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Additional Information

1 **A comparison of techniques for studying oogenesis in the European eel *Anguilla***  
2 ***anguilla***

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16 Running headline: Techniques to study *A. anguilla* oogenesis

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23 **ABSTRACT**

24 A multi-technique approach was used to study the changes occurring in European eel *Anguilla*  
25 *anguilla* ovaries during hormonally-induced vitellogenesis. Aside from classic techniques used to  
26 monitor the vitellogenic process, such as ovary histology, fat content analysis, sodium dodecyl  
27 sulfate–polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS–PAGE), and vitellogenin enzyme linked  
28 immunosorbent assay (ELISA), a new technique, Fourier Transform Infrared (FT-IR)  
29 Microspectroscopy, was used for the first time to analyze *A. anguilla* ovaries. The results from the  
30 different techniques provided different ways of approaching the same process. Although it is  
31 considered a time consuming approach, of all the employed techniques, histology provided the  
32 most direct evidences about vitellogenesis. SDS-PAGE and ELISA were also useful for studying  
33 vitellogenesis, whereas fat analysis cannot be used for this purpose. The FT-IR analysis provided a  
34 representative IR spectrum for each ovarian stage (PV, EV, MV and LV), demonstrating that it is a  
35 valid method able to illustrate the distribution of the oocytes within the ovary slices. The obtained  
36 chemical maps confirmed changes in lipid concentrations, and revealed their distribution within  
37 the oocytes at different maturational stages. When the results and the accuracy of the FT-IR  
38 analysis were compared to those of the traditional techniques commonly used to establish the  
39 vitellogenic stage, it became evident that FT-IR is a useful and reliable tool, with many advantages,  
40 including the fact that it requires little biological material, the costs involved are low, analysis times  
41 are short, and, last but not least, the fact that it offers the possibility of simultaneously analyzing  
42 various biocomponents of the same oocyte.

43

44 Keywords: ovary, vitellogenesis, SDS-PAGE, Folch, ELISA, FT-IR.

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## INTRODUCTION

The European eel *Anguilla anguilla* L. 1758 has a peculiar life cycle which is not yet fully understood. It is a semelparous species which undergoes a 5-6,000 km migration to reach the Sargasso Sea, the supposed spawning area (van Ginneken & Maes, 2005).

The *A. anguilla*, like all Anguillid species, does not mature in captivity unless hormonally stimulated. hCG is commonly used in males – although recently it was demonstrated that recombinant hCG achieves better results – and fish pituitary extract in females (Asturiano *et al.*, 2005; Palstra *et al.*, 2005; Pérez *et al.*, 2008; Peñaranda *et al.*, 2010; Gallego *et al.*, 2012). Hormonal treatment in males results in good quality sperm (Asturiano *et al.*, 2005; Gallego *et al.*, 2012), while the current protocol used for females, both in the case of *A. anguilla* and Japanese eel *Anguilla japonica* Temminck and Schlegel 1847, results in low quality eggs and has a negative impact on embryo survival. Possible causes for the low quality eggs might be: inadequate broodstock nutrition leading to altered lipid accumulation (Seoka *et al.*, 2003), inappropriate maturation techniques (Pedersen, 2004; Kagawa *et al.*, 2005; Horie *et al.*, 2008), or the accumulation of pollutants (Palstra *et al.*, 2006). Vitellogenesis is a complex process controlled by hormones. It involves the brain, pituitary, ovaries and the liver and is influenced by environmental and internal factors. Vitellogenesis is crucial since egg growth and the uptake of the nutrients which will be used for embryo development are dependent on it (Nagahama, 1994; Brooks *et al.*, 1997; Carnevali *et al.*, 2001a,b; Polzonetti-Magni *et al.*, 2004). Among the different hormones involved, the gonadotropins FSH and LH (produced in the pituitary), as well as E2 (synthesized in the ovary), play important roles since they control the hepatic production of vitellogenin (an important precursor of yolk protein), the plasma levels of which affect the final egg quality (Carnevali *et al.*, 2001b; Polzonetti *et al.*, 2002; Lubzens *et al.*, 2010).

The egg composition of *A. japonica* has been investigated in relation to egg quality (Furuita *et*

71 *al.*, 2003, 2006, 2007) however, to date, no studies have focused on *A. anguilla*. Hence, further  
72 studies on *A. anguilla* oocytes during vitellogenesis are necessary in order to optimize  
73 reproduction in this species.

74 In the last few years, several studies have been carried out in order to gain a better  
75 understanding of *A. anguilla* vitellogenesis and zonagenesis (Pérez *et al.*, 2011; Mazzeo *et al.*, 2012;  
76 Peñaranda *et al.*, 2013). Due to the complexity of vitellogenesis itself and all the changes that  
77 occur during this process, the objective of this study was to compare different techniques which  
78 can be employed to study vitellogenesis, in order to evaluate which one is the most suitable in  
79 terms of obtained results vs. costs and times, and how information provided by each technique  
80 can be intercrossed.

