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Appetite regulating genes may contribute to herbivory versus carnivory trophic divergence in haplochromine cichlids

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Feeding is a complex behaviour comprised of satiety control, foraging, ingestion and subsequent digestion. Cichlids from the East African Great Lakes are renowned for their diverse trophic specializations, largely predicated on highly variable jaw morphologies. Thus, most research has focused on dissecting the genetic, morphological and regulatory basis of jaw and teeth development in these species. Here for the first time we explore another aspect of feeding, the regulation of appetite related genes that are expressed in the brain and control satiety in cichlid fishes. Using qPCR analysis, we first validate stably expressed reference genes in the brain of six haplochromine cichlid species at the end of larval development prior to foraging. We next evaluate the expression of 16 appetite related genes in herbivorous and carnivorous species from the parallel radiations of Lake Tanganyika, Malawi and Victoria. Interestingly, we find increased expression of two anorexigenic genes, cart and npy2r, in the brain of carnivorous species in all the lakes. This supports the notion that herbivory compared to carnivory requires stronger appetite stimulation in order to feed larger quantity of food and to compensate for the relatively poorer nutritional quality of a plant- and algae-based diet. Our study contributes to the limited body of knowledge on the neurological circuitry that controls feeding transitions and adaptations and in cichlids and other teleosts.

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- 1 Appetite regulating genes may contribute to herbivory
- 2 versus carnivory trophic divergence in haplochromine
- 3 cichlids

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Abstract

Feeding is a complex behaviour comprised of satiety control, foraging, ingestion and subsequent digestion. Cichlids from the East African Great Lakes are renowned for their diverse trophic specializations, largely predicated on highly variable jaw morphologies. Thus, most research has focused on dissecting the genetic, morphological and regulatory basis of jaw and teeth development in these species. Here for the first time we explore another aspect of feeding, the regulation of appetite related genes that are expressed in the brain and control satiety in cichlid fishes. Using qPCR analysis, we first validate stably expressed reference genes in the brain of six haplochromine cichlid species at the end of larval development prior to foraging. We next evaluate the expression of 16 appetite related genes in herbivorous and carnivorous species from the parallel radiations of Lake Tanganyika, Malawi and Victoria. Interestingly, we find increased expression of two anorexigenic genes, cart and npy2r, in the brain of carnivorous species in all the lakes. This supports the notion that herbivory compared to carnivory requires stronger appetite stimulation in order to feed larger quantity of food and to compensate for the relatively poorer nutritional quality of a plant- and algae-based diet. Our study contributes to the limited body of knowledge on the neurological circuitry that controls feeding transitions and adaptations and in cichlids and other teleosts.

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Keywords

49 Appetite regulation; Trophic specialization; Adaptive radiation; East African Lakes

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Background

- 52 Little is known about the molecular mechanisms taking place in the central nervous system
- 53 which evolved in conjunction with herbivorous and carnivorous trophic specialization in teleost
- 54 fishes. Besides morphological changes in the feeding apparatus, divergence of feeding behaviour



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might be another key feature of differential trophic adaptation since the two diet habits require foraging on different quantities of food to balance nutritional requirements due to the unequal quality of these diets. An immediate approach to investigate such molecular mechanisms is transcriptional analysis of genes involved in regulation of feeding behaviour through the central nervous system in fish (Volkoff et al., 2005). To date, only one study in grass carp (a species of Cypriniformes), which shows the transition from carnivory to herbivory during its ontogeny, has addressed gene expression changes in the brain between the two contrasting feeding habits (He et al., 2015). Interestingly, the authors found that few appetite-regulating genes which inhibit food intake (anorexigenic genes) had reduced expression in the brain at the herbivorous life stage, whereas few other genes with opposite effects (or xigenic genes) had increased expression at this stage (He et al., 2015). This finding was consistent with the notion that herbivory requires prolonged insatiety and more active feeding behaviour compared to carnivory in order to compensate for the relatively poorer nutritional quality of a plant-based diet (He et al., 2015). 68 Although, a comprehensive list of potential appetite-regulating genes has been provided mainly from studies on cyprinid model species, such as zebrafish and goldfish, it has turned out that the 70 regulatory function of many of these genes can vary across the orders of teleost fishes (Volkoff, 2016). In addition, only a small subset of the genes are confirmed to have similar appetite-72 regulating functions in other fish orders including Cichliformes and Perciformes (Volkoff, 2016). Cichlids of the East African Great Lakes Tanganyika, Malawi and Victoria are well known for their stunning rates of speciation and adaptive radiation (Fryer and Iles, 1972; Kocher, 2004). 74 Lake Tanganyika, being the oldest of the three lakes, shows the most diversity in ecomorphology, behaviour and genetics compared to Lake Malawi, the intermediate, and Lake 76 Victoria, the youngest of the three lakes (Young et al., 2009; Salzburger et al., 2014). The Haplochromini are the most species rich tribe, having seeded the entire species flocks of Lake Malawi and Victoria and having recolonized Lake Tanganyika, giving rise to the tribe Tropheini (Salzburger et al., 2005). It is hypothesised that similar trophic ecomorphologies evolved in all three lakes in response to similar selection pressures as they were derived from a common 82 generalist riverine ancestor (Kocher et al., 1993; Salzburger et al., 2005; Cooper et al., 2010). Interestingly, haplochromine cichlids are mostly maternal mouthbrooders so the fry start feeding independently at a more mature stage, at the end of larval development (stage 26), compared to



