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1	Skeletogenesis in Persian sturgeon (Acipenser persicus, Borodin, 1897) and its					
2	correlation with the gene expression of vitamin K dependent proteins along larval					
3	development					
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18	Running title: Skeletogenesis in Acipenser persicus					
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21 ABSTRACT

22 The present study describes morphological development of the skeleton in the Persian 23 sturgeon Acipenser persicus Borodin 1897, and discusses the hhypothesis that genes 24 encoding vitamin k-dependant proteins (VKDPs) might have a correlation with the 25 mineralization of skeletal tissues during early development in sturgeons. Results showed that the development of cartilage started just after hatching $(10.9 \pm 0.7 \text{ mm in total})$ 26 27 length, $L_{\rm T}$) in the head and notochord, whereas the first signs of mineralization occurred 28 in the dentary and in the dermopalatine and palatopterygoid elements of the upper jaw, 29 coinciding with the onset of exogenous feeding ($20.1 \pm 1.5 \text{ mm } L_T$). All branchial arch elements were developed between 19.3 and 22.3 mm L_T , whereas mineralization was 30 only observed in tooth plates associated with the hypobranchial 1 and gill rakers at 20.8 31 32 ± 1.5 mm $L_{\rm T}$ and 48.4 ± 6.4 mm $L_{\rm T}$, respectively. Quantitative real-time PCR showed 33 that transcripts of VKDP genes including bone Gla protein (bgp), matrix Gla protein 34 (mgp) and Gla rich protein (grp) were significantly up-regulated during the transition to 35 exogenous feeding, supporting hypotheses about relevance of the above-mentioned genes in chondrogenesis at early deverlopmental stages. The strong mineralization of 36 skeletal elements from 21.5 - 27.3 mm $L_{\rm T}$ (20 dph) was in accordance with the maximal 37 38 levels of *bgp*, *mgp* and *grp* expression indicating a correlation between development of 39 the skeleton and the expression of VKDP genes. This information may be considered as a reference for future studies evaluating the quality of larvae and the influence of rearing 40 41 biotic and abiotic factors on skeletogenesis and the occurrence of skeletal deformities in this species. 42

43 Key words: development, gene expression, skeleton, vitamin k-dependant proteins.

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INTRODUCTION

47 The fish skeletal system provides mechanical support to soft tissues and levers for muscle action, providing greater efficiency for locomotion, among other functions such 48 as the mobilization or deposition of calcium and phosphorus which contributes to 49 calcium homeostasis (Boglione et al., 2013a). Skeletogenesis is therefore important not 50 only for understanding changes in swimming behaviour (Osse & Van den Boogart, 51 1995), but also for evaluating the quality of hatchery-produced fish (Boglione et al., 52 2013a, b). Skeletal abnormalities mostly appear during larval and early juvenile stages, 53 when the skeleton differentiates and achieves its definitive configuration (Boglione et 54 al., 2013a). Many factors such as physiological, environmental, genetic, xenobiotic and 55 56 nutritional can affect this process (Boglione et al., 2013b); therefore, analysis of the 57 skeletal system at early stages of development is an useful tool for assessing rearing 58 conditions (i.e. environmental and nutritional) and their quality, regardless of whether 59 fish are to be used for stocking or food production. Skeletogenesis must also be understood to understand the expression of skeleton-associated genes and proteins 60 (Gavaia et al., 2006; Fernández et al., 2011). The formation of bones and other 61 62 cartilaginous and mineralized tissues in fishes depends upon the expression of a wide variety of genes (Boglione et al. 2013a). This study examines a particular group of 63 64 genes coding for vitamin k-dependant proteins (VKDPs), also known as γ carboxyglutamic acid (Gla) proteins, including bone Gla protein (BGP), matrix Gla 65 protein (MGP) and Gla rich protein (GRP) (see review in Dourado-Villa et al., 2017). 66

These proteins belong to the family of Ca²⁺-binding vitamin K-dependent proteins and 67 are recognized by having several Gla residues that are converted from the post-68 translation modifications of specific glutamates (Glu) via the γ -glutamyl carboxylase 69 enzyme (GGCX) (Vermeer, 1990; Viegas et al., 2008). Both BGP (osteocalcin) and 70 MGP are important in the regulation of mineral deposition in calcified tissues 71 72 (Hashimoto et al., 2001; Viegas et al., 2013). BGP is synthesized by osteoblasts and 73 odontoblasts and functions as a regulator of bone maturation (Boskey et al., 1998; Krossøy et al., 2009). MGP is also synthesized by osteoblasts but, in contrast to BGP, it 74 75 is also synthesized by a wide variety of other cells, like vascular smooth muscle cells and chondrocytes (Krossøy et al., 2009). MGP is believed to be more important for 76 77 regulating mineral deposition in vascular system and cartilage and it has a minor role in the regulation of chondrocyte maturation (Luo et al., 1997). GRP may also directly 78 influence mineral formation, thereby playing a role in processes involving connective 79 tissue mineralization (Viegas et al., 2009). In the skeleton, most relevant levels of grp 80 gene expression have been observed in cartilaginous tissues and associated with 81 chondrocytes and chordoblasts (Viegas et al., 2009; Cancela et al., 2012), suggesting a 82 83 role in chondrogenesis. However, grp expression has also been detected in bone cells, which is indicative of a more widespread role for the protein throughout skeletal 84 85 formation (Cancela et al., 2012; Dourado-Villa et al., 2017). Previous studies in teleosts 86 have revealed an increase in expression of both *bgp* and *mgp* genes, paralleling calcification of axial skeleton structures during larval development (Gavaia et al., 2006). 87 88 Despite the potential role of VKDPs in soft tissue mineralization and bone formation, 89 little is known about the expression of genes encoding VKDPs (*i.e. mgp, bgp* and *grp*)

during sturgeon larval development. However, it has been found that the expression of *bgp*, *mgp* and *grp* genes in cartilaginous and bony tissues occurs in higher levels in adult
sturgeons compared to mammals (Viegas *et al.*, 2008; Viegas *et al.*, 2013) and teleosts
(Krossøy *et al.*, 2009).

