



PPAR γ regulates *fabp4* expression to increase DHA content in golden pompano (*Trachinotus ovatus*) hepatocytes

Caixia Lei^{1,2†}, Bin Fan^{1,3†}, Jingjing Tian², Mengmeng Li^{1,4} and Yuanyou Li^{1*}

¹College of Marine Science, South China Agricultural University & Guangdong Laboratory for Lingnan Modern Agriculture, Guangzhou 510642, People's Republic of China

²Pearl River Fisheries Research Institute, Chinese Academy of Fishery Sciences, Guangzhou 510380, People's Republic of China

³Yangjiang Polytechnic & Yangjiang Haina Aquatic Co., Ltd, Yangjiang 529500, People's Republic of China

⁴College of Agronomy, Liaocheng University, Liaocheng 252000, People's Republic of China

(Submitted 14 October 2020 – Final revision received 11 January 2021 – Accepted 26 February 2021 – First published online 5 March 2021)

Abstract

N-3 long-chain (\geq C20) PUFA (LC-PUFA) are vital fatty acids for fish and humans. As a main source of *n*-3 LC-PUFA for human consumers, the *n*-3 LC-PUFA content of farmed fish is important. Previously, we identified fatty acid-binding protein (*fabp*)-4 as a candidate gene for regulating the *n*-3 LC-PUFA content. Herein, we further assessed the role of *fabp4* in this process. First, a 2059 bp promoter sequence of *fabp4* in *Trachinotus ovatus* was cloned and, using progressive deletion, determined –2006 bp to –1521 bp to be the core promoter sequence. The PPAR γ binding sites were predicted to occur in this region. A luciferase reporter assay showed that the promoter activity of *fabp4* decreased following mutation of the PPAR γ binding site and that PPAR γ increased the *fabp4* promoter activity in a dose-dependent manner, implying that *T. ovatus fabp4* is a target of PPAR γ . The overexpression of *fabp4* or PPAR γ increased the DHA content in hepatocytes, whereas suppression of their expression diminished this effect, suggesting that both *fabp4* and PPAR γ play an active role in regulating DHA content. Moreover, the inhibition of *fabp4* attenuated the increase in PPAR γ -mediated DHA content, and the overexpression of *fabp4* alleviated this effect. Collectively, our findings indicated that *fabp4*, which is controlled by PPAR γ , plays an important role in DHA content regulation. The new regulation axis can be considered a promising novel target for increasing the *n*-3 LC-PUFA content in *T. ovatus*.

Keywords: fatty acid-binding protein 4: *n*-3 long-chain PUFA: Uptake and deposition: *Trachinotus ovatus*

N-3 long-chain (\geq C20) PUFA (LC-PUFA) are fatty acids that contain more than two double bonds, with the first located three carbons from the methyl end group⁽¹⁾. The most common LC-PUFA are EPA (20 : 5*n*-3, EPA) and DHA (22 : 6*n*-3, DHA). The *n*-3 LC-PUFA reportedly play numerous positive roles in a range of human pathologies, including obesity, CVD and cancer, and have beneficial effects on nervous system development⁽²⁾. Dietary intake of *n*-3 LC-PUFA is necessary for humans to satisfy certain physiological demands due to a limited ability to convert α -linolenic acid to *n*-3 LC-PUFA⁽³⁾. Fish, especially marine fish, serve as a main source of *n*-3 LC-PUFA for humans⁽⁴⁾. The *n*-3 LC-PUFA are also essential fatty acids for fish (particularly marine fish)⁽⁵⁾, and presently, fishmeal and fish oil are almost indispensable as components of farmed marine fish feeds to compensate for the deficiency in *n*-3 LC-PUFA synthesis by the fish themselves⁽⁶⁾. The reliance on finite marine resources derived from capture fisheries is unsustainable; therefore, the development

of methods to improve the *n*-3 LC-PUFA content in farmed fish is urgently required for both aquaculture and human consumers.

An effective way to increase the *n*-3 LC-PUFA content in fish is to enhance the uptake and deposition of dietary *n*-3 LC-PUFA. In fish, the processes of uptake and deposition of dietary fatty acids resemble those in mammals, that is mainly including the emulsification of fat and catabolism of emulsified fat⁽⁷⁾. Among them, fatty acid-binding proteins (FABP), which are involved in the intracellular transport of fatty acids, have been reported to be directly related to the fatty acids content. In human (*Homo sapiens*) Caco-2 cells, the knockdown of the *fabp1* gene resulted in a decrease in the uptake and accumulation of oleic acid⁽⁸⁾. Analogously, the gene expression of *fabp5* affects the DHA and EPA levels in rat (*Rattus norvegicus*) PC12 cells and *H. sapiens* hCMEC/D3^(9–11). *In vivo*, experimental mice (*Mus musculus*) showed decreased linoleic acid uptake and accumulation after the *fabp3* gene was knockout compared with the

Abbreviations: fabp, fatty acid-binding protein; LC-PUFA, long-chain PUFA.

* **Corresponding author:** Yuanyou Li, email yyli16@scau.edu.cn

† These authors contributed equally to this work.

wild-type *M. musculus*⁽¹²⁾. In fish, the gene expression of *fabps* has been shown to be associated with dietary fatty acids. For example, the *fabp3* mRNA level in the myosepta of Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) fed vegetable oil was significantly lower compared with those fed fish oil⁽¹³⁾. In addition, the hepatic *fabp1* gene expression was considerably increased in Japanese seabass (*Lateolabrax japonicus*) fed arachidonic acid⁽¹⁴⁾. These studies suggest the potential feasibility of improving the *n*-3 LC-PUFA content of farmed fish by regulating the gene expression of *fabps*.

Arguably, the uptake and deposition of *n*-3 LC-PUFA in the muscle, that is the edible portion, are the focus in aquaculture nutritional studies, with the potential to improve the quality of meat. The liver, another important tissue in organisms, is widely involved in fatty acid synthesis⁽¹⁵⁾ and is, therefore, rarely associated with fatty acid deposition. Indeed, studies on grass carp (*Ctenopharyngodon idella*)⁽¹⁶⁾ and gibel carp (*Carassius auratus gibelio*)⁽¹⁷⁾ have suggested that the liver has certain abilities to deposit fatty acid (mainly *n*-3 LC-PUFA) without having negative effects on growth performance and antioxidant markers. Besides, being the 'transit hub' of substance metabolism⁽¹⁾, the fatty acid levels of the liver and the whole body are inseparable. Therefore, liver *n*-3 LC-PUFA uptake and deposition are, arguably, very noteworthy, despite the paucity of studies of these processes.

Golden pompano (*Trachinotus ovatus*) is an important concerned marine fish by the Ministry of Agriculture of China for mariculture with a considerable market foreground. *T. ovatus* have been demonstrated to have little or no ability to biosynthesise *n*-3 LC-PUFA in our recent study⁽¹⁸⁾. Previously, we found that *T. ovatus* hepatic *n*-3 LC-PUFA content increased with increasing dietary *n*-3 LC-PUFA content within a certain range. Meanwhile, transcriptome analysis of the liver indicated that the *fabp4* gene expression was positively correlated with the hepatic *n*-3 LC-PUFA content; therefore, *fabp4* may be a candidate gene for regulating the *n*-3 LC-PUFA content⁽¹⁹⁾. Based on these findings, we aimed to validate and characterise the potential regulatory role and mechanism of *T. ovatus fabp4* on the *n*-3 LC-PUFA content. Our findings provide reference data for the reduction of fish oil and fishmeal supplement levels in marine fish feed.

