1 Expression variations in Ectodysplasin-A gene (eda) may contribute to

2 morphological divergence of scales in Haplochromine cichlids

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47 Abstract

48 **Background:** Elasmoid scales are one of the most common dermal appendages and can be 49 found in almost all species of bony fish differing greatly in their shape. Whilst the genetic underpinnings behind elasmoid scale development have been investigated, not much is 50 51 known about the mechanisms involved in the shaping of scales. To investigate the links 52 between gene expression differences and morphological divergence, we inferred shape 53 variation of scales from two different areas of the body (anterior and posterior) stemming from ten haplochromine cichlid species from different origins (Lake Tanganyika, Lake 54 55 Malawi, Lake Victoria and riverine). Additionally, we investigated transcriptional differences of a set of genes known to be involved in scale development and morphogenesis in fish. 56

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Results: We found that scales from the anterior and posterior part of the body strongly differ 58 59 in their overall shape, and a separate look on scales from each body part revealed similar trajectories of shape differences considering the lake origin of single investigated species. 60 Above all, nine as well as 11 out of 16 target genes showed expression differences between 61 the lakes for the anterior and posterior dataset, respectively. Whereas in posterior scales four 62 genes (dlx5, eda, rankl and shh) revealed significant correlations between expression and 63 morphological differentiation, in anterior scales only one gene (eda) showed such a 64 correlation. Furthermore, eda displayed the most significant expression difference between 65 species of Lake Tanganyika and species of the other two younger lakes. Finally, we found 66 67 genetic differences in downstream regions of eda gene (e.g. in the eda-tnfsf13b inter-genic 68 region) that are associated with observed expression differences. This is reminiscent of a genetic difference in the *eda-tnfsf13b* inter-genic region which leads to gain or loss of armour 69 70 plates in stickleback.

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72 Conclusion: These findings provide evidence for cross-species transcriptional differences of 73 an important morphogenetic factor, *eda*, which is involved in formation of ectodermal 74 appendages. These expression differences appeared to be associated with morphological 75 differences observed in the scales of haplochromine cichlids indicating potential role of eda 76 mediated signal in divergent scale morphogenesis in fish.

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80 Keywords

81 Scale morphology; gene expression; adaptive radiation; East African lakes; Lake Tanganyika;

- 82 Lake Malawi; Lake Victoria; African cichlids
- 83

84 Background

Cichlids pose a great a model system for evolutionary biology, as they include some of the 85 86 most striking examples of explosive speciation and adaptive radiation. Many aspects of their life history as well as their behaviour, coloration and feeding morphologies are well studied 87 88 [1-3]. One of the most striking features is their repeated evolution of parallel ecomorphologies, especially across the radiations of the three East African Great Lakes, Lake 89 90 Tanganyika (LT), Lake Malawi (LM) and Lake Victoria (LV) [4, 5]. These ecological adaptations are also the focus of many studies, as they promise the opportunity to shed light 91 92 on different molecular mechanisms underlying repeated evolution and diversification [6, 7]. Regarding skeletal morphogenesis in particular the evolution of their jaws and their 93 phenotypic plasticity are topics of ongoing research [7–12]. However, while the adaptive 94 value of some of the investigated structures (e.g., feeding apparatus) can be more easily 95 connected to certain ecological specializations [5, 13], this is not so obvious in others, such as 96 97 scales.

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Fish scales come in a vast array of different shapes and forms. As a part of the dermal 99 skeleton, which amongst other structures also includes teeth, odontodes, spines and fin rays, 100 101 these postcranial derivates evolved into morphologically and histologically diverse structures in Actinopterygii [14, 15]. Elasmoid scales, found in most of teleost species, form in the 102 103 dermal mesenchyme and are mainly used for protection and hypothetically for hydrodynamic modifications [14, 16, 17]. While the elasmoid scales form relatively late in ontogeny and can 104 105 take diverse forms, they share a composition consisting of three tissues, with elasmodin as the basal component formed in a characteristic plywood-like structure [15, 16]. Scale 106 107 development, mostly studied in zebrafish, has been found to be orchestrated by several wellknown pathways, including Hh, Fgf and Eda [16, 18–20], which are known to be also 108 109 involved in the appendage formation across several vertebrate groups [21]. Mutations and allele variations in the Eda/Edar pathway, for example, have been linked to fish fin, scale 110 111 and armour plate development as well as human and mouse hair and teeth growth [19, 22, 23]. Nevertheless, besides a recent extensive comparison of the scale morphology across 112

113 Lake Tanganyika cichlids [24], as well as a genetic study of scale shapes in two closely 114 related Lake Malawi cichlids, which tied FgF signalling to scale shape variation [20], not 115 much is known about the molecular mechanisms shaping the elasmoid scale.

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In this study, we investigate the morphological differences in the anterior and posterior scales 117 of 10 haplochromine cichlid fish species from three Great East African Lakes, i.e., Lake 118 Tanganyika (LT), Lake Malawi (LM) and Lake Victoria (LV) as well as a riverine 119 haplochromine cichlid species. After identification of a stably expressed reference gene, we 120 121 also investigate transcriptional differences of a set of genes known to be involved in scale development and morphogenesis in fish. Finally, we tried to find links between the gene 122 expression differences and morphological divergence in both anterior and posterior scales. 123 Our results provide cross-species expression comparisons of scale related genes in 124 haplochromine cichlids and implicate expression differences by which formation of distinct 125 scale morphologies might be determined. 126

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128 Methods

129 Fish husbandry and sampling

Ten haplochromine cichlid species; three species from Lake Tanganyika, four species from 130 Lake Malawi, two species from Lake Victoria, and one riverine haplochromine species, were 131 selected for this study (Fig. 1A). The fish were kept and raised in standardized tanks and 132 133 rearing conditions with the same diet (Spirulina flakes) until they displayed mating 134 behaviour. Between 5 to 11 adult females per species were sampled for morphological analysis and 4 adult females were sampled for gene expression investigation. The sampled 135 136 fish species were sacrificed by euthanization in with 0.5 g MS-222/litre of water, and 5 anterior and posterior scales from left side of the body were removed for morphological 137 138 analysis (Fig. 1B), whereas similar numbers of scales were taken from both sides and all 139 anterior or posterior scales from each fish were pooled for gene expression part.