94 Continuous drastic declines in natural sturgeon populations over the past 30 95 years plus a high market demand for caviar have led the way for sturgeon farming, mainly for the production of caviar. According to Bronzi et al. (2011), the caviar output 96 97 from aquaculture was 260 t in 2012, a production that was estimated to increase up to 500-750 t within the next 10 years. Sturgeons belong to the order Acipenseriformes 98 99 (infraclass Chondrostei) and can provide useful information about mechanisms involved 100 in the evolution of vertebrates, especially teleost fishes (Viegas *et al.*, 2013). 101 Acipenseriformes diverged from the lineage leading to teleosts during the Devonian Age 102 of Fishes (~385 million years ago) (Near et al., 2012) and in contrast to teleosts, they 103 have retained a dermal skeleton (Jollie, 1980; Grande & Hilton, 2006; Hilton et al., 104 2011). As Leprévost & Sire (2014) reviewed, few morphological studies on the skeleton 105 of Acipenseriformes are available, even though a renewed interest in sturgeon biology 106 has recently been promoted by their commercial importance, uniqueness and almost 107 universally endangered status (Findeis, 1997). This information is incomplete and 108 fragmented in terms of species, and also in terms of age; in particular, out of the 25 living acipenserid species, the skeleton of only 13 species and a hybrid has been studied, 109 110 and the axial skeleton is often not the main topic of such studies (Leprevost & Sire, 111 2014). Considering the unique properties of the skeleton in Acipenseriformes, including an internal cartilaginous skeleton, five rows of bony plates, ganoid scales on the body 112

113 surface, and lack of a vertebral centrum (Viegas et al., 2008; Viegas et al., 2010), coupled with their distinctive skeletogenesis, it is worth investigating normal patterns of 114 skeletal development, which will be essential to accurately assess deformities in 115 116 hatchery-produced fry, detect critical stages during skeletogenesis and improve actual 117 larval rearing practices in this commercially important and endangered group. Thus, the 118 objectives of the present study were to describe the ontogenetic development of the skeleton of hatchery-reared Persian sturgeon (Acipenser persicus Borodin 1897), as 119 well as to evaluate changes in the expression of genes encoding for VKDPs including 120 121 bgp, mgp and grp, which are known to be involved in the formation and mineralization of skeletal tissue. 122

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MATERIAL AND METHODS

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127 ANIMALS AND SAMPLING PROTOCOL

128 Specimens of A. persicus were obtained from broodstock held at the Shahid Beheshti 129 Artificial Sturgeon Propagation and Rearing Center (Rasht, Iran). Six adult individuals (two males and four females) were induced to spawn and spermiate with an 130 intramuscular injection of LHRH-A2 hormone (3 µg kg⁻¹ body weight). Egg 131 adhesiveness was removed by a 45-min treatment with a clay-water suspension; 132 133 fertilised eggs were transferred to 15-L Yoshchenko incubators (500 g eggs per 134 incubator) connected to an open-flow freshwater system. During the egg incubation period, water temperature was 14.4 °C and progressively increased up to 17.4 °C; 135

prelarvae hatched seven days after fertilization. At hatching, prelarvae were transferred 136 to three 500-L circular fiberglass tanks with water depth of 30 cm, and initial density of 137 10 larvae L⁻¹ (10 g prelarvae per tank). Artemia nauplii were administered to larvae from 138 eight days post hatching (dph) (150.2 degree days post hatching, ddph) to 12 dph (237.2 139 ddph) five times per day; after which larvae were fed with a mixture of cladocerans 140 141 (Daphnia sp.) and Artemia metanauplii from 12 to 50 dph. Samples were taken at 10 different times: at hatching (0), 1, 3, 6, 10, 12, 14, 20, 30 and 50 dph. Fish were 142 euthanized by an overdose of tricaine methanesulfonate (MS-222, Argent, Chemistry 143 144 Laboratories, Redmond, USA), with 10 individuals immediately deep-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C until RNA extraction. Ten additional individuals from the 145 above-mentioned time-points were also fixed in 4% buffered formalin for descriptive 146 147 purposes.

During fish rearing, water temperature, dissolved oxygen and pH levels were 148 14.2 ± 0.9 °C, 7.9 ± 1.2 mg l⁻¹ and 7.4 ± 0.5 , respectively. Photoperiod was 12L: 12D, 149 and light intensity 200 lux at the water surface. Before fixation, the left side of each 150 151 specimen was photographed using a Cannon camera (EOS 20D, 8 MP resolution) 152 coupled to a stereomicroscope (EP600, Nikon, Japan), and total length (L_T) measured to the nearest mm using ImageJ (version 1.240). Yolk sac volume was determined 153 154 according to Eshaghzadeh et al. (2017). Developmental stages of A. persicus were 155 designated as prelarva, larva and early juvenile according to Dettlaff et al. (1993). The experimental work and fish procedures were carried out according to the requirements 156 157 of The Iranian Society for The Prevention of Cruelty to Animals.

