

No adverse effect of a maternal high carbohydrate diet on their offspring, in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*)

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In order to develop a sustainable salmonid aquaculture, it is essential to continue to reduce the use of the protein-rich fishmeal. One promising solution to do so is the use of plant-derived carbohydrates in diet destined to broodstock. However, in mammals, the reduction of protein content (replaced by carbohydrates) in parental diet is known to have strong adverse effects on offspring phenotypes and metabolism. For the first time, the effect of a paternal and a maternal high carbohydrate-low protein diet was assessed on progeny at long term in the rainbow trout. A 30% protein diminution in both males and females broodstock diet during 10 month and 5 months, respectively, did not trigger adverse consequences on their offspring phenotypes. Tenuous differences were observed in tissues composition, but remained in the normal range of value. Offspring transcriptomes were not significantly altered, emphasizing no effect on metabolism at molecular level. Accordingly, offspring growth were not negatively affected at long term. Overall, we demonstrated here that a 30% protein diminution during gametogenesis is feasible for rainbow trout broodstock, confirming the possibility to increase the proportion of plant-derived carbohydrates in broodstock diets to replace fishmeal proteins.

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14 ABSTRACT

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16 the protein-rich fishmeal. One promising solution to do so is the use of plant-derived carbohydrates
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27 derived carbohydrates in broodstock diets to replace fishmeal proteins.

28 INTRODUCTION

29 The aquaculture industry is constantly developing better feeds: feeds that are both covering the fish
30 known nutritional requirements and being economical and environmentally friendly. To this end, the
31 research in aquaculture nutrition has notably focused on the replacement of fishmeal and fish oil, tradi-
32 tional ingredients used for rearing aquaculture carnivorous species (Naylor et al., 2009). Plant-derived
33 carbohydrates appear to be good candidates to replace protein included in fishmeal, as they could represent
34 a non-negligible source of energy, help sparing proteins for growth (Hemre et al., 2002) and as they are
35 more available in Europe and cheaper than fishmeal (Prabu et al., 2017). A study on rainbow trout has
36 recently demonstrated that female trout broodstock are able grow and reproduce normally over an entire
37 reproductive cycle when fed a high digestible carbohydrates/low protein diet (Callet et al., 2020). Thereby,
38 plant-carbohydrates could be a viable solution to replace fishmeal in diets for broodstock.
39 However, it is now recognized that nutritional insults occurred during the peri and prenatal life could affect
40 an individual at long term. As such, both the maternal and the paternal diets could affect their offspring
41 metabolism, phenotypes and health at long term (Rando and Simmons, 2015; Guo et al., 2020), in a
42 gender specific manner (Tarrade et al., 2015). This concept is well known as programming or DOHAD
43 (Developmental Origins of Health and Disease) in mammals (Hoffman et al., 2017). In mammals, both
44 the over/under nutrition and an altered macronutrients balance have been studied, and among the latter
45 the effects of a low protein-to-carbohydrate ratio (Guo et al., 2020). Protein restriction and increased

46 carbohydrates proportion in parental diets are known to have deleterious effects on offspring such as the
47 reduction of their lifespan, development of obesity, glucose intolerance and modification of cholesterol
48 metabolism in mammals (Langley-Evans, 2009; Hoffman et al., 2017; Guo et al., 2020). Nevertheless,
49 studies exploring the effects of such parental diets in teleost fish are nowadays lacking.
50 Before increasing the part of plant-derived carbohydrates to replace fishmeal in broodstock diets in
51 farming practice, reducing thus the proportion of protein, it is essential to investigate potential effects of
52 such diets on broodstock offspring. To do so, two-year old male and female rainbow trout were fed either
53 a control diet (NC, 63.89% protein and 0% carbohydrates) or a "high carbohydrate/low protein" diet
54 (HC/LP, 42.96% protein and 35.30% carbohydrates) for an entire reproductive cycle for females and for 5
55 months for males. To explore the effects of a maternal high carbohydrate(HC)/low protein(LP) diet, a
56 paternal HC/LP diet and the combination of both maternal and paternal HC/LP diet, crossed-fertilizations
57 were carried out in order to obtain 4 groups of offspring (Callet et al., 2020). Zootechnical parameters
58 were monitored until offspring reached a market fish size (portion trout). Moreover, transcriptomes of
59 liver and muscle, which are two key tissues in metabolism and are known to be responsive to nutritional
60 programming in trout (Song et al., 2018), were analysed to detect any impact on offspring metabolism.

61 MATERIALS AND METHODS

62 Ethics Approval

63 Investigations were conducted according to the guiding principles for the use and care of laboratory
64 animals and in compliance with French and European regulations on animal welfare (Décret 2001-464,
65 29 May 2001 and Directive 2010/63/EU, respectively). This protocol and the project as a whole were
66 approved by the French National Consultative Ethics Committee (reference numbers 201610061056842).

67 Experimental design

68 Rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) produced from broodstock with different nutritional histories were
69 reared during 36 weeks to assess the effects of such nutritional histories.
70 Broodstock feeding trial was previously described in Callet et al. (2020). Two-year old males and
71 females rainbow trout were fed since the resumption of feeding with either a control diet (NC, 63.89%
72 protein and 0% carbohydrates) or a low protein/high carbohydrate (HC/LP, 42.96% protein and 35.30%
73 carbohydrates) during 10 and 5 months for females and males, respectively. During the spawning period
74 (November-year 1), spawns from NC and HC/LP females were cross-fertilized with milts from males
75 from each experimental condition in the experimental INRAE facilities of Lees-Athas (Figure 1). Thus,
76 offspring from 4 different conditions were obtained: the control NN offspring from both males and
77 females fed the NC diet, HN offspring from only females fed the HC/LP diet and males fed the NC
78 diet; NH offspring from only males fed the HC/LP diet and females fed the NC diet; and HH offspring
79 from both parents fed the HC/LP diet. Eggs have hatched in December (year 1), from 44 to 48 days
80 post-fertilization. Yolk-sac fry were then transferred to the INRAE experimental facilities of Donzacq
81 (France). The offspring was reared into 12 tanks (n=3/condition which is the number of tanks needed
82 for nutritional studies) in a flow-through reared system supplied with natural spring water at 17°C. For
83 each condition, from 1300 to 1500 fish were randomly assigned to each of the three tanks. Tanks were
84 randomly distributed in the experimental facilities and named without any indication of the offspring's
85 condition. Fish were examined daily and dead fish were removed. Since their first feeding (January-year
86 2), fish were fed *ad libitum* with a commercial diet (T3-P Omega, Skretting, France) during 36 weeks
87 (until October-year 2). The initial density was adjusted after 3 weeks (150 fish per tank), 18 weeks (100
88 fish per tank), 21 weeks (70 fish per tank) and finally after 24 weeks (30 fish per tank). Between the 18
89 and the 21 weeks (mid-June-year 2), due to a technical issues, the water supply has been compromised in
90 one NH tank, triggering a high mortality in this tank. To avoid any effect of the density, the fish from the
91 3 tanks were mixed and redistributed at equal density in the 3 tanks. During the growth trial, all fish were
92 treated to prevent *flavobacterium* infections between 9-12 weeks and between 21-24 weeks (in April and
93 June of year 2). Finally, a one day peak in deaths was recorded during the 27-30 weeks period, probably
94 caused by an important stress due to a storm.

