

Glucose metabolism ontogenesis in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) in the light of the recently sequenced genome: new tools for intermediary metabolism programming

Lucie Marandel*, Vincent Véron, Anne Surget, Elisabeth Plagnes-Juan, Stéphane Panserat

Institut National de la Recherche Agronomique (INRA), Nutrition, Metabolism and Aquaculture Unit (UR1067), Saint-Pée-sur-Nivelle F-64310, France

*Corresponding author

E-mail: lucie.marandel@st-pee.inra.fr

Keywords

Ontogenesis, duplicated genes, glucose metabolism, trout

Abstract

The rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*), a carnivorous fish species, displays a “glucose-intolerant” phenotype when fed a high carbohydrate diet. The importance of carbohydrate metabolism during embryogenesis and the timing of establishing this latter phenotype are currently unclear. In addition, the mechanisms underlying the poor ability of carnivorous fish to use dietary carbohydrates as a major energy substrate are poorly understood. It has recently been shown in trout that duplicated genes involved in glucose metabolism may be involved in establishing the glucose-intolerant phenotype. The aim of this study was therefore to provide new understanding of glucose metabolism during ontogenesis and nutritional transition, taking into consideration the complexity of the trout genome.

Trout were sampled at several stages of development from fertilization to hatching, and alevins were then fed a non-, or a high carbohydrate diet during first-feeding. mRNA levels of all glucose metabolism-related genes increased in embryos during the setting up of the primitive liver. After the first meal, genes rapidly displayed expression patterns equivalent to those observed in the livers of juveniles. *g6pcb2.a* (one glucose-6-phosphatase encoding gene) was up-regulated in alevins fed a high carbohydrate diet, mimicking the expression pattern of *gck* genes. The *g6pcb2.a* gene may contribute to the non-inhibition of the last step of gluconeogenesis and thus to establishing the glucose-intolerant phenotype in trout fed a high carbohydrate diet as early as first-feeding. This information is crucial for nutritional programming investigations as it suggests that first feeding would be too late to programme glucose metabolism in the long term.

Introduction

The rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) belongs to a high trophic level and is thus considered to be a strictly carnivorous species metabolically adapted for high catabolism of proteins and low utilization of dietary carbohydrates. Glucose is highly important for specific functions and for tissues such as the brain, heart and gills in this species (Polakof et al., 2012). Despite this, the rainbow trout is considered to be a glucose-intolerant species, displaying persistent hyperglycaemia after intake of a high carbohydrate diet. It is therefore thought to have modified or lost some of its glucose metabolism capacities (Bergot, 1979a; Bergot, 1979b; Polakof et al., 2011b; Skiba-Cassy et al., 2013). Investigations have been carried out since the 90's to try to understand the mechanisms underlying the poor ability of carnivorous fish to use dietary carbohydrates (Caruso and Sheridan, 2011; Cowey et al., 1977; Enes et al., 2009; Hung and Storebakken, 1994; Kamalam et al., 2012; Krasnov et al., 2001; Mommsen and E., 1991; Moon, 2001; Planas et al., 2000; Polakof et al., 2011a; Polakof et al., 2012). Recent analysis of the newly sequenced rainbow trout genome has allowed identification of new genes which may contribute to the hyperglycaemic phenotype in trout (Marandel et al., 2015). Moreover, this study demonstrated the indisputable interest of considering the complexity of the genome and the fate of duplicated genes after the salmonid-specific 4th whole genome duplication event (Ss4R) to improve the understanding of the phenotype observed. Such duplication may lead to adaptive innovation *via* the conservation of duplicated genes available for the evolution of new functions (Berthelot et al., 2014). Indeed, two paralogous genes out of five encoding gluconeogenic glucose-6-phosphatase (G6pc) found in the rainbow trout genome exhibited the same expression pattern as genes as encoding glycolytic glucokinase (Gck) in trout fed a high carbohydrate diet. The authors suggested that under hyperglycaemic conditions these genes may together establish a futile Glucose/Glucose-6-phosphate cycle that could contribute to plasma glucose enrichment. To fully understand how the neo- or sub-functionalization of the newly identified duplicated glucose metabolism-related genes could lead to or at least be one factor involved in the poor use of dietary carbohydrates in rainbow trout, it is now important to consider their transcriptional behavior during ontogenesis of hepatic functions and during early nutrition, i.e. during the transition from endogenous to exogenous feeding. Such studies might also be

highly valuable in designing new research into nutritional strategies. In aquaculture, such investigations are carried out to improve the sustainability of aquaculture production of rainbow trout by replacing fish meal in aquafeeds with plant based diets naturally rich in carbohydrates (Panserat and Kaushik, 2010). Nutritional programming, a currently promising nutritional strategy, is based on early life modifications induced during a “sensitive” period by environmental stimuli (strictly nutritional or not, such as temperature, hypoxia, etc.) that result in long-term modifications in metabolism, especially glucose metabolism, later in life (Jia et al., 2012; Metges et al., 2014; Ozanne et al., 1996; Patel and Srinivasan, 2002). Several studies have demonstrated that one decisive point in this concept is that the susceptibility of organisms is limited to a critical ontogenic period, also known as a window of metabolic plasticity, during which an environmental stimulus may affect metabolism in the long-term (for review see (McMillen and Robinson, 2005)). Determining the ontogenesis of glucose metabolism-related genes potentially involved in the glucose-intolerant phenotype in trout could thus help to time when best to apply the environmental stimulus in nutritional programming investigations.

The aims of the study presented here were to analyse glucose-metabolism genes, *i.e.* belonging to the two main glucose-related pathways: glycolysis and gluconeogenesis (S1 Fig.). Thus the aim was therefore to i) identify and characterise the evolution of the duplicated glycolysis genes in rainbow trout (*i.e.* liver phosphofructokinase and liver pyruvate kinase), ii) determine the expression pattern of duplicated glucose metabolism-related genes, *i.e.* glycolytic genes (glucokinase paralogs, *gcka* and *gckb*; liver phosphofructokinase paralogs, *pfkla* and *pfklb*; liver and red blood cell pyruvate kinase, *pklr*) and gluconeogenic genes (cytosolic and mitochondrial phosphoenol-pyruvate carboxykinases *pck1* and *pck2*, respectively; fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase 1 paralogs *fbp1a*, *fbp1b1* and *fbp1b2*; glucose-6-phosphatase paralogs *g6pca*, *g6pcb1.a*, *g6pcb1.b*, *g6pcb2.a* and *g6pcb2.b*), and their corresponding overall enzyme activity at critical developmental stages in liver ontogenesis, and iii) study the expression pattern of these genes during nutritional transition from endogenous to exogenous feeding in trout fed a non- or a high carbohydrate diet.

Materials and Methods

Ethics statement

The experiment was carried out in strict accordance with EU legal frameworks related to the protection of animals used for scientific purposes (Directive 2010/63/EU) and guidelines of the French legislation governing the ethical treatment of animals (Decree N°. 2001-464, May 29th, 2001). It was approved by the Direction Departementale des Services Veterinaires (French Veterinary Services) for the carrying out of animal experiments (INRA 2002–36, April 14th, 2002). The INRA experimental station is certified for animal experimentation under Permit N° A64.495.1 by the French Veterinary Services, the competent authority.

Fish diets

Two experimental feeds for rainbow trout alevins, i.e. NoCHO (diet without carbohydrate) and HighCHO (very high carbohydrate level diet), were prepared in our own facilities (INRA, Donzacq, Landes, France) as extruded pellets. Glucose and gelatinised starch were included as the carbohydrate sources, protein originated from fishmeal, and dietary lipids from fish oil and fishmeal (Table 1). The two diets had similar amounts of lipids. The large increase in dietary carbohydrate content (~60%) in the HighCHO diet was compensated for by a smaller proportion of protein (~20%). No carbohydrates were added to the NoCHO diet, which contained ~60% crude protein.

Fish and experimental design

Spawns were fertilised synchronously with neomale sperm and reared in separate tanks at 8°C at the INRA experimental facilities, Lees-Athas, France. Fish were sampled according to spawn origin before fertilisation (oocyte) and then during development according to Vernier (Vernier, 1969) at stages 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 12, 15, 22 and 23. Endogenous feeding alevins (unfed fish) were sampled at 384°D (degree days, Vernier stage 31). Alevins at 616°D (Vernier stage 35) still exhibiting small yolk reserves were divided into two tanks. Each group was fed a first meal with the NoCHO or HighCHO diet at 9 a.m and sacrificed 3h after the meal (corresponding to the postprandial period in alevins). Finally, 87-day-old alevins (696°D at 8°C), characterised by complete resorption of the yolk sac (Vernier stage 37) and maintained on a continuous feeding regime of several meals a day, were sacrificed 3 h following feeding as described above. Care was taken to maintain the same daily time frame before samplings to avoid potential circadian effects, known to affect metabolism in rainbow

trout (Bolliet, 2000). Fish were therefore consistently sampled at 12:00 h for each ontogenetic stage investigated in this study, as previously described (Mennigen et al., 2013). Embryos were directly snap-frozen before hatching, whereas alevins were killed by terminal anaesthetisation by bathing in benzocaine prior to pooling and storage in liquid nitrogen. The samples were stored at -80°C until utilised for analysis.

Analysis of diets

The chemical composition of the diets was analysed using the following procedures: dry matter was analysed after drying at 105°C for 24 h, lipid content by petroleum ether extraction (Soxtherm), protein content ($\text{N} \times 6.25$) by the Kjeldahl method after acid digestion, gross energy in an adiabatic bomb calorimeter (IKA, Heitersheim Griebheimer, Germany), and ash content by incinerating the samples in a muffle furnace for 6 h at 600°C .

Body composition analysis of oocytes, embryos and endogenous feeding alevins

Glycogen and glucose content were analysed on 600mg of pooled fish (oocytes, embryos from stage 2 to stage 23 and endogenous feeding alevins, stage 31). Glycogen content was determined by a hydrolysis technique previously described by Good (Good et al., 1933). Each sample was ground in 1M HCl (VWR, USA). An aliquot was saved at this stage to measure free glucose content in samples. After 10min centrifugation at 10,000g, free glucose was measured using the Amplite™ Fluorimetric Glucose Quantitation Kit (AAT Bioquest®, Inc., USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Remaining ground tissue was boiled at 100°C for 2.5 h and then neutralised by 5M KOH (VWR, USA). The pH of the solution was then adjusted to 7.4 and total glucose (free glucose + glucose obtained from glycogen hydrolysis) was measured using the same kit as before. Glycogen content was evaluated by subtracting free glucose levels.

Total lipid content was determined in duplicate by the sulphophosphovanillin method described by Barnes and Blackstock (Barnes and Blackstock, 1973) using a fish oil standard (Sopropêche, Boulogne-sur-Mer, France) instead of cholesterol.

Total protein content was also measured in duplicate by using the Kjeldahl method as for diet analysis.