81 To achieve this, techniques commonly employed in the study of oocyte growth, such as histology,  
82 ELISA, SDS-PAGE, and Folch method for determining fat content were used. In addition, Fourier  
83 Transform Infrared (FT-IR) Microspectroscopy was employed for the first time with *A. anguilla*. This  
84 technique, previously used in the study of zebrafish *Danio rerio* Hamilton 1882 and mummichog  
85 *Fundulus heteroclitus* L. 1766 ovaries and single oocytes, is considered a novel and powerful tool  
86 for analyzing the macromolecular composition of ovarian structures (Carnevali *et al.*, 2009;  
87 Giorgini *et al.*, 2010; Lombardo *et al.*, 2012). Plasma FT-IR has also been shown to be effective in  
88 determining the stage of sexual development in sturgeon *Acipenser transmontanus* Richardson  
89 1836 (Lu *et al.*, 2013).

90

91

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

### FISH HANDLING

93 Thirty-nine silver-stage *A. anguilla* females ( $660 \pm 162$  g body mass) were caught by local  
94 fishermen between December and March during their reproductive migration from the Albufera

95 lagoon (Valencia, Spain) to the sea, and transported directly to the Universitat Politècnica de  
96 València (Spain) aquaculture facilities.

97 The fish were placed in a 1500 l tank with recirculating freshwater and gradually acclimated to  
98 seawater salinity (37) and temperature ( $18 \pm 1$  °C) over the course of two weeks. The tank was  
99 covered to maintain constant darkness, thereby reducing stress. Since *A. anguilla* stop eating at the  
100 beginning of their reproductive migration, they were not fed during the whole experiment. The  
101 fish were handled in accordance with the European Union regulations concerning the protection of  
102 experimental animals (Dir 86/609/EEC) and under the supervision of the University Ethics  
103 Committee.

104

#### 105 *HORMONAL TREATMENT*

106 After being anesthetized (benzocaine, 60 mg l<sup>-1</sup>; [www.sigmaaldrich.com/](http://www.sigmaaldrich.com/)) and weighed to  
107 calculate the hormone dosage, the *A. anguilla* females were treated weekly for 12 weeks with  
108 intra-peritoneal injections of carp pituitary extract (CPE: Catvis, [www.catvis.nl](http://www.catvis.nl)) at a dose of 20 mg  
109 kg<sup>-1</sup>. The CPE was prepared as follows: 1 g of pituitary powder was diluted in 10 ml of NaCl solution  
110 (9 g l<sup>-1</sup>) and centrifuged at 1260 g for 10 min. The supernatant was collected and stored at -20 °C  
111 until use.

112

#### 113 *SAMPLING*

114 Once acclimated to seawater salinity and temperature as previously described, eight fish were  
115 sacrificed every four weeks. The animals were anesthetized (benzocaine, 60 mg l<sup>-1</sup>) before being  
116 weighed and sacrificed by decapitation. Before sacrificing, blood samples were obtained from the  
117 caudal vasculature, and plasma was retrieved by centrifugation (3000 rpm, 15 min) and stored at -  
118 80 °C until further analysis.

119 The gonads were weighed to calculate the gonad somatic index ( $I_G$ ; ovary mass/body mass\*100).

120 For the histological analysis, gonad samples were preserved in 10% buffered formalin (pH 7.4).

121 Gonad samples for fat, FT-IR and SDS-PAGE analyses were frozen at -20 °C.

### 123 *GONAD HISTOLOGY*

124 After dehydration in ethanol, samples were embedded in paraffin and 5-10 µm thick sections  
125 were cut with a Shandon Hypercut manual microtome (Shandon, Southern Products Ltd,  
126 [www.southernbiological.com/](http://www.southernbiological.com/)). Slides were stained with haematoxylin and eosin and observed  
127 through a Nikon Eclipse E-400 microscope and pictures were taken with a Nikon DS-5M camera  
128 attached to the microscope ([www.nikon.com/](http://www.nikon.com/)).

129 The stage of oogenesis was determined following the method described by Pérez *et al.* (2011).  
130 The diameters of 100 oocytes from each specimen were measured and the corresponding stage  
131 was established on the basis of the most advanced oocyte stage observed in the histological  
132 sections. The following stages were observed: Previtellogenic stage (PV): oocyte at perinucleolar  
133 and oil droplet stages; Early vitellogenic stage (EV): oocytes with small yolk globules at the  
134 periphery of the cytoplasm; Mid-vitellogenic stage (MV): oocytes with bigger yolk globules, widely  
135 distributed in the cytoplasm but still with a greater abundance of oil droplets; Late vitellogenic  
136 stage (LV): oocytes with more yolk globules than oil droplets.

137 The most advanced stage observed was the nuclear migration stage (NM), characterized by  
138 oocyte hydration and the migration of the nucleus towards the animal pole. However, the NM  
139 stage was only reached by one animal and it was not considered in the performed analyses due to  
140 the poor meaning of comparing with just one specimen.

