
Genetic investigation of swimbladder inflation anomalies in the European sea bass, *Dicentrarchus labrax* L.

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Abstract:

Although the aetiology of swimbladder inflation anomalies in important aquaculture species such as European sea bass *D. labrax* is not fully determined, culture conditions are commonly suggested as main contributory factors. Little information is available on whether swimbladder inflation has a genetic basis for its expression too. In this work, 24 full-sibling sea bass families from a 4 dams × 6 sires factorial crossing were reared under communal conditions. The larvae developing normal and abnormal (uninflated or hyper-inflated) swimbladders were genotyped at four microsatellite loci, *Labrax-3*, *Labrax-13*, *Labrax-17*, *Labrax-29*, and allocated to the individual breeders. Out of 273 offspring, 97% could be assigned to a single parental pair. The genotype and pedigree analysis showed an imbalance in family size due to differential survival of larvae with normally inflated swimbladders, with the offspring generated from one dam and one sire being two- to three-fold superior to the other parents, respectively. In larvae with non-inflated swimbladder, significant differences in family size were observed only among half-sibling sire families, whereas in larvae with hyper-inflated swimbladder such differences were found both among half-sibling sire and dam families. The results suggest that paternally and maternally inherited factors may contribute to the expression of swimbladder anomalies in sea bass along with major environmental clues.

Keywords: Swimbladder; Anomalies; Genetics; Sea bass; *Dicentrarchus labrax*

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30 **1. Introduction**

31 The swimbladder of fishes is a hydrostatic, buoyancy-regulating organ which develops during
32 early larval ontogeny from the dorsal wall of the digestive tract. It also plays a role in the perception
33 and production of sounds as well as in respiratory processes. The swimbladder may inflate either
34 through the transfer of atmospheric air via a pneumatic duct, as in physostomous fish, or by internal
35 gas diffusion like in physoclist fish, or some combination of both (Alexander, 1966; Pelster, 1998).
36 Some physoclist fish, which include the European sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*), are transient
37 physostomous as larvae, possessing a temporary pneumatic duct and seem to rely on the gulping of
38 air at the water surface for the initial activation of the swimbladder (Chatain, 1986; Kitajima et al.,
39 1994; Bailey and Doroshov, 1995). Although the mechanisms and conditions for functional
40 swimbladder inflation achievement vary among fish, its initial inflation seems to take place during a
41 particular and finite interval, generally associated to the critical time of transition from endogenous
42 to exogenous feeding (Trotter et al., 2005).

43 Correct swimbladder inflation is essential for functional buoyancy control, swimming ability and
44 feeding success. Failure to inflate the swimbladder has been regarded as a major obstacle in the
45 rearing of important commercial species such as striped bass, *Morone saxatilis* (Martin-Robichaud
46 and Peterson, 1998), sea bream, *Sparus auratus*, and European sea bass (Chatain, 1994). Fish
47 lacking a functional swimbladder have been reported to show higher mortality (Chatain, 1986, 1987;
48 Chapman et al., 1988a; Chatain and Dewavrin, 1989; Trotter et al., 2003), increased metabolic rate
49 (Marty et al., 1995), delayed growth (Battaglione and Talbot, 1992; Crespo et al., 2001;

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51 Jacquemond, 2004) and skeletal deformities (Chatain, 1994; Kitajima et al., 1994; Divanach et al.,
52 1997; Jacquemond, 2004; Trotter et al., 2001). The rate of swimbladder inflation in some
53 physostome and transient physostome larvae has been significantly improved by use of surface
54 cleaning devices favouring access to the air-water interface (Chatain and Ounais-Guschemann,
55 1990). However, since other factors like tank hydrodynamics, light intensity, salinity, and
56 temperature may contribute to hamper or preclude swimbladder inflation in these fish, specific sets
57 of environmental variables are often required (Divanach et al., 1996). On the whole, as fish with
58 uninflated swimbladders are useless for commercial purposes, early methods for detecting and
59 separating them from normal fish have been developed in important hatchery-reared species
60 (Chapman et al., 1988b; Chatain and Corrao, 1992; Jacquemond, 2004). Phenomena of hyper-
61 inflation or hypertrophy of the swimbladder during larval stages are little investigated despite being
62 known to cause considerable losses under unfavourable culture conditions in some species
63 (Bagarinao and Kungvankij, 1986; Planas and Cunha, 1999).

