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Vitellogenin receptor and fatty acid profiles of individual lipid classes of oocytes from wild and captive-reared greater amberjack (Seriola dumerili) during the reproductive cycle. Chrysovalentinos Pousis^a, Covadonga Rodríguez^b, Pasquale De Ruvo^c, Caterina De Virgilio^c, José A. Pérez^b, Constantinos C. Mylonas^d, Rosa Zupa^a, Letizia Passantino^a, Nicoletta Santamaria^a, Luisa Valentini^a, Aldo Corriero^{a*} ^aDepartment of Emergency and Organ Transplantation, Section of Veterinary Clinics and Animal Production, University of Bari Aldo Moro, S.P. per Casamassima km. 3, I-70010 Valenzano (Bari), Italy ^bDepartamento de Biología Animal, Edafología y Geología, Facultad de Ciencias, Universidad de La Laguna, Avda. Astrofísico Francisco Sánchez s/n, La Laguna - Tenerife 38071, Spain ^cDepartment of Biosciences, Biotechnologies and Biopharmaceutics, University of Bari Aldo Moro, Via E. Orabona, 4 - 70124 Bari, Italy ^dInstitute of Marine Biology, Biotechnology and Aquaculture, Hellenic Center for Marine Research P.O. Box 2214, Heraklion 71003, Crete, Greece *Corresponding author: Aldo Corriero, Department of Emergency and Organ Transplantation, Section of Veterinary Clinics and Animal Production, University of Bari Aldo Moro.

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35 Abstract

36 The greater amberjack Seriola dumerili (Risso, 1810) is a large migratory pelagic fish occurring in tropical and temperate waters with a great potential for the world aquaculture industry. Previous 37 studies showed that wild-caught female greater amberjack reared in sea cages and handled during 38 the reproductive season, underwent extensive ovarian atresia. This atresia, however, was not related 39 to an insufficient liver transcription or oocyte uptake of vitellogenin (Vtg). In the present study, the 40 41 structure of two greater amberjack vitellogenin receptors, namely Vtgr (Lr8-) and Lrp13, was 42 characterized. Moreover, vtgr and lrp13 gene expression and the fatty acid profiles of specific phospholipids and neutral lipids were compared in the ovaries of wild and captive-reared greater 43 44 amberjack during different phases of the reproductive cycle (*i.e.* early gametogenesis, advanced gametogenesis and spawning). Ovarian vtgr and lrp13 transcription was more active during early 45 gametogenesis, suggesting that vitellogenin receptor transcripts were synthesized by previtellogenic 46 47 oocytes and remained in the cellular mRNA pool until oocytes resumed meiosis and entered into secondary growth (*i.e.* vitellogenesis). Rearing of wild-caught greater amberjack in captivity 48 49 together with handling during the reproductive season was associated with a reduced vtgr and lrp13 transcription and with a diminished capacity of oocytes in the early phase of gametogenesis 50 (primary oocyte growth) to enter into vitellogenesis. During early gametogenesis, remarkable 51 52 differences in the fatty acid composition were observed between wild and captive-reared individuals: all phospholipids of captive fish displayed dramatic increases of saturates (16:0 and 53 18:0) and decreases of arachidonic acid (ARA) and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA). The present 54 study confirms the susceptibility of greater amberjack reproductive function to handling stress and 55 suggests that the consequent extensive atresia of vitellogenic follicles originated during the primary 56 oocytes growth when the capacity of oocytes to synthesize vitellogenin receptors was reduced. The 57 58 study also suggests that this reduced capacity was associated with an altered oocyte phospholipid fatty acid composition during early gametogenesis. 59

- **Key-words**: Osteichthyes; Mediterranean Sea; oogenesis; vitellogenesis; reproduction; reproductive
- 62 dysfunctions; phospholipids.

1. Introduction 65

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66 The greater amberjack Seriola dumerili (Risso, 1810) is a large migratory pelagic fish occurring in tropical and temperate waters [1], with a great potential for the world aquaculture industry [2]. One 67 of the major bottlenecks for the incorporation of new species in the aquaculture industry is the 68 control of reproductive function in captivity and the consistent production of high quality eggs [3]. 69 70 Failure of greater amberjack females reared in the Mediterranean to complete oogenesis was 71 documented long time ago [4-6], and more recent studies confirmed the existence of reproductive dysfunctions in captivity, when fish were not exposed to optimal conditions. In fact, captive-reared 72 females that were exposed to handling due to the sampling operation carried out in the same cage 73 74 during the previous phase of the reproductive cycle, showed a reduced ovarian relative mass (Gonadosomatic Index) and an extensive atresia of vitellogenic follicles during the natural 75 spawning period of the wild population [7, 8], and males showed an impairment of spermatogenesis 76 77 with an increase of apoptosis and a reduced proliferation of germ cells, associated to abnormal sex 78 steroid plasma concentrations [9]. As a result of the spermatogenesis impairment, sperm quality of 79 captive-reared greater amberjack males appeared to be compromised [9]. 80 However, successful spawning of greater amberjack reared in sea cages in the Mediterranean 81 was induced through the administration of gonadotropin-releasing hormone agonist (GnRHa) when 82 breeders were not handled during the early stages of the reproductive season prior to the administration of GnRHa [10], as well as in broodstocks of Atlantic Ocean origin reared in tanks in 83 the Canary Islands [11, 12]. Moreover, spontaneous spawning of a small number of breeders has 84 85 been reported for captive-reared greater amberjack individuals reared in tanks in the Canary Islands under natural conditions of light and temperature [13].

