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64	Abstract	<p>The aim of this work was to evaluate the effects of the dietary inclusion of <i>Arthrospira</i> sp. enzyme hydrolysate on gilthead seabream (<i>Sparus aurata</i>) juveniles in a 128-day feeding trial. Algal hydrolysate was tested at low inclusion level, namely, 2 and 4%, against a control diet without <i>Arthrospira</i> sp. supplementation. At the end of the feeding trial, fish body weight was recorded for growth evaluation. No significant differences were found among the experimental groups regarding growth performance or nutrient utilization, despite the fact that those animals fed with diets enriched with <i>Arthrospira</i> displayed higher trypsin, chymotrypsin, and leucine aminopeptidase enzyme activities, compared to fish fed with control diet. The ultrastructural study of the intestinal mucosa also revealed increased microvilli length and absorptive capacity in fish fed with <i>Arthrospira</i> sp. diets, especially at 4% inclusion level. <i>Arthrospira</i> supplementation was also responsible for lower lipid oxidation in muscle tissue, as well as for remarkable colour differences in skin, compared to control animals.</p> <p>These results suggest, overall, that low dietary supplementation with this microalgal hydrolysate might improve not only the intestinal ultrastructure and functionality but also muscle pigmentation and antioxidant capacity of juvenile gilthead seabream.</p>
65	Keywords separated by ' - '	Growth performance - Intestine ultrastructure - Functional additive - Microalgae hydrolysate
66	Foot note information	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Sparus aurata</i> was fed with <i>Arthrospira</i> hydrolysate at low inclusion level (2 and 4%) for 128 days. • <i>Arthrospira</i> sp. enzyme hydrolysate enhanced intestinal functionality in juvenile gilthead seabream. • Algal enzyme hydrolysate in diets modified skin pigmentation and prevented muscle lipid oxidation.

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Evaluation of *Arthrospira* sp. enzyme hydrolysate as dietary additive in gilthead seabream (*Sparus aurata*) juveniles

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Abstract

The aim of this work was to evaluate the effects of the dietary inclusion of *Arthrospira* sp. enzyme hydrolysate on gilthead seabream (*Sparus aurata*) juveniles in a 128-day feeding trial. Algal hydrolysate was tested at low inclusion level, namely, 2 and 4%, against a control diet without *Arthrospira* sp. supplementation. At the end of the feeding trial, fish body weight was recorded for growth evaluation. No significant differences were found among the experimental groups regarding growth performance or nutrient utilization, despite the fact that those animals fed with diets enriched with *Arthrospira* displayed higher trypsin, chymotrypsin, and leucine aminopeptidase enzyme activities, compared to fish fed with control diet. The ultrastructural study of the intestinal mucosa also revealed increased microvilli length and absorptive capacity in fish fed with *Arthrospira* sp. diets, especially at 4% inclusion level. *Arthrospira* supplementation was also responsible for lower lipid oxidation in muscle tissue, as well as for remarkable colour differences in skin, compared to control animals.

These results suggest, overall, that low dietary supplementation with this microalgal hydrolysate might improve not only the intestinal ultrastructure and functionality but also muscle pigmentation and antioxidant capacity of juvenile gilthead seabream.

Keywords Growth performance · Intestine ultrastructure · Functional additive · Microalgae hydrolysate

Introduction

The interest in microalgae has increased strongly in the last years, given that they have valuable potential for reducing the dependence on unsustainable conventional raw ingredients in aquafeeds (Shah et al. 2018). The use of microalgae in aquaculture can be approached from two perspectives: on one

hand, taking into account their nutritive value as protein and lipid sources, and on the other, considering that microalgae also have plenty of substances with potential bioactive effects. Abundant literature on the first consideration is available, but it is likely that the main constraint for extensive utilization of microalgae consists of the fact that any satisfactory alternative feed ingredient must be able to supply comparable nutritional value at competitive cost. To date, this is far from being achieved, given that any large-scale practical utilization of microalgae relies on a significant reduction in production costs. With regard to the second aspect mentioned above, growing interest is currently being paid to the fact that microalgae can accumulate useful metabolites, normally at relatively low concentration, with potentially bioactive effects. Thereby, the interest in microalgae as potential nutraceutical additive in aquafeeds is increasing considerably (Chakraborty and Hancz 2011; Cardinaletti et al. 2018; Shah et al. 2018).

Numerous studies have reported that microalgae can be used as dietary ingredient or additive in aquafeeds without exerting negative impacts on fish growth and nutrient utilization (De Cruz et al. 2018; Perez-Velazquez et al. 2018) and even yielding valuable effects on lipid metabolism (Robin and

Highlights

- *Sparus aurata* was fed with *Arthrospira* hydrolysate at low inclusion level (2 and 4%) for 128 days.
- *Arthrospira* sp. enzyme hydrolysate enhanced intestinal functionality in juvenile gilthead seabream.
- Algal enzyme hydrolysate in diets modified skin pigmentation and prevented muscle lipid oxidation.

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55 Vincent 2003), fish gut functionality (Vizcaíno et al. 2016,
56 2018), and oxidative status and lipid utilization in different
57 fish species (Kiron 2012; Teimouri et al. 2013; Roy and Pal
58 2015; Amer 2016). In addition, positive effects have been
59 reported in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) related to
60 pigmentation attributes (Teimouri et al. 2013) and lipid perox-
61 idation (Teimouri et al. 2016).

62 The genus *Arthrospira* (filamentous *Cyanobacteria*) is
63 known for its high protein content, up to 70% on dry matter
64 basis (Santigosa et al. 2011; Macias-Sancho et al. 2014;
65 Ansarifard et al. 2018), with amino acid profiles comparable
66 to those found in some reference feed proteins (Becker 2007).
67 *Arthrospira* is also rich in polyunsaturated fatty acids
68 (PUFAs), mainly gamma-linolenic acid (18:3n6) (Ronda
69 et al. 2012), as well as in vitamins (A and B₁₂), minerals,
70 and pigments with acknowledged antioxidant activity, such
71 as carotenoids (Pugh et al. 2001; El-Sheekh et al. 2014;
72 Adel et al. 2016; Velasquez et al. 2016), phycobilins, and
73 phycocyanins (Mahmoud et al. 2018; Takyar et al. 2019).
74 Thus, the dietary inclusion of *Arthrospira* has been evaluated
75 in different fish species (Hussein et al. 2013; Kim et al. 2013;
76 Teimouri et al. 2013; Velasquez et al. 2016; De Cruz et al.
77 2018; Perez-Velazquez et al. 2018), these studies reporting,
78 overall, a lack of negative effects on growth performance or
79 nutrient utilization but even favourable impacts on fish phys-
80 iology. However, the potential effects of *Arthrospira* sp. on
81 fish growth and objective quality parameters of Mediterranean
82 fish species remain virtually unknown.