64 Although the biotic and abiotic mechanisms capable of influencing initial swimbladder inflation
65 in fish may be quite numerous, the environmental/culture conditions are generally regarded as main
66 contributory factors (Zilberg et al., 2004). In contrast, little attention has been devoted so far to see
67 whether the process of swimbladder inflation has a genetic basis for its expression too (Harrell et
68 al., 2002; Zilberg et al., 2004).

69 The present work was undertaken in order to investigate possible parental effects on
70 swimbladder inflation anomalies (non-inflation and hyper-inflation) observed in hatchery-reared sea
71 bass larvae. For this purpose, we performed a genotype and pedigree analysis of sibling families
72 originating from a full factorial crossing and maintained under communal rearing conditions.

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76 2. Material and methods

77 2.1. Fish

78 Fish originated from a commercial sea bass broodstock held under natural conditions of
79 photoperiod and temperature and spawned following a previously published protocol (Peruzzi and
80 Chatain, 2000). A total of $n=10$ mature females received a single injection of Luteinizing Hormone
81 Releasing Hormone (LHRHa) at $10 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ body weight. Mature oocytes were obtained from 8 out
82 of 10 females approximately 72 hours following hormonal injection. Eggs of individual dams were
83 equally divided into 6 aliquots of 50 ml and each aliquot was fertilized with 0.5 ml of sperm drawn
84 from a single male ($n=6$) according to a full-factorial mating design producing 48 full-sibling
85 families (8 dams x 6 sires). Individual families were maintained in 12l cylindro-conical incubators
86 placed in a thermo-regulated seawater system at 13°C (Saillant et al., 2001). Floating (alive) and
87 sinking (dead) eggs were separated at embryonation (48 hours post-fertilization) by increasing the
88 salinity to 40‰ and their total volume and estimated number measured following the method
89 described by Chatain (1994). Only 24 families (4 dams x 6 sires) generated enough living eggs for
90 the requirements of the experiment. Equal aliquots of embryonated eggs (5ml or approx. 5000 eggs)
91 were sampled from these families, pooled, transferred into a 500l tank maintained at $13\text{-}14^{\circ}\text{C}$ until
92 20 days post-hatching (dph) and then at 20°C following standard rearing procedures for sea bass
93 (Peruzzi et al., 2004). Water quality was monitored by a daily control of temperature and salinity,
94 and weekly check of oxygen level, pH, NH_3 , NH_4^+ , NO_2^- , and NO_3^- concentrations.

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96 2.2. Sampling

97 Measurement of larvae (L_T , mm) and verification of swimbladder condition were performed
98 using a profile projector (Nikon V12), while photographs were taken using a Zeiss microscope
99 fitted with a video camera module (Visilog 5.2 ©Noesis Vision, Canada). Larvae with hyperinflated
100 swimbladder were collected ($n=100$) from the surface of the tank between 15 and 25 dph. Larvae
101 with normal and without functional swimbladder were sorted following the method described by

102 Chatain and Corrao (1992) at the end of the larval period (45 dph). They were counted by a
103 photographic method (Chatain et al., 1996), sampled ($n=100/\text{group}$) and finally preserved in 95%
104 ethyl alcohol for further genotyping.

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106 2.3. Molecular analyses and parental assignments

107 Nuclear DNA was extracted by alkaline lysis from portions of ethanol preserved larvae (Saillant
108 et al., 2002). Briefly, alcohol was allowed to evaporate at ambient temperature in an Eppendorf tube
109 and the dry tissue lysed in NaOH 200 mM (3 hr, 55°C). The solution was then neutralized with tris-
110 HCl 200 mM and pH adjusted to 8.