87 In teleost fish, as in other oviparous animals, egg yolk is largely derived from vitellogenin (Vtg), a phospholipid-rich yolk protein precursor that is synthesized in the liver under 17β Estradiol (E₂) 88 stimulation, taken up from the maternal circulation by the growing oocytes via receptors belonging 89 to the low density lipoprotein receptor (LDLR) family [14, 15]. Acanthomorph fishes produce three 90

91 distinct Vtgs, referred to as vitellogenin A (VtgAa), vitellogenin B (VtgAb) and vitellogenin C
92 (VtgC) [8, 16-17].

Several biochemical studies have revealed multiple ovarian membrane proteins that specifically 93 bind Vtg in salmonids [18] and in perciforms [19, 20]. In the white perch (Morone americana) 94 ovary, four Vtg receptor proteins were discovered: a receptor that binds only VtgA (VtgAar), two 95 96 receptors that preferentially bind VtgAb (VtgAbr 116 kDa and VtgAbr 110.5 kDa), and a putative 97 LDLR (pLDLR) that weakly and indiscriminately binds both VtgAa and VtgAb [19]. A white perch Vtg receptor orthologous to mammalian very low density lipoprotein receptor (VLDLR) has been 98 named Vtgr or Lr8- due to the presence of eight ligand-binding repeats and because it is a spliced 99 100 variant gene transcript of *vldlr* that does not encode the O-linked sugar domain [21-23]. Reading et al. [19] suggested that white perch Lr8- corresponds to one or both VtgAbr proteins based on the 101 102 predicted molecular mass of the protein and on prior reports of fish and chicken Lr8-. Recently, 103 Reading et al. [20] and Mushirobira et al. [24] described structure, expression, subcellular localization, and Vtg-binding properties of a receptor named Lrp13 that corresponds to VtgAar. 104 105 Both VtgAbr (Lr8-) and Lrp13 have co-evolved in both oviparous and viviparous animals to sustain 106 reproductive effort and to transport various ligands inside the cell [25, 26]. In the present paper, the term "vitellogenin receptor" is used to generically refer to any receptor that binds vitellogenin, 107 108 whereas specific vitellogenin receptors are mentioned using the appropriate acronyms. The endocrine mechanism regulating vitellogenin receptor expression is not yet clarified, 109 although a study using the medaka (Oryzias latipes) model revealed that E₂ exposure suppresses the 110 111 expression of vitellogenin receptors in females [27], and in cultured ovarian follicles of largemouth bass (Micropterus salmoides), insulin, E2 and 11-ketotestosterone (11-KT) have been also reported 112 113 to be involved in the complex regulation of *vtgr* expression [28]. Long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (LC-PUFA) are relevant components of Vtg and play an 114

important role during gametogenesis, oocyte maturation, embryo ontogeny and early larval

development in marine fish [29-33]. During early gametogenesis, total lipids from ovaries of greater

| 117 ambe | rjack reared in sea cag | s contained 40% les | s arachidonic acid | (ARA, 20:4n-6) | than wild fish, |
|----------|-------------------------|---------------------|--------------------|----------------|-----------------|
|----------|-------------------------|---------------------|--------------------|----------------|-----------------|

118 causing strong imbalances of ARA/eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA, 20:5n-3) ratios [7].

In addition to ARA, also docosahexaenoic acid (DHA, 22:6n-3) - considered as the most relevant essential fatty acid for fish egg quality [34] - was found to be much lower in total lipids of gonads from captive reared greater amberjack [7]. The importance of DHA- and ARA-rich phospholipids (*i.e.* phosphatidylcholine, PC; phosphatidylserine, PS; and phosphatidylethanolamine, PE) on gonad development and egg quality has been also highlighted by several authors [35-40]. In fact, two thirds of the lipid fraction of Vtg is made of PC [34] that is also the main phospholipid in mature

125 ovaries and fertilized eggs [41].

The aim of the present study was to characterize the structures of Vtgr (Lr8-) and Lrp13 in the greater amberjack as well as to analyze the expression of the two genes and the fatty acid profiles of specific phospholipids and neutral lipids in the ovaries of wild and captive-reared specimens during different phases of the reproductive cycle, in order to improve our understanding of the regulation of these genes and to further investigate the mechanisms underlying the oogenesis impairment observed when these fish are exposed to adverse rearing conditions in captivity.

132

133 2. Material and method

134 2.1. Fish Sampling

Twenty-one wild and twelve captive-reared greater amberjack females were sampled during 135 2014, 2015 and 2016 at three different phases of the reproductive cycle determined according to the 136 137 available literature [42, 43]: early gametogenesis, late April-early May (wild fish= 5; captive-reared fish = 4); advanced gametogenesis, late May-early June (wild fish = 4; captive-reared fish =4)); 138 139 spawning, late June-early July (wild fish = 12; captive-reared fish = 4). Wild fish were sampled on board a professional purse-seine fishing vessel operating around the Pelagie Islands (Sicily, Italy); 140 captive-reared individuals belonged to a broodstock captured as juveniles (~1 kg body weight) in 141 2011 in the area of Astakos (Ionian Sea, Greece) and moved in September 2013 (5-7 kg in body 142

weight) to a sea cage of Argosaronikos Fishfarming S.A. (Salamina Island, Greece), where theywere reared for 2 years according to standard farming practices.

