I dentification of a uni que I amprey gene with t andemhy repeat ed sequences and pharyngeal chondrocyte－speci fic expressi on

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| :---: | :---: |
| j our nal or publ icati on title | Gene |
| vol une | 701 |
| page r ange | 9－14 |
| year | 2019－06 |
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Identification of the unique gene with a tandemly-repeated sequences from lamprey which shows specific expression in the pharyngeal chondrocytes

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Abstract

Recent studies on invertebrate cartilage proposed that the origin of the vertebrate cartilage is in the chondroid connective tissues of invertebrate ancestors. A further issue was raised regarding vertebrate cartilage evolution-whether the evolution of cartilage from the chondroid connective tissues occurred in the common ancestors of vertebrates. Alternatively, the evolution of cartilage may have occurred independently in agnathans and in gnathostomes, because extant agnathans (cyclostomes) are known to possess a matrix composition distinct from that of gnathostomes. Here, we identified the gene which is likely to encode the second type of matrix protein unique to lamprey cartilage, pharymprin. Pharymprin shows specific expression in larval pharyngeal chondrocytes. Similar to those of lamprins, the known matrix proteins of the lamprey trabecular cartilage, pharymprin is also composed of repeat sequences. However, the repeat sequence is quite distinct from that of lamprins. The presence of two distinct matrix proteins in lamprey cartilage may be more consistent with the hypothesis that the true cartilage evolved independently in cyclostomes and gnathostomes.

Key words: lamprey, cartilage, pharyngeal arch, matrix, pharymprin

## Introduction

Vertebrates have four skeletal tissue types: cartilage, bone, enamel, and dentine (Hall, 2005). Evolution of these skeletons contributed to the elaboration of the unique body plan and life strategies of the vertebrates. However, the evolutionary sequence of the emergence of these skeletal tissues is debatable (Donoghue et al., 2006). Although extant species of Agnatha, the basal group of vertebrates, lack mineralized skeletal tissues, such as bone, enamel, or dentine, fossil species of agnathans did possess mineralized skeletal tissues as their dermal skeleton (Hardisty, 1981; Janvier, 1996; Donoghue et al., 2006).

Homology between the cartilage of extant Agnatha, such as lamprey and hagfish, with that of gnathostomes, is supported by their shared genetic machinery. For both types of skeleton, differentiation is regulated by the group E Sox genes (Sox8, 9, and 10 of amniotes; McCauley and Bronner-Fraser, 2006; Zhang et al., 2006; Ohtani et al., 2008). However, Sox $E$ regulation of cartilage differentiation may be traced further back, to the ancestral chordates (Kaneto and Wada, 2011; Jandzik et al., 2015), or possibly to the common ancestors of bilaterians (Tarazona et al., 2016). These studies highlight the alternative hypothesis that cartilage is not a novel characteristic of
vertebrates, but the origin of the cartilage date back to the common ancestors of bilaterians. This reminded us the hypothesis of Cole and Hall (2004a), proposing that the cartilage evolved from chondroid connective tissue of the metazoan ancestors. Cole and Hall (2004a) defined the cartilage as rigid connective tissue composed of large cells (chondrocytes) distinct from other connective tissue cells. The chondrocytes are embedded within an extracellular matrix of varying abundance that has high amounts of fibrous protein. According to this criteria, they proposed that cartilage evolved convergently in vertebrates and cephalopods (Cole and Hall, 2004a; Cole and Hall, 2004b; Tarazona et al., 2016). This hypothesis raises another issue-whether the evolution from the ancestral chondroid connective tissue to the true cartilage occurred in the common ancestors of agnathans and gnathostomes, or whether it occurred independently in each of these lineages. The latter issue stems from the differences in the biochemical nature of the cartilage of gnathostomes and that of extant agnathans, the cyclostomes (Wright et al., 1983).

Whereas fibrillar collagen (type II collagen) is the most abundant matrix in the gnathostome cartilage, it is a rather minor component of cyclostome cartilage, and present only in the peripheral catilage (Wright et al., 1983; Hall, 2005). Additionally,
the next major matrix component of gnathostome cartilage, aggrecan, is not encoded in the lamprey genome (Smith et al., 2018). Instead, cyclostome cartilage is known to have a unique matrix composition, where the abundant matrix protein is more similar to elastin and insoluble to CNBr (Wright et al., 1983).