143 *ENZYME LINKED IMMUNOSORBENT ASSAY FOR VTG*

144 VTG plasma levels were assayed using a homologous ELISA previously developed for *A. anguilla*  
145 (Burzawa Gérard *et al.*, 1991). In summary, purified *A. anguilla* VTG was fixed on 96-well plates, by  
146 24 h incubation at 4 °C (200 ng/well). After washing, non-specific sites were saturated by the  
147 addition of 2% pig serum to the wells and incubated for 2 hours at room temperature, and being  
148 washed again. Serial dilutions of *A. anguilla* VTG standard, or of *A. anguilla* plasma samples, were  
149 pre-incubated with anti-*A. anguilla* VtG rabbit antiserum (1/100 000 final dilution) for 24 h at 4 °C.  
150 The mixtures were added to the wells in duplicate and incubated for 24 h at 4 °C. After washing,  
151 anti-rabbit IgG goat antiserum linked to peroxydase was added to each well (1/4000) and  
152 incubated for 2 h at room temperature. After washing, peroxydase activity was revealed by ortho-  
153 diphenylalanine (ODP) in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, for 15 minutes in the dark at room temperature.  
154 The reaction was stopped by the addition of sulfuric acid, and the Optic Density measured using a  
155 Appolo LB 913 Spectrophotometer (Berthold Biotechnologies, [www.bionity.com](http://www.bionity.com)). The  
156 sensitivity of the ELISA was 1.7 ng ml<sup>-1</sup> and the intra and inter-assay variation coefficients were 6.2%  
157 and 9.1%, respectively. The sensitivity of the ELISA was 1.7 ng ml<sup>-1</sup> (Burzawa Gérard *et al.*, 1991).

158

159 *SODIUM DODECYL SULFATE–POLYACRYLAMIDE GEL ELECTROPHORESIS (SDS–PAGE)*

160 50 mg of ovary from different stages (PV, EV, MV and LV) were placed in 500 µL Eppendorf tubes  
161 containing 10 µL of lysis buffer (10 mM TRIS-HCl, pH 6.8, 1% SDS) and immediately homogenized.  
162 The homogenates were then centrifuged at 14000 g for 15 min at 4 °C to separate the dissolved  
163 yolk from the insoluble cellular debris. Protein concentration was determined by a Bradford assay  
164 (Bradford, 1976). The supernatant was added to the sample buffer (4% SDS, 20% glycerol, 10% 2-  
165 mercaptoethanol, 0.004% bromophenol blue, 0.125 M TRIS-HCl, pH 6.8) in the proportion of 1:1  
166 and run on SDS-PAGE in stacking (4%) and resolving (10%) acrylamide mini-gels, 7x10 cm (Selman



167 *et al.*, 1993). Molecular weight standards were placed in the well and electrophoresed at a  
168 constant current (60 mA). The protein bands were visualized by fixing the gel in 12% trichloroacetic  
169 acid for 30 min, then staining for 45 min in 0.2% Coomassie Blue R-350 (Amersham-Pharmacia  
170 Biotech, [www.gelifesciences.com](http://www.gelifesciences.com)) in 30% methanol plus 10% acetic acid, and finally de-staining  
171 overnight in 25% methanol and 7% acetic acid (Carnevali *et al.*, 1992).

172

### 173 *FAT EXTRACTION*

174 Total fat was extracted according to the method described by Folch *et al.* (1957) with a few  
175 modifications. In summary, 1 g of sample was homogenized in 30 ml of Folch solution (2:1, v/v  
176 dichloromethane/methanol and 0.75 g l<sup>-1</sup> butylhydroxytoluene as antioxidant). Homogenization  
177 was carried out in a glass tube with an Ultra216 turrax type of homogenizer. The homogenate was  
178 filtered through fat-free Whatmann n. 6 paper into a new glass tube. To separate the mixture into  
179 two layers - one with lipids and the other with the non-lipid substances - 3.75 ml of potassium  
180 chloride were added and the glass tube was kept at 4 °C overnight. Between 8 to 48 h later, once  
181 the two layers had formed, the upper layer containing the non-lipid substances was removed with  
182 a vacuum pump. Afterwards, the aqueous phase was removed by adding enough sodium sulphate  
183 anhydrous. The fat containing phase was filtered again and evaporated using a centrifuge vacuum  
184 concentrator (Scan Speed MaxiVac Alpha, [www.labogene.com/](http://www.labogene.com/)) at 35 °C. The fat was weighed and  
185 its percentage calculated on the basis of the gonad sample mass.

186

### 187 *FT-IR MEASUREMENTS AND DATA ANALYSIS*

188 Ovaries from five different specimens were cryosectioned in thin slices at a predefined thickness  
189 of 5 µm. Two adjacent slices were obtained from each sample: one of which was placed on silicon  
190 supports for the vibrational analysis and the other on conventional glass slides for morphological

191 examination (haematoxylin and eosin stained). Spectral data were achieved at room temperature  
192 by using a Perkin Elmer Spectrum GXI Spectrometer, equipped with a Perkin Elmer Autoimage  
193 microscope and a photoconductive HgCdTe, MCT, array detector, operating at liquid nitrogen  
194 temperature and covering the entire IR spectral range from 4000 to 700  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . Using the  
195 microscope television camera, specific areas of each sample where the tissue distribution  
196 appeared homogeneous were selected. In these zones (ca. 600x500  $\mu\text{m}$ ), the chemical maps,  
197 which represent the total intensity of the infrared absorption with each pixel corresponding to a  
198 single spectrum, were acquired in transmission mode, with a spectral resolution of 4  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and a  
199 spatial resolution of 20x20  $\mu\text{m}$  (128 scans), for a total of ca. 750 spectra. Background scans were  
200 acquired and rationed against the sample spectrum. For data handling, the following software  
201 packages were used: Spectrum Image 1.6 and Spectrum 6.3.1 (Perkin Elmer,  
202 [www.perkinelmer.com/lab-solutions/default.xhtml](http://www.perkinelmer.com/lab-solutions/default.xhtml)), and Grams AI 7.02 (Galactic Industries,  
203 [www.spectra.co.jp/pdf/grams.pdf](http://www.spectra.co.jp/pdf/grams.pdf)). The spectra obtained from each sample were used to build a  
204 two points baseline fitted in the spectral range 4000-700  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and to normalize the vectors (Wood  
205 *et al.*, 2004). Second Derivative (9-point smoothing) and Peak Fitting (Gaussian algorithm)  
206 procedures were adopted to determine the correct position and absorbance intensity of bands. By  
207 using GRAMS/AI 7.02 (Galactic Industries, [www.spectra.co.jp/pdf/grams.pdf](http://www.spectra.co.jp/pdf/grams.pdf)), peak fitting was  
208 performed on average spectra (interpolated in the range 1780-1470  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and two points baseline  
209 fitted), to identify the underlying component bands, the number of peaks together with their  
210 center values were carefully individuated according to the second derivative results and fixed  
211 before running the iterative process, to obtain the best reconstructed curve (residual close to zero).  
212 Correlation maps were obtained by loading second derivative representative spectra onto the  
213 chemical maps (Wood *et al.*, 2004). This procedure, which enables the localization of biological  
214 components in the sample, correlates a selected spectrum with all the spectra in the map,