159 STAINING OF THE SKELETON

In order to describe the process of skeletogenesis in A. persicus, fish were stained 160 according to Hanken & Wassersug (1981). Briefly, samples were transferred into 100% 161 162 ethanol, rehydrated in gradually decreasing ethanol series (75, 50, and 25 %), and washed with distilled water. Fish were incubated in Alcian blue (AB) solution (10 mg 163 164 Alcian blue 8GX, SIGMA A5268 in 70 ml absolute alcohol and 30 ml acetic acid). Larvae were then incubated in a trypsin solution (1 g trypsin in 30% saturated borax 165 solution dissolved in 70 ml distilled water) for 2-8 hours depending on fish size. For 166 167 mineralized elements staining, specimens were transferred into a staining solution containing 0.5% KOH and Alizarin red S (SIGMA T4799). Finally, fish were washed 168 with distilled water and then incubated in the gradually increasing series of glycerol + 169 170 1% KOH (25%, 50%, 75%, and pure glycerol) for clearing and complete elimination of the nonspecific staining of soft tissues. Staining of cartilaginous skeletal structures by 171 172 Alcian blue solution at low pH values (pH = 2.0) did not result in important staining skeletal artifacts [poor staining of mineralized elements, which are few in the skeleton of 173 Acipenseriformes (Hilton et al., 2011; Leprevost & Sire, 2014)], since mineralized 174 175 elements were not decalcified during the cartilage staining step. Thus, the acid double 176 staining protocol used in this study (Hanken & Wasserug, 1981) was compared with the 177 acid-free staining protocol from Walker and Kimmel (2007) in early juveniles aged 50 178 dph (Figure 1).

179 TOTAL RNA EXTRACTION AND COMPLEMENTARY DNA SYNTHESIS

Total RNA was extracted from three separate individuals (biological replicates) using
Bioizol Reagent (Bioflux-Bioer, China) and treated with DNase I (Fermentas, France)

according to the manufacturer's instructions. The integrity of RNA was evaluated in a 1.5 % agarose electrophoresis gel and RNA quantity was determined by a NanoDrop ND-1000 Spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Wilmington, DE, USA). All RNA samples had 260/280 ratios of 1.8-2.0 and 260/230 values of 2.0-2.2. One microgram of total RNA was used to synthesize first-strand cDNAs using a MMuLV reverse transcriptase and 2.5μ M oligo-dT following the manufacturer's instructions (Fermentas, France).

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189 PRIMER DESIGN AND QUANTITATIVE REAL-TIME PCR (qPCR)

190 The qPCR primers for *bgp* and *grp* were designed based on sequences available in GenBank (accession numbers: EF413584, EU482149.1) from Adriatic sturgeon (A. 191 nacarii) (Viegas et al., 2008). Regarding mgp, primers were designed considering the 192 193 sequence for A. nacarii (accession number: HM182000.1) and from two Teleostei species: turbot (Scophthalmus maximus (Linnaeus 1758)) and gilthead seabream (Sparus 194 aurata (Linnaeus 1758)) (accession numbers: DQ304476.1, AY065652.1). qPCR 195 primers were designed for each gene using Primer3 (Table 1) and the specificity and 196 size of the amplicons obtained with primer pairs were checked on a 1.5% agarose gel. 197 198 The fragments were sequenced using the ABI 3130 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems, USA). Chromatograms were checked and sequences manually aligned 199 200 using the program BioEdit software Version 5. Identities of the sequences were verified 201 by BLAST (http://ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST). Sequences obtained for bgp, grp, and mgp in A. persicus were submitted to GenBank (accession numbers: MF687668, MF687669 202 203 and MF687670, respectively). Primers for ribosomal protein L6 (*rpl6*) and β -actin 204 (*actb*), and their geometric average of messenger RNA (mRNA) level were used for the
205 standardization of expression levels (Akbarzadeh *et al.*, 2011).

Quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) was run on a CFX96 Real-Time PCR 206 207 Detection System (Bio-Rad, USA), using the CFX manager 1.6 software (Bio-Rad) and the following PCR protocol: pre-denaturation at 94 °C for 1 min, 40 cycles of 208 denaturation at 94 °C for 15 s, annealing at 60 °C for 15 s, and extension at 72 °C for 30 209 s. Each reaction was performed using a total volume of 12 µl solution, with 1 x SYBR 210 Green Bio-Easy mastermix (Bioer-Bioflux), 2.5 µM of ROX reference dye, 100 nM of 211 212 each primer with 2 µl of cDNA template. Baseline, threshold (for Ct calculation), melting curve analysis (for verify the specificity of the target and absence of primer 213 dimers) and standard curves (for PCR efficiency) among samples were determined as 214 215 described in Akbarzadeh et al. (2011). Prior to statistical analysis, an amplification efficiency (E) was determined for each target gene as $E\% = (10^{1/\text{slope}} - 1) \times 100$, where 216 the slope was estimated plotting the Ct in a serial dilutions of cDNA. Amplification 217 efficiencies for all target and reference genes ranged between 91 to 99%. The mRNA 218 219 expression of target genes (*bgp*, *mgp*, *grp*) relative to the reference genes (*actb* and *rpl6*) was calculated by the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method (Livak & Schmittgen, 2001). Among the 220 221 developmental time-points, the sample at 1 dph was chosen as the reference sample to 222 evaluate the differential mRNA expression of target genes.

223

224 *STATISTICS*

All qRT-PCR data were log-transformed and the homogeneity of variances and
normality were assessed by Bartlett's and Kolmogorov–Smirnov tests, respectively.