In the case of lamprey, the elastin-like molecule lamprin was identified as the major matrix component ( $44-51 \%$ of dry weight) of annular cartilage (Wright et al., 1983; Robson et al., 1993; Robson et al., 1997; Robson et al., 2000). Lamprin has several repeats of GGLGY, which are flanked by short unique sequences (Robson et al., 1993; Robson et al., 2000). Although the repeat sequence is similar to that of avian egg shell protein or insect amniote proteins the repeat sequence evolved convergently in each lineage (Robson et al., 2000). Lamprin function as the major matrix of other cartilage, such as trabecular and piston cartilage, whereas the major matrix component of branchial, pericardial, and nasal cartilages remains to be characterized (Robson et al., 1997). Hagfish are also known to possess a unique cartilage matrix, myxinine; however, their amino acid sequence has not yet been characterized (Wright et al., 1984).

To understand the early evolution of the vertebrate skeleton, molecular characterizations of cyclostome cartilages are of critical importance. Here, we report the
molecular identification of the matrix component of the lamprey pharyngeal arch. Our study is based on the pioneering study by Wright et al. (2001), who reported the N -terminal sequence of the matrix of pharyngeal cartilage. By referring to this sequence, we identified the novel gene which is likely to encode the matrix protein of the lamprey pharyngeal cartilage.

Materials and Methods

Animals

Adult Arctic lampreys (Lethenteron camtschaticum) were collected from the Shiribeshi-Toshibetsu River, Hokkaido, Japan. Mature eggs were retrieved from females that were anesthetized with ethyl 3-aminobenzoate methanesulfonate (MS-222) and fertilized in vitro. Embryos were cultured at $16^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. Developmental stages were designated based on a previous report (Tahara, 1988). Adult specimens of L. sp. N were collected from the Kamo River, Toyama, Japan (Yamazaki and Goto, 1998; Yamazaki et al., 2006).

Molecular characterization of pharymprin

We performed transcriptome analysis on samples of stage (st.) 25-26 larvae. Total RNA was extracted using Trizol reagent (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA), treated with DNase, and cleaned using the RNeasy kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Construction of paired-end (200 bp), duplex-specific nuclease normalized library and sequencing on the Hiseq4000 platform (Illumina) were performed by the Beijing Genomics Institute. The raw reads were deposited in the DDBJ Sequence Reads Archives (XXXXXXXXXXX).

The low-quality reads were filtered and trimmed with Trimmomatic (v0.33; Bolger et al.,
2014). De novo assembly was conducted using Trinity (trinity_r20140707; Grabherr et al., 2011).

From the assembled gene models, we searched for the N -terminal sequence of the matrix protein in the lamprey pharyngeal cartilage (Wright et al., 2001). Among the three amino acid sequence, GAGADVCGAP and YAPGPG did not retrieve sequence by BLAST search. By using the longest sequence (AGPGGYGQGGGGPGGYGPG), we retrieved a single gene model. By referring to the assembled sequence, we designed a pair of primers with which we amplified cDNAs of pharymprins from L. camtschaticum and L. sp. N (Genbank Acc.Nos. LC413899, and LC413900).

In situ hybridization

RNA probes for in situ hybridization were made using PCR fragments. We prepared template DNA for probe synthesis by using a reverse primer with a $20-\mathrm{bp}$ T3 promoter sequence. In situ hybridization was performed as described by Ogasawara et al. (2000) with some minor modifications.

Results and Discussion

Molecular characterization

Wright et al. (2001) partially characterized the CNBr insoluble matrix protein of the Petromyzon marinus pharyngeal cartilage. They determined partial amino acid sequences of peptides generated by thermolysin digestion of CNBr -insoluble protein. By referring to one of the amino acid sequences of the CNBr -insoluble protein from pharyngeal cartilage (AGPGGYGQGGGGPGGYGPG; Wright et al., 2001), we retrieved a gene model sequence by BLAST search from our transcriptome data of st. 26 embryo of Lethenteron camtschaticum. Because the amino acid sequence contains several repeat sequences, we thought we should avoid the risk of using the wrong gene model. Thus, we performed RT-PCR from the RNA of st. 25-26 larvae using the primers designed from the gene model (Fig. 1). The resultant sequence is two repeats shorter than the predicted gene model of the transcriptome (Fig. 1). Next, we examined the amino acid composition of pharymprin after a conceptual treatment with CNBr that cleaves proteins at methionine residue. The Amino acid composition of the pharymprin of L. camtschaticum is reasonably fit with that reported for the CNBr -insoluble matrix of $P$. marinus (Table 1). These evidences support that the isolated gene is likely to
encode the CNBr-insoluble matrix protein of pharyngeal cartilage. Thus, we designated this gene as pharymprin (pharyngeal cartilage matrix distinct from lamprin).