***In silico* analysis**

Orthologous *Pfkl* and *Pklr* genes in the rainbow trout genome (Berthelot et al., 2014) were identified in the *Oncorhynchus mykiss* Genome Browser (Genoscope : <http://www.genoscope.cns.fr/trout/>) extracted from the SIGENAE database (<http://www.sigenae.org>) using the BLAST tool (all Accession Numbers are given in Table 2). Sequences from other species were collected from the Ensembl Genome database (Ensembl release 77 - October 2014, <http://www.ensembl.org>). The sequence analyser tool from the EMBL Pfam software (<http://pfam.xfam.org>) was used to confirm sequence identities. The Genomicus software, version 01.01 (<http://www.genomicus.biologie.ens.fr/genomicus-trout-01.01/cgi-bin/search.pl>) was used to confirm the identities of *pfkl* genes.

Phylogenetic analysis of *pklr* (Fig. 1) was performed using the MEGA package version 6 software (Tamura et al., 2013), as previously described (Marandel et al., 2015). The phylogenetic tree, based on full-length amino acid deduced sequences, was produced using the Neighbor-Joining (NJ) method and confirmed by the Minimum evolution method (data not shown). The reliability of the inferred trees was estimated using the bootstrap method with 1,000 replications. The *Petromyzon marinus* *pk* (Ensembl Accession ENSPMAP00000000233) protein sequence was used to root the tree. The evolutionary distances were computed using the Poisson correction method (Zuckerkandl, 1965) and expressed in units of the number of amino acid substitutions per site. The analysis involved 10 amino acid sequences. All positions containing gaps and missing data were eliminated, leaving a total of 127 positions in the final dataset.

New gene annotations were allocated according to ZFIN Nomenclature guidelines (<http://zfin.org/>). All sequences and deduced partial amino acids are given in Supporting File 2.

Total RNA extraction and cDNA synthesis

Relative gene expression was determined by quantitative real-time RT-PCR. Samples were homogenised using Precellys®24 (Bertin Technologies, Montigny-le-Bretonneux, France) in 1) 7mL tubes containing Trizol reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) and 2.8 millimeter ceramic beads for 2 x 30 seconds, separated by 15 seconds off, at 5,500 rpm for oocytes and embryos (30 per sample and per spawn) and 2) 2mL tubes containing Trizol reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) and 2.8 millimeter ceramic beads for 2 x 20 seconds, separated by

15 seconds off, at 5,500 rpm for alevins (1 alevin per tube, 6 alevins per spawn/diet for mixed and exogenous feeding fish). Ten picograms of Luciferase Control RNA (Promega) per 1.9 mg of embryo/alevin or oocyte was added to each sample to allow for data normalisation during early development as previously described (Desvignes et al., 2011; Marandel et al., 2012). Total RNA was then extracted according to the manufacturer's instructions. Total RNA (1 µg) was used for cDNA synthesis. The Super-Script III RNase H–Reverse transcriptase kit (Invitrogen) was used with random primers (Promega, Charbonnières, France) to synthesise cDNA.

Real time RT-PCR

The primer sequences used in real-time RT-PCR assays for gluconeogenic and *gcka* and *gckb* gene analysis were as previously described (Marandel et al., 2015). Primers newly designed to study the *pfkl* and *pkfr* genes are listed in Table 2. The latter primers were validated on a pool of cDNA and amplified products were sequenced systematically. The protocol conditions for real-time RT-PCR have been published previously (Seiliez et al., 2011). For real-time RT-PCR assays, the Roche Lightcycler 480 system was used (Roche Diagnostics, Neuilly-sur-Seine, France). The assays were performed using a reaction mix of 6 µl per sample, each of which contained 2 µl of diluted cDNA template (1:25), 0.12 µl of each primer (10 µM), 3 µl Light Cycler 480 SYBR® Green I Master mix and 0.76 µl DNase/RNase-free water (5 Prime GmbH, Hamburg, Germany). The PCR protocol was initiated at 95°C for 10 min for initial denaturation of the cDNA and hot-start Taq-polymerase activation, followed by 45 cycles of a two-step amplification program (15s at 95°C; 10s at 60°C). Melting curves were monitored systematically (temperature gradient 1.1°C/15 s from 65 to 97°C) at the end of the last amplification cycle to confirm the specificity of the amplification reaction. Each PCR assay included replicate samples (duplicate of reverse transcription and PCR amplification, respectively) and negative controls (reverse transcriptase- and cDNA template-free samples, respectively). Data were subsequently normalised to the exogenous luciferase transcript abundance in samples diluted at 1:25 using the ΔC_t method (Pfaffl, 2001) as previously described (Marandel et al., 2012).

Overall enzyme activity

Embryos at stages 6, 15, 22, 23 and 31 (cf. Fish and experimental design) used to assess enzyme activity were ground in 8 volumes of ice-cold buffer at pH 7.4 (50 mmol/l TRIS, 5 mmol/l EDTA, 2 mmol/l DTT) and a protease inhibitor cocktail (P2714; Sigma, St. Louis,

MO) and centrifuged for 10 min at 900 g at 4°C. Assays for Gck and Fbp activity were performed on the recovered supernatants. For Pfk1 and Pklr, additional centrifugation was performed (20 min at 10,000 g at 4°C) and supernatants were used for enzyme assays. For G6pc and Pck, 1 min of sonic disruption was applied before additional centrifugation as above. The enzymes assayed were: high Km Hexokinase (Gck), as described by Panserat et al. (Panserat et al., 2000a), Pklr and Pck following the protocol of Kirchner et al. (Kirchner et al., 2003), Pfk1 according to Meton et al. (Meton et al., 2004), G6Pase according to Alegre et al. (Alegre et al., 1988), and Fbp as described by Tranulis et al. (Tranulis et al., 1996). Enzyme activity was measured in duplicate at 30°C following variation of absorbance of nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate at 340 nm. The reactions were started by the addition of the specific substrate; a Power Wave X (BioTek Instrument) plate reader was used. Water was used as a blank for each sample. One unit of enzyme activity was defined as the amount of enzyme that catalysed the hydrolysis of 1 mol of substrate per minute at 30°C. Enzyme activity was expressed per gram of tissue.

Statistical analysis

Normality of distributions was assessed using the Shapiro-Wilk test. Data were then analysed by a Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric test following by a Tukey test as post-hoc analysis. Data were analysed using the R software (v.3.1.0)/R Commander Package.

Results

In silico analysis of rainbow trout *pfkl* and *pklr* genes

Using the Genomicus software (version 01.01), three rainbow trout predicted *pfkl* genes were identified (S2 Fig.), two of which on the scaffold 7584 (Genoscope Accession GSONMG00009460001 and GSONMG00009459001) were syntenic to the zebrafish *pfkla* gene (Ensembl Accession ENSDARG00000060504) and one, on the scaffold 8651 (Genoscope Accession GSONMG00001975001), was syntenic to the *pfklb* zebrafish gene (Ensembl Accession ENSDARG00000099755). Using the sequence analyzer tool from the EMBL Pfam software (<http://pfam.xfam.org>), we confirmed that these two rainbow trout sequences were related to a phosphofructokinase encoding gene. Amino acid sequences deduced from these rainbow trout predicted genes were shorter than the corresponding zebrafish sequences and were thus not appropriate for phylogenetic analysis. Indeed, scaffold

7584 sequences corresponded to exons 2 to 5 of the zebrafish *pfkla* (S3.A Fig.) and scaffold 8651 to exons 15 to 17 of the zebrafish *pfklb* (S3.B Fig.), suggesting that these two scaffolds were too short to cover the lengths of these genes as a whole. This analysis was therefore complemented by investigating the EST (Expressed Sequence Tags) Rainbow trout Sigenae database (www.sigenae.org). One EST contig (FYV3OTN01AZR97.s.om.10, S3.A Fig.) was shown to correspond to exons 7 to 22 of the zebrafish *pfkla*, demonstrating that the two automatically predicted genes (GSONMG00009460001 and GSONMG00009459001) on scaffold 7584 were in fact only one. Similarly, we found an EST contig (FYV3OTN02GK8A7.s.om.10, S3.B Fig.) astride exons 1 to 5 of the zebrafish *pfklb*, suggesting that the corresponding orthologous gene in rainbow trout was partially due to the incomplete assembling of the rainbow trout genome at this locus.

No *pklr* orthologous gene was found in the rainbow trout genome (neither using Genomicus software nor by direct BLAST against the rainbow trout genome) but an EST contig (Sigenae, AF246146.s.om.10) sharing high sequence homology (around 75%) with teleost *pklr* genes was identified. A phylogenetic analysis was performed to confirm its identity and this showed that the contig identified grouped with vertebrate *pklr* orthologs (Fig. 1). Moreover, Pfam analysis confirmed that the trout sequence was related to a pyruvate kinase coding gene. In conclusion, our *in silico* analysis identified two paralogous *Pfkl* genes in the rainbow trout genome, one orthologous to the zebrafish *pfkla* (scaffold 7584) and the other to the zebrafish *pfklb* (scaffold 8651, GSONMG00001975001), and one *pklr* orthologous gene (Sigenae, AF246146.s.om.10).

Expression analysis and overall enzymatic activity of glucose metabolism-related gene products during embryo development

Real-time PCR was performed to determine the stage-specific expression of rainbow trout glucose metabolism-related genes during embryogenesis and in hatched alevins. Stages were defined on the basis of the Vernier development table (Vernier, 1969) and chosen to target developmental periods of interest for glucose metabolism study (i.e. oocyte to stage 8, before embryonic genome activation (EGA); stage 10, EGA; stages 12 and 15, epiboly period; stage 22, primitive liver; stage 23, primitive hepatic portal vein, and stage 31, hatched embryo/endogenous feeding period). This analysis showed (Fig. 2) that mRNA levels of all glucose metabolism genes increased after EGA (stage 10) to reach a maximum level at stages 22 and 23, except for *g6pcb1b* and *g6pcb2b* the mRNA levels of which rose until stage 31.

The overall activity of all key glucose metabolism enzymes (gluconeogenesis: G6pc, Fbp, Pck; glycolysis: Gck, Pfk1, Pklr) were also measured at critical stages of development: before EGA (stage 6), after EGA (stage 15), during liver ontogenesis (stages 22 and 23) and shortly after hatching (stage 31). The enzymatic activity of Gck remained undetected during development and at hatching (Table 3) whereas levels of other enzymatic activity significantly increased from stage 23 for Pck and Pfk1 and at stage 31 for G6pc, Fbp and Pklr.

Body composition during embryo development

In order to follow the relative consumption of macronutrients in embryo and the yolk reserves during development, protein, lipid and carbohydrate (i.e. glucose and glycogen) levels were measured. No statistically significant variation in lipid or protein levels was noted during development (Table 4). Although the overall carbohydrate content of embryos (Table 4 and Fig. 3) was not significantly statistically modified during development, it seemed to decrease at stages 22 and 23, as did glycogen content (Fig. 3).

Analysis of expression of glucose metabolism-related genes during nutritional transition

Examination of the expression of glucose metabolism-related genes (Fig. 4) revealed that for half of the genes (*g6pca*, *g6pcb1.a*, *g6pcb2.b*, *fbp1b1*, *pck2*, *pfklb* and *pklr*) there was no difference in expression pattern whatever the nutritional source used by alevins (yolk reserves vs exogenous feed) or diet (NoCH vs HighCHO), irrespective of the metabolic pathway considered (i.e., gluconeogenesis or glycolysis).