The fish were fed to apparent satiation every other day, using a commercial extruded broodstock 145 146 diet (Vitalis Cal; Skretting, SA, Norway) (see [7] for proximate and fatty acid composition), until they were killed for research purposes during the three above mentioned phases of the reproductive 147 season of 2015 (N = 4 per reproductive phase). For sampling, fish were herded into a PVC 148 anesthetic bag (volume 10-15 m³), where they were slightly anesthetized with 0.01 mL/L clove oil. 149 Then, one-by-one they were gently directed into a PVC stretcher, brought on board of a service 150 vessel and anesthetized deeply with 0.03 mL/L clove oil for sex recognition by means of gonad 151 cannulation. Subsequently, four males and four females for each sampling time were euthanized by 152 decapitation and were placed on crushed ice and transferred to the onshore farm facility for 153 processing. The remaining fish in the population were then allowed to exit from the anesthetic bag 154 and into their rearing cage, and the procedure was repeated again in the two subsequent samplings. 155 For each fish, biometric data (fork length, FL, nearest cm; body mass, BM, nearest kg; ovarian 156 157 mass, OM, nearest g) were recorded and ovary samples were taken. Ovarian samples destined for molecular biology studies were stored in RNA later® at 4 °C and then transferred at -80 °C. 158 Ovarian samples destined for basic histological and immunohistochemical analyses were fixed in 159 Bouin's liquid for 4–6 h. 160

161

162 2.2. *Histology and immunohistochemistry*

Fixed ovary samples were dehydrated in increasing ethanol concentrations, clarified in xylene and embedded in paraffin wax. The assessment of the reproductive state was performed, according to Corriero et al. [44, 45], on the basis of the most advanced oocyte stage, the occurrence of postovulatory (POFs) and atretic follicles observed in 5-µm thick, de-paraffinized sections stained with haematoxylin-eosin.

In order to compare the density of oocytes at late vitellogenesis stage (number of late
vitellogenesis follicles / mm² ovary section) between wild and captive-reared greater amberjack,
healthy oocytes at late vitellogenesis stage and atretic vitellogenic follicles were counted from
microphotographs taken with a digital camera (DFC 420; Leica, Cambridge, UK) connected to a
light microscope (DIAPLAN; Leitz, Wetzlar, Germany), using an image analysis software (Leica
Application Suite, version 3.3.0; Cambridge, UK).

174 For the immunolocalization of Vtg and its derived yolk proteins, deparaffinized ovarian sections were hydrated and pre-treated for 30 min with 0.3% H₂O₂ in methanol to inhibit endogenous 175 peroxidase activity. The sections were treated for 30 min in normal serum (NS) to block non-176 177 specific binding sites for immunoglobulins and then incubated overnight in moist chamber at 4 °C with purified IgG fraction from rabbits immunised with the portion from amino acid 764 to amino 178 acid 1025 of the Atlantic bluefin tuna (*Thunnus thynnus*) Vtg sequence [46]. Peptide synthesis, 179 180 rabbit immunization, serum production and total IgG purification were performed by Agrisera AB (Vännäs, Sweden). The rabbit total IgG fraction was diluted 1:5000 in PBS containing 0.1% BSA. 181 Normal serum, biotinylated secondary antibodies and avidin-biotin complex were contained in the 182 Vectastain Universal Elite Kit (Vector, Burlingame, CA). Peroxidase activity was visualized by 183 incubating for 10 min with Vector DAB Peroxidase Substrate Kit (Vector, Burlingame, Ca), which 184 produces a brown precipitate. To confirm the specificity of the immunostaining, the following 185 control staining procedures were carried out: (1) replacement of primary antibody with normal 186 serum; (2) replacement of primary antibody with pre-immune rabbit serum. 187

188

189 2.3. RNA extraction and reverse transcription

RNA extractions from gonad samples were carried out with Qiagen RNaesy® Lipid Tissue Mini
Kit (including the RNase Free DNase set) as described by the manufacturer. Frozen tissue (50 mg)
was powdered under liquid nitrogen with a porcelain mortar and pestle. The RNA was resuspended
in 50 µL of RNase free water and stored at -80 °C until used. In order to have an equal amount of

total RNA to perform reverse transcription, quantification of the RNA was necessary. Quality and 194 195 concentrations of the RNA preparation were determined in 1x agarose- Tris-acetate buffered 1% gels stained with ethidium bromide and by spectrophotometric measurements at 260, 280 and 230 196 197 nm using NanoDrop® ND-1000 spectrophotometer (ThermoFisher Scientific Inc., MI., Italy), respectively. Reverse transcription of 1µg of total RNA was performed using using SuperScript® 198 III Reverse Transcriptase as described by the manufacturer (Invitrogen). Random hexamer primers 199 were used for the first-strand cDNA synthesis. cDNA was kept at -80 °C until used in the real-time 200 201 PCR assay. Two microliters of cDNA were used for the PCR.