Materials and methods

Animal study ethics

All procedures performed on fish were in accordance with the National Institutes of Health guide for the care and use of laboratory animals (NIH Publications No. 8023, revised 1978) and approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of South China Agricultural University (Guangdong, China).

Trachinotus ovatus genomic DNA extraction and cloning of the 5' flanking sequence of fatty acid-binding protein 4

A live *T. ovatus* with unknown sex weighing approximately 500 g was randomly purchased from a local commercial market for the experiment. The fish was raised without food in a 320-litre aquarium for 4 h under natural conditions (dissolved oxygen was

provided). Before sampling, the anaesthetic (2-phenoxyethanol; Sigma-Aldrich) was mixed with water in a 50-ml volumetric flask and then further diluted with water to a concentration of 0.01% (w/v) in a bucket (17 litres) for the anaesthesia of the test fish. When the fish showed no response to external touch or stimuli and total loss of equilibrium, it was immediately removed from the bucket and the liver tissue was harvested. Genomic DNA was extracted from the liver tissue using a commercial kit (Beyotime Biotechnology Co. Ltd) according to the manufacturer's recommendation. The obtained DNA sample was electrophoresed on a 1% (w/v) agarose gels to check its integrity, and the DNA was quantified using a spectrophotometer (NanoDrop 1000; Thermo Scientific). The *fabp4* gene sequence was referenced from our nonpublished whole-genome sequencing data of *T. ovatus*. Specific PCR primers (online Supplementary Table S1) were then designed to amplify the *fabp4* gene 5' flanking sequence.

The PCR amplification mixture consisted of DNA, upstream primer, downstream primer, 2 × Taq PCR Mix (TianGen Biotech) and sterilised double-distilled water at 2 µl (50 ng), 2 µl, 2 µl, 25 µl and 19 µl, respectively. The amplification procedure comprised three steps: initial denaturation at 94°C for 3 min; 35 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, 62°C for 30 s and 72°C for 1 min; and final extension at 72°C for 5 min. The PCR products were then electrophoresed in a 1% (w/v) agarose gel, and the bands of expected sizes were purified using a commercial kit (TianGen Biotech). The obtained fragments were then cloned into a pMD™19-T (TaKaRa) vector following the manufacturer's instructions. The ligation mixtures were transformed into *Escherichia coli* DH5α competent cells (TianGen Biotech). A plasmid preparation kit (TianGen Biotech) was used to purify the plasmids containing inserts of an expected size. The obtained fragment was then sequenced at Sangon Biotech.

Cell culture

The HEK 293T cell line was purchased from the Chinese Type Culture Collection (Shanghai, China). The medium for cell growth composed of Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium/nutrient mixture F12 (Gibco), 10% fetal bovine serum (Gibco), penicillin (100 U/ml; Beyotime Biotechnology Co. Ltd) and streptomycin (100 U/ml; Beyotime Biotechnology Co. Ltd). The cells were incubated at 37°C with 5% CO₂, and the medium was changed every 2–3 d.

The *Epinephelus coioides* hepatocyte line was obtained from our laboratory, where it was successfully established without publication. The *Epinephelus coioides* hepatocyte line growth medium shared the same composition as that of HEK 293T cells. Differently, the fetal bovine serum used in *Epinephelus coioides* hepatocyte line culture was obtained from Clark (Clark Bioscience Co. Ltd). The cells were maintained at 28°C without CO₂.

RNA isolation and quantitative real-time PCR

Total RNA was extracted from the cells using RNAiso Plus (TaKaRa) following the manufacturer's recommendation. Prior to this, the cells were collected using 0.25% trypsin and centrifuged at 1500 rpm for 3 min to form pellets in 1.5 ml centrifuge tubes. The integrity of RNA samples was determined using 1% (w/v) agarose gel electrophoresis, and the quantification of



RNA samples was detected using a spectrophotometer (NanoDrop 1000; Thermo Scientific). Prior to quantitative real-time PCR detection, 1 µg of total RNA was reverse-transcribed using a PrimeScript® RT reagent kit (TaKaRa). The gene transcript level was measured in triplicate (CFX 96 Real-Time PCR Detection System; Bio-Rad), and the amplification mixture contained 0.8 µl of each primer (10 µM) (online Supplementary Table S1), 1 µl (25 ng) of first-strand cDNA product, 10 µl of 2 × SYBR® Premix Ex TaqTMII (TaKaRa) and 7.4 µl sterilised double-distilled water. The amplification conditions began with 30 s at 95°C, followed by 40 cycles of 5 s at 95°C, 45 s at 62°C and 1 min at 72°C. The melting curve was used as a criterion to determine that a single product was amplified. The relative gene expression was normalised with that of the reference gene (*β-actin*). The comparative CT method ($2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$)⁽²⁰⁾ was introduced to calculate the results that expressed relative to the control group. In the quantitative real-time PCR of *fabp4* and *β-actin*, the PCR product sequences shared a close identity with that of *E. coioides*. Consequently, the basic expression levels of *fabp4* and *β-actin* were detected. In contrast, the sequence of the *PPARγ* quantitative real-time PCR product shared a low identity with that of *E. coioides* and the basic expression level of *PPARγ* was not detected. For calculation purposes, we artificially set the expression level of the control group to 1.

Fatty acid composition analysis

The cellular lipids were extracted, and the fatty acid profile was assessed according to our previous methods^(21,22). The cells were digested and collected using 0.25% trypsin after washing twice with PBS (pH = 7.3 (SD 0.1), Beyotime Biotechnology Co. Ltd). The cells were then mixed with chloroform/methanol (2:1, by vol) containing 0.01% butylated hydroxytoluene with gentle shaking to extract the total lipids. Distilled water was added, then the mixture was centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 5 min and the supernatant was discarded. Subsequently, potassium hydroxide methanol (0.5 M) was used to saponify samples at 65°C, and hexane was then used to dissolve the samples. Finally, the fatty acid methyl esters in the upper layer were separated using centrifugation and analysed using GC (Agilent 7890B; Agilent Technologies). Individual methyl esters were identified by comparison with authentic standards (Sigma-Aldrich). The results were expressed as the percentages of each fatty acid in the total fatty acids.

Plasmid constructions and transient transfection

The complete open reading frame of *T. ovatus fabp4* was successfully cloned in our previous study⁽²³⁾ and amplified using 2 × Taq PCR Mix (TianGen Biotech) as described above. The pcDNA3.1 (+) vector (Invitrogen) was used to construct the recombinant plasmid which carries the *fabp4* gene (pcDNA3.1-*fabp4*). Another overexpression recombinant plasmid, pcDNA3.1-PPARγ was provided by Dr Meng Li of our research team. The accuracy of recombinant plasmid was verified using sequencing (Sangon Biotech Co. Ltd). The primers used are shown in online Supplementary Table S1.

