"This is the peer reviewed version of the following article: Mosberian-Tanha, P., Schrama, J. W., Landsverk, T., Mydland, L. T., & Øverland, M. (2018). The effect of plant-based diet and suboptimal environmental conditions on digestive function and diet-induced enteropathy in rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss). Aquaculture Nutrition, 24(1), 112-122., which has been published in final form at 10.1111/anu.12539. This article may be used for non-commercial purposes in accordance with Wiley Terms and Conditions for Self-Archiving."

1	The effect of plant-based diet and suboptimal environmental conditions on digestive
2	function and diet-induced enteropathy in rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss)
3	Peyman Mosberian-Tanha ¹ , Johan W Schrama ² , Thor Landsverk ³ , Liv T Mydland ¹ ,
4	Margareth Øverland* ¹
5	¹ Department of Animal and Aquacultural Sciences, Norwegian University of Life Sciences, Ås,
6	Norway;
7	² Aquaculture and Fisheries Group, Wageningen Institute of Animal Sciences, Wageningen, the
8	Netherlands
9	³ Department of Basic Sciences and Aquatic Medicine, School of Veterinary Medicine, Norwegian
10	University of Life Sciences, Oslo, Norway;
11	* Correspondence: Margareth Øverland, Norwegian University of Life Sciences, NO-1432 Ås,
12	Norway, Email: margareth.overland@nmbu.no
13	
14	
15	
16	
17	Running title:
18	Plant-based diet at suboptimal environment
19	Key words: apparent digestibility coefficients, hypoxia, enteritis, digestive function, rainbow
20	trout, soybean meal

21 Abstract

22 This experiment investigated intestinal enteropathy and digestive function of rainbow trout 23 challenged with soybean meal-based diet (SBM) at optimal or suboptimal environments created 24 by normal or reduced water flow, respectively. Oxygen level remained above 7 mg L⁻¹ for optimal environment and between 4 to 5 mg L^{-1} for suboptimal environment. Triplicate groups 25 26 of fish (mean body weight 74.1 g) were fed fishmeal-based diet (FM) or SBM at optimal 27 environment in period 1 (28 days). In period 2 (42 days), fish were subjected to a change from 28 FM to SBM or remained on the same diet as used in period 1. The fish were also exposed to 29 change from optimal to suboptimal environment or remained under optimal conditions. The fish 30 subjected to change from FM to SBM, regardless of their environment, showed similar degree 31 of enteropathy from day 14. Lipid and starch digestibility was lower in SBM-fed fish at 32 suboptimal environment compared to fish fed the same diet at optimal environment. Crude 33 protein digestibility, however, was highest in SBM-fed fish at suboptimal environment 34 throughout period 2. In conclusion, in SBM-fed rainbow trout, exposure to suboptimal 35 environment did not change the degree of enteropathy, however, lipid and starch digestibility 36 were further reduced.

37

38

- 39
- 40

41 Introduction

42 The use of plant ingredients in salmonid feeds to improve sustainability of aquaculture, may 43 lead to challenges including impaired digestive function, reduced growth, and increased risk of 44 developing gastro-intestinal disorders such as soybean meal-induced enteritis (SBMIE). The 45 negative effects of plant ingredients are attributed to the presence of non-starch polysaccharides 46 (NSP) and anti-nutritional factors (ANF). SBM has been used as a model to study the effect of 47 plant ingredients on gut health and function of salmonids (Krogdahl et al., 2003; Romarheim et 48 al., 2008; Urán et al., 2008; Mosberian-Tanha et al., 2016). The inclusion of SBM has shown 49 to adversely affect the apparent digestibility coefficients (ADC) of nutrients and energy 50 (Opstvedt et al., 2003; Romarheim et al., 2006). Furthermore, it has been shown that SBM can 51 reduce activity of digestive enzymes in the distal intestine (DI) of Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar) 52 (Krogdahl et al., 2003; Chikwati et al., 2013). The reduced activity of digestive function may 53 partly be due to the morphological changes caused by SBMIE. Although DI is not the main site 54 for macronutrient absorption, some important components such as taurine and bile acids have 55 been shown to be re-absorbed in the DI (Nordrum et al., 2000) with possible implications for 56 the absorption of lipid in the proximal parts of the intestine. Morphological changes associated 57 with SBMIE may disturb the capacity of digestion and re-absorption of nutritionally important 58 substances in the DI and thus contribute to the lower ADC of nutrients. ADC of lipid in 59 particular has shown to be reduced in Atlantic salmon fed SBM (Krogdahl et al., 2003; 60 Romarheim et al., 2006). Changes in digestive function appears to be a more sensitive parameter 61 than changes in the gut morphology as observed in Atlantic cod (Gadus morhua), where feeding 62 SBM reduced lipid digestibility (Førde-Skjærvik et al., 2006) in the absence of SBMIE (Refstie 63 et al., 2006).

64 Aquaculture is also facing challenges from the environment. Sub-optimal environmental 65 conditions are partly caused by seasonal changes in water temperature and consequently 66 dissolved oxygen (DO) (Oppedal et al., 2011) or on a long-term basis by global warming leading 67 to alterations in water quality parameters such as increased temperature and CO_2 level (Lough 68 & Hobday 2011). However, the adverse conditions may also be induced by some production 69 procedures such as reduced water flow/exchange rate in intensive fish farming (Ellis et al., 70 2002). Water DO level is one of the important environmental factors affected by change in 71 temperature or water flow rate. Low water DO level may induce environmental hypoxia with 72 physiological consequences in fish (Wu 2002). Adverse effect of low water DO on feed intake 73 and growth has been reported in Nile tilapia (Oreochromis niloticus) (Tran-Duy et al., 2012) 74 and rainbow trout (Glencross 2009). Exposure of the fish to low DO level resulted in impaired 75 intestinal barrier function and also induced morphological changes in the distal intestine in 76 Atlantic salmon (Sundh et al., 2010). Reduced water flow rate is not only associated with stress 77 or low water DO but also increased accumulation of fish excretions such as ammonia in the 78 ambient water (Ellis et al., 2002). High ambient ammonia concentration has been reported to 79 reduce feed intake and increase mortality in juvenile lake trout (Salvelinus namayeush) 80 (Beamish & Tandler 1990) and under chronic exposure it also causes gill damage and 81 hyperplasia (Meade 1985). In contrary, in another experiment, chronic exposure to sublethal 82 levels of ammonia did not change feed intake in Atlantic salmon kept at 12 °C (Kolarevic et al., 83 2013).

It is not known how the combination of a suboptimal environment (such as hypoxia) and a plantbased diet (such as SBM-based diet) may affect digestive function and intestinal health in rainbow trout. In an experiment, changes in the intestinal morphology induced by dietary plant 87 ingredients was found to be aggravated in Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*) kept at hypoxia 88 (Tran-Ngoc *et al.*, 2016). In the current experiment, it is hypothesised that the effect of a dietary 89 challenge on gut morphology and digestive function may be aggravated when rainbow trout is 90 exposed to a challenging environment. This experiment was, therefore, conducted to evaluate if 91 exposure to hypoxia (induced by lowering the water flow rate) will aggravate the effect of a 92 SBM-based diet as a dietary challenge on digestive function and intestinal morphology of 93 rainbow trout.