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203 2.4. Cloning of greater amberjack vtgr and lrp13 cDNA

The complete nucleotide sequences of *vtgr* and *lrp13* were amplified from total cDNA by means 204 205 of overlapping PCR reactions respectively. For cloning of *lrp13*, PCR amplification was conducted 206 using primers that were designed according to the most conserved regions across Perciforms (Table 1). In order to clone *vtgr*, the same primer pairs used for Atlantic bluefin tuna were utilized [46]. All 207 208 PCRs were performed on a PCR Sprint Thermal Cycler using ~50 ng cDNA, 10 pmoles of each oligonucleotide primer, 0.2 mM dNTP mix, 10× Taq polymerase buffer and 1.5 unit Taq 209 Polymerase (Eppendorf). PCR-generated DNA fragments were resolved in 1x Tris-acetate buffered 210 211 1.2% agarose gels and visualized by ethidium bromide staining. RACE 5 'and 3' were necessary to complete the sequences of the mRNA (5'/3' RACE Kit, 2nd Generation Roche Applied Science). 212 Amplification product was excised from a 1.2% agarose gel and purified using Nucleo Spin extract 213 214 II (Macherey- Nagel) and ligated into the pCR 2.1 TOPO cloning vector (TOPO TA cloning kit; Invitrogen) and transformed into Escherichia coli competent cells (One Shot TOPO 10 chemically 215 competent cells; Invitrogen). Approximately 20 µL of purified plasmid was sent to the eurofin 216 Genomics Sequence Service (Ebersberg, Germany) for sequencing with M13 reverse and M13 217 218 forward primers.

220 2.5. *Real Time PCR*

221 Once the greater amberjack homologous sequences were obtained, *vtgr* and *lrp13* specific 222 primers were designed (Table 2) employing the Primer3 software and used to establish quantitative 223 real-time PCR (qPCR) for gene expression analysis. For the relative quantification of β -actin where 224 used the same primer pairs used by Pousis et al. [8].

225 Total RNA was obtained from ovary using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen) as described by the manufacturer. Reverse transcription of 1.500 µg of total RNA was performed using SuperScript III 226 227 Reverse Transcriptase (Invitrogen®) and diluted cDNA (1:10) was used in all following qPCR reactions. The qRT-PCR experiments were carried out in triplicate using the QuantStudio™ 7 Flex 228 229 System (Applied Biosystems®, Thermo Fisher SCIENTIFIC, Milan, Italy) using 1 µL of diluted (10⁻¹) cDNA as template for each reaction with SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (Bio-Rad). Thermal 230 cycling conditions included an initial heat-denaturing step at 95 °C for 15 s, 40 cycles at 95 °C for 231 232 15 s, 60 °C for 30 s and at 95 °C for 15 s. Following the amplification, melting curves of the PCR products were determined from 60 to 95 °C to ascertain the specificity of the amplification. No 233 234 template controls were included as negative controls for each primer pair. The quantification of the 235 β -actin gene was used as the endogenous control to normalize initial RNA levels. Real-time PCR Fluorescence raw data were exported from the QuantStudio Real Time PCR software (Applied 236 Biosystems®, Thermo Fisher SCIENTIFIC) and analyzed through the spreadsheet working DART-237 PCR Excel version 1.0. This method of analyzing real-time PCR converts raw fluorescence data 238 into R0 values, based upon the theory that fluorescence is proportional to DNA concentration. This 239 240 allows an automatic calculation of amplification kinetics, as well as performing the subsequent 241 calculations for the relative quantification and calculation of assay variability giving a final estimate of the efficiency of amplification of the primer pairs used in real-time reactions [47]. 242 Amplification efficiency values (E) for each amplicon were used to correct Ct values before 243 analysing these data by the Δ Ct method to compare relative expression results. For all PCRs gene 244

- expression levels and the cycle threshold values were processed with the "Delta delta method" and were calculated by relative expression = $2-\Delta\Delta Ct$ [48].
- 247

248 *2.6. Sequence analyses*

- 249 The molecular weight (Mw) and the isoelectric point (pI) were predicted using the Compute pI/Mw
- tool [49-51]. The signal peptide sequence of the deduced protein was predicted using the SignalP
- 5.0 prediction tool (<u>http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/SignalP</u>) [52]. Comparisons of nucleotide and
- amino acid sequences with those of other fish, were performed using the CLUSTALW
- 253 (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/clustalo) program [53] and BLASTP 2.2.24+
- 254 (http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi) [54, 55].
- 255

256 2.7. Fatty acid analysis of lipid classes

Total lipid (TL) was extracted by sample homogenization in chloroform/methanol (2:1, v/v) according to the method of Folch et al. [56]. The organic solvent was evaporated under a stream of nitrogen and the lipid content was determined gravimetrically and stored in chloroform/methanol

260 (2:1), containing 0.01% butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT) [57].

Individual phospholipids and total neutral lipid (TNL) were separated by thin layer 261 chromatography (TLC) in 20 x 20 cm silica plates (Merk, Darmstadt, Germany) using methyl 262 acetate/isopropanol/chloroform/methanol/0.25% (w/v) KCl (25: 25: 25: 10: 9, by volume) as 263 developing solvent system. After development, the plate was dried under vacuum and sprayed with 264 2',7'-dichlorofluorescein. The bands corresponding to individual lipid classes and TNL were 265 scraped off the plate and directly subjected to acid-catalysed transmethylation with 1% sulphuric 266 acid (v/v) in methanol. The resultant fatty acid methyl esters (FAME) were extracted with 267 isohexane: diethylether (1:1 by volume) and purified by TLC using isohexane/diethyl ether/acetic 268 acid (90:10:1, by volume) as developing system. Fatty acid methyl esters were separated and 269

270 quantified through gas chromatography analysis as described by Zupa et al. [7].