83 However, microalgae also display certain disadvantages
84 from a nutritional point of view, such as the structure and
85 composition of their cell wall, which is a protective barrier
86 that reduces the bioavailability of the intracellular nutrients
87 (Wu et al. 2017). The efficiency of marine animals to digest
88 the cell walls depends on the carbohydrate composition, on
89 how they are linked to each other, and on the existence of
90 suitable digestive enzymes. Overall, herbivorous and omniv-
91 orous species possess a wide range of carbohydrases, but car-
92 nivoros fish do not, and this fact should be taken into con-
93 sideration when it comes to formulating aquafeeds. Con-
94 sequently, it may be reasonable to think that any strategy
95 aimed at improving the bioavailability of the inner com-
96 pounds, not only of *Arthrospira* sp. but of any other species,
97 might enable to include microalgae at low inclusion level in
98 aquafeeds. Several procedures have been evaluated with the
99 aim of releasing inner components of microalgae (Tibbetts
100 et al. 2017; Agboola et al. 2019; Teuling et al. 2019), but when
101 it comes to large-scale cell lysis, enzymatic hydrolysis is one
102 of the most promising strategies, not least owing to its eco-
103 nomic viability. By following this procedure, even low inclu-
104 sion level of enzyme-hydrolysed microalgae in aquafeeds
105 might well improve the physiological aspects in fish in a man-
106 ner similar to including higher amounts of raw microalgae
107 (Tchorbanov and Bozhkova 1988). To our knowledge, despite

the potential of this procedure to increase nutrient bioavail- 108
ability and functional properties, the use of microalgae enzy- 109
matic hydrolysates in aquafeeds remains unexplored. Thus, 110
the production of microalgal hydrolysates is a promising strat- 111
egy that deserves further research efforts. 112

113 Protein hydrolysates are believed to be more effective than
114 intact protein or free amino acids from a nutritional point of
115 view. The enzymatic hydrolysis of proteins results in the for-
116 mation of a mixture of free amino acids, di-, tri-, and oligo-
117 peptides, and enhances the occurrence of polar groups and the
118 solubility of hydrolysate compounds. The dietary use of pro-
119 tein hydrolysates of different origins in some species of
120 farmed fish has proved several positive bioactive effects, such
121 as antioxidant, antimicrobial, or anti-inflammatory, and bene-
122 ficial effects on the functionality of the intestinal mucosa
123 (Leduc et al. 2018; Zamora-Sillero et al. 2018). In the case
124 of algae protein, enzymatic hydrolysis could release low mo-
125 lecular weight bioactive peptides and free amino acids, which
126 might enable not only increased bioavailability but also lead to
127 potential positive physiological effects (Morris et al. 2007;
128 Chalamaiah et al. 2012; Montone et al. 2018; Wang et al.
129 2018).

130 In this piece of research, we hypothesise that *Arthrospira*
131 sp. enzyme hydrolysate might improve some parameters re-
132 lated to growth performance, muscle lipid oxidation, skin pig-
133 mentation, and digestive functionality of juvenile gilthead
134 seabream when added a low dietary inclusion level. The over-
135 all objective of this study is focused specifically on the assess-
136 ment of the potential effects of low level of microalgae protein
137 hydrolysate as functional additive in practical diets for juve-
138 nile fish of this Mediterranean species.

139 Materials and methods

140 *Arthrospira* sp. hydrolysate

141 *Arthrospira* sp. hydrolysate was produced starting from a
142 sludge containing up to 150 g L⁻¹ of microalgae biomass after
143 performing an enzymatic hydrolysis with a mixture of com-
144 mercial proteases under controlled conditions (pH 8.0 and
145 50 °C under continuous stirring) for 4 h providing 0.2%
146 w/w proteases (Alcalase 2.4 L and Flavourzyme 1000 L from
147 Novozymes A/S, Denmark), following a modification of the
148 method described by Saadaoui et al. (2019). Alcalase 2.4 L is
149 a microbial protease of *Bacillus licheniformis* with endopep-
150 tidase activity. A main component of the commercial prepara-
151 tion is the serine protease subtilisin A. The specific activity of
152 Alcalase 2.4 L is 2.4 Anson Unit (AU) per gramme. One AU
153 is the amount of enzyme, which, under standard conditions,
154 digests haemoglobin at an initial rate that produces an amount
155 of trichloroacetic acid-soluble product which gives the same
156 colour with the Folin reagent as one mequivalent of tyrosine 156Q1

157 released per minute. Flavourzyme 1000 L is a protease complex
158 of *Aspergillus oryzae* that contains both endo- and
159 exoprotease activities. It has an activity of 1.0 leucine amino-
160 peptidase (LAPU) unit g⁻¹. One LAPU is the amount of enzyme
161 that hydrolyses 1 μmol of leucine-p-nitroanilide per
162 minute. Immediately after the hydrolysis, the reaction mixture
163 was heated at 80 °C for 15 min in order to inactivate the
164 proteolytic enzymes. Total free amino acids were quantified
165 spectrophotometrically at 340 nm using L-leucine as standard
166 (Church et al. 1983). In brief, triplicate samples of 50 μL were
167 withdrawn from microalgal protein hydrolysate, and 50 μL of
168 20% trichloroacetic acid (TCA) were added with the purpose
169 of stopping the enzyme reaction. Afterwards, protein precipitates
170 were discarded by centrifugation (12,000 rpm, 15 min at
171 4 °C), and the supernatants were stored at -20 °C until further
172 analysis. Finally, SDS-PAGE (Laemmli 1970) for crude
173 *Arthrospira* sp. meal and its protein hydrolysate was performed
174 in order to identify the protein fractions and their molecular
175 weight.

176 Experimental diets

177 Three isonitrogenous (450 g crude protein kg⁻¹) and isolipidic
178 (170 g crude lipid kg⁻¹) experimental feeds were formulated,
179 control without microalgae (CT), plus AH-2 and AH-4, containing
180 2% and 4% (DM basis) *Arthrospira* sp. hydrolysate, respectively.
181 The formulation and chemical composition of the experimental
182 diets are shown in Table 1. Before adding fish oil and diluted
183 choline chloride, feed ingredients were finely ground and mixed
184 in a vertical helix mixer (Sammic 13 M-11, 5-L capacity, Sammic
185 SA, Spain) for 20 min. Then the algae hydrolysate was added,
186 and water content was adjusted to provide 400 mL per kg
187 of ingredient mixture to obtain a homogenous dough. The dough
188 was passed through a single screw laboratory extruder (Miltentz
189 51SP, JS Conwell Ltd., New Zealand) in order to obtain 2- and 3-
190 mm pellets. The feeds were dried in a 12-m³ drying chamber
191 with forced-air circulation (Airfrio, Spain) at 30 °C for 24 h and
192 stored at -20 °C until use. An attractant premix was added
193 (50 g kg⁻¹) to improve feed palatability (according to Barroso
194 et al. 2013). The experimental diets were produced by
195 LifeBioencapsulation SL (Spin-off, Universidad de Almería,
196 Spain).