227	Differences in gene expression data between different developmental time-points were
228	analyzed by a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), followed by a Tukey's HSD
229	post hoc analysis for multiple comparisons. Differences were considered statistically
230	significant at $P < 0.05$. SPSS (version 19.0) was used for statistical analysis.
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233	RESULTS
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235	MORPHOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENT AND SKELETOGENESIS
236	At hatching, prelarvae measured 10.9 ± 0.7 mm in L_T and weighed 19.6 ± 0.3 mg in
237	body weight (BW), showing a large yolk-sac ($17 \cdot 2 \pm 4 \cdot 4 \text{ mm}^3$). The posterior part of the
238	body was surrounded by a wide primordial finfold, and no mineralized skeletal
239	structures were visible (Figure 1a). Microscopic observations showed that sensory
240	organs such as olfactory, gustatory and vision were not developed when prelarvae
241	emerged from egg envelopes. At one dph (12.3 \pm 0.9 mm $L_{\rm T}$), the mouth and gill
242	openings were cleaved with four branchial arches (AB-negative, but visible by
243	transparency through the opercular region), pigmented eyes and barbel buds were also
244	visible, and rudiments of the pectoral fin appeared like distinct folds. The head began to
245	straighten and cartilaginous skeletal pieces started to stain with AB (Figure 1b). At three
246	dph (14·1 ± 0·5 mm L_T), the finfold was wider on the ventral side of the trunk, narrowed
247	at the caudal peduncle, and protruded slightly in the region where the future dorsal,
248	caudal and anal fins will develop, the melanin plug (accumulation of melanin residues
249	derived from yolk sac consumption) was visible in the anterior intestine, eyes were

250 darkly pigmented, the paired and single fins in the tail and trunk were still invisible. Lower and upper lips were covered by small folds around the buccal cavity, and the 251 252 Meckel's and palatoquadrate cartilages appeared in the mandible and maxillary areas, 253 respectively (Figure 1c). At six dph ($17.3 \pm 0.8 \text{ mm } L_T$), the size of barbels increased 254 and the branchial cavity showed that external gills were not completely covered by the 255 operculum yet. Olfactory holes were joined to each other by olfactory lobes, yolk sac 256 was divided into two unequal parts and most of the yolk-sac was consumed, showing a reduction in volume of about 76.2 % (Fig. 1d). 257

At 10 dph (19.9 \pm 1.7 mm L_T), the dorsal fin was distinguishable from the 258 259 bordered margin of the posterior part of primordial finfold, teeth were already detected 260 in both jaws, but they were not mineralized (Figure 2a), and the rudiments of dorsal scutes (n = 9-11) were observed stained in Alcian blue in the dorsal part of the finfold. 261 262 Branchiostegals were clearly visible in the splanchnocranium, and gill arches were 263 completely formed. Several unmineralized structures, such as two basibranchial copulae, three hypobranchials and five ceratobranchials were visible on the ventral portion of the 264 265 branchial arches at 10 dph (Figure 2d). Also, un-mineralized hyoid arches including the 266 hyomandybular, interhyal, hypohyal, and posterior and anterior ceratohyals were clearly 267 distinguished (results not shown). Cartilaginous elements of the subopercle, cleithrum 268 and postcleithrum appeared in the posterior margin of the head. In the hyoid arch, the posterior end of the interhyal was linked to the ventral part of hyomandibular and 269 270 posterior ceratohyal, whereas the anterior end of the interhyal was connected to the posterior portion of the lower jaw (palatoquadrate). At this age and body size, there still 271 272 seemed to be no mineralized elements in the skeleton of A. persicus (Figure 1e).

273 The first identified element to mineralize was the dentary, and also in the dermopalatine and palatopterygoid elements of the upper jaw at 12 dph (20.1 ± 1.5 mm 274 275 $L_{\rm T}$), coinciding with the onset of exogenous feeding. External gills were largely covered 276 by the extended operculum, and teeth were observed arranged in a row on the dentary 277 and dermopalatine mineralized elements, whereas two irregular rows of teeth were 278 visible on the palatopterygoid mineralized element (Figure 2b). Between six and 12 dph, the formation of pelvic, anal and caudal fins was clearly distinguishable, whereas the 279 dorsal fin had between 15 to 19 pterygiophores of the distal radials, middle radials and 280 281 proximal radials, and five to seven metapterygial radials appeared in the pectoral fin. Unmineralized pterygiophores in the anal fin and between 22 to 26 unmineralized 282 hypurals in the caudal fin were observed between 12 and 14 dph ($20.8 \pm 1.5 \text{ mm } L_T$). 283 284 Hypurals developed on the anteriormost end of the caudal fin, forming its heterocercal structure (Figure 1f, g, j). No major changes in the formation of the skull were detected 285 286 between 14 and 20 dph. Different mineralized skeletal elements from the cephalic region such as the subopercle, supracleithrum and parietal were found weakly 287 mineralized at 20 dph $(24 \cdot 4 \pm 2 \cdot 9 \text{ mm } L_T)$ (Figure 1h, 2c). 288

At 30 dph ($33.4 \pm 3.8 \text{ mm } L_T$), *A. persicus* specimens had a similar appearance to small juveniles and adults. At this age, the snout elongated and all morphological structures were totally developed and some new juvenile traits appeared such as five longitudinal rows of bony scutes, a ventrally-flattened body, elongated barbels, a completely differentiated heterocercal caudal fin composed of the basidorsals, basiventrals, distal radial, hypurals, supraneural and fin rays, and teeth on upper and lower jaw missing. Cartilaginous elements of the pelvic pterygiophores were observed at

296 30 dph (Figure 1i). Mineralization of the lateral row of scutes, cleithrum and rostral canal bones had already began at this age, while mineralization just started and 297 continued to increase in the pectoral-fin spine, frontal, dermopterotic, jugal and 298 299 dermosphenotic elements (Fig 1i). Finally, the last mineralized elements to form between 30 and 50 dph ($48.4 \pm 6.4 \text{ mm } L_T$; Fig 2e, f, g and 1j) were the parasphenoid, 300 301 nasal, ventral and dorsal rostral elements, postorbital and median extrascapular bones, as 302 well as two series of ventral scute rows (n = 12-13 per row) where the posteriormost 303 ventral scute of two scute series contact each other just after the anal fins. During this 304 period, teeth on the mineralized dentary, dermopalatine and palatopterygoid elements 305 disappeared.