94 Materials and methods

95 The experiment was performed in accordance with the Dutch law on the use of experimental 96 animals and approved by the ethical committee of Wageningen University for animal 97 experiments (DEC: 2014006.a).

98 Fish and rearing conditions

Six hundred juvenile rainbow trout with mean initial body weight (\pm SE) of 74.1 \pm 0.3g were randomly allocated into 12 tanks (50 fish per tank) supplied with freshwater at the start of the experiment. The tanks were all connected to a recirculation system which allowed on-line measurement of actual and cumulative water flow per tanks, oxygen concentration, temperature, pH and conductivity. The details of measurement units and water sampling is described elsewhere (Saravanan *et al.*, 2012).

105 Two isoenergetic and isonitrogenous diets were formulated; one fishmeal-based control (FM) 106 and one containing 400 g kg⁻¹ soybean meal (SBM) as experimental diet. Cellulose was added 107 to the diets as a filler. Yttrium oxide (Y_2O_3) was added to the diets as inert marker for 108 digestibility calculations (Austreng *et al.*, 2000). The formulation and composition of the diets 109 are shown in Table 1. The ingredients were ground in a hammer mill (Condux LHM20/16, 110 Hanau, Germany) fitted with a 1-mm sieve. The diets were produced by Research Diet Service 111 (Wijk bij Duurstede, The Netherlands) by using a twin-screw extruder (Clextral, Firminy, 112 France) equipped with a 3 mm die. The pellets were then dried in a tray-drier at 70 °C for 3 113 hours and cooled to ambient temperature. Restrictive feeding was used to ensure that the fish in 114 all treatment groups consume the same amounts of feed, thus, the same amount of SBM as a 115 dietary challenge. The intention was to exclude the effect of feeding level on the degree of 116 SBMIE and ADC values. The feeding rate was 1.5% of mean biomass of 12 tanks during period 117 1 and was reduced to 1.25% at the start of period 2. Each diet was assigned randomly to triplicate 118 tanks (200 L capacity) according to the treatments and fed to the fish manually twice daily 119 throughout the experiment at 9:00 and 16:00 hours for maximum 1 hour. The water flow rate 120 was set at 7.5 L min⁻¹ for all tanks during period 1. Photoperiod was maintained at 12 L: 12 D, 121 water temperature at 14.0±0.5°C and pH between 7.0 and 7.5 throughout the experiment.

122 Experimental design

The experiment consisted of four treatments and divided into two periods; Period 1; was adaptation period of 28 days to diets and all fish were kept under optimal conditions by setting the water flow rate at 7.5 L min⁻¹ and Period 2; an experimental period of 42 days where fish were subjected to either a dietary challenge and/or exposed to suboptimal environment by reducing the water flow rate from 7.5 L min⁻¹ to 2.25 L min⁻¹. Water DO level is the key limiting factor when the water flow rate is reduced, however, this treatment also leads to accumulation of metabolites or fish excretions such as ammonia. To simplify nomenclature, low water flow rate is termed hypoxia (HY) and optimal water flow rate is termed normoxia (NO). Thus, thefour treatments tested in this experiment are as follows:

132 Treatment 1: Period 1, FM at normoxia \rightarrow Period 2, FM at hypoxia (FMNO \rightarrow FMHY)

133 Treatment 2: Period 1, FM at normoxia \rightarrow Period 2, SBM at hypoxia (FMNO \rightarrow SBMHY)

134 Treatment 3: Period 1, FM at normoxia \rightarrow Period 2, SBM at normoxia (FMNO \rightarrow SBMNO)

135 Treatment 4: Period 1, SBM at normoxia → Period 2, SBM at hypoxia (SBMNO → SBMHY)

Treatment 1 was designed to evaluate if exposure to hypoxia alone would affect digestive function and impair intestinal health. Treatments 2 and 3 were designed to evaluate if change from FM to SBM is more detrimental to digestive function and SBMIE, as an indicator of dietinduced enteropathy, at hypoxia compared to normoxia. Treatment 4 was designed to evaluate if under steady state dietary challenge any change in the environment from normoxia to hypoxia will aggravate digestive function and SBMIE.

142 Normoxia resulted in a mean water DO level of above 8 mg L^{-1} in the outlet (>78% saturation). 143 If necessary, pure oxygen was injected into the inlet to maintain the intended DO level. Hypoxia resulted in a mean water DO level of below 6 mg L^{-1} in the outlet (< 55% saturation). The 144 minimum DO level in the outlet, however, was maintained above 3.8 mg L⁻¹ to avoid extreme 145 146 reduction in feed intake and increased mortality. For this purpose pure oxygen was injected into the inlet water. The mean of DO level (mean \pm SD) in the inlet was 10.3 \pm 0.3 mg L⁻¹. Water 147 148 parameters including daily oxygen concentration and pH and also during week five of period 2, 149 total ammonium nitrogen (TAN), nitrite and nitrate were measured for each tank by the method 150 described elsewhere (Saravanan et al., 2012).

151 Sampling procedure

152 Faeces collection was performed daily throughout the last two weeks of the period 1 and pooled 153 to determine digestibility of nutrients in this period. The faeces collection continued throughout 154 period 2 at four sampling time points, days 0-7, 8-14, 15-21 and 22-42 (faeces samples collected 155 daily and were pooled within these periods). Each tank was connected to one settling tank as 156 previously described (Saravanan et al., 2012). A faecal collection bottle (250 ml) was attached 157 to the bottom of the settling tank while placed in a thermostatic box connected to a cooling 158 system to avoid the bacterial degradation of nutrients in the faeces. The faeces collected within 159 weeks from each tank was pooled in the same tray and stored at -20°C in an aluminium box until 160 further analysis. The settling tank was also used to check and count the uneaten pellets in the 161 respective respiration tank at every feeding for accurate calculation of feed intake. For this 162 purpose another set of 250 ml-bottles were attached to the settling tanks during feeding.

DI tissue samples from 3 fish were taken per tank on days 0, 7, 14, 21 and 42 of period 2. The tissue samples were fixed in neutral buffered formalin (4% formaldehyde) and embedded in paraffin before staining by hematoxylin and eosin (H&E). Blinded evaluation and scoring of the following five morphological parameters was performed on each tissue:

- 167 1) Subepithelial infiltration of leukocytes: increased accumulation of leukocytes in the168 subepithelial area down to stratum compactum.
- 169 2) Supranuclear vacuolisation (SNV) of epithelial cells: reduced vacuolisation of the epithelial
 170 cells.
- 171 3) Atrophy of intestinal folds.

4) Vacuolar degeneration of the epithelial cells: increased vacuolar degeneration in the baseof the intestinal folds.

The presence, if any, of granulomatous change and the degree of this change: increased
accumulation of fibroblasts, macrophages and presence of giant cells in the subepithelial
area.

A score was given to each parameter which ranged from 0 to 3. Increase in the score of each parameter indicates a more severe morphological changes. The overall histopathology score for each fish was calculated by taking the average score of the morphological parameters to express the degree of change in that individual.