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141 Morphological analysis

To infer shape differences of scales from divergent African cichlids from different lakes a 2D geometric morphometric framework was deployed. Due to major morphological differences of the scales they were separately investigated for the anterior and posterior part of the body (Fig. 1 B and C). Standardized images of scales were taken with a KEYENCE VHX-5000

146 digital microscope (KEYENCE Germany GmbH). 84 adult specimens from 10 cichlid species inhabiting the three major rift lakes which were reared under standardized aquarium 147 conditions (Astatotilapia burtoni = 7; Neochromis omnicaeruleus = 10; Petrochromis famula 148 = 11, P. polyodon = 7; Paralabidochromis sauvage = 5; Simochromis diagramma = 11; 149 Sciaenochromis fryeri = 5; Tropheops tropheops = 9; Labeotropheus trewavasae = 9; Mz: 150 *Maylandia zebra* = 10) were included for the geometric morphometric analyses. For each 151 individual six scale replicates from the anterior and posterior part of the body were probed 152 (Fig. 1B), leading to a total of 1.008 investigated scales. After randomizing pictures in tpsUtil 153 154 v.1.6 (available at http://life.bio. sunysb.edu/morph/soft-utility.html), landmark digitization was conducted on a set of 7 fixed landmarks and 14 semi-landmarks (see Figure 1b for 155 positions) in tpsDig v.2.26 (available at http://life.bio.sunysb.edu/ morph/soft-utility.html). 156 To ensure consistency, this step was conducted by a single investigator. Generalized 157 Procrustes superimposition [25] was performed in tpsRelw v.1.65 (available at 158 http://life.bio.sunysb.edu/morph/soft- utility.html) and aligned landmark configurations were 159 exported for further analysis in MorphoJ v.1.06 [26]. In MorphoJ, single observations 160 obtained from the six replicates were averaged to get the mean shape for each landmark. A 161 Principal Component analysis (PCA) was applied to infer variation in morphospace among 162 163 scale position (anterior vs. posterior), single specimen, and species. Subsequent analyses were based on separated datasets for anterior and posterior scale landmark setting, whereas 164 165 PC-scores were exported for linear discriminant function analyses (LDA) in PAST v.4.1 [27]. To reduce the number of variables and control for putative over-separation of groups [28], 166 167 only the first four principal components were used for the LDA. PCA and LDA plots were 168 visualized in R v3.1.2 [29].

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170 RNA isolation and cDNA synthesis

171 As mentioned in the section above, 10 anterior and posterior scales from each fish were pooled for isolating the total RNA isolation in a single tube containing 0.25 mL of a tissue 172 lysis buffer from Reliaprep RNA tissue miniprep system (Promega, #Z6111, USA) as well as 173 one 1.4 mm ceramic bead to crush the scales. The scales were homogenized using a FastPrep-174 175 24 Instrument (MP Biomedicals, Santa Ana, CA, USA) and total RNA was extracted following the instructions provided by the manufacturer (adjusted protocol for small amounts 176 of fibrous tissue). In summary, the instruction follows with mixing of the lysis buffer and 177 homogenized scales with isopropanol and centrifuging the entire mix through a column 178

provided by the kit, several RNA washing steps and a final DNase treatment step. The RNAs were quantified by a Nanophotometer (IMPLEN GmbH, Munich, Germany) and their quality was checked with RNA ScreenTapes on an Agilent 2200 TapeStation (Agilent Technologies). Next, the RNA samples with a RNA integrity number (RIN) above six were applied to first strand cDNA synthesis using 300ng of RNA and High Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription kit (Applied Biosystems). The synthesized cDNA from each RNA sample was diluted 1:5 times in nuclease-free water to conduct qPCR.

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187 Gene selection, designing primers and binding site predictions

We selected eight candidate reference genes which have been frequently used in different 188 studies of Haplochromine cichlids and have shown high expression levels in various 189 connective tissues including skeletal tissues [10, 30–35]. Furthermore, we chose 16 target 190 191 candidate genes, which are implicated in scale development and morphogenesis (Table 1). The primers were designed at conserved sequence of coding regions using the transcriptome 192 data of several East African haplochromine species (Astatotilapia burtoni, Aulonocara 193 baenschi, Cyrtocara moorii, Pundamilia nyererei, Metriaclima zebra, Simochromis 194 diagramma, Tropheus duboisi, and Gnathochromis pfefferi) as well as two more distant 195 species from different African cichlid tribes (Oreochromis niloticus and Neolamprologus 196 brichardi) [7, 36–39]. The sequences from all the species were imported to CLC Genomic 197 Workbench, version 7.5 (CLC Bio, Aarhus, Denmark), and after alignment, the exon/exon 198 199 junctions were specified using the Astatotilapia burtoni annotated genome in the Ensembl 200 database (<u>http://www.ensembl.org</u>) [40]. The primers were designed spanning exon junctions and a short amplicon size (<250 bp) as recommended to be optimal for qPCR quantification 201 202 [41]. The primers were designed and assessed through Primer Express 3.0 (Applied Biosystems, CA, USA) and OligoAnalyzer 3.1 (Integrated DNA Technology) to minimize 203 204 the occurrence of dimerization and secondary structures.

205

We retrieved downstream sequences (3'UTR and inter-genic region) of eda gene for all the 206 species in this study from European Nucleotide Archive (ENA) and Sequence Read Archive 207 208 (SRA) in order to identify changes in potential binding sites. To do this, we used genomic sequences of the haplochromine species; A. burtoni (GCA_000239415.1), P. famula 209 (GCA_015108095.1), N. omnicaeruleus (SRR12700904), P. polyodon (GCA_015103895.1), 210 S. fryeri (ERX1818621), S. diagramma (GCA 900408965.1), М. 211 zebra

212 (GCA_000238955.1), T. tropheops (SAMEA2661272), L. trewavasae (SAMN12216683),

- and *P. sauvagei* (GCA_018403495.1). Next we identify the 3'UTR and inter-genic region of *eda* genes using the annotated genome of *A. burtoni* from Ensembl and aligned them using
 CLC Genomic Workbench. The different sequence motifs were identified and screened for
 potential TF binding sites using STAMP [42] and the PWMs obtained from the TRANSFAC
 database [43].
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219 **qPCR and data analysis**

The qPCR reactions were generated using Maxima SYBR Green/ROX qPCR Master Mix (2X) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Germany) and the amplifications were conducted on ABI recommended optimal sample maximization method [44]. The qPCR program, dissociation step and calculation of primer efficiencies were performed as described in our previous study [45] (Additional file 1).