95 Samplings

96 Every three weeks, fish were weighted and zootechnical parameters were calculated as follows (by tanks,
97 n=3 tanks):

98 Survival (%) = $(N_{final}/N_{init}) \times 100$;

99 SGR (%/day) = $100 \times (\ln(BW_{final}) - \ln(BW_{init}))/\text{day}$.

100 Dry feed intake was estimated by removing unconsumed (collected every day) from feed supplied. Feed efficiency (FE) and feed intakes were estimated as follows:

101 FE = $(BW_{final} + BW_d - BW_{init})/\text{dry feed intake}$

102 FI = $100 \times \text{dry feed intake}/((BW_{final} + BW_{init})/2)/\text{day}$

103 $FI_{MBW} = \text{dry feed intake}/((BW_{final}^{0.8} \times BW_{init}^{0.8})^{0.5} \times \text{day})$

104 with N_{init} and N_{final} the initial and final fish number; BW_{init} , BW_{final} and BW_d the mass for initial, final and dead fish.

107 After 24 weeks and 36 weeks of feeding (July and October-year 2), fish were sampled. Fish were anesthetized with benzocaine (30 mg/L) and killed in a benzocaine bath at 60 mg/L. Concerning the 24-weeks-sampling, 9 fish from each condition were randomly sampled and stored at a whole at -20°C for biochemical composition analysis. Concerning the 36-weeks-sampling (October-year 2), 9 individuals by condition were randomly sampled 6 hours after the last feeding. Individual mean body weight (BW) and individual body length (L) were measured and the Fulton's condition factor was calculated as $K = 100 \times BW/L^3$ (n=9). Blood was removed from the caudal vein and centrifuged at 3000 g for 5 min. The plasma obtained was stored at -20°C until further analysis. The viscera and hepatopancreas were removed and weighted. The viscerosomatic index (VSI) and hepatosomatic index (HSI) were calculated as $HSI(\%) = 100 \times \text{liver weight}/\text{fish weight}$ and $VSI(\%) = 100 \times \text{viscera weight}/\text{fish weight}$ (n=9). The viscera, a part of the liver and a part of muscle were stored at -20°C until biochemical analyses. Another part of the liver and muscle were removed and immediately frozen in liquid and stored at -80°C until RNA extraction. Finally, the caudal fin of each fish were dissected and stored at -20°C until DNA extraction.

120 Biochemical composition

121 Proximate compositions of the feeds, whole-body fish samples (24-weeks-sampling), carcass, liver, muscle, and viscera (36-weeks-sampling) were analysed as follows: dry matter was determined by the oven drying to constant weight at 105°C; ash was determined via combustion in a muffle furnace at 600°C to a constant weight; crude protein ($N \times 6.25$) was determined by the Kjeldahl method after acid digestion. Crude lipid in the diets and whole-body were determined by petroleum ether extraction (Soxthern), while total lipid content in the liver and muscle were performed using the dichloromethane/methanol (2:1, v/v) as the extraction liquid, according to Folch et al. (1957)

128 Hepatic glycogen and glucose content were performed in lyophilized liver. Glycogen content was determined following to the hydrolysis methods described by Good et al. (1933). Samples were ground in HCl (1 mol/L) and aliquot were made for two separate parts. For the free glucose measurement, one of the aliquot samples were detected using the Amplite Fluorimetric Glucose Quantitation Kit (AAT Bioquest, Inc., USA) after centrifuged at 10000 g for 10 min. For the glycogen measurement, the other part of the ground tissue was boiled at 100°C for 2.5 h, adjusted to neutralization by KOH (5 mol/L, VWR, USA), and determined using the same kits as above according to the manufacturer's instructions. Finally, glycogen content was evaluated by subtracting free glucose content. Between 24 and 36 weeks, protein and lipid retentions (PRE and LRE) were also estimated as follows (n=3):

137 PRE, LRE = $(BW_{final} \times X_{final} - BW_{init} \times X_{init})/NI_x$

138 with X_{init} and X_{final} the initial and final carcass content in protein/lipids (in g) and NI_x the protein/lipids intake (in g DM).

140 Plasma metabolites

141 Plasma glucose, triglycerides, free fatty acids (FFA) and cholesterol concentrations were analysed with 4 kits (Glucose RTU, PAP 150 bioMerieux, Marcy l'Etoile, France, Fujifilm Wako, Sobioda and CHOD-PAP, Sobioda), according to the recommendations of manufacturer (n=9).

144 DNA extraction and determination of fry sex

145 DNA was extracted from the caudal fin of fish sampled after 36 weeks of feeding, using Chelex-100 (Bio-Rad Laboratories, CA, USA), following manufacturer's instructions (n=9). To assess offspring sex, the master sex-determining gene, *sdY* genes, was amplified by PCR from the extracted, as described in Yano et al., (Yano et al., 2013). One μl of DNA were mixed with 1.25 μl of each primer (10mM, forward: CCCAGCACTGTTTCTGTCTCA; reverse: CTGTTGAAGAGCATCACAGGGTC), 1 μl dNTP mixture and 5 μl of 5xPCR Buffer (Promega) with 0.125 μl of Taq DNA Polymerase (Promega) in a total volume of 25 μL .