Pharymprin of L. camtschaticum possessed 28 repeats of GG(F/Y)(G/A)P(G/A)GGP with some variations (Fig. 1); these are flanked by unique sequences in the N -terminus and C-terminus. The unit sequence GGY(G/A)P(G/A)GGP is distinct from that of lamprin: GGLGY(Robson et al., 1993; Robson et al., 2000). By comparing it to the genome sequence of $L$. camtschaticum
(http://jlampreygenome.imcb.a-star.edu.sg/), we extrapolated the genome structure of pharymprin and found that the coding sequence did not contain any introns.

Expression of pharymprin during development

To determine whether pharymprin is expressed as part of the pharyngeal cartilage matrix, we performed in situ hybridization using larvae. No expression was detected in specimens from st. 24 to 27 . The earliest signal was detected from larvae of st. 28 in the chondrocytes of pharyngeal arch 3 and 4 (Fig. 2A). The signal was detected in the middle of the cartilage rod along the dorsal-ventral axis. (Yao et al., 2008) described the development of the lamprey pharyngeal cartilage using histological Weigert staining.

The patterns of pharymprin expression and Weigert staining are similar with respect to the first signal that arises from the middle of the cartilage rod along the dorsal-ventral axis.

During development, the pharymprin expression emerges in chondrocytes of more posterior pharyngeal arches (Fig. 3A-E). By the end of st. 28 , the pharymprin expression is also detected in the epitrematic process (EP), hypotrematic bars(HTB), but not in the subchordal rods (Fig. 3E, F). Note that matrix secretion for the subchordal rod was visualized by weigert staining in 50-day-old larvae, but not in st. 30 larvae; namely, the matrix secretion is later in subchordal rods than the other pharyngeal skeletal elements (Yao et al., 2008). In stage 29, the signal becomes weaker in the middle part (along the dorso-ventral axis) of the rod from the anterior pharyngeal arch (Fig. 3F). In stage 30, the expression was also detected in hypobranchial bars (HBB). Although trabecular and parachordal cartilage was visualized in st. 30 larvae using Weigert staining (Yao et al., 2008), the pharymprin expression was not observed in trabecular and parachordal cartilage of younger than st. 30 (Fig. 3E, F). This is consistent with lamprin expression in trabecular cartilage (McBurney et al., 1996).

Molecular evolution of the pharymprin

To trace the molecular evolutionary process of the pharymprin, we then searched for the pharymprin sequence in $L$. sp. N and $P$. marinus (Fig. 3). Pharymprin cDNA from $L$. sp. N, amplified from RNA of ammocoete larvae by using the primers for L. camtschaticum, showed an almost identical sequence to that of L. camtschaticum (Fig. 3). Although some amino acid substitutions were observed in repeat sequences, the number of repeats was the same. In the current gene models of $P$. marinus, we did not retrieve the full cDNA sequence of pharymprin (Smith et al., 2018). However, absence of introns in the L. camtschaticum pharymprin encouraged us to examine the genome sequence assembly of $P$. marinus. We retrieved almost a full sequence of the pharymprin encoding region. Because we did not find the first methionine (Fig. S1), the pharymprin gene of $P$. marinus is likely to possess introns in the N -terminus. We found that the overall structure of the pharymprin molecule of $P$. marinus was similar to that of Lethenteron. In the genome sequence of $P$. marinus pharymprin, a unique insert was found in the C-terminal region (shaded in Fig. 3). We cannot, however, exclude the possibility that this region may be spliced out in mRNA, because the insert started from GT and ended with AG (Fig. S1).

We searched for similar sequences from the genomes (unmasked assembly sequences) of human, mouse, frog, zebrafish, amphioxus, fly, nematode, limpet, polycheate and jelly fish, but we did not find any.

Implication for the evolution of vertebrate cartilage

Here, we reported the molecular characterization of the gene: pharymprin, which is likely to encode the second matrix protein unique to lamprey cartilage. Although both lamprin and pharymprin consist of repeat sequences, their repeat unit is quite different: GGLGY for lamprin and GG(Y/F)(G/A)AAGGP for pharymprin. Although we cannot exclude the possibility that lamprin and pharymprin evolved from a single ancestral gene, we prefer the idea that lampreys evolved two distinct molecules for the evolution of their cartilage, because of the distinct sequence of the repeat unit. The gnathostomes kept type II collagen as their main matrix molecule since the divergence of extant cartilaginous fish and the rest of the gnathostomes (Hall, 2005). In addition, aggrecan was recruited as the second major matrix component in gnathostomes. On the other hand, we present an evidence that the lamprey possess two matrix protein for their cartilage, and they are likely to have evolved independently. In addition, Robson et al.
(1997) suggested a third type of matrix molecule in the lamprey notochord sheath and fins. These observations may favor the idea that the evolution from the ancestral chondroid connective tissue to the cartilage occurred independently in cyclostomes and gnathostomes. We note that the hypothesis of independent evolution of cartilage is not unexpected considering that the acquired immune system of lamprey and gnathostomes developed using distinct molecular mechanisms (Pancer et al., 2004). This hypothesis should be examined using a more comprehensive comparison of the matrix molecules of cyclostomes and gnathostomes.