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Three different algorithms were applied to validate the most stable reference genes; 227 BestKeeper [46], NormFinder [47] and geNorm [48]. The Cq value of the most stable 228 229 reference gene was used as normalization factor (Cq reference) to calculate Δ Cq of each target gene ($\Delta Cq_{target} = Cq_{target} - Cq_{reference}$). The lowest expressed sample in each expression 230 231 comparison was used as a calibrator sample and rest of the samples were subtracted from its ΔCq value to calculate $\Delta \Delta Cq$ values ($\Delta Cq_{target} - \Delta Cq_{calibrator}$). Relative expression quantities 232 (RQ) were calculated through $E^{-\Delta\Delta Cq}$ [49]. In order to perform statistical analysis, fold 233 differences (FD) were calculated by transformation of RQ values to logarithmic values [50]. 234 235 The significant expression differences were calculated using ANOVA statistical tests, followed by Tukey's HSD post hoc tests. The correlations between gene expression and a 236 237 morphometric parameter (canonical variate 1) were calculated through Pearson correlation coefficients (r) for each gene using R. 238

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240 **Results**

241 Divergence in scale morphology

The principal component analysis (PCA) revealed a clear separation in overall average individual shape between anterior and posterior scales (Fig. 1D). PC1 and PC2 explained 78.3 % and 8.6 % of the total shape variation, respectively. Generally, on the first axis

anterior scales are anterior-posteriorly more compressed compared to the posterior body part
(see deformation grids in Fig. 1D). Along the second PC axis changes can be observed in the
shape of the posterior scale field (narrow vs. wide), as well as in the lateral edges of the
anterior scale field (edges vs. round).

249

While comparing different species, large variation in overall shape can be observed in the 250 dataset which is restricted to anterior scales only. Petrochromis famula, Maylandia zebra and 251 Sciaenochromis fryeri occupy large parts of the morphospace and overall, less intraspecific 252 253 variation can be observed in other species (Fig. 2A). In the anterior dataset changes along the PC1 explain 47.1 % of total variation, and mainly affect the circularity of the overall shape 254 (i.e., that scales get more compressed towards positive values). Changes along the second PC, 255 which explains 19.6 % of the total shape variation, affect the posterior scale field 256 (compression vs. expansion). Compared to anterior scales, less intraspecific shape variation 257 can be observed in posterior scales, whereas PC1 explains 54.8 % and PC2 18.9 % of the 258 total variation, respectively (Fig. 2B). PC1 separates two major clusters (S. diagramma + P. 259 *famula* vs. rest) whereas changes along the axis mainly contribute to a dorso-ventrally versus 260 anterior-posterior compression of the scale and the roundness of the anterior scale field. 261 262 Along PC2 shape changes affect the expansion (or compression) of the anterior and posterior scale fields. Generally, the PCA only poorly resolves the lake (or phylogenetic) origin of the 263 264 single species for both the anterior and posterior dataset.

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266 The linear discriminant function analysis (LDA) of anterior as well as posterior dataset correctly classified 77.38 % (jackknifed: 67.86 %) and 72.62 % (jackknifed: 65.48%) of 267 268 species (Fig. 2C and D). The first axis explains 83.66 % and 76.00 % variance of the overall shape variability for the anterior and posterior dataset, respectively. In the anterior dataset, 269 270 the first LD-axis separates three major clusters made up of samples from Lake Tanganyika, the riverine Astatotilapia burtoni and a joint Victoria-Malawi cluster. Similar results were 271 obtained for the posterior dataset, whereas along the first axis the separation between the 272 riverine A. burtoni and the Victoria-Malawi cluster is less prominent. Along the second axis, 273 which explains 10.04 % and 13.2 % of the variance of the overall shape variability for the 274 anterior and posterior dataset, respectively, mainly interspecific and intraspecific variation is 275 276 portrayed. Overall, for the anterior dataset, 83.33% (jackknifed: 75 %) of species were correctly classified according to the lake origin, whereas single classification scores reached 277 values of 100 % (jackknifed: 85.71 %) for A. burtoni, as well as 66.67 % (jackknifed: 57.58 278

%) for Malawi, 86.67 % (jackknifed: 86.67 %) for Victoria and 96.55 % (jackknifed: 86.21
%). In total, for the posterior dataset, 77.38 % (jackknifed: 70.24 %) of the individuals were
correctly assigned to the lake origin, with 85.71 % (jackknifed: 71.43 %) for *A. burtoni*, as
well as 66.67 % (jackknifed: 54.55 %) for Malawi, 53.33% (jackknifed: 46.67 %) for
Victoria and 100 % (jackknifed: 100 %) for individuals from Tanganyika.

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285 Validation of stable reference genes

To quantify the expression levels of the selected target genes, the validation of stable 286 reference gene(s) with least variation in expression across the anterior and posterior scales of 287 different species is a necessary step [51]. The 8 candidates were selected from frequently 288 289 used reference genes in studies of different tissues in East African cichlids [10, 30–35]. The candidate reference genes showed variable expression levels in the scales, and from highest 290 to lowest expressed were respectively; actb1, hsp90a, rps11, rps18, hprt1, gapdh, elf1a and 291 tbp. Interestingly, in both anterior and posterior scales, all the three software ranked actb1 as 292 the most stable reference gene with lowest expression variation across the cichlid species in 293 this study (Table 2). Thus, we used the Cq value of *actb1* as normalization factor (NF) in 294 295 each sample for quantification of relative expression analyses of the target genes.

