- 1 River-specific gene expression patterns associated with habitat selection for key hormones-
- 2 coding genes in American glass eels (Anguilla rostrata)
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23 Abstract

24 The glass eel stage in American Eel (Anguilla rostrata) marks the onset of the 25 catadromous migration into estuarine or freshwater habitats, and the endocrine mechanisms 26 underlying this habitat selection are still not well understood. Using a candidate genes approach, 27 the aim of this study was to test for different patterns of gene expression related to 1) salinity 28 preferences and/or 2) capture site to predict physiological differences between migratory 29 behaviors. We performed analyses revealing the expression of genes coding for key hormonal 30 factors or their receptors on American glass eels collected at the mouths of three rivers on the 31 east coast of Canada (Grande-Rivière-Blanche in the St. Lawrence estuary, Rivière-Saint-Jean on

32 the Gaspé Peninsula, and Mersey River in Nova Scotia) that displayed different salinity 33 preferences (brackish/salt/fresh water) in laboratory conditions. Transcripts from genes coding 34 for PRL, TSH, type 2-iodothyronine deiodinase (DIO-2), thyroid receptors (THR α_a , THR α_b), GH, IGF-1, and their respective receptors GH-R₁ and IGF-1R were all detected in glass eels. No 35 36 differences in the expression patterns were detected pertaining to salinity preference, but strong 37 differences were found among rivers. Rivière-Saint-Jean glass eels, which were the longest and 38 the least pigmented among the three rivers, were characterized by the highest expressions of 39 PRL, DIO-2, and THR α_b . Those from Grande-Rivière-Blanche showed an increase in IGF-1R. 40 Glass eels captured in these two rivers exhibited the highest expression of GH and GH-R₁. 41 Overall, these results confirm gene × environment interactions at the gene expression level when 42 glass eels settle into their continental habitat. As such, our results also support the concept of the 43 presence of different ecotypes in the Atlantic Canadian Coast and in the Estuary and Gulf of St-44 Lawrence.

45

46 Introduction

47 The glass eel stage in American Eel Anguilla rostrata marks the end of the oceanic 48 migration of the leptocephalus larvae and the onset of catadromous migration into estuarine or 49 freshwater habitats (Cairns et al. 2004; Jessop et al. 2002; Pavey et al. 2015; Tesch 2003). The 50 range of distribution of A. rostrata along the coast of North America is large and covers tropical, 51 temperate and subarctic areas. Facultative catadromy (non-obligatory trophic migration to fresh 52 water) has only recently been documented in eels and Tsukamoto et al. (1998) were the first to 53 describe a "sea eel" ecophenotype being an ecological sub-unit adapted to a particular habitat 54 under environmental influences (Turesson 1922). In European glass eel (Anguilla anguilla), 55 facultative catadromy has been suggested to be under endocrine control through phenotypic 56 plasticity mechanisms, and different ecophenotypes (freshwater vs. brackish/saltwater) were 57 associated with differences in osmoregulatory ability (Edeline et al. 2005b). The freshwater type 58 exhibited a salinity preference for freshwater and colonized river habitats. Glass eels exhibiting 59 freshwater preference were also characterized by high locomotor activity, and poor growth 60 performance traits that were described as promoting the colonization of fresh waters (Edeline et al. 2005b). This "freshwater type" also had high thyroid gland activity (higher plasma levels of 61 62 thyroxine compared to triiodothyronine) and high thyroid hormone levels relative to glass eels of

the "saltwater type" (Edeline et al. 2004). Edeline et al. (2005a) also showed that immersion in 63 64 thyroxine enhanced locomotor activity while immersion in thiourea modified rheotaxis, 65 supporting an active role of thyroid hormones during glass eel migrations. In contrast to those with a freshwater preference, the brackish/saltwater type of European glass eels exhibited 66 67 brackish/saltwater preference, low locomotor activity, high growth performance (Edeline et al. 68 2005b), and low thyroid activity with low thyroid hormone levels, especially thyroxine (Edeline 69 et al. 2004). This ecophenotype colonized marine and estuarine habitats (Edeline et al. 2009). 70 Weak thyroid activity was hypothesized to affect sensitivity to olfactory cues, intestine 71 development, and rheotaxis (Edeline 2005). Based on results obtained in the European Eel, 72 Edeline et al. (2009) proposed a strategy related to condition to be underlying the expression of 73 different ecophenotypes. Thus, it is predicted from these previous studies that high energetic 74 status, high thyroid activity, but a low level of growth hormone secretion should characterize the 75 freshwater ecotype, while low energetic status, low thyroid activity, but a high level of growth 76 hormone secretion should characterize the brackish/saltwater ecotype (Edeline et al. 2005a, 77 2005b; Edeline 2007).

78 A recent population genomics study on American Eel showed that American yellow and 79 silver eels colonizing fresh water and brackish/salt water in Eastern Canada can be genetically 80 distinguished and reclassified with high accuracy, supporting the occurrence of a genetic basis 81 for the different ecotypes in this species (Pavey et al. 2015). In contrast to an ecophenotype, an ecotype is an ecological subunit that is morphologically, physiologically, and genetically adapted 82 83 to a habitat and, if transplanted into different habitat, its differences would be retained as they are 84 fixed genetically (Turesson, 1922). Moreover, rearing of American glass eels in different salinity 85 conditions also resulted in different growth performance according to their geographic origin, 86 confirming this notion in young stages (Côté et al. 2009). In addition, transcriptomic differences were observed for polygenic traits and genes involved in many physiological functions related to 87 88 both salinity rearing conditions and glass eel origin (Côté et al. 2014). However, using American 89 glass eels captured at different locations on the Canadian east coast, Boivin et al. (2015) showed 90 that although most did not make a choice between fresh and salt water, they usually preferred 91 fresh water no matter what their geographic origin.

92 The aim of this study was to test whether differences in hormones and/or hormone
93 receptor genes were associated with differences in the settlement habitat of American glass eels.

94 We studied gene expression tools, an approach that was successfully used previously both in 95 American glass eel (Gaillard et al. 2015; 2016) and embryo and larval European Eel (Politis et al. 96 2017) and studied American glass eels colonizing rivers previously associated with different 97 ecotypes (Mersey River on the Atlantic coast: brackish/saltwater ecotype; Rivière-Saint-Jean and 98 Grande-Rivière-Blanche located in the Gulf and St. Lawrence Estuary: freshwater ecotype; 99 Pavey et al. 2015), and according to their salinity preference (Boivin et al. 2015). Since the St. 100 Lawrence Estuary glass eels were associated with the freshwater ecotype (Pavey et al. 2015), we 101 hypothesized that expression of prolactin, hyper-osmoregulatory hormone for freshwater 102 adaptation and coding genes for the thyroidal axis would be higher compared to eels from the 103 Atlantic coast (brackish/saltwater ecotype). We also hypothesized that higher expressions of the 104 somatotropic axis would be present in those from the southern location (smaller and heavier 105 glass eels) compared to the northern ones. Considering the model for European Eel (Edeline et 106 al. 2009), we predicted that American glass eels with freshwater preference would have a higher 107 expression of thyroid function and lower expression of coding genes for the somatotropic axis 108 compared to those exhibiting a brackish/saltwater preference. Finally, using glass eels exhibiting 109 different salinity preferences, we tested whether the endocrine model underlying the expression 110 of salinity preference suggested by Edeline et al. (2005, 2009) for European glass eel could apply 111 to American Eel using gene expression analysis tools.