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307 DEVELOPMENTAL EXPRESSION OF VKDPs CODING GENES

Transcripts of *bgp*, *mgp* and *grp* were detected in all developmental time-points of *A*. *persicus* from one to 50 dph. Changes in *bgp* expression levels changed over development (P < 0.05). As shown in Figure 3a, expression of *bgp* in *A*. *persicus* significantly increased from the onset of exogenous feeding at 10 dph to the early juvenile stage at 50 dph. The highest expression of *bgp* was observed at 30 dph when *A*. *persicus* resembled small juveniles.

Figure 3b illustrates changes in the expression levels of *mgp* during early development in *A. persicus*. Expression of *mgp* changed during prelarval, larval and early juvenile stages (P < 0.05). Transcript levels of *mgp* followed a similar trend to that observed in *bgp* expression; specifically, *mgp* expression did not significantly vary during the prelarval stage (P > 0.05), whereas it significantly increased coinciding with the beginning of exogenous feeding and progressively increased until the early juvenile stage at 50 dph, although relative levels of *mgp* transcripts decreased at 30 dph (P <0.05), reaching similar values to those observed during the prelarval and larval stages, but increased again before the end of the study at 50 dph (Figure 3b).

Levels of *grp* transcripts showed a moderately increasing trend from one to 20 dph, except for 14 dph, although this trend was not statistically significant (P > 0.05). At 30 dph the *grp* expression reached maximal value, whereas at 50 dph, *grp* values decreased and were similar to those observed at younger ages (one to six dph) (Figure 327 3c).

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DISCUSSION

330 Osteological studies are a very useful tool for understanding the functional demands and 331 environmental needs of an organism during different stages of development (Boglione et 332 al., 2013a, b). According to the present study, the skeletal development of A. persicus 333 could be divided into three main stages: 1) from hatching to the start of exogenous 334 feeding (prelarval stage), during which cartilage elements of the skull with crucial roles 335 in feeding and respiratory activity were formed but no mineralization occurred; 2) from 336 the onset of exogenous feeding to the complete absorption of yolk sac reserves (mixed 337 nutrition period), during which first mineralization processes and development of 338 chondrogenesis related to feeding, swimming and respiratory activity occurred in larvae; 339 and 3) from the end of the mixed nutrition period to the early juvenile period, which was

characterized by the development of all other mineralized elements of the skull roof
(neurocranium), mineralization of bony scutes (dorsal, lateral and ventral in
chronological order), appearance of the rostral sensory bone, and complete
mineralization of cartilage elements that appeared at earlier stages.

344 The correct evaluation of mineralization is fundamental for the study of skeletal 345 development maintenance, and regeneration (Bensimon-Brito et al., 2016). Some authors have reported that decalcification may occur in skeletal elements of teleost fish 346 larvae, which are often only a few millimeters long, because of the use of acetic acid in 347 the AB dye that may slightly demineralise skeletal elements and therefore lose their 348 349 affinity for Alizarin red dye (Gavaia et al., 2000). Traditionally, cartilage is stained by 350 AB blue using acidic conditions to differentiate tissue staining; however, the acidic conditions may be problematic when one wishes to stain the same specimen for 351 352 mineralized bone with Alizarin red, because acid demineralizes bone by dissolving 353 hydroxyapatite, which negatively affects bone staining (Walker & Kimmel, 2009). Data 354 from this study with regard to the chronological development of small skeletal elements 355 (e.g. dermopalatine, palatopterygoid, dentary, subopercle, supracleithrum, posttemporal 356 and parietal) should be taken with caution since it is not possible to determine whether some demineralisation occurred in these elements due to the use of an acidic protocol 357 358 double staining of skeletal structures (Walker & Kimmel, 2009). However, in the case of sturgeon larvae that are generally ca. five to 10 times larger than teleost larvae, we did 359 360 not observe a remarkable loss of staining affinity to Alizarin red of skeletal elements, when using either acidic (Hanken & Wasserug, 1981) or non-acid (Walker and Kimmel, 361 362 2007) staining protocols, especially in dermal scute rows that were strongly stained in

red as soon as they were visible under the dissecting microscope. These differences between acipenserids and teleosts may be due to the larger size of sturgeon larvae in comparison to teleosts, as well as different staining-times employed between these fish groups. In this study, it took 30–60 min to stain sturgeon larvae of 10–24 mm, while for smaller marine teleost larvae (3-4 mm) at the same developmental stage staining time is shorter (10–15 min) (Gavaia *et al.*, 2000).