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297 Gene expression differences between anterior and posterior scales

The relative expression levels of 16 candidate target genes, *bmp4*, *col1a2*, *ctsk*, *dlx5*, *eda*, 298 edar, fgf20, fgfr1, mmp2, mmp9, opg, rankl, runx2a, sema4d, shh and sp7, were compared 299 300 between the anterior and posterior scales in each of the haplochromine species (Fig. 3). Some of these genes such as *bmp4*, *col1a2*, *rankl* and *sp7*, showed almost no expression difference 301 302 between the anterior and posterior scales. Moreover, none of the target genes showed consistent expression difference across all the species. These indicate potential involvement 303 304 of various genes in morphological divergence between the anterior and posterior scales. However, two genes, ctsk and shh exhibited expression difference between the anterior and 305 306 posterior scales in most of the species (Fig. 3). The directions of expression differences between the anterior and posterior scales for *ctsk* and *shh* were variable depending on the 307 308 species. Interestingly all the three species form LT showed higher expression in the anterior scale for *shh*, whereas the all the species from LM and LV showed tendency for opposite 309 310 pattern with increased posterior scale expression. These findings suggest potential role of *ctsk* and *shh* in morphological divergence of the scales along anterior-posterior axis. 311

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313 Gene expression differences between lakes in anterior and posterior scales

Next, we compared the expression levels of the target genes between the lakes in the anterior 314 or posterior scales by considering all the species from each lake as one group (Fig. 4). In the 315 anterior scales, nine out of 16 target genes showed expression differences between the lakes 316 including bmp4, ctsk, eda, edar, mmp2, opg, rankl, shh and sp7. Most of these differences 317 were between LT and the other lakes, and 4 genes, *ctsk*, *mmp2*, *opg* and *rankl* showed higher 318 expression in LT species, while 3 genes, bmp4, eda and shh showed lower expression LT 319 320 species. Furthermore, 2 genes, ctsk and eda displayed the strongest expression differences between the lakes in opposite patterns suggesting their role in morphological divergence of 321 the anterior scales across the lakes (Fig. 4). In the posterior scales, 11 out of 16 target genes 322 showed expression differences between the lakes including *bmp4*, *col1a2*, *ctsk*, *eda*, *edar*, 323 fgf20, fgfr1, mmp2, opg, rankl, shh and sp7. Again, most of these differences in the posterior 324 scales were between LT and the other lakes, and 5 genes, *colla2*, *ctsk*, *mmp2*, *opg* and *rankl* 325 showed higher expression in LT species, while 3 genes, eda, fgf20 and shh showed lower 326 expression LT species. In addition, four genes, fgf20, rankl, eda and shh displayed the 327 strongest expression differences between the lakes in opposite patterns (eda and rankl higher 328 329 in LT, and *fgf20* and *shh* lower in LT) suggesting their role in morphological divergence of the posterior scales across the lakes (Fig. 4). In general, more genes with stronger expression 330 331 differences between the lakes were observed the posterior scales. Several genes such as *ctsk*, eda, edar, mmp2, opg, rankl and shh appeared to have similar patterns of expression 332 333 differences between the lakes in both anterior and posterior scales. Importantly, we found only one gene, eda, to have strong differences between the lakes in both anterior and 334 335 posterior scales indicating its potentially crucial role in morphological divergence of the scales across the lakes. 336

337

338 Correlation analyses between gene expression and morphological divergence in scales

We analysed the correlation between expression of the genes and canonical variate 1 in the anterior or posterior scales across the species. Only one gene, *eda*, showed significant correlation in the anterior scales (Fig. 5), whereas, in the posterior scales 4 genes including *dlx5*, *eda*, *rankl* and *shh* displayed significant correlations between expression and morphological differences (Fig. 6). Among these genes *eda* exhibited the strongest correlation in the posterior scales. However, the correlation patterns differed between the genes in the posterior scales, i.e. eda and shh showed positive while *dlx5* and *rankl* had

negative correlations with the morphological changes based canonical variate 1. Therefore, again only one gene, *eda*, showed significant correlation between its expression and the morphological differences in both scales indicating its potential role in divergent scale morphogenesis in the cichlid species. The opposite correlation patterns in the posterior scales might also indicate inhibitory regulatory connections between the genes.

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352 Genetic differences in non-coding sequences of *eda* gene

Finally, we were interested to investigate genetic differences in available regulatory 353 354 sequences of *eda* gene including 5'UTR, 3'UTR and short but conserved inter-genic region between *eda* and *tnfsf13b* (immediate downstream gene) across the species. Interestingly, we 355 found two genetic differences (mutations/deletions) in 3'UTR and one in eda-tnfsf13b inter-356 genic region to differ between LT species versus LM and LV species (Table 3). Next, we 357 parsed the short sequence regions containing the mutations/deletions against transcription 358 factor binding site (TFBS) databases. We found that the two changes in 3'UTR seem to lead 359 to gaining TFBS for transcription factors Mef2 and Tcf1 in the LM and LV species, whereas 360 the changes in the inter-genic region led to gaining TFBS for Lef1 transcription factor in the 361 LT species (Table 3). Importantly, the riverine species A.b appeared to have intermediate 362 363 genetic changes meaning that for the two changes in 3'UTR it showed a deletion similar to the LT species but a mutation similar to the LV and LM species. Also, for the inter-genic 364 365 change, A.b showed an intermediate mutation between the LT and the other species from LM and LV, however, this mutation showed no gain of TFBS (similar to the LM and LV species). 366 367 Taken together, these genetic changes showed similarity with differences in gene expression and scale morphology, where the LT species clustered different from LM and LV species and 368 369 the riverine species (A.b.) showed intermediate differences. This suggests that the identified 370 genetic changes might be the underlying factors for divergent *eda* expression as well as 371 differences in the scale morphology.

372

373 **Discussion**

As river-adapted haplochromine cichlids repeatedly seeded adaptive radiations in several East African lakes, cichlid fishes recurrently adapted to corresponding trophic niches. Thereby, the adaptive value of traits is often mirrored by morphological shape parallelism and concomitant similar lifestyles which result from parallel evolution [4, 5]. Hence, fishes from the cichlid species flocks in various African lakes comprise an exciting model to conduct comparative

morphological and molecular studies. While most previous studies focused on bony elements
that can easily be linked particular trophic niches and divergent natural selection as driver of
diversification in cichlids (e.g., [52]), other skeletal structures such as scales might show less
obvious adaptive trajectories.