112

113 <A> Materials and Methods

114 Sampling. —

115 Glass eels were captured during new and full moon at their earliest arrival in the estuaries 116 of three east coast Canadian rivers at different upstream distances relative to the Sargasso Sea 117 (Figure 1): Mersey River, Nova Scotia, 26–28 March, 20–21 April 2012 (n = 3209); Rivière-118 Saint-Jean, Québec, 16–21 May, 28 May – 3 June 2012 (n = 636); and Grande-Rivière-Blanche, 119 Québec, 2–6 June, 18–21 June 2012 (n = 1657). At Mersey River, glass eels were captured with 120 fish nets by a commercial elver fishery; at Grande-Rivière-Blanche, we captured glass eels with 121 fish nets; and at Rivière-Saint-Jean, glass eels were captured in the river estuary using two trap 122 nets operated by the Ministère Forêt Faune et Parcs (see Boivin et al. 2015). Sampling was 123 identical for glass eels captured in each of the three rivers.

124 On the day after capture, glass eels were transferred to the Maurice-Lamontagne Institute 125 according to the procedures of the Canadian Council on Animal Care to assess salinity preference 126 (Boivin et al. 2015). They were placed in a thermostatic chamber and kept unfed (see Boivin et al. 127 2015 for detailed information about the experimental system). After 48h of acclimatization, 128 behavioural experiments took place. The experimental setup was used to assess freshwater 129 preference (% of eels that chose fresh water, FW), saltwater preference (% of eels that chose salt water, SW) and brackish water preference (% of eels that remain in brackish water, BW). Three 130 131 glass tanks $(31.5 \times 27 \times 61 \text{ cm})$ provided triplicate measurements for each experiment. 132 Acclimation salinity and salinity into the experimental tanks were 18%. Two funnels, connected 133 to filtering flasks, were inserted into each tank. Fresh and sea (salinity 33‰) water were gravity-134 delivered into the neck of the flasks at a rate of 180 mL/min, offering a binary choice between 135 flows of FW and SW. An overflow drain allowed any excess water to be evacuated throughout the experiments. Charcoal-filtered dechlorinated tap water was used as FW while BW and SW were 136 137 prepared by adding either FW or synthetic salts (Instant Ocean) to sand-filtered St. Lawrence 138 Estuary water (salinity 20–25‰). The tests were done in darkness to minimize the stress associated 139 with the manipulations and because glass eels are mainly active at night in natural habitats. See 140 Boivin et al. 2015 for more detailed information about evaluation of the experimental bias of the 141 apparatus. For all experiments, an average of 71 ± 34 individuals, selected to ensure a sufficient 142 number of replicates, were placed at the beginning of each experiment in the BW-filled waiting 143 chamber for an acclimation period of 30 min after which the water flows were activated for a 144 30 min experimental period. Both the acclimation and experimental periods were conducted in 145 darkness in order to minimize the stress associated with the manipulations and because glass eels 146 are mainly active at night in natural habitats. A preference experiment was run for each glass eel 147 arrival (two per river, see Fig. 1) and each experiment was performed in triplicate tanks (see Boivin 148 et al. 2015). At the end of the experiments, all glass eels that chose FW from the triplicate 149 experimental tanks were pooled, as were those that chose SW and those that remained in BW. From these, 10 "FW", 10 "SW", and 10 "BW" glass eels, for a total of 20 per salinity per river, 150 151 were individually anaesthetized in 0.68 mM MS-222 (ethyl 3-aminobenzoate methanesulfonate; 152 Sigma-Aldrich). For this study, we used 10 individuals classified as FW, SW, or BW for each 153 river, for a total of 90 glass eels (Figure 1). Total body length (from the tip of the snout to the tip 154 of the caudal fin; \pm 1mm) and wet mass (\pm 1 mg) were measured. Pigmentation stage was

determined according to Haro and Krueger (1988). Glass eels were rinsed with brackish water,
gently blotted dry, transferred to 1.5 ml tubes filled two-thirds full with RNAlater® (SigmaAldrich®, ON, Canada), and kept frozen overnight at 4°C before being stored at -20°C until
molecular analyses. In total, 90 individuals, 30 from each river, were sampled for further analyses
(Figure 1)

160

161 *Candidate and reference genes.* —

162 Nine candidate genes were studied: the subunit thyroid stimulating hormone β (TSH- β), Type 163 2-iodothyronine deiodinase (DIO-2), thyroid hormone receptors α_a and α_b (THR α_a and THR α_b), 164 prolactin (PRL), growth hormone (GH) and its receptor 1 (GH-R₁), and insulin-like growth 165 factor 1 (IGF-1) and its receptor (IGF-1R). TSH- β subunit is a proxy of TSH that stimulates the 166 thyroid gland to produce thyroxine (Han et al. 2004; e.g., MacKenzie et al. 2009); DIO-2 is the 167 major isoform that converts the pro-hormone thyroxine into bioactive triiodothyronine (e.g., 168 Gomes et al. 2014); and THR α_a and THR α_b mediate the biological activity of thyroid hormones 169 binding with triiodothyronine (e.g., Gomes et al. 2014). PRL is well known for its central role in freshwater osmoregulatory processes (ionic and osmotic balance) (Manzon 2002; Sakamoto and 170 171 McCormick 2006). GH stimulates growth through IGF-1 activation, has a direct effect on 172 growing tissues, and regulates lipid mobilization (e.g., Dai et al. 2015). GH-R₁ binds specifically 173 with GH to initiate the actions of GH (Ozaki et al. 2006a, 2006b). In fishes, IGF-1 mediates the 174 action of GH, which promotes somatic growth during cellular differentiation and mitogenesis 175 processes in muscle tissues, during development of the nervous system, and in bones, and it has a 176 critical role in neural induction by binding with IGF-1R, which triggers its actions (Dai et al. 177 2015; Escobar et al. 2011; Perrot et al. 1999). GH and IGF-1 are also associated with saltwater 178 acclimation (e.g., Sakamoto and McCormick 2006). 179 The qPCR analysis must be normalized using internal standards, the reference genes, for 180 which transcription is assumed to be constant. The use of only one reference gene in qPCR 181 analyses is not recommended (Bustin et al. 2009), and the expression of reference genes can vary

182 from one tissue to another (Olsvik et al. 2005). Vandesompele et al. (2002) recommended the use

183 of three reference genes for the reliable normalization of a pool of normal tissues in order to

avoid relatively large errors caused by the use of one reference gene. Based on previous eel

185 studies (Weltzien et al. 2005; Gaillard et al. 2016), the reference genes chosen for the present

186 work were acidic ribosomal protein (ARP), cytochrome B (CytB), and elongation factor 1 (EF1).

187

188 Whole-body grinding. —

Glass eels were individually dry-homogenized with liquid nitrogen using a Precellys dual
homogenizer coupled with a cooling system (Precellys, Bertin Technologies) in CKMix 50 R
containing beads for hard-tissue grinding. Samples were ground using three cycles of 26 s at
5800 rpm, and cycles were separated by 30 s. The resulting powder was held at -80°C until

193 RNA extraction.

194

195 Total RNA extraction. —

RNA was extracted from 10 mg (dry mass) of homogenate powder using the RNeasy®
Fibrous Tissue Kit (Quiagen Inc., ON, Canada) and was diluted to obtain a final concentration of
200 ng/µl. RNA purity, quality, and concentration were determined using electrophoresis on 2%
agarose gel stained with ethidium bromide (0.05 mg/ml) (Alpha Imager® HP System, AlphaInnotech; Alpha Imager 3400 software, Protein Simple) and the 260/280 absorbance ratio
(NanoVue Plus spectrophotometer, GE Healthcare, QC, Canada).