For alevins fed the NoCHO diet, mRNA levels of glycolytic *gcka*, *gckb* and *pfkla* genes remained stable at the mixed feeding stage compared to strictly endogenous feeding alevins and then increased at the exogenous feeding stage. The same expression pattern was followed by gluconeogenic *g6pcb1b* and *pck1* genes, whereas the *fbp1b2* mRNA level remained stable during the nutritional transition in alevins fed the NoCHO diet from first meal. Finally, mRNA levels of gluconeogenic *g6pcb2a* and *fbp1a* genes decreased at the mixed feeding stage and only the *g6pcb2a* mRNA level increased at the exogenous feeding stage, whereas the *fbp1a* mRNA level remained unchanged.

Intake of dietary carbohydrates by fed alevins (i.e. HighCHO diet) had no effect on mRNA levels of any genes at the mixed feeding stage or on *pfkla*, *g6pcb1b*, *fbp1a* and *fbp1b2* mRNA

levels at the exogenous feeding stage. However, at the exogenous feeding stage the *pck1* mRNA level decreased whereas *g6pcb2a* and *gck* genes were up-regulated. Finally, the *fbp1b2* mRNA level decreased between the endogenous and exogenous feeding stages in alevins fed the HighCHO diet.

Discussion

A considerable amount of research has been undertaken over several decades to elucidate the role of environmental factors (mainly nutritional and hormonal) on glucose metabolism and their impact on the utilisation of dietary carbohydrates in trout (Bergot, 1979a; Bergot, 1979b; Kirchner et al., 2003; Kirchner et al., 2008; Kirchner et al., 2005; Moon, 2001; Panserat and Kaushik, 2010; Panserat et al., 2000a; Panserat et al., 2000b; Panserat et al., 2002; Panserat et al., 2001; Panserat et al., 2014; Polakof et al., 2012; Polakof et al., 2009; Seiliez et al., 2011; Skiba-Cassy et al., 2013). However, the importance of carbohydrate metabolism during embryogenesis and the timing of the setting up of the glucose-intolerant phenotype in trout are not clear. In addition, mechanisms underlying the poor ability of carnivorous fish to use dietary carbohydrates as a major energy substrate remain poorly understood. A recent study emphasised that the fate of duplicated genes after Ss4R may participate in the initiation of the glucose-intolerant phenotype in juvenile trout fed a high-carbohydrate diet (Marandel et al., 2015). This new genomic point of view following the recent sequencing of the rainbow trout genome should provide new pathways to investigate impaired glucose metabolism in this species. The aim of the investigations carried out in this study was to provide original understanding of glucose metabolism during ontogenesis, taking into consideration the complexity of the trout genome.

mRNA of glucose metabolism-related genes reach a maximum level during ontogenesis of the liver and portal system, and related enzymes are translated and active without dietary stimulation

Whether they were gluconeogenic or glycolytic genes, they all displayed increases in mRNA levels at stage 22 or 23, corresponding to the setting up of the primitive liver and the primitive hepatic portal vein, respectively (Vernier, 1969). Indeed, gluconeogenic genes are mainly expressed in the liver as well as *gck* genes. But the increase in glycolytic genes expression could also happen in other glycolytic tissues, such as muscle or brain, still developed at these stages (22 or 23). This increase was correlated with a slight decrease in total carbohydrate

content of embryos, whereas total proteins and lipids remained constant and at levels previously described in trout embryos (Craig and Harvey, 1984; Smith, 1957). Shortly after hatching (stage 31), the carbohydrate load then increased again slightly, mainly due to an increase in glycogen, and at the same time as the glucose metabolism-related enzyme activity (G6pc, Pck, Pfk1 and Pklr) became detectable. Such an accumulation of glycogen after stage 23 has previously been described in embryos, together with an increase in G6pc activity (Vernier and Sire, 1976). We confirmed these findings and demonstrated that the gluconeogenic Pck activity occurred in the same pattern as G6pc. Such activation of the gluconeogenic pathway might serve to produce glucose to supply glycogenogenesis, as free glucose storage at this stage is low and probably just used to support brief outbursts of activity. Indeed, Turner (Turner, 1968) proposed that glycogen stored during late embryogenesis originates from glucose made from glycerol liberated by the utilisation of triglycerides. The early metabolic role of the liver might thus be more related to the control of plasma lipid concentration, a necessary role for the use of yolk storage, than to glycaemic regulation. Overall Pfk1 and Pklr glycolytic activity was greatly increased after hatching (stage 31), probably to provide energy to sustain motor function or basal metabolism in alevins. However, overall Gck activity was undetected at any stage analysed, suggesting that the glucose concentration potentially released by gluconeogenesis at stage 31 was too weak to counteract the low affinity of this hexokinase for glucose. However, Gck was certainly translated and stored in cells in an inactive form (Cornish-Bowden and Cardenas, 2004) or combined with the GK regulatory protein (Baltrusch et al., 2004) as both *gck* genes were transcribed early (at stages 22 and 23) and then turned off later at stage 31.

Finally, the early increase in mRNA levels of glucose metabolism-related genes (at stage 22/23) followed by the detection of enzyme activity suggested that glucose metabolism might be essential at the end of embryonic development and for the production of energy but could also reflect a phase of preparation for the catabolism of dietary nutrients at first-feeding, as already proposed for digestive enzymes (Zambonino Infante and Cahu, 2001).

Study of duplicated glucose metabolism-related genes provides new insights into nutritional transition...

Our study also aimed to investigate changes in expression of glucose metabolism-related genes in the light of the recent genome sequencing during nutritional transition in alevins. Indeed, during the first-feeding period, trout alevins undergo a rapid ontogenic switch in

nutritional strategy, passing successively through an endogenous nutrition period dependent exclusively on yolk reserves, then to a mixed feeding period after the first meal and before yolk resorption, and finally to exclusively exogenous nutrition (Vernier, 1969).

When analysing expression data first as a whole (Fig 4), we showed that paralogous genes (i.e. mammalian *G6pc*, *Fbp1*, *Gck* and *Pfkl* co-orthologs, respectively) displayed divergent patterns. These results confirmed that a sub- or neo-functionalisation of these genes occurred after their duplication, as previously proposed by Marandel *et al.* (2015).

In alevins fed the NoCHO diet from the first meal, gluconeogenic genes displayed a constant expression pattern during nutritional transition (*g6pca*, *g6pcb1.a*, *g6pcb2.b*, *fbp1b1*, *fbp1b2* and *pck2*), down-regulation at the first meal followed by an increase in mRNA level at the exogenous feeding stage not exceeding the level at the endogenous feeding stage (*g6pcb1.b*, *g6pcb2.a* and *pck1*), or down-regulation from the first meal (*fbp1a*). Thus, taking into consideration all duplicated genes encoding gluconeogenic enzymes, our results suggested maintenance of an active gluconeogenic pathway during nutritional transition and no inhibition in alevins utilising an exogenous diet, as previously proposed by Mennigen *et al.* (Mennigen *et al.*, 2013). There was a decrease in mRNA levels of two genes involved in the last step of glucose release at the first meal, i.e. *g6pcb1.b* and *g6pcb2.a*. At this stage, the glycogen stored from yolk glycerol through gluconeogenesis during embryo development (see paragraph above) stabilised (Vernier and Sire, 1976). It can be hypothesised that this stabilisation can lead to a fleeting down-regulation of *g6pc* paralogous genes at the first meal. At first-feeding, the liver, which governs lipid regulation during embryogenesis with the use of yolk reserves, regulates glycaemia (Vernier and Sire, 1976). The conservation of an active gluconeogenic pathway in exogenous-feeding alevins as well as in juveniles (Marandel *et al.*, 2015; Seiliez *et al.*, 2011) fed without dietary carbohydrates thus made it possible to sustain endogenous glucose demands for the maintenance of normoglycaemia (Cowey *et al.*, 1981; French *et al.*, 1981; Walton and Cowey, 1979; Walton and Cowey, 1983). Moreover, genes involved in the glycolytic pathway were maintained (*pfkl* paralogs and *pklr* gene) or only weakly increasingly expressed (*gck* genes) with advancing nutritional transition, confirming the observations of Mennigen *et al.* (Mennigen *et al.*, 2013).

In contrast, and as expected in the presence of high carbohydrate content in the diet (Geurden *et al.*, 2014; Marandel *et al.*, 2015; Seiliez *et al.*, 2011), mRNA levels of both *gck* genes were greatly increased in exogenous-feeding alevins. However, at the first meal, trout fed the HighCHO diet did not display additional expression regulation compared to trout fed the NoCHO diet for either *gck* genes or for any other genes analysed. On the other hand, at the

exogenous feeding stage, most of the gluconeogenic genes already displayed a similar expression pattern to that previously described in the livers of juveniles (Marandel et al., 2015). For instance, *fbp1b2* and *pck1* were down-regulated in alevins fed the HighCHO diet compared to alevins fed the NoCHO diet, whereas *g6pcb2.a* was surprisingly up-regulated, as in the livers of juveniles (Marandel et al., 2015), thus displaying the same expression pattern as *gck* genes. The latter result suggests that the *g6pcb2.a* gene may contribute to the non-inhibition of the last stage of gluconeogenesis and thus to be involved in the establishment of the glucose-intolerant phenotype in trout fed a high carbohydrate diet as early as first feeding.

.....and new tools for programming investigation

Interestingly, all our results demonstrated that the regulation of glucose metabolism-related genes by dietary carbohydrates at the transcript level, and particularly the atypical level of the *g6pcb2.a* gene, took place very early during first feeding. This information is of particular interest in the context of nutritional programming. Indeed, Geurden *et al.* (Geurden et al., 2014) did not succeed in programming the gluconeogenesis genes in the livers of trout subjected to a high-carbohydrate nutritional stimulus during first feeding in the long term. The discovery of new G6pc encoding genes, i.e. *g6pcb2* genes (Marandel et al., 2015), and their early atypical transcriptional regulation by dietary carbohydrates suggested that first feeding is too late to programme glucose metabolism-related genes in the liver by nutritional stimulus in the long term. In other words, it seems that the first feeding period did not correspond to a window of metabolic plasticity, during which a nutritional stimulus may impact on the expression of liver glucose metabolism-related genes or at least expression of gluconeogenic genes in the long-term (for review see (McMillen and Robinson, 2005)). In order to impact on this metabolism in the long term, another window of plasticity has to be defined before the first feeding period. However, such an investigation entails considering a non-nutritional stimulus such as hypoxia, known to affect glucose metabolism (Osumek et al., 2014; Zhong and Mostoslavsky, 2010), and having greater understanding of transcription patterns of glucose metabolism-related genes during ontogenesis and before nutritional transition. Previous studies carried out in zebrafish (Rocha et al., 2013; Rocha et al., 2015) have already revealed that metabolic programming could occur following a non-nutritional stimulus such as nutrient injection, applied during late embryogenesis and before first feeding. The information obtained in this study will thus assist identification of potential windows of plasticity and the timing of application of the environmental stimulus. Indeed, in the light of our results during ontogenesis, it would be a good option to apply a stimulus around or before

stages 22/23 in order to affect expression of glucose metabolism-related genes, as mRNA levels of all genes increased during this period of development. A hypoxic stimulus could be of interest in this context as hypoxia is known to affect glucose metabolism (Osumek et al., 2014; Zhong and Mostoslavsky, 2010).