A commercial endofree maxi plasmid kit (TianGen Biotech) was used to purify the pcDNA3.1-*fabp4* and pcDNA3.1-PPARγ

recombinant plasmids, and the X-tremeGene HP DNA transfection reagent (Roche) was used for cell transfection after the cells reached 70% confluence. The culture medium was replaced with fresh medium without antibiotics prior to cell transfection. The ratio of X-tremeGene HP DNA transfection reagent (µl):DNA (µg) was 2:1.

According to the sequence from the *fabp4* gene 5' flanking sequence cloning, corresponding primers (online Supplementary Table S1) were designed to obtain the accurate sequence of the full-length promoter fragment (D1) and another five progressive deletion fragments (D2–D6). These six fragments were amplified using 2 × Taq PCR Mix (TianGen Biotech) with genomic DNA as the template with PCR amplification conditions as described above. pGL4.10 (Promega) and pGL4.75 (Promega) were used as carrier plasmid and reference plasmid, respectively. Details regarding the construction of the recombinant plasmid were mentioned in our previous studies^(24,25). The commercial endofree maxi plasmid kit (TianGen Biotech) was used to extract the recombinant plasmids for further transfection. Previously, these recombinant plasmids were also sequenced (Sangon Biotech Co. Ltd) to ensure accuracy.

Site-directed mutagenesis of the potential regulator of fatty acid-binding protein 4

To further investigate the potential regulator of *fabp4*, site-directed mutagenesis was conducted based on overlap extension PCR. The site-directed mutant was designed from the deletion mutant D6 (pGL4.10-D6), which targets the transcription factor *PPARγ*. Two pairs of primers (F1 and R1, F2 and R2) were designed (online Supplementary Table S1). Primers F1 and R1 occur at either ends of the sequence, whereas F2 and R2 are positioned internally. The mutation points were introduced in the F2 and R2 primer pair. First, pGL4.10-D6 was used as the template for PCR amplification in accordance with the patterns of 'F1 + R2' and 'F2 + R1' in a 50 µl amplification volume, containing 2 µl of each primer (10 µM), 50 ng (2 µl) of template, 25 µl of 2 × Pfu PCR Mix (TianGen Biotech) and 19 µl sterilised double-distilled water. After purification with a commercial kit (TianGen Biotech), the products were mixed at equal volumes. Subsequently, the mixed product was used as the template, and F1 and R1 were used as primers for amplification in a 50 µl volume, containing 2 µl of each primer (10 µM), 2 µl (50 ng) of template, 25 µl of 2 × Taq PCR Mix (TianGen Biotech) and 19 µl of sterilised double-distilled water. The Mastercycler® nexus gradient PCR system (Eppendorf) was programmed for touchdown PCR under the following conditions: 94°C for 3 min, 94°C for 30 s, 72°C for 30 s followed by 30 cycles of 1-min step: the initial annealing temperature of 72°C was decreased by 0.5°C per cycle to reach 57°C for the final cycle. The mixture was then subjected to 94°C for 30 s, 57°C for 30 s and 72°C for 1 min for further fifteen cycles. The PCR ended with an extra extension of 5 min at 72°C. After the amplification, electrophoresis of 10 µl samples in 1% (w/v) agarose gels detected the unique PCR product. This was excised, isolated (TianGen Biotech), inserted into pMD™19-T (TaKaRa) and sequenced at Sangon Biotech. Purification of the site-directed mutant was performed using the above-mentioned endofree maxi plasmid kit (TianGen Biotech).



Dual-luciferase reporter assay

The dual-luciferase assay was performed after the HEK 293T cells reached 70 % confluence to determine the activity of a given promoter. The reporter firefly luciferase construct and reference plasmid pGL4.75 (Promega) were co-transfected into the cells at a ratio of 10 000:1 (w/w) using Lipofectamine® 2000 Reagent (Invitrogen) according to manufacturer's recommendation. Furthermore, empty pGL4.10 plasmids were used as the negative control. The plasmids were incubated with cells for 24 h; then, a fresh culture medium without plasmids was added to replace the original medium. After another 24 h (i.e. 48 h after transfection), luciferase assays were performed using a dual-luciferase reporter assay system (Promega). The results were expressed as the luminescence ratio of firefly:renilla luciferase. Twelve wells were included in one treatment group, and three dual-luciferase reporter assays were conducted independently.

Statistical analysis

All data are expressed as mean and standard deviations. The data from the core promoter region identification and luciferase assays after transfection with different concentrations of pcDNA3.1-PPAR γ were verified using a one-way ANOVA followed by Duncan's *post hoc* test using PASW Statistics version 18 (SPSS). All other data were tested by comparing groups using an independent-samples *t* test in PASW Statistics version 18 (SPSS). Tests for normality and homoscedasticity were performed prior to the formal statistical analysis.

Results

Cloning of the 5' flanking sequence of fatty acid-binding protein 4 in *Trachinotus ovatus* and activity analysis

In this study, 2059 bp (from the initiation codon ATG) of the 5' flanking sequence of the *fabp4* gene in *T. ovatus* was cloned and treated as the promoter candidate (Fig. 1). The first base of the initiation codon ATG was defined as +1 in the sequence. Five progressive deletion fragments were constructed, namely D1 (–2 bp to –2006 bp), D2 (–2 bp to –1521 bp), D3 (–2 bp to –1158 bp), D4 (–2 bp to –733 bp) and D5 (–2 bp to –241 bp). The dual-luciferase reporter analysis indicated that deletion of the fragment from –2006 bp to –1521 bp caused a decrease in promoter activity compared with that of the original promoter candidate (D1). No significant differences were found in promoter activity after the sequences between –1521 bp to –1158 bp and –1158 bp to –733 bp were deleted. However, the deletion of fragment from –733 bp to –241 bp resulted in an increase in the promoter activity. These results indicated that the core promoter region was located between –2006 bp and –1521 bp (Fig. 2).

Fatty acid-binding protein 4 promoted the uptake of DHA in hepatocytes

In our previous study on *T. ovatus*, we found that the hepatic mRNA level of *fabp4* increased with increasing *n*-3 LC-PUFA content in the diet and in the experimental fish liver (online Supplementary Fig. S1) and *fabp4* was identified as a candidate

gene for the regulation of the *n*-3 LC-PUFA content⁽¹⁹⁾. Herein, we further verified the role of *fabp4* in regulating the *n*-3 LC-PUFA content *in vitro*. Compared with the control group, the DHA content increased significantly in the *fabp4* overexpression group and the content of DHA was decreased after the *fabp4* gene was suppressed by BMS309403 (inhibitor of *fabp4*; MedChemExpress) (Fig. 3). The changes in the other fatty acids are shown in online Supplementary Fig. S2.

Stimulation of PPAR γ contributed to the uptake of DHA in hepatocytes

Previously, we found that the change in PPAR γ gene expression was consistent with the change in hepatic *n*-3 LC-PUFA content (not published) in *T. ovatus* fed with *n*-3 LC-PUFA (0.64–2.30 %). Meanwhile, transcriptome analysis of *T. ovatus* liver also showed that PPAR γ was a potential regulator of the *n*-3 LC-PUFA content⁽¹⁹⁾. In this study, the uptake of DHA was markedly enhanced after the PPAR γ gene was up-regulated by overexpression. Conversely, an antagonist of PPAR γ , GW9662 (Sigma-Aldrich) attenuated an increase in the DHA content by inducing PPAR γ overexpression (Fig. 4). The changes in the other fatty acids are shown in online Supplementary Fig. S2.