202

203 Reverse transcription. —

204 Reverse transcription was done in duplicate using the Quantitect[®] Reverse Transcription Kit 205 (Qiagen Inc., ON, Canada). The cDNA samples obtained were diluted to a final concentration of 206 20 ng/ μ l, separated into aliquots, and kept frozen at -20°C until further analysis. cDNA integrity 207 and concentrations were verified using a NanoVue Plus spectrophotometer. Reverse transcriptase 208 efficiency was verified using serial dilutions of a pool of four RNA samples from different 209 origins and dates of capture and compared with the ideal slope of -3.3. qPCR analyses were 210 performed in triplicate (Bio-Rad MyiQ iCycler, Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc., ON, Canada) using 211 IQ[™] SYBR® Green Supermix (Bio-Rad Laboratories Inc., ON, Canada) and an iCycler iQ[™] 212 Real-Time PCR on one reference gene (EF1) and one candidate gene (PRL). Linear regression of 213 the serial dilution curves were done with MyiQ Software v 1.0 (Bio-Rad, USA), giving an 214 efficiency of 94.5% for the reference gene (y = -3.4603x + 10.341; r = 0.997) and 97.4% for the 215 candidate gene (y = -3.3187x + 22.533; r = 0.935).

210

217 Specific sequences and design of Taqman primers and probes. —

218 Except for the IGF-1R sequence which was obtained from the draft annotated American 219 Eel genome (Pavey et al. 2016), the mRNA sequences for the reference and target genes were 220 not available for American Eel in the GeneBank databases. Therefore, oligonucleotide primers 221 were designed using Primer-Blast for each reference and candidate gene of interest based on 222 available mRNA sequences from genus Anguilla found in the National Center for Biotechnology 223 Information (NCBI) bank (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/primer-blast/; website accessed 224 23-11-2015). Primers were ordered from Integrated DNA Technologies[™] (Coralville, IA, USA) 225 and diluted to 20 µM before use. GenBank numbers for sequences were found on the NCBI 226 website, and forward and reverse primer sequences are reported in Table 1. A pool of randomly 227 chosen cDNA samples (rivers and salinity preferences) was used with primers for amplifications 228 (all in duplicate) by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) with iCycleriQ[™] Real-Time PCR (Bio-Rad, USA) using the Ampli Taq Gold[®] 360 Master Mix Kit (Applied Biosystems, CA, USA). 229 230 The quality and integrity of each PCR product or amplicon were verified by electrophoresis on 2% agarose gels with ethidium bromide (0.05 mg/ml) containing a PCR marker (Sigma-231 232 Aldrich[®], ON, Canada). Single fragments were obtained for all reference and candidate genes 233 except for THR α_a , for which two fragments were obtained. Both THR α_a amplicons were isolated 234 with the Ezna® Gel Extraction Kit (Omega Bio-Teck, GA, USA) before purification and were 235 thereafter treated separately. Amplicons were purified on columns using the QIAquick PCR 236 Purification Kit (Qiagen Inc., ON, Canada), and purified amplicons were sequenced in forward 237 and reverse directions with associated primers and the Big Dye Terminator v3.1 Cycle 238 Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems, CA, USA). Unincorporated dye terminators from 239 sequencing reactions were removed using the Ultra-Step® Dye Terminator Removal Kit (Omega 240 Bio-Teck, GA, USA). Isolated fragments containing dye-labeled dideoxynucleotide 241 triphosphates (ddNTPs) were dried for 20 min using a Speed Vac (Savant AS 160 Automatic) 242 and suspended in formamide; fragments were analyzed using a 3 130 Genetic Analyzer (Applied 243 Biosystems-Hitachi) and POP-7[™] polymer (Life Technologies[™], ON, Canada). Sequence 244 assembly and alignment verification were done with Sequencher 5.2.4 software (Genes Codes 245 Inc.).

246	Alignments between the sequence obtained and the sequence used for primer design were
247	performed for each gene. Supplemental Table 1 reports specific sequences obtained for each
248	gene. Except for IGF-1R, the percentages of identity between sequences obtained from glass eels
249	and sequences from GenBank are also presented in Supplemental Table 1. For THR α_a , the
250	longest sequence that showed the highest homology score was retained for the study. TaqMan
251	probes were designed using Primer Express 3.0 software (Applied Biosystems®) and were
252	obtained from Life Technologies [™] (Mairway, ON, Canada) (Table 1).

253

254 Real-time PCR assays and quantification. —

255 qPCR were performed in triplicate on glass eel samples with the ABIPRISM® 7900 HT 256 Sequence Detection System (Applied Biosystems®). The 10 µl of volume for each reaction was made up of 2 μ l cDNA (10⁻² ng/ μ l), 5 μ l TaqMan Advanced Mix (Life TechnologiesTM, ON, 257 258 Canada), 2.5 μ l sterile water, and 0.5 μ l TaqMan probe specific to a gene (Life TechnologiesTM). 259 ON, Canada). Thermal cycling of qPCR consisted of two steps: 1) 2 min at 50°C for optimal 260 AmpErase[®] uracil-N-glycosylase activity followed by 10 min at 95°C to activate the AmpliTag Gold® DNA Polymerase, and 2) 45 cycles of denaturing at 95°C for 30 s and annealing/extend 261 262 at 60°C for 1 min. Cycle thresholds (C_T) were obtained using Expression Suite 1.0 software (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). 263 Relative quantification of gene expression was calculated according to the $2^{-DDC_{T}}$ method of 264 265 Livak and Schmittgen (2001):

266 $2^{-DDC_T} = 2^{-(DC_{Te}-DC_{Tc})}$

267 where $C_{Te} = C_T$ candidate gene $-C_T$ reference genes for sample x and

268 $C_{Tc} = C_T$ candidate gene $-C_T$ reference genes for the calibrator (see below).

In this study, the calibrator was the group of glass eels sampled at MR (the most southern river) that exhibited BW preference (absence of choice for either FW or SW). The calibrator always represents the 1.0 fold expression level, and other individuals and groups are expressed in these units. Non-detectable expressions (threshold cycles greater than 38) were given the same C_T value of 40 instead of eliminating fish that showed no expression, thus avoiding an overestimation of the global expression level. For this reason, normalization for prolactin and TSH- β were above 1.0.

276

277 *qPCR validation.* —

qPCR efficiency was verified for each TaqMan probe (slopes close to -3.3, all $R^2 > 0.98$: 278 Table 1). A serial dilution of 10^{-1} to 10^{-5} or, when the signal was low, 4^{-1} to 4^{-5} (IGF-1, THR α_a) or 279 2^{-1} to 2^{-5} (PRL, TSH- β), was performed on a new pool of eight randomly selected cDNA samples 280 281 within samples of different origin and salinity preference. qPCR analyses for each TaqMan probe 282 were performed on the pool with the same protocol described above, except that the 2 µl cDNA 283 $(10^{-2} \text{ ng/}\mu\text{l})$ was replaced by 2 μ l of the pooled cDNA. Suitability, stability, and validation of 284 quantitative qPCR reference genes were verified with Expression Suite 1.0 software, where the 285 score was calculated according to Vandesompele et al. (2002). The score is a gene stability 286 measure in qPCR analyses that may vary with tissues: the lower the score, the more stable the 287 expression. The gene-stability measures for the three reference genes were 0.786, 0.836, and 288 0.714 for ARP, CytB, and EF1, respectively (calculated using ExpressionSuite software). The 289 three reference genes exhibited very little variation among subsamples (Supplementary 290 Figure 1).