181 Analytical procedure

182 Feed and oven-dried faeces samples were ground in a blender before further analysis. Dry matter 183 was determined by drying the samples for 4 hours at 103 °C until a constant weight was obtained. 184 Crude protein was determined by the Kjeldahl method based on N content \times 6.25 (ISO 185 5983/NEN 3145). Feed and faecal samples were hydrolysed by 3N HCl before crude fat analysis 186 as described in Saravanan et al., (2012). Crude fat content was measured following petroleum-187 ether extraction (Soxhlet method). Gross energy content was determined using a bomb 188 calorimeter (IKA-C7000, IKA-Aanalysentechnik, Weitersheim, Germany). Gross ash was 189 determined after combustion of dried samples in a muffle furnace at 550 °C (ISO 5984/NEN 190 3323). Yttrium was measured by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) after 191 acid digestion of feeds and faeces. Starch content was determined enzymatically as glucose, 192 liberated by α -amylase and amyloglucosidase hydrolysis (AOAC Method 996.11).

193 Calculations and statistics

9

194 Apparent digestibility coefficients (ADC, %) were calculated as:

195 ADC_X=
$$(1-Y_{diet}/Y_{faeces} \times X_{faeces}/X_{diet}) \times 100$$

where X represents dry matter, crude protein, crude lipid, starch or energy, Y_{diet} and Y_{faeces} represent the yttrium concentrations in the diet and faeces, respectively, and X_{diet} and X_{faeces} are the concentrations of X in the diet and faeces respectively.

- 199 Feed conversion ratio was calculated as:
- 200 FCR= Feed intake (g, DM) \times fish weight gain (g)⁻¹
- Daily feed intake is expressed per kg current body weight (BW_n): daily feed intake (g DM)
 divided by BW_n.
- 203 BW_n was calculated as: $BW_n = BW_{n-1} + (daily feed intake, g DM \times FCR^{-1})$.

204 Statistical analyses were performed using SAS 9.4 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA). All data 205 were tested for normality and homogeneity by Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Bartlett tests. Data 206 from ADC of dry matter in period 1 and overall histopathological score violated the normal 207 distribution assumption after log10-transformation; and thus these data were subjected to non-208 parametric Kruskal-Wallis test followed by multiple pairwise comparisons (Dwass-Steel-209 Critchlow-Fligner) if the test was significant. ADC of crude protein, lipid, starch, ash and energy 210 were subjected to one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) in GLM procedure to test the effect 211 of diet in period 1. The effect of treatment and sampling time on ADC of dry matter, crude 212 protein and ash in period 2 was analysed using a two-way ANOVA in GLM procedure. ADC 213 of lipid and starch at the end of period 2 (day 22-42) were subjected to a one-way ANOVA. 214 Least square means comparison was used to determine which groups differed significantly from

215 each other. Regression analysis was performed to determine the variables that correlated with 216 feed intake at the end of period 2. Differences were declared statistically significant if P < 0.05.

217 **Results**

218 Water quality parameters

219 The water pH level remained stable (ranged from 7.0 to 7.5) throughout the experiment (period 220 1 and 2) for all treatment groups and hypoxia did not change the pH level (P > 0.05). The 221 fluctuations in pH was too small to have had a significant effect on toxicity of TAN. The water DO level (expressed as mg L^{-1}) was above 7.0 mg L^{-1} during period 1 in all tanks (Fig. 1). At 222 223 the start of period 2, water DO level was reduced to below 5 mg L⁻¹ immediately after reduction of water flow rate in the tanks assigned to hypoxia and remained between 4 to 5 mg L^{-1} during 224 225 this period (Fig. 2). Peaks were observed, however, on the oxygen curve corresponding to the 226 DI tissue sampling days. The mean water concentration of TAN during week five of period 2 227 was significantly higher at hypoxia compared to that observed at normoxia (P=0.002) (Fig. 3). 228 During the same week, water level of nitrite and nitrate at hypoxia were 0.008±0.0003 and 0.22 ± 0.015 mg N L⁻¹ (mean \pm SE, n=9 tanks) respectively. At normoxia the concentrations 229 were 0.007 ± 0.0009 and 0.18 ± 0.016 mg N L⁻¹ (mean \pm SE, n=3 tanks). The difference in 230 231 concentration of nitrite and nitrate was insignificant among treatments.

232 Feed intake and growth

Feed intake (g kg⁻¹ body weight) of FM-and SBM-fed fish remained stable throughout period 1 (Fig. 1). The mean feed intake (g fish⁻¹ day⁻¹) over period 1 was not changed significantly in

response to diet (P>0.05) (Table 3). In period 1, there was no significant difference in weight gain (g fish⁻¹ day⁻¹) of fish fed FM and SBM diet (1.70 vs. 1.66).

Feed intake of all treatment groups was not significantly changed during period 2, however, it was reduced in fish fed FM and SBM diets and kept at hypoxia during the last two weeks of period 2 (Fig. 2). Feed intake in fish subjected to change from FM to SBM at normoxia (FMNO \rightarrow SBMNO) in period 2 remained unchanged for the whole period. The mean daily feed intake (g fish⁻¹ day⁻¹) over period 2 was significantly higher in the fish fed SBM at normoxia (FMNO \rightarrow SBMNO) than that in other treatment groups (i.e. fish kept at hypoxia) (*P*=0.014).

Regression analysis revealed that feed intake showed reduction with increasing TAN concentration (R^2 = 0.45, P=0.02) (Fig. 4). However, no significant relation was found between changes in feed intake and water DO level (R^2 =0.25, P=0.1), pH (R^2 =0.15, P=0.21), ADC of crude protein (R^2 =0.08, P=0.36), dry matter (R^2 =0.15, P=0.20), lipid (R^2 =0.01, P=0.72) and starch (R^2 =0.03, P=0.58) at the end of period 2.

248 Histopathological evaluation

249 The changes in histopathological scores over time are shown in Fig. 5. These changes were 250 confined to the distal intestine and characterised by reduced apical SNV, reduced height of 251 simple and complex intestinal folds (partial atrophy), and increased number of leukocytes (e.g. 252 lymphocytes, granulocytes and eosinophilic granular cells) in the subepithelial area, the degree 253 of vacuolar degeneration in the base of the folds and the degree of granulomatous change, if 254 present. Exact mean histopathological scores for all treatment groups are given in Table S1. 255 Exposure to hypoxia did not exert adverse effect on morphological changes in fish fed FM 256 throughout the experiment (steady state diet), but exposed to hypoxia during period 2 (FMNO

257 \rightarrow FMHY) (P>0.05). Fish fed the SBM diet during period 1, however, developed SBMIE in the 258 DI. The degree of SBMIE remained unchanged in this treatment group over time during period 259 2 where the fish was exposed to hypoxia (SBMNO \rightarrow SBMHY) (P>0.05). The two groups of 260 fish subjected to change from FM to SBM, regardless of their environment (i.e. FMNO \rightarrow 261 SBMHY and FMNO \rightarrow SBMNO) showed similarly increased histopathological score over time 262 in period 2. By day 14, they reached the same degree of SBMIE as in fish fed SBM throughout 263 the experiment but exposed to suboptimal condition (SBMNO \rightarrow SBMHY) (Fig. 5). Thus, the 264 degree of SBMIE was stable and similar from day 14 onwards among fish challenged with SBM 265 during period 2, regardless of their environmental conditions.