197 Feeding trial and sampling

198 Feeding trial was carried out at the *Servicios Centrales de*
199 *Investigación en Cultivos Marinos* (SCI-CM, CASEM,
200 Universidad de Cádiz, Puerto Real, Spain). All experimental
201 procedures complied with the Guidelines of the European
202 Union (Directive 2010/63/UE) regarding the use of laboratory
203 animals. The competent Ethical Committee approved the experimental
204 procedures involving the use of fish (Junta de Andalucía, reference
205 number 06/02/2020/011). A total of

Table 1 Ingredient composition and proximate composition (g kg⁻¹ on dry matter basis) of the experimental diets t1.1

	CT	AH-2	AH-4	t1.2
<i>Ingredients</i>				t1.3
Fishmeal ¹	374.2	358.4	340.6	t1.4
<i>Arthrospira</i> sp. hydrolysate (g dry matter) ²		20	40	t1.5
Attractant premix ³	50	50	50	t1.6
Wheat gluten ⁴	95	95	95	t1.7
Soybean meal ⁵	165	165	165	t1.8
Fish oil	72.8	73.9	74.9	t1.9
Soybean oil	28	28	28	t1.10
Wheat flour ⁶	170	164.7	161.5	t1.11
Betaine	5	5	5	t1.12
Vitamins and minerals premix ⁷	20	20	20	t1.13
Binder (guar gum) ⁸	20	20	20	t1.14
<i>Proximate composition</i>				t1.15
Crude protein	449.9	450.3	449.5	t1.16
Crude lipid	169.7	170.1	170.3	t1.17
Ash	70.8	69.2	67.2	t1.18
Crude fibre	34.7	34.6	34.5	t1.19
<i>NfE</i> ⁹	274.8	275.9	278.5	t1.20

CT control diet, AH-2 2% *Arthrospira* hydrolysate-supplemented diet, AH-4 4% *Arthrospira* hydrolysate-supplemented diet

¹ Protein, 69.4%; lipid, 12.3%; Norsildemel (Bergen, Norway)

² Liquid product containing 150 g microalgae meal L⁻¹

³ 50% squid meal, 25% shrimp meal, 25% krill meal

⁴ Protein, 76.0%; lipid, 1.9%

⁵ Protein, 50.0%; lipid, 1.0%

⁶ Protein, 12.0%; lipid, 2.0%

⁷ Vitamin and mineral premix: vitamins (IU or mg kg⁻¹ premix): vitamin A (retinyl acetate), 2000,000 IU; vitamin D3 (DL-cholecalciferol), 200,000 IU; vitamin E, 10,000 mg; vitamin K₃ (menadione sodium bisulphite), 2500 mg; vitamin B1 (thiamine hydrochloride), 3000 mg; vitamin B₂ (riboflavin), 3000 mg; calcium pantothenate, 10,000 mg; nicotinic acid, 20,000 mg; vitamin B6 (pyridoxine hydrochloride), 2000 mg; vitamin B9 (folic acid), 1500 mg; vitamin B12 (cyanocobalamin), 10 mg; vitamin H (biotin), 300 mg; inositol, 50,000 mg; betaine, 50,000 mg; vitamin C (ascorbic acid), 50,000 mg. Minerals (mg kg⁻¹ premix): Co (cobalt carbonate), 65 mg; Cu (cupric sulphate), 900 mg; Fe (iron sulphate), 600 mg; I (potassium iodide), 50 mg; Mn (manganese oxide), 960 mg; Se (sodium selenite), 1 mg; Zn (zinc sulphate) 750 mg; Ca (calcium carbonate), 186,000 mg; KCl, 24,100 mg; NaCl 40,000 mg; excipient sepiolite, colloidal silica (LifeBioencapsulation premix)

⁸ EPSA (Sevilla, Spain)

⁹ *NfE* nitrogen-free extract calculated as 100 - (% crude protein + % ether extract + % ash + % crude fibre)

180 gilthead seabream juveniles (20 g average body weight) 206
were selected and randomly distributed in 9 tanks (triplicate 207
tanks per dietary treatment) of 75-L capacity (400 g average 208
biomass per tank). Fish were fed with a commercial diet 209
(Skretting España, 45% crude protein, 19% crude lipid) 210

211 during a 15-day acclimation period. Afterwards, experimental
 212 diets were offered twice per day (9:00 and 17:00) at 2% of the
 213 biomass, until triplication of the initial body weight. The 128-
 214 day feeding trial was carried out in a flow-through filtered
 215 (1 μm) seawater system sterilized by UV, under constant tem-
 216 perature (19.0 ± 1.1 °C), salinity (35 ± 1 ‰), and natural pho-
 217 toperiod (light:dark, LD; from 11:13 h in February to 13:11 h
 218 in May). The water in all the tanks was oxygen-saturated (>
 219 90% O₂ saturation) with air stones. Water ammonia (<
 220 0.1 mg L⁻¹), nitrite (<0.2 mg L⁻¹), and nitrate (<
 221 50 mg L⁻¹) were determined with commercial kits (SERA
 222 GmbH, Heinsberg, Germany).

223 Fish were individually weighed every 2 weeks after a 24-h
 224 fasting period in order to determine growth and feed utiliza-
 225 tion parameters. At the end of the feeding trial, 16 fish per tank
 226 were killed by anaesthetic overdose (200 mg L⁻¹ clove oil)
 227 followed by spine severing. Sampled fish were dissected, and
 228 the digestive tract and dorsal muscle were removed. Dorsal
 229 muscle samples were carefully washed, dried, and packaged
 230 in transparent sterile polyethylene bags and stored in a cold
 231 room (4 ± 1 °C). Muscle samples were withdrawn from each
 232 dietary treatment at day 1 and 8 of cold storage. Colour pa-
 233 rameters were determined on the right side of the anterior
 234 dorsal skin of fish, and then a portion of muscle tissue (5 g)
 235 was used for lipid oxidation determination (TBARS). The rest
 236 of individual muscle samples were freeze-dried and stored at
 237 -20 °C for further analysis of muscle proximate composition.
 238 For digestive enzyme activity determinations, intestines from
 239 nine fish per tank were randomly pooled to obtain three enzy-
 240 matic extracts from each experimental tank. Intestine samples
 241 were homogenized in distilled water at 4 °C (0.5 g mL⁻¹).
 242 Supernatants were obtained after centrifugation (11,200 \times g,
 243 12 min, 4 °C) and stored in aliquots at -20 °C until further
 244 use. Total soluble protein was determined using bovine serum
 245 albumin as standard (according to Bradford 1976). Finally, the
 246 intestines of three specimens from each tank were collected
 247 for examination by transmission (TEM) and scanning (SEM)
 248 electron microscopy.

249 **Growth performance, nutrient utilization,** 250 **and somatic indices**

251 Growth performance was assessed by different parame-
 252 ters according to the following formulae: daily gain (DG,
 253 g day⁻¹) = (Wf - Wi) / days; specific growth rate (SGR,
 254 %) = (Ln Wf - Ln Wi) / days \times 100; condition factor
 255 (K) = (Wf / SL³) \times 100, where Wf was the final weight
 256 (g), Wi was the initial weight (g), and SL was the stan-
 257 dard length.

258 Nutrient utilization indices were estimated as follows: feed
 259 conversion ratio (FCR) = total feed intake on dry basis (g) /
 260 weight gain (g) and protein efficiency ratio (PER) = WG / total
 261 protein ingested (g), where WG was the weight gain (g).