291

292 Le Cren condition index and statistical analyses. –

293 The Le Cren condition index (Kn) was calculated as described in Gaillard et al. (2015). 294 Linear regressions of log10-transformed length and wet mass were made using data from all 295 individuals that expressed a salinity preference. The constants were determined from the regression line obtained (y = -5.4551 + 2.6137 x; $r^2 = 0.50$; n = 1143). The residual distribution 296 297 of Kn was verified by fitting a Henry line ($F_{1, 1140} = 1786.65$; P < 0.0001; $r^2 = 0.61$). As 298 demonstrated by Gaillard et al. (2015), Kn is both a condition index and an indicator of 299 triacylglycerol and glycogen content. Because Gaillard et al. (2015) already showed that Kn, wet 300 mass, length, and pigmentation stage did not differ according to salinity preference, only the 301 presence of river effect was tested for these variables.

The relative quantification of gene expression (2^{-DDC_T}) for the nine candidate genes was analyzed using two-way permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA; $\alpha < 0.05$, 9999 permutations, type III sums of square) with the PERMANOVA+ add-on (v 1.02) in PRIMER (v 6.1.1.12). The two fixed factors were river (level = 3) and salinity (level = 3). Missing data (29 data out of 810) were replaced by the mean of the subsample in a salinity

- 307 preference river group (García et al. 2015). Distance-based tests for homogeneity of multiple
- 308 dispersions (PERMDISP) were verified for the two factors to determine if data needed
- 309 transformation, and we found that no transformations were required (river: F = 1.7571,
- 310 P(perm) = 0.2421; salinity: F = 1.1642, P(perm) = 0.3832). Thus a Bray-Curtis similarity
- 311 matrix was constructed for relative gene expression data. Even though this type of statistical
- 312 approach has been first developed for ecological studies, it is now used in gene expression (e.g.
- 313 Ferrier et al. 2013) or metagenomic studies (e.g. Tamki et al. 2001). When PERMANOVA tests
- 314 detected a factor effect, pair-wise comparisons were done. Finally, to explore dissimilarities
- between groups, we performed multidimensional scaling plot analysis (MDS). Similarity
- 316 percentage analysis (SIMPER) was also run to identify the relative contribution of each gene and
- 317 biological trait to the differences observed within one factor. Because SIMPER results were
- similar to those obtained with the MDS (results not shown), only the MDS results are presented.
- 319 One-way ANOVAs ($\alpha = 0.05$) were run to test for specific differences in gene expression for
- 320 each candidate gene or biological traits using STATISTICA v 10.0 software
- 321 (http://www.statsoft.com; website accessed 21-11-2015) when PERMANOVA indicated
- 322 significant factor effects. ANOVAs were followed by Tukey multiple comparison tests
- (P < 0.05). Normality and homoscedasticity of data were verified with the Kolmogorov–Smirnov
- 324 and Levene tests, respectively. Pigmentation index data were analyzed with the non-parametric
- 325 Kruskal-Wallis test.
- 326

327 **<A> Results**

328 Gene expression and salinity preference

329 At the glass eel stage, no salinity preference was associated with the expression of any 330 candidate gene since no factor or interaction effects were detected (salinity preference: df = 2, 331 pseudo-F = 0.92891, P (perm) > 0.05; salinity preference \times river: df = 4, pseudo-F = 1.2209, P 332 (perm) > 0.05). However, patterns of gene expression differed among the three rivers (river: df = 333 2, pseudo-F: 4.1295, P(perm) < 0.0005). Differences were most apparent between RSJ and MR 334 glass eels (pairwise tests: Grande-Rivière-Blanche & Mersey River: t = 1.5866, *P* (*perm*) < 0.05; Grande-Rivière-Blanche & Rivière-Saint-Jean: t = 2.0927, P (perm) < 0.005; MR & RSJ: t = 335 336 2.3426, P(perm) < 0.001), which was also confirmed by the MDS analysis (Figure 2).

337 Differences in the expression of PRL, DIO-2, and GH on the MDS horizontal axis and the

338 expression of TSH- β and IGF-1R explained most of the differences among rivers. The

339 expression of TSH- β and IGF-1R were strongly positively correlated, and a positive correlation

340 was also observed between DIO-2 and PRL (Figure 2A, C). MDS results suggested that high

341 expression of DIO-2 and PRL characterized the Rivière-Saint-Jean glass eels, while those from

342 Grande-Rivière-Blanche were characterized by stronger expression of IGF-1R, TSH- β , and GH

343 (Figure 2A, C).

344 PRL expression was 10.3 times higher in Rivière-Saint-Jean glass eels than in the calibrator (Mersey River-brackish water preference), while PRL expression in Mersey River and 345 346 Grande-Rivière-Blanche were similar and close to the expression level observed in the calibrator 347 group (Figure 3A). DIO-2 expression was 2.7 higher in Rivière-Saint-Jean glass eels compared 348 to the calibrator group, and this expression level was significantly higher than those observed in 349 the two other rivers (although DIO-2 was 1.7 higher in Grande-Rivière-Blanche than in Mersey 350 River; Figure 3B). GH expression was 2 and 2.4 higher in the glass eels from Rivière-Saint-Jean 351 and Grande-Rivière-Blanche compared to the calibrator group and significantly higher than the 352 value observed in Mersey River glass eels (Figure 3C). IGF1-R expression was 1.3 times higher 353 in Grande-Rivière-Blanche glass eels compared to the calibrator group, and this level was 354 significantly higher than observed in the other two rivers (Figure 3D). Contrary to our prediction, 355 the expression of TSH- β did not differ among rivers (Figure 3E). THR α_b expression in RSJ was 356 slightly more elevated (1.64) than in the calibrator group and significantly higher than levels measured in Mersey River and Grande-Rivière-Blanche glass eels (Figure 3F). Finally, the 357 358 expression of GH-R₁ was significantly higher (1.3) in Rivière-Saint-Jean compared to Mersey 359 River, with intermediate expression levels in GRB (Figure 3G). Again, expression in Mersey 360 River was very close to that of the calibrator. The expressions of THR α_a (Figure 3H) and IGF-1 361 (Figure 3I) were similar among rivers.

362

363 Phenotypic traits

The longest glass eels were captured in Grande-Rivière-Blanche and Rivière-Saint-Jean (Figure 4A). The Rivière-Saint-Jean and Mersey River glass eels were 1.2 heavier than those captured in GRB and had a higher condition index (Figure 4B, C). Glass eels captured in Rivière-Saint-Jean were generally non-pigmented (pigmentation index close to 1), while pigmentation at the lateral line was present in both Mersey River and Grande-Rivière-Blanche

369 (median of pigmentation index from 2 to 4) (Figure 4D). MDS analysis indicated that phenotypic

370 differences among rivers were largely associated with variations in length and pigmentation

- 371 status.
- 372

373 <A> Discussion

374 The first goal of this study was to investigate whether the endocrine model underlying 375 salinity preference suggested by Edeline et al. (2009) for European glass eel could apply to 376 American Eel. A second goal was to test whether there were different hormones gene expression 377 patterns associated with the different habitats colonized by glass eels. To achieve these goals, 378 comparative analyses of gene expression were performed according to salinity preference and 379 site of capture of glass eels. While we found limited support for different expression patterns 380 according to salinity preference, pronounced differences in gene expression were observed 381 among rivers or origin. However, the observed patterns did not generally correspond to our 382 working hypotheses and predictions. Thus, we found no difference in the expression of genes 383 coding for the thyroxine/triiodothyronine axis or for the GH/GH-R/IGF-1/IGF1-R axis according 384 to salinity preference. These results coupled with those demonstrating the absence of differences 385 related to energy storage status according to salinity preference and the presence of strong 386 differences between origin of glass eels at gene expression and cellular level (Gaillard et al. 387 2015, 2016) confirm that the "hypothetical endocrine mechanism for the control of glass eel 388 migratory plasticity" suggested for European glass eel (Edeline et al. 2009) does not apply to 389 American glass eel.