369 SKELETAL DEVELOPMENT

370 According to the obtained results, no cartilaginous or mineralized elements were 371 observed in the skull of A. persicus at hatching, whereas the notochord was the main 372 skeletal element distinguishable at this stage. The lack of vertebral centra and the 373 presence of a persistent notochord are considered as common features of the axial 374 skeleton in the early ontogeny of sturgeons (Hilton et al., 2011; Leprévost & Sire, 375 2014). The notochord is a medial structure that appears early in the embryo of all 376 vertebrates, and has several important functions in biochemical and physiological 377 signaling (Wang et al., 2014). In agreement with previous studies, the axial skeleton of 378 A. persicus differs from that of teleost species. It is composed of a notochord, 379 basidorsals, basiventrals, interdorsals, interventrals, neural spines, and ribs as in other 380 sturgeon species (Hilton et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2012; Leprévost & Sire, 2014). In A. 381 *persicus*, the first mineralized bones, the dermopalatine, palatopterygoid and dentary 382 were observed between 18.6-21.6 mm $L_{\rm T}$ (12 dph). Mineralization of teeth and the complete covering of the external gills by the operculum, which might enhance prey 383 seizure and gill development, respectively (Gisbert, 1999; Park et al., 2013; 384 Eshaghzadeh et al., 2017), are considered to be the most important events in the 385

386 development of the larval sturgeon splachnocranium, These changes were concomitant with the onset of exogenous feeding, the complete differentiation of the digestive organs 387 and increase in digestive enzyme activities relative to earlier stages of development 388 (Babaei *et al.*, 2011), which might be indicative of growth priorities during early 389 development, which allometric growth studies have revealed in this group of fishes 390 391 (Gisbert, 1999; Gisbert & Doroshov, 2006; Gisbert et al., 2014; Eshaghzadeh et al., 2017). In addition, the presence of unmineralized teeth and mineralized dentary and 392 dermopalatine elements in A. persicus prelarvae just before the onset of exogenous 393 394 feeding was in agreement with descriptions in shortnose sturgeon (A. brevirostrum Lesueur, 1818) (Hilton et al., 2011) and Siberian sturgeon (A. baerii Brandt, 1869) (Park 395 396 et al., 2013). Between 21.5 and 37.2 mm $L_{\rm T}$ (20 and 30 dph), mineralization was 397 observed in the following skeletal elements: the subopercle, supracleithrum, posttemporal, parietal and the dorsal scute row. These results are in contrast with those 398 399 obtained in teleost fishes, which showed earlier mineralization in the above-mentioned cranial structures (Gluckmann et al., 1999; Wagemans & Vandewalle, 2001). In this 400 study, the initial formation of dorsal, lateral and ventral rudimentary scute rows took 401 402 place asynchronously with regard to age and fell within the values reported for other 403 acipenserid species. In particular, the initial formation and mineralization of dorsal scutes in A. brevirostrum were detected between 20.5 to 21.9 mm $L_{\rm T}$ (Hilton et al., 404 405 2011), whereas these occurred between 19.7 to 21.0 mm L_T (Gisbert, 1999), and 20.6 to 26.0 mm L_T (Park et al., 2013) in A. baerii, although no specific methods using double-406 407 staining techniques were used for evaluating the development and mineralization of 408 skeletal structures in either study of A. baerii. Similar to other sturgeon species, the

order of mineralization of scute rows in *A. persicus* began with the dorsal followed by
the lateral and then ended with the ventral row (Hilton *et al.*, 2011; Park *et al.*, 2013;
Gisbert *et al.*, 2014; Eshaghzadeh *et al.*, 2017), although there existed some speciesspecific variations in the sequence of scute formation and mineralization, which might
be related to many factors including different growth rates, availability of dietary
minerals, and different rearing conditions as has been postulated (Khajepour &
Hosseini, 2010; Park *et al.*, 2013).

The chronological order of formation of the neurocranial dermal skeleton in A. 416 persicus was characterized by initial development of the parietal mineralized elements 417 418 followed by the frontal and parasphenoid between 20 and 30 dph. Similary, in A. 419 brevirostrum, the first signs of mineralization in the neurocranium were observed in both parietals (Hilton, 2005; Hilton et al., 2011). Several structures of the 420 421 splanchnocranium, such as the Meckel's cartilage, pars autopalatina, hyoid arch, 422 dermopalatine and dentary, were differentiated just before the onset of exogenous feeding in A. persicus, likely due to the important role they play in protractile-mouth-423 424 type suction feeding behavior that is typical of sturgeons (Wagemans & Vandewalle, 425 2001). As Hilton et al. (2011) described, elements of upper and lower jaws are fused to each other through the hyoid arches, and mandibular elements are not joined to the 426 427 neurocranium in sturgeon species. Moreover, the hyomandibular is inserted directly between the neurocranium and opercular elements. In A. persicus, suspensorium 428 429 elements were developed simultaneously at $18 \cdot 2 - 21 \cdot 6$ mm L_T (10 dph), but no mineralized elements were observed before the end of the study. However, in older 430 specimens of A. brevirostrum, some parts of the hyoid arch such as the hyomandibular, 431

432 the interhyal and the anterior ceratohyal were completely mineralized (Hilton, 2005; Hilton et al., 2011). Mineralization of suspensorium elements developed gradually and 433 jaw protrusion coincided with the loss of temporary teeth and a shift in the type of 434 435 feeding from prey seizure to suction feeding by creating negative pressure in buccal 436 cavity (Gisbert & Doroshov, 2003). Different mineralization patterns have been 437 observed in the branchial arches of acanthopterygians (Wagemans & Vandewalle, 2001). In A. persicus, all of the branchial arch elements were completely developed 438 between 19.3 and 22.3 mm L_T (14 dph), whereas mineralization was only observed in 439 teeth plates associated with hypobranchial 1 and gill rakers at 20.8 ± 1.5 mm L_T (14 440 dph) and 48.4 ± 6.4 mm L_T (50 dph), respectively. Differences in the time of 441 mineralization in branchial arch elements are likely related to feeding type (suction 442 443 feeding), the late transition from cutaneous to gill respiration in comparison to the teleost larvae, the increasing nutritional demands associated with suction feeding and the 444 methodology used for bone and cartilage staining (Wagemans & Vandewalle, 2001; 445 Boglione et al., 2013a). 446