111 The primers of five polymorphic microsatellite loci, *Labrax-3*, *Labrax-13*, *Labrax-17*, *Labrax-29*
112 (Garcia de Leon et al., 1995) and *Dla-22F* (Ciftci et al., 2002) were amplified by PCR. The general
113 PCR protocol was: 50-100 ng DNA, 0.1-1.0 μM primer, 400 μM dNTP, 10 mM Tris-HCl, 50 mM
114 KCl, 1.5 mM MgCl_2 , and 0.5 U taq polymerase (AB gene). The PCR reactions were carried out on a
115 GeneAmp 2700 thermal cycler (Applied Biosystems) using the following profile: 94°C for 10 min,
116 followed by 37 cycles of 94°C for 20 s, 59°C for 30 s and 72°C for 60 s, with a final extension of
117 72°C for 10 min. Forward primers were labelled with fluorescent dyes. The PCR products were
118 separated by electrophoresis using an ABIPrism® 3100 Genetic Analyzer for fluorescent-labelled
119 products (Applied Biosystems). Alleles were scored using a GeneMapper® Software v3.7 package
120 (Applied Biosystems).

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122 2.4. Statistical analysis

123 Based on the microsatellite genotypes from the parents and offspring potential parent pairs were
124 explored among the offspring by means of likelihood-based parental allocation using the software
125 PAPA 1.1 (Duchesne et al., 2002). The allocation method implemented in this software is based on
126 breeding likelihood (San Cristobal and Chevalet, 1997). Given an offspring genotype, the likelihood

127 of a parental pair of genotypes is defined as the probability of this pair breeding the offspring
 128 genotype among all of its possible descents.

129 Data concerning the swimbladder status were analyzed by contingency table analysis using χ^2
 130 (Dagnelie, 1975). For normally-inflated fish (S^+), the observed (O) frequencies were compared to
 131 expected (E) equal proportions of individuals in each family. For non-inflated (S^-) and hyper-
 132 inflated groups (S^{++}), the observed frequencies were compared to expected frequencies weighted for
 133 the survival frequencies observed in normal fish (S^+) and calculated as follows:

$$134 \quad E_i = O_{S^+i} N$$

135 with E_i being the expected frequency for the cell i^{th} within a group, N the total observations in that
 136 group, and O_{S^+i} the corresponding observed frequency in the S^+ group.

137 Statistical analyses were performed using Statview™ SE+ software. Differences to the
 138 equilibrium were accepted as significant when $P < 0.05$. All means were expressed as values \pm 95%
 139 confidence interval (CI).

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142 **3. Results**

143 Survival rate from the stage of embryonated eggs to 45 dph was 13%. The percentage of larvae
 144 affected by hyperinflation could not be exactly estimated but was around 1% of the total fish. These
 145 larvae were recorded in a period between 15 dph and 25 dph, and averaged 5.92 ± 0.17 mm to 10.95
 146 ± 0.46 mm L_T . The proportion of larvae with normally inflated and non-inflated swimbladder
 147 recorded at 45 dph was 97% and 3% respectively. At this stage, the mean length of the larvae was
 148 approximately 15.80 ± 0.32 mm L_T . Examples of the three swimbladder conditions are illustrated in
 149 Fig.1.

150 One of the microsatellite loci, *Labrax-13*, was difficult to amplify in the multiplex system and
 151 was excluded from the study. The remaining four loci allowed the unambiguous assignment of 264
 152 out of the 273 genotyped offspring (97 %) to a single parental pair. The representation of the

153 offspring in the different families and swimbladder conditions is given in Table 1., and the observed
154 and expected frequencies for each class are reported in Fig. 2. In both the normal and hyperinflated
155 group 23 of the 24 possible families were represented, whereas in the group without swimbladder
156 only 22 families were found.