390

391 Differential pattern of gene expression among sites of capture

392 The presence of different American Eel ecotypes in the Maritimes and in the St. 393 Lawrence River is supported by strong evidence based on growth and sex determination 394 phenotypic attributes (Côté et al. 2015) and a genome-wide association study (Pavey et al. 2015). 395 Based on genome-wide genotypic differences Pavey et al. (2015) associated the St. Lawrence 396 River ecotype to a freshwater ecotype, and the Atlantic Canada ecotype to a brackish/saltwater 397 ecotype. Thus, both intra- and inter-ecotype differences were found, the most pronounced being 398 between Mersey River and Rivière-Saint-Jean, both harbouring a different ecotype. Rivière-399 Saint-Jean glass eels were characterized by the highest expression of prolactin, DIO-2, and

400 THR α_b , a hormonal gene expression pattern expected for a freshwater ecotype. They were also 401 the least pigmented, indicating that they were the least developed. DIO-2 expression was also 402 higher in Grande-Rivière-Blanche compared to Mersey River glass eels. Considering that both 403 Rivière-Saint-Jean and Grande-Rivière-Blanche contain the freshwater ecotype, their higher 404 DIO-2 expression compared to the calibrator group could be associated with freshwater 405 colonization. Even though there was no specific difference in the expression of TSH- β , MDS 406 analysis discriminated Grande-Rivière-Blanche glass eels through their expression of this 407 hypothalamic factor, which stimulates thyroxine production. The results of the MDS analysis 408 showed a clear correlation between the PRL and DIO-2 expression patterns, thus a link between 409 activation of transcripts from the thyroidal axis and the freshwater ecotype cannot be dismissed.

410 Glass eels seem to be prepared for the osmotic challenge posed by the saltwater-411 freshwater transition, given that they have twice as many prolactin cells compared to 412 leptocephali (in A. japonica; Arakawa et al. 1992) and they develop a multi-layered oesophageal 413 mucosa (in A. anguilla; Ciccotti et al. 1993). Considering the important role of prolactin in 414 freshwater adaptation (Sudo et al. 2013), it is not surprising to observe a higher expression level 415 in RSJ than in MR glass eels. However, we expected a similarly high level of prolactin in 416 Grande-Rivière-Blanche glass eels, especially since Côté et al. (2014) observed differences of 417 gene expression for two unique transcripts associated with prolactin function between Grande-418 Rivière-Blanche glass eels and those from Nova Scotia (Mersey River) prior to their river 419 entrance, but this was not the case for PRL here. However, these results showed that activation 420 of transcripts of prolactin was high in unpigmented freshwater glass eels that just achieved 421 metamorphosis from leptocephali into glass eel. This finding is in agreement with a previous 422 study done by Arakawa et al. (1992).

423 Complex patterns for coding genes of the somatotropic axis were observed in glass eels 424 from the three rivers. Higher levels of GH and GH-R₁ expression were observed in the 425 freshwater ecotype, and these glass eels were longer than those captured in Mersey River. 426 Recently, Politis et al. (2017) studying the larval stage of European eel, showed that GH 427 expression was higher at higher temperature. Here, temperature may not play such a role as 428 temperatures in northern areas (Grande-Rivière-Blanche and Rivière-Saint-Jean) are expected to 429 be colder than in the Nova Scotia littoral zone. Expression of the IGF-1 receptor was also higher 430 in Grande-Rivière-Blanche glass eels. Although not statistically different, IGF-1 expression also

431 tended to be more elevated in these two rivers. Previous studies on American Eel found different 432 effects of origin on growth of glass and yellow eels (Boivin et al. 2015; Côté et al. 2009, 2015). 433 For example, glass eels from the brackish/saltwater ecotype had a higher wet mass and grew 434 faster regardless in controlled conditions of the salinity of rearing water than did those from the 435 freshwater ecotype (Boivin et al. 2015; Côté et al. 2009, 2015). Thus, a stimulated hormone-436 encoding gene for the somatotropic axis would have been expected in Mersey River glass eels. 437 On the contrary, all indicators remained low compared to glass eels from the two other rivers 438 caught at their arrival in the river system. Perhaps stimulation of transcripts of the somatotropic 439 axis occurs later after the entrance into the rivers and/or with the resumption of food in the 440 brackish/saltwater ecotype. Indeed, Pavey et al. (2015) showed enrichment in allelic frequencies 441 of growth factor receptor binding at the yellow eel stage.

442 Many factors could be involved in the regulation of growth, and determining the exact 443 role of the observed response must await more detailed studies on tissue-specific functions even 444 though tissue puncture is delicate at this stage. Indeed, fasting should affect the somatotropic axis 445 in a dissimilar fashion between ecotypes and these differences could also reflect differences in 446 osmoregulatory and energy storage strategies. In fact, GH could regulate lipid mobilization by 447 increasing lipid depletion from adipose tissues in fasting fish (e.g., Dai et al. 2015). Recently, 448 Gaillard et al. (2016) detected a 25-fold higher expression of lipolysis enzymes in Grande-449 Rivière-Blanche glass eels than in Mersey River ones and demonstrated that glass eels from the 450 freshwater ecotype have a better ability to mobilize efficiently lipid storage at recruitment. A 451 possible activation of transcripts of GH could be related to lipid depletion. However, the 452 presence of different patterns in GH and GH-R expression certainly supports the presence of 453 transcriptomic differences in the freshwater and saltwater eel ecotypes despite the fact that they 454 belong to a single panmictic population (Côté et al. 2013).

455

456 No effect of salinity preference on gene expression

457 The absence of a salinity preference effect on gene expressions may seem

458 counterintuitive considering the abundant literature on the environmental influence on salinity

459 preference of A. Anguilla glass eels (Creutzberg 1961; Tosi et al. 1988); Fundulus grandis

460 juveniles (Miller et al. 1983); Oncorhynchus keta, O. gorbuscha, O. tshawytscha, O. nerka, and

461 O. kisutch pre-smolts (McInerney 1964; Otto and McInerney 1970); and Leuresthes sardine

462 postlarvae (Reynolds and Thomson 1974). Considering that American Eel is very euryhaline, 463 salinity preferences could be seen as an index of migratory capacity similar to the smoltification 464 transformation (Otto and McInerney 1970) or to genetic cognitive capacities as suggested in 465 European glass eels (Podgorniak et al. 2015). Overall, the presence of very different endocrine 466 gene expression patterns observed in glass eels captured on the Canadian east coast add to the 467 growing volume of evidence that both phenotypic plasticity as well as spatially varying selection 468 processes are present in this species. Divergent lipolysis capacity in American glass eel has also 469 been demonstrated for individuals captured at the same time and sites of capture (Gaillard et al. 470 2016). Gene \times environment and origin \times salinity effects can influence growth patterns and the 471 expressions of genes representing many functional groups in American glass eels arriving on the 472 Canadian east coast (Côté et al. 2009, 2014). Latitudinal variations in RNA/DNA ratios have 473 been detected throughout the entire distribution range (Laflamme et al. 2012), and evidence of 474 differing patterns of selection along environmental gradients (spatially varying selection) was 475 inferred to explain shifts in allele frequencies involved in metabolism (e.g. lipid and sugar 476 metabolism, development of respiratory function, development of heart muscle) within the time 477 frame of a single generation despite the panmictic reproduction mode in American Eel (Gagnaire 478 et al. 2012; Pavey et al. 2015).