266 **Digestibility**

There was no significant effect of diets on the ADC of starch in period 1 (Table 2), however, ADC of lipid was reduced in fish fed SBM compared to the fish fed FM (P=0.0001). The effect of treatments on ADC of dry matter, crude protein, ash and energy during period 1 are shown in Table 2. ADC of crude protein, ash and energy was higher in fish fed SBM (P <0.05) compared with those fed the FM diets, while the ADC of dry matter tended to increase in these fish (P=0.08).

273 During period 2, there was no significant difference in any of the ADC values of the fish 274 subjected to change from FM to SBM diet and exposed to hypoxia (FMNO \rightarrow SBMHY) and of 275 the fish subjected to hypoxia and fed SBM diet throughout the experiment (SBMNO \rightarrow 276 SBMHY). The fish subjected simultaneously to changes in diet and environment (FMNO \rightarrow 277 SBMHY) and the fish fed SBM continuously (steady state), but subjected to hypoxia in period 278 2 (SBMNO \rightarrow SBMHY) showed the lowest ADC of lipid and starch at the end of period 2 (Fig. 279 6). ADC of lipid and starch were highest in the group fed FM throughout the experiment, but 280 exposed to hypoxia (FMNO \rightarrow FMHY) (P=0.001). ADC values of lipid and starch were higher 281 in the fish subjected to dietary change from FM to SBM and kept at normoxia (FMNO \rightarrow 282 SBMNO) than in the fish fed SBM and exposed to hypoxia during period 2 (FMNO \rightarrow SBMHY 283 and SBMNO \rightarrow SBMHY) (P=0.002). In the fish fed FM throughout the experiment but exposed 284 to hypoxia in period 2 (FMNO \rightarrow FMHY), the ADC of dry matter reached its highest value by 285 day 42. ADC of dry matter, was, however, gradually reduced from day 7 to 21 in the fish 286 subjected to changes in both diet and environment (FMNO \rightarrow SBMHY). Similar trend was also 287 observed in the fish challenged by SBM but kept at normoxia (FMNO \rightarrow SBMNO). There were, 288 however, no differences in ADC of dry matter among any groups challenged by SBM regardless 289 of the type of the environment by day 42. ADC of crude protein and ash in all treatment groups 290 remained unchanged throughout period 2. ADC of crude protein was, however, highest in 291 groups fed SBM at hypoxia (FMNO \rightarrow SBMHY and SBMNO \rightarrow SBMHY) at all time points 292 and lowest in fish fed FM (steady state), but subjected to change to hypoxia (FMNO \rightarrow FMHY). 293 At hypoxia, changing from FM to SBM increased the ADC of ash significantly at day 7 294 compared to steady state FM feeding (FMNO \rightarrow FMHY). The difference in ADC of ash was 295 insignificant among treatments by day 42. ADC of energy was found to be highest in the fish 296 challenged by SBM and kept at normoxia (FMNO \rightarrow SBMNO) (P=0.01), however, no 297 significant difference was observed among other treatments (P > 0.05). The interaction between 298 treatments and sampling time was not significant (P > 0.05) (Table 4).

299 **Discussion**

This study was performed to investigate if exposure to suboptimal environment (i.e. hypoxia)
 aggravates the effect of SBM on digestive function and intestinal enteropathy in rainbow trout

302 over time. We evaluated the gastrointestinal status by monitoring digestive function and
 303 progression of SBMIE in rainbow trout in response to the challenges over time.

304 It is known that oxygen is less available to aquatic than air-breathing animals and the uptake of 305 oxygen from water is more challenging (Kramer 1987). Thus, it is likely that reduction of DO 306 level in this study was a challenging factor. We observed that the fish activity (locomotion) was 307 lower in the hypoxia tanks. This is in accordance with previous observations of Nile tilapia kept 308 at different degrees of hypoxia (Tran-Duy *et al.*, 2012). Reduced activity of the fish could be a 309 response to reduced DO level as a mechanism of adaptation (Kramer 1987). Reduction in feed 310 intake is another response which is reported to occur under hypoxic conditions (Tran-Duy et al., 311 2012) as feed intake is an oxygen demanding process. In this study, however, the feed intake 312 during the four weeks after exposure to hypoxia remained unchanged in all treatment groups, 313 indicating that low DO level did not affect feed intake. Fish were fed restrictively which may 314 explain why the low DO level did not adversely affect feed intake. Glencross (2009) reported 315 that feed intake under hypoxia did not differ from normoxia when fish were fed restrictively for 316 28 days. The reduction in feed intake during the last two weeks of period 2, however, could be 317 a response to accumulation of ammonia due to the reduced water flow rate. Previous 318 publications have reported adverse effect of elevated environmental ammonia level on feed 319 intake in rainbow trout (Ortega et al., 2005) and European sea bass (Dicentrarchus labrax) 320 (Dosdat et al., 2003) and juvenile lake trout (Salvelinus namayeush) (Beamish & Tandler 1990). 321 The highest TAN concentration in this study was well below the levels tested in those 322 experiments, however, the slight but significant accumulation of ammonia may have been a 323 challenging factor to the fish already affected by reduced DO level at hypoxia. Thus, it is 324 possible that the combination of increased TAN and reduced water DO level caused reduction

325 in feed intake in this experiment. Kolarevic *et al.*, (2013) also showed that exposure to sublethal 326 levels of TAN at normoxic condition did not change feed intake significantly in Atlantic salmon. 327 The development of SBMIE in rainbow trout fed the SBM diet during period 1 was expected 328 and coincided with previous findings (Baeverfjord & Krogdahl 1996; Romarheim et al., 2008). 329 Exposure to hypoxia in this experiment did not aggravate SBMIE in fish fed SBM. The lack of 330 interactive effect between SBM and hypoxia in period 2 could be due to the high inclusion level 331 of SBM (400 g kg⁻¹) used in the present experiment leading to histopathology score of 2 or 332 higher in all fish from day 14. Thus it was difficult to evaluate the impact of additional 333 environmental challenge induced by reduced water flow on intestinal health. Furthermore, 334 feeding FM at hypoxia did not result in any signs of inflammation in the DI of rainbow trout. 335 Sundh et al., (2010) reported atrophy of intestinal folds in Atlantic salmon kept at hypoxia and 336 temperature of 16 °C (corresponding to 50% saturation). It is possible that rainbow trout is more 337 resistant to the adverse change in the environmental conditions such as hypoxia than Atlantic 338 salmon. SBM diet, however, induced significant morphological changes after 7 days of period 339 2 in fish subjected to SBM independent of the environment, which is in agreement with the 340 study in Atlantic salmon (Urán et al., 2009). At day 14 and onward, all SBM-fed fish had similar 341 histopathology score regardless of their environment, implying that there was no effect of feed 342 intake, steady state SBM consumption and suboptimal conditions (reduced water flow rate) on 343 this parameter, even at longer time of exposure.