383

Above all, between the three East African Great Lakes, the haplochromine cichlids are 384 especially interesting, as they share common ancestry and comprise the Tropheini at LT and 385 the entire the LV and LM haplochromine radiations [53, 54]. As the lakes have all very 386 387 different geological histories, with Lake Tanganyika being the oldest [55], LM the intermediate [56] and LV the youngest of the three [57], they also depict three extensive 388 radiations at different time points. Thus, depending on the evolutionary age of the different 389 lakes, species (and their morphologies) had more or less time to diverge, despite sharing 390 parallels. The more time passes, much more elaborated predator-prey and host-parasite 391 relationships can evolve. This is manifested by unique ecological and behavioural features, 392 particularly in the oldest of the three lakes, LT, which contains coocoo-catfish species 393 showing brood parasitism [58], dwarfed gastropod shell breeders [59], putative cleaning 394 395 behaviour [60], or highly elaborated scale eaters [61] (but also see *Genyochromis mento* from 396 Lake Malawi). Particularly the latter case, scale eating, could have influenced the coevolution of scale morphology in host species. Lake Tanganyika's scale eaters (i.e., 397 398 Perissodus; Perissodini) show different degrees of specialization, whereas only the shallow water species, *Perrisodus microlepis* and *P. straeleni*, feed almost exclusively on fish scales 399 400 while other species are not that specialized [4, 61]. The most common prey species of P. microlepis are members of the Tropheini and Eretmodini [62]. P. straeleni seems to be less 401 402 specialised to certain prey items, but Tropheini scales still make up a major part of the gut contents [63]. Based on our dataset (Tropheini only) it remains speculative to assume that 403 404 scale-related gene expression and the concomitant morphology might reflect an adaptation to reduce the risk of scale predation. Future studies, including more early branching (non-405 haplochromine cichlids 406 modern) (e.g., Pseudocrenilabrus, Thoracochromis, Astatoreochromis) or other Tropheini with different lifestyles (e.g., Ctenochromis) will be 407 408 necessary to establish stronger links between scale morphology and this unique predation pressure. 409

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411 Nonetheless, understanding which genetic mechanisms underlie the scale morphology might
412 be the key to understand how such similar and/or divergent eco-morphologies evolved.

413 Perhaps the most striking finding of our study was the highly significant differential expression of eda between LT species versus the species from the younger lakes (LM and LV 414 species) in both anterior and posterior scales (Fig. 4). Interestingly, the *eda* expression in the 415 riverine species (Ab), which is believed to be an ancestral species to haplochromine cichlids 416 of the three great African lakes, was at intermediate level between LT and the species from 417 418 LM and LV in both anterior and posterior scales. Moreover, the expression patterns of *eda* in both scales were highly correlated with morphological divergence across the species in this 419 study. Ectodysplasin A (eda) encodes a member of the tumor necrosis factor family and 420 421 mediates a signal conserved across vertebrates which is essential for morphogenesis of ectodermal appendages, such as scale, hair and feathers [22]. The eda signal is mediated 422 through its receptor (encoded by *edar*) and initiated upon binding of eda to edar on the 423 surface of a target cell [22]. In human, mutations in components of eda signal can cause 424 hypohidrotic ectodermal dysplasia (HED) which is characterized by reduction and abnormal 425 teeth morphology, absence or reduction of sweating glands and hair [64]. Similarly, impaired 426 427 eda signal in zebrafish and medaka can lead to reduction in the number of scales and teeth [18, 19]. In sculpin (Cottus) fishes, genetic changes in the receptor gene (edar) has been 428 429 found to be associated with morphological variations in body prickles (calcified spicules 430 embedded in the skin), which are homologous structures to fish scales [65]. A later study in a highly derived order of teleosts, Tetraodontiformes, which includes ocean sunfishes, 431 432 triggerfishes and pufferfishes, also showed the importance of eda signaling pathway in developmental formation and morphological variations of dermal spines (an extreme scale 433 434 derivative) [66]. In stickleback, a mutation within an inter-genic region between eda and tnfsf13b genes leads to changes in transcriptional responsiveness of eda to its upstream Wnt 435 436 signaling pathway and consequently impairment of armor plate formation [67].

437

In this study, we also found genetic changes in 3'UTR and the inter-genic region between eda 438 and *tnfsf13b* genes that could explain the differences in *eda* expression across the 439 Haplochromine cichlids (Table 3). The genetic changes resulted gain or loss of motifs which 440 were predicted to be binding sites for transcription factors encoded by mef2, tcf1 and lef1 441 442 genes. These changes always discriminated the LT species from the species from LM and LV, whereas the riverine species had changes which could be considered an intermediate to 443 both groups. Interestingly, all of the three predicted transcription factors (*mef2*, *tcf1* and *lef1*) 444 are linked to Wnt signaling pathway. It is already known that mef2 can enhance canonical 445 Wnt signal [68] and it is involved in osteogenesis as well [69–71]. The binding site motif for 446

447 mef2 appeared to be deleted in 3'UTR of the LT and riverine species. On the other hand, a binding site motif for tcf1 was gained in 3'UTR of the LM, LV and riverine species. In mice, 448 *tcf1* is demonstrated to be involve in paraxial mesoderm and limb formation and appeared to 449 be act downstream of Wnt signal similar to lef1 transcription factor [72]. Moreover, 450 canonical Wnt signaling has been shown to regulate osteogenesis through tcf1 responsive 451 element on regulatory sequence of runx2 in mammals [73]. The third motif predicted to be a 452 binding site for lef1 and only found within eda - tnfsf13b inter-genic region of LT species. 453 Lef1 is again a well-known mediator of canonical Wnt signaling pathway which inhibits final 454 455 stage of osteoblast differentiation [74] but it is essential for osteoblast proliferation and normal skeletal development [75, 76]. During development lef1 function is shown to be 456 essential for scale outgrowth in zebrafish [77], and *eda* expression is known to be regulated 457 by Wnt signal through *lef1* transcriptional activity in mammals [78, 79]. In stickleback, 458 mutation in an inter-genic region between eda and tnfsf13b genes is suggested to affect a 459 binding site for c-jun transcription factor which its interaction with lef1 is required for eda 460 461 transcriptional response to Wnt signal during armor plate formation [67]. Taken together, these observations, suggest mutations in enhancer sequences required for binding of Wnt 462 signal components as potential underlying reason for the divergent expression of *eda* in both 463 464 anterior and posterior scales of the cichlid species in this study.

465

466 In the posterior scale, in addition to eda, three more genes, dlx5, rankl and shh, displayed expression correlation with morphological divergence across the cichlid species (Fig. 6). The 467 468 first gene, distal less homeobox 5 or *dlx5*, encodes transcription factor stimulating osteoblast 469 differentiation and bone development, and it is also implicated in scale development and 470 regeneration in fish [80–82]. Apart from its role in skeletogenesis, *dlx5* has been found to be involved in divergent development and morphogenesis of other tissues in cichlids such as 471 472 teeth and nuchal hump [39, 83, 84]. In goldfish, *dlx5* expression appeared to be important at early stages of scale regeneration [80], and in both zebrafish and goldfish, *dlx5* transcription 473 in scale can be affected by environmental clues such as mechanical stimulus [81, 82]. The 474 second gene, rankl, encodes a ligand for osteoprotegerin (opg) and play crucial role in 475 osteoclast differentiation and bone remodelling. Changes in *rankl* transcription appeared to be 476 important during scale regeneration in goldfish [80, 85], as well as intercellular 477 communications regulating scale bone remodeling in zebrafish and goldfish [81, 86]. Both 478 dlx5 and rankl have shown expression correlation patterns opposite to eda and shh in the 479 posterior scales. Although, direct regulatory connections between these factors have not been 480

investigated in scale but these findings suggest their potential interactions at transcriptional
level. Moreover, higher expression of *rankl* in the scales of LT species compared to LM and
LV species might indicate higher level of bone remodelling in their scales.