479

480 Gene expression of the thyroid axis and eel development

481 Since the development of glass eels captured in Rivière-Saint-Jean seemed to be less 482 advanced than in the other two rivers, the higher expressions of thyroid activity indicators could 483 be related to developmental processes. The thyroid axis has been shown to be involved in fish 484 metamorphosis (Power et al. 2001; Sudo et al. 2014). Specifically, iodothyronine deiodinases 485 have been shown to control developmental phases in teleost fishes (e.g., Jarque and Piña 2014). 486 Kawakami et al. (2013) showed higher expressions of thyroid hormone α_a and α_b receptors during 487 the larval stage of the Japanese eel with a decrease at the onset of metamorphosis followed by a 488 peak at later stages of metamorphosis. In the Japanese conger eel, *Conger myriaster*, the 489 expression of these two thyroid hormone receptors peaked at metamorphosis and the expression 490 of the isoform α_a was higher than that of α_b . Moreover, triiodothyronine in Japanese Eel was 491 primarily triggered during metamorphosis while thyroxine peaked at the end of the 492 metamorphosis and at the glass eel stage (Yamano et al. 2007).

493 In American Eel, hormonal concentration at the vellow eel stage indicated that those that 494 were colonizing rivers had the highest thyroxine concentrations (Castonguay et al. 1990). 495 Considering that both Edeline et al. (2004) and Castonguay et al. (1990) showed only slight 496 differences in triiodothyronine concentrations between freshwater and brackish/marine glass and 497 yellow eels, this may argue for a role related to metamorphosis to explain high expression levels 498 of genes related to the thyroid axis in Rivière-Saint-Jean. However, the role of development 499 processes involved in the hormone-encoding genes for thyroid axis remains unclear considering 500 the variations in response of gene expression profiles for this axis among our rivers along with 501 variations in the stage of pigmentation. Moreover, the number of individuals did not allow 502 including the time of capture for consideration in the present study. This is an important question 503 for future studies.

504

505 ** Gene expression profiles of the thyrotropic axis

We analyzed different indicators of the thyrotropic axis, and we expected similar 506 507 differences in gene expressions along the whole axis (from thyroid stimulating hormone to 508 receptors for thyroid hormones), which was not the case. The different portions of this axis are 509 regulated by different mechanisms (for a review see Orozco and Valverde-R 2005), and it could 510 be relevant trying to find at which level of regulation differences between ecotypes occur. 511 Indeed, Sudo et al. (2014) found increased thyroid hormone levels without an increase in the expression of TSH-β during Japanese eel metamorphosis (Sudo et al. 2014). Body concentration 512 513 measurements of circulating thyroid hormones would have provided suitable information. 514 Unfortunately our attempts to perform such measures were unsuccessful in the sense that levels 515 were always below the detection threshold of the RIA kit used even when we worked with pools 516 of four individuals that were shorter, younger and had less plasma compared to European glass 517 eels at their entrance into the rivers.

518

519 Conclusions

520 This study highlights that endocrine mechanisms underlying recruitment in glass eels 521 depend on their ecotype and vary along geographic sites, since ecotypes are adapted to live under 522 varying environmental conditions. Our results show that the larger size of the freshwater ecotype 523 could be explained by their GH/GH-R₁ and IGF-1R gene expression and that high GH/GH-R₁

524 and high type 2-deiodinase mRNA levels could be important traits allowing this ecotype to reach 525 remote and colder Canadian estuaries. The regulatory mechanisms of the thyroidal and 526 somatotropic axes that could explain the different geographic hormonal gene expression patterns 527 as well as how these differences are programmed during the glass eel stage remain to be 528 elucidated. The demonstration of differential molecular phenotypes between ecotypes and rivers 529 at recruitment stage supports the view that the origin of glass eels potentially used in stocking 530 practices should be taken into account in management decisions. Namely, the choice of the 531 geographic site to be used in resettlement programs should take into account ecotypic variation 532 (e.g. freshwater vs. salt-brackish ecotypes, sensu Pavey et al. 2015) in order to respect ecological 533 and genetic integrity of supplemented contingents.

534

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784 Captions

785 Figure 1 Map showing sampling sites. 1: Mersey River, Nova Scotia (MR), brackish/saltwater

ecotype; 2: Rivière-Saint-Jean, Gulf of St. Lawrence, Québec (RSJ), freshwater ecotype; 3:

787 Grande-Rivière-Blanche, St. Lawrence River, Québec (GRB), freshwater ecotype. The dates of

capture and a schema representing the experimental design (10 glass eels per river and per

salinity preference; Boivin et al. 2014) are also shown.

790

791 **Figure 2** Multidimensional scaling (MDS) of Bray-Curtis similarities from gene expressions

database and vector plots associated. Only vector plots that contributed the most to dissimilarities

between rivers, are shown ($\rho > 0.6$ on one MDS axis). Vector plots characterize the grouping on

the MDS plot, i.e., direction of the vectors is dictated by elevated gene expressions (a) and

elevated biological trait measurements (b). Each river was averaged in the MDS by the factor

river × salinity, to maximize readability on the 2-D ordination (c). GRB: Grande-Rivière-

797 Blanche; MR: Mersey River: RSJ: Rivière-Saint-Jean. Large dashed circles indicate freshwater

record ecotype and light dashed circle indicates salt/brackish ecotype. FW: fresh water; SW/BW:

799 salt/brackish water.

800 Spearman correlations of the vector plots were : (a) $\rho = -0.84$ for type 2-iodothyronine

801 deiodinase (DIO-2), $\rho = -0.93$ for prolactin (PRL), $\rho = -0.71$ for growth hormone (GH), $\rho =$

- 802 -0.40 for thyroid stimulating hormone (TSH- β), and $\rho = -0.30$ for insulin-like growth factor 1
- receptor (IGF-1R) on the horizontal axis of MDS 1, and $\rho = -0.37$ for DIO-2, $\rho = -0.09$ for PRL,

804 $\rho = 0.55$ for GH, $\rho = -0.62$ for TSH- β , and $\rho = 0.82$ for IGF-1R on the vertical axis of MDS 2;

805 (b) $\rho = -0.64$ for length, $\rho = 0.75$ for pigmentation stage (Pig.) on MDS 1 axis, and $\rho = -0.74$ for

806 length, $\rho = -0.11$ for Pig. on MDS 2 axis.