271

272 2.8. Statistical analysis

Differences in oocyte density and fatty acid composition between wild and captive-reared 273 274 specimens were assessed by Student's t-test, and results are presented as means \pm SEM. Ovarian vtgr and lrp13 trascription levels were expressed as medians, interquartile range and 275 range. Differences in *vtgr* and *lrp13* expression among the different groups were assessed through 276 277 the Kruskall-Wallis test for non-parametric comparison; the multiple comparison Dunn's test was then used to assess differences in *vtgr* and *lrp13* between the following pairs of groups: wild 278 specimens sampled in consecutive phases of the reproductive cycle; captive-reared specimens 279 280 sampled in consecutive phases of the reproductive cycle; wild vs captive-reared specimens sampled in the same phase of the reproductive cycle. 281

Statistical analyses were performed by STATA SE14 software and statistical significance was
identified at P≤0.05.

284

285 **3. Results**

286 *3.1. Histological and immunohistochemical analysis of the ovaries*

Both wild (EW group) and captive-reared (EC group) greater amberjack sampled during the
early phase of the reproductive cycle had ovaries containing perinucleolar and cortical alveoli stage
oocytes. Two of the five specimens of the EW group and three of the four fish of the EC group
showed also oocytes at the early vitellogenesis stage, having a minimum diameter of 200 μm,
characterized by small eosinophilic (Fig. 1a) and anti-Vtg immunopositivity (Fig. 1b, c) in the
peripheral ooplasm. Sparse anti-Vtg positive granulosa cells were also observed in ovarian follicles
at this stage (Fig. 1b, c).

All the fish from the wild sampled in the advanced phase of the reproductive cycle (AW group) showed oocytes in advanced vitellogenesis (Fig. 2a) along with POFs. Oocytes in late vitellogenesis were present in all captive-reared females sampled in the same period (AC group); however, in three of them the majority of the oocytes were atretic (Fig 2b). All the fish sampled in the wild during the spawning period (SW group) were in spawning condition showing either POFs or hydrated oocytes (Fig. 2c). Captive-reared specimens sampled in the same period were in regressed condition, showing primary growth oocytes and extensive atresia of vitellogenic oocytes. The occurrence of late vitellogenesis follicles in the ovary was significantly higher in wild than in captive-reared greater amberjack females ($5.6 \pm 0.3 vs 2.9 \pm 0.4$ oocytes / mm² ovary section; P<0.05).

304

305 *3.2. Molecular characterization of greater amberjack vtgr and lrp13*

The complete greater amberjack vtgr cDNA was amplified from total cDNA by means of 306 overlapping PCR reactions and deposited in Genbank with the accession number (MK111068). The 307 308 nucleotide sequence of greater amberjack vtgr cDNA clone contained an open reading frame of 309 2532 bp encoding 844 amino acid residues. The amino acid sequence homology analysis showed high identities among Vtgr deduced amino acid sequences of greater amberjack and those of the 310 311 European seabass (Dicentrarchus labrax, GenBank: AAO92396.1) (97%), largemouth bass 312 (*Micropterus salmoides*, GenBank: HQ326241.1) (97%), Atlantic bluefin tuna (GenBank: HQ675023.1) (96%). Greater amberjack *vtgr* showed 100% identity to that of the greater amberjack 313 314 *vldlr* derived from the genomic sequence (GenBank: XM022744486.1; [58]). Moreover, greater amberjack Vtgr protein has the same structural characteristics of the Atlantic bluefin tuna Vtgr-315 protein [46] and it is not further described in the present paper. 316 The complete *lrp13* cDNA was amplified from total cDNA by means of overlapping PCR 317 reactions. Full-length cDNA sequence encoding greater amberjack *lrp13* was deposited in 318 GenBank with the accession number MH651044. The nucleotide sequence of greater amberjack 319 *lrp13* cDNA clone contained an open reading frame of 4098 bp encoding 1365 amino acid residues 320 (Fig. 3). The 5' untranslated region (5'UTR) of the transcripts, extended from nucleotide 1 to 30 321 and the 3' non-coding region (3'UTR) from nucleotide 4129 to 4177. The predicted mass of the 322

theoretical mature protein was 148.03 kDa and the isoelectric point at 4.64. The *in silico* analysis
of the Lrp13 deduced protein domains (Fig. 3) revealed typical characteristics of the LDLR gene
superfamily members: (a) low-density lipoprotein receptor domain class A (LDLa); (b) calciumbinding epidermal growth factor-like domain (EGF_CA); (c) low-density lipoprotein-receptor
YWTD domain (LY), (d) EGF-like domain (EGF); (e) LY domains; (f) a transmembrane domain;
(g) a cytoplasmic domain.

The greater amberjack Lrp13 deduced amino acid sequence showed 100% identity with greater amberjack VLDLR amino acid sequence derived from the genomic sequence (GenBank:

331 XM_022752886.1; [58]), 83% identity with with eperch (*Morone americana*, GenBank:

KF387534.1) Lrp13 amino acid sequence and 63% identity with cutthroat trout (*Oncorhynchus*

333 *clarkii*, GenBank: KR188876.1) amino acid sequence.