PPAR γ regulated the expression of fatty acid-binding protein 4 at the transcriptional level

To identify possible transcription factor binding sites in the core promoter region of the *T. ovatus fabp4* gene, we used online software to search for the potential binding site (<http://bioinfo.life.hust.edu.cn/hTFtarget#!/prediction>). Many transcription factors, such as Forkhead box O1, CCAAT/enhancer binding protein and transcription factor 5 binding sites, were identified in the core promoter region of *T. ovatus fabp4* gene with high scores (Fig. 1). According to our previous study, PPAR γ is a potential regulator of the *T. ovatus fabp4* gene and two PPAR γ binding sites were predicted in the present study (online Supplementary Fig. S3). To determine whether PPAR γ regulates *fabp4* gene expression, a site-directed mutant was constructed and transfected into HEK 293T cells for detection of luciferase activity. As shown in Fig. 5(a), the mutation of the PPAR γ binding site (with the highest score) resulted in a significant decrease in luciferase activity. To further confirm the role of PPAR γ in *fabp4* expression, HEK 293T cells were co-transfected with D1, together with different concentrations of pcDNA3.1-PPAR γ . The results showed that pcDNA3.1-PPAR γ increased the luciferase activity in a dose-dependent manner compared with the control group (Fig. 5(b)). These findings strongly suggest that *T. ovatus fabp4* may be a target of PPAR γ .

PPAR γ regulated the fatty acid-binding protein 4-mediated uptake of DHA in hepatocytes

As shown in Fig. 6, the simultaneous overexpression of PPAR γ and *fabp4* increased the mRNA levels of PPAR γ and *fabp4* significantly, by about 15-fold and 16-fold, respectively, compared with the empty plasmid group. An antagonist of *fabp4*, BMS309403 effectively reduced the expression of *fabp4* with no significant effect on the mRNA level of PPAR γ (Fig. 6(a)).



GAAGATAAATTTGACCATTTCTTTAATTTTGCATGGCTGGTTTTGTTTTTCTCAAATACAACCTTAACTCACCTGCCTTTATTTA
 GTATTTTGGGTTGCTGGTGTTTTTAAAGGCCAACTATAAGGTTTACTGTAATGTTTTGCTGAAACCATTGGGAGGCAGTACA
 TGGCAGTCTGACATTTGGGACACAGATCCACTGATTGTTTTCTGCCAGAGTTTCAATAGAGCAATACCTGTAATCAATGAAAT
 CTTTCAACACCAACTCTTTTGCAGTTTTTGTTTTAAAGCAATGCAACAAATGTATCGCAAATATTTCAAATGAAATTAACAACA
 GTTTTGTAAAAAGATGTGTAAGGAATACATATGATAAACTGAGAATGTTAACTTTGAATGAAAACTAGTTTCATCATATA
 CTTTTTGTAAAGTCTGTTACATTTATCTGCAGTTGCGAACAGTTACTAACAGAGCCTTTATGGACTAATTTTAACTGCTTTTAC
 AGGCGCCATCTGCTGGTTAAACCAGTACTAGTCAGAGCAGGAGTGATTGGTTGGGAATTTGCATAAAAAAGCAACATTT
 TCTTCTGCTGATATAAATGGGAAAAGATTTATTTATATGTAGAACCCTGGCAGAGTGGACTAGGGCTGCAACTAACCAATTA
 TTTTCATATTTTATAGTTATTTTTAAATTAATCAATACATCATTGTTGTTATGAAATCACAGTAAATAGAGAAAAATGCCAATT
 GTAATTTCCAACAGAACAGGTGATGCTCCTCATCAATCTTCATATTTGAGGAGCTGGAAAAAGCAAACTACTAGATATATGA
 GTTAAAAAGTTGCTAAACGATTATCATTGATCAAAATTAATATAAATTCATTTCTGACCATCGATTAATCGACAAGTTCTGC
 AGCTCTAGAATGGTCAAGAGTGTGTATGTGCAATTTCTTCCGTTAATCTTATTTTATTCATGTTTACTATTAATGTAATTAAT
 ATTGATGATGATTATTCATTAGCCTATTTCTAATCTGTAATGATGTTTATTTTCAATATGACACCTTATACAGACTGG
 TGACAACATAAGGAAAAACCAAGTGTGGGCCACCATGTGTCCAGAACAGCTTCAGTACTCCTTGGCATTGATTCTA
 CAGTTTCTAACTCCACTGGAGGATGAACACTGTTCTCCAAAGGATATCCCTCATTGGTGTTCGATGAAGGTGGTG
 GAGAAGGGTGTCAACTGGGTTGAGATCTGGTACTGCAAGCCCATAGCATATCAITTCACATCATTCCATACTCATCAA
 CTATTCAGGGACCCATCGGGCACTGCCATGCTGGGAAGAGACCCTGTATCAGGATAGAAATGTTTTCATCAGGATGAAGG
 TGATCATATCGCACTAATACAGAGCATCGCCGTCATGATGCTTTCCATAGATATAAATGTAGATGTCACCTTTAGTCAGTTT
 AGTTCTGCTGAGACTGTGCAGCTGAACAGTCTTTGAGACTGAAGCTCCTGCTATCTGTGCCCAACAATGAACCCCTCTT
 TCAAAGTACTGAGGTGTCGCATCTTGTGCAAAATCAGAATCAACTGGGCTGCTTAGCATCTCATAACATGCCACAGTC
 CCACTCTGTGCATCTTTGTGGAAGCATGTTATAGTATTTGTTAACATTTGTTCTTACAGAAAGAAAATGCAGCCACAGAACCA
 AATCCTATCAGGTACATATTGTCAGCACCTATCACCAACCAATTCACGCTGAAGTCAAGCAGGCTCACACTCCCTTCAAT
 CAAACACACCATCAAAATCTGATTTGAAGACAGCCCTAATCCGCGCTTCCATGGCAACGTCAGCAGCCTGCTCATGAT
 TGGTGGCCCTGGATGAGACGGTGTGATGACAGGCTTAAATATGAAGCTCGCTCCGGTTTCTGCCTTTGCGCTTCCAGC
 CTGAAACTGCTGTTTTCTGTTGTGTGTGTGTGCAACATCTGAGCGTCATCTTCCACCACATG

Fig. 1. The 5' flanking sequence of the *Trachinotus ovatus* fatty acid-binding protein 4 (*fabp4*) gene and partial predicted binding sites of transcription factors (red: Forkhead box O1 (FoxO1); orange: CCAAT/enhancer binding protein (C/EBP α); green: PPAR α ; blue: PPAR γ). Bold-faced bases indicate the initiation codon.