Proximate analysis

262 Proximate analysis of feeds and muscle samples were carried
 263 according to AOAC (2000) for dry matter and ash, whereas
 264 crude protein (N \times 6.25) was determined by using elemental
 265 analysis (C:H:N) (Fisons EA 1108 analyzer, Fisons
 266 Instruments, USA). Total lipid content was analysed follow-
 267 ing the procedure described by Folch (1957).
 268

Skin colour determinations

269 Instrumental colour was measured in triplicate on the right
 270 side of the dorsal fish skin by L*, a*, and b* system (CIE
 271 1978), using a Minolta chroma meter CR-400 (Minolta,
 272 Japan). The lightness (L*, on a 0–100 point scale from black
 273 to white), redness (a*, estimates the position between red,
 274 positive values, and green, negative values), and yellowness
 275 (b*, estimates the position between yellow, positive values,
 276 and blue, negative values) were recorded.
 277

Muscle lipid oxidation

278 Lipid oxidation in muscle samples was estimated by thiobar-
 279 bituric acid-reactive substances (TBARS) at 1 and 8 dpm
 280 (days post-mortem). TBARS were measured in muscle sam-
 281 ples according to the method of Buege and Aust (1978).
 282 Samples (1 g) were homogenized in 4 mL 50 mM
 283 NaH₂PO₄, 0.1% (v/v) Triton X-100 solution. The mixture
 284 was centrifuged (10,000 \times g, 20 min, 4 °C). Supernatants were
 285 mixed in a 1:5 ratio (v/v) with 2-tiobarbituric acid (TBA)
 286 reagent (0.375% w/v TBA, 15% w/v TCA, 0.01% w/v 2,6-
 287 di-tert-butyl-4-methylphenol (BHT) and 0.25 N HCl). The
 288 mixture was heated for 15 min and centrifuged (3600 \times g,
 289 10 min, 4 °C), and the absorbance of supernatants was mea-
 290 sured at 535 nm. The amount of TBARS was expressed as mg
 291 of malondialdehyde (MDA) per kg of muscle after comparing
 292 with a MDA standard.
 293

Digestive enzyme activities

294 Total alkaline protease activity in the digestive extracts was
 295 spectrophotometrically determined using 5 g L⁻¹ casein in
 296 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 9.0) as substrate, according to Alarcón
 297 et al. (1998). One unit of total protease activity was defined as
 298 the amount of enzyme that released 1 μg of tyrosine per min-
 299 ute in the reaction mixture, considering an extinction coeffi-
 300 cient for tyrosine of 0.008 μg^{-1} mL⁻¹ cm⁻¹, measured at
 301 280 nm. Trypsin and chymotrypsin activities were determined
 302 by using 0.5 mM BAPNA (N-a-benzoyl-DL-arginine-4-p-
 303 nitroanilide) as substrate, according to Erlanger et al. (1961),
 304 and 0.2 mM SAPNA (N-succinyl-(Ala)2-Pro-Phe-p-
 305 nitroanilide) according to DelMar et al. (1979); both substrates
 306 dissolved in 50 mM Tris-HCl and 10 mM CaCl₂ buffer
 307

(pH 8.5). Leucine aminopeptidase activity was quantified according to Pfleiderer (1970), using 2 mM L-leucine-p-nitroanilide (LpNa) in 100 mM Tris-HCl buffer, pH 8.8, as substrate. For trypsin, chymotrypsin, and leucine aminopeptidase activities, one unit of enzyme activity (U) was defined as the amount of enzyme that releases 1 μmol of p-nitroanilide (pNA) per minute, measured spectrophotometrically at 405 nm, considering an extinction coefficient of 8800 M cm^{-1} . Alkaline phosphatase activity was determined by using p-nitrophenyl phosphate in 1 M diethanolamine, 1 mM MgCl_2 buffer, pH 9.5, as substrate, following the method described in Bergmeyer (1974). For alkaline phosphatase, one unit of enzyme activity was defined as the amount of enzyme that releases 1 μg of nitrophenyl per min, considering a molar extinction coefficient of 17,800 M cm^{-1} for p-nitrophenol measured at 405 nm.

324 Ultrastructural study of intestinal mucosa

325 Intestine samples were collected for electron microscopy evaluation. Samples for scanning electron microscopy (SEM) 326 were previously washed with 1% S-carboxymethyl-L-cysteine (Sigma Chem.) for 20 s, with the aim of removing 327 the epithelial mucus. Afterwards, the samples were fixed in 328 phosphate-buffered formaldehyde (4% v/v, pH 7.2) for 24 h, 329 after which samples were washed and dehydrated in graded 330 ethanol. Then samples were critical point dried with absolute 331 ethanol as intermediate fluid and CO_2 as transition fluid (CDP 332 030 Critical point dryer, Leica Microsystems, Spain). After 333 drying, specimens were mounted on supports and fixed with 334 graphite (PELCO Colloidal Graphite, Ted Pella INC., USA) 335 and then gold sputter coated (SCD 005 Sputter Coater, Leica 336 Microsystems). Finally, all samples were screened with a 337 scanning electron microscopy (HITACHI model S-3500, 338 Hitachi High-Technologies Corporation, Japan). Samples for 339 transmission electron microscopy (TEM) were fixed (4 h, 340 4 °C) in 25 g L^{-1} glutaraldehyde and 40 g L^{-1} formaldehyde 341 in phosphate buffer saline (PBS), pH 7.5. Next, intestine 342 sections were washed with PBS for 20 min, and then, a post- 343 fixation step with 20 g L^{-1} osmium tetroxide was carried 344 out. Then, samples were dehydrated by consecutive immersion 345 (20 min each) in ethanol solution of gradients ranging 346 from 50 to 100% (v/v). Next, samples were embedded for 2 h, 347 in 1:1 mixture of Epon resin and 100% (v/v) ethanol under 348 continuous shaking, and then they were included in pure Epon 349 resin and polymerized at 60 °C. Finally, the ultrathin sections 350 were placed on a 700 Å copper mesh and stained with uranyl 351 acetate and lead citrate. The mesh observation was performed 352 with a Zeiss 10C TEM at 100 Kv (Carl Zeiss, Spain). 353 Visualization fields were recorded at $\times 16,000$ magnification. 354 SEM and TEM visualization fields were recorded, and digital 355 images were analysed using UTHSCSA ImageTool software 356 (University of Texas Health Science Center, San Antonio, TX, 357 358

USA). Microvilli length (ML) and microvilli diameter (MD) 359 and the number of microvilli within 1- μm distance (Vizcaíno 360 et al. 2014) were determined in TEM micrographs. SEM im- 361 ages were used to obtain several measurements of enterocyte 362 apical area (EA). Finally, data obtained from TEM and SEM 363 images were used to estimate the total absorption surface per 364 enterocyte (TAS) according to Vizcaíno et al. (2014). 365

Statistical analysis 366

All assays were repeated at least three times with three replicates. Data were expressed as mean \pm SE. Comparison of means was carried out by one-way ANOVA with a 5% level of probability ($p < 0.05$) followed by a multiple comparison test. Data in percentage (%) were arcsine ($\times 1/2$)-transformed, checked for normality (Shapiro-Wilk test) and homoscedasticity (Levene test). When the data did not meet the ANOVA assumptions, a Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance on ranks was used. When the Kruskal-Wallis test showed significance, and Dunn's method of multiple comparisons was used to compare individual medians. All statistical analyses were performed with Statgraphics Plus 4.0 (USA) software. 367 368 369 370 371 372 373 374 375 376 377 378 379

Results 380

Characterization of the protein hydrolysate of *Arthrospira* sp. 381 382

Figure 1 shows the proteinograms of raw *Arthrospira* sp. meal and its protein hydrolysate. Raw meal showed a complex protein profile made up of several fractions with a wide range from 13 to 86 kDa. However, microalgal protein hydrolysate shows only two protein fractions (57 and 39 kDa) in the range of molecular weight visualized in the proteinogram. In addition, quantification of total free amino acids revealed that *Arthrospira* sp. hydrolysate contained higher level of free amino acids (84.06 ± 3.23 mg leucine equivalents $(100 \text{ mg})^{-1}$ protein) than those found in the raw microalgae biomass (31.5 ± 3.09 mg leucine equivalents $(100 \text{ mg})^{-1}$ protein). 383 384 385 386 387 388 389 390 391 392 393

Growth performance and nutrient utilization 394

Growth of gilthead seabream juveniles fed experimental diets for 128 days is shown in Fig. 2. 395 396