The reduction in ADC of lipid in fish fed SBM compared to the fish fed FM in period 1 confirms previous reports (Refstie *et al.*, 1998; Romarheim *et al.*, 2006; Øverland *et al.*, 2009). This trend was also observed 42 days after the change from the FM to SBM diet at normoxia and hypoxia. 347 The ADC of starch in this study was close to the values previously reported in rainbow trout 348 (Krogdahl et al., 2004; Romarheim et al., 2006). Earlier publications have shown that starch can 349 be highly digestible for carnivorous fish after hydrothermal treatment of the feed resulting in 350 starch gelatinisation (Bergot & Breque 1983; Panserat 2009). Furthermore, lower intake of 351 dietary starch under restrictive feeding has also reported to improve ADC of starch (Bergot & 352 Breque 1983). The fact that ADC of starch did not differ significantly between SBM and FM 353 during period 1 is in accordance with some earlier studies (Romarheim *et al.*, 2006; Romarheim 354 et al., 2012). The further reduction in ADC of lipid and starch in two groups of fish kept at 355 hypoxia and fed SBM (steady state and subject to change from FM to SBM), suggests that there 356 is an adverse additive effect of dietary challenge and suboptimal environment in the present 357 study on digestive function of the fish. The degree of SBMIE did not differ between hypoxia-358 and normoxia-treated fish. This indicates that the changes in ADC of lipid and starch is 359 independent of SBMIE. A possible explanation is that reduced activity of the fish at hypoxia, 360 may have led to slower gastrointestinal peristaltic movement than that at normoxia, which 361 consequently increased the interaction time of lipids and starch with ANFs including NSPs in 362 SBM diet. This in turn aggravated the adverse effect of ANFs on ADC of these nutrients. There 363 are different types of ANFs in SBM, the function of which are not yet fully understood (Francis 364 et al., 2001). Some fraction of ANFs may interact with components essential for lipid digestion 365 and reduce the ADC of lipid. An example is saponins which have been suggested to reduce 366 lipase activity, leading to reduced ADC of lipid (Han et al., 2000). NSPs may also reduce 367 digestibility of different nutrients such as starch by increasing the viscosity of the digesta 368 (Leenhouwers et al., 2006) or reducing brush border enzymes activity and bile acid 369 concentration (Kraugerud et al., 2007). Another explanation is that at hypoxia, reduced water

370 DO level contributed to further reduction in ADC of lipid due to higher oxygen demand of 371 dietary lipids for oxidation. On the other hand, storage of dietary starch energy in the form of 372 body fat is also more oxygen demanding than deposit of dietary fat (Reeds et al., 1982). The 373 suboptimal environment may also have increased the interactions between carbohydrates and 374 lipids in the GIT, resulting in amylose-lipid complexes, which has shown to increase resistance 375 of amylose to α -amylase (Holm *et al.*, 1983). Overall this result also indicates that digestive 376 function is more sensitive than the DI enteropathy in rainbow trout exposed to a dietary 377 challenge under suboptimal conditions.

378 The lower ADC of crude protein in fish fed the FM diet during period 1 compared to the fish 379 fed the SBM diet contradicts previous results (Øverland et al., 2009). Cellulose inclusion level 380 was relatively high in the FM diet, but Hansen & Storebakken (2007) showed that cellulose does 381 not affect ADC of protein, lipid and starch. Reduced ADC of FM compared to SBM may be due 382 to the faeces collection method used in this experiment. In this experiment faeces was collected 383 in bottles mounted to the settling tanks and remained in the bottle for 23 hours which may result 384 in leaching of nutrients. Leaching has been discussed previously as a problem associated with 385 the use of columns for faeces collection (Storebakken et al., 1998; Vandenberg & De La Noüe 386 2001). The same method of faeces collection was used in this experiment for all treatment 387 groups, however, leaching rate of nitrogen may differ for different diets. Physical and chemical 388 properties of the faecal matter from SBM diet is different from that of FM diet. For example 389 SBM diet has shown to contain less dry matter due to diarrhea (Refstie et al., 2000; Refstie et 390 al., 2005). The properties of faecal matter from SBM diet may have resulted in a higher rate of 391 nitrogen leaching than for that for FM diet. This proposed effect of faeces collection method, 392 however, was not reflected in ADC of starch and lipid. The observed stability in ADC of crude

393 protein during the first four weeks of period 2 may be explained by the stable feed intake during 394 this period. However, reduction of feed intake during the last two weeks of period 2 did not 395 affect ADC of crude protein in fish kept at hypoxia regardless of the diet. The finding is in 396 accordance with a previous report of no change in ADC of crude protein in European sea bass 397 with chronic exposure to high water TAN level (Dosdat *et al.*, 2003).

398 The higher ADC of dry matter and energy in fish fed the SBM diet in the present experiment 399 may be a result of the high inclusion level of cellulose in the FM diet. The results are in 400 agreement with Glencross et al., (2012) whom also showed reduced ADC of dry matter and 401 energy with higher percentage of cellulose in diet. However, the results show no significant 402 difference in ADC of energy after 42 days of feeding in period 2 among the fish fed FM and 403 SBM (steady state and subject to change from FM to SBM) at hypoxia. The reason for this 404 observation may be the overall result of lower ADC of lipid and starch in fish subjected to SBM 405 at hypoxia and reduced ADC of dry matter and crude protein in the fish fed FM at the same 406 environment.

407

408 Conclusions

To conclude, the suboptimal environment used in this experiment did not induce or aggravate the changes associated with SBMIE or adversely affect the ADC of nutrients in rainbow trout. However, fish subjected to the dietary challenge at suboptimal environment showed further reduction in digestibility of starch and lipid without change in the degree of SBMIE when compared to the fish exposed to dietary challenge alone. These results indicate that there was an interaction between feeding plant-based diets and exposure to suboptimal environmentalcondition on digestive function of rainbow trout.

416 Acknowledgements

This study was funded by AQUAEXCEL (Aquaculture Infrastructures for Excellence in European Fish Research) project no 0071/05/13/30/A and also supported by Foods of Norway, a Centre for Research- based Innovation (the Research Council of Norway; grant no. 237841/030). We would like to thank Menno ter Veld for assistance in operating the experimental facility and also Ronald Booms and Tino Leffering for technical assistance during chemical analysis. Our thanks also go to Professor Trond Storebakken for helpful discussions.

