

Fatty acid and lipid class composition in cutaneous mucus of Atlantic salmon, *Salmo salar* (L.)

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22 The surface mucus of fish is a physical and biochemical barrier that plays roles in osmoregulation, chemical
23 communication, and protection against physical damage (e.g., by abrasion and ultraviolet radiation),
24 chemical insults (e.g., toxins, heavy metals and irritants) and biological threats (e.g., posed by predators,
25 parasites and pathogens) (Shephard, 1994; Ellis, 2001; Alvarez-Pellitero, 2008; Esteban, 2012; Dash et al.,
26 2018; Reverter et al., 2018; Kumari et al., 2019). The major structural constituents of fish cutaneous mucus
27 are mucins (highly glycosylated high molecular weight proteins), in addition to other proteins, carbohydrates,
28 lipids, nucleic acids, and ions like calcium (Shephard, 1994; Brinchmann, 2016). Cutaneous mucus
29 composition has been determined to differing extents for various fish, from gilthead sea bream *Sparus aurata*
30 (L.) (Pérez-Sánchez et al., 2017) to stingray *Hypanus americanus* (Hildebrand & Schroeder, 1928) (Coelho et
31 al., 2019). However, most studies focused on proteinaceous or immune-relevant constituents, while few
32 studies have characterised the lipid and fatty acid constituents despite influencing mucus properties (Lewis,
33 1970; Jais et al., 1998; Sato et al., 2008; Rahman et al., 2012; Torrecillas et al., 2019). Earlier studies
34 determined fatty acids for total lipids only, whilst only Torrecillas et al. (2019) analysed the fatty acids in
35 neutral and polar lipid fractions separately, meaning there are no reports detailing the fatty acids within
36 distinct lipid classes of fish skin mucus. Therefore, the aim of this present study was to characterise the fatty
37 acids and lipid classes of the skin mucus of the key farmed species, Atlantic salmon *Salmo salar* (L.).

38

39 Cutaneous mucus was collected from nine euthanised Atlantic salmon pre-smolts (each ca. 120 g). Each fish
40 was placed into 10 mL distilled water in a plastic bag and massaged for 2 minutes. Samples were frozen in
41 sampling pots (-20°C, 2 h) and freeze-dried for 72 h. Total lipid was extracted according to Folch et al. (1957).
42 Briefly, each sample was dissolved in 2 mL 0.88% (w/v) KCl, transferred to 50 mL QuickFit™ borosilicate glass
43 test tubes before 16 mL chloroform/methanol (2:1, v/v) was added. Samples were homogenised with an
44 Ultra-Turrax tissue disruptor (Fisher Scientific, Loughborough, UK) and kept on ice for 1 h, before 2 mL 0.88%
45 KCl was added and the sample centrifuged (400 ×g, 5 min). The lower layer containing the lipid extract was
46 dried under oxygen-free nitrogen (OFN) and lipid weight determined gravimetrically following overnight

desiccation *in vacuo*. Samples were resuspended in chloroform/methanol (2:1, v/v) containing 0.01% (w/v) butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT) and stored under OFN at -20°C.

49

Lipid class separation was performed by double-development high-performance thin-layer chromatography (HPTLC) using methyl acetate/isopropanol/chloroform/methanol/0.25% KCl (25:25:25:10:9, v/v) and isohexane/diethyl ether/acetic acid (85:15:1, v/v) as first and second development systems, respectively (Henderson and Tocher, 1992). Total lipids (10–20 µg) were applied to HPTLC plates (Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany) and run to half and full distance using first and second development systems, respectively. Plates were sprayed with 3% (w/v) aqueous cupric acetate containing 8% (v/v) phosphoric acid, before charring (160°C, 15 min). Quantification was by densitometry using a CAMAG-3 TLC scanner (Version Firmware 1.14.16; CAMAG, Muttenz, Switzerland) with winCATS Planar Chromatography Manager, with classes identified by comparison to standards.