151 Thermal cycling consisted of denaturation for 20 sec at 94°C followed by 35 cycles of 94°C for 20 s, 59°C
152 for 20 s, and 72°C for 20 s, with a final extension of 5 min at 72°C. PCR products were electrophoresed
153 on a 2% agarose gel to reveal the presence or absence of sdY.

154 **RNA extraction**

155 Liver and white muscle samples after 36 weeks were homogenised in Trizol reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad,
156 CA, USA) using the Precellys 24 (Bertin Technologies, Montigny-le-Bretonneux, France). The total
157 RNA was then extracted according to the Trizol manufacturer's instructions (n=9). The concentration of
158 extracted RNA was analysed using a spectrophotometer (Nanodrop ND1000, LabTech) by measuring
159 absorbance at 260 nm and quality of RNAs was checked with Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies, Kista,
160 Sweden).

161 **Microarrays, cDNA labelling and hybridisation**

162 Transcriptome profiles of liver and muscles were analysed with microarray technology. Microarray
163 analyses were performed on an Agilent-based microarray platform rainbow trout specific with 8 X 60
164 K probes per slide. For each condition, 6 RNA samples were selected among the 9, thanks to their RIN
165 number. 150 ng of total RNA was first amplified by a reverse transcription, using a polyDT T7 primer
166 (denaturation step: 10 min at 65°C, reaction step: 2 hour at 40°C, inactivation step: 5 min at 70°C).
167 The obtained cRNA were then labelled with Cy3-dye (2hr at 40°C). Excess dye was removed using a
168 RNeasy kit (Qiagen). The level of dye incorporation was evaluated using a spectrophotometer (Nanodrop
169 ND1000, LabTech) (Yield \geq 0.825 μ g cRNA and specific activity \geq 6 pmol of Cy3 per μ g of cRNA). 600
170 ng of Cy3-cRNA was then fragmented with a specific buffer (30 minutes at 60°C). Cy3-cRNA were then
171 manually hybridised on a sub-array (17 h at 65°C in a microarray hybridisation oven (Agilent). Slides
172 were washed and scanned (Agilent DNA Microarray Scanner, Agilent Technologies, Massy, France)
173 using the standard parameters for a gene expression 8x60K oligoarray (3 μ m and 20 bits). Data were then
174 obtained with the Agilent Feature Extraction software (10.7.1.1) and are available in the GEO database
175 (ID: GSE169003).

176 **Statistical analyses**

177 All data were presented as means \pm standard deviation and the statistical analyses were performed using
178 the R Software (version 3.2.5) (Team et al., 2013). The significance threshold p-value was set at 0.05.
179 Zootechnical parameters (mean body weight, survival, SGR, FI, FE, LRE and PRE) obtained throughout
180 the trial were analysed using a Kruskal-Wallis test to assess the effect of the parental HC/LP diet. In
181 case of a significant effect of the parental HC/LP diet, a Bartlett post-hoc test was carried out in order to
182 decipher which condition was significantly different from the control NN fish.

183 Data obtained from the last sampling after 36 weeks of feeding were analysed thanks to linear mixed-
184 effects models, using the packages "lme4" from the R software. The maternal HC/LP diet, the paternal
185 HC/LP diet and the interaction between these two variables were investigated on all the parameters
186 measured. As a sexual dimorphism in programming have been described in mammals (Tarrade et al.,
187 2015), the effect of sex of the fish and the interaction between the sex and the parental HC/LP were thus
188 also investigated on all the parameters. The tank was treated as a random effect. The best model based
189 was then choose thanks to the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC). Diagnostics plots were created for
190 each model to evaluate the model assumptions. In case of a significant interaction, a Tukey post-hoc test
191 was carried out.

192 Data from the microarray analysis were transformed with a logarithmic transformation, scale normalised
193 and analysed using the package Limma (Ritchie et al., 2015). In order to find the differentially expressed
194 genes resulting from the maternal, paternal and both maternal and paternal HC/LP diet, transcriptomes of
195 HN, NH and HH liver and muscles were successively compared with the transcriptomes of the control
196 NN fish. For these three comparisons, Limma t tests were performed, with a correction for multiple
197 tests (P-value cut-off = 0.05 after a Benjamini-Hochberg correction), taking into account the sex of the fish.
198

199 RESULTS

200 Zootechnical parameters during the growth trial

201 During the trial, zootechnical parameters were monitored (**supplemental** file 1) and were affected
202 differently depending on the period (Table 1). During the 3 weeks after the first feeding, while HN
203 offspring have displayed a significantly lower growth and a lower final body weights, the NH and HH
204 offspring have displayed a significantly higher growth and higher final body weights. Between 18 and
205 21, a high mortality occurred in one NH tank due to a technical issue (see Material and methods). This
206 issue and the associated mortality triggered a diminution of feed intake in this same tank. Except from
207 this period with the technical issue (18-21 weeks), NH and HH offspring had a higher FI but a lower FE
208 during the growth trial. Their growth and final body weights were however never affected, except after 24
209 weeks when NH offspring have exhibited a higher mean body weights than the NN control one. Finally,
210 HN and HH offspring have exhibited a slightly higher survival rates than the NN control fish during the
211 one day peak mortality which occurred during the storm (see Material and methods).

212 Zootechnical parameters at the end of the growth trial

213 The individual body weight was not significantly different among the conditions (Figure 2 and supple-
214 mental file 2 for the detailed statistical results). NH and HH offspring were significantly shorter than
215 HN and HH ones regardless of their sex (-5.0%, P-value=0.02). For HN and HH offspring, the Fulton's
216 condition factor was significantly increased in comparison to NH and HH ones, regardless of their sex
217 (+6.5%, P-value=0.04).

219 Metabolic parameters at the end of the growth trial

220 After 9 months of feeding, plasmatic parameters were measured (Figure 3 and supplemental file 2 for
221 the detailed statistical results). Offspring plasma glucose concentrations was significantly decreased in
222 HN and HH offspring in comparison to NN and NH ones (-12.1%, P-value=0.04). Females offspring
223 had a significantly lower cholesterolemia than males ones (-13.3%, P-value=0.009) and HH and HN
224 offspring tended to have a higher cholesterolemia than the NH and NN ones regardless of their sex
225 (+17.5%, P-value=0.06). Females offspring had also a significantly lower FFA plasmatic level than
226 males ones (P-value=0.002) and the HN offspring had a 36.0% lower FFA plasmatic level than the
227 control NN fish, regardless of their sex (P-value=0.007). Finally, while no differences were detected in
228 plasma triglycerides concentrations of females offspring, males HH had a significantly higher plasmatic
229 triglycerides concentrations than NN ones (P-value=0.02).