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non-mouthbrooders (Fujimura & Okada, 2007, 2008). Due to the high trophic phenotypic plasticity in haplochromine cichlids (Gunter et al., 2013; Schneider et al., 2014), it is important to decipher whether gene regulatory circuitry of appetite-regulating genes that triggers feeding behaviour can be already observed upon completion of the larval development prior to the onset of food intake or is activated once the larvae start feeding. The dietary plasticity, mouthbrooding behaviour and immense diversity of trophic specializations and foraging in cichlid fishes of East African species flocks provide an excellent opportunity to investigate the role of appetite-regulating genes in differential trophic adaptations associated with species divergence.

Here, we hypothesize that appetite-regulating genes might be already differentially regulated in the brain of distinctly adapted haplochromine cichlids at the end of larval development, before the fry is released from the mother's mouth to forage on their own. Our hypothesis advocates for low plasticity and high genetic wiring of feeding behaviour in these fish. Therefore, we selected 12 appetite-regulating genes and analysed their expression level in the brain in a set of three herbivorous and three carnivorous haplochromine cichlid fish species at stage 26 (Fujimura & Okada, 2007, 2008), which marks the end of larval development and the initiation of exogenous feeding. The selected candidate genes are known to have brain expression in fish and are involved in regulation of feeding behaviour by enhancing or inhibiting food intake in teleost fishes (Table 1). The study species belong to two major trophic niches in the three Great East African Lakes; Lake Tanganyika (LT), Lake Malawi (LM) and Lake Victoria (LV). We test whether the differential expression of appetite-regulating genes in the brain predicts the divergence in trophic specialization in differentially adapted species pairs prior to the actual searching for food resources. The study also addresses this possibility in the context of parallel trophic specialization across three independent adaptive radiations. This study reports the results of a first step by validation of stably expressed reference genes in the brain at the end of the larval stage, which allows us to accurately compare inter-species expression of the appetite regulating-genes in haplochromine cichlids. Our results suggest that expression differences of the candidate genes might predict the feeding behaviour of herbivore versus carnivore species before the onset of plastic molecular responses emanating from contrasting feeding diets.



114 Methods

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Fish husbandry and sampling

Six haplochromine cichlid species belonging to two major trophic niches from Lakes Tanganyika (LT), Malawi (LM) and Victoria (LV), were chosen for studying brain gene expression. In order to compare divergent trophic niches, we used one carnivorous species (a piscivore/insectivore) and one herbivorous species (an algae-grazer) for each lake (Fig 1A), based upon previous phylogenetic studies (Koblmüller et al., 2008; Irissari et al., 2018). The parental fish were reared under standardized aquarium conditions and diet (Spirulina flakes with average protein content) until sexual maturation. The spawning pairs were colsely observed and 24 hours after mating their eggs were collected from the mouth of the females through exerting mild manual pressure to their cheeks. Then, the eggs of each species were placed in a standard glass jar with constant gentle shaking for an incubation period until hatching stage. After hatching, larvae were transferred to small floating tanks and kept until stage 26, the time of yolk sac absorption, marking the end of larval development (Fujimura & Okada, 2007, 2008). The rearing and incubation temperature was kept constant at 25.8 degrees centigrade. For each species six larvae were euthanized in water containing 0.2 gram MS-222 per litre, and the entire brain was carefully dissected using a stereomicroscope. The brain tissue from each individual represents one biological replicate, and therefore, six biological replicates per species were used for further analysis of gene expression. Moreover, by the end of the study the parents of the six haplochromine species were sacrificed in water containing 0.8 gram MS-222/litre.

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RNA isolation and cDNA synthesis

136 The entire brain from each individual was dissected as one biological replicate and transferred 137 into a tube with 250 μL of a lysis buffer, specific for RNA isolation from tissue, provided by 138 Reliaprep RNA tissue miniprep system (Promega, #Z6111, USA). A 1.4 mm ceramic bead was 139 added to shred the brain tissue. The brains were homogenized in a FastPrep-24 Instrument (MP 140 Biomedicals, Santa Ana, CA, USA) and total RNA content was extracted following the 141 manufacturer protocol. The protocol has several relatively quick steps; mixing of the



homogenized tissue (in the lysis buffer) with isopropyl alcohol and filtering it through a column provided by the kit, RNA washings and gDNA removal. Next, the RNA quantity was measured using a Nanophotometer (IMPLEN GmbH, Munich, Germany) and the quality was evaluated with RNA ScreenTapes on an Agilent 2200 TapeStation (Agilent Technologies). The extracted RNAs with a RIN (RNA integrity number) above seven were used for first strand cDNA synthesis using 500ng total RNA input and High Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription kit (Applied Biosystems). The cDNAs were diluted 1:10 times in RNase-free water in order to proceed with qPCR. It is worth emphasizing that the Reliaprep RNA kit was successful in extracting high quality RNA from brain tissue regardless of the high level of fat content, thus the kit can be recommend for RNA extraction from other fatty tissues (e.g. oocyte and adipose tissues (Ahi et al., 2018)) for which the conventional methods might not yield acceptable RNA quality for gene expression studies.