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433 **References**

- 434 Austreng, E., Storebakken, T., Thomassen, M.S., Refstie, S. & Thomassen, Y. (2000).
 435 Evaluation of selected trivalent metal oxides as inert markers used to estimate apparent
 436 digestibility in salmonids. *Aquaculture*, **188**, 65-78.
- 437 Baeverfjord, G. & Krogdahl, A. (1996). Development and regression of soybean meal induced
- 438 enteritis in Atlantic salmon, Salmo salar L., distal intestine: a comparison with the intestines of
- 439 fasted fish. J. Fish Dis., **19**, 375-387.
- Beamish, F.W.H. & Tandler, A. (1990). Ambient ammonia, diet and growth in lake trout. *Aquat. Toxicol.*, 17, 155-166.
- Bergot, F. & Breque, J. (1983). Digestibility of starch by rainbow trout: Effects of the physical
 state of starch and of the intake level. *Aquaculture*, **34**, 203-212.
- Chikwati, E.M., Sahlmann, C., Holm, H., Penn, M.H., Krogdahl, Å. & Bakke, A.M. (2013).
 Alterations in digestive enzyme activities during the development of diet-induced enteritis in
 Atlantic salmon, *Salmo salar* L. *Aquaculture*, **402–403**, 28-37.
- 447 Dosdat, A., Ruyet, J.P.-L., Covès, D., Dutto, G., Gasset, E., Le Roux, A. & Lemarié, G. (2003).
- 448 Effect of chronic exposure to ammonia on growth, food utilisation and metabolism of the
- European sea bass (Dicentrarchus labrax). *Aquat. Living Resour.*, **16**, 509-520.
- Ellis, T., North, B., Scott, A.P., Bromage, N.R., Porter, M. & Gadd, D. (2002). The relationships
 between stocking density and welfare in farmed rainbow trout. *J. Fish Biol.*, 61, 493-531.
- 452 Francis, G., Makkar, H.P.S. & Becker, K. (2001). Antinutritional factors present in plant-453 derived alternate fish feed ingredients and their effects in fish. *Aquaculture*, **199**, 197-227.
- 454 Førde-Skjærvik, O., Refstie, S., Aslaksen, M. & Skrede, A. (2006). Digestibility of diets
- 455 containing different soyabean meals in Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*); comparison of collection
- 456 methods and mapping of digestibility in different sections of the gastrointestinal tract.
- 457 *Aquaculture*, **261**, 241-258.

- 458 Glencross, B., Rutherford, N. & Bourne, N. (2012). The influence of various starch and non-
- 459 starch polysaccharides on the digestibility of diets fed to rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*).
- 460 Aquaculture, **356–357**, 141-146.
- Glencross, B.D. (2009). Reduced water oxygen levels affect maximal feed intake, but not
 protein or energy utilization efficiency of rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*). Aquacult. *Nutr.*, 15, 1-8.
- Han, L.K., Xu, B.J., Kimura, Y., Zheng, Y.N. & Okuda, H. (2000). Platycodi radix affects lipid
 metabolism in mice with high fat diet–induced obesity. *J. Nutr.*, 130, 2760-2764.
- Hansen, J.Ø. & Storebakken, T. (2007). Effects of dietary cellulose level on pellet quality and
 nutrient digestibilities in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*). *Aquaculture*, 272, 458-465.
- Holm, J., Björck, I., Ostrowska, S., Eliasson, A.C., Asp, N.G., Larsson, K. & Lundquist, I.
 (1983). Digestibility of Amylose-Lipid Complexes in-vitro and in-vivo. *Starch Stärke*, 35,
 294-297.
- 471 Kolarevic, J., Selset, R., Felip, O., Good, C., Snekvik, K., Takle, H., Ytteborg, E., Baeverfjord,
- 472 G., Asgard, T. & Terjesen, B.F. (2013). Influence of long term ammonia exposure on Atlantic
- 473 salmon (Salmo salar L.) parr growth and welfare. *Aquacult. Res.*, **44**, 1649-1664.
- 474 Kramer, D.L. (1987). Dissolved oxygen and fish behavior. *Environ. Biol. Fishes*, **18**, 81-92.
- 475 Kraugerud, O.F., Penn, M., Storebakken, T., Refstie, S., Krogdahl, Å. & Svihus, B. (2007).
- 476 Nutrient digestibilities and gut function in Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar) fed diets with cellulose
- 477 or non-starch polysaccharides from soy. *Aquaculture*, **273**, 96-107.
- 478 Krogdahl, Å., Bakke-Mckellep, A. & Baeverfjord, G. (2003). Effects of graded levels of 479 standard soybean meal on intestinal structure, mucosal enzyme activities, and pancreatic
- 480 response in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.). *Aquacult. Nutr.*, **9**, 361-371.

- Krogdahl, Å., Sundby, A. & Olli, J.J. (2004). Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) and rainbow trout
 (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) digest and metabolize nutrients differently. Effects of water salinity and
 dietary starch level. *Aquaculture*, 229, 335-360.
- Leenhouwers, J.I., Adjei-Boateng, D., Verreth, J.a.J. & Schrama, J.W. (2006). Digesta viscosity,
 nutrient digestibility and organ weights in African catfish (*Clarias gariepinus*) fed diets
 supplemented with different levels of a soluble non-starch polysaccharide. *Aquacult. Nutr.*, **12**,
 111-116.
- Lough, J.M. & Hobday, A.J. (2011). Observed climate change in Australian marine and
 freshwater environments. *Mar. Freshwater. Res.*, 62, 984-999.
- 490 Meade, J.W. (1985). Allowable Ammonia for Fish Culture. Prog. Fish. Cult., 47, 135-145.
- 491 Mosberian-Tanha, P., Øverland, M., Landsverk, T., Reveco, F.E., Schrama, J.W., Roem, A.J.,
- 492 Agger, J.W. & Mydland, L.T. (2016). Bacterial translocation and *in vivo* assessment of intestinal
- 493 barrier permeability in rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss) with and without soyabean meal-
- 494 induced inflammation. J. Nutr. Sci., 5, e26 (10 pages).
- 495 Nordrum, S., Krogdahl, Å., Røsjø, C., Olli, J.J. & Holm, H. (2000). Effects of methionine,
 496 cysteine and medium chain triglycerides on nutrient digestibility, absorption of amino acids
 497 along the intestinal tract and nutrient retention in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.) under pair498 feeding regime. *Aquaculture*, **186**, 341-360.
- 499 Oppedal, F., Dempster, T. & Stien, L.H. (2011). Environmental drivers of Atlantic salmon
 500 behaviour in sea-cages: A review. *Aquaculture*, **311**, 1-18.
- 501 Opstvedt, J., Nygârd, E., Samuelsen, T.A., Venturini, G., Luzzana, U. & Mundheim, H. (2003).
- 502 Effect on protein digestibility of different processing conditions in the production of fish meal
- 503 and fish feed. J. Sci. Food Agric., **83**, 775-782.
- 504 Ortega, V.A., Renner, K.J. & Bernier, N.J. (2005). Appetite-suppressing effects of ammonia 505 exposure in rainbow trout associated with regional and temporal activation of brain 506 monoaminergic and CRF systems. *J. Exp. Biol.*, **208**, 1855-1866.