230 Biochemical compositions of livers, viscus and muscles were analysed (Figure 4 and supplemental file 2
231 for the detailed statistical results). No differences on HSI were detected among conditions. NH and HH
232 offspring had a 8.6% higher protein content that the NN and HN ones (P-value=0.04). While, females HN
233 an HH had a lower hepatic lipid content than NN ones, males HH offspring had a higher lipid content
234 than NN ones (P-value=0.003). Also, NH and HH offspring had a 36.0% lower glycogen content than the
235 NN and HN fish (P-value=0.02). Finally, HN and HH offspring had a 19.6% lower glucose content that
236 NH and NN fish (P-value=0.02).

237 While no differences on VSI were detected among females offspring, males HH offspring had a lower VSI
238 than NN ones (P-value=0.06). No significant differences were detected in the viscus protein content among
239 offspring. Females NH and HH had a higher viscus lipid content than NN and HN ones (P-value=0.003).
240 No significant differences were detected in the muscle protein content among offspring. Muscle lipid
241 content did not differ among females offspring, but males NH offspring had a significant lower lipid
242 content than HN ones.

243 Muscle and hepatic transcriptomes at the end of the growth trial

244 In muscle, 3 probes were found differentially expressed between HN and NN and 29 between HH and NN,
245 irrespective of their sex (Table 2). Regardless of their sex, 18 probes were found differentially expressed
246 between HH and NN offspring in liver (Table 3). No probes were found differentially expressed between
247 NH and NN nor in liver, nor in muscle.

248 DISCUSSION

249 Plant-derived carbohydrates appear to be a possible solution to replace fishmeal proteins in broodstock
250 diets with higher trophic levels to progress toward a sustainable aquaculture (Callet et al., 2020). In
251 mammals, it is well documented that protein reduction in parental diet could have drastic effects on
252 their offspring (Guo et al., 2020). Before increasing the proportion of plant-derived carbohydrates in
253 broodstock diet in aquaculture, effects of HC/LP diets need to be assessed in their progeny and more
254 particularly when they reach a market fish size.

255 **The paternal history had only slightly affected their offspring tissue composition**

256 It is increasingly acknowledged that paternal diets, such as paternal HC/LP diets, could affect their
257 offspring phenotypes and health at long term (Rando, 2012; Watkins et al., 2020). In the present study,
258 due to a *Saprolegnia* infection which occurred during gametogenesis, the surviving males used for the
259 reproduction could have been selected (Callet et al., 2020). The effect of the paternal HC/LP diet is thus
260 combined with the effect of a potential selection. It is therefore impossible to decipher if the changes
261 observed are due to the selection of males or due to the HC/LP diet received during the first period of
262 gametogenesis, and we will refer such effects as paternal history effects.

263 The paternal history (HC/LP diet and selection) positively affect fish body weight at the beginning of the
264 trial. However, such positive effect seems to fade along time as fish growth were not affected anymore
265 beyond 3 weeks (Table 1) and fish length was slightly reduced at the end of the trial. Such outcome are
266 probably resulting from the balance between a higher feed intake and a lower feed efficiency, reflected
267 by a tendency to have a lower protein retention (Table 1). This result is divergent with results typically
268 obtained in mice, in which offspring body weights derived from sperm issued from father fed a HC/LP
269 diet is highly compromised (Watkins and Sinclair, 2014; Watkins et al., 2017, 2018).

270 Beside, the hepatic and viscera tissues composition were slightly affected by the paternal history. Such
271 phenotypes are similar of what have been observed in offspring derived from males fed HC/LP diets in
272 other species. For instance, it has been also shown that a HC/LP diet have modulated protein and glycogen
273 content in *drosophila melanogaster* (Matzkin et al., 2011, 2013). Moreover, adiposity was increased in
274 viscera of female offspring, in agreement with results obtained in mice where differences in growth are
275 usually associated with an increased body adiposity (Watkins et al., 2018). In mammalian models, such
276 effects on phenotypes could arise from a perturbation of hepatic metabolism, which gene expression are
277 symptomatic of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (Watkins et al., 2018).

278 In spite of these differences observed in tissues composition, no specific metabolic pathway seemed
279 to be affected by the paternal history as no genes were found differentially expressed in NH fish and
280 only 18 were found in HH, regardless of their sex. Moreover, those 18 genes were not directly linked to
281 intermediary metabolism. Because of a *saprolegnia* injury, the male broodstock were fed only during 5
282 months and were then re-fed with the control NC diet until reproduction (Callet et al., 2020). In addition
283 to the severity of the nutritional insults, the window when is applied the insult has an importance for the
284 imprinting of the nutritional programming. However, in fish, this critical window has not been clearly
285 defined and the dietary shift could explain the small changes observed in NH and HH fish phenotypes and
286 accordingly the unaffected transcriptomes.

287 **Offspring condition factor had been improved by the maternal HC/LP diet**

288 It is well recognized that maternal low protein diets could affect their offspring phenotypes, metabolism
289 and health at long term. More particularly, numerous studies have also showed that glucose homeostasis
290 could also be affected in offspring derived from parents fed a HC/LP diet (Langley et al., 1994; Desai
291 et al., 1995; Ozanne and Hales, 2002). Regarding this, in the present study, the maternal HC/LP diet have
292 slightly affected plasmatic glucose concentrations and the hepatic free glucose content in offspring. These
293 changes were however only subtle (-12.1% for the plasmatic concentrations and -19.6% the hepatic free
294 glucose content) and remained in the normal range of value found in salmonids (Congleton and Wagner,
295 2006). Moreover, no changes were detected at a molecular level as no genes were found differentially
296 expressed in the liver of HN offspring and only 18 were found in HH ones, regardless of their sex. The
297 only gene related to glucose metabolism differentially expressed between HH and NN fish was the gene
298 coding for the Glut6 transporter (*solute carrier family 2 member 6*), which was down-regulated in the
299 muscle of HH fish in comparison to the control NN fish. While maternal HC/LP diets are known to affect
300 Glut4 expression in skeletal muscle (Zheng et al., 2012), the role of Glut6, transporter belonging to the

