SNK test, $P < 0.05$).

Category	Symbol	LD		HD		P-value		
		Normoxia	Hypoxia	Normoxia	Hypoxia	[O ₂]	Density	Interaction
GH/IGF system	<i>ghr-i</i>	0.39 \pm 0.01	0.35 \pm 0.02	0.38 \pm 0.02	0.30 \pm 0.03	0.021	0.257	0.507
	<i>ghr-ii</i>	1.85 \pm 0.13	1.77 \pm 0.14	2.11 \pm 0.08	1.73 \pm 0.21	0.128	0.437	0.310
	<i>igf-i</i>	0.01 \pm 0.00	0.01 \pm 0.00	0.01 \pm 0.00	0.01 \pm 0.00	0.635	0.971	0.328
	<i>igf-ii</i>	2.22 \pm 0.21	2.26 \pm 0.14	2.51 \pm 0.17	1.88 \pm 0.24*	0.134	0.828	0.088
Energy sensing and oxidative metabolism	<i>sirt1</i>	0.22 \pm 0.01	0.20 \pm 0.01	0.21 \pm 0.01	0.18 \pm 0.01*	0.023	0.219	0.572
	<i>sirt2</i>	0.34 \pm 0.02	0.31 \pm 0.02	0.33 \pm 0.03	0.28 \pm 0.01	0.081	0.454	0.644
	<i>sirt3</i>	0.10 \pm 0.00	0.11 \pm 0.01	0.09 \pm 0.00	0.09 \pm 0.00	0.279	0.036	0.196
	<i>sirt4</i>	0.06 \pm 0.00	0.05 \pm 0.00	0.05 \pm 0.00	0.05 \pm 0.00	0.074	0.312	0.542
	<i>sirt5</i>	0.99 \pm 0.08	0.94 \pm 0.05	0.96 \pm 0.05	0.75 \pm 0.04**	0.023	0.051	0.160
	<i>sirt6</i>	0.05 \pm 0.00	0.05 \pm 0.00	0.05 \pm 0.00	0.04 \pm 0.00*	0.042	0.211	0.099
	<i>sirt7</i>	0.07 \pm 0.01	0.06 \pm 0.00	0.07 \pm 0.01	0.05 \pm 0.00*	0.003	0.608	0.395
	<i>cpt1a</i>	1.63 \pm 0.15	1.28 \pm 0.12	1.23 \pm 0.12	1.21 \pm 0.10	0.142	0.071	0.189
	<i>cs</i>	9.29 \pm 0.54	7.79 \pm 0.47*	7.95 \pm 0.25	6.80 \pm 0.25**	0.002	0.007	0.666
	<i>nd2</i>	68.14 \pm 4.68	70.41 \pm 5.69	64.19 \pm 5.02	52.61 \pm 2.44*	0.322	0.026	0.145
	<i>nd5</i>	45.09 \pm 3.28	40.14 \pm 2.49	44.19 \pm 3.70	31.03 \pm 0.90**	0.003	0.085	0.154
	<i>coxi</i>	329.33 \pm 18.41	310.66 \pm 14.83	332.42 \pm 27.46	278.19 \pm 19.29	0.086	0.480	0.393
	<i>coxii</i>	84.97 \pm 5.14	99.58 \pm 8.00	83.61 \pm 5.07	80.59 \pm 5.62	0.355	0.110	0.163
	<i>ucp2</i>	1.88 \pm 0.23	1.78 \pm 0.18	1.97 \pm 0.28	1.62 \pm 0.15	0.308	0.876	0.572
	<i>pgc1a</i>	2.55 \pm 0.15	2.28 \pm 0.15	2.74 \pm 0.26	2.08 \pm 0.10*	0.012	0.966	0.274
	<i>pgc1β</i>	0.97 \pm 0.04	0.85 \pm 0.06	0.96 \pm 0.05	0.84 \pm 0.05	0.026	0.834	0.983
Antioxidant defence and	<i>hif-1a</i>	6.67 \pm 0.57	5.35 \pm 0.36*	6.15 \pm 0.31	4.52 \pm 0.28*	0.001	0.100	0.692
	<i>cat</i>	2.06 \pm 0.16	1.59 \pm 0.10*	1.73 \pm 0.10	1.56 \pm 0.10	0.001	0.226	0.321
	<i>gpx4</i>	0.09 \pm 0.01	0.10 \pm 0.03	0.10 \pm 0.01	0.09 \pm 0.01	0.913	0.916	0.477