Gene selection and primer design

In this study, we selected a non-exhaustive list of 16 target genes that are well-studied in teleost fish, mainly in Cypriniformes, for their role in regulation of appetite and food intake (Table 1). In addition, the function of most of these genes have been investigated in other fish species with evolutionary closer relatedness than members of Cypriniformes to cichlids, such as members of Perciformes or other species of Cichliformes. We also included five genes playing a role in food habit transition from carnivory to herbivory in grass carp which is the only species studied for such a transition at gene expression level across teleost fishes (He et al., 2015) (Table 1). Furthermore, we chose eight candidate genes which are frequently used as reference genes in qPCR studies of different tissues in East African cichlids (Yang et al., 2013; Ahi & Sefc, 2017a,b; Ahi, Richter & Sefc, 2017). To design primers, we used conserved coding sequence regions based on the transcriptomes of several East African haplochromine species (*Pundamilia nyererei*, *Simochromis diagramma*, *Gnathochromis pfefferi*, *Metriaclima zebra*, and *Astatotilapia burtoni*) and two other cichlid species belonging to distant tribes (*Oreochromis niloticus* and *Neolamprologus brichardi*) (Brawand et al., 2014; Singh et al., 2017). The sequences from all species were first aligned in CLC Genomic Workbench, version 7.5 (CLC



Bio, Aarhus, Denmark) and exon/exon junctions were identified through the annotated genome of *Astatotilapia burtoni* in the Ensembl database (http://www.ensembl.org) (Zerbino et al., 2018). The designed primers were spanning the exon/exon with small amplicon size (<200 bp) which is optimal for qPCR quantification (Fleige & Pfaffl, 2006). We used OligoAnalyzer V3.1 software (www.idtdna.com/analyzer/Applications/OligoAnalyzer) and Primer Express V3.0 (Applied Biosystems, CA, USA) to design the primers with minimal dimerization and secondary structures.

qPCR and expression data analysis

In order to prepare qPCR reactions, we followed the protocol suggested by manufacturer; Maxima SYBR Green/ROX qPCR Master Mix (2X) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Germany). The qPCR amplifications were conducted in 96 well-PCR plates using ABI 7500 real-time PCR System (Applied Biosystems) with two technical replicates for each biological replicate and observing the experimental set-up known as sample maximization method to attain optimal qPCR conditions (Hellemans et al., 2007). The qPCR program and a dissociation step were performed as described in a previous gene expression study of cichlids (Ahi & Sefc, 2018), and the amplification efficiency of each primer pair was calculated through LinRegPCR v11.0 programme (http://LinRegPCR.nl) (Ramakers et al., 2003) (Table S1).

Three common algorithms for reference validation, BestKeeper (Pfaffl et al., 2004), NormFinder (Andersen, Jensen & Ørntoft, 2004) and geNorm (Vandesompele et al., 2002) were used to rank the most stably expressed reference genes. BestKeeper calculate an index which considers the lowest standard deviations (SD) of Cq values for its ranking, whereas geNorm and NormFinder calculate mean expression values (M) and stability expression values (SV) which respectively take into account gene co-expression and inter-group variations in order to rank the candidate reference genes. The Cq values of the reference gene(s) validated by the three algorithms was used for expression data normalization (Cq $_{reference}$) through obtaining Δ Cq for each gene (Δ Cq $_{target}$ = Cq $_{target}$ - Cq $_{reference}$). For gene expression comparisons within each lake, a replicate of an algae-grazer species was set as a calibrator sample and rest of the samples were normalized according to its Δ Cq value (Δ Δ Cq $_{target}$ = Δ Cq $_{target}$ - Δ Cq $_{calibrator}$). In expression comparisons



between the trophic niches across the lakes, the lowest expressed replicate for each target gene 200 was used as a calibrator sample. Relative expression quantities (RO) were calculated though 201 $E^{-\Delta\Delta Cq}$ method (Pfaffl, 2001) and their fold difference values (FD), after transformation of RQ 202 values to logarithmic base 2 values, were used to perform statistical analysis (Bergkvist et al., 203 2010). The significant expression differences were determined using ANOVA statistical tests, 204 followed by Tukey's HSD post hoc tests. To assess the species similarities in expression 205 signature of the appetite regulating genes a dendrogram clustering was conducted using 206 expression correlations calculated through Pearson correlation coefficients (r) using R 207 (http://www.r-project.org). 208