301 class III glucose transporters, has not been investigated yet. Together, these results suggested that the
302 HC/LP diet did not alter their offspring metabolism.
303 Also, except from a reduction of their offspring body weights during the 3 first weeks of the trial, the
304 maternal HC/LP diet did not compromise their offspring phenotypes. This negative effect of nutritional
305 programming was then lost when fish grew in physiological condition and are not subjected to a particular
306 stress. Such fading events along time has also been previously described in sea bass (Zambonino-Infante
307 et al., 2019). At long term, such diet even improved their offspring Fulton's condition factor, which mirrors
308 fish health (Kroon et al., 2017). This augmentation could be of particular interest for the aquaculture
309 sector. Unlike males, females broodstock were fed during the whole year with the high carbohydrates/low
310 protein diet (Callet et al., 2020). Even though the reduction of protein content in the HC/LP diet have
311 reached 30%, the diet have still met the known nutritional requirement for rainbow trout broodstock
312 (Jobling, 2012). This may explain that result obtained in rainbow trout highly differed from other studies
313 in mammals in which the maternal protein restriction during pregnancies could highly prejudice offspring
314 health at long term, inducing obesity (Ozanne and Hales, 2002; Zohdi et al., 2015). Together, this result
315 suggested that trout female could be fed during the whole reproductive cycle with a diet containing high
316 content of plant-derived carbohydrates without impacting their offspring.

317 **Existence of a synergistic effect of the paternal and maternal HC/LP diet**

318 Interestingly, the HH offspring have exhibited extreme value in comparison to the control NN fish for
319 several of the recorded phenotypical traits. First, HH offspring had the highest K index, suggesting an
320 improved health. However, their metabolism seemed to have been affected as they have also displayed the
321 highest cholesterolemia and the highest plasmatic triglycerides levels (HH males only). HH offspring
322 had also the most altered hepatic biochemical composition (highest protein content combined with the
323 lowest glycogen and glucose content). HH males had also the highest lipid hepatic content in comparison
324 to NN ones. Finally, males HH offspring had the lowest VSI. Such phenotype differences were logically
325 associated with molecular data. Even if the number of genes differentially expressed between these two
326 conditions remained low, HH offspring have the most reshaped hepatic and muscle transcriptomes in
327 comparison to the control NN ones.

328 Although this was not the major purpose of our study, we have shown that males HH offspring appeared
329 to be more sensitive to programming than females ones, confirming results obtained in mammals (Tarrade
330 et al., 2015). As fish were raised together in tanks, without distinguishing sex, such effect have only
331 been tested at the final sampling point (36 weeks) and it is thus not possible to decipher if the offspring's
332 sex have affected other zootechnical parameters of interest for aquaculture, such as feed intake or feed
333 efficiency during their growth. These preliminary results however indicate that fish gender might modulate
334 the effect of programming *via* a parental HC/LP diet. Therefore, the design of studies on programming
335 in fish should take into account these interesting results so that the effect of sex could be studied more
336 precisely in the future.

337 Finally, the effects of the paternal and maternal HC/LP diet seem to have accumulated. Such synergistic
338 effect of parental nutrition have not been deeply investigated so far. Previous studies in mammals have
339 however demonstrated that the negative effects induced by maternal and paternal condition (obesity)
340 or nutrition (high sugar diet) could accumulate in their offspring (McPherson et al., 2015; Finger et al.,
341 2015; Ornellas et al., 2016, 2019). A better understanding of the mechanisms behind the imprinting of
342 programming events due to the maternal and the paternal is needed to better apprehend their possible
343 interactions. Beside, even though the effects recorded remained tenuous, interactions between the paternal
344 and the maternal nutrition should be taken into consideration before increasing the proportion of digestible
345 carbohydrates in broodstock diet.

346 **CONCLUSION**

347 Despite the important reduction of the protein content in the diet of broodstock during gametogenesis
348 (from 63.89% to 42.96%), no adverse effects of the parental history were recorded in offspring growth at
349 long term. These results are highly contrasting with results obtained in mammals where the diminution
350 of protein content in parental diet has strong negative effect on their offspring. Differences observed in
351 tissues composition were negligible and remained in the normal range of value, which is confirmed by the
352 molecular data. Of particular interest, the maternal HC/LP diet had even slightly increased fish condition
353 factor, suggesting an improvement of fish health. Further studies should be carried out to validate this

354 positive result. All together, this first study on the the long-term effect of a parental HC/LP diet in teleost
 355 fish confirms that HC/LP diets are suitable for such carnivorous species, supporting thus the feasibility to
 356 increase the proportion of plant-derived carbohydrates in broodstock diets to replace fishmeal proteins.

357 Figures and Tables

Table 1: Zootechnical parameters during the trial

Data are presented as mean \pm standard deviation and analyzed by a kruskal-wallis test. In case of significant effect of the parental history, results are presented in bold (P-values \leq 0.05) and a post-hoc Dunnett test was performed. Significant differences in comparison to the control NN group are represented with stars (P-values \leq 0.001 ****, P-values \leq 0.01 ***, P-values \leq 0.05 **).