157 In larvae with normal swimbladder, the observed frequencies significantly differed from an
158 expected random distribution, indicating differential survival both among half-sibling sire ($\chi^2 =$
159 23.054; $P < 0.001$; $df = 5$) and dam ($\chi^2 = 9$; $P = 0.0292$; $df = 3$) families. In particular, survival of
160 offspring generated from sire 5 and dam 2 was three-fold superior ($\chi^2 = 6.37$; $P = 0.0116$; $df = 1$)
161 and two-fold superior ($\chi^2 = 4.35$; $P = 0.0370$; $df = 1$) to the other parents in the corresponding class,
162 respectively. After correction for the survival frequencies observed in normal fish, larvae with non-
163 inflated swimbladder showed significant differences in family size only among half-sibling sire
164 families ($\chi^2 = 38.557$; $P < 0.0001$; $df = 5$). Here, the number of larvae generated from sire 1, 2 and 6
165 were two-fold superior to those of the remaining sires ($\chi^2 = 188$; $P < 0.001$; $df = 1$). In larvae with
166 hyper-inflated swimbladder, imbalance in family size was found both among half-sibling sire ($\chi^2 =$
167 37.082; $P < 0.0001$; $df = 5$) and dam ($\chi^2 = 24.21$; $P < 0.0001$; $df = 3$) families. Again, larvae from
168 sire 1, 2 and 6 accounted for more than twice those generated by the remaining male parents ($\chi^2 =$
169 32; $P < 0.001$; $df = 1$), whereas dam 1 and 4 produced 1.6-fold more larvae than the other two
170 females ($\chi^2 = 23.85$; $P < 0.001$; $df = 1$).

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173 4. Discussion

174 In cultured fish considerable variation exists in the ability of larvae to achieve correct
175 swimbladder inflation, and some species require adapted culture techniques. In the European sea
176 bass, initial swimbladder inflation is size-mediated and usually occurs around the time of transition
177 from yolk sac depletion to exogenous feeding, i.e. when the larvae measure on average 5.5 to 6.5
178 mm L_T (Chatain, 1986). In this work, communally reared sibling families developing a normal

179 swimbladder showed unequal survival at the end of the larval period, with the offspring generated
180 from the best performing dam and sire each accounting for nearly 37% of the total. Imbalance in
181 family size due to differential survival has been observed in this species by Garcia de Leon et al.
182 (1998) using similar rearing conditions. These authors analyzed the performance of 9 sibling
183 families in order to detect possible parental effects on various larval traits, including survival at
184 40dph, and reported up to two-fold variations in survival rates as a result of individual dam and sire
185 effects. Parental influences on early survival of mass reared sea bass larvae were also observed by
186 Saillant et al. (2001) using a larger crossing design. In their work, most of the parental effects on
187 early survival were largely due to females or by the interaction between these and one particular
188 male parent. This is also in agreement with our findings, where approximately 17% of the larvae
189 with normally inflated swimbladder were siblings of the best performing female and male parent.
190 Hence, all these results show that genetic components may be involved in the survival performance
191 of sea bass larvae reared under communal conditions and that parental contributions are not simply
192 additive but possibly interactive.

193 Failure to inflate the swimbladder is a major obstacle in hatchery-reared fish, and is generally
194 regarded to result from the application of unsuitable culture practices though it has been reported
195 occasionally in wild populations too (Egloff, 1996; Czesny et al., 2005). In the present work, sea
196 bass larvae lacking functional swimbladders accounted for 3% of the total population at the end of
197 the experimental phase (40 dph). Slightly higher rates (11%) of larvae displaying non-inflated
198 swimbladders at the same age have been reported by other authors (De León et al., 1998; Saillant et
199 al., 2002). Our results highlighted a significant imbalance in family size due to paternal effects after
200 correction for the survival frequencies observed in normally developed larvae. This is not in
201 agreement with De León et al. (1998) who reported no significant parental effect for such an
202 anomaly using a lower number of families but comparable rearing techniques. In a different genetic
203 approach, Zilberg et al. (2004) found some alterations in transcription of genes involved in
204 cardiovascular or muscular functions and associated with the state of swimbladder non-inflation in

205 angel fish, *Pterophyllum scalare* (Cichlidae). These authors observed that this abnormal trait was
206 accompanied by reduced expression of certain genes potentially causing the defect and increased
207 transcription of others compensating for associated functional disorders. Even though the aetiology
208 of swimbladder non-inflation was not clearly determined in angel fish, genomic alterations,
209 environmental conditions or induced mutation were suggested as possible contributory factors.