484

485 The third gene, sonic hedgehog or *shh*, encodes a ligand of hedgehog signaling pathway which is shown to control scale morphogenesis in relationship with the formation of the 486 epidermal fold in the posterior region of scale in fish [16]. In zebrafish, epidermal expression 487 of shh has been shown to regulate scale regeneration through controlling osteoblast 488 489 population and affecting directional bone growth [87]. We found similar expression pattern between *eda* and *shh* which is more pronounced in the posterior scales. This is consistent 490 with previous findings in other vertebrates, for instance, *eda* has been demonstrated to act 491 upstream of *shh* and induce *shh* expression during ectodermal organogenesis in mammals 492 (e.g. during hair placode formation) [88-92]. Furthermore, it has been shown that the eda-493 dependent regulation of *shh* might be a part of larger molecular cascade in which an upstream 494 signal such as Wnt pathway activates eda signal and in turn eda induces shh transcription [90, 495 92, 93]. These observations suggest potential role of Wnt-eda-shh axis in divergent scale 496 morphogenesis across Haplochromine cichlids, which seems to be more pronounced in the 497 498 posterior scales.

499

500 **Conclusions**

This is the first attempt to study cross-species association between gene expression and 501 morphological divergence in scales of cichlids from different lakes. Our results provide 502 evidence for potential role of a key signal mediated by *eda* gene to be involved in divergent 503 morphogenesis of scale in closely related cichlid species. We show that *eda* expression has 504 lower level in the scales of species from the older lake (Lake Tanganyika) and correlates with 505 the observed shape variations across species. Our findings shed light on molecular basis of 506 507 morphological divergence of a less studied skeletal element; however, further investigations are required to understand whether these differences have adaptive relevance in ecological 508 509 and evolutionary-developmental contexts.

510

511 List of abbreviations

512 LT: Lake Tanganyika, LM: Lake Malawi, LV: Lake Victoria, *bmp4*: bone morphogenetic

protein 4, *colla2*: collagen type I alpha 2 chain, *ctsk*: cathepsin K, *dlx5*: distal-less homeobox

514 5, eda: ectodysplasin A, edar: ectodysplasin A receptor, fgf20: fibroblast growth factor 20,

515 *fgfr1*: fibroblast growth factor receptor 1, *mmp2*: matrix metallopeptidase 2, *mmp9*: matrix

516 metallopeptidase 9, *opg*: osteoprotegerin, *rankl*: receptor activator of nuclear factor kappa B

- 517 ligand, *runx2a*: runt-related transcription factor 2 alpha, *sema4d*: semaphorin 4D, *shh*: sonic
- 518 hedgehog signaling molecule, *sp7*: osterix transcription factor.
- 519

520 **Declarations**

521 Authors' contributions

522 EPA, SB, MW and CS designed the study. SB, EPA, MW, and AD conducted the laboratory 523 experiment, measurements and figure preparations. MW and EPA analysed the data, and 524 EPA, MW, AD and CS wrote the manuscript. WG and AD performed fish breeding and 525 sampling. WG photographed the adult fishes used in Figure 1A. All authors reviewed the 526 manuscript and approved its content.

527

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533

534 Competing interests

535 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

536

537 Availability of data and materials

All data generated or analysed during this study are included in this published article.

539

540 Consent for publication

541 Not applicable.

542

543 *Ethics approval and consent to participate*

Fish keeping and euthanasia were conducted under permit BMWFW-66.007/0004WF/V/3b/2016 issued by the Federal Ministry of Science, Research and Economy of Austria
(BMWFW) in accordance with the ethical guidelines and regulations of the BMWFW. Fish

keeping and sampling was carried out in our certified aquarium facility according to theAustrian animal welfare law.

549

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- 555

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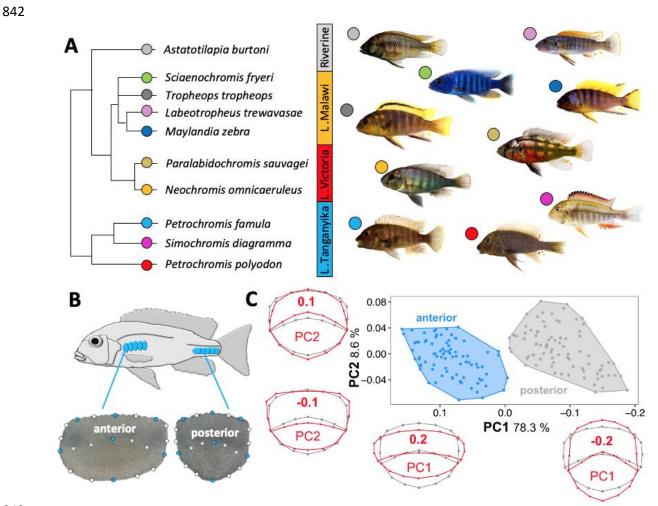
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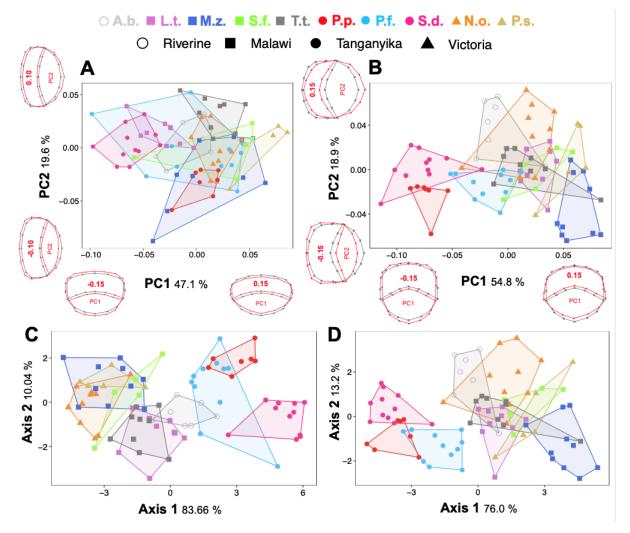
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844 Figure 1. The haplochromine cichlid species and descriptions of the scale samples.