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Results

Validation of reference genes for expression analysis

In order to precisely measure the expression of the appetite-regulating genes in the brains, 212 213 identification of stably expressed reference gene(s) with minimum expression variation among the samples is considered as first crucial step in qPCR (Kubista et al., 2006). The eight candidate 214 reference genes were among the frequently used reference genes in qPCR studies of different 215 tissues in East African cichlids (Yang et al., 2013; Gunter & Meyer, 2014; Ahi & Sefc, 2017a,b; 216 Ahi, Richter & Sefc, 2017). The expression levels of candidate reference genes were variable; 217 from the lowest expression level (highest Cq value) of tbp to the highest expression level (lowest 218 Cq value) of actb1 (Figure 1B). Based on NormFinder, which takes into account the inter-group 219 expression variations, actb1, efla and rps11, were ranked as the most stable genes in the brain of 220 our study species from LM, LV and LT, respectively (Table 2). It should be noted that the only 221 rps11 was always ranked among the top three genes across the lakes according to the 222 NormFinder rankings. geNorm identified actb1, efla and tubal as the most stable genes in LM, 223 LV and LT, respectively. However, rps11 appeared again to be the only gene ranked among the 224 top three genes in all the lakes (ranked second in all the lakes) (Table 2). Finally, BestKeeper, 225 which calculates expression stabilities through standard deviations in expression, ranked rps11 as 226 the most stable reference genes among the candidates in all the lakes (Table 2). Based on the 227



findings by the three algorithms, *rps11* was found to have the most consistent expression stability, and therefore, its expression in the brain samples was selected as normalization factor (NF) for expression analyses of the appetite-regulating genes.

Expression differences between herbivores and carnivores

At first, we used the relative expressions of all 16 target genes in each species in order to construct a dendrogram cluster representing the similarities between species in brain expression of appetite-regulating genes (Fig. 1C). The results showed that the similarities between the species are mainly determined by evolutionary relatedness by which species from the same lake (for Malawi or Victoria) are paired together. However, an interesting difference was observed for the LT species where the carnivore species (C.h) was clustered with the LM species and the herbivore species (P.p) branched distantly from the other clusters (Fig. 1C). This might indicate that the LT species with their much older evolutionary divergence have more distinct expression pattern for appetite regulating genes prior to foraging, as outlined in more detail in the discussion. It also appears that the herbivore brain might have more distinct gene expression patterns for appetite-regulating genes in LT.

When the overall expression levels of the appetite-regulating genes were compared between herbivores and carnivores across the lakes six genes, *cart*, *drd1*, *gabra1*, *npy2r*, *pyy* and *trh* appeared to have differential expression (Fig. 2). Among these, *cart*, *gabra1* and *npy2r* displayed strong expression differences, and all of the genes, except *pyy*, had shown higher expression in the carnivores than herbivores (Fig. 2). These results demonstrate expression differences of certain appetite-regulating genes in herbivorous versus carnivorous haplochromine cichlids prior to initiation of their feeding. This also suggests that feeding behaviour can be already determined in the brain by differential expression of appetite-regulating genes before exposure to available food resources. However, considering the opposing appetite-regulating functions of these genes, i.e. *cart*, *drd1* and *npy2r* are anorexigenic whereas *gabra1* and *trh* are orexigenic genes (Table 1), it appears to be too complicated at this stage to interpret the behavioural outcome of such transcriptional differences across the lakes.



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Next, we compared the expression levels of each gene between the herbivorous and carnivorous species within the lakes. All of the genes, except cck and npy, showed differential expression between the two trophic niches in at least one lake (Fig. 3). Out of the 16 tested genes, 11, 12 and 13 genes were differentially expressed in LM, LV and LT, respectively. In LT, all of the 13 differentially expressed genes showed higher expression in the carnivore species, but this number declined by the age of divergence between the trophic niches in each lake, i.e. seven out of the 11 genes for LM and five out of the 12 genes for LV (Fig. 3). When comparing the lakes, seven genes showed similar expression difference between LT and LM, four genes between LM and LV, and four genes between LT and LV. Importantly, only two anorexigenic genes, cart and npv2r, showed similar expression difference across the lakes; with higher expression in the carnivore species (Fig. 3). The differential expression of cart appeared to be increased in the carnivore brains according to the age of divergence between the contrasting species of each lake (i.e. LT > LM > LV). The expression results of cart and npv2r suggest that carnivory versus herbivory and possibly their related feeding behaviour in Haplochromine cichlids might be predetermined by divergence in brain expression of the anorexigenic genes prior to initiation of feeding.