334

335 *3.3.Relative quantification of lrp13 and vtgr.*

Gene expression values for *lrp13* and *vtgr* in wild and captive-reared fish are reported in Table 3 336 337 and 4, respectively. The trend of *lrp13* expression levels in wild greater amberjack showed a slight 338 (although not significant; P=0.092) decrease from the early to the advanced gametogenesis phase and remained quite stable thereafter. In captive-reared fish, *lrp13* expression levels dropped 339 significantly from the early to the advanced phase of gametogenesis (P<0.05) and remained in the 340 same lower levels during the spawning phase. In all the examined phases and particularly during the 341 spawning phase, *lrp13* expression level was lower in captive-reared compared with wild fish 342 (P<0.01). The trend of *vtgr* expression levels in wild greater amberjack was similar to that of *lrp13*, 343 although no statistically significant differences were observed among the examined phases. The 344 expression levels of *vtgr* of captive-reared greater amberjack were significantly lower than those of 345 the wild counterpart during the early and advanced phases of gametogenesis. 346

- 347
- 348

349 *3.4. Fatty acid profiles of lipid classes.*

There were significant differences between wild and captive-reared greater amberjack in the fatty acid profiles of five different lipid fractions (PC, PS, PI, PE and TNL) in the ovaries of fish during the three analyzed periods of the reproductive cycle (Table 5). Other relevant fatty acids were oleic acid (18:1n-9), which varied in a similar way along the three periods in all lipid classes from both fish groups, being particularly abundant in the TNL fraction (20-30%), and linoleic acid (18:2n-6), also highly abundant in (Supplementary file 2) TNL from captive fish, ranging from 9.6 to 12.4% compared to values of 1.4 to 2.7% in wild specimens.

357 Remarkable differences in the fatty acid composition between ovaries of wild and captive

individuals were found during early gametogenesis for each single lipid fraction analyzed (Table 5).

359 At this period, all phospholipids of captive fish displayed dramatic increases of saturates (16:0 and

18:0) and decreases of ARA and DHA compared to their wild counterpart. Specifically, notable

reductions of DHA in PC and that of ARA in PI were observed $(23.4\pm2.1 \text{ vs } 2.5\pm0.0 \text{ and } 27.7\pm1.1 \text{ sc})$

362 *vs* 8.8±0.9, respectively). TNL also displayed this reduction in ARA and DHA levels, although their

363 content of saturates remained stable. It is also worth highlighting the constant proportion of EPA at

this stage, decreasing exclusively in the PC of reared specimens ($5.6\pm0.7 vs 1.2\pm0.0$).

The fatty acid profile of ovaries from captive fish resembled more closely that of their wild counterparts at advanced gametogenesis. The only differences found were the lower ARA in PC and TNL fractions, and a 2 to 4-fold increase of EPA in all lipid fractions of the captive-reared group (Table 5).

369 At spawning, the proportion of DHA in ovaries of captive fish was lower in PC ($22.7\pm0.9 vs$

28.2±0.5), PS (18.2±1.6 *vs* 23.0±0.2) and PE (32.7±0.6 *vs* 35.5±0.3) but higher in their TNL

fraction (19.3 ± 0.4 vs 16.1 ± 1.0) whereas EPA levels increased in PS and PI.

372

373

375 **4. Discussion**

In the present study, the complete greater amberjack *vtgr* and *lrp13* cDNA was amplified from total cDNA by means of overlapping PCR reactions. Ovarian expression of *vtgr* and *lrp13* genes, as well as fatty acid profiles of oocyte structural phospholipids, exhibited significant differences between wild and captive-reared specimens during the reproductive period, underlining the potential reproductive dysfunction that may take place when greater amberjack are not exposed to optimal rearing conditions and/or handling in captivity.

In teleost fish, as in other oviparous vertebrates, Vtg is incorporated in the oocytes by receptor-382 mediated endocytosis through receptors belonging to the Low Density Lipoprotein Receptor 383 384 (LDLR) family. These receptors have been given different names: VLDLR, Vtg Receptors (Vtgr) or Lr8- [21, 59]. The structural characteristics of these receptors have been described in several 385 teleosts [21, 46, 60-62], showing that they are produced from a highly conserved gene among 386 387 teleost. Recently, Lrp13, a novel vertebrate lipoprotein receptor that binds Vtgs was sequenced from striped bass, white perch, zebrafish (Danio rerio) and cutthroat trout ovaries [20]. In the present 388 389 study, *lrp13* was sequenced from greater amberjack ovaries and the deduced amino acid sequence 390 showed high similarity and homology with that reported by Reading et al. [20] in the striped bass and white perch, thus supporting their findings that the two main egg yolk precursors, VtgAa and 391 392 VtgAb are selectively bound by different receptors. The greater amberjack Lrp13 described in the present study showed all the expected structural characteristics of this receptor as demonstrated by 393 the in silico analysis: low-density lipoprotein receptor domains class A (LDLa); calcium-binding 394 395 epidermal growth factor-like domains; low-density lipoprotein-receptor YWTD domains; a transmembrane domain; a cytoplasmic domain. 396

The pattern of seasonal changes in *vtgr* and *lrp13* expression in wild greater amberjack showed that the gene transcription is more active in fish sampled during early gametogenesis (early May) when the dominant oocyte population was represented by primary growth oocytes and Vtg starts to be internalized in some oocytes, as shown by ovary immunostaining with anti-Vtg antibodies. This

is in agreement with previous observations in the Atlantic bluefin tuna [46], rainbow trout
(*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) [63], white perch [21] and eel (*Anguilla anguilla*) [64], as well as with
findings by Reading et al. [20], who found by *in situ* hybridization *lrp13* transcripts in striped bass
previtellogenic oocytes and suggested that vitellogenin receptor transcripts were synthesized in the
early phase of gametogenesis by previtellogenic oocytes and remained in the cell mRNA pool
during all the oocyte previtellogenic arrest, being finally translated into functionally active proteins
only when oocytes resumed meiosis and entered on their secondary growth.