tissue repair	<i>gr</i>	0.42 ± 0.03	0.40 ± 0.03	0.37 ± 0.01	0.33 ± 0.01*	0.136	0.012	0.574
	<i>prdx3</i>	2.14 ± 0.15	2.08 ± 0.17	1.97 ± 0.13	1.61 ± 0.14	0.168	0.041	0.305
	<i>prdx5</i>	6.26 ± 0.52	4.34 ± 0.40*	4.95 ± 0.30	3.95 ± 0.16*	<0.001	0.029	0.231
	<i>Mn-sod / sod2</i>	2.52 ± 0.15	1.93 ± 0.16*	2.19 ± 0.12	1.63 ± 0.07**	<0.001	0.024	0.902
	<i>grp-170</i>	0.91 ± 0.06	0.92 ± 0.04	0.90 ± 0.05	0.77 ± 0.03*	0.191	0.070	0.103
	<i>grp-94</i>	0.68 ± 0.03	0.73 ± 0.06	0.65 ± 0.05	0.68 ± 0.04	0.402	0.372	0.772
	<i>mthsp70/grp-75/mortalin</i>	1.58 ± 0.08	1.58 ± 0.13	1.52 ± 0.08	1.20 ± 0.03**	0.082	0.021	0.084
Xenobiotic metabolism	<i>ahr1</i>	0.14 ± 0.01	0.14 ± 0.01	0.14 ± 0.01	0.12 ± 0.01	0.636	0.425	0.408
	<i>cyp1a1</i>	2.58 ± 0.25	3.63 ± 0.32*	2.71 ± 0.23	3.79 ± 0.32*	<0.001	0.601	0.960
Nuclear receptors	<i>gcr</i>	1.01 ± 0.05	0.99 ± 0.04	1.05 ± 0.05	0.98 ± 0.09	0.493	0.786	0.708
	<i>era</i>	0.17 ± 0.02	0.15 ± 0.01	0.19 ± 0.02	0.16 ± 0.01	0.095	0.433	0.809



Suppl. Table 5. Effects of rearing density and dissolved oxygen concentration on gilthead sea bream relative expression of total blood cells genes on a 21-days feeding trial. Values on relative expression are the mean \pm SEM of 8 fish (2-3 fish per replicate tank). P-values are the result of two-way analysis of variance. Asterisks in each row indicate significant differences with oxygen concentration for a given rearing density (SNK test, $P < 0.05$).

Category	Symbol	LD		HD		P-value		
		Normoxia	Hypoxia	Normoxia	Hypoxia	[O ₂]	Density	Interaction
Antioxidant enzymes	<i>gst3</i>	0.97 \pm 0.07	1.09 \pm 0.08	1.03 \pm 0.07	0.90 \pm 0.11	0.957	0.422	0.141
	<i>prdx3</i>	0.07 \pm 0.01	0.08 \pm 0.01	0.08 \pm 0.01	0.07 \pm 0.01	1.000	0.344	0.231
	<i>prdx5</i>	0.25 \pm 0.02	0.23 \pm 0.01	0.21 \pm 0.03	0.21 \pm 0.02	0.643	0.217	0.643
	<i>Mn-sod / sod2</i>	1.33 \pm 0.09	1.36 \pm 0.07	1.32 \pm 0.06	1.22 \pm 0.12	0.663	0.398	0.481
Transcription factors	<i>nrf1</i>	0.95 \pm 0.08	1.00 \pm 0.09	1.01 \pm 0.06	0.95 \pm 0.08	0.942	0.917	0.548
	<i>pgc1β</i>	1.71 \pm 0.14	1.93 \pm 0.13	1.95 \pm 0.10	1.80 \pm 0.11	0.786	0.672	0.139
Outer membrane translocation (TOM complex)	<i>tom70</i>	1.10 \pm 0.08	1.28 \pm 0.08	1.20 \pm 0.07	1.14 \pm 0.09	0.475	0.826	0.174
	<i>tom34</i>	1.06 \pm 0.08	1.16 \pm 0.08	1.15 \pm 0.07	1.05 \pm 0.08	0.994	0.845	0.237
	<i>tom22</i>	0.57 \pm 0.05	0.65 \pm 0.05	0.62 \pm 0.05	0.59 \pm 0.05	0.655	0.837	0.309
Inner membrane translocation (TIM complex)	<i>tim44</i>	0.95 \pm 0.08	1.12 \pm 0.08	1.01 \pm 0.06	0.96 \pm 0.09	0.489	0.540	0.165
	<i>tim23</i>	0.10 \pm 0.01	0.12 \pm 0.01	0.12 \pm 0.01	0.10 \pm 0.01	0.911	0.787	0.132
	<i>tim8a</i>	1.02 \pm 0.06	1.11 \pm 0.06	1.08 \pm 0.06	1.01 \pm 0.07	0.823	0.719	0.195
	<i>tim10</i>	0.98 \pm 0.08	1.13 \pm 0.09	1.08 \pm 0.07	0.99 \pm 0.10	0.753	0.841	0.181
	<i>tim9</i>	1.36 \pm 0.12	1.18 \pm 0.08	1.14 \pm 0.06	1.17 \pm 0.09	0.392	0.239	0.276
Mitochondrial dynamics and apoptosis	<i>mfn2</i>	0.45 \pm 0.03	0.50 \pm 0.04	0.50 \pm 0.03	0.44 \pm 0.04	0.793	0.911	0.142
	<i>miffb</i>	1.10 \pm 0.09	1.23 \pm 0.08	1.22 \pm 0.07	1.14 \pm 0.09	0.747	0.860	0.235
	<i>miro1a</i>	0.87 \pm 0.08	0.86 \pm 0.05	0.92 \pm 0.06	0.94 \pm 0.07	0.920	0.317	0.802
	<i>miro2</i>	1.17 \pm 0.09	1.31 \pm 0.08	1.38 \pm 0.09	1.18 \pm 0.07	0.714	0.670	0.054
	<i>aifm1</i>	0.07 \pm 0.00	0.07 \pm 0.00	0.08 \pm 0.01	0.06 \pm 0.00	0.307	0.614	0.120
FA oxidation & TCA	<i>cpt1a</i>	1.64 \pm 0.14	1.93 \pm 0.16	1.75 \pm 0.08	1.67 \pm 0.13	0.436	0.568	0.170
	<i>cs</i>	1.10 \pm 0.06	1.17 \pm 0.08	1.13 \pm 0.05	1.05 \pm 0.06	0.968	0.442	0.226
OXPHOS (Complex I)	<i>nd2</i>	10.19 \pm 0.90	11.80 \pm 0.82	11.12 \pm 0.85	10.72 \pm 0.77	0.476	0.928	0.239
	<i>nd5</i>	2.25 \pm 0.18	2.68 \pm 0.23	2.80 \pm 0.27	2.55 \pm 0.28	0.697	0.400	0.175