215 affording a colorimetric and numeric scale of correlation percentage. Attribution of the bands was  
216 carried out according to literature (Jackson & Mantsch, 1993, 2002; Pacifico *et al.*, 2003).

## 218 *STATISTICAL ANALYSIS*

219 After establishing data normality, the data were analyzed by a one way analysis of variance  
220 (ANOVA) followed by a Newman-Keuls post-hoc test. If normality failed, the data were Log  
221 transformed to perform the ANOVA. All the values are expressed as mean  $\pm$  standard error of  
222 mean (SEM). Differences were considered significant at  $p < 0.05$ . All statistical procedures were run  
223 using Statgraphics Plus 5.1 ([www.statgraphics.com/](http://www.statgraphics.com/)).

## 225 **RESULTS**

### 226 *HISTOLOGY*

227 Five different vitellogenic stages during vitellogenesis were observed using histology [Fig. 1]. At  
228 the beginning of the treatment, all the specimens were in the PV stage ( $I_G$ : 0.83), which includes  
229 the perinucleolar and oil droplet stages [Fig. 1(a,b)]. The stages progressed in line with the  
230 hormonal treatment, with stages EV ( $I_G$ : 2.83), MV ( $I_G$ : 5.32) and LV ( $I_G$ : 17.26) [Fig. 1(c,d,e)] being  
231 reached. The most advanced stage reached was NM ( $I_G$ : 39.26) [Fig. 1(f)], observed in just one  
232 female. Histological observation clearly demonstrated that (i) vitellogenesis was preceded by oil  
233 droplet accumulation [Fig. 1(a,b)]; (ii) VTG uptake occurred in the EV stage [Fig. 1(c)] and continued  
234 until the MV and LV stages [Fig. 1(d,e)]; (iii) in the NM stage, nucleus migration and coalescence of  
235 yolk granules were evident [Fig. 1(f)].

236 For the remainder of the analyses, specimens were grouped by developmental stage in order to  
237 identify differences relating to the progression of vitellogenesis rather than to the week of  
238 treatment.

239

240 *PLASMA VTG LEVELS*

241 VTG plasma levels [Fig. 2] increased during early vitellogenesis (EV) and then remained constant  
242 until late vitellogenesis (LV). The plasma VTG increase was accompanied by the appearance of yolk  
243 vesicles in the oocytes in the EV stage [Fig. 1(c)].

244

245 *FAT CONTENT*

246 In the ovaries, no differences were found in any of the different phases of vitellogenesis with  
247 respect to fat content. However, in spite of the lack of statistical significance, fat levels increased  
248 when moving from the PV to the EV stage [Fig. 3].

249

250 *SDS-PAGE*

251 The presence of yolk proteins in the growing oocyte was confirmed by the appearance of four  
252 distinct components with an apparent molecular weight of 100, 60, 30 and 26 kDa in the EV, MV  
253 and LV stages, as shown by SDS-PAGE. An additional band with an apparent molecular weight of 15  
254 kDa was observed in the LV stage [Fig. 4].

255

256 *FT-IR*

257 The comparative analysis of representative spectra allowed the visualization of the changes that  
258 occurred in the biochemical composition of the different samples.

259 With regards to the ovary, when moving from the PV to the LV stage, the uptake of VTG was  
260 substantiated by an increase in lipids, proteins, carbohydrates and phosphates. In the region 3100–  
261 2800  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , the convoluted band with a maximum at 2926  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  increased between the PV and the  
262 LV stage: in particular, the analysis of the 2926/2954  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  ( $\nu_{\text{asym}} \text{CH}_2/\text{CH}_3$ ) and 2854/2873  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  ( $\nu_{\text{sym}}$