Compared to the wild population, captive-reared greater amberjack showed significantly lower 408 vtgr transcript levels during the early and advanced gametogenesis phases, and lower lrp13 gene 409 410 expression during the spawning phase. This finding adds another reproductive dysfunction to the gametogenesis impairment already reported in greater amberjack under rearing conditions: low 411 relative gonad weight and sex steroid plasma levels; extensive oocyte atresia during the advanced 412 413 gametogenesis phase; precocious spermatogenesis arrest during the spawning phase [7, 9]. Rearing in captivity has been reported in many fishes to result in major atresia of vitellogenic follicles 414 415 during late gametogenesis and consequent incapacity of oocytes to proceed towards maturation and ovulation. We have recently reported that in captive-reared greater amberjack, also spermatogenesis 416 is impaired at an early stage [9], when concomitantly with a many-fold higher plasma E₂ 417 418 concentration, spermatogonial mitosis decreased and germ cell apoptosis increased. The reduced capacity of captive-reared greater amberjack to transcribe vitellogenin receptor 419 genes during previtellogenic growth was associated with a reduced number of vitellogenic oocytes 420 421 during the following phase of the reproductive cycle. We reported previously that the vitellogenic process does not seem to be altered in greater amberjack under rearing conditions, since both *vtg* 422 423 expression in the liver and oocyte yolk accumulation were similar to those of wild specimens [8]. However, in the present study we found that rearing in captivity together with handling during the 424 early reproductive season was associated with a reduced transcription of vitellogenin receptor genes 425 and with a diminished capacity of oocytes at the primary growth stage to enter vitellogenesis. In 426

other words, the rearing conditions resulted in a reduced reproductive potential (fecundity), as well
as lower sex steroid levels and the onset of follicular atresia [7]. Under these conditions, a hormonal
treatment with GnRHa applied at the expected spawning period would not be expected to induce
maturation, ovulation and spawning. In fact, when greater amberjack females at such a stage of
ovarian development were induced to spawn during the spawning period (June) using a hormonal
therapy with sustained-release GnRHa implants, the fish either failed to spawn or produced small
numbers of eggs of very low fertilization success [65].

In teleost fishes, the early phase of gametogenesis seems to be independent of gonadotropin and 434 sex steroids [66 and references cited therein] and, in fact, greater amberjack showed low steroid 435 436 plasma levels during this phase of the reproductive cycle [7]. This confirms further previous observations from other fishes indicating that *vtgr* transcription is not up regulated by estrogens [21, 437 46, 67, 68]. The complex regulation of this phase of oogenesis, which involves endocrine and 438 439 paracrine growth factors, is still far from been elucidated, therefore it is not possible to suggest any plausible hypothesis about the mechanism linking the stress caused by the handling in captivity to 440 441 the reported reduction of vtgr and lrp13 expression during primary oocyte growth. However, in the Senegalese sole (Solea senegalensis) liver, vldlr overexpression was associated to a high fat diet 442 [69], which suggests a possible role of the diet in the regulation of Vtg receptor transcription. In 443 444 captive-reared Atlantic bluefin tuna, the administration of an improved diet based on squid (Loligo and *Illex* spp.) to increase the content of high quality fatty acids and protein in the diet, was 445 associated with higher ovarian vtgr expression levels [46]. Considering that the ovaries of captive-446 447 reared greater amberjack showed a different phospholipid profile and a lower content of essential fatty acids in total lipids compared with the wild population [7], we cannot exclude the possibility 448 that a sub-optimal diet may have played a role in the observed reduction of vitellogenin receptor 449 450 transcription.

The entire period encompassed by pre-vitellogenic and vitellogenic growth seems to be a critical
timeframe for captive broodstock management, since appropriate conditioning, handling and diet

are required for oocyte growth and maturation and for the production of good quality eggs [17]. In 453 454 the regulation of vitellogenesis, cues signaling inadequate nutritional status or specific fat reserves may constrain vitellogenesis processes including signaling for vitellogenin receptors building. 455 Dietary ARA (20:4n-6) is preferentially accumulated in the gonad of fish species [29, Baeza et al. 456 doi: 10.1016/j.aquaculture.2014.10.016] and may provide the material base for regulating maturation 457 of the gonads, being more important for immature than for mature females in tongue sole 458 (Cynoglossus semilaevis) [29]. Miura et al. [70] proposed that ARA-derived progestins have a role 459 together with estrogens in the regulation of early stages of oogenesis in fish. Although the role for 460 progestins in early ovarian development is not clear, it has been also suggested that they regulate 461 462 gene transcription in early ovarian follicles [71].

A reduced transcription of greater amberjack vitellogenin receptor genes and a diminished capacity of oocytes to enter into secondary growth coincided in time with the strong imbalances of fatty acids (higher saturates and lower ARA and DHA contents) found in the structural lipids of the ovaries from captive-reared fish. The relative proportions of fatty acids of each molecular species of phospholipids is of great importance, because cell membrane competency is highly dependent on fluidity, ion transport, enzyme function and protein-bound membrane interactions regulated by fatty acids [72].