- 507 Panserat, S. (2009). Molecular Regulation of Intermediary Metabolism Focusing on Utilization
- 508 of Dietary Carbohydrates. . In: In: Molecular Research in Aquaculture (Overturf, K. ed.), pp.
- 509 261-278. ed. Wiley-Blackwell, Oxford, UK.
- 510 Reeds, P.J., Wahle, K.W.J. & Haggarty, P. (1982). Energy costs of protein and fatty acid 511 synthesis. *Proc. Nutr. Soc.*, **41**, 155-159.
- Refstie, S., Korsøen, Ø.J., Storebakken, T., Baeverfjord, G., Lein, I. & Roem, A.J. (2000).
 Differing nutritional responses to dietary soybean meal in rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss)
 and Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar). *Aquaculture*, **190**, 49-63.
- Refstie, S., Landsverk, T., Bakke-Mckellep, A.M., Ringø, E., Sundby, A., Shearer, K.D. &
 Krogdahl, Å. (2006). Digestive capacity, intestinal morphology, and microflora of 1-year and
 2-year old Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*) fed standard or bioprocessed soybean meal.
- 518 *Aquaculture*, **261**, 269-284.
- Refstie, S., Sahlström, S., Bråthen, E., Baeverfjord, G. & Krogedal, P. (2005). Lactic acid
 fermentation eliminates indigestible carbohydrates and antinutritional factors in soybean meal
 for Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*). *Aquaculture*, **246**, 331-345.
- Refstie, S., Storebakken, T. & Roem, A. (1998). Feed consumption and conversion in Atlantic
 salmon (*Salmo salar*) fed diets with fish meal, extracted soybean meal or soybean meal with
 reduced content of oligosaccharides, trypsin inhibitors, lectins and soya antigens. *Aquaculture*,
 162, 301-312.
- 526 Romarheim, O.H., Hetland, D.L., Skrede, A., Øverland, M., Mydland, L.T. & Landsverk, T. 527 (2012). Prevention of soya-induced enteritis in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) by bacteria grown 528 on natural gas is dose dependent and related to epithelial MHC II reactivity and CD8α+ 529 intraepithelial lymphocytes. *Br. J. Nutr.*, **109**, 1-9.
- Romarheim, O.H., Skrede, A., Gao, Y., Krogdahl, Å., Denstadli, V., Lilleeng, E. &
 Storebakken, T. (2006). Comparison of white flakes and toasted soybean meal partly replacing
 fish meal as protein source in extruded feed for rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*). *Aquaculture*, 256, 354-364.

- Romarheim, O.H., Skrede, A., Penn, M., Mydland, L.T., Krogdahl, A. & Storebakken, T.
 (2008). Lipid digestibility, bile drainage and development of morphological intestinal changes
 in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) fed diets containing defatted soybean meal. *Aquaculture*, 274, 329-338.
- Saravanan, S., Geurden, I., Figueiredo-Silva, A.C., Kaushik, S.J., Haidar, M.N., Verreth, J.A.
 & Schrama, J.W. (2012). Control of voluntary feed intake in fish: a role for dietary oxygen
 demand in Nile tilapia (Oreochromis niloticus) fed diets with different macronutrient profiles. *Br. J. Nutr.*, **108**, 1519-29.
- 542 Storebakken, T., Kvien, I.S., Shearer, K.D., Grisdale-Helland, B., Helland, S.J. & Berge, G.M.
 543 (1998). The apparent digestibility of diets containing fish meal, soybean meal or bacterial meal
 544 fed to Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*): evaluation of different faecal collection methods.
 545 *Aquaculture*, 169, 195-210.
- Sundh, H., Kvamme, B.O., Fridell, F., Olsen, R.E., Ellis, T., Taranger, G.L. & Sundell, K.
 (2010). Intestinal barrier function of Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.) post smolts is reduced by
 common sea cage environments and suggested as a possible physiological welfare indicator. *BMC Physiol.*, 10, 22.
- Tran-Duy, A., Van Dam, A.A. & Schrama, J.W. (2012). Feed intake, growth and metabolism
 of Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*) in relation to dissolved oxygen concentration. *Aquacult*. *Res.*, 43, 730-744.
- Tran-Ngoc, K.T., Dinh, N.T., Nguyen, T.H., Roem, A.J., Schrama, J.W. & Verreth, J.a.J.
 (2016). Interaction between dissolved oxygen concentration and diet composition on growth,
 digestibility and intestinal health of Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*). *Aquaculture*, 462, 101108.
- Urán, P.A., Aydin, R., Schrama, J.W., Verreth, J.a.J. & Rombout, J.H.W.M. (2008). Soybean
 meal-induced uptake block in Atlantic salmon, *Salmo salar*, distal enterocytes. *J. Fish Biol.*, 73,
 2571-2579.

- 560 Urán, P.A., Schrama, J.W., Rombout, J.H.W.M., Taverne-Thiele, J.J., Obach, A., Koppe, W. &
- 561 Verreth, J.a.J. (2009). Time-related changes of the intestinal morphology of Atlantic salmon,
- 562 Salmo salar L., at two different soybean meal inclusion levels. J. Fish Dis., 32, 733-744.
- 563 Vandenberg, G.W. & De La Noüe, J. (2001). Apparent digestibility comparison in rainbow trout
- 564 (Oncorhynchus mykiss) assessed using three methods of faeces collection and three digestibility
- 565 markers. *Aquacult. Nutr.*, **7**, 237-245.
- Wu, R.S.S. (2002). Hypoxia: from molecular responses to ecosystem responses. *Mar. Pollut. Bull.*, 45, 35-45.
- 568 Øverland, M., Sørensen, M., Storebakken, T., Penn, M., Krogdahl, Å. & Skrede, A. (2009). Pea
- 569 protein concentrate substituting fish meal or soybean meal in diets for Atlantic salmon (Salmo
- 570 salar)-Effect on growth performance, nutrient digestibility, carcass composition, gut health, and
- 571 physical feed quality. *Aquaculture*, **288**, 305-311.
- 572
- 573
- 574
- 575
- 576
- 577
- 578
- 579
- 580

581 Figure legends

Fig. 1. Daily feed intake (g kg⁻¹ body weight) of rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) (means \pm SE) fed fish meal (FM) or soybean meal (SBM) and kept at normoxia (high water flow rate) in period 1. Each data point on diet curves, is the mean of three tanks for one day. The DO level is the mean of all tanks (*n*=12).

Fig. 2. Feed intake (g kg⁻¹ body weight) of rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) (means \pm SE) 586 587 subjected to change in diet and/or environment (hypoxia) in period 2. (A) Treatment groups 588 subjected to challenging environment (hypoxia). One treatment remained on the fish meal (FM) 589 diet supplied in period 1 (steady state dietary condition) (FMNO \rightarrow FMHY). One treatment 590 group was subjected to change from FM diet to soybean meal (SBM) diet (FMNO→ SBMHY) 591 and another treatment remained on SBM diet (steady state dietary challenge) 592 $(SBMNO \rightarrow SBMHY)$. (B) Treatment group kept at normoxia. Fish in this group was subjected 593 to change from FM diet supplied in period 1 to SBM diet (FMNO→SBMNO) in period 2. Each 594 data point is the diet mean of three tanks for one day. The DO line in (A) is the mean of all low 595 flow tanks in period 2 (n=9) and in (B) is the mean of high flow tanks (n=3).

Fig. 3. Total ammonia nitrogen (TAN) level in each treatment group during week five of period 2. Ambient TAN level increased (*P*=0.002) in the three treatments exposed to hypoxia regardless of their dietary regimen. Values are mean (n=3) ± SE.

599 Fig. 4. The regression of water total ammonia nitrogen (TAN) level against feed intake (g kg⁻¹
body weight) during week five of period 2.