263 CH<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>3</sub>) absorbance band ratios pin-pointed an increase in CH<sub>2</sub> moiety [Fig. 5]. According to the  
264 vibrational analysis in the spectral region 1800–1900 cm<sup>-1</sup>, between the PV and the LV stages in the  
265 ovary, some conclusions can be drawn: (i) the vibrational mode at 1738 cm<sup>-1</sup> increased; (ii) changes  
266 in protein content and secondary structure were observed by analyzing Amide I and Amide II  
267 bands; in particular, the bands at 1695 cm<sup>-1</sup> (β-turn) and at 1631 cm<sup>-1</sup> (β-sheet) increased, while  
268 those at 1640 cm<sup>-1</sup> (random coil) disappeared; (iii) the increase in the lipidic chain length was  
269 confirmed by the increase of the band at 1458 cm<sup>-1</sup> (δCH<sub>2</sub>/<sub>3</sub>) ; (iv) the increase in the phosphate  
270 groups was demonstrated by the bands at 1239 cm<sup>-1</sup> (ν<sub>asym</sub> PO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>) and 1081 (ν<sub>sym</sub> PO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>) ; (v) there  
271 was a rise in the glucidic component, confirmed by the band at 1060 cm<sup>-1</sup> (ν<sub>sym</sub> CO-O-C) [Fig. 5]. In  
272 addition, correlation maps guaranteed the correspondence between the analyzed samples and an  
273 average representative spectrum for each ovarian stage (PV, EV, MV and LV), validating the method  
274 and illustrating the distribution of the oocytes within the ovary slices [Fig. 6]. At the same time,  
275 chemical maps obtained by correlating the region 3100-2800 cm<sup>-1</sup> (corresponding to CH<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>3</sub>  
276 moieties) confirmed changes in the concentration of the analyzed components and showed the  
277 distribution of the lipids within the ovaries in the different maturational stages [Fig. 6].

## 279 DISCUSSION

280 The aim of this study was to integrate information from different techniques to gain a wider and  
281 more complete understanding of vitellogenesis in *A. anguilla* and to identify the most exhaustive  
282 and convenient technique.

283 According to the histological analysis of the ovaries, VTG plasma content and fat content follow  
284 a similar pattern, with both showing a first phase of lipid accumulation followed by a phase in  
285 which vitellogenin is synthesized, transported and accumulated. The reason for this could be that  
286 lipids and yolk proteins are the most important macromolecules for the developing future embryo

287 (Brooks *et al.*, 1997; Carnevali *et al.*, 2001a,b).

288 In particular, fat accumulation in the ovary occurs between the PV and the EV stages, as  
289 illustrated in particular by histology and fat analysis (in spite of a lack of statistical significance, an  
290 increase in ovarian fat content was appreciated). This first stage of vitellogenesis, characterized by  
291 the presence of fat, indicates that lipid composition, storage and mobilization are important for  
292 successful vitellogenesis and probably deserve more attention in the attempt to optimize breeding.

293 The progression of vitellogenesis is supported by histology, the increase of VTG plasma content  
294 and the SDS-PAGE. Vitellogenin is synthesized by the liver in response to  $17\beta$ -estradiol produced by  
295 the ovary, and is carried in the blood to the ovary (Nagahama, 1994). Hence, VTG plasma content  
296 can be an indicator of the progression of vitellogenesis. These results were validated by FT-IR  
297 analysis, which showed an increase in vitellogenin during oocyte maturation. In fact, the increase  
298 in  $\text{CH}_2$  moiety and in the vibrational mode at  $1738\text{ cm}^{-1}$  were attributable to changes in lipidic  
299 backbone as well as amino acid side chains (Wood *et al.*, 2008), and to VTG (Carnevali *et al.*, 2009),  
300 respectively.

301 In *A. anguilla*, in order to classify animals according to their developmental stage, eye index  
302 together with skin and fin coloration can also be used, but these are indirect evidences that may  
303 help to distinguish migrating from non-migrating individuals (Durif *et al.*, 2005). So, it is important  
304 to find a technique which can give a reliable and more direct indication of the developmental stage  
305 reached by a specimen.

306 The advantages and disadvantages of each technique are summarized in Table I. Histology has  
307 traditionally been the most employed technique for establishing the developmental stage of fish,  
308 since it allows the direct observation of the progression of vitellogenesis through the analysis of  
309 the ovaries. Unfortunately, this technique is very time consuming (Brewer *et al.*, 2008) and  
310 generates a lot of waste because of the use of alcohols and chemical reagents. Waste

311 production is also one of the disadvantages of fat content analysis by Folch method. However,  
312 unlike histology, ovarian fat content is not a very good technique for studying the progression of  
313 vitellogenesis. In fact, in addition to it also being time consuming, it does not give an immediate  
314 result and, above all, fat content cannot be linked exactly to any vitellogenic stage. However, since  
315 it has been demonstrated that dietary lipid content affects fatty acid composition and egg quality,  
316 studies on fat composition and mobilization – fat content was also studied in other body tissues,  
317 including the muscle and the liver – should be performed to establish the energetic needs of  
318 maturing *A. anguilla* and to define specific breeder diets (García-Gallego & Akharbach, 1998;  
319 Furuita *et al.*, 2007).

320 In addition, VTG plasma content and SDS-PAGE only give partial indications on the progression  
321 of vitellogenesis. According to our results, VTG plasma content analysis, which has the advantage  
322 of not needing to sacrifice the fish as blood can be retrieved by anesthetized specimens, could be  
323 used to distinguish the PV stage from more advanced stages. This is because a significant increase  
324 in the levels is only observed in the PV and EV stages, with no differences found in the other stages.

325 When using SDS-PAGE, real differences were found between animals at the very beginning of  
326 vitellogenesis and others at more advanced stages, but this technique cannot be used to find out  
327 exactly in which stage a specimen is. However, it would be interesting to carry out a more in depth  
328 analysis in order to understand which yolk proteins appear during the progression of vitellogenesis.  
329 In addition, SDS-PAGE is a fast method, which generates little waste and requires small amounts of  
330 tissue.