470 Omega-3 fatty acids, and also ARA have specific functions based on their structural characteristics. These functions include serving as ligands for several receptors, and components of 471 membrane glycerophospholipids (GPLs). Since ω -3 FAs (especially DHA) are highly flexible, the 472 levels of DHA of GPLs may affect membrane biophysical properties such as fluidity, flexibility, 473 and thickness [73]. Arachidonic acid bounds specifically PI and once it becomes free through the 474 action of a phospholipase A, it also modulates the function of ion channels, and several receptors 475 476 and enzymes, via activation as well as inhibition of complex pathways [74]. All phospholipids analyzed at early gametogenesis of captive greater amberjack in the present study were deficient in 477 478 both DHA and ARA.

Functional vitellogenin receptors localized in coated pits on the surface of oocytes are able to 479 internalize in vitellogenic oocytes high amounts of Vtg and other ligands they recognize. Therefore, 480 the mechanisms controlling the expression and modulation of vitellogenin receptors, will be key 481 determinants in effecting oocyte growth. Developmental changes in the maximum number of 482 binding sites is crucial [75] and the composition of the lipid matrix with high content of 483 phospholipids, particularly PE, with DHA chains is critical for membrane receptors. 484 485 Polyunsaturated DHA displays rapid structural conversions and there is growing evidence for a role of specific DHA-receptors interactions [76]. Docosahexaenoic acid has been pointed out as 486 particularly important in immature ovaries of tongue sole, although the mechanisms in which it is 487 488 involved have not yet been elucidated [29]. Therefore, from all these data it is evident that compared to greater amberjack breeders sampled in the wild, captive-reared females had a 489 deficiency of DHA and ARA in any of the structural GLPs analyzed and that the important 490 491 increases of SFA also observed, changed completely the scenario for building up sufficient and functional membrane structures, including receptor domains. It is, therefore, tempting to speculate 492 493 that these fatty acid imbalances contributed partially to the poor reproductive condition of the 494 captive individuals.

In conclusion, the present study confirmed the presence also in the greater amberjack of the 495 recently discovered receptor Lrp13. The reproductive dysfunctions observed in wild-caught 496 497 individuals reared in captivity arose during the early phase of oogenesis, when transcription of vitellogenin receptor genes appeared to be reduced. At the same time, dietary deficiencies of the 498 essential fatty acids DHA and ARA had altered widely the fatty acid profiles of the structural 499 phospholipids of the developing oocytes. This seems to suggest that a nutritional deficiency might 500 be co-responsible for the observed oogenesis impairment, caused by a handling-induced stress of 501 502 captive-reared fish.

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510 Authors' contributions

511 CP contributed to sampling, molecular and statistical analyses, manuscript writing. CR contributed

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- 514 JAP contributed to lipid biochemical and statistical analyses, manuscript writing. CCM contributed
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- analysis and manuscript writing. NS contributed to histological analysis and manuscript writing. LV
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520

521 **Declaration of interest**

- 522 The authors declare no competing or financial interests.
- 523

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773 Figure Captions

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Fig. 1. Micrographs of ovary sections from greater amberjack individuals sampled during the early 775 776 phase of the reproductive cycle. (a) Ovary section of a wild female showing cortical alveoli and early vitellogenic oocytes. Haematoxylin-eosin staining. (b) Ovary section from a captive-reared 777 female with an early vitellogenic oocyte showing anti-vitellogenin immunostaining in the peripheral 778 ooplasm and in some granulosa cells. Immunostaining with purified IgG fraction from rabbits 779 780 immunised with the portion from amino acid 764 to amino acid 1025 of the Atlantic bluefin tuna vitellogenin sequence. (c) Higher magnification of part of the early vitellogenic oocyte shown in 781 782 (b). Arrow, anti-vitellogenin positive ooplasm; arrowhead, anti-vitellogenin positive granulosa cell; dashed arrow, cortical alveoli oocyte; double arrow, early vitellogenic oocyte. Magnification bar = 783 200 µm in (a), 50 µm in (b) and 10 µm in (c). 784

Fig. 2. Micrographs of ovary sections from greater amberjack individuals sampled during the advanced and spawning phases of the reproductive cycle. (a) Ovary section from a wild fish sampled during the advanced phase showing late vitellogenic oocytes as the most advanced stage. (b) Ovary section from a captive-reared fish sampled during the advanced phase showing atretic vitellogenic follicles. (c) Ovary section from a wild fish sampled during the spawning phase showing hydrated oocytes. Haematoxylin-eosin staining. Magnification bars = 200 μ m. af = atretic vitellogenic follicles; ho = hydrated oocytes; lv = late vitellogenic oocytes.

Fig. 3. Greater amberjack Lrp13 amino acid sequence numbered from the initiator, methionine.
Arrows above the sequence indicate cysteine binding repeats, epidermal growth factor (EGF)
homologue repeats sequences (A, B, C, D, E), transmembrane and cytosolic domains. Cysteine
repeats, likely involved in protein folding, are numbered from I to XI and evidenced in violet. The
(Y/F)WXD motif, found in multiple tandem repeats and implicated in the β-strand formation, is

evidenced in green. The transmembrane and cytosolic domains in the C-terminal region are

| 798 | evidenced | in light | blue and | red, res | pectively. |
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