The results presented in this study demonstrate that glucose metabolism-related genes are regulated early by dietary carbohydrates just as they are in the livers of juvenile trout. These findings are also highly original because, despite the existence of at least one gene in other teleost genomes (such as zebrafish), *g6pcb2* has never previously been studied during ontogenesis. In addition to the expression pattern of the above genes during ontogenesis, we provide here new perspectives for intermediary metabolism programming, particularly the choice of the nature of the stimulus and the timing of its application. Finally, this study also confirms that taking into consideration the complexity of the rainbow trout genome, particularly all duplicated genes fixed in the trout genome after Ss4R, is highly important in understanding the physiological phenotype in this species.

Acknowledgments

We warmly thank F. Vallée, P. Maunus and N. Turonnet for animal care at INRA Lees-Athas facilities and for their indispensable help with sampling. We also thank F. Terrier for preparation of the diets.

Competing interest

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interests.

Author contributions

L.M and S.P designed the study. L.M managed the study, performed *in silico*, expression and statistical analysis, and wrote the manuscript. V.V performed enzyme activity analysis. A.S performed body and diet composition analysis. E.PJ performed assays on extraction of mRNA of embryos. L.M, V.V, E.PJ, A.S and S. P. contributed to the manuscript correction.

Funding

This research was internally funded by the European Commission (European project FP7-KBBE-2011-5, ARRAIN project no. 288925, Advanced Research Initiatives for Nutrition and Aquaculture).

References

- Alegre, M., Ciudad, C. J., Fillat, C. and Guinovart, J. J. (1988). Determination of glucose-6-phosphatase activity using the glucose dehydrogenase-coupled reaction. *Anal Biochem* 173, 185-9.
- Baltrusch, S., Wu, C., Okar, D. A., M., T. and A.J., L. (2004). Interaction of GK with the bifunctional enzyme 6-phosphofructo-2-kinase/fructose-2, 6-bisphosphatase (6PF2K/F26P2ase). *Glucokinase and Glycemic Disease: From Basics to Novel Therapeutics - FM Matschinsky and MA Magnuson, editors. Basel: Karger*, 262-274.
- Barnes, H. and Blackstock, J. (1973). Estimation of lipids in marine animals and tissues: Detailed investigation of the sulphophosphovanilun method for 'total' lipids. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology* 12, 15.
- Bergot, F. (1979a). Effects of dietary carbohydrates and of their mode of distribution on glycaemia in rainbow trout (*Salmo gairdneri richardson*). *Comp Biochem Physiol A Mol Integr Physiol* 64, 543-547.
- Bergot, F. (1979b). [Specific problems posed by carbohydrate utilization in the rainbow trout]. *Ann Nutr Aliment* 33, 247-57.
- Berthelot, C., Brunet, F., Chalopin, D., Juanchich, A., Bernard, M., Noel, B., Bento, P., Da Silva, C., Labadie, K., Alberti, A. et al. (2014). The rainbow trout genome provides novel insights into evolution after whole-genome duplication in vertebrates. *Nat Commun* 5, 3657.
- Bolliet, V., Cheewasedtham, C., Houlihan, D., Gelineau, A. and Boujard, T. (2000). Effect of feeding time on digestibility, growth performance and protein metabolism in the rainbow trout *Oncorhynchus mykiss*: interactions with dietary fat levels. *Aquat. Living Resour* 13, 107-113.
- Caruso, M. A. and Sheridan, M. A. (2011). New insights into the signaling system and function of insulin in fish. *Gen Comp Endocrinol* 173, 227-47.
- Cornish-Bowden, A. and Ca'ardenas, M. (2004). Glucokinase: a monomeric enzyme with positive cooperativity. *Glucokinase and Glycemic Disease: From Basics to Novel Therapeutics - FM Matschinsky and MA Magnuson, editors. Basel: Karger* 16, 125-134.
- Cowey, C. B., Cooke, D. J., Matty, A. J. and Adron, J. W. (1981). Effects of quantity and quality of dietary protein on certain enzyme activities in rainbow trout. *J Nutr* 111, 336-45.
- Cowey, C. B., Knox, D., Walton, M. J. and Adron, J. W. (1977). The regulation of gluconeogenesis by diet and insulin in rainbow trout (*Salmo gairdneri*). *Br J Nutr* 38, 463-70.
- Craik, J. C. A. and Harvey, S. M. (1984). Egg Quality in Rainbow-Trout - the Relation between Egg Viability, Selected Aspects of Egg Composition, and Time of Stripping. *Aquaculture* 40, 115-134.
- Desvignes, T., Fauvel, C. and Bobe, J. (2011). The NME gene family in zebrafish oogenesis and early development. *Naunyn Schmiedebergs Arch Pharmacol* 384, 439-49.
- Enes, P., Panserat, S., Kaushik, S. and Oliva-Teles, A. (2009). Nutritional regulation of hepatic glucose metabolism in fish. *Fish Physiol Biochem* 35, 519-39.
- French, C. J., Mommsen, T. P. and Hochachka, P. W. (1981). Amino acid utilisation in isolated hepatocytes from rainbow trout. *Eur J Biochem* 113, 311-7.

Geurden, I., Mennigen, J., Plagnes-Juan, E., Veron, V., Cerezo, T., Mazurais, D., Zambonino-Infante, J., Gatesoupe, J., Skiba-Cassy, S. and Panserat, S. (2014). High or low dietary carbohydrate:protein ratios during first-feeding affect glucose metabolism and intestinal microbiota in juvenile rainbow trout. *J Exp Biol* 217, 3396-406.

Good, C. A., Kramer, H. and Somogyi, M. (1933). The determination of glycogen. *J. Biol. Chem.* 100, 485-491.

Hung, S. S. and Storebakken, T. (1994). Carbohydrate utilization by rainbow trout is affected by feeding strategy. *J Nutr* 124, 223-30.

Jia, Y., Cong, R., Li, R., Yang, X., Sun, Q., Parvizi, N. and Zhao, R. (2012). Maternal low-protein diet induces gender-dependent changes in epigenetic regulation of the glucose-6-phosphatase gene in newborn piglet liver. *J Nutr* 142, 1659-65.

Kamalam, B. S., Medale, F., Kaushik, S., Polakof, S., Skiba-Cassy, S. and Panserat, S. (2012). Regulation of metabolism by dietary carbohydrates in two lines of rainbow trout divergently selected for muscle fat content. *J Exp Biol* 215, 2567-78.

Kirchner, S., Kaushik, S. and Panserat, S. (2003). Effect of partial substitution of dietary protein by a single gluconeogenic dispensable amino acid on hepatic glucose metabolism in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*). *Comp Biochem Physiol A Mol Integr Physiol* 134, 337-47.

Kirchner, S., Panserat, S., Lim, P. L., Kaushik, S. and Ferraris, R. P. (2008). The role of hepatic, renal and intestinal gluconeogenic enzymes in glucose homeostasis of juvenile rainbow trout. *J Comp Physiol B* 178, 429-38.

Kirchner, S., Seixas, P., Kaushik, S. and Panserat, S. (2005). Effects of low protein intake on extra-hepatic gluconeogenic enzyme expression and peripheral glucose phosphorylation in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*). *Comp Biochem Physiol B Biochem Mol Biol* 140, 333-40.

Krasnov, A., Teerijoki, H. and Molsa, H. (2001). Rainbow trout (*Onchorhynchus mykiss*) hepatic glucose transporter. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1520, 174-8.

Marandel, L., Labbe, C., Bobe, J. and Le Bail, P. Y. (2012). Evolutionary history of c-myc in teleosts and characterization of the duplicated c-myca genes in goldfish embryos. *Mol Reprod Dev* 79, 85-96.

Marandel, L., Seilliez, I., Veron, V., Skiba-Cassy, S. and Panserat, S. (2015). New insights into the nutritional regulation of gluconeogenesis in carnivorous rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*): a gene duplication trail. *Physiol Genomics* 47, 253-63.

McMillen, I. C. and Robinson, J. S. (2005). Developmental origins of the metabolic syndrome: prediction, plasticity, and programming. *Physiol Rev* 85, 571-633.

Mennigen, J. A., Skiba-Cassy, S. and Panserat, S. (2013). Ontogenetic expression of metabolic genes and microRNAs in rainbow trout alevins during the transition from the endogenous to the exogenous feeding period. *J Exp Biol* 216, 1597-608.

Metges, C. C., Gors, S., Lang, I. S., Hammon, H. M., Brussow, K. P., Weitzel, J. M., Nurnberg, G., Rehfeldt, C. and Otten, W. (2014). Low and high dietary protein:carbohydrate ratios during pregnancy affect materno-fetal glucose metabolism in pigs. *J Nutr* 144, 155-63.

Meton, I., Caseras, A., Fernandez, F. and Baanante, I. V. (2004). Molecular cloning of hepatic glucose-6-phosphatase catalytic subunit from gilthead sea bream (*Sparus aurata*): response of its mRNA levels and glucokinase expression to refeeding and diet composition. *Comp Biochem Physiol B Biochem Mol Biol* 138, 145-53.

Mommsen, T. P. and E., P. (1991). Insulin in fishes and agnathans history structure and metabolic regulation. *Rev. Aqua. Sci.* 4, 225-259.

Moon, T. W. (2001). Glucose intolerance in teleost fish: fact or fiction? *Comp Biochem Physiol B Biochem Mol Biol* 129, 243-9.

Osumek, J. E., Revesz, A., Morton, J. S., Davidge, S. T. and Hardy, D. B. (2014). Enhanced trimethylation of histone h3 mediates impaired expression of hepatic glucose 6-phosphatase expression in offspring from rat dams exposed to hypoxia during pregnancy. *Reprod Sci* 21, 112-21.

Ozanne, S. E., Smith, G. D., Tikerpa, J. and Hales, C. N. (1996). Altered regulation of hepatic glucose output in the male offspring of protein-malnourished rat dams. *Am J Physiol* 270, E559-64.

Panserat, S. and Kaushik, S. J. (2010). Regulation of gene expression by nutritional factors in fish. *Aquaculture Research* 41, 751-762.

Panserat, S., Medale, F., Blin, C., Breque, J., Vachot, C., Plagnes-Juan, E., Gomes, E., Krishnamoorthy, R. and Kaushik, S. (2000a). Hepatic glucokinase is induced by dietary carbohydrates in rainbow trout, gilthead seabream, and common carp. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 278, R1164-70.