All dietary groups showed similar final body weight, DG, and SGR, without significant differences ($p > 0.05$), although mean values were slightly lower in AH-2 and AH-4 groups. Similarly, no significant differences were observed in FCR and PER mean values (Table 2). 397 398 399 400 401

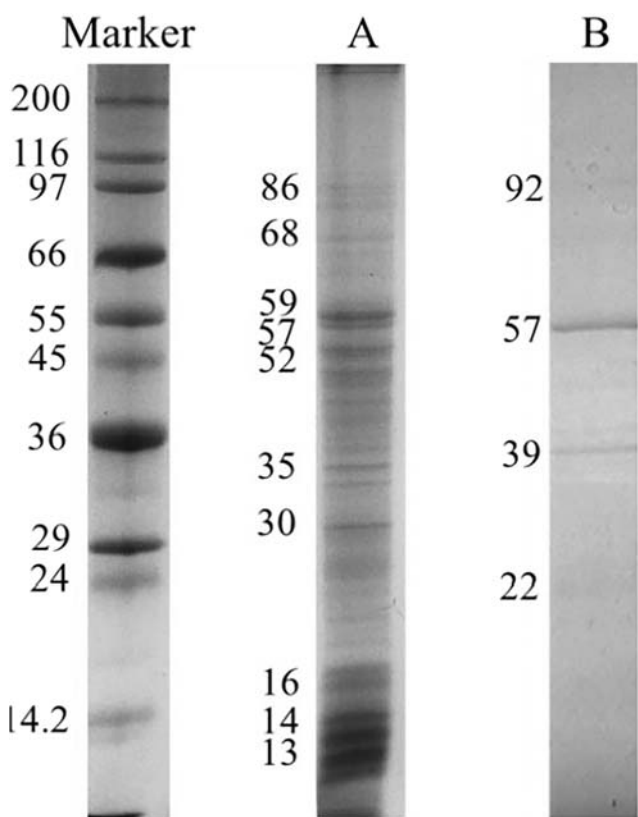


Fig. 1 SDS-PAGE of the raw *Arthrospira* sp. biomass (a) and its protein hydrolysate (b). Figures at the left of each proteinogram indicate the molecular mass (kDa) of the main protein fractions separated. Marker: 5 μL of wide range molecular weight marker (S-84445, Sigma, St. Louis, USA) ranging from 6.5 (aprotinin, bovine lung) to 200 kDa (myosin, porcine heart)

Muscle proximate composition

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Muscle chemical composition is shown in Table 3. Protein content increased significantly in fish fed with diets supplemented with *Arthrospira* hydrolysate, especially in AH-2 group, whereas a significant decrease in the lipid content was observed in fish fed with AH-2 and AH-4 diets. Moisture and ash content were similar among dietary treatments.

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Instrumental skin colour determinations

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Initial L* values were significantly higher in AH-2-fed fish, compared to CT and AH-4 groups (Table 4). After 8 days of cold storage, values remained stable in AH-2 and AH-4, whereas in CT significantly decreased ($p < 0.001$). CT presented a* negative values indicating a skin greenish coloration. However, values for AH-2 and AH-4 were positive which evidenced a slightly red coloration, though they decreased significantly at 8 dpm ($p = 0.040$ and < 0.001). Skin b* values in CT were positive and sharply decreased during storage under refrigeration. Nevertheless, values of AH-2 and AH-4 significantly increased, indicating a yellowish colour of the skin.

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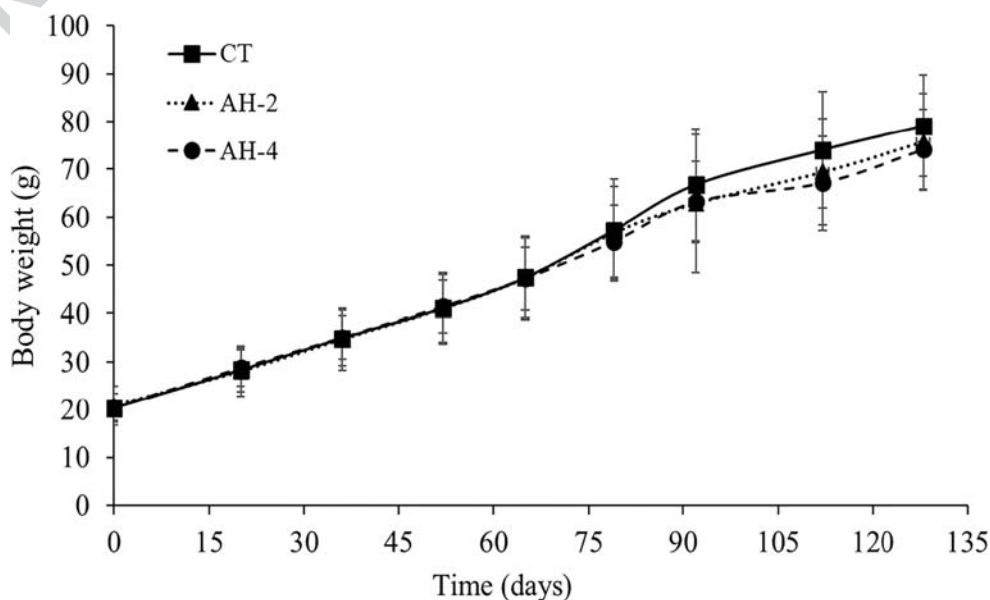
Muscle lipid oxidation (TBARS)

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Muscle TBARS content in CT group showed significantly higher values (Table 4). Muscle lipid oxidation increased during cold storage ($p = 0.015$ and $p = 0.019$), although TBARS values were significantly lower at any sampling time in specimens fed with *Arthrospira* hydrolysate compared to CT fish ($p = 0.019$ and $p = 0.015$).

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Fig. 2 Time course of changes in body weight of fish fed with the experimental diets. CT control, AH-2 2% *Arthrospira* hydrolysate, AH-4 4% *Arthrospira* hydrolysate



t2.1 **Table 2** Growth performance and
t2.2 nutrient utilization parameters of
t2.3 gilthead seabream juveniles fed
t2.4 with the experimental diets during
t2.5 the 128-d feeding trial

	CT	AH-2	AH-4	<i>p</i>	
<i>Growth and nutrient utilization</i>					
t2.6	Initial body weight (g)	20.32 ± 0.48	20.80 ± 0.52	20.51 ± 0.36	0.7701
t2.7	Final body weight (g)	79.09 ± 1.75	75.80 ± 1.38	74.06 ± 1.15	0.0529
t2.8	Fulton's condition factor	1.80 ± 0.03	1.81 ± 0.05	1.77 ± 0.04	0.9404
t2.9	Daily gain (DG, g day ⁻¹)	0.46 ± 0.06	0.43 ± 0.01	0.42 ± 0.02	0.5803
t3.0	Specific Growth Rate (SGR)	1.05 ± 0.13	0.99 ± 0.04	0.98 ± 0.05	0.8948
t3.1	Feed Conversion Ratio (FCR)	0.47 ± 0.03	0.41 ± 0.04	0.42 ± 0.05	0.5789
t3.2	Protein efficiency ratio (PER)	2.15 ± 0.15	2.49 ± 0.24	2.45 ± 0.33	0.6054

CT control, AH-2 2% *Arthrospira* hydrolysate, AH-4 4% *Arthrospira* hydrolysate. Values are mean ± SE of triplicate tanks

430 Digestive enzyme activities

431 Trypsin, chymotrypsin, and leucine aminopeptidase activities
432 significantly increased in fish fed with *Arthrospira* hydrolysate-
433 supplemented diets ($p = 0.001$, $p = 0.001$, and $p < 0.001$, respec-
434 tively) compared to control fish (Table 5). Fish fed with AH-4
435 showed the highest enzyme activity levels. Total alkaline protease
436 and alkaline phosphatase activities did not differ among ex-
437 perimental groups ($p = 0.160$ and $p = 0.844$).