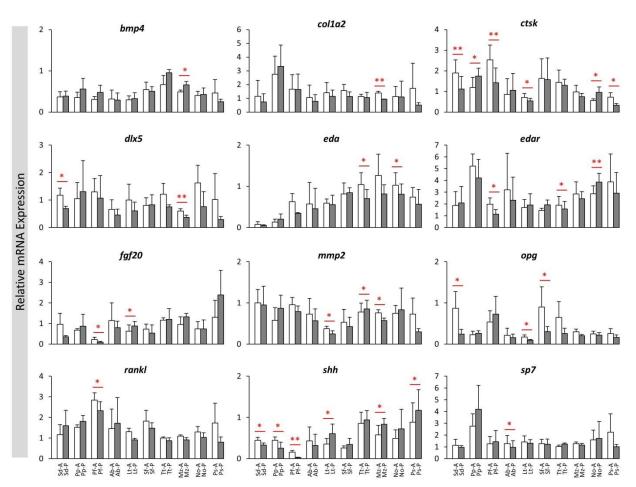
(a) A simplified phylogenetic relatedness of the East African haplochromine cichlid species 845 used in this study. (b) Positions of the anterior and posterior scales used in this study and 846 landmarks used for the geometric morphometric analyses in both anterior (left) and posterior 847 (right) scales shown as an example for Petrochromis famula. Blue dots represent major 848 landmarks, white dots semi-landmarks and 1 mm scale bars are given below the images. (c) 849 Principal component analysis (PCA) plots clearly separate scales from the anterior and 850 posterior part of the body. Additional, warped outline drawings illustrate major shape 851 852 changes along the axis (red) compared to the overall mean shape (grey).



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855 Figure 2. Morphospace of investigated scales from different species and body parts.

Principal component analysis based on average shape of scales collected for the anterior (a) 856 and posterior (b) part of the body and respective shape differences along the axis (grey: 857 858 overall mean shape; red: shape change). Linear discriminant function analysis based on the first four PC-scores for anterior (c) and posterior (d) scales. All data points represent mean 859 shapes obtained from 6 individually collected scales and shapes represent different lake 860 origins. Abbreviations: A.b. Astatotilapia burtoni; N.o.: Neochromis omnicaeruleus; P.f.: 861 Petrochromis famula, P.p.: P. polyodon; P.s.: Paralabidochromis sauvage S.d.: Simochromis 862 diagramma; S.f.: Sciaenochromis fryeri; T.t.: Tropheops tropheops; L.t.: Labeotropheus 863 trewavasae; M.z.: Maylandia zebra. 864



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Figure 3. The anterior versus posterior scales expression differences of the candidate target genes in haplochromine cichlids from three East African lakes.

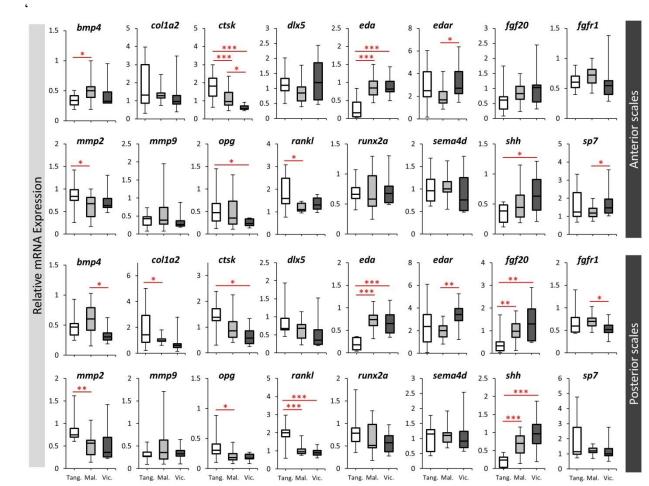
868 Comparisons of relative expression levels between anterior versus posterior scales for 16 869 candidate target genes in different lakes in East Africa at young adult stage. Significant 870 differences between the are indicated by red asterisks (*P < 0.05; **P < 0.01). See Figure 1A 871 for corresponding species abbreviations.

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Figure 4. The lake-based expression differences of the candidate target genes in
haplochromine cichlids in this study.

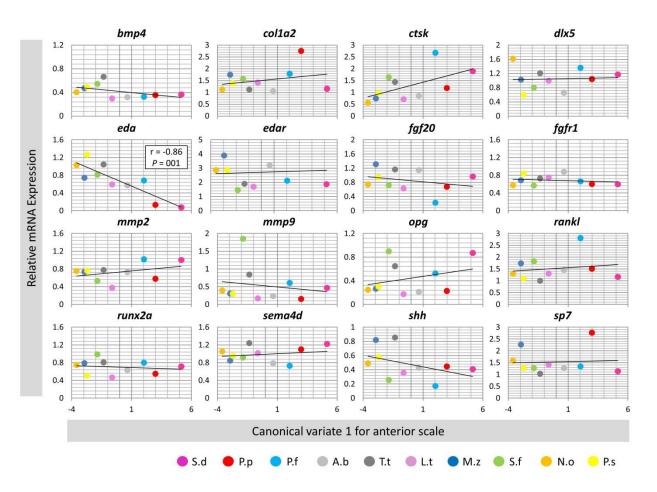
881 Comparisons of relative expression levels between the lakes, when all species of each lake 882 were combined, within anterior or posterior scales for 16 candidate target genes. Significant 883 differences between the are indicated by red asterisks (*P < 0.05; **P < 0.01; ***P < 0.001). 884 See Figure 1A for corresponding species abbreviations.

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Figure 5. Correlation analyses of candidate target gene expressions and the anterior scale morphololgical divergence across the haplochromine species.

A Pearson correlation coefficient (r) was used to assess the similarity between differences in
expression level of the target genes and the major canical variate in the anterior scales across
all species. See Figure 1A for corresponding species abbreviations.