OXPHOS (Complex IV)	<i>ndufa1</i>	1.03 ± 0.06	1.17 ± 0.08	1.08 ± 0.06	1.00 ± 0.08	0.676	0.401	0.120
	<i>ndufa3</i>	0.94 ± 0.05	0.93 ± 0.04	0.94 ± 0.06	0.85 ± 0.05	0.304	0.435	0.421
	<i>ndufa4</i>	1.84 ± 0.10	1.94 ± 0.06	1.97 ± 0.07	1.84 ± 0.07	0.896	0.832	0.145
	<i>ndufa7</i>	0.65 ± 0.05	0.69 ± 0.05	0.69 ± 0.04	0.66 ± 0.06	0.886	0.943	0.520
	<i>ndufb5</i>	0.88 ± 0.06	1.00 ± 0.07	0.91 ± 0.05	0.82 ± 0.07	0.825	0.257	0.114
	<i>ndufs2</i>	1.12 ± 0.07	1.24 ± 0.06	1.23 ± 0.07	1.13 ± 0.08	0.889	0.986	0.151
	<i>ndufs7</i>	0.75 ± 0.04	0.84 ± 0.05	0.83 ± 0.04	0.76 ± 0.05	0.793	0.923	0.088
	<i>ndufaf2</i>	0.11 ± 0.01	0.11 ± 0.01	0.11 ± 0.01	0.07 ± 0.01**	0.034	0.145	0.024
	<i>coxi</i>	2.46 ± 0.22	2.95 ± 0.27	2.94 ± 0.27	2.36 ± 0.26	0.869	0.815	0.045
	<i>coxii</i>	1.46 ± 0.12	1.91 ± 0.11*	1.69 ± 0.14	1.46 ± 0.13	0.366	0.395	0.012
	<i>coxiii</i>	3.21 ± 0.23	3.46 ± 0.32	3.89 ± 0.34	3.32 ± 0.44	0.644	0.426	0.239
	<i>cox4a</i>	1.21 ± 0.00	1.21 ± 0.00	1.21 ± 0.00	1.21 ± 0.00	-	-	-
	<i>cox5a2</i>	0.46 ± 0.05	0.45 ± 0.02	0.43 ± 0.02	0.46 ± 0.02	0.763	0.698	0.547
	<i>cox6a2</i>	0.25 ± 0.02	0.29 ± 0.02	0.28 ± 0.02	0.23 ± 0.01*	0.644	0.472	0.047
	<i>cox6c1</i>	0.20 ± 0.02	0.23 ± 0.03	0.22 ± 0.02	0.21 ± 0.03	0.933	0.970	0.461
	<i>cox7b</i>	0.73 ± 0.05	0.71 ± 0.04	0.83 ± 0.06	0.73 ± 0.06	0.272	0.261	0.480
	<i>cox8b</i>	1.14 ± 0.05	1.26 ± 0.07	1.19 ± 0.07	1.21 ± 0.10	0.370	0.980	0.491
	<i>sco1</i>	1.20 ± 0.10	1.36 ± 0.12	1.34 ± 0.12	1.22 ± 0.10	0.837	1.000	0.220
	<i>surf1</i>	0.76 ± 0.06	0.91 ± 0.08	0.90 ± 0.08	0.85 ± 0.08	0.513	0.578	0.207
Respiration uncoupling	<i>cox15</i>	0.04 ± 0.00	0.05 ± 0.01	0.05 ± 0.01	0.04 ± 0.00	0.672	0.266	0.024
	<i>ucp2</i>	0.92 ± 0.10	0.99 ± 0.06	0.98 ± 0.06	0.88 ± 0.09	0.841	0.731	0.285