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Discussion

Diversity in cichlid diet and foraging behaviours is thought to be a key factor facilitating their rapid divergence by enabling effective trophic specialization and ecological speciation (Liem, 1973). Plasticity in trophic morphology and physiology, manifested in jaw shape, intestine length and enzymatic activities, are believed to have played an important role in the adaptation to new habitats and the optimization of feeding during ontogeny (Sturmbauer, Mark & Dallinger, 1992; Takahashi & Koblmüller, 2011). But little is known about the link between the brain and foraging behaviours. In particular, the appetite-regulating genes in the brain that might contribute to different dietary habits prior to the onset of feeding have not been studied. Here we investigated the expression of appetite regulating genes in the brains of cichlids adapted to herbivorous and carnivorous trophic niches and identified two appetite-regulating genes, *cart* (or *cartpt1*) and *npy2r*, to have higher expression in the carnivore brains prior to the initiation of



feeding across all three lakes. Both genes are indicated to have anorexigenic function in different 285 groups of teleost fishes (Matsuda et al., 2012; Babichuk & Volkoff, 2013; Wang et al., 2014; He 286 et al., 2015; Volkoff, 2016; Porter, Roberts & Maruska, 2017). The first gene, cart, or cocaine-287 and amphetamine-regulated transcript, encodes a pre-proprotein which proteolyzes to multiple 288 active peptides and participates in biological processes related to regulation of appetite, energy 289 balance, stress response, and reward and addiction responses (Volkoff, 2006, 2016; Koylu, 290 Balkan & Pogun, 2006; Vicentic et al., 2007; Rogge et al., 2008). In most teleost fish including 291 292 Perciformes, Salmoniformes and Gasterosteiforme only one cart isoform has been found (Murashita et al., 2009; Figueiredo-Silva et al., 2012; Striberny et al., 2015), whereas, in two 293 model fish species; medaka and zebrafish (Beloniforme and Cypriniforme, respectively) more 294 295 than one *cart* isoforms have been characterized (Murashita & Kurokawa, 2011; Akash et al., 296 2014). In a Haplochromine cichlid, Astatotilapia burtoni, six cart isoforms have been described and among them *cart/cartpt1* show the greatest similarity to mammalian *CART* gene (Hu et al., 297 298 2016). The brain expression pattern of *cart* appeared to be similar to its orthologues in other teleosts in the lateral posterior part of the hypothalamus (or lateral tuberal nucleus), which is also 299 300 similar to the expression of mammalian CART in a comparable region called arcuate nucleus (Porter, Roberts & Maruska, 2017). 301 Studies of Cypriniformes have demonstrated that cart induction inhibits food intake and 302 increases locomotion and responsiveness to different sensory stimuli, and thus affecting feeding 303 behavioral activity (Volkoff & Peter, 2000; Woods et al., 2014). It has been long known that 304 predatory behavior is directly influenced by ability to respond to a range of sensory stimuli 305 mediated by vision, olfaction and lateral line in fish (Adams & Johnsen, 1986; Gehrke, 1988; 306 Carr et al., 1996; Montgomery & Hamilton, 1997; LIAO & CHANG, 2003; del Mar Palacios, 307 Warren & McCormick, 2016). In addition, the decrease in brain expression of anorexigenic 308 genes has been linked to the transition from carnivory to herbivory feeding behavior in grass 309 carp (He et al., 2015). In our study, the increased *cart* expression in the carnivore brains prior to 310 feeding may indicate less appetite and a predisposition for more environmental responsiveness in 311 312 the carnivores, which may be a favorable behavior for predatory-based trophic specialization. Furthermore, the conserved anorexigenic role of CART peptides in teleost fish has been 313 demonstrated in a wide range of species during fasting and re-feeding experiments (reviewed in 314 (Volkoff, 2016)). Interestingly, we found that the difference in *cart* expression level between the 315



each lake, i.e. the older divergence had the highest difference in cart expression levels (Fig. 3). 317 This is especially interesting as the cichlids from older lakes have longer larval developmental 318 periods as they have larger yolk sacs that provide nourishment for longer, so food intake may 319 need to be inhibited for longer (Dreo and Gallaun, 2018, unpublished data). 320 The second gene, npy2r, encodes a receptor of Neuropeptide Y (npy), and interestingly, an 321 orthologue of the same receptor has been identified to have reduced expression during the 322 transition from carnivory to herbivory in grass carp (He et al., 2015). The ligand of this receptor, 323 324 npy, is expressed in different tissues, particularly in brain and intestine, and its encoded peptide (NPY) has been one of the first studied appetite-regulating factors in fish (Volkoff, 2016). In this 325 326 study we found reduced expression of npy2r in the brain of herbivores which is consistent with the suggested anorexigenic role of npv2r in in grass carp (He et al., 2015). Although, the ligand 327 of npy2r, NPY peptide, acts as an orexigenic factor in most teleost fish species (reviewed in 328 (Volkoff, 2016)), but npy2r is among the NPY receptors in vertebrates that functions as 329 330 inhibitory auto-receptor, and thus playing an opposite role to NPY in appetite regulation (Chen et al., 1997; Naveilhan et al., 1999). 331 Overall, most selected appetite-regulating genes showed no consistent expression differences 332 between herbivores and carnivores across the three lakes indicating that most of these genes do 333 334 not participate in determination of feeding behavior prior to foraging in haplochromine cichlids. Moreover, their expression differences between the two trophic niches showed the most 335 discrepancies between the species of the youngest and oldest lake adaptive radiations (LV versus 336 LT). Although, the consistently increased expression of the two anorexigenic genes, cart and 337 338 npy2r, in carnivores could imply on their potential role in determination of the feeding behaviors prior to foraging, further functional investigations are required to confirm such role for appetite 339 regulating genes in fish. In addition, it is not clear if the peptides encoded by these genes interact 340 with other appetite-regulating factors and whether they override the effects of the other 341 342 differentially expressed factors in the brain.