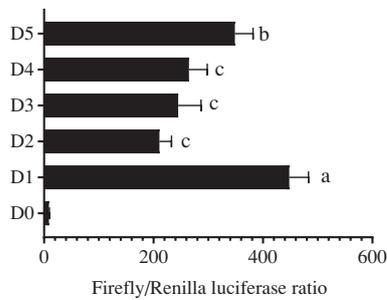


Fig. 2. Analysis of *Trachinotus ovatus* fatty acid-binding protein 4 (*fabp4*) gene promoter activity. D1–D5 indicates the five progressive deletion fragments, namely –2 bp to –2006 bp, –2 bp to –1521 bp, –2 bp to –1158 bp, –2 bp to –733 bp and –2 bp to –241 bp (The first base of the initiation codon ATG was defined as +1). D0 represents the negative control without the promoter region (pGL4.10-empty). Values are expressed as means and standard deviations. Means at a time without a common symbol are significantly different ($P \leq 0.05$).

Meanwhile, the simultaneous overexpression of PPAR γ and *fabp4* markedly enhanced the DHA content compared with the empty plasmid group. However, suppression of *fabp4* via BMS309403 attenuated the increase in the DHA content (Fig. 6(b)). Conversely, treating *Epinephelus coioides* hepatocyte line cells with GW9662 markedly attenuated the up-regulation of PPAR γ induced by PPAR γ overexpression, and *fabp4* was obviously increased through its overexpression (Fig. 6(c)). The DHA content was decreased by the suppression of PPAR γ . However, the effect was restored by the overexpression of *fabp4* (Fig. 6(d)). The observed changes in the other fatty acids are shown in online Supplementary Fig. S2.

Discussion

In recent years, the *n*-3 LC-PUFA content in farmed fish has been redefined, resulting in fish being supplied with *n*-3 LC-PUFA levels that far exceed their biological requirements and with the aim of satisfying consumer demand⁽²⁾. Currently, this research area is

receiving much focus, and two economic and effective approaches have been identified as potential avenues to increase the *n*-3 LC-PUFA content in farmed fish, namely the improvement of their biosynthesis ability and the enhancement of the uptake and deposition of dietary-limited *n*-3 LC-PUFA. Some regulators, such as microRNA, the hepatocyte nuclear factor 4 α , and the sterol regulatory element-binding protein-1, have been demonstrated to be involved in the biosynthesis of *n*-3 LC-PUFA and can thus be used to further regulate the *n*-3 LC-PUFA content^(24,26,27). In comparison, the uptake and deposition of *n*-3 LC-PUFA have received less attention. In our previous study, *fabp4* was identified as a candidate gene involved in the uptake and deposition of *n*-3 LC-PUFA⁽¹⁹⁾. In the present study, we first cloned the promoter sequence of *fabp4* in *T. ovatus* and then evaluated the serial deletion constructs of the *fabp4* promoter in a dual-luciferase reporter assay, which showed that the core promoter was located between –2006 bp and –1521 bp upstream from the initiation codon. In mammals, the core promoter has generally been identified near the transcription initiation site^(28,29). For example, the core promoter of cattle (*Bos taurus*) *fabp4* was present in the region of 272 bp upstream from the initiation codon⁽³⁰⁾. The distinctive location of the *T. ovatus fabp4* core promoter region indicated that there may be distinct regulatory mechanisms of *fabp4* between *T. ovatus* and mammals. Alternatively, the transcription initiation site of *T. ovatus fabp4* was far from the initiation codon; therefore, the core promoter was still near the transcription initiation site. This requires further investigation. In addition, the binding sites of transcription factors such as CCAAT/enhancer binding proteins, PPAR γ , and Forkhead box O1 have been found in the core promoter region of *T. ovatus fabp4*, which is consistent with previous studies that showed that these transcription factors play a role in the transcriptional regulation of the *fabp4* gene^(30–33).

Members of the FABP family, which consists of twelve members (FABP1–FABP12), are known to play important roles in fatty acid uptake^(34,35). In addition, a preference between the FABP subtype and fatty acid type has been suggested and is well studied in mammals⁽³⁶⁾. In fish, studies have demonstrated that *fabps*

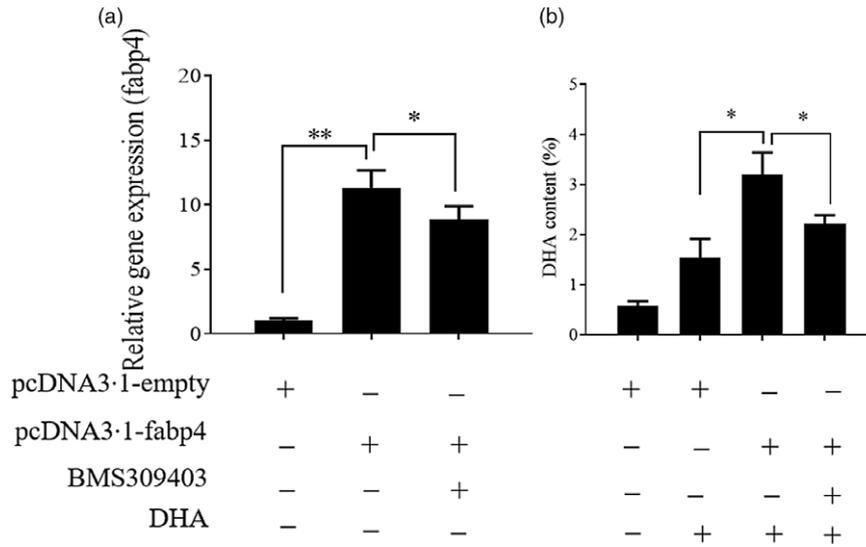


Fig. 3. Fatty acid-binding protein 4 (*Fabp4*) promotes the uptake of DHA. Values are expressed as means and standard deviations (n 3). The *Epinephelus coioides* hepatocyte line (ECHL) cells were transfected with pcDNA3.1-*fabp4* or pcDNA3.1-empty plasmids for 12 h. Subsequently, 50 μ M DHA and 75 μ M BMS309403 were added as mentioned for another 24 h (BMS309403 was added 2 h prior to DHA) without recombinant plasmids. Cells were harvested for the detection of *fabp4* gene expression (a) DHA content (b). *, $P \leq 0.05$; **, $P \leq 0.01$.

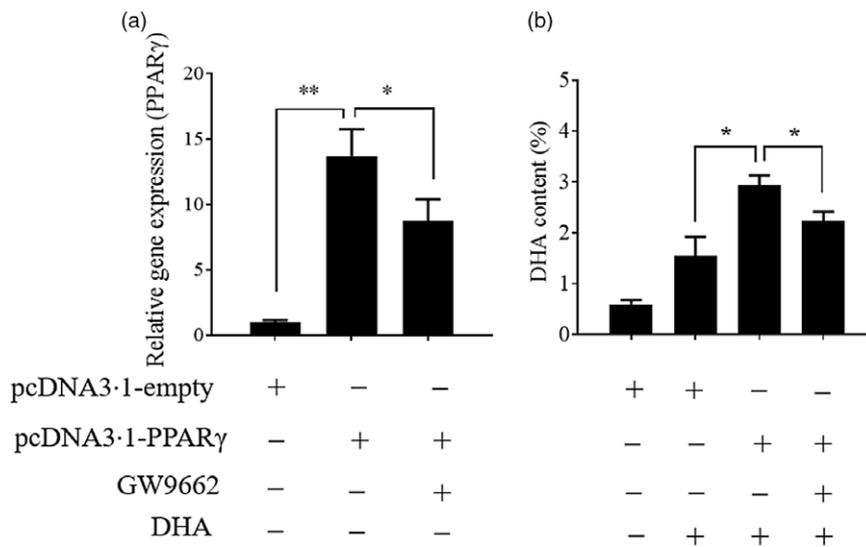


Fig. 4. Stimulation of *PPARγ* contributes to the uptake of DHA. Values are expressed as means and standard deviations (n 3). The *Epinephelus coioides* hepatocyte line (ECHL) cells were transfected with pcDNA3.1-empty or pcDNA3.1-*PPARγ* plasmids. After 12 h, the plasmids were removed and the cells were incubated with 50 μ M DHA and 75 μ M GW9662 as shown (GW9662 was added 2 h prior to DHA) for another 24 h. Cells were collected to measure *PPARγ* gene expression (a) and DHA content (b). *, $P \leq 0.05$; **, $P \leq 0.01$.