601	Fig. 5. Morphological changes in the distal intestine of rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss)
602	$(n=9 \text{ fish treatment}^{-1})$ over time. Scores are based on average of the five parameters used in
603	evaluation of SBMIE; sub-epithelium infiltration of leukocytes, supranuclear vacuolisation of
604	apical epithelial cells, atrophy of intestinal folds and the degree of basal-fold vacuolar
605	degeneration and granuloma. Fish was challenged with soybean meal and/or hypoxia during
606	period 2. NO, normoxia; HY, hypoxia. Values at day 0 are histopathological scores at the end
607	of period 1.
608	Fig. 6. Apparent digestibility of starch and lipid of rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss)
609	subjected to change in diet and/or hypoxia at the end of period 2. Values are means $(n=3) \pm SE$.
610	
611	
612	
012	
613	
614	
615	
616	
617	
618	
619	
620	

621	Table 1 Diet formulation a	and chemical con	nposition of ex	perimental diets	fed to rainbow trout
-----	----------------------------	------------------	-----------------	------------------	----------------------

622	(Oncorhynchus	mykiss)	ļ
-----	---------------	---------	---

	FM	SBM
Ingredients (g kg ⁻¹)		
Fish meal ^a	540.0	250.0
Soybean meal ^b	-	400.0
Wheat flour ^c	170.0	140.0
Rapeseed oil	100.0	120.9
Fish oil ^d	40.0	40.0
Cellulose	143.4	30.0
Monocalciumphosphate ^e	-	10.0
DL-methionine ^f	-	2.5
Yttrium oxide ^g	0.1	0.1
Vitamin/mineral premix ^h	6.5	6.5
Proximate analysis		
Dry matter (g kg ⁻¹)	949	957
Crude protein (g kg ⁻¹)	430	427
Crude lipid (g kg ⁻¹)	206	220
Non-starch polysaccharides (g kg ⁻¹) ⁱ	155	164
Starch (g kg ⁻¹)	130	113
Ash (g kg ⁻¹)	79	76
Gross energy (MJ kg ⁻¹)	23.0	23.2

623 FM, fishmeal; SBM, soybean meal

^a TripleNine Fish Protein, Esbjerg, Denmark.

- 625 ^b Cargill, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.
- 626 ^c Meneba, Weert, The Netherlands.
- ^dCoppens International, Helmond, The Netherlands.

- ^eTessenderlo Chemie, Rotterdam, The Netherlands.
- ^fEvonik Industries AG, Hanau, Germany.

630 ^g Sigma–Aldrich, USA.

^h Vitamin/mineral premix provided (kg⁻¹ diet): α- tocopherol acetate, 100 IU; sodium menadione 631 632 bisulphate, 10 mg; retinyl acetate, 3000 IU; cholecalciferol, 2400 IU; thiamin, 10 mg; 633 riboflavin, 10 mg; pyridoxine, 10 mg; nicotinic acid, 20 mg; folic acid, 2 mg; ascorbyl 634 phosphate,100 mg; inositol, 400 mg; biotin, 0.2 mg; pantothenic acid, 40 mg; cyanocobalamin, 635 0.015 mg; choline chloride, 2000 mg; anti-oxidant BHT (E300-321), 100 mg; calcium 636 propionate, 1000 mg; Fe (as FeSO₄.7H₂O), 50 mg; Zn (as ZnSO₄.7H₂O), 30 mg; Co (as 637 CoSO₄.7H₂O), 0·1 mg; Cu (as CuSO₄.5H₂O), 10 mg; Se (as Na₂SeO₃), 0.5 mg; Mn (as 638 MnSO₄.4H₂O), 20 mg; Mg (as MgSO₄.7H₂O), 500 mg; Cr (as CrCl₃.6H₂O), 1 mg; I (as 639 CaIO₃.6H₂O), 2 mg.

- ⁱCalculated non-starch polysaccharides=1000- (crude protein+ crude lipid+ starch+ ash).
- 641
- 642
- 643
- 644
- 645
- 646

647

	$FMNO \rightarrow$	FMNO→	FMNO→	SBMNO→	Pooled
Treatments	FMHY	SBMHY	SBMNO	SBMHY	SEM
Dry matter					
Period 1 ^{2,3}	72.3	72.1	72.0	79.2	2.5
Period 2					
Day 7	74.6 ^{B,c}	82.6 ^{A, a}	81.7 ^{AB, a}	80.3 ^{B, b}	2.3
Day 14	75.5 ^{B,c}	81.7 ^{B, a}	$81.1^{AB, ab}$	79.7 ^{B, b}	0.8
Day 21	75.9 ^{B,b}	80.6 ^{C,a}	80.7 ^{B,a}	80.7 ^{AB,a}	0.7
Day 42	78.0 ^{A,b}	81.9 ^{AB,a}	82.8 ^{A,a}	82.1 ^{A,a}	0.5
Crude protein					
Period 1 ²	92.9 ^b	92.7 ^b	92.2 ^b	94.3ª	0.6
Period 2					
Day 7	94.3 ^b	96.2ª	95.0 ^b	95.9ª	0.4
Day 14	94.4 ^b	95.9ª	94.8 ^{ab}	95.7ª	0.5
Day 21	94.4 ^c	95.7ª	94.6 ^{bc}	95.5 ^{ab}	0.5
Day 42	94.3 ^b	95.8ª	95.1 ^{ab}	95.5ª	0.4
Ash					
Period 1 ²	51.2 ^b	50.9 ^b	50.5 ^b	57.8ª	0.9
Period 2					
Day 7	52.1 ^{B,b}	57.8 ^{B,a}	56.6ª	59.0ª	1.1
Day 14	55.8 ^{AB}	58.1 ^B	57.3	59.1	1.5
Day 21	56.1 ^{AB}	57.9 ^B	57.4	58.8	1.5
Day 42	57.9 ^A	60.4 ^A	58.6	60.2	1.3
Gross energy ⁴					
Period 1 ²	80.5 ^b	80.0 ^b	80.2 ^b	83.4 ^a	0.7
Period 2					
Day 42	84.2 ^b	84.3 ^b	86.2ª	84.7 ^{ab}	0.6
Starch					
Period 1 ²	89.4	89.6	90.0	89.2	1.3
Lipid					

Table 2 Apparent digestibility coefficients (ADC, %) of nutrients and energy of rainbow trout

649 ((Oncorhynchus	mykiss)	subjected	to change	in diet	and/or	environment	1
-------	---------------	---------	-----------	-----------	---------	--------	-------------	---

Period 1^2 93.7 ^a 93.5 ^a 94.8 ^a 89.0 ^b	1.2
--	-----

	Tenou 1 25.7 25.5 24.6 69.0 1.2
650	¹ Values represent the means ($n=3$) with pooled SEM. Means in a row with different lower case
651	letters indicate significant difference among treatments in period 1 (one-way ANOVA, $P < 0.05$)
652	and in period 2 (two-way ANOVA, $P < 0.05$). Means in each column with different capital
653	letters indicate significant difference over time during period 2 within a treatment (two-way
654	ANOVA, $P < 0.05$). One-way ANOVA was used for data from ADC of gross energy at the end
655	of period 2. ADC of starch and lipid for the end of period 2 (day 22-42) are presented in Fig. 6
656	(one-way ANOVA).
657	² Fish were fed either fish meal (FM) or soybean meal (SBM) for 4 weeks during period 1.
658	³ A Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA was used for ADC of dry matter in period 1.
659	⁴ Mean of gross energy digestibility coefficient includes the effect of cellulose inclusion as an
660	inert ingredient.
661	
662	
663	
664	
665	
666	
667	
660	