447 After the development of mineralized and cartilage elements related to feeding and respiratory systems, which occurred between 19.9 ± 1.7 and 20.1 ± 1.5 mm L_T (10 448 and 12 dph), the next priority in terms of osteological development in A. persicus larvae 449 450 was the development of skeletal elements needed for supporting unpaired and paired fins. The first fins to form in chronological order were the pectoral fins, followed by the 451 452 dorsal, anal and caudal fins, with pelvic fins being the last ones to form. Formation of the pectoral girdle was concomitant with the onset of exogenous feeding, which may be 453 linked to the need for pectoral fins to assist with orienting the mouth over prey, 454

455 correcting head yaw (Osse *et al.*, 1995), promoting body roll, and affecting changes in
456 vertical body position during maneuvering as described by Wilga & Lauder (1999). A
457 similar sequence of fin formation was shown in bony fish (Sfakianakis *et al.*, 2004) and
458 sturgeons (Hilton *et al.*, 2011).

459

460 EXPRESSION OF VKDPs CODING GENES

461 In the present study, the mRNA levels of genes encoding extracellular matrix proteins 462 (bgp, mgp and grp) were up-regulated from 10 dph, at the time when A. persicus larvae 463 started exogenous feeding. Regardless of the fact that these genes are not only expressed in skeletal structures (Dourado-Villa et al., 2017), the up-regulation of genes encoding 464 465 bgp, mgp and grp in A. persicus was consistent with initial mineralization and 466 chondrogenesis processes related to feeding, swimming and respiratory systems. These 467 results suggest that bone and cartilage-related Gla proteins play a role in skeletal 468 mineralization in sturgeons, if translation efficiency is not affected and translation 469 occurred consistent with mRNA expression. The biological importance of the increasing 470 trend in *mgp*, *bgp* and *grp* expression observed in this study could be related to the need 471 for more efficient mechanisms to control mineralization, and development of organs and 472 systems needed to meet the functional demands of the developing larvae (Gavaia et al., 473 2006; Wang et al., 2014). Comparison of the results obtained from this study and 474 available data from higher vertebrates (Gavaia et al., 2006; Viegas et al., 2013), strengthen the hypothesis of a conserved function for Gla proteins from 475 476 Acipenseriformes to humans, which span more than 450 million years of evolution.

477 The mRNA expression of *bgp* increased from the onset of exogenous feeding to the end of the study. The *bgp* protein is produced by osteoblasts in elements undergoing 478 mineralization and odontoblasts during skeletogenesis (Pinto et al., 2001). BGP has 479 480 been shown to be a highly significant protein in bony tissues in amphibians (Viegas et al., 2002), teleosts and sturgeon fishes (Bensimon-Brito et al., 2012; Viegas et al., 481 482 2013). The observed up-regulation of bgp from 10 dph onwards coincided with the start of mineralization of dermal elements of the head and body surface during larval 483 development of A. persicus, which could be attributed to the role of BGP in 484 485 skeletogenesis. Increasing bgp mRNA expression in A. persicus is similar to that observed in European sea bass (Dicentrachus labrax) (Linnaeus, 1758) (Darias et al., 486 2010), zebrafish (Danio rerio) (Hamilton, 1822) and Senegalese sole (Solea 487 senegalensis Kaup, 1858) (Gavaia et al., 2006). This study is the first to examine mRNA 488 expression of the mgp gene during larval development of a Chondrostei species. The 489 490 least mgp transcript was observed during the endogenous feeding period, after which mgp levels increased until 30 dph and then decreased at 50 dph, coinciding with 491 492 transition to the early juvenile stage. It has been previously found that MGP in sturgeons 493 is the most densely γ -carboxylated protein among known MGPs in vertebrates, with seven Gla residues. This protein is known as a key regulator of chondral and 494 495 intramembranous ossification, and is a basic factor for differentiation and maturation of 496 chondrocytes (Viegas et al., 2013). Recent studies have demonstrated the presence of mgp transcripts in a wide variety of soft, cartilaginous and bony tissues in both 497 498 sturgeons (Viegas et al., 2013) and modern teleosts such as Atlantic salmon (Salmo 499 salar) (Krossøy et al., 2009) and turbot (Scophtalmus maximus) (Linnaeus, 1758)

500 (Roberto *et al.*, 2009). The considerable up-regulation of *mgp* transcripts from 20 dph 501 onwards, and particularly at 30 dph, in A. persicus could be related to the strong mineralization of different dermal elements from the head and body surface, such as the 502 503 subopercle, supracleithrum, parietal, bony scutes from dorsal and ventral rows and the 504 anal, pelvic, dorsal and caudal fins and their respective pterygiophores. The increasing 505 trend in mgp transcript levels has also been observed in teleosts such as D. rerio, S. 506 senegalensis and S. aurata, where highest mgp expression levels were observed during larval developmental phases coinciding with first feeding, metamorphosis and the end of 507 508 the larval stage, respectively (Gavaia et al., 2006; Fernández et al., 2011). The present 509 study also observed that grp mRNA levels increased during A. persicus development. 510 GRP plays a critical role in processes involving connective tissue mineralization, with 511 the highest number of Gla residues in all vertebrates; the Gla domain confer on these proteins their ability to bind of calcium ions (Viegas et al., 2013). Moreover, grp is most 512 513 highly expressed in cartilaginous tissues, especially mature and immature chondrocytes of vertebra and in the upper and lower jaws, as well as in the chordoblast layer of the 514 515 notochord in sturgeons, which suggests a more widespread role for GRP throughout 516 skeletal formation (Viegas et al., 2008).