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## Legends for Figures

Figure 1. Nucleotide and predicted amino acid sequence of pharymprin from $L$. camtschaticum. Repeat sequences are highlighted by boxes. Nucleotide sequences
which is retrieved from the assembled gene model of transcriptome, but not confirmed by the RT-PCR products were double-underlined.

Figure 2. Expression of pharymprin in larvae of L. camtschaticum. (A) Expression was detected in the skeletal rods of third and fourth pharyngeal arches (PA3 and PA4) from st. 28. (B-D) During st. 28, the expression emerges in more posterior arches. (E) Before the end of st. 28, expression comes out in the epitrematic process (EP), hypotrematic bars (HTB). (F) At stage 29, the signal becomes weaker in the middle part (along the dorso-ventral axis) of the rod from the anterior pharyngeal arch. (G) Ventral view of yiew of st. 30 larva, showing the expression in hypobranchial bars (HBB). (H, I) Sagital (H) and transverse (I) section of st. 28 larva shown as (h, i) in (C). Scale bars: $100 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in $\mathrm{A}-\mathrm{H}$, and $50 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in I.

Figure 3. Alignment of the amino acid sequences of pharymprin from L. camtschaticum, $L$. sp. N and P. marinus. Repeat sequences are boxed. Sequences possibly spliced out from the $P$. marinus sequence was shaded.

Table 1. Amino acid composition of the CNBr -insoluble protein from pharyngeal cartilage and phary

|  | Branchial cartilage <br> (Robson et al. 1997) | $\%$ | Lc_pharymprin | $\%$ | Pm_pharymprin | $\%$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ASX | 66 | 6.6 | 9 | 2.0 | 10 | 2.4 |
| THR | 14 | 1.4 | 3 | 0.7 | 2 | 0.5 |
| SER | 43 | 4.3 | 18 | 4.0 | 16 | 3.8 |
| GLX | 60 | 6.0 | 9 | 2.0 | 9 | 2.1 |
| PRO | 131 | 13.1 | 69 | 15.3 | 64 | 15.1 |
| GLY | 323 | 32.3 | 168 | 37.3 | 156 | 36.9 |
| ALA | 169 | 16.9 | 96 | 21.3 | 88 | 20.8 |
| VAL | 30 | 3.0 | 7 | 1.6 | 9 | 2.1 |
| MET | $<2.0$ | $<0.2$ | 1 | 0.2 | 0 | 0.0 |
| ILU | 15 | 1.5 | 1 | 0.2 | 2 | 0.5 |
| LEU | 31 | 3.1 | 5 | 1.1 | 6 | 1.4 |
| TYR | 47 | 4.7 | 32 | 7.1 | 32 | 7.6 |
| PHE | 16 | 1.6 | 7 | 1.6 | 6 | 1.4 |
| LYS | 13 | 1.3 | 9 | 2.0 | 8 | 1.9 |
| HIS | 14 | 1.4 | 3 | 0.7 | 2 | 0.5 |
| ARG | 29 | 2.9 | 13 | 2.9 | 13 | 3.1 |
| Total | 1000 | 100 | 450 | 100 | 423 | 100 |





 GGGGGGTACGGCCCAGGGGCAGGAGGTTACAGTCCAGGGGGAGCAAAGGTCGGTAATGGT








 CAGCAGGAGGAGCTGGTGGTTTTGGCCCAGCAGCAAGCAAAGCCGGTGGTTATGGTCCAG


 GGTTATGCACCAGCAGCAGGAGGACCTGGACAGTCTGGTCCAGGGGCAGGAGGACCAGGC
 GGGAATGGGGCTGGAGGTAAGCCTAACGGACATGCCCCAGCAGCCGGTGGCCAACCTGGC TTTGCACCAAGGCCTAGCGCATTTGGTCCAGGGTCAGGGGGACCTGGATCTTATCCAGGA GCAGGAGCTGGTGGATATGGACAAAAGGCATCTGGCTATGCCCCAAGGGCAGGGGGACCT


 TACGGACCTGGGGCTGGAGGAGGAGGATACGCGCCCGCAGCCGGAGCTCGCTCACAGTTC

TACATGAAGCTCTCCTCTAAGTGTTCCCAAAGGAGACAGCTCGGTAAGAGTGCGTGA