59

Fatty acid methyl esters (FAME) of total lipid extracts were prepared by acid-catalysed transesterification (50°C, 16 h) using 2 mL of 1% (v/v) sulphuric acid (95% Aristar®; VWR Chemicals, Poole, UK) in methanol and 1 mL toluene (Christie, 1993). FAME were extracted and purified according to Tocher and Harvie (1988). To determine the FAME in phosphatidylcholine and free fatty acid classes, total lipid extracts were combined and prepared by TLC (fatty acids in other classes were not determined due to insufficient material). Briefly, total lipid (2–4 mg) was applied to silica gel sixty plates (Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany) and developed to full distance as above. Lipid classes were visualised by spraying with 0.1% (w/v) 2,7-dichlorofluorescein in 97% aqueous methanol (v/v) and viewed under ultraviolet light at 240 nm (UVP® Mineralight® R-52G; UVP Inc. USA, California, USA). Lipid classes were scraped into separate 15 mL QuickFit™ tubes before acid-catalysed transesterification as above. The reaction was stopped with 2% (w/v) potassium bicarbonate in purified water and each sample was washed twice with isohexane/diethyl ether (1:1) + 0.01% BHT. The upper layers from both washes were combined and dried under OFN before re-dissolving in isohexane.

72

73 FAME were separated and quantified by gas-liquid chromatography (GLC) using a Fisons GC-8160 (Thermo
74 Scientific, Milan, Italy) equipped with a 30 m × 0.32 mm i.d. × 0.25 µm ZB-wax column (Phenomenex,
75 Cheshire, UK), 'on column' injection, flame ionisation detection and hydrogen as carrier gas. The oven started
76 at 50°C and increased to 150°C at 40°C/min before reaching 230°C at 2°C/min. FAME were identified by
77 comparison to standards and data were processed with Chromcard for Windows (version 1.19; Thermoquest
78 Italia S.p.A, Milan, Italy).

79

80 The nine Atlantic salmon skin mucus samples were comprised mostly of neutral lipids (63.5±2.9%, mean ±
81 standard deviation) (Table 1), which is consistent with cutaneous mucus collected from gilthead sea bream
82 where neutral lipids accounted for 53.2–60.0% of total lipids (Torrecillas et al., 2019). Cholesterol/sterols
83 made up the greatest proportion of the lipid classes (24.7±1.7% of total lipids; Table 1), which is not
84 unexpected because these molecules are major components of eukaryotic cell membranes and dead host
85 cells contribute to mucus composition (Brinchmann, 2016). Meanwhile, phosphatidylcholine predominated
86 the polar lipids (15.9±2.6%), with phospholipids collectively composing around 30.1% of total lipids (Table 1).
87 By comparison, Lewis (1970) reported phospholipids in skin mucus from flathead grey mullet *Mugil cephalus*
88 (L.), marine catfish *Plotosus lineatus* (Thunberg, 1787) and dusky flathead *Platycephalus fuscus* (Cuvier, 1829)
89 to contribute 36.1, 48.8 and 62.4% of total lipids, respectively.

90

91 The fatty acid profile of total lipid in the salmon mucus consisted saturated (SFA; 38.63±3.84% of total fatty
92 acids), monounsaturated (MUFA; 28.49±1.07%) and polyunsaturated (PUFA; 32.88±4.48%) fatty acids (Table
93 2). The most abundant fatty acid in the skin mucus was palmitic acid (C16:0; 21.80±1.71%), followed by
94 docosahexaenoic acid (DHA, C22:6n-3; 16.99±3.16%), oleic acid (C18:1n-9; 14.19±1.55%), stearic acid (C18:0;
95 7.63±0.81%) and eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA, C20:5n-3; 6.41±1.25%). Other fatty acids were at <5%
96 abundance (Table 2) and variations between samples from the nine individuals in the same tank were
97 relatively low. Comparison of the fatty acids in the total lipids of the salmon samples to similar studies is
98 complicated by the influence of intrinsic and extrinsic factors, which affect the composition of the mucus,