517

518

CONCLUSIONS

Results of the present study showed that cartilage development in *A. persicus* started just after hatching in the head and notochord. Initial mineralization processes seemed to occur in the dentary, dermopalatine and palatopterygoid elements of the upper jaw,

522 coinciding with the onset of exogenous feeding. Genes encoding extracellular matrix proteins (bgp, mgp and grp) were up-regulated during the exogenous feeding phase. 523 Strong mineralization of the skeletal elements occurring between 21.5 and 27.3 mm $L_{\rm T}$ 524 525 (20 dph) was in accordance with maximal levels of bgp, mgp and grp mRNA 526 expression, suggesting that genes encoding vitamin k-dependant proteins might be 527 correlated with mineralization of dermal tissues during sturgeon development. These observations provide a reference for future studies seeking to evaluate larval quality and 528 529 the influence of biotic and abiotic rearing factors in the skeletogenesis of A. persicus and 530 the occurrence of skeletal deformities.

531

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711

712 Table1. Candidate reference and target genes tested for quantitative real-time PCR in

713 Acipenser persicus.

Genes	Primers, Forward/Reverse	Amplicon size	
Bone Gla protein	F- TCTGACGCTGTTTTGCTCCAGTAAATCTCG	95	
	R- CGTTTCAGGGAAAATACCCAAAAGCAATA		
Matrix Gla protein	F- CTGGCTACTACTATGAGAGGTTAATGG	135	
	R-GGTCACATGGGGTGTGCT		
Gla Rich protein	F- TGTAGAGGAGGAGCGTGATGAGCAGCA	163	
	R- CATGATGTCCTTTTTTGGCGATTGTGTTC		
beta-actin	F- TGGAGGTACCACCATGTACCC	167	
	R- CACATCTGCTGGAAGGTGGA		
Ribosomal protein L6	F- GTGGTCAAACTCCGCAAGA	149	
	R- GCCAGTAAGGAGGATGAGGA		

714

Figure captions

717	Fig. 1. Skeletogenesis of <i>Acipenser persicus</i> from hatching $(10.9 \text{ mm } L_T)$ to 50 days
718	post hatching (dph) (48.4 mm L_T). a) Hatching time, b) 1 dph, c) 3 dph, d) 6 dph, e) 10
719	dph, f) 12 dph, g) 14 dph, h) 20 dph, i) 30 dph, j) 50 dph (acidic staining) and k) 50 dph
720	(non-acidic staining). Abbreviations: a= anus, br = branchiostegal, cha = anterior
721	ceratohyal, chp = posterior ceratohyal, cl = cleithrum, clv = clavicle, dpt =
722	dermopterotic, dr = distal radial, ds = dorsal scute, dsp = dermosphenotic, h= hyoid
723	arch, hyp = hypural, ihy = interhyal, j = jugal, lrb = lateral rostral canal bone, m =
724	melanin plug, mc = Meckel's cartilage, mr = middle radial, n = notochord, pa=
725	palatoquadrates, pas = parasphenoid, pat = pars autopalatina, pf = primordial finfold,
726	phy= parhypural, po = postorbital, pp = pelvic pterygiophore, pr= proximal radial, pt =
727	posttemporal, rcb = rostral canal bones, scl = supracleithrum, so = supraorbital, sp=
728	spiral valve (scale bar $= 1$ mm).

729

Fig. 2. Ventral and dorsal views of the head of Acipenser persicus showing the 730 mineralization of different skeletal elements during larval development [19.9 - 48.5 mm 731 L_T, 10 days post hatching (dph) to 50 dph]. a) Unmineralized teeth in both jaws at 10 732 733 dph; b) ventral view of the jaw at early stages of development (12 dph); c) weak mineralized dermal bones of head and dorsal scutes at 20 dph; d) ventral view of 734 branchial arch at 10 dph, e) Strong mineralization of dermal bones in dorsal view of head; 735 736 f & g) ventral view of hyoid arch at 50dph. Abbreviations: bbc = basibranchial copulae, cb = ceratobranchial, cha = anterior ceratohyal, chp = posterior ceratohyal, d = dentary, 737

dpl = dermopalatin, dpt = dermopterotic, drb = dorsal rostral bone, dsp =
dermosphenotic, excm = median extrascapular, fr = frontal, h = hyomandybula, hb =
hypobranchial, hh = hypohyal, ihy = interhyal, j = jugal, lrb = lateral rostral canal bone,
pa = parietal, pt = posttemporal, rcb = rostral canal bones, scl = supracleithrum, sop =
subopercle, t = teeth, vrb = ventral rostral bone (scale bar 1mm).

743

Fig. 3. Log₂ expression of the (a) *bgp*, (b) *mgp* and (c) *grp* genes during the development of *Acipenser persicus* from 1 day post hatching (dph) to 50 dph. The values are considered as mean \pm SD (n = 3). Statistical significance of differences of the normalized *bgp*, *mgp* and *grp* data between samples taken at different developmental times was analyzed using one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple-comparison test. Bars with different letters are significantly different (*P* < 0.05).

750

751









1dph

3dph

6dph

10dph

Developmental time-points (days post hatching, dph)

30dph

14dph 20dph

50dph

761			
762			
763			
764			