438 Ultrastructural study of the intestinal mucosa

439 TEM and SEM observations evidenced that all specimens
440 presented intestinal mucosa without any evidence of abnormality
441 (Fig. 3). Nevertheless, the morphometric analysis of the
442 intestinal microvilli carried out on both TEM and SEM images
443 evidenced a significant increase in microvilli length (ML) and
444 microvilli diameter (MD) in fish fed with AH-4 diet. Enterocyte
445 apical area values were similar in all dietary treatments ($p = 0.211$),
446 but total enterocyte absorption surface (TAS) was significantly
447 higher in fish fed with AH-4 diet compared to CT group ($p < 0.001$)
448 (Table 6).

449 Discussion

450 The use of *Arthrospira* hydrolysates in aquafeeds arise as a
451 novel strategy aimed at increasing the nutritional and

functional properties of the original raw biomass, by turning
the proteins into low molecular weight peptides and free amino
acids with higher bioavailability (Chalamaiah et al. 2012).
The existence of low molecular mass molecules and free amino
acids as a result of the enzymatic hydrolysis has been
proposed as an interesting dietary supplement for
aquacultured fish (Xu et al. 2016). Indeed, the potential ben-
eficial effects derived from the use of protein hydrolysates in
aquafeeds have been proven previously (Bui et al. 2014;
Khosravi et al. 2015). However, to our knowledge, studies
focused specifically on the assessment of microalgae hydro-
lysates for this purpose are not available and even less with
regard to *Arthrospira* sp.

The dietary inclusion of *Arthrospira* sp. raw biomass in
aquafeeds has been evaluated previously in different fish spe-
cies with favourable results. Thus, Adel et al. (2016) and Yu
et al. (2018) revealed that the incorporation of 10%
Arthrospira in feeds yielded positive effects on growth perfor-
mance in great sturgeon and coral trout (*Plectropomus*
leopardus), respectively. Similarly, Kim et al. (2013) reported
positive effects on fish performance with 5% *Arthrospira* in-
clusion level in feeds for parrot fish (*Oplegnathus fasciatus*).
However, results obtained in our work revealed that the die-
tary inclusion of *Arthrospira* protein hydrolysate up to 4% did
not increase fish performance after a 128-day feeding trial.

Although some studies have reported the effect of
Arthrospira in muscle composition of fish, disparate results
have been reported. Hence, Velasquez et al. (2016) observed

t3.1 **Table 3** Muscle proximate
t3.2 composition (g kg⁻¹ of dry
weight) and moisture (%) of
t3.3 gilthead seabream at the end of
t3.4 the feeding trial

	CT	AH-2	AH-4	<i>p</i>	
t3.5	Total protein	745.31 ± 3.83 a	789.38 ± 0.51 c	772.19 ± 0.77 b	0.035
t3.6	Total lipid	166.65 ± 2.36 c	141.72 ± 1.02 a	157.61 ± 0.57 b	<0.001
	Ash	54.06 ± 3.32	55.23 ± 1.87	54.82 ± 2.13	0.114
	Moisture (%)	74.51 ± 0.63	75.67 ± 1.02	74.89 ± 0.71	0.7302

CT control, AH-2 2% *Arthrospira* hydrolysate, AH-4 4% *Arthrospira* hydrolysate. Values are mean ± SE of triplicate determination ($n = 3$). Values in the same row with different lowercase letter indicate significant difference ($p < 0.05$)

Table 4 Changes in skin colour and muscle TBARS content during cold storage in gilthead seabream fed the experimental diets for 128 days

t4.2		CT			AH-2			AH-4			<i>p</i>	
t4.3	L*	1	76.4	± 1.8	aB	83.3	± 1.9	b	74.8	± 1.3	a	0.009
t4.4		8	59.6	± 2.6	aA	77.6	± 2.4	b	76.5	± 1.4	b	<0.001
t4.5		<i>p</i>	< 0.001			0.828			0.072			
t4.6	a*	1	-1.3	± 0.4	a	2.3	± 0.2	bB	3.5	± 0.3	cB	<0.001
t4.7		8	-1.3	± 0.2		1.9	± 0.2	A	1.6	± 0.3	A	0.353
t4.8		<i>p</i>	0.409			0.040			<0.001			
t4.9	b*	1	5.6	± 0.6	B	5.7	± 0.8	A	4.3	± 1.0	A	0.169
t4.10		8	2.0	± 0.4	aA	6.7	± 0.6	bB	6.3	± 0.7	bB	<0.001
t4.11		<i>p</i>	0.002			0.027			0.030			
t4.12	TBARS	1	0.40	± 0.01	bA	0.34	± 0.01	aA	0.34	± 0.02	aA	0.019
t4.13		8	0.50	± 0.01	bB	0.44	± 0.01	aB	0.42	± 0.01	aB	0.005
t4.14		<i>p</i>	0.012			0.015			0.019			

CT control, AH-2 2% *Arthrospira* hydrolysate, AH-4 4% *Arthrospira* hydrolysate. Values are mean ± SE (*n* = 9). Superscript lowercase letters indicate differences (*p* < 0.05) attributable to diets; superscripts capital letters indicate differences attributable to storage time

480 no changes in protein, lipid, moisture, or ash contents; on the
 481 contrary, our results (Table 3) revealed modifications in mus-
 482 cle protein and lipid contents in fish fed with the diets
 483 containing the microalgal protein hydrolysate. Similarly,
 484 Roohani et al. (2019) reported that *Arthrospira* (*Spirulina*)
 485 *platensis* increased protein and decreased fat content in
 486 *Salmo trutta* juveniles. These authors pointed out that the
 487 presence of several nutrients (not least vitamins, minerals,
 488 essential amino acids, and fatty acids) in microalgae might
 489 activate fish metabolism. Chen et al. (2019) found that
 490 *Arthrospira* contains substances able to modulate lipid metab-
 491 olism in rodents, although the chemical nature of those com-
 492 pounds remains to be ascertained. According to Kim et al.
 493 (2013), *Arthrospira* might well have certain impact on lipid
 494 turnover, mainly through the use of dietary lipids as energy
 495 source, this leading to reduced muscle lipid storage. The same
 496 effect has been reported previously for other microalgae spe-
 497 cies (Hussein et al. 2013; El-Sheekh et al. 2014; Vizcaíno et al.
 498 2014, 2016). The dietary inclusion of *Arthrospira* sp. also
 499 yields muscle fish with high protein content, an effect that
 500 might be highly desirable for final aquaculture products. In

agreement, Xu et al. (2018) reported increased muscle protein
 content as a result of feeding juvenile *Cyprinus carpio* with
 enzymatic hydrolysates of insect meal. Two hypotheses might
 explain such increase; on one hand, a raise in the bioavailabil-
 ity and absorption rate of small peptides and free amino acids
 that enables enhanced body protein synthesis and on the other
 hand, the increased activity of the digestive enzymes that
 might promote a more efficient hydrolysis/absorption of nu-
 trients directly involved in the synthesis of tissue protein.
 Further studies are required in order to verify these
 hypotheses.