Panserat, S., Medale, F., Breque, J., Plagnes-Juan, E. and Kaushik, S. (2000b). Lack of significant long-term effect of dietary carbohydrates on hepatic glucose-6-phosphatase expression in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*). *J Nutr Biochem* 11, 22-9.

Panserat, S., Perrin, A. and Kaushik, S. (2002). High dietary lipids induce liver glucose-6-phosphatase expression in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*). *J Nutr* 132, 137-41.

Panserat, S., Plagnes-Juan, E., Breque, J. and Kaushik, S. (2001). Hepatic phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase gene expression is not repressed by dietary carbohydrates in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*). *J Exp Biol* 204, 359-65.

Panserat, S., Rideau, N. and Polakof, S. (2014). Nutritional regulation of glucokinase: a cross-species story. *Nutr Res Rev* 27, 21-47.

Patel, M. S. and Srinivasan, M. (2002). Metabolic programming: causes and consequences. *J Biol Chem* 277, 1629-32.

Pfaffl, M. W. (2001). A new mathematical model for relative quantification in real-time RT-PCR. *Nucleic Acids Res* 29, e45.

Planas, J. V., Capilla, E. and Gutierrez, J. (2000). Molecular identification of a glucose transporter from fish muscle. *FEBS Lett* 481, 266-70.

Polakof, S., Mommsen, T. P. and Soengas, J. L. (2011a). Glucosensing and glucose homeostasis: from fish to mammals. *Comp Biochem Physiol B Biochem Mol Biol* 160, 123-49.

Polakof, S., Moon, T. W., Aguirre, P., Skiba-Cassy, S. and Panserat, S. (2011b). Glucose homeostasis in rainbow trout fed a high-carbohydrate diet: metformin and insulin interact in a tissue-dependent manner. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 300, R166-74.

Polakof, S., Panserat, S., Soengas, J. L. and Moon, T. W. (2012). Glucose metabolism in fish: a review. *J Comp Physiol B* 182, 1015-45.

Polakof, S., Skiba-Cassy, S. and Panserat, S. (2009). Glucose homeostasis is impaired by a paradoxical interaction between metformin and insulin in carnivorous rainbow trout. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 297, R1769-76.

Rocha, F., Dias, J., Engrola, S., Gavaia, P., Geurden, I., Dinis, M. T. and Panserat, S. (2013). Glucose overload in yolk has little effects on the long term modulation of carbohydrate metabolic genes in zebrafish (*Danio rerio*). *J Exp Biol*.

Rocha, F., Dias, J., Engrola, S., Gavaia, P., Geurden, I., Dinis, M. T. and Panserat, S. (2015). Glucose metabolism and gene expression in juvenile zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) challenged with a high carbohydrate diet: effects of an acute glucose stimulus during late embryonic life. *Br J Nutr* 113, 403-13.

Seilliez, I., Panserat, S., Lansard, M., Polakof, S., Plagnes-Juan, E., Surget, A., Dias, K., Larquier, M., Kaushik, S. and Skiba-Cassy, S. (2011). Dietary carbohydrate-to-protein ratio affects TOR signaling and metabolism-related gene expression in the liver and muscle of rainbow trout after a single meal. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 300, R733-43.

Skiba-Cassy, S., Panserat, S., Larquier, M., Dias, K., Surget, A., Plagnes-Juan, E., Kaushik, S. and Seilliez, I. (2013). Apparent low ability of liver and muscle to adapt to variation of dietary carbohydrate:protein ratio in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*). *Br J Nutr* 109, 1359-72.

Smith, S. (1957). Early development and hatching. *The Physiology of Fishes*, M.E. Brown, ed. 1, 323-359.

Tamura, K., Stecher, G., Peterson, D., Filipski, A. and Kumar, S. (2013). MEGA6: Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis version 6.0. *Mol Biol Evol* 30, 2725-9.

Terner, C. (1968). Studies of metabolism in embryonic development. 3. Glycogenolysis and gluconeogenesis in trout embryos. *Comp Biochem Physiol* 25, 989-1003.

Tranulis, M. A., Dregni, O., Christophersen, B., Krogdahl, A. and Borrebaek, B. (1996). A glucokinase-like-enzyme in the liver of Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*). *Comp Biochem Physiol B Biochem Mol Biol* 114, 35-9.

Vernier, J. and Sire, M. (1976). Evolution of the glycogen content and of glucose-6-phosphatase activity in the liver of *Salmo gairdneri* during development. *Tissue and cell* 8, 531-546.

Vernier, J. M. (1969). Table chronologique du développement embryonnaire de la truite arc-en-ciel, *Salmo gairdneri*. *Ann. Embryolo. Morphog.*, 495-520.

Walton, M. and Cowey, C. B. (1979). Gluconeogenesis by isolated hepatocytes from rainbow trout *salmo gairdneri*. *Comparative Biochemistry & Physiology B* 62B, 75-79.

Walton, M. and Cowey, C. B. (1983). Gluconeogenesis from alanine and serine by trout hepatocytes: Effects of other amino acids. *Biochemical Society Transactions* 11, 88-89.

Zambonino Infante, J. L. and Cahu, C. L. (2001). Ontogeny of the gastrointestinal tract of marine fish larvae. *Comp Biochem Physiol C Toxicol Pharmacol* 130, 477-87.

Zhong, L. and Mostoslavsky, R. (2010). SIRT6: a master epigenetic gatekeeper of glucose metabolism. *Transcription* 1, 17-21.

Zuckerkindl, E. a. P., L. . (1965). Evolutionary divergence and convergence in proteins. . *Evolving Genes and Proteins* by V. Bryson and H.J. Vogel - Academic Press, New York., 97-166.

Figures

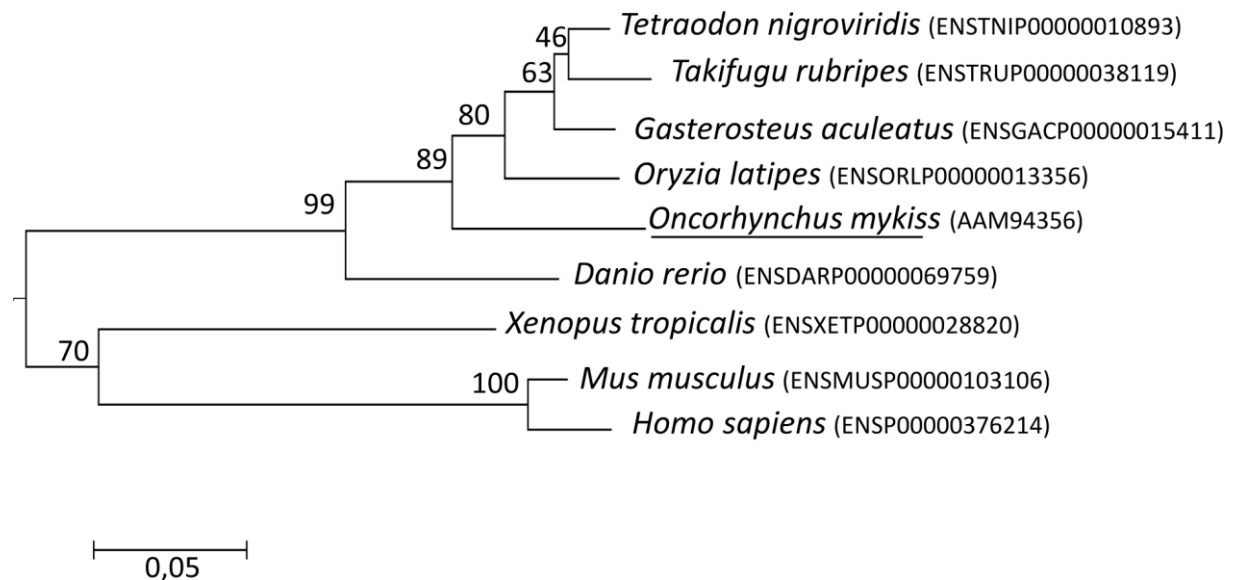


Figure 1 - Phylogenetic analysis of *pklr*

Amino acid sequences were aligned using MUSCLE software (Edgar, 2004). Phylogenetic analysis was carried out using Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis (MEGA) software version 6.0 (Tamura et al., 2013). The phylogenetic tree was built using the Neighbor-Joining (NJ) method. The reliability of the inferred tree was estimated using the bootstrap method with 1,000 replications. The lamprey *pklr* sequence (*Petromyzon marinus*, Ensembl ID: ENSPMAP00000000233) was used to root the tree. Protein Accession Numbers are listed in brackets.

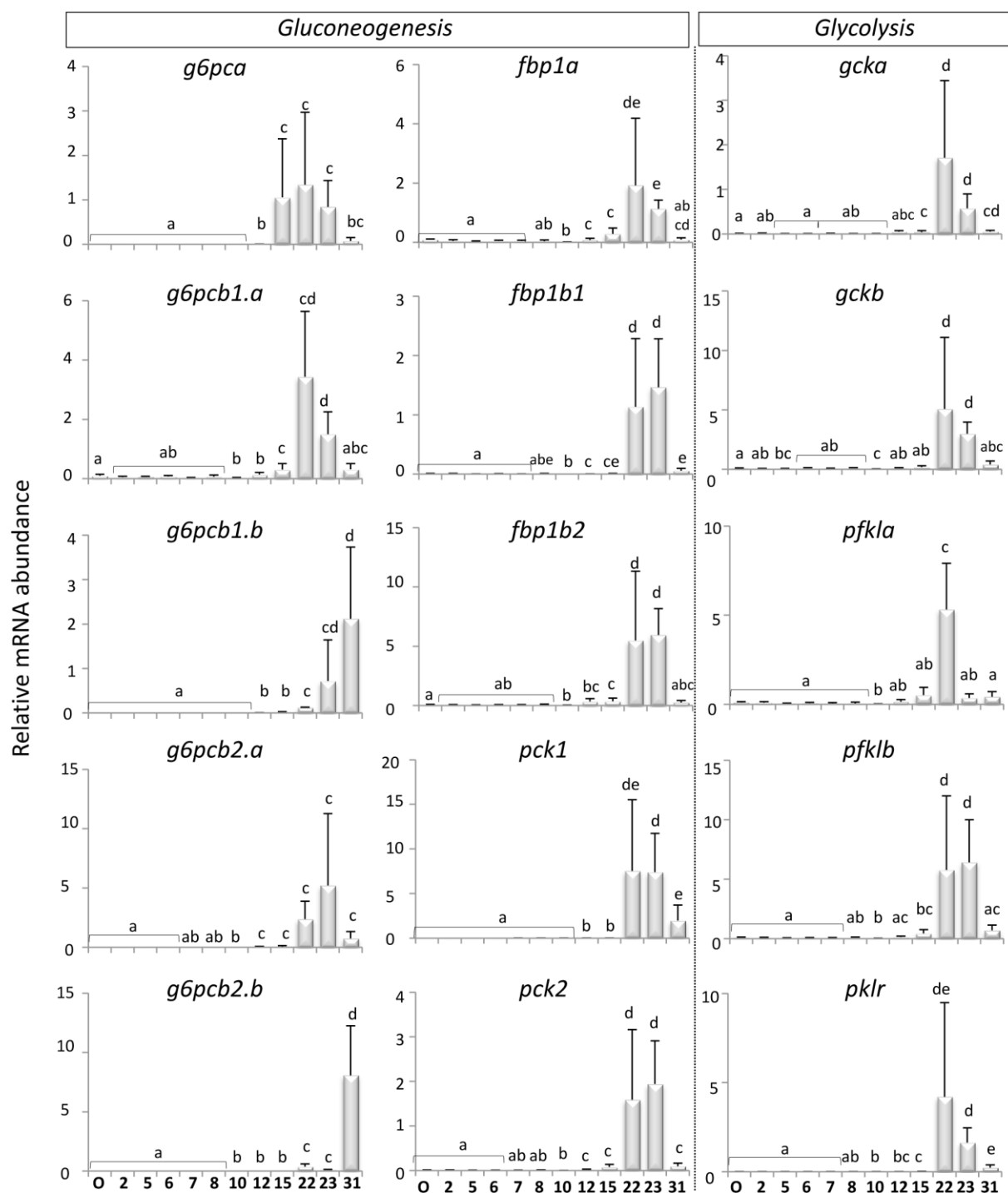


Figure 2 – Expression pattern of gluconeogenic and glycolytic genes during development
Relative abundance of gluconeogenic (left side) and glycolytic (right side) genes during development. Embryos were sampled according to Vernier (Vernier, 1969) at stages O (oocyte), 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 12, 15, 22, 23. For all stages, gene expression level was normalized by abundance of exogenous luciferase RNA. Data are expressed as means \pm SE (n = 3 pools)