331 FT-IR analysis is a novel technique, which was successfully applied to determine the  
332 developmental stage in maturing *A. anguilla*. Although specific instruments and trained staff are  
333 needed, this technique has the advantage of short analysis times and the possibility of analyzing  
334 various molecules of interest at the same time on the same oocyte. In fact, FT-IR also provides

335 information about the composition of the ovary. Recently, studies on *A. anguilla* reproduction have  
336 been focusing on the effect of nutrition and broodstock diets on egg quality (Heinsbroek *et al.*,  
337 2013; Støttrup *et al.*, 2013). FT-IR could prove a useful tool in this respect, since it allows the study  
338 how different diets affect ovarian macromolecular composition and oocyte quality.

339  
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Table I. Comparison of the advantages and disadvantages of the various techniques used to study vitellogenesis in *Anguilla anguilla*.

Technique	Advantages	Diasadvantages
Histology	- Direct observation of the ovary and determination of the developmental stage	- Time consuming - Waste production
Folch method	- Basis to study mobilization and nutrient requests	- No direct information on developmental stage - Time consuming - Waste production
VTG content	- No sacrifice needed - Screening of specimens in PV stage vs other stages	- No direct information on developmental stage
SDS-PAGE	- Screening of specimens in PV stage vs other stages - Fast - Small amount of tissue needed	- No direct information on developmental stage
FT-IR	- Once spectra are acquired, information on developmental stage - Fast - Study of macromolecules	- Expensive equipment - Trained personnel needed

1 **Figures captions**

2

3 **Fig. 1.** Ovarian developmental stages in *Anguilla anguilla*. A) Previtellogenic  
4 (PV), perinucleolar stage; B) Previtellogenic, lipid droplet stage; C) Early  
5 vitellogenic (EV) stage; D) Mid vitellogenic (MV) stage; E) Late vitellogenic  
6 (LV) stage; F) Nuclear migration (NM) stage. Arrows in C, D, E show the  
7 position of the yolk globules, arrow in F points to the nucleus. Scale Bar: A, B,  
8 D: 100  $\mu\text{m}$ ; C: 50  $\mu\text{m}$ ; E, F: 200  $\mu\text{m}$ .

9

10 **Fig 2.** Changes in VTG plasma levels ( $\text{mg ml}^{-1}$ ) during vitellogenesis according  
11 to *Anguilla anguilla* ovarian developmental stage. VTG levels are measured by  
12 homologous ELISA. PV: pre-vitellogenesis ( $n = 8$ ); EV: early vitellogenesis ( $n$   
13 = 9); MV: mid-vitellogenesis ( $n = 2$ ); LV: late vitellogenesis ( $n = 6$ ).  $P < 0.05$ .

14

15 **Fig. 3.** Changes in *Anguilla anguilla* ovarian fat content during ovarian  
16 development according to developmental stage. Fat content was measured by  
17 Folch method. PV: pre-vitellogenesis ( $n = 3$ ); EV: early vitellogenesis ( $n =$   
18 10); MV: mid-vitellogenesis ( $n = 2$ ); LV: late vitellogenesis ( $n = 6$ ).  $P < 0.05$ .

19

20 **Fig. 4.** SDS-PAGE showing changes in protein during *Anguilla anguilla* oocyte  
21 development. PV: pre-vitellogenesis; EV: early vitellogenesis; MV: mid-  
22 vitellogenesis; LV: late vitellogenesis; NM: nuclear migration.

23



24 **Fig. 5.** Representative spectra of the different stages of *Anguilla anguilla*  
25 oocyte development analyzed by FT-IR analysis. PV: pre-vitellogenesis; EV:  
26 early vitellogenesis; MV: mid-vitellogenesis; LV: late vitellogenesis. The  
27 meaningful peaks are labelled.

28

29 **Fig. 6.** A: Photomicrographs of *Anguilla anguilla* ovary sections from fish at  
30 different vitellogenic stages (PV: pre-vitellogenesis; EV: early vitellogenesis;  
31 MV: mid-vitellogenesis; LV: late vitellogenesis). B: Correlation maps of  
32 different vitellogenic stages (PV, EV, MV and LV) integrated under the  
33 corresponding representative spectrum. C: Chemical maps integrated under  
34 the 3010-2800  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  region corresponding to lipids. The color scale indicates  
35 the intensity of the signal detected.