herbivorous and carnivorous species in each lake to be associated with the age of divergence in

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Conclusions



345	Diet is a major factor mediating adaptive divergence in the adaptive radiation of cichlids fishes
346	Here we took the first step towards delineating the genes involved in regulating appetite in
347	herbivorous and carnivorous cichlids prior to the onset of independent feeding. We identified
348	two anorexigenic genes, cart and npy2r, to be differentially expressed between the two trophic
349	categories in three parallel cichlid radiations, which is suggestive of their role in controlling
350	satiety in these species. It might also imply that appetite gene regulation is genetically hardwired
351	and not a plastic phenotype. In conclusion, we present a first glimpse into an important aspect of
352	feeding in cichlids that is the regulatory control of appetite. In the future it would be essential to
353	use whole transcriptome sequencing approaches to validate and add to our findings.

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List of abbreviations

LT: Lake Tanganyika, LM: Lake Malawi, LV: Lake Victoria. 356

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Declarations

Authors' contributions 359

- EPA, AD, CS, and PS designed the study. EPA and AD conducted the laboratory experiment. 360
- EPA analysed the data and prepared the figures. EPA, PS, AD and CS wrote the manuscript. WG 361
- and AD performed fish breeding and sampling. WG photographed the adult fishes used in Figure 362
- 363 1A. All authors reviewed the manuscript and approve its content.

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- PCR System in the Institute of Biology at University of Graz. 367

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Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests. 370

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372 Availability of data and materials

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

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Consent for publication

376 Not applicable.

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Ethics approval and consent to participate

- 379 Studies of sacrificed fish do not require ethics approval or consent to participate. This is due to
- 380 the fact that no experiments were carried out with the fish prior to sampling. Fish keeping and
- sampling was carried out according to the Austrian animal welfare law.

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Figure 1

The haplochromine cichlid species in this study, expression levels of the reference genes and a hierarchical clustering based on expression pattern of appetite-regulating genes in the brains.

- (A) A simplified phylogenetic tree of the six East African haplochromine cichlids representing their relatedness specified by inhabiting lakes and trophic specializations. The colour of symbol beside each species indicates trophic niche and its shape refers to inhabiting lake.
- (**B**) Expression levels of a selected set of reference genes using their Cq values in brain across the species. The middle line in each box plot represents the median together with the 25/75 percentiles. (**B**) A dendrogram clustering of species based similarity in expression levels of 16 appetite regulating genes in larval brain prior to foraging.



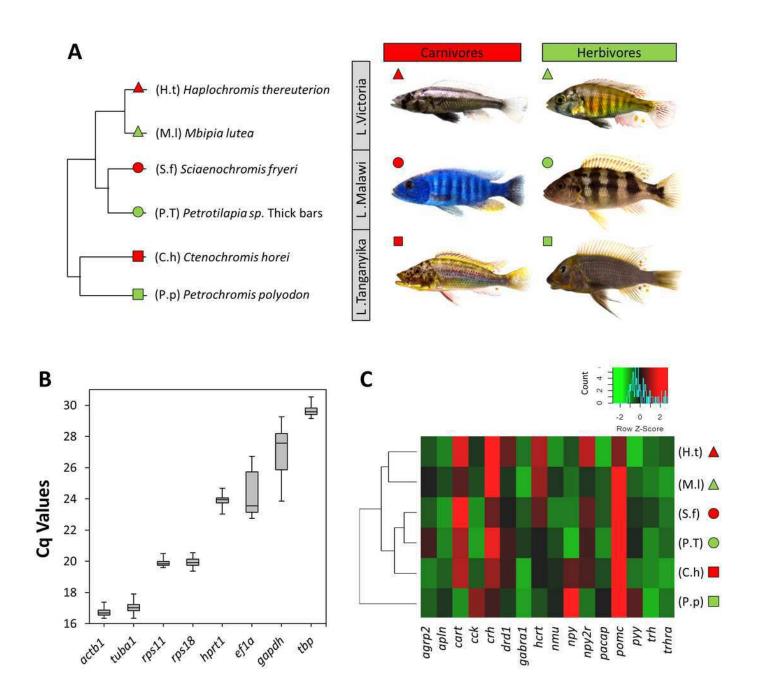




Figure 2

The herbivores versus carnivores expression differences of appetite-regulating genes in the brains of haplochromine cichlids at the end of larval phase.