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Figure 3 Relative changes in gene expression of nine candidate genes in glass eels captured in

809 the Mersey River (MR), Rivière-St-Jean (RSJ), and Grande-Rivière-Blanche (GRB). The

810 calibrator values (indicated by horizontal lines) were determined from MR glass eels with a

- 811 preferrence for brackish water (mean \pm SE): A) Prolactine (PRL), B) type 2-iodothyronine
- 812 deiodinase (DIO-2), C) growth hormone (GH), D) insulin-like growth factor 1 receptor (IGF-
- 813 1R), E) thyroid stimulating hormone (TSH- β), F) thyroid hormone receptor α_b (THR α_b), G)
- growth hormone receptor 1 (GH-R₁), H) thyroid hormone receptor α_a (THR α_a), and I) insulin-

- 815 like growth factor 1 (IGF-1). The dashed horizontal lines indicate the normalized values for the
- 816 calibrator group. Different letters indicate significant differences among rivers (one-way
- 817 ANOVA, $\alpha = 0.05$).
- 818
- 819 Figure 4 Biological trait measurements: (A) length, (B) wet mass, (C) LeCren condition index,
- 820 Kn, and (D) pigmentation stage. MR: Mersey River, RSJ: Rivière-St-Jean, GRB: Grande-
- 821 Rivière-Blanche. Mean \pm SE are presented for (A), (B), and (C). A box plot of the median, 25
- 822 and 75% percentiles, minimum and maximum values are shown for pigmentation stage (D). The
- .reen. 823 asterisk (non parametric analysis) and different letters (parametric statistical analysis) indicate
- 824 significant differences among rivers.
- 825
- 826

- 827 **Table 1** List of each GenBank accession numbers, species' sequences forward (F) and reverse
- 828 (R) primers, Taqman primers F, R and Taqman probes (P), of the reference and candidate genes.
- qPCR efficiencies (equation of linear regression and its coefficient of determination, R^2) are also
- 830 presented.

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	GenBank	Forward and reverse primers	Taqman forward, reverse, and probes	qPCR
Coding Genes	access. No.	used for sequencing	used for qPCR	efficiency
Acidic ribosomal protein: ARP	A. anguilla (AY763793)	F:GCCACGTGGAAGTCCAACTA R:CAGGAGTTTCTCCAGAGCGG	F:TCTCCCTGCGTGCAAAGG P:TGGTGCTGATGGGC R:CTTGCGCATCATGGTGTTCT	y = -3.1958 x + 34.388 $R^2 = 0.99926$
Cytochrome B: CytB	A. anguilla (AF006714)	F:CATCTGCCGAGACGTCAACT R:ATCTGCCCTCATGGAAGCAC	F:TCATCTGCCGAGACGTCAAC P:ATGGATGATTAATTCGC R:GAGGCCCCCATTTGCATGTAG	y = -3.1254 x + 32.523 $R^2 = 0.99922$
Elongation factor 1, EF1	<i>A. japonica</i> (AB593812)	F:CCTGAAGCCTGGTATGGTGG R:TACGTTGCCACGACGGATTT	F:TTGCCCCTGCCAACGT P:ACCACTGAGGTCAAGTC R:GGGACTCATGGTGCATTTCC	y = -3.3354 x + 33.755 $R^2 = 0.99974$
Prolactin, PRL	A.anguilla (X69149)	F:CTTCCCTCCAAACCCCTCAC R:CCTTGGAGGAGGAGCCAATC	F:GGCGCCATCTACAGCAAAAC P:AGGGAACTGCAGGACC R:CCCAGAGCTCAGGCTGTTG	y = -3.2675 x + 29.078 $R^2 = 0.98724$
Thyroid stimulating hormone β, TSH-β	A. japonica (AY158008.1)	F:GCCCTCCAAGATGAGAGTGG R:GCAGACTGGAGGCTCTTACC	F:GCAGGACAGGTTCTCTCCATCT P:CCTGTGGACTACACGCT R:TCACACTCTGGTTTCTCCACGTA	y = -3.2842 x + 28.009 $R^2 = 0.98643$
Thyroid hormone receptors α _a , THRα _a	A. japonica (AB678206.1)	F:TCGTTTTGTTGCAGGGGTTG R:CTTTCATTGGCAAGCTCCCG	F:CGATGCAGAAAGTGGTGATACC P:TGAGACCGACCGCTC R:CAAATCTCCACTGCTCTTGTCTCA	y = -3.6152 x + 24.467 $R^2 = 0.99738$

Thyroid hormone receptors α _{b,} THRα _b	<i>A. japonica</i> (AB678207.1)	F:CTCACGTGCGTGGAGAAGAT R:GTCTGCTTCACACCTCCTGG	F:GCTGGCGTTCGAACACTACA P:AACTACCGCAAGCACA R:TGGGCCAGAAGTGAGGAATG	y = -3.1052 x + 40.300 $R^2 = 0.99847$
Type 2- iodothyronine deiodinase, DIO-2	A. japonica (AB199797.1)	F:AAGCTGGGCTTCAGTAGCAG R:CCTCTGAGCAGCCAGAACTC	F:CCTGCTGGACTTTGCGTCAT P:CGACCGTCCTTTAGTG R:GTGGCCGAGCCAAAGTTG	y = -3.3820 x + 40.970 $R^2 = 0.99624$
Growth hormone, GH	A. anguilla (AY616666.1)	F:CCCAGGTTAAGGGGGCTGATG R:CAAGCCCAATCCCTCACACA	F:ATCTCCTCAGCCCTGATCCA P:TCATGGGTGTATCCTC R:AAGCATCGCTCAGGGTCTTC	y = -3.1047 x +25.839 $R^2 = 0.99967$
Growth hormone receptor 1, GH-R ₁	A. japonica (AB180476.1)	F:CATCTTCACCCCTTGCCTGT R:TACTGGGTCCAGACGGATGT	F:GGGTCTTCTTCGCCACTAGCT P:CTGCCCAGCGACTG R:TGACCGAGTAGTCCGGACACT	y = -3.3030 x + 38.281 $R^2 = 0.99985$
Insulin like growth factor 1, IGF-1	A. japonica (AB353115.1)	F:GCTGCAGTTTGTGTGTGGAG R:TCTGATGCACCTCCTTGCAG	F:CAGGCTATGGATCCAGCTCAA P:ACGGTCACACAATCG R:GCAGCACTCGTCGACTATGC	y = -3.3309 x + 25.418 $R^2 = 0.99202$
Insulin like growth factor 1 receptor, IGF-1R	A. rostrata	Pavey, unpublised data	F:CGAGCGCATCGAGTTCCT P:AACGAGGCGTCCGTC R:GGTGGCAGTTGAACTCCTTCA	y = -3.2673 x + 40.298 $R^2 = 0.99755$

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Supplement material 1

Specific sequences (expressed sequence tag [EST] or coding DNA sequence [CDS] for IGF-1R) listed for each gene with their numbers of base pairs. Except for IGF-1R, the percentage of similarity and the score obtained between these sequences and the GenBank species with the best alignment results are also provided. Alignment results were extracted using the Basic Local Alignment Search tool, Blast® (http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov; website accessed 12-06-2014). Reference genes: ARP: acidic ribosomal protein, CytB: cytochrome B, and EF1: elongation factor 1; candidate genes: PROL: prolactine, TSH- β : thyroid stimulating hormone β , THR α_a and THR α_b : thyroid hormone receptors α_a and α_b , DIO-2: Type 2-iodothyronine deiodinase, GH: growth hormone, GH-R₁: growth hormone receptor 1, IGF-1: insulin-like growth factor 1, and IGF-1R: insulin-like growth factor 1 receptor. Underlined sections indicate positions of forward and reverse Taqman primers and double underlined sections indicate positions of Taqman probes.