of embryos, one pool of 30 embryos per spawn). Different letters indicate significant differences between conditions ($P < 0.01$).

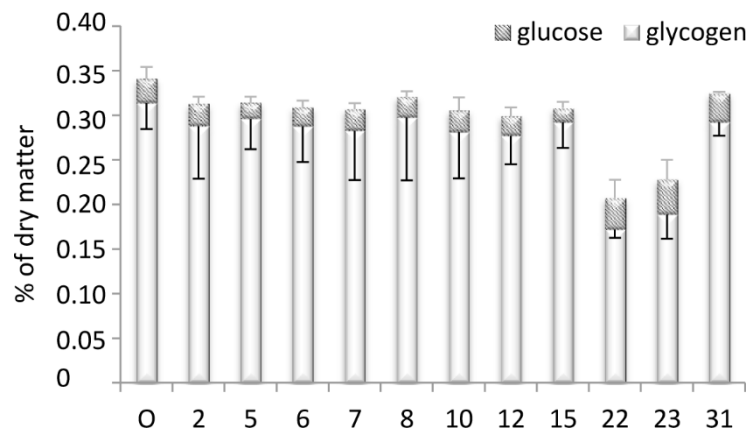


Figure 3 – Glucose and glycogen content in embryos and hatched (stage 31) alevins

Glucose and glycogen content expressed as percentage of dry matter. Embryos were sampled according to Vernier (Vernier, 1969) at stages O (oocyte), 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 12, 15, 22, 23.

Data expressed as means \pm SE (n=3 pools of embryos, one pool per spawn)

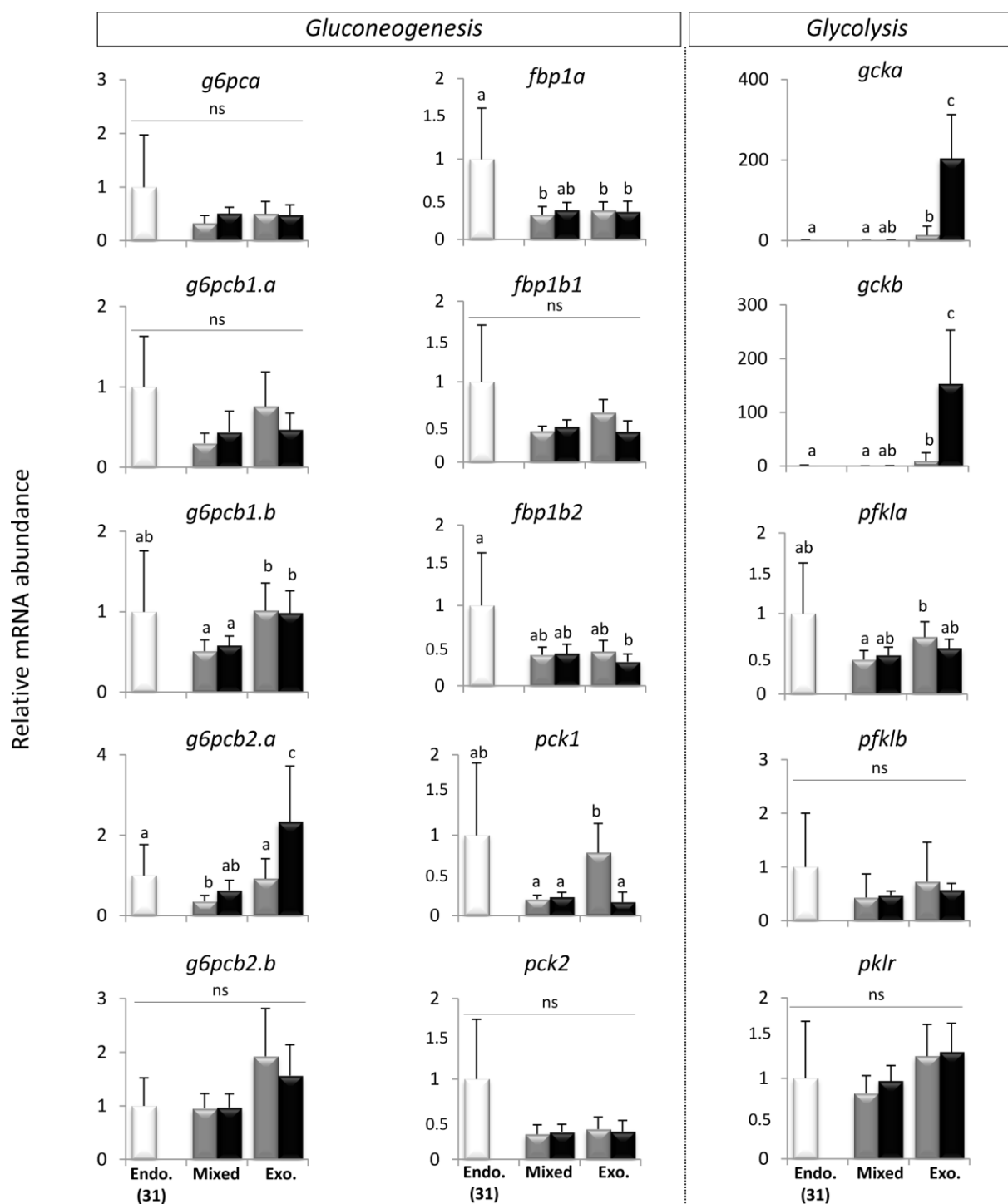


Figure 4 – Expression pattern of gluconeogenic and glycolytic genes during nutritional transition

Relative abundance of mRNA of gluconeogenic (left side) and glycolytic (right side) genes in strictly endogenous feeding alevins (white bars), mixed (3h after first meal) and exogenous feeding alevins fed with NoCHO (grey bars) or the HighCHO (black bars) diet. For all stages, gene expression level was normalized by abundance of exogenous luciferase RNA. Data expressed as means \pm SE (n = 9 alevins, 3 alevins per spawn). Different letters indicate significant differences between conditions ($P < 0.01$).

Tables

Table 1 - Formulation and proximate composition of the two experimental diets (NoCHO and HighCHO diets).

	Diets	
	NoCHO	HighCHO
Ingredients %		
Fish meal ¹	85.9	21.5
Fish oil ²	10.1	14.5
Starch ³	0	40
Glucose ⁴	0	20
Vitamin mix ⁵	1	1
Mineral mix ⁶	1	1
Alginate ⁷	2	2
Proximate composition		
Dry matter (DM, % diet)	90.35	90.90
Crude protein (% DM)	58.37	19.50
Crude lipid (% DM)	17.46	16.00
Gross energy (kJ/g DM)	21.73	21.60
Ash (% DM)	20.16	6.10
Carbohydrates (% DM)	<1.0	58.4

¹ Sopropeche, Boulogne-sur-Mer, France

² fish oil; Sopropeche, Boulogne-sur-Mer, France.

³ Gelatinized corn starch (Roquette, Lestrem, France)

⁴ D-(+)-Glucose (Sigma-Aldrich, G7021)

⁵ Supplying (kg-1 diet): DL-a tocopherol acetate 60 IU, sodium menadione bisulphate 5 mg, retinyl acetate 15000 IU, DLcholecalciferol 3000 IU, thiamin 15 mg, riboflavin 30 mg, pyridoxine 15 mg, vit. B12 0.05 mg, nicotinic acid 175 mg, folic acid 500 mg, inositol 1000 mg, biotin 2.5 mg, calcium panthotenate 50 mg, choline chloride 2000 mg.

⁶ Supplying (kg-1 diet): calcium carbonate (40% Ca) 2.15 g, magnesium oxide (60% Mg) 1.24 g, ferric citrate 0.2 g, potassium iodide (75% I) 0.4 mg, zinc sulphate (36% Zn) 0.4 g, copper sulphate (25% Cu) 0.3 g, manganese sulphate (33% Mn) 0.3 g, dibasic calcium phosphate (20% Ca, 18% P) 5 g, cobalt sulphate 2 mg, sodium selenite (30% Se) 3 mg, potassium chloride 0.9 g, Sodium chloride 0.4 g.

⁷ Louis François, Marne-la-Vallée, France.

Table 2 – Primer Sequences and Accession Numbers for qPCR analysis

Gene	Forward primer (5'→3')	Reverse primer (5'→3')	Accession number (Genoscope or Sigenae)
<i>pfkla</i> (<i>sc7584</i>)	GATCCCTGCCACCATCAGTA	GTAACCACAGTAGCCTCCCA	GSONMG00009459001
<i>pfklb</i> (<i>sc8651</i>)	AGTGCTCGCTGTAAGGTCTT	GTGATCCGGCCTTTCTGAAC	GSONMG00001975001
<i>pklr</i>	CCATCGTCGCGGTAACAAGA	GCCCCTGGCCTTTCCTATGT	ContigAF246146.s.om.10

Table 3 – Overall enzyme activity

Embryos were sampled according to Vernier (Vernier, 1969) at stages 6, 15, 22, 23 and 31.