Comparisons of relative expression levels of 16 appetite-regulating genes in brain, all herbivore species from the three lakes combined versus all the carnivore species, at the end of larval development and prior to foraging. The statistical differences are shown by one, two and three asterisks above bars indicating P < 0.05, 0.01 and 0.001, respectively. The middle line in each box plot represents the median together with the 25/75 percentiles.



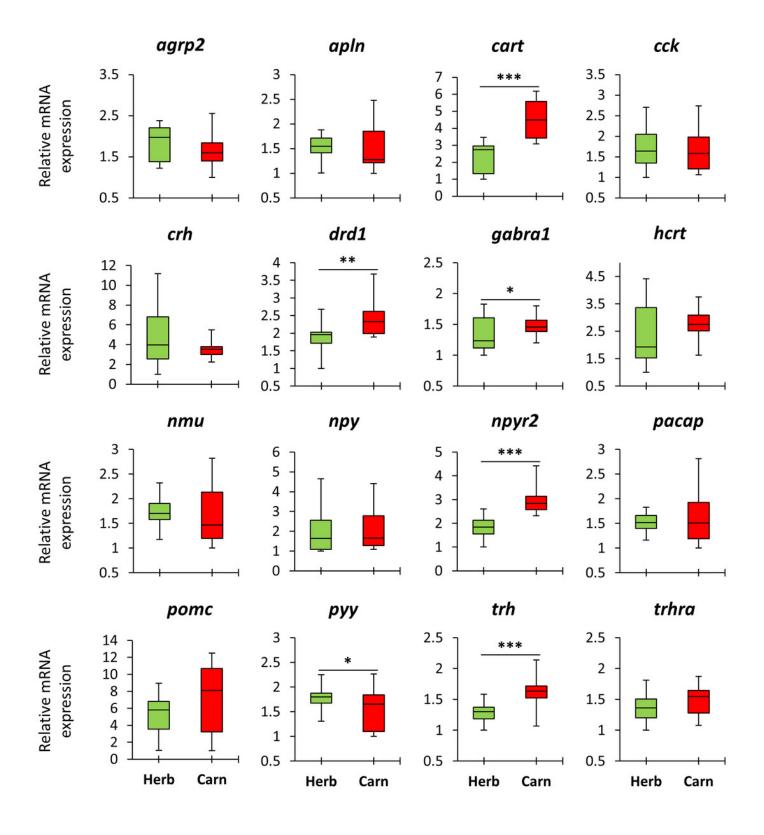




Figure 3

Within lake brain expression differences of appetite-regulating genes between herbivorous and carnivorous haplochromine cichlids at the end of the larval phase.

Comparisons of relative expression levels of 16 appetite-regulating genes in brain, between the herbivorous and carnivorous species of each lake, at the end of the larval development and prior to foraging. The statistical differences are shown by one, two and three asterisks above the bars indicating P < 0.05, 0.01 and 0.001, respectively. Error bars represent standard deviations calculated from six biological replicates.

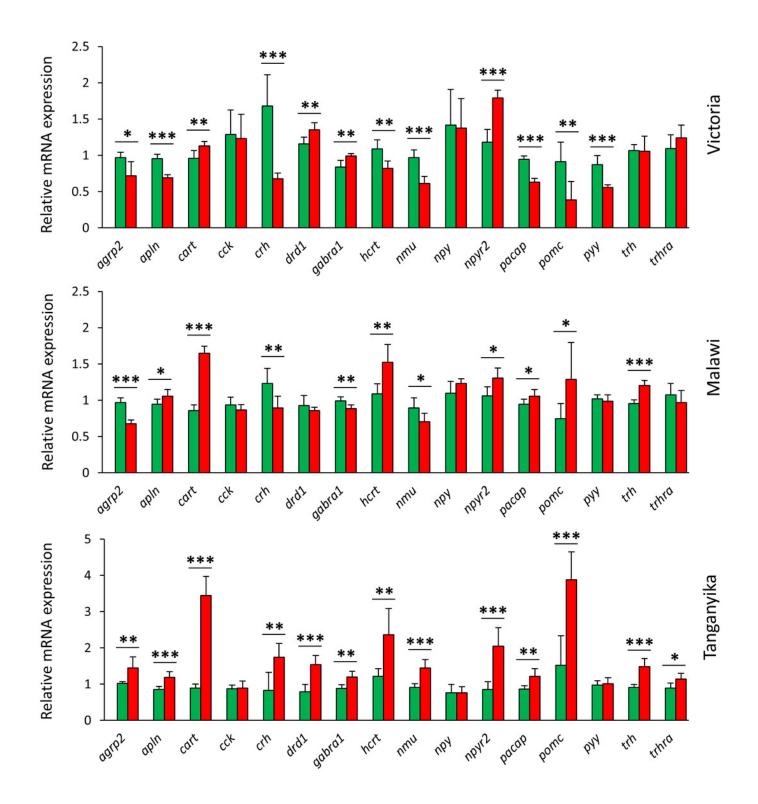




Table 1(on next page)

Selected appetite-regulating genes in this study.