99 such as diet (van der Marel et al., 2010; Jung et al., 2012; Ekman et al., 2015; Torrecillas et al., 2019;
 100 Benktander et al., 2020). Nevertheless, the most abundant fatty acid constituents of cutaneous mucus of fish
 101 in earlier reports are C18:1n-9, C16:0 and C18:0, which is consistent with this present study (Table 3).
 102
 103 The phosphatidylcholine fraction of the salmon skin mucus was composed largely of PUFA (36.11%), followed
 104 by SFA (33.63%) and MUFA (30.26%) (Table 2), with the most abundant fatty acids being C16:0 (25.9%), DHA
 105 (19.05%), C18:1n-9 (14.36%), EPA (8.81%) and palmitoleic acid (C16:1n-7; 6.05%); other fatty acids were at
 106 <5% abundance (Table 2). Free fatty acids were the third most abundant lipid class in the salmon mucus
 107 (14.6±2.5%), followed by the wax/sterol esters (12.6±2.1%), triglycerides (7.0±2.2%), and pigmented material
 108 (6.4±1.4%); other lipid classes were detected at <5% of total lipids (Table 1). This relative abundance of free
 109 fatty acids in the salmon mucus concurs with Lewis (1970), where these constituted 9.8–23.1% in cutaneous
 110 mucus from three fish species. In this present study, the fatty acid profile of the free fatty acids consisted SFA
 111 (47.28%), MUFA (28.80%) and PUFA (23.93%), with the most abundant fatty acids being C16:0 (27.87%),
 112 C18:1n-9 (14.74%), C18:0 (13.23%), DHA (9.33%) and EPA (5.35%) (Table 2). Free fatty acids are antimicrobial
 113 and therefore may explain some of the antimicrobial and anti-parasitic properties of fish cutaneous mucus
 114 (Lewis, 1970; Hellio et al., 2002; Alvarez-Pellitero, 2008; Desbois and Smith, 2010; Fuochi et al., 2017; Kumari
 115 et al., 2019). However, interestingly, the most abundant fatty acids in the free fatty acids of the salmon mucus
 116 have only modest antimicrobial activity, whilst typically more potent PUFA, like DHA and EPA, were present
 117 at lower abundance. Still, PUFA may be present at concentrations sufficient to exert meaningful biological
 118 activities, especially if synergy with other antimicrobial compounds like antimicrobial peptides or histone
 119 fragments is considered (Lee et al., 2009; Martinez et al., 2009; Desbois and Lawlor, 2013; Desbois, 2013).
 120 Nevertheless, some fish pathogens are attracted to the lipid components of mucus (O'Toole et al., 1999;
 121 Klesius et al., 2008), may adhere to this fluid and its constituents (Magarinos et al., 1995; Padra et al., 2019),
 122 and use mucus as a source of nutrients (Guardiola et al., 2014; Shoemaker and LaFrentz, 2015; Shoemaker
 123 et al., 2018; Minniti et al., 2019)

124

125 Lipids influence mucus viscosity and the absolute and relative abundances of lipids (and their fatty acid
126 constituents) affect this and other physical traits, including elasticity, wettability and adhesiveness (Murty,
127 1984). Increased cholesterol is associated with greater viscosity (Galabert et al., 1987), whilst sphingomyelin,
128 phosphatidylserine and phosphatidylinositol are linked to greater rigidity (Girod et al., 1992). Consequently,
129 the lipids in the cutaneous mucus will influence its rigidity, accumulation or dispersal from the surface, and
130 thus the protective potential against pathogens and parasites (Lewis, 1970). Few studies have examined the
131 viscosity of fish-derived mucus (Roberts and Powell 2005; Nordgård et al., 2015) and determination of this
132 and other physical characteristics was beyond the scope of this present study. As such, much still remains to
133 be discovered regarding the influence of the lipids on mucus properties. Recent studies reporting
134 comprehensive characterisation of fish mucus by sophisticated mass spectrometric techniques (Ivanova et
135 al., 2018; Patel et al., 2020) offer an attractive approach to enhance our understanding for the role of lipids
136 in this fluid especially when performed alongside assays of physical and biological properties.