Data are expressed as means \pm SD (n = 3 pools of embryos, one pool per spawn) in U/g of tissue. Asterisks indicate significant differences between conditions (P < 0.01)

Stage	Gluconeogenesis			Glycolysis		
	G6pc	Fbp	Pck	Gck	Pfkl	Pklr
6	0.01 \pm 0.00	nd	nd	nd	0.04 \pm 0.01	0.50 \pm 0.06
15	0.01 \pm 0.00	nd	0.01 \pm 0.00	nd	0.02 \pm 0.00	0.41 \pm 0.09
22	0.01 \pm 0.00	nd	0.01 \pm 0.00	nd	0.03 \pm 0.02	0.41 \pm 0.04
23	0.01 \pm 0.00	nd	0.03 \pm 0.01*	nd	0.07 \pm 0.01*	0.41 \pm 0.12
31	0.03 \pm 0.01*	0.09 \pm 0.00*	0.48 \pm 0.07**	nd	3.86 \pm 1.30**	100.19 \pm 8.08*

Table 4 – Body composition of embryos and hatched alevins

Embryos were sampled according to Vernier (Vernier, 1969) at stages O (oocyte), 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 12, 15, 22, 23 and 31. Data are expressed as means \pm SD (n = 3 pools of embryos, one pool per spawn).

Stage	Dry Matter (DM)	Proteins (%DM)	Lipids (%DM)	Carbohydrates (%DM)
Oocyte	37.73 \pm 2.75	69.55 \pm 1.70	29.62 \pm 1.77	0.34 \pm 0.03
2	33.79 \pm 0.42	69.42 \pm 1.19	29.6 \pm 2.34	0.31 \pm 0.06
5	33.94 \pm 0.53	69.19 \pm 1.39	29.66 \pm 2.88	0.31 \pm 0.04
6	33.99 \pm 0.14	69.27 \pm 1.44	29.62 \pm 2.44	0.31 \pm 0.04
7	34.19 \pm 0.21	69.46 \pm 1.03	29.79 \pm 1.77	0.31 \pm 0.06
8	33.52 \pm 0.51	69.89 \pm 1.75	30.05 \pm 1.52	0.32 \pm 0.07
10	34.01 \pm 0.21	69.10 \pm 1.00	29.87 \pm 2.84	0.31 \pm 0.04
12	33.62 \pm 0.30	69.17 \pm 1.20	30.04 \pm 2.55	0.30 \pm 0.03
15	34.10 \pm 0.30	69.22 \pm 1.06	30.96 \pm 2.71	0.31 \pm 0.03
22	33.76 \pm 0.20	69.09 \pm 1.06	29.96 \pm 2.05	0.21 \pm 0.03
23	33.06 \pm 0.31	69.59 \pm 1.43	29.69 \pm 2.83	0.23 \pm 0.03
31	31.29 \pm 0.28	68.97 \pm 1.75	31.59 \pm 2.61	0.32 \pm 0.02

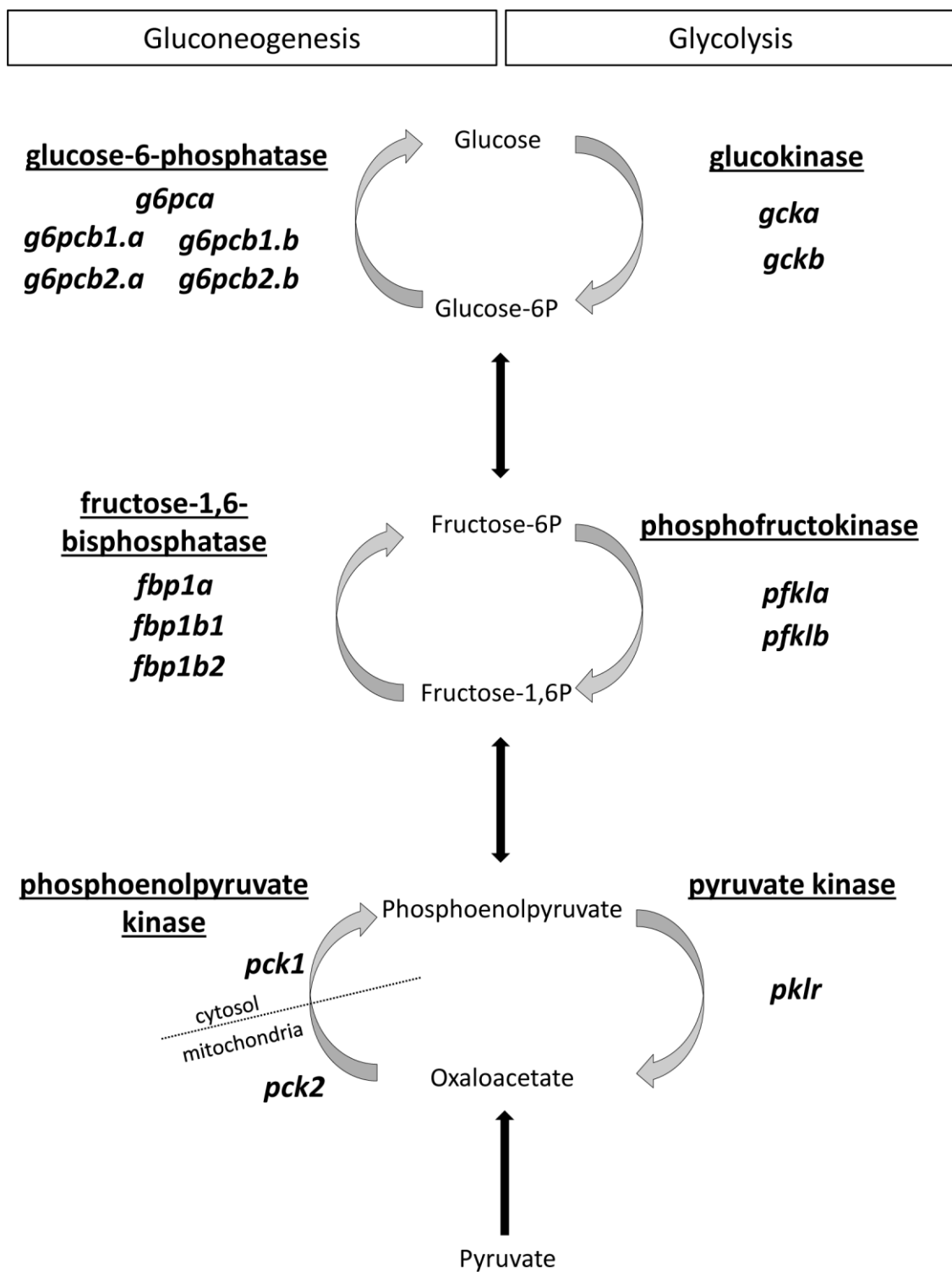


Fig. S1. Gluconeogenesis and glycolysis pathway description.

pfkla

>GSONMG00009459001 scaffold_7584 (*pfkla*)

AACCCTTCCCAGTACTTGCATGCAGAAGATCGTGGACACCATCAACAAGCATAATATCCAGGCTC
TGCTGATCGTTGGGGGATTTGAGGCGTACGAAGGCGTGCTGGAGTTATATGATGCTCGCGGTAG
CTTTGACGAGTTGTGTATTCCCATGGTGGTGTATCCCTGCCACCATCAGTAACAACGTACCCGGGA
CAGACTTCAGTCTGGGGGCAGACACGGCTGTCAACGCTGCCATGGAGAGTTGTGATAAGATTAA
GCAGTCGGCTTCAGGGACCAAGAGAAGGGTGTTCGTAGTGGAACTATGGGAGGCTACTGTGGT
TACCTGGCAACCTACGCCGGTATCGCTGTGGGAGCAGACGCTGCTTACATCTTCGAGGACCCCT
TCAACCTCCAGGACCTAAAGGTGAAAACCAGGCTGCTGCTGGCATAGCACCTTATTCCTACTCT
GGTCCAAAGTAGTTCACTAGGGTGCCATCTCGGACACTCTCACAGTCTTCACTAGGGTGCCATCT
CAGACTAACAGTCTCCACTAGGGTGCCATCTCAGA

> GSONMG00009459001 sc_7584 deduced partial amino acids

sequenceMQKIVDTINKHNIQALLIVGGFEAYEGVLELYDARGSFDELCPMVVIPATISNNVPGTDFSLG
ADTAVNAAMESCDKIKQSASGTRRRVFVETMGGYCYLATYAGIAVGADAAYIFEDPFNLQDLKVKT
RLLLA

> FYV3OTN01AZR97.s.om.10:1:2407:1

TACTGTAGACACCGGCTTCTAGAACACATACTAACCCTGGACTGTAGACACCGGCTTCTAAGCAC
TGGGCTCCACCATTAGAGGGCTGGGAGGACCACATGTGTGCCCGCCTGGAGCATAGTCGCAGT
AAGGGCTCCAGACTGAACATAGTAATCATCGCTGAAGGGGCCATCAACAGAGCTGGTGAACCGA
TCTCTTCAAGCTACGTCAAGGATCTGGTAGTGAAGAGGCTGGGCTATGACACACGGGTGACAGT
CCTAGGTCATGTACAGCGAGGGGGAACACCCTCCGCCTTCGACCGGGTGCTGAGCAGTAAGGT
GGGAGTGGAGGCTGTCGTCGCTCTGTTAGAGGCCACTCCAGAGACCCAGCCTGTGTATCGG
CCTGTCAGGAAACCAGGCTGTCCGCCTGCCTCTTGTGGAGTGTGTACAGATGACTAAAGAGGTT
CAGAAGGCCATGAATGAAAAGAGGTTTGATGAAGCCATCCAACCTGAGAGGAAGGAGCTTTGAGA
ACAACTGGAACATGTACAACTGCTTGCCTTTCAGAAAGCCTGCTGTTACCAAGAGCAACCACACG
CTGGCGGTGCTGAATGTGGGTGCTCCAGCAGCAGGGATGAATGCAGCGGTCCGGTCCGGCTGTC
AGAGTGGCGCTGGCCTACGGTCACAAGGTCTACTCTGTCAATGACGGCTTCGAGGGGCTTGCCA
ATGGAGCGGTGACAGAGATCGAGTGGCACGGTGTGGCTGGATGGACTGGCCAGGGTGGATCTC
TTCTGGGGACTAAACGAACCCTTCCCAGTACTTGCATGCAGAAGATCGTGGACACCATCAACAAG
CATAATATCCAGGCTCTGCTGATCGTTGGGGGATTTGAGGCGTACGAAGGCGTGCTGGAGTTAT
ATGATGCTCGCGGTAGCTTTGACGAGTTGTGTATCCCATGGTGGTGATCCCTGCCACCATCAGT
AACAACTGACCCGGGACAGACTTCAGTCTGGGGGCAGACACGGCTGTCAACGCTGCCATGGAG
AGTTGTGATAAGATTAAGCAGTCGGCTTCAGGGACCAAGAGAAGGGTGTTTCGTAGTGGAACTAT
GGGAGGCTACTGTGGTTACCTGGCAACCTACGCCGGTATCGCTGTGGGAGCAGACGCTGCTTAC
ATCTTCGAGGACCCCTTCAACCTCCAGGACCTAAAGACTAACGTGGAGCATCTCGCAGAGAAGAT
GAAGGAAGACATCCAGAGGGGTCTGGTGTGAGGAATGAGAAGTGTACCTTCACTACACCACT
GATTTTCATCCACAAGCTGTATTCTGCCGAGGGGAAGGGCATCTTCGACTGTAGGGTCAACGTGCT
GGGGCACCTCCAGCAGGTACGGAACGAACACAACCACACTGTTAATGCTTACATGTTAAATGCA
ACCTTATATTAAGGATGATGAGCTTGTGATCAGGAAATGAGGGGATAGACTTAGATGATGTAG
AATGTGAAGTGTATGAATGATCAAAATATGGTTCCGAGAAGTTTTCTTTCTGTTCTGTTTTCTGTTT
TCTGTTTTCTTTCTCTCACCTGTCTGTTCTAGGGAGGTGCACCAACACCCTTCGACAGAAACTGTG
GCACCAAGCTGGGTGTGAAGGCTGTGCAGTGGCTCACAGAGAAGATGATCAACAACCTTCAGACA
AGGTGCTGTGTTCTGTCACGCCCCAGACACAGCGTCTGTATCGGCTTCAGTAAGAAGGTCCTG
TCCTTCATCCCTGTGACTGAACTTAAGGCACAGACTGACTTTGAGCACCGGATGCCCAAAGTCCA
GTGGTGGCAGAACCTGCATCAGATTCTGAAGATGTTGGCCAAGCACCAGACCAGCTTCAGCGAG
TACGTCCCTGGAGAGATAGAACATGTGACCCGACGCTCTCTCAGCATCGACACTGGCTTCTAGAA
CACATACTAACCCTGGACTGTAGACACCGGCTTCTAGAACACATATTAACCCTGGACTGTAAACA
CCGGCTTCTAGAACACACACTAACCCTGGACTGTAGACACCGGCTTCTAGAACACATACTAACGC
TGGACTGTAGACACCGGCTTCTAAGCACTGGGCTCCAACCCTGGAATGTCACTCCCAACTTGTCT
GTCTTCCCTGTTTATCTAAAAAGGGTCTTATATCTGTACTGTGTCTGAGACTACCTAGACATCA
GGCCCTTATATCTGTACTGTGTCTGAGACTACCTAGACATCAGGTCCTTATATATGTACTGTGTCT
GAGACTACCTAGACATCAGGCCCTTATATCTGGACTGTGTCTGTCTGTCTAGTACACCAGATGATA
TTTGGTCTATACTGGTCACTAGTCTATACTGGTTTAAAGCTATACTGGTCACTAGTCTATACTGGT
TAAAGACTATTCTGGTC