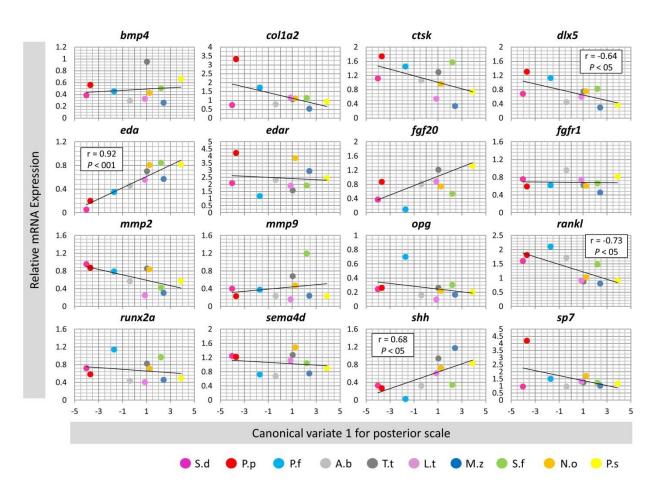


Figure 6. Correlation analyses of candidate target gene expressions and the posterior
 scale morphololgical divergence across the haplochromine species.

A Pearson correlation coefficient (r) was used to assess the similarity between differences in
expression level of the target genes and the major canical variate in the posterior scales across
all species. See Figure 1A for corresponding species abbreviations.

920 Table 1. Selected target genes involved in the development and/or morphogenesis of

921 scales in teleost fish.

Gene	Related functions	Species	References
bmp4	A ligand of the TGF- β superfamily implicated in formation and calcification of elasmoid scale	zebrafish	[94]
col1a2	A member of collagen family highly expressed in both developing and adult elasmoid scales and responsive to environmental changes	zebrafish	[95, 96]
ctsk	A lysosomal cysteine proteinase involved in bone remodeling/resorption and expressed in in both developing and adult elasmoid scale and responsive to environmental changes	zebrafish	[81, 82, 96, 97]
dlx5	A homeobox transcription factor involved in bone development and scale formation and regeneration and responsive to environmental changes	zebrafish goldfish	[80-82]
eda edar	A tumor necrosis factor and its receptor mediating a signal involved in development of ectodermal organs and playing role in scale formation and morphogenesis	zebrafish medaka sculpin stickleback	[19, 65, 67, 98, 99]
fgf20	A fibroblast growth factor involved in formation of scale development and morphogenesis	zebrafish	[100, 101]
fgfr1	A conserved receptor of fibroblast growth factor involved in formation of scales during juvenile development and morphological changes of scales in adult	zebrafish carp cichlid	[20, 102]
mmp2 mmp9	Members of matrix metalloproteinases involved in development, regeneration and tissue remodeling of scale	zebrafish	[103]
opg	An osteoblast-secreted decoy receptor that functions as a negative regulator of bone resorption involved in scale formation and regeneration	zebrafish goldfish	[80, 81]
rankl	A ligand for opg and functions as a key factor for osteoclast differentiation bone remodeling involved in scale formation and regeneration and responsive to environmental changes	zebrafish goldfish	[80, 81, 85, 86]
runx2a	A transcription factors essential for osteoblastic differentiation and skeletal morphogenesis involved in scale formation and regeneration and responsive to environmental changes	zebrafish goldfish	[80, 82, 104]
sema4d	A cell surface receptor involved in cell-cell signaling and scale formation and responsive to environmental changes	zebrafish	[81]
shh	A ligand of Hedgehog signaling pathway involved in the control of scale morphogenesis in relationship with the formation of the epidermal fold in the posterior region	zebrafish	[16, 87]
sp7	A bone specific transcription factor required for osteoblast differentiation and scale formation and regeneration	zebrafish carp goldfish	[80, 87, 105]

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Table 2. Ranking of reference genes in anterior and posterior scales across all of the haplochromine species used in this study.

942 SD indicates a ranking calculation based on standard deviation generated by BestKeeper,

943 whereas SV, stability value, and M, mean expression stability value, are calculated by 944 geNorm and NormFinder, respectively.

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	Anterior scales						Posterior scales					
	BestKeeper		geNorm		NormFinder		BestKeeper		geNorm		NormFinder	
	Ranks	SD	Ranks	Μ	Ranks	SV	Ranks	SD	Ranks	Μ	Ranks	SV
1	actb1	0.398	actb1	1.110	actb1	0.478	actb1	0.421	actb1	1.133	actb1	0.435
2	rps11	0.532	rps11	1.168	rps11	0.589	rps11	0.571	rps11	1.174	rps11	0.471
3	rps18	0.745	tbp	1.256	tbp	0.669	tbp	0.804	tbp	1.276	tbp	0.705
4	tbp	0.766	hsp90a	1.379	rps18	0.708	hsp90a	0.829	hsp90a	1.346	hsp90a	0.763
5	gapdh	0.869	rps18	1.396	hprt1	0.871	rps18	0.869	rps18	1.536	rps18	0.812
6	hsp90a	0.882	hprt1	1.590	hsp90a	0.879	gapdh	1.003	gapdh	1.703	hprt1	0.918
7	hprt1	0.929	gapdh	1.631	gapdh	1.227	hprt1	1.089	hprt1	1.729	gapdh	1.215
8	elf1a	1.507	elf1a	1.827	elf1a	1.420	elf1a	1.362	elf1a	1.754	elf1a	1.310

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Table 3. Identified genetic differences in regulatory sequences of *eda* gene and predicted binding sites for potential upstream regulators.

952 PWD ID indicates positional weight matrix ID of a predicted binding site and E-values refer953 to matching similarity between the predicted motif sequences and the PWD IDs.

Region	Sequence	Species	TFBS	PWM ID	E-value	
eda 3'UTR	A A	Ab, Sd, Pp, Pf	-	-	-	
euu s ork	AAAAATAGCTA	All the others	Mef2	M00941	2.1296e-12	
eda 3'UTR	GAATA G ATTAAC	Sd, Pp, Pf	-	-	-	
euu s ork	GAATA T ATTAAC	All the others	Tcf1	MA0046.1	2.6516e-06	
oda (ACTT T GCGAG	Sd	Lef1	M00805	2.4053e-06	
eda / tnfsf13b	ACTT TG ACTGCGAG	Pp, Pf	Lef1	M00805	5.1356e-05	
Intergenic	ACTT CG ACTGCGAG	Ab	-	-	-	
intergenit	ACTT CA ACTGCGAG	All the others	-	-	-	

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957 Additional file 1.xls. Information about qPCR primers used in this study.