Index	Parental history				Statistical analyses
	NN	NH	HN	HH	
0-3 weeks					
Initial BW (g)	0.08 \pm 0.00	0.08 \pm 0.00	0.08 \pm 0.00	0.08 \pm 0.00	<i>ns</i>
Final BW (g)	0.25\pm0.00	0.27\pm0.00***	0.24\pm0.00***	0.27\pm0.00***	0.02
Survival (%)	100.0 \pm 0.00	100.0 \pm 0.00	100.0 \pm 0.00	100.0 \pm 0.00	<i>ns</i>
SGR (%/day)	6.60\pm0.00	6.95\pm0.00***	6.40\pm0.00***	6.97\pm0.00***	0.01
Feed intake (g DM/g/d)	1.42 \pm 0.16	1.33 \pm 0.18	1.43 \pm 0.14	1.22 \pm 0.19	<i>ns</i>
Feed intake (g DM/g ^{0.8} /d)	4.76 \pm 0.51	4.61 \pm 0.62	4.81 \pm 0.46	4.22 \pm 0.61	<i>ns</i>
Feed efficiency	4.26 \pm 0.48	4.74 \pm 0.65	4.11 \pm 0.39	5.22 \pm 0.81	<i>ns</i>
3-18 weeks					
Final BW (g)	24.87 \pm 0.13	25.86 \pm 2.40	24.39 \pm 1.02	23.92 \pm 1.02	<i>ns</i>
Survival (%)	96.67 \pm 1.15	84.67 \pm 19.63	98.44 \pm 0.38	96.89 \pm 1.54	<i>ns</i>
SGR (%/day)	4.36 \pm 0.00	4.34 \pm 0.09	4.37 \pm 0.04	4.26 \pm 0.04	<i>ns</i>
Feed intake (g DM/g/d)	1.43\pm0.01	1.50\pm0.06	1.42\pm0.01	1.47\pm0.02	0.03
Feed intake (g DM/g ^{0.8} /d)	22.87 \pm 0.07	21.88 \pm 1.26	22.98 \pm 0.44	22.53 \pm 0.09	<i>ns</i>
Feed efficiency	1.31\pm0.01	1.27\pm0.02*	1.32\pm0.01	1.27\pm0.02*	0.03
18-21 weeks					
Final BW (g)	46.06 \pm 1.29	51.29 \pm 3.02	45.40 \pm 2.27	45.27 \pm 0.61	0.08
Survival (%)	100.00\pm0.00	68.91\pm1.13**	100.00\pm0.00	100.00\pm0.00	0.01
SGR (%/day)	3.23 \pm 0.10	3.39 \pm 0.13	3.23 \pm 0.07	3.17 \pm 0.02	<i>ns</i>
Feed intake (g DM/g/d)	2.96 \pm 0.07	2.91 \pm 0.10	2.91 \pm 0.10	3.09 \pm 0.05	<i>ns</i>
Feed intake (g DM/g^{0.8}/d)	15.80\pm0.42	14.55\pm0.58*	15.45\pm0.67	16.40\pm0.29	0.04
Feed efficiency	1.05 \pm 0.03	1.09 \pm 1.03	1.08 \pm 0.02	0.99 \pm 0.01	<i>ns</i>
21-24 weeks					
Final BW (g)	80.57\pm2.06	89.40\pm2.67**	83.44\pm2.47	82.95\pm1.62	0.05
Survival (%)	100.00 \pm 0.00	100.00 \pm 0.00	99.52 \pm 0.82	100.00 \pm 0.00	<i>ns</i>
SGR (%/day)	2.31 \pm 0.08	2.32 \pm 0.12	2.53 \pm 0.13	2.46 \pm 0.02	0.09
Feed intake (g DM/g/d)	2.53\pm0.24	2.69\pm0.02	2.64\pm0.03	2.76\pm0.03	0.05
Feed intake (g DM/g ^{0.8} /d)	14.02 \pm 0.37	15.09 \pm 0.23	14.73 \pm 0.26	15.40 \pm 0.16	0.07
Feed efficiency	0.89 \pm 0.07	0.84 \pm 0.04	0.93 \pm 0.04	0.86 \pm 0.01	<i>ns</i>
24-36 weeks					
Survival (%)	86.67\pm5.77	92.22\pm3.85	98.89\pm1.92**	97.78\pm1.92*	0.04
SGR (%/day)	1.51 \pm 0.03	1.39 \pm 0.08	1.47 \pm 0.01	1.45 \pm 0.08	<i>ns</i>
Feed intake (g DM/g/d)	1.42 \pm 0.11	1.53 \pm 0.04	1.36 \pm 0.06	1.50 \pm 0.03	0.07
Feed intake (g DM/g^{0.8}/d)	9.21\pm0.57	9.90\pm0.12	9.16\pm0.31	10.01\pm0.07**	0.03
Feed efficiency	0.98\pm0.09	0.82\pm0.04*	0.95\pm0.04	0.86\pm0.05	0.05
Protein retention (%)	28.24 \pm 7.98	24.02 \pm 3.24	29.73 \pm 5.39	26.40 \pm 2.43	0.06
Lipid retention (%)	64.78 \pm 7.98	62.40 \pm 3.24	73.98 \pm 5.39	69.42 \pm 2.43	<i>ns</i>

358

Table 2: Transcriptomic analyses in muscle

Probes differentially expressed between HN and NN; HH and NN in muscle, after limma t-tests (Adjusted P-Values \leq 0.05, Benjamini-Hotchberg)

Description	LogFC	Adjusted P-Value
HN vs NN		
E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase HECTD2	-0.87	1.74E-02
Probable E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase HERC5	-1.27	1.92E-02
microtubule-associated protein 6 homolog	-0.73	3.39E-02
HH vs NN		
Transposable element Tcb1 transposase putative mRNA	-1.37	3.35E-05
solute carrier family 2 member 6	-0.92	1.96E-02
<i>No description</i>	2.47	1.96E-02
60S ribosomal protein L22 putative mRNA	-1.13	2.03E-02
<i>No description</i>	1.06	2.03E-02
<i>No description</i>	-1.48	2.49E-02
dynammin-1-like protein	-0.84	2.49E-02
transcription factor PU.1-like	-0.82	2.49E-02
probable E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase HECTD2	-0.74	2.49E-02
ATP-sensitive inward rectifier potassium channel 11-like	-0.85	2.57E-02
MHC class I antigen (Onmy-U41p) pseudogene	-1.20	2.90E-02
<i>No description</i>	-0.99	2.90E-02
pyruvate dehydrogenase (lipoamide) beta	0.71	2.90E-02
<i>No description</i>	2.24	3.35E-02
Poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase 1	-0.67	3.40E-02
<i>No description</i>	0.60	3.40E-02
inward rectifier potassium channel 16-like	0.75	3.40E-02
ATP-sensitive inward rectifier potassium channel 10-like	-1.08	3.62E-02
myoferlin-like	0.55	3.74E-02
<i>No description</i>	-1.23	3.88E-02
Heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein A0	-1.03	3.88E-02
dehydrodolichyl diphosphate synthase	-0.92	3.88E-02
non-syndromic hearing impairment protein 5-like	-0.88	3.88E-02
Spi-1/PU.1 transcription factor	-0.72	3.88E-02
Transmembrane protein 136	-0.71	3.88E-02
exosome component 4	-0.68	3.88E-02
<i>No description</i>	-0.47	3.88E-02
<i>No description</i>	0.67	4.64E-02
unconventional myosin-X-like	1.53	5.00E-02