137

138 To conclude, the lipid components of the cutaneous mucus of fish have received little attention and this is
139 the first study to determine the lipid classes in samples from Atlantic salmon. In addition, the fatty acid
140 profiles of total lipid, and free fatty acid and phosphatidylcholine fractions, were determined.
141 Characterisation of the lipid contents of mucus is a first step to understanding the influence that these
142 components exert on the physical and biological properties of this fluid and thus its importance to the fish.
143 In turn, this new knowledge may allow for the mucus contents to be manipulated to augment functions, in
144 particular to protect against biological threats posed by pathogens and parasites.

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146

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149

150 **Declarations**

151

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153

154 *Conflicts of interest:* The authors declare they are aware of no conflicts of interest or competing interests.

155

156 *Data availability:* The data is available from the corresponding author by reasonable request.

157

158 *Ethics approval:* All procedures described herein adhered to the Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act 1986.

159 Ethical approval for this study was granted by the University of Stirling’s Animal Welfare and Ethical Review

160 Body (AWERB/1718/035/New Non ASPA).

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 310 common carp, *Cyprinus carpio* L., after exposure to water with a high bacterial load. J Fish Dis 33:431-439

311 **Table 1** – Lipid class composition (% of total lipid) of total lipid extracted from skin mucus samples collected
 312 from Atlantic salmon pre-smolts (n=9). SD, standard deviation.
 313

Lipid class	Mean (%) ±SD	Range (%)
Wax/Sterol esters	12.6 ±2.1	(9.6–14.5)
Triacylglycerols	7.0 ±2.2	(4.4–10.7)
Free fatty acids	14.6 ±2.5	(9.6–18.6)
Cholesterol/sterols	24.7 ±1.7	(22.3–26.9)
Diacylglycerol	4.7 ±1.0	(3.5–6.1)
<i>Total neutral lipids</i>	63.5 ±2.9	(59.5–67.8)
Phosphatidylethanolamine	3.6 ±0.9	(2.4–5.3)
Phosphatidic acid/Phosphatidylglycerol/cardiolipin	0.0 ±0.0	N/A
Phosphatidylinositol	4.1 ±0.9	(2.7–5.4)
Phosphatidylserine	3.2 ±0.6	(2.3–4.0)
Phosphatidylcholine	15.9 ±2.6	(11.3–17.8)
Sphingomyelin	2.5 ±0.2	(2.2–2.6)
Lysophosphatidylcholine	0.8 ±0.3	(0.4–1.2)
Pigmented material	6.4 ±1.4	(4.6–8.2)
<i>Total polar lipids</i>	36.5 ±2.9	(32.2–40.5)

314

315

316 **Table 2** – Fatty acid profiles (% total fatty acids) from total lipid, and the free fatty acids and
317 phosphatidylcholine fractions extracted from skin mucus samples collected from Atlantic salmon pre-smolts
318 (n=9 for total lipids; n=1 for free fatty acids and phosphatidylcholine fractions). PUFA, polyunsaturated fatty
319 acids; SD, standard deviation.
320