36

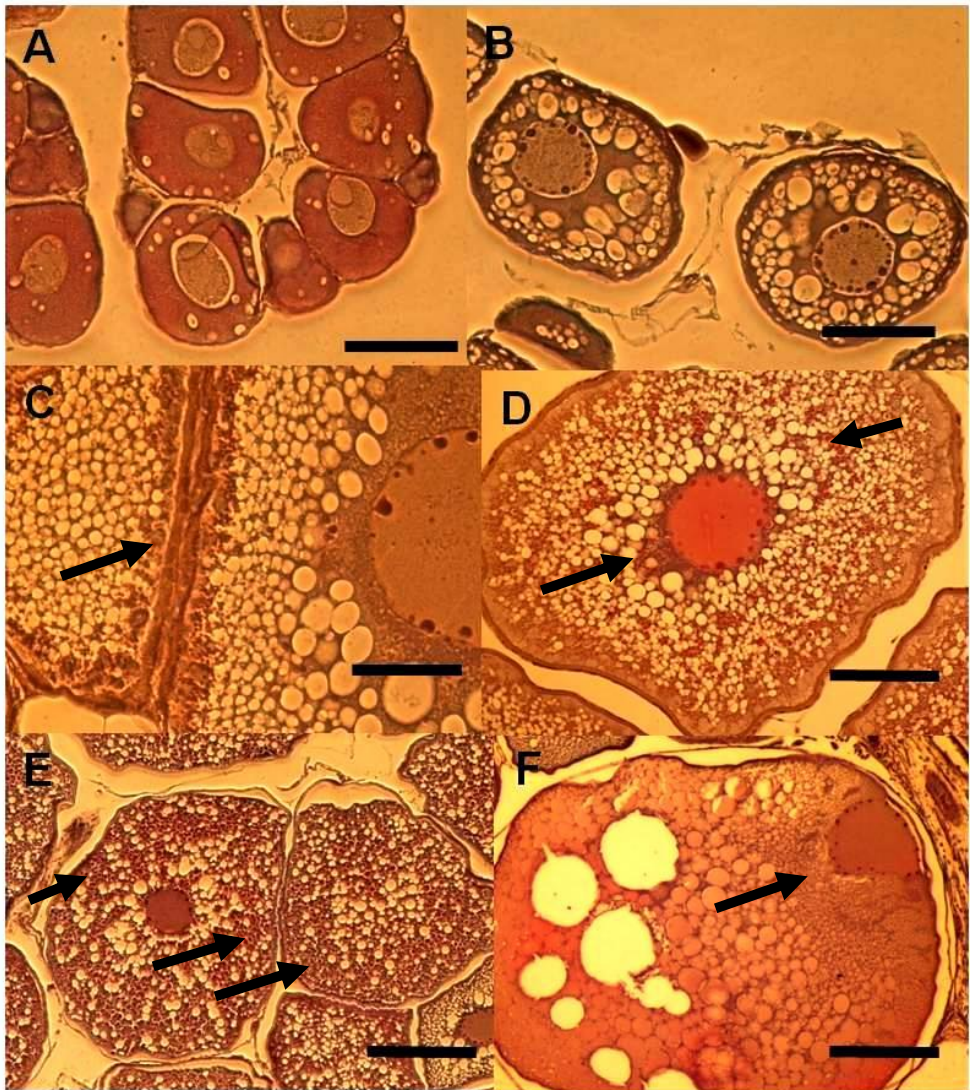


Fig. 1

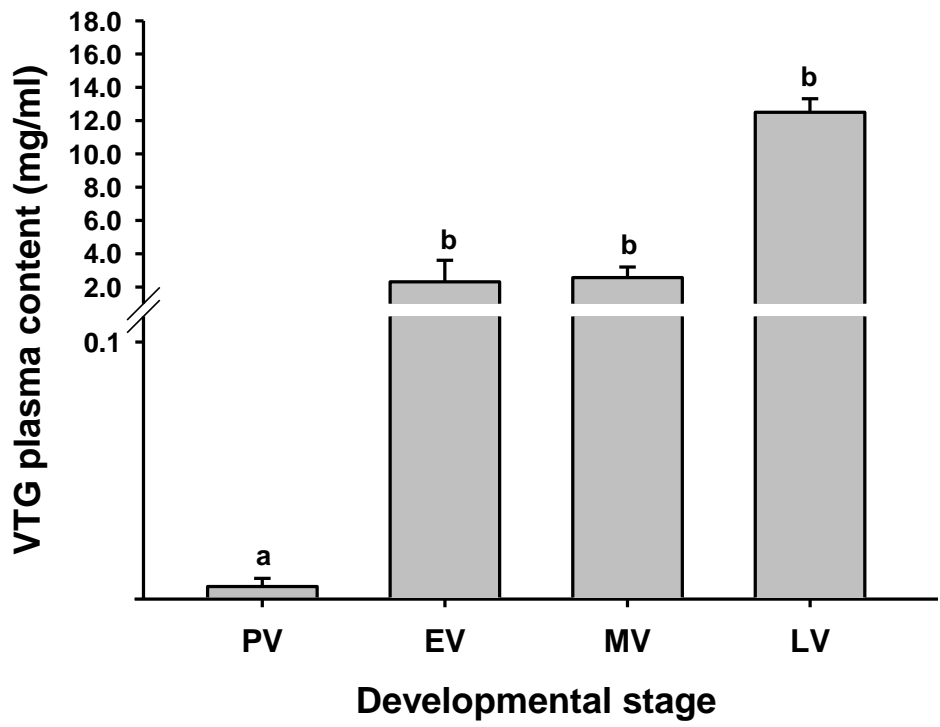


Fig. 2

(SigmaPlot)