Table 3: Transcriptomic analyses in liver

Probes differentially expressed between HH and NN in liver, after a limma t-tests (Adjusted P-Values \leq 0.05, Benjamini-Hotchberg)

Descriptions	LogFC	Adjusted P-Value
HH vs NN		
proton-coupled folate transporter-like	1.36	3.55E-02
nebulin-like	1.12	3.55E-02
protein enabled homolog	0.90	3.55E-02
acidic fibroblast growth factor intracellular-binding protein B-like	0.88	3.55E-02
<i>No description</i>	1.89	4.14E-02
<i>No description</i>	1.82	4.14E-02
afadin-like	1.37	4.14E-02
protein FAM219B-like	1.18	4.14E-02
single-stranded DNA-binding protein 3	1.01	4.14E-02
kinesin-associated protein 3-like	0.83	4.14E-02
<i>No description</i>	-0.80	4.14E-02
major histocompatibility complex class I-related gene protein-like	-2.01	4.14E-02
cytochrome P450 2B4-like	-2.06	4.14E-02
neuromedin-U-like	0.86	4.18E-02
cationic amino acid transporter 4-like	1.70	4.71E-02
lysine-specific demethylase 5C-like	-0.63	4.73E-02

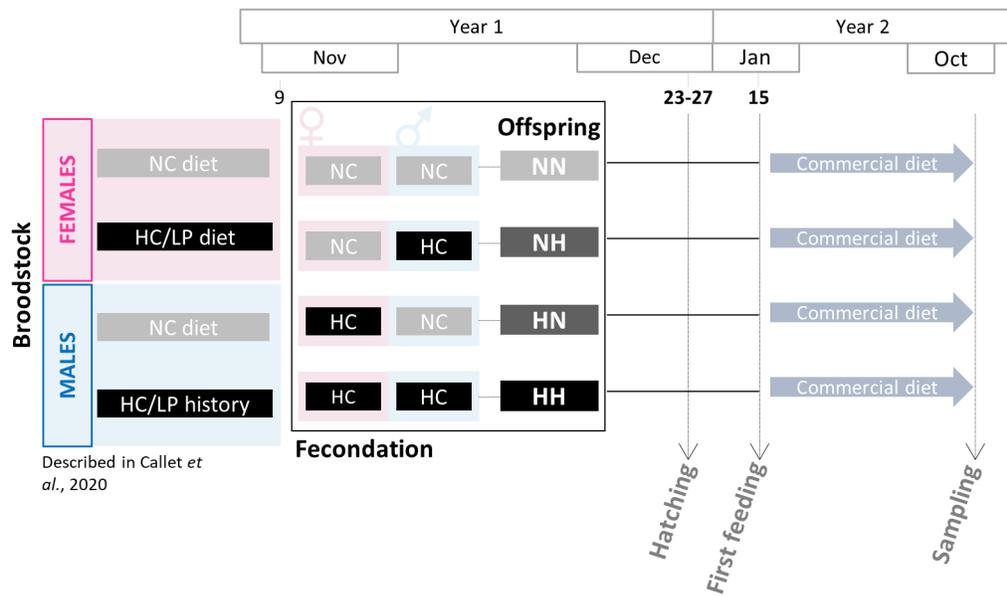


Figure 1. Experimental design. Broodstock females and males have been fed with either the NC diet (no-carbohydrates) or the HC/LP (high carbohydrates/low protein) diet. Cross-fertilizations were carried over to obtain four groups of offspring: NN, NH, HN and HH. Offspring were then fed during one year with a commercial diet to assess the effect of the parental HC/LP diet.

361 **Supplemental file 1: Zootechnical parameters monitored during the entire trial.** Raw data
362 monitored during the entire trial.

363 **Supplemental file 2: Statistical results.** Statistical results of the linear mixed-effects models, concerning
364 parameters recorded after 36 weeks of feeding.

365 **Supplemental file 3: ARRIVE Checklist.**

366 **Supplemental file 4: MIAME Checklist.**

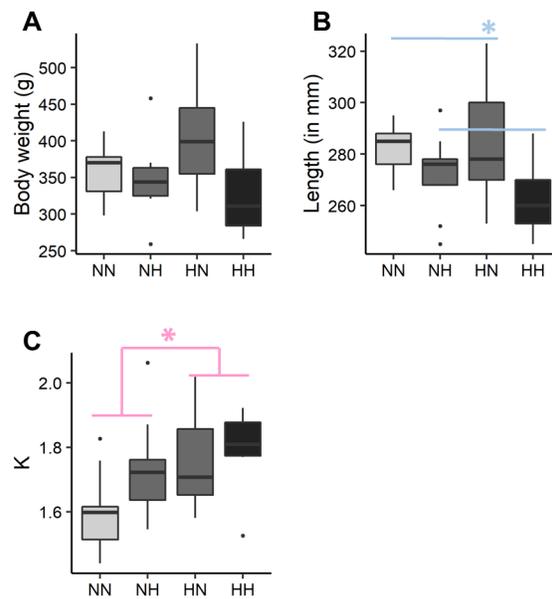


Figure 2. Zootechnical parameters. After 36 weeks of feeding, (A) individual body weights, (B) length and (C) the Fulton's condition factor (K index) of the sampled fish (n=9 per condition) have been analysed by a linear mixed-effects models. Significant differences due to the maternal HC/LP diet (red) and the paternal HC/LP (blue) are represented with stars (P-value ≤ 0.05 '**')