Fatty acid	Total lipids Mean (%) \pm SD	Range (%)	Free fatty acids Mean (%)	Phosphatidylcholine Mean (%)
14:0	2.89 \pm 0.33	3.51–2.39	2.16	3.19
15:0	0.98 \pm 0.25	1.41–0.73	1.27	0.71
16:0	21.80 \pm 1.71	19.95–24.98	27.79	25.99
17:0	4.23 \pm 0.85	2.68–5.58	1.32	1.22
18:0	7.63 \pm 0.81	6.52–8.98	13.23	2.34
20:0	0.30 \pm 0.10	0.18–0.51	0.55	0.11
22:0	0.47 \pm 0.16	0.30–0.74	0.69	0.00
24:0	0.34 \pm 0.12	0.22–0.56	0.26	0.07
Total saturated	38.63 \pm3.84	33.34–44.31	47.28	33.63
16:1n-9	3.63 \pm 0.48	3.09–4.44	2.74	4.32
16:1n-7	3.38 \pm 0.61	2.14–4.34	3.41	6.05
17:1	0.51 \pm 0.21	0.27–0.81	0.79	0.55
18:1n-9	14.19 \pm 1.55	13.05–18.04	14.74	14.36
18:1n-7	2.09 \pm 0.28	1.69–2.47	2.93	1.88
20:1n-11	0.16 \pm 0.03	0.10–0.20	0.16	0.13
20:1n-9	1.54 \pm 0.24	1.17–1.90	2.11	1.08
20:1n-7	0.61 \pm 0.16	0.32–0.78	0.90	0.68
22:1n-11	0.43 \pm 0.12	0.30–0.62	0.29	0.13
22:1n-9	0.64 \pm 0.11	0.45–0.78	0.37	0.08
24:1n-9	1.32 \pm 0.47	0.55–1.83	0.35	1.00
Total monounsaturated	28.49 \pm1.07	27.04–30.89	28.80	30.26
18:2n-6	2.49 \pm 0.39	2.02–3.33	2.39	2.32
18:3n-6	0.00 \pm 0.00	N/A	0.17	0.05
20:2n-6	0.44 \pm 0.11	0.32–0.64	0.40	0.41
20:3n-6	0.22 \pm 0.09	0.00–0.31	0.23	0.27
20:4n-6	3.24 \pm 0.65	2.23–4.01	3.71	2.49
22:4n-6	0.15 \pm 0.04	0.09–0.22	0.14	0.16
22:5n-6	0.26 \pm 0.05	0.18–0.34	0.13	0.50
Total n-6 PUFA	6.80 \pm0.73	5.52–7.53	7.16	6.20
18:3n-3	0.27 \pm 0.11	0.17–0.49	0.29	0.16

18:4n-3	0.74 ±0.24	0.45–1.17	0.34	0.31
20:4n-3	0.22 ±0.08	0.00–0.26	0.11	0.26
20:5n-3	6.41 ±1.25	3.72–7.97	5.35	8.81
22:5n-3	1.10 ±0.24	0.65–1.51	0.78	1.31
22:6n-3	16.99 ±3.16	10.90–19.97	9.33	19.05
<i>Total n-3 PUFA^a</i>	25.73 ±4.25	17.19–30.41	16.20	29.91
<i>Other PUFA^b</i>	0.35 ±0.47	0.00–1.30	0.56	0.00
<i>Total PUFA</i>	32.88 ±4.48	24.81–37.93	23.93	36.11

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322 ^a Includes C20:3n-3 and C21:5n-3; ^b includes C16:2, C16:3 and C16:4

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324 **Table 3** – Comparison of most abundant fatty acids in the total lipid extracted from cutaneous mucus of different fish.

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Species	Most abundant fatty acids in total lipids	Reference
Haruan (<i>Channa striata</i> Bloch, 1793)	C18:2n-6 > C18:1 > C18:0 > C16:0 > C20:4n-6	Jais et al. (1998)
Amberjack (<i>Seriola dumerili</i> Risso, 1810)	C16:0 > C18:1n-9 > C22:1n-9 > C18:0 > C24:1n-9	Sato et al. (2008)
Spotted halibut (<i>Verasper variegatus</i> Temminck & Schlegel, 1846)	C18:1n-9 > C22:1n-9 > C16:0 > C24:1n-9 > C18:0	Sato et al. 2008
Bluestreak cleaner wrasse (<i>Labroides dimidiatus</i> Valenciennes, 1839)	C18:2n-6 > C16:0 > C20:1n-11 > C20:0 > C18:1n-9 > C18:2n-6t > C18:3n-6	Rahman et al. (2012)
Flathead grey mullet (<i>Mugil cephalus</i> L.)	C18:1n-9 > C18:4n-3 > C16:0 > C18:3n-6 > C18:3n-3 > C18:0	Balasubramanian and Gunasekaran (2015)
Gilthead sea bream (<i>Sparus aurata</i> L.)	C18:1n-9 > C16:0 > C22:6n-3 > C18:2n-6	Torrecillas et al. (2019)
Atlantic salmon (<i>Salmo salar</i> L.)	C16:0 > C22:6n-3 > C18:1n-9 > C18:0 > C20:5n-3	This study

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