pfklb

>GSONMG00001975001 scaffold_8651 (*pfklb*)

CCAGGAATGAATGCAGCTGTCCGCGCTGTGACCCGGATGGGGATATTTGTTGGAGCCAAGATGT
ATCTCGTATATGAGGGCTACCAGGGTCTGGTGGATGGAGGGGACAACATCAAGCTGGCCCACTG
GCAGAGTGTACCAACATCATACAGCAGGGTGGCACGGTGATCGGCAGTGCTCGCTGTAAGGTC
TTCACCACGCGGGACGGTGCCTGGCAGCAGCCTTTAACCTGGTGAAGAGAGGCATCACCAATC
TGTGTGTGTGTGGAGGAGACGGCAGCCTCACCGGAGCTAACATCTTCAGGACCGAGTGGACTG
GACTGCTGGCTGAACTGGTTTCAAGAAAGGCCGGATCACCGACACCCTAGCGAAGCAGCATAATCA
CCTGAACATCGTAGGGTTGGTTGGATCTATAGACAACGACTTCTGTGGGACAGACATGACCATAG
GCGCTGACTCCGCCCTGCATCGCATCATGGAGATAGTGGACGCCATCACTACCACCGCACAGAG
GTA

> GSONMG00001975001 sc_8651 deduced partial amino acids sequence

PGMNAAVRAVTRMGIFVGAKMYLVYEGYQGLVDGGDNIKLAHWQSVTNIIQQGGTVIGSARCKVFTT
RDGRLAAAFNLVKGITNLCVCGDGLTGANIFRTEWTGLLAELVQKGRITDTLAKQHNHLNIVGLV
GSIDNDFCGTDMTIGADSALHRIMEIVDAITTTAQR

> FYV3OTN02GK8A7.s.om.10:1:688:1

GGTAGACGGTCAGCCAACACAAGGAAAGTCACCCACAGTACTTGCTGCATGAGCTTGTAACCTTGT
ATTTTAACGAGAAGAGTTATTATTTGACAGAATTTCTCCAGTCGAGGTTGATCCGTATTCCACCGC
TGCCAACATGTCGGATTTAGAGAGACTGAAGATGACCGGCGCTGGGAAAGCTATCGCCTTGTTG
ACAAGTGGTGGAGATGCACAAGGAATGAATGCAGCTGTCCGCGCTGTGACCCGGATGGGGATAT
TTGTTGGAGCCAAGATGTATCTCGTATATGAGGGCTACCAGGGTCTGGTGGATGGAGGGGACAA
CATCAAGCTGGCCCACTGGCAGAGTGTACCAACATCATACAGCAGGGTGGCACGGTGATCGGC
AGTGCTCGCTGTAAGGTCTTCACCACGCGGGACGGTCGCCTGGCAGCAGCCTTTAACCTGGGTG
AAAGAGAGGCATCACCATCTGTGTGTGTGTGGAGGAGACGGCAGCCTCACCGGAGCTAACATC
TTCAGGACCGAGTGGACTGGACTGCTGGCTGAACTGGTTTCAAGAAAGGCCGGATCACCGACACCC
TAGCGAAGCAGCATAATCACCTGAACATCGTAGGGTTGGTTGGATCTATAGACAACGACTTCTGT
GGGACAGACATGACCATAGGCGCTGACTCCGCCTGCATCGCATC

pklr

>AF246146.s.om.10 (*pklr*)

GCGGAGGGCAGTGACGTAGCTAACGCAGTGTTGGATGGAGCCGACTGTGTGATGCTCTCTGGG
GAGACGGCTAAAGGACTGTTCCCTGTCGAGTCTGTGGCCATGATGCACTCGATCTGCAGGGAGG
CAGAGGCAGCCATCTTCCAACAGCAGTTGTTTGAGGAGCTTCGTCTGTGACCCCTCTGTCCAAT
GACCCTACTGAGGTCACTGCTATAGGAGCTGTAGAATCCTCCTTCAAATGCTGTGCTGGAGCTGT
CATAGTACTCACTACTACTGGCAGGTGAGCCAGCTCCTGTCCCGGTATCGCCACGCTGTCCC
ATCGTCGCGGTAACAAGAAGTCCTCAGGTGGCACGTGAGGCCAGCTGCTGAGGGGTGTGTTCC
CAGTGCTGTTCCACCCCTCCCTGCCCCCGTCTGGGCCGATGATGTAGACAACAGAGTCAACTT
CGGCATGAACATAGGAAAGGCCAGGGGCTTCTTCAAGACAGGTGACATGGTGATCGTGGTGACC
GGCTGGATCCCTGGTTCTGGTCACTAACATCATGAGGGCAGTCCACGTGCCCTAAACACTCT
GTTCTTATTGGACACTACCACTGACTGGCTGACAGGGCCACCAATCCTAAGTGGCACATAGCCTA
ACAGACACACTAACTGGAACACTAACTACATAGATAGCATAGAATAAGTAATTAATATTTCCCTT
ATGTGGAGATGAAGTACATAAACAACAACAGTTTAGAGATTACGATGAAAAGTCAATTATTTTCC
ATGTTTATTGAAAGTGATTTAAATGTAGACAATGTTTGTGTGTTTATTCAATTCTGTCTTGGAAGCA
CTGCCTCTCTCCAAATAAAGCTTGGAGCATAACCTT

> AF246146.s.om.10 (*pklr*) deduced partial amino acids sequence

AEQSDVANAVLDGADCVMLSGETAKGLFPVESVAMMHSICREAEAAIFQQQLFEELRRLTPLSNDPT
EVTAGAVESSFKCCAGAVIVLTTTGRSAQLLSRYRPRCPVAVTRSPQVARQAQLLRGVFPVLFHPLP
APVWADDVDNRVNFGMNIGKARGFFKTGDMVIVVTGWIPGSGHTNIMRAVHVP

Fig. S2. Coding and deduced amino acid sequences of the newly identified genes.

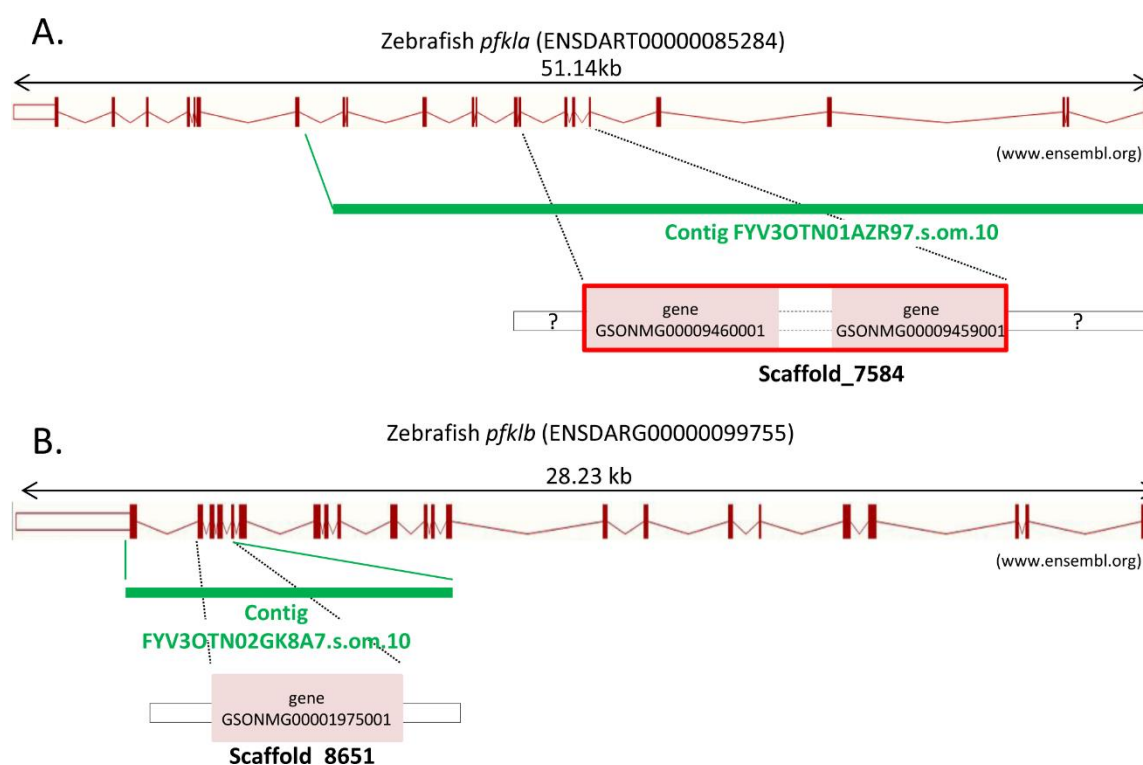


Fig. S3. Identification of rainbow trout *pfkl* predicted genes in databases.