are associated with dietary fatty acids and that a similar fatty acid-selective property has been conserved^(13,14), although the details regarding the FABP and its preferred fatty acid remain largely unclear. Recently, we identified *fabp4* as a candidate *fabp* gene involved in *n*-3 LC-PUFA uptake and deposition⁽¹⁹⁾. In mammals, *fabp4* is known to be involved in adipogenesis^(37,38). In the present study, the overexpression of *fabp4* triggered an increase in DHA content and the suppression of *fabp4* alleviated this effect; this provides direct evidence that *fabp4* contributes to the uptake and deposition of *n*-3 LC-PUFA. This result was similar to that of a previous study, in which the FABP4 protein from

H. sapiens and *M. musculus* appeared to specifically bind to long-chain fatty acids (e.g. DHA) with high affinity⁽³⁹⁾.

As early as 1996, the FABP family was reported to be regulated mainly at the transcriptional level⁽⁴⁰⁾. The transcription factor *PPARγ* is an important regulator for members of the FABP family both in mammals and in fish⁽⁴¹⁻⁴³⁾, and the influence of *PPARγ* on *fabp4* expression has been widely reported^(33,44-46). Analogously, in this study, the mutation of the *PPARγ* binding site significantly reduced the promoter activity of *fabp4*. Meanwhile, overexpression of *PPARγ* revealed a positive, dose-dependent effect on *fabp4* promoter activity, indicating that the *fabp4* gene was a target of *PPARγ* in *T. ovatus*.

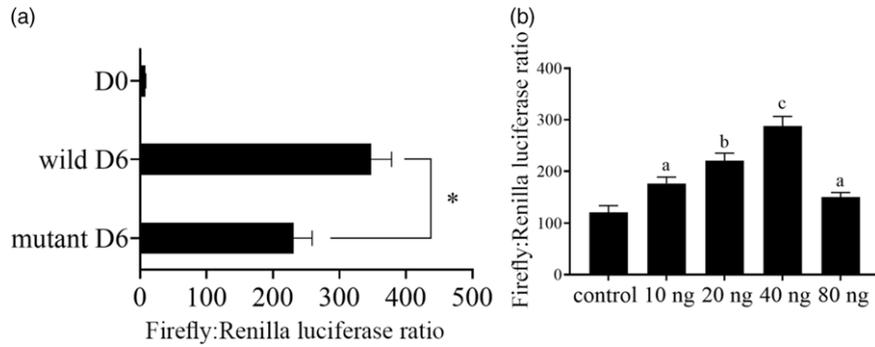


Fig. 5. Fatty acid-binding protein 4 (Fabp4) in *Trachinotus ovatus* is a target of PPAR γ . Values are expressed as means and standard deviations. (a): Luciferase activity was detected in HEK 293T cells that were transfected with pGL4.10-empty (D0), wild-type D6 (wild D6) or mutant D6 for 24 h. *, $P \leq 0.05$. (b): HEK 293T cells were co-transfected with the *fabp4* full-length promoter fragment (D1) and different concentrations of pcDNA3.1-PPAR γ for 24 h. Means at a time point without a common symbol are significantly different ($P \leq 0.05$).

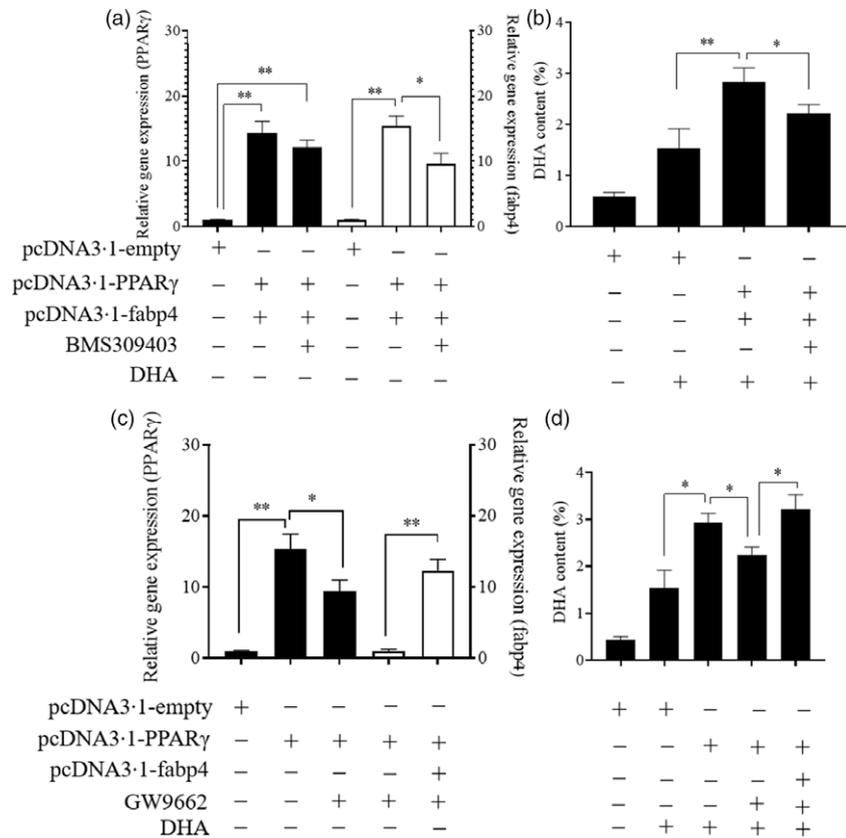


Fig. 6. PPAR γ acts as a positive regulator in the fatty acid-binding protein 4 (*fabp4*)-mediated uptake of DHA. Values are expressed as means and standard deviations. *, $P \leq 0.05$; **, $P \leq 0.01$ ($n = 3$). The *Epinephelus coioides* hepatocyte line (ECHL) cells were transfected with pcDNA3.1-empty alone or co-transfected with both pcDNA3.1-PPAR γ and pcDNA3.1-fabp4. These plasmids were removed after 12 h and the cells were incubated with 75 μM BMS309403 and 50 μM DHA as shown for another 24 h (BMS309403 was added 2 h in advance). Cells were collected; the gene expression of PPAR γ and *fabp4* (a) and the content of DHA (b) were detected; The ECHL cells were transfected with pcDNA3.1-empty or pcDNA3.1-PPAR γ for 12 h and then treated with 75 μM GW9662 for another 12 h without the plasmids. Afterward, pcDNA3.1-fabp4 was transfected into cells, and 50 μM DHA was added as shown to incubate the cells for another 12 h. Cells were collected to assess PPAR γ and *fabp4* mRNA levels (c) and DHA content was evaluated (d).