It is a well-known phenomenon that the skin of many spe-
 cies of commercial fish lacks colour and brightness in captivity,
 a feature directly linked to the consumer's acceptance of fish,
 which, accordingly, influences their market value. In this re-
 gard, different studies have described positive effects of the
 addition of *Arthrospira* at low inclusion level on the pigmen-
 tation attributes in different fish species (Kumprom et al. 2011;
 Teimouri et al. 2013; Abdulrahman and Ameen 2014; Roohani
 et al. 2019). Our results indicate that juveniles fed with
Arthrospira-supplemented diets showed a skin lighter, reddish,

Table 5 Digestive enzyme activities (U g⁻¹ tissue) measured in intestine of gilthead seabream juveniles fed experimental diets for 128 days

t5.2		CT			AH-2			AH-4			<i>p</i>
t5.3	Total alkaline protease	118.4	± 11.26		95.6	± 2.77		124.3	± 14.72		0.160
t5.4	Trypsin	27.8	± 1.38	a	32.7	± 0.72	b	37.9	± 1.02	c	0.001
t5.5	Chymotrypsin	25.4	± 1.14	a	32.8	± 1.39	b	44.9	± 3.94	c	0.001
t5.6	L-aminopeptidase	0.22	± 0.02	a	0.40	± 0.01	b	0.38	± 0.01	c	< 0.001
t5.7	Alkaline phosphatase	57.2	± 3.77		54.5	± 3.18		54.9	± 3.03		0.844

CT control, AH-2 2% *Arthrospira* hydrolysate, AH-4 4% *Arthrospira* hydrolysate. Values are mean ± SE of triplicate determinations per tank (*n* = 9). Values in the same row with different lowercase letter indicate significant difference (*p* < 0.05)

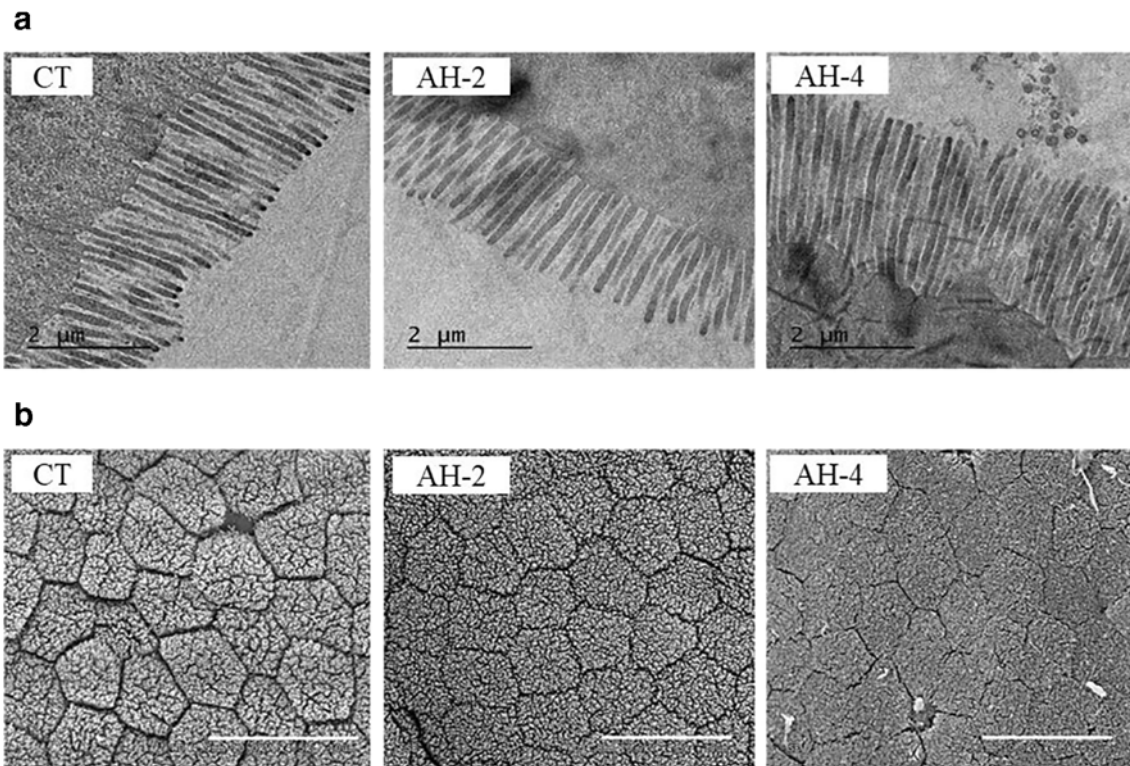


Fig. 3 TEM (a) and SEM (b) micrographs from the anterior intestine of juvenile gilthead seabream fed with experimental diets (TEM bar, 2 µm; SEM bar, 10 µm). CT control, AH-2 2% *Arthrospira* hydrolysate, AH-4 4% *Arthrospira* hydrolysate

522 and yellowish, and these differences remained stable over
 523 8 days of cold storage. Similar results indicating intensified
 524 redness and yellowness in fish skin were found in golden carp
 525 (*Carassius auratus*; Kumprom et al. 2011), common carp
 526 (*Cyprinus carpio*; Abdulrahman and Ameen 2014), and rain-
 527 bow trout (Teimouri et al. 2013), fed with *Arthrospira* at a low
 528 dietary inclusion level. This improvement in colorimetric pa-
 529 rameters could be associated to the fact that most microalgae
 530 species are natural sources of pigments (Begum et al. 2016),
 531 which might play decisive role on the quality of the final
 532 product (Ginés et al. 2004). In this regard, changes in colour
 533 parameters observed could likely be attributed to the carotenoid
 534 content of *Arthrospira* (Lu et al. 2003; Teimouri et al. 2013),
 535 and thus, xanthophylls (mainly lutein and zeaxanthin) could
 536 explain the increased yellowness measured in the skin of fillets
 537 (Table 4).

Muscle lipid oxidation increased during the storage of fish 538
 fillets, as evidenced by the significant increase of TBARS. 539
 However, values for this parameter in muscle were significant- 540
 ly lower in the specimens fed with AH-2 and AH-4 diets 541
 (Table 4). The antioxidant capacity of *Arthrospira* sp. is 542
 well-known, owing to the high content in different bioactive 543
 substances playing a key role in the inhibition of lipid perox- 544
 idation (Deng and Chow 2010; Kim et al. 2013). Beyond their 545
 influence on colour parameters, xanthophylls have a potent 546
 antioxidant capacity against reactive oxygen species (ROS) 547
 (Hallerud 2014) that could explain the reduced lipid perox- 548
 idation of muscle lipids found in those animals fed with AH 549
 diets. Moreover, it has also been described that *Arthrospira* sp. 550
 contains considerable amount of the enzyme superoxide dis- 551
 mutase that might decrease the rate of formation of free radi- 552
 cals, this resulting in lower muscle lipid oxidation at inclusion 553

t6.1 **Table 6** Microvilli morphometric parameters of the anterior intestine of juvenile gilthead seabream fed with the experimental diets for 128 days

t6.2		CT		AH-2		AH-4		<i>p</i>			
t6.3	ML (µm)	1.83	± 0.05	a	1.70	± 0.05	a	2.62	± 0.05	b	< 0.001
t6.4	MD (µm)	0.13	± 0.00	a	0.13	± 0.00	a	0.14	± 0.00	b	0.012
t6.5	EA (µm ²)	23.36	± 0.82		21.75	± 0.51		21.18	± 1.01		0.211
t6.6	TAS (µm ²)	767.90	± 20.28	a	751.45	± 20.85	a	1347.44	± 20.95	b	< 0.001

CT control, AH-2 2% *Arthrospira* hydrolysate, AH-4 4% *Arthrospira* hydrolysate. Values are mean ± SE (*n* = 50). ML microvilli length, MD microvilli diameter, EA enterocyte apical area, TAS total enterocyte absorption surface. Values in the same row with different lowercase letter indicate significant difference (*p* < 0.05)

554 levels from 10 to 2.5% (Teimouri et al. 2016). Similar results
555 were reported in clownfish (*Oplegnathus fasciatus*) (Kim
556 et al. 2013) and in tilapia (Amer 2016), attributed to the inclu-
557 sion of *Arthrospira pacifica* and *Arthrospira* sp. as dietary
558 additives.