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Gene	Specific expressed sequence tag of Anguilla rostrata (number of base pairs)	Results of Alignment
ARP	TGCCACGTGGAAGTCCAACTATTTTATGAAAATCATCCAACTCTTGGATGAGTACCCCAAGTGCTTC ATTGTGGGGGCCGACAATGTGGGCTCCAAGCAGATGCAGACCATCCGCC <u>TCTCCCTGCGTGCAAAGG</u> CTG <u>TGGTGCTGATGGGC</u> A <u>AGAACACCATGATGCGCAAG</u> GCCATCCGTGGCCATCTGGAGAACAACC CCGCTCTGGAGAAACTCCTGAAATCCCTATTTTCCAAAGCCCGAAGGCTTTGCATATGTAATTTGCCA TAAAACACCTTTTTGCCAAGAAGGTAAATTCCTC (302bp)	AY63793.1 (A. anguilla) 99%, 399
CytB	T <u>TCATCTGCCGAGACGTCAAC</u> TATGGATGATTAATTCGCAAC <u>CTACATGCAAATGGGGGCCTC</u> ATTCTT CTTTATCTGCCTATACCTTCACATTGCCCGAGGACTTTACTACGGCTCATATCTTTACAAAGAAACAT GAAACATTGGAGTCGTATTATTCCTATTAGTAATAATAACAGCATTCGTKGGGTATGTGCTTCCATGA GGGCAGATAAAGAA (218bp)	KJ546053 (A. anguilla) 99%, 375
EF1	TTCCTGAAGCCTGGTATGGTGGTGACCT <u>TTGCCCCTGCCAACGT</u> G <u>ACCACTGAGGTCAAGTC</u> TGT <u>GG</u> <u>AAATGCACCATGAGTCCC</u> TGCCTGAGGCTCTTCCCGGTGACAATGTTGGCTTCAACGTCAAGAACGT CTCTGTCAAGGAAATCCGTCGTGGCAACGTAAA (167bp)	HM367094 (A. japonica) 100%, 303
PROL	TTCTTCCCTCCAAACCCCTCACGACAAGGACCAGGCTTTGAGAGTGCCGGAATCAGAGCTGCTGTCC CTCGCCCGCGCGCTCCTGCTGTCCTGGAACGATCCCCTGCTCCTGCTCGCCCGAGGCGCCCACGCT GTCCCATCCGCAGAAC <u>GGCGCCATCTACAGCAAAAC</u> AAGGGAACTGCAGGACCAGTC <u>CAACAGCCT</u> <u>GAGCTCTGGG</u> CTGGACAGGCTGATTCACAAGATTGGCTCCCTCCTTCCAAAGAAAA (257bp)	AY616666 (A. anguilla) 99%, 359
TSH-β	TGCCCTCCAAGATGAGAGTGGTCCTGTTGGCCAGCGGCGTCCTCTGCCTGTTA <u>GCAGGACAGGTTCT</u> <u>CTCCATCT</u> GCAGT <u>CCTGTGGACTACACGCTGTACGTGGAGAAACCAGAGTGTGAC</u> TTCTGCGTGGCC ATCAACACCACCATCTGCATGGGCTTCTGCTATTCCCTGGTAAGAGCCTCCAGTCTGCAA (194bp)	AY158008.1 (A. japonica) 99%, 348
THRαa	TTTTCGTTTTGTTGCAGGGGTTGAAATATCGCTTGCCGTGTAGTGTATTGNACTAGCTAGCTAGCCAG CTAGCGAAATATTAAAGCAAGCGCTGGTCACTGAGCCTGCTTGGACTTCTTAATTTCTCTCTC	AB678206.1 (A. japonica) 99%, 459

THRα _b	TTTTCACGTGCGTGGAGAAGATCGAGAAGTGCCAGGAGACATAMCT <u>GCTGGCGTTCGAACACTACA</u> TC <u>AACTACCGCAAGCACAACATTCCTCACTTCTGGCCCA</u> AGCTGCTGATGAAGGTGACAGACCTGCG CATGATCGGGGCGTGCCACGCCAGCCGGTTCCTGCACATGAAGGTGGAGTGCCCCACCGAACTCTTC CCCCCGCTCTTCCTGGAGGTCTTCGAAGACCAGGAGGTGTGAAGCAGACAA (251bp)	AB678207.1 (A. japonica) 98%, 435
DIO-2	TTTAGCTGGGCTTCAGTAGCAGGACAGGCGATGAGTGTAA <u>CCTGCTGGACTTTGCGTCAT</u> CCGACCG <u>TCCTTTAGTGGTCAACTTTGGCTCGGCCAC</u> CTGACCCCCCTTCATCAGCCACCTGCCTGCCTTCCGGC AGCTGGTGGAAGAGTTCTCGGATGTGGCCGACTTTCTCCTGGTCTACATTGACGAGGCTCACCCCTCC GACATCTGGGCGGCACCAGCAGTGGAGGCGCATTCCTTCAAAGTACAGAAGCACCGCAGCCTTGAG GAGCGAGTTCTGGCTGCTCAGAGGAA (295bp)	AB199797.1 (A. japonica) 99%, 514
GH	AGCTCATAGTTTATCGCCCTCTATCTGTCAGGACGGGTACTTGCTGCGC <u>ATCTCCTCAGCCCTGATCC</u> <u>AGTCATGGGTGTATCCTCTGAAGACCCTGAGCGATGCTT</u> TCTCAAACAGCCTGATGTTTGGGACCTCT GATGGGATCTTTGATAAGCTGGAGGACCTGAACAAGGGCATCAATGAATTAATGAAGGTAAAATGG GGTAA (207bp)	AY616666.1 (A. anguilla) 99%, 359
GH-R1	TCATCTTCACCCCTTGCCTGTTGCTAGGTGCCGGAGCCTCGCCGGAAGGAGGCGCGGAGACGCCGTC CGAAGCCCCCCGCAGGGCCCCCACTTCACCGGCTGCTTGTCTCGGGAGCAGGAGACGTTCCGTTGC TGGTGGAGTGCCGGAAGCTTCCGGAACCTGACGGAACCCGGGGCCCTGA <u>GGGTCTTCTTCGCCACTA</u> <u>GCTCCCTGCCCAGCGACTGGAAGGAGTGTCCGGACTACTCGGTCA</u> CCGTGCCGAACGAGTGCTATTT CAACAAGAGCTACACATCCGGCTGGACCCAATAA (302bp)	AB180476.1 (A. japonica) 97%, 501
IGF-1	AACAGAGGTTTTATTTCAGTACCA <u>CAGGCTATGGATCCAGCTCAA</u> GACGGTCACACAATCGTG <u>GCAT</u> <u>AGTCGACGAGTGCTGC</u> TTCCAGAGCTGTGAGCTACGGCGACTGGAGATGTACTGCGCACCAGTGAA ACCTGGCAAGGCTGCCCGGTCCGTCAGGGCACAGCGCCACACGGACATNCCAAAAAACCCAGAAGAA ACAAATGTCCGGTAATANTCWCCCATSCTGCAAGGAGGTGCATCAGAA (247bp)	AB353115.1 (A. japonica) 96%, 416
IGF-1R	GACGGAAGGGCGGTGTACGTGCCGGACGAGTGGGAGGGCCCGCGGGAGAAGATCACTCTGTCTCGG GAGCTGGGCCAGGGCTCGTTCGGCATGGTGTACGAGGGCATCGCCAAGGGCGTGGTCAAGGACGAG CCCGAGACGCGCGTGGCCATCAAGACGGTCAACGAGTCGGCCAGCATGCG <u>CGAGCGCATCGAGTTC</u> <u>CTCAACGAGGCGTCCGTCATGAAGGAGTTCAACTGCCACC</u> ACGTGGTGCGTCTGCTGGGCGTGGTTT CGCAGGGTCAGCCCACTCTGGTCATAATGGAGCTGATGACCCGTGGAGACCTCAAGAGTCACCTGCG GTCTCTGCGGTCCCAGGAG (351bp)	Pavey et al. Unpublished data.

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