Gene	Description	Organisms	Effects	References	
agrp2	Agouti related neuropeptide 2	Perciformes Cypriniformes	Orexigenic Diet transition	(Agulleiro et al., 2014; He et al., 2015)	
apln	Apelin, agtrl1 Ligand	Perciformes Cypriniformes	Orexigenic	(Hayes & Volkoff, 2014; Volkoff, 2016)	
cart	Cocaine and amphetamine regulated transcript	Cichliformes Perciformes Cypriniformes	Anorexigenic	(Babichuk & Volkoff, 2013; Volkoff, 2016; Porter, Roberts & Maruska, 2017)	
cck	Cholecystokinin triacontatriapeptide	Cichliformes Perciformes Cypriniformes	Anorexigenic	(Grone et al., 2012; Babichuk & Volkoff, 2013; Volkoff, 2016)	
crh	Corticotropin-releasing hormone	Salmoniformes Cypriniformes	Anorexigenic	(Bernier & Craig, 2005; Volkoff, 2016)	
drd1	Dopamine receptor D1	Cypriniformes	Anorexigenic Diet transition	(He et al., 2015)	
gabra1	Gamma-aminobutyric acid A receptor alpha-1	Cypriniformes	Orexigenic Diet transition	(Trudeau, Sloley & Peter, 1993; Matsuda et al., 2011; He et al., 2015)	
hcrt	Orexin, hypocretin neuropeptide precursor	Cichliformes Perciformes Cypriniformes	Orexigenic	(Yan et al., 2011; Grone et al., 2012; Volkoff, 2016)	
nmu	Neuromedin U preproprotein	Perciformes Cypriniformes	Anorexigenic	(Kono et al., 2012; Li et al., 2015; Volkoff, 2016)	
пру	Prepro-neuropeptide Y	Cichliformes Perciformes Cypriniformes	Anorexigenic? Orexigenic	(Grone et al., 2012; Matsuda et al., 2012; Babichuk & Volkoff, 2013; Volkoff, 2016; Das et al., 2019)	
npy2r	Neuropeptide Y receptor type 2	Perciformes Cypriniformes	Anorexigenic Diet transition	(Matsuda et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2014; He et al., 2015)	
расар	Pituitary adenylate cyclase activating polypeptide	Cichliformes Cypriniformes	Anorexigenic	(Matsuda et al., 2005; Zhou et al., 2013; Costa et al., 2016)	
ротс	Pro-opiomelanocortin preproprotein	Cichliformes Cypriniformes	Anorexigenic	(Volkoff, 2016; Porter, Roberts & Maruska, 2017)	
руу	Prepro-peptide YY	Perciformes Cypriniformes	Orexigenic Anorexigenic	(Murashita et al., 2006; Volkoff, 2016)	
trh, trhra	Thyrotropin-releasing hormone and its receptor	Cypriniformes	Orexigenic Diet transition	(He et al., 2015; Volkoff, 2016)	



Table 2(on next page)

Ranking and statistical analyses of reference genes in brain of six haplochromine species from three East African lakes.



	BestKeeper		geNorm		NormFinder	
	Ranking	I	Ranking	M	Ranking	SV
	rps11	0.080	actb1	0.374	actb1	0.148
	tuba1	0.134	rps11	0.384	hprt1	0.176
wi	rps18	0.153	tuba l	0.392	rps11	0.210
Lake Malawi	actb1	0.171	hprt1	0.400	tuba1	0.280
ake I	hprt1	0.176	rps18	0.422	rps18	0.284
L	efla	0.348	efla	0.491	efla	0.295
	tbp	0.349	tbp	0.577	tbp	0.519
	gapdh	0.935	gapdh	0.978	gapdh	1.168
	rps11	0.076	efla	0.387	efla	0.228
	actb1	0.159	rps11	0.393	actb1	0.283
ria	tbp	0.167	tbp	0.403	rps11	0.295
Lake Victoria	efla	0.194	actb1	0.408	rps18	0.386
ıke V	hprt1	0.204	rps18	0.429	tbp	0.413
L	rps18	0.208	hprt1	0.490	hprt1	0.525
	tuba1	0.218	tuba1	0.516	tuba1	0.656
	gapdh	0.963	gapdh	1.298	gapdh	2.923
	rps11	0.197	tubal	0.535	rps11	0.033
	actb1	0.248	rps11	0.539	rps18	0.036
yika	rps18	0.257	rps18	0.549	tbp	0.087
ngan	tbp	0.292	tbp	0.599	tuba1	0.138
Lake Tanganyika	tuba1	0.300	hprt1	0.604	actb1	0.158
Lak	ef1a	0.399	ef1a	0.643	hprt1	0.160
	hprt1	0.400	actb1	0.731	ef1a	0.386
	gapdh	1.867	gapdh	1.996	gapdh	4.896



- 2 Abbreviations: I = BestKeeper index calculated through standard deviations in expression, SV =
- 3 stability value, M = M value of stability.