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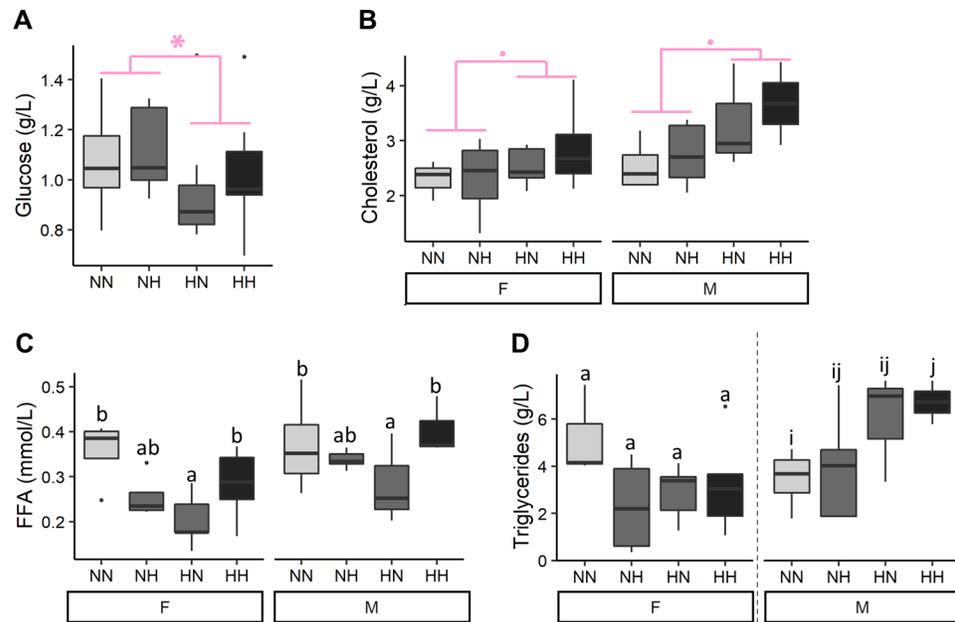


Figure 3. Plasma metabolites. (A) glucose, (B) cholesterol, (C) free fatty acids (FFA) and (D) triglycerides levels in plasma of the sampled fish (n=9 per condition) after 36 weeks of feeding. Except for plasma glucose concentrations, data are presented for offspring males (M) and females (F) as there was a significant effect of the offspring sex. Significant differences due to the maternal HC/LP diet are represented in red with stars (P-value ≤ 0.10 * and value ≤ 0.05 **). Different letters indicate significant differences between groups, which were investigated with a Tukey post-hoc test.

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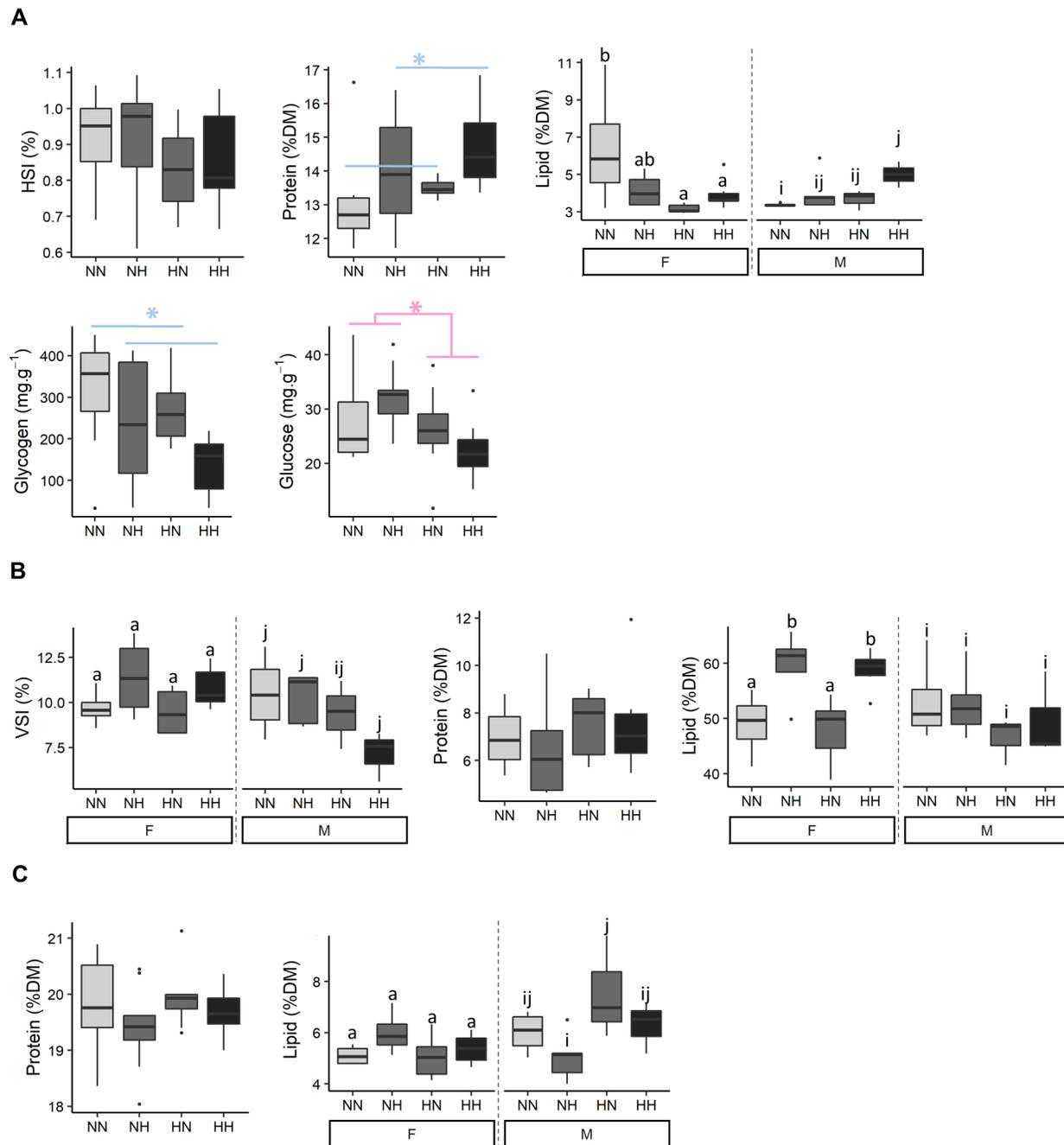


Figure 4. Tissue biochemical composition. The biochemical composition of (A) liver, (B) viscera and (C) muscle of the sampled fish ($n=9$ per condition) after 36 weeks of feeding. Data are presented for offspring males (M) and females (F) when there was a significant effect of the offspring sex. Significant differences due to the maternal HC/LP diet (red) and the paternal history (blue) are represented with stars ($P\text{-value} \leq 0.05$ *). Significant interactions were investigated with a Tukey post-hoc test (significant differences are indicated with different letters)