210 Hyper-inflation of the swimbladder during larval stages is rarely cited despite causing
211 considerable losses in some hatchery-reared species under improper culture conditions like gas
212 hypersaturation and other stress-inducing factors, acting individually or in combination (Johnson
213 and Katavic, 1984; Bagarinao and Kungvankij, 1986; Planas and Cunha, 1999). In cultured
214 European sea bass, phenomena of hyper-inflation are largely controlled though occasional events
215 are still observed in some experimental (Saillant et al., 2002) and commercial settings (Chatain and
216 Peruzzi, pers. comm.). In all cases, the larvae show impeded swimming and feeding behaviour, float
217 at the water surface and die of starvation within a few days. Our results would suggest that
218 swimbladder hyper-inflation in sea bass, though predominantly influenced by environmental clues,
219 might present a genetic basis for its expression too. In particular, this genetic component would
220 involve both paternally and maternally inherited factors.

221 Overall, the results also suggest a possible correlation between the two anomalies regarding the
222 sire effect, the same two male parents generating the bulk of larvae affected by non-inflation and
223 hypertrophic conditions. Moreover, a better capacity to survive does not seem to correspond with an
224 increased ability of achieving correct swimbladder inflation, as the best performing sire and dam do
225 not appear to be those contributing less to both anomalies.

226 In this work, the relatively low number of larvae and families analyzed did not allow us to
227 estimate full and half-sibling heritabilities of the observed swimbladder inflation conditions.
228 Elsewhere, a study designed to estimate the heritability of the non-inflated swimbladder defect in
229 striped bass, *M. saxatilis*, has shown a moderate genetic value ($h^2=0.35$) for full-sibling families,
230 and a low value ($h^2=0.04$) for half-sib dam families (Harrell et al., 2002). As indicated by these

231 authors, the half-sibling heritabilities showed scarce additive genetic variance for improvement of
232 this trait by selective breeding.

233 Although uninflated or hypertrophic swimbladders in sea bass are generally regarded to result
234 from the application of unsuitable culture conditions, our findings support the hypothesis of some
235 level of genetic influence associated with these defects too. If confirmed, this would point out an
236 even more complex co-causative mechanism of abnormal swimbladder development in this species.
237 Nevertheless, it is clear that the extent of genetic control over such traits can be further assessed
238 only using a dataset involving a larger number of families and individuals.

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351 **Legends**

352

353 Table 1. Number of larvae with (a) normally inflated, (b) non-inflated, and (c) hyperinflated
354 swimbladder assigned to the 24 full-sibling families using the microsatellite loci *Labrax-3*, *Labrax-*
355 *13*, *Labrax-17*, and *Labrax-29*.

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357 Fig.1. Photomicrographs of 20 dph (7-8 mm TL) sea bass larvae with (a) normal functional
358 swimbladder, (b) hyper-inflated swimbladder, and (c) non-inflated swimbladder. Arrows indicate
359 the location of swimbladders. Scale bars represent 1mm.

360

361 Fig.2. Observed (\square) and expected (\blacksquare) numbers of larvae presenting normal (S^+), non-inflated (S^-)
362 or hyper-inflated (S^{++}) swimbladders in paternal and maternal half-sibs. For non-inflated and hyper-
363 inflated groups, the expected frequencies represent weighted values.

Sire	Dam				<i>Total</i>
	1	2	3	4	
<i>(a) normal</i>					
1	3	3	2	2	10
2	2	2	3	4	11
3	2	6	3	1	12
4	1	5	3	0	9
5	5	14	4	7	30
6	1	2	5	3	11
<i>Total</i>	14	32	20	17	83
<i>(b) non- inflated</i>					
1	4	8	7	5	24
2	6	6	5	6	23
3	1	4	3	1	9
4	0	3	1	0	4
5	4	7	1	5	17
6	4	5	4	4	17
<i>Total</i>	19	33	21	21	94
<i>(c) hyperinflated</i>					
1	4	4	3	5	16
2	10	3	4	7	24
3	2	4	0	2	8
4	1	1	1	1	4
5	5	6	2	6	19
6	5	7	2	11	25
<i>Total</i>	27	25	12	32	96