559 The activity of digestive enzymes is not only a reli-
560 able indicator of the nutritional status of fish (Cahu and
561 Infante 2001; Cara et al. 2007) but also a valuable tool
562 for estimating the digestive and absorptive capacity of
563 animals after a dietary treatment (Alarcón et al. 1998;
564 Messina et al. 2019). The existence of changes in the
565 digestive-absorptive processes influenced by the dietary
566 inclusion of microalgae has been previously assessed in
567 aquacultured fish such as seabream (Vizcaíno et al. 2014,
568 2016), seabass (Messina et al. 2019), Senegalese sole
569 (Vizcaíno et al. 2018), common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*)
570 (Ansarifard et al. 2018), or great sturgeon (Adel et al.
571 2016). The present study confirmed that dietary inclusion
572 of *Arthrospira* hydrolysates increased the activity of
573 some digestive enzyme activities, despite the low inclu-
574 sion levels tested. Thus, trypsin and chymotrypsin activi-
575 ties increased significantly in fish fed with *Arthrospira*-
576 supplemented diets, a fact that might have contributed to
577 increasing the availability of substrates for muscle pro-
578 tein accretion. Vizcaíno et al. (2016) reported similar
579 results in *Sparus aurata* fed with microalgae-
580 supplemented diets, which might be related to the exist-
581 ence of compensatory mechanisms in fish against diet-
582 ary changes. In line with the above, it has been reported
583 that digestive protease and amylase activities increased
584 adding 3% dietary supplementation with plant protein
585 hydrolysate in juvenile blunt snout bream *Megalobrama*
586 *amblycephala* (Yuan et al. 2019). Regarding brush border
587 enzymes, a significant increase in the activity of leucine
588 aminopeptidase was observed in fish fed with the diets
589 containing the microalgal hydrolysate (Table 5). Leucine
590 aminopeptidase and alkaline phosphatase play a crucial
591 role in the final stages of the digestive process, facilitat-
592 ing the absorption and transport of nutrients through the
593 enterocytes (Infante and Cahu 2001). In fact, both en-
594 zymes are used as indicators of the intestinal integrity
595 (Wahnon et al. 1992) or as general markers of nutrient
596 absorption (Silva et al. 2010). Previous studies proposed
597 that the higher the activity levels of these enzymes, the
598 better the efficiency of the digestive processes and the
599 intestinal absorptive capacity (Infante and Cahu 2001).
600 However, Messina et al. (2019) reported that alkaline
601 phosphatase activity was not affected when fishmeal
602 was replaced by microalgae, indicating no major func-
603 tional changes in the gut integrity of European seabass
604 (*Dicentrarchus labrax*).

605 In addition to the activity of the digestive enzymes, the
606 intestinal mucosa plays a key role in the digestive and

607 absorptive processes (Sweetman et al. 2008), as well as acting
608 as a protective barrier against pathogenic microorganisms
609 (Wilson and Castro 2011). The study of the intestinal mucosa
610 also enables to know the influence of dietary treatments on its
611 structure and morphology. Several studies revealed that the
612 dietary inclusion of plant protein ingredients, algae, or
613 probiotics can lead to morphological changes in the structure
614 of the digestive mucosa, which are linked to important conse-
615 quences on the digestive physiology and the absorption ca-
616 pacity of the intestinal mucosa. This has been described in
617 different fish species, such as gilthead seabream (Cerezuela
618 et al. 2012; Vizcaíno et al. 2016), rainbow trout (Araújo et al.
619 2016), goldfish (*Carassius auratus*) (Omnes et al. 2015), or
620 Senegalese sole (Vizcaíno et al. 2018). Until now, knowledge
621 regarding the effects of protein hydrolysates on the intestinal
622 structure is scarce. In the present study, the ultrastructural
623 analysis revealed a significant effect of *Arthrospira* hydroly-
624 sate on the morphology of the intestinal mucosa, especially in
625 those fish fed with 4% inclusion level. In agreement, it has
626 been described that the dietary inclusion of microalgal hydro-
627 lysates can reduce mucosal barrier damage, as well as prevents
628 colonic inflammation in mice (Wang et al. 2018). These au-
629 thors evidenced that the oral administration of microalgae hy-
630 drolysates reversed the progression of dextran sulphate
631 sodium-induced colitis and also prevented acute inflammation
632 in that murine model. In agreement, the inclusion of 5% diet-
633 ary shrimp hydrolysate resulted in larger intestinal villi and
634 also modulated the transcriptomic response of the intestinal
635 mucosa in European seabass (Leduc et al. 2018). Yuan et al.
636 (2019) reported that 3% cottonseed meal protein hydrolysate
637 increased the length of the intestinal microvilli in juvenile
638 blunt snout bream (*Megalobrama amblycephala*). In our
639 study, changes observed on microvilli length and microvilli
640 diameter can be interpreted as an overall increase in enterocyte
641 absorption surface and, consequently, an enhanced intestinal
642 absorption capacity. This increased absorption area might
643 have been responsible for higher amino acid uptake in the
644 anterior intestine, this yielding higher protein accretion in
645 muscle, especially in fish fed with 4% microalgae hydrolysate.

646 In conclusion, our results show that juvenile gilthead
647 seabream fed with *Arthrospira* hydrolysate increased the ac-
648 tivity of key digestive enzymes, improved the intestinal mu-
649 cosa structure, and reduced the oxidation of muscle lipids.
650 Thus, this supplement (especially when used at 4% inclusion
651 level) could be useful for maintaining the overall condition
652 status in juveniles of this fish species. The incorporation of
653 microalgal hydrolysate as dietary additive seems promising
654 for feeding *S. aurata* juveniles, not least due to the stimulating
655 effect observed on the intestinal mucosa and as a natural al-
656 ternative for the improvement of the skin colour in cultured
657 fish. However, future studies should be focused on the intrin-
658 sic mechanism of their effects, as well as on the feasibility of
659 its commercial use in aquafeeds at large scale. 659

- 660 **Authors' contributions** A. Galafat and A.J. Vizcaíno performed the fish
661 sampling. I. Jérez-Cepa and J.M. Mancera participated in sampling and
662 fish maintenance. A. Galafat, A.J. Vizcaíno, and M.I. Sáez performed
663 analytical analysis. F.J. Alarcón prepared the aquafeeds. A. Galafat, F.J.
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- Q2. Reference [Teimouri et al, 2019] was provided in the reference list; however, this was not mentioned or cited in the manuscript. As a rule, all references given in the list of references should be cited in the main body. Please provide its citation in the body text.

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