PPAR γ is believed to be a master regulator of adipogenesis⁽⁴⁷⁾. In *C. idella*, an increase in DHA content in the hepatopancreas is reportedly accompanied by the up-regulation of PPAR γ ⁽⁴⁸⁾. Similarly, in this study, we found that PPAR γ overexpression increased the DHA content and that the suppression of PPAR γ mitigated this effect, thus indicating that PPAR γ had a positive effect on

DHA uptake and deposition. Our previous study indicated that PPAR γ might be a key regulator of *n-3* LC-PUFA uptake and deposition by modulating the genes (including *fabp4*) involved in fat emulsification and fatty acid transport⁽¹⁹⁾. In this study, the antagonist of *fabp4*, BMS309403 alleviated the increase in DHA content induced by PPAR γ overexpression, indicating that *fabp4* was

required for DHA uptake and deposition evoked by *PPAR γ* . Conversely, overexpression of *fabp4* reversed the decline in the DHA content caused by GW9662 (a common antagonist of *PPAR γ*). Collectively, the above findings demonstrate the functioning of *fabp4* in the uptake and deposition on DHA in *T. ovatus*, and that such functions are regulated by *PPAR γ* . Some natural ligands of *PPAR γ* , such as α -linolenic acid and linoleic acid^(49,50), are common components of aquatic feeds. These ligands may further induce the expression of the *PPAR γ* target gene *fabp4*, providing potential method to improve the *n*-3 LC-PUFA content of farmed fish in practical applications.

In the present study, we cloned the 5' flanking sequence of *T. ovatus fabp4* and revealed and characterised its important role in the regulation of *n*-3 LC-PUFA content in *T. ovatus*. Targeting *fabp4* may, therefore, present an effective strategy for the regulation of the *n*-3 LC-PUFA content in this commercially important marine fish. Our findings also indicated that *fabp4*-mediated *n*-3 LC-PUFA uptake and deposition are probably regulated by *PPAR γ* in *T. ovatus*. These results provide a new regulation axis that appears to be a key contributor to *n*-3 LC-PUFA content regulation in *T. ovatus*.

Acknowledgements

The authors wish to express their thanks to all the participants for their contribution to the present study. The authors are also grateful to the staff who supported this study in related research team. The following projects: Guangdong MEPP Fund (GDOE NO. 2019A30); China Agriculture Research System (CARS-47-G13); National Key R&D Program of China (2018YFD0900400) and the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 31873040; No. 42006099) provided the funding for this research.

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

Y. L., B. F. and C. L. conceived and designed the experiments. M. L. provided the experimental materials. Y. L., J. T. and C. L. co-wrote the paper.

Supplementary material

For supplementary material referred to in this article, please visit <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007114521000775>

References

- Tocher DR & Glencross BD (2015) Lipids and fatty acids. In *Dietary Nutrients, Additives, and Fish Health*, pp. 47–94 [CS Lee, C Lim, DM Gatlin, *et al.*, editors]. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Tocher DR (2015) *N*-3 long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids and aquaculture in perspective. *Aquaculture* **449**, 94–107.
- Berna JT (2005) Efficiency of conversion of α -linolenic acid to long chain *n*-3 fatty acid in man. *Curr Opin Clin Nutr* **5**, 127–132.
- Tur JA, Bibiloni MM, Sureda A, *et al.* (2012) Dietary sources of *n*-3 fatty acids: public health risks and benefits. *Br J Nutr* **107**, S23–S52.
- Tocher DR (2010) Fatty acid requirements in ontogeny of marine and freshwater fish. *Aquacult Res* **41**, 717–732.
- Sargent JR, Tocher DR & Bell JR (2002) The lipids. In *Fish Nutrition*, pp. 181–257 [JH Halver and RW Hardy, editors]. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Kjær MA, Vegusdal A, Berge GM, *et al.* (2009) Characterisation of lipid transport in Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*) when fasted and fed high or low-fat diets. *Aquaculture* **288**, 325–336.
- Luciana RS, Ban M, Natalia S, *et al.* (2017) FABP1 knockdown in human enterocytes impairs proliferation and alters lipid metabolism. *BBA-Mol Cell Biol L* **1862**, 1587–1594.
- Liu JW, Almague FG, Bu L, *et al.* (2008) Expression of E-FABP in PC12 cells increases neurite extension during differentiation: involvement of *n*-3 and *n*-6 fatty acids. *J Neurochem* **106**, 2015–2029.
- Pan Y, Scanlon MJ, Owada Y, *et al.* (2015) Fatty acid-binding protein 5 facilitates the blood-brain barrier transport of docosahexaenoic acid. *Mol Pharmacol* **12**, 4375–4385.
- Pan Y, Short JL, Choy KH, *et al.* (2016) Fatty acid-binding protein 5 at the blood-brain barrier regulates endogenous brain docosahexaenoic acid levels and cognitive function. *J Neurosci* **36**, 11755–11767.
- Islam A, Kagawa Y, Sharifi K, *et al.* (2014) Fatty acid binding protein 3 is involved in *n*-3 and *n*-6 PUFA transport in mouse trophoblasts. *J Nutr* **144**, 1509–1516.
- Torstensen BE, Nanton DA, Olsvik PA, *et al.* (2009) Gene expression of fatty acid-binding proteins, fatty acid transport proteins (cd36 and FATP) and β -oxidation-related genes in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) fed fish oil or vegetable oil. *Aquacult Nutr* **15**, 440–451.
- Xu H, Zhang Y, Wang C, *et al.* (2017) Cloning and characterization of fatty acid-binding proteins (fabps) from Japanese seabass (*Lateolabrax japonicus*) liver, and their gene expressions in response to dietary arachidonic acid (ARA). *Comp Biochem Phys B* **204**, 27–34.
- Kolditz CI, Paboef G, Borthaire M, *et al.* (2008) Changes induced by dietary energy intake and divergent selection for muscle fat content in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*), assessed by transcriptome and proteome analysis of the liver. *BMC Genomics* **9**, 506–521.
- Ji H, Li J & Liu P (2011) Regulation of growth performance and lipid metabolism by dietary *n*-3 highly unsaturated fatty acids in juvenile grass carp, *Ctenopharyngodon idellus*. *Com Biochem Phys B* **159**, 49–56.
- Chen J, Zhu X, Han D, *et al.* (2011) Effect of dietary *n*-3 HUFA on growth performance and tissue fatty acid composition of gibel carp *Carassius auratus gibelio*. *Aquacult Nutr* **17**, 476–485.
- Zhang M, Chen CY, You CH, *et al.* (2019) Effects of different dietary ratios of docosahexaenoic to eicosapentaenoic acid (DHA/EPA) on the growth, non-specific immune indices, tissue fatty acid compositions and expression of genes related to LC-PUFA biosynthesis in juvenile golden pompano *Trachinotus ovatus*. *Aquaculture* **505**, 488–495.
- Lei CX, Li MM, Tian JJ, *et al.* (2020) Transcriptome analysis of golden pompano (*Trachinotus ovatus*) liver indicates a potential regulatory target involved in HUFA uptake and deposition. *Comp Biochem Phys D*. Published online: March 2020. doi: 10.1016/j.cbd.2019.100633.
- Livak KJ & Schmittgen T (2001) Analysis of relative gene expression data using real-time quantitative PCR and the 2- $\Delta\Delta$ CT method. *Methods* **25**, 402–408.
- Li Y, Hu C, Zheng Y, *et al.* (2008) The effects of dietary fatty acids on liver fatty acid composition and Delta (6)-desaturase