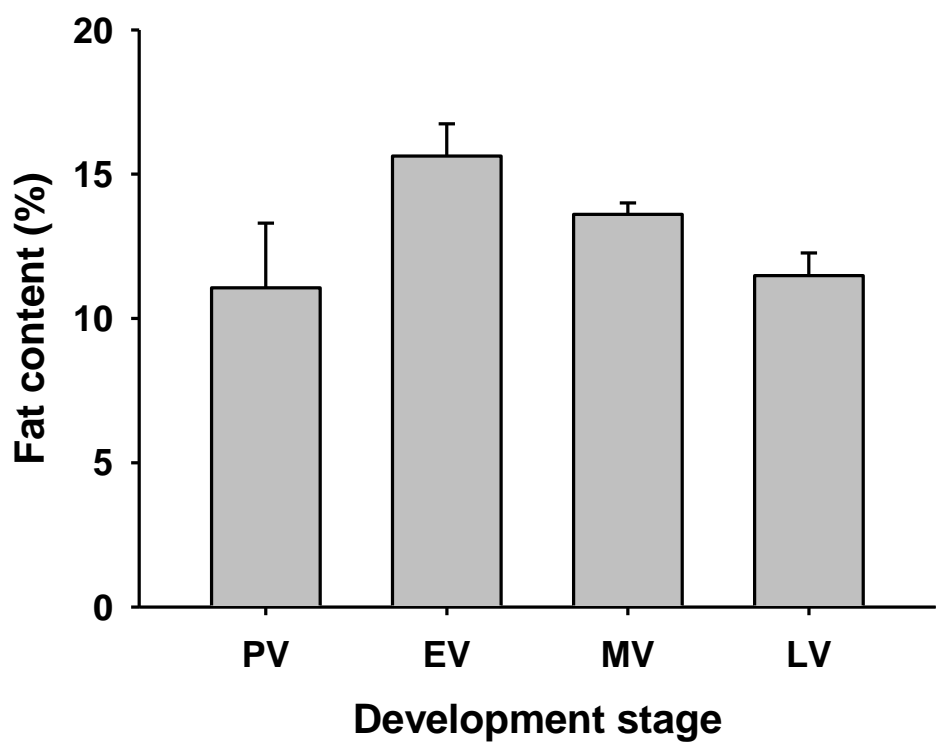
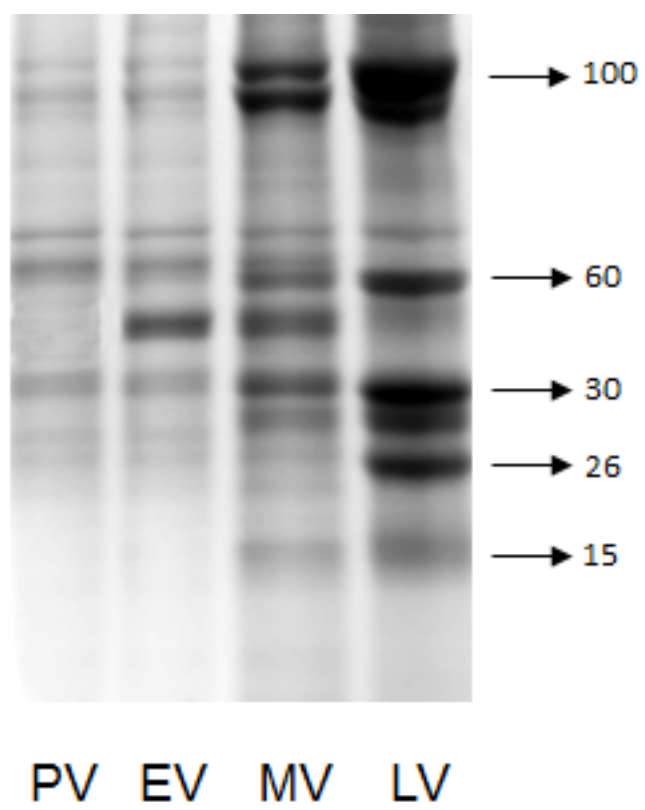


Fig. 3.  
(SigmaPlot)

Figure



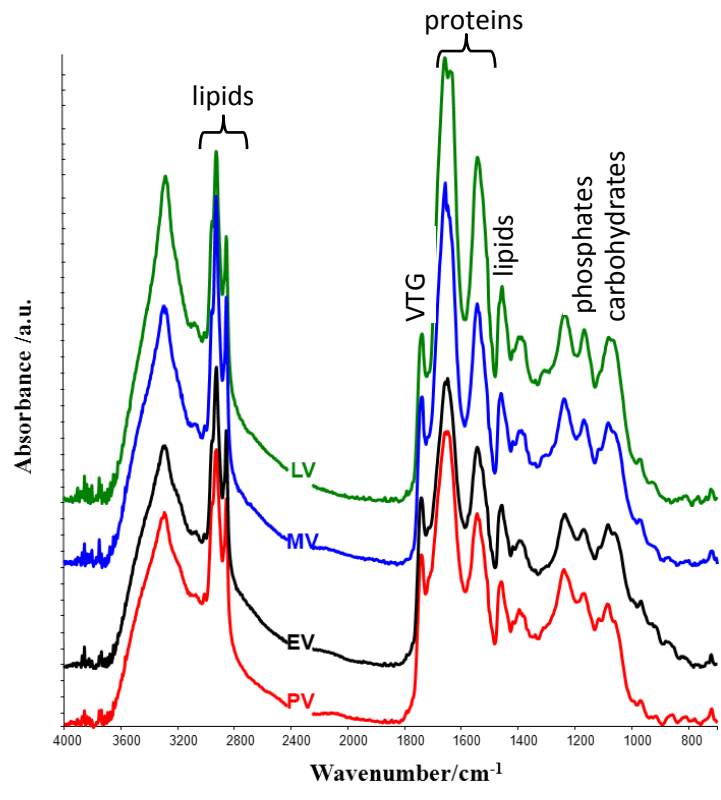


Fig. 5

Figure