- expression differ with ambient salinities in *Siganus canaliculatus*. *Com Biochem Phys B* **151**, 183–190.
22. Li Y, Monroig O, Zhang L, *et al.* (2010) Vertebrate fatty acyl desaturase with $\Delta 4$ activity. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **107**, 16840–16845.
 23. Lei CX, Li MM, Zhang M, *et al.* (2020) Cloning, molecular characterization, and nutritional regulation of fatty acid-binding protein family genes in gold pompanos (*Trachinotus ovatus*). *Comp Biochem Phys B*. Accepted.
 24. Dong Y, Wang S, Chen J, *et al.* (2016) Hepatocyte nuclear factor 4 α (HNF4 α) is a transcription factor of vertebrate fatty acyl desaturase gene as identified in marine teleost *Siganus canaliculatus*. *PLOS ONE* **11**, e0160361–e0160380.
 25. Dong Y, Zhao J, Chen J, *et al.* (2018) Cloning and characterization of $\Delta 6/\Delta 5$ fatty acyl desaturase (Fad) gene promoter in the marine teleost *Siganus canaliculatus*. *Gene* **647**, 174–180.
 26. Ambros V (2004) The functions of animal microRNAs. *Nature* **431**, 350–355.
 27. Qin Y, Dalen KT, Gustafsson JA, *et al.* (2009) Regulation of hepatic fatty acid elongase 5 by LXR α -SREBP-1c. *BBA-Mol Cell Biol L* **1791**, 140–147.
 28. Frith MC, Valen E, Krogh A, *et al.* (2008) A code for transcription initiation in mammalian genomes. *Genome Res* **18**, 1–12.
 29. Megraw M, Pereira F, Jensen ST, *et al.* (2009) A transcription factor affinity-based code for mammalian transcription initiation. *Genome Res* **19**, 644–656.
 30. Li A, Zhao Z, Zhang Y, *et al.* (2015) Tissue expression analysis, cloning, and characterization of the 5'-regulatory region of the bovine fatty acid binding protein 4 gene1. *J Anim Sci* **11**, 5144–5152.
 31. Song J, Ren P, Zhang L, *et al.* (2010) Metformin reduces lipid accumulation in macrophages by inhibiting FOXO1-mediated transcription of fatty acid-binding protein 4. *Biochem Bioph Res Co* **393**, 89–94.
 32. Shin J, Li B, Davis ME, *et al.* (2009) Comparative analysis of fatty acid-binding protein 4 promoters: conservation of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor binding sites. *J Anim Sci* **87**, 3923–3934.
 33. Hua TMN, Kim MK, Vo VTA, *et al.* (2019) Inhibition of oncogenic Src induces FABP4-mediated lipolysis via PPAR γ activation exerting cancer growth suppression. *EBioMedicine* **41**, 134–145.
 34. Furuhashi M & Hotamisligil GS (2008) Fatty acid-binding proteins: role in metabolic diseases and potential as drug targets. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* **7**, 489–503.
 35. Ishimura S, Furuhashi M, Watanabe Y, *et al.* (2013) Circulating levels of fatty acid-binding protein family and metabolic phenotype in the general population. *PLOS ONE* **8**, e81318–e81324.
 36. Zimmerman AW, Moerkerk HTBV & Veerkamp JH (2001) Ligand specificity and conformational stability of human fatty acid-binding proteins. *Int J Biochem Cell B* **33**, 865–876.
 37. Samulin J, Berget I, Lien S, *et al.* (2008) Differential gene expression of fatty acid binding proteins during porcine adipogenesis. *Comp Biochem Phys B* **151**, 147–152.
 38. Zhang L, Zhao Y, Ning Y, *et al.* (2017) Ectopical expression of FABP4 gene can induce bovine muscle-derived stem cells adipogenesis. *Biochem Bioph Res Co* **482**, 352–358.
 39. Richieri GV, Ogata RT, Zimmerman AW, *et al.* (2000) Fatty acid binding proteins from different tissues show distinct patterns of fatty acid interactions. *Biochemistry* **39**, 7197–7204.
 40. Glatz JFC & van der Vusse GJ (1996) Cellular fatty acid binding proteins: their function and physiological significance. *Prog Lipid Res* **35**, 243–282.
 41. Mita R, Beaulieu MJ, Field C, *et al.* (2010) Brain fatty acid-binding protein and *n-3/n-6* fatty acids: mechanistic insight into malignant glioma cell migration. *J Biol Chem* **285**, 37005–37015.
 42. Wang X, Pan L, Lu J, *et al.* (2012) *N-3* PUFAs attenuate ischemia/reperfusion induced intestinal barrier injury by activating I-FABP-PPAR γ pathway. *Clin Nutr* **31**, 951–957.
 43. Laprairie RB, Denovanwright EM & Wright JM (2016) Subfunctionalization of peroxisome proliferator response elements accounts for retention of duplicated fabp1 genes in zebrafish. *BMC Evol Biol* **16**, 147–161.
 44. Pelton PD, Zhou L, Demarest KT, *et al.* (1999) PPAR γ activation induces the expression of the adipocyte fatty acid binding protein gene in human monocytes. *Biochem Bioph Res Co* **261**, 456–458.
 45. Perera RJ, Marcusson EG, Koo S, *et al.* (2006) Identification of novel PPAR γ target genes in primary human adipocytes. *Gene* **369**, 90–99.
 46. Iso T, Yajima N, Kawaguchi T, *et al.* (2012) Abstract 11257: fatty acid binding protein 4 and fatty acid translocase are induced by notch signaling via induction of PPAR γ in capillary endothelial cells in heart after long time fasting. *Circulation* **126**, A11257.
 47. Rosen ED & Spiegelman BM (2014) What we talk about when we talk about fat. *Cell* **156**, 20–44.
 48. Li C, Liu P, Ji H, *et al.* (2015) Dietary *n-3* highly unsaturated fatty acids affect the biological and serum biochemical parameters, tissue fatty acid profile, antioxidation status and expression of lipid-metabolism-related genes in grass carp, *Ctenopharyngodon idellus*. *Aquacult Nutr* **21**, 373–383.
 49. Edwards IJ & O'Flaherty JT (2007) *n-3* fatty acids and PPAR γ in cancer. *PPAR Res* **2008**, 358052–358052.
 50. Yu YH, Wu SC, Cheng TK, *et al.* (2011) The function of porcine PPAR γ and dietary fish oil effect on the expression of lipid and glucose metabolism related genes. *J Nutr Biochem* **22**, 179–186.