Hyperkyphosis in longnose gar (Lepisosteus osseus) of north central Texas

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Two female longnose gar (Lepisosteus osseus, hereafter gar) exhibiting a hyperkyphotic (hump-backed) condition (Fig. 1) were captured using archery (bowfishing) equipment on 25 April 2010 at Lake Arrowhead, Clay County, Texas. Lake Arrowhead was impounded in 1966 by the damming of Little Wichita River. The lake has a surface area of approximately 6036 ha, a maximum depth of about 14 m near the dam, high turbidity, and high pool-elevation fluctuation (1.2–1.8 m) due to extensive municipal water use by the city of Wichita Falls (approximately 24 km to the northwest) and neighboring communities. The 2 fish were captured amongst other actively spawning gar near the East Little Post Oak Creek Bridge (33.656347° N, 98.411583° W) in the lower portion of the reservoir.

Total length (TL, mm) and mass (nearest 5 g) of the 2 specimens were measured, and observations of stomach contents and age were made. Gravimetric estimations of total egg counts were made from total ovary masses and subset egg counts (Johnson and Noltie 1997). Age was determined by counting anuli on the largest branchiostegal rays from each fish (Netsch and Witt 1962). The largest left-side branchiostegal rays were removed from each gar, boiled in water for approximately 10 minutes, and stripped of all soft tissue. The branchiostegal rays were then briefly soaked in a diluted Clorox® solution (Klaassen and Morgan 1974) and cleared in mineral oil; annuli bands that extended completely across the ray were counted using a dissecting microscope (Johnson and Noltie 1997, Love 2004). The gar were eviscerated, and the ganoid scales were carefully removed using metal snips so the underlying musculature could be examined and to facilitate efficacious computerized tomography (CT) scans of the abnormal areas. CT scans of the vertebral columns of both anomalous gar were compared to those of a normal female gar of comparable size captured the same day. Scans were conducted at Wilbarger General Hospital, Vernon, Texas, using a 64-channel multidetector CT scanner (Brilliance CT 64-channel scanner, Philips Medical Systems, Cleveland, OH).

The larger of the 2 deformed gar had a TL of 1251 mm and a mass of 7455 g; the estimated egg count was 47,360, and age was 19 years. The smaller malformed gar had a TL of 1126 mm and a mass of 4705 g; the estimated egg count was 39,444, and age was 9 years. Neither of the 2 deformed gar had spawned, evidenced by ovaries that were filled completely with eggs. The normal female gar had a TL of 1143 mm, a mass of...
4,790 g, and an age of 15 years; comparative total estimated egg counts were not made due to substantial egg releases already incurred by spawning activity.

The larger deformed gar had 4 partially digested gizzard shad (*Dorosoma cepedianum*) in its stomach, and the smaller gar had one unidentifiable digested baitfish (probably *Dorosoma* sp.) in its stomach; the normal female’s stomach was empty. Prior to capture, both kyphotic gar were briefly observed exhibiting abnormal swimming behavior with constricted, stiff, and awkward movements; however, both appeared to be in good overall condition, evidenced by significant quantities of visceral fat. Moreover, both the 19-year-old and 9-year-old kyphotic longnose gar exceeded both the weighted mean calculated length of equal-age longnose gar ($\bar{x}_{19} = 1194$ mm, $\bar{x}_9 = 958$ mm) and the fecundity estimates (mean egg count = 30,000+) of the top 50% of captured female longnose gar from streams in Missouri (Netsch and Witt 1962). Likewise, the smaller kyphotic gar exceeded the mean total length for 9-year-old female longnose gar from a Kansas reservoir ($\bar{x} = 1013$ mm; Klaassen and Morgan 1974), while both kyphotic longnose gar fell well within the range of 88% of lengths (900–1400 mm) and 85% of weights (3–10 kg) of female longnose gar from 2 large streams in southwestern Oklahoma (Tyler et al. 1994). Despite their deformities, both females were actively participating in pre-spawning activities, including being corralled by multiple smaller males on the water’s surface near rocky spawning grounds, continuous audible gulping (despite normal dissolved oxygen levels), and breaching/popming of the rostrum against the water surface.

No evidence of scarring on the external or internal sides of the scale armor near the deformed trunk regions was observed in either gar, though slight scarring was occasionally evident in other nonaffected areas. However, the larger gar had a small area of increased spacing among interlocking scales directly superior to the kyphotic region. This increased spacing was likely due to years of excessive angular stress placed on those scales and subsequent interstitial deposition of ganoine. Scar tissue or other evidence of mechanical damage to the epaxial musculature was not apparent in the deformed areas of either specimen after the scale armor was removed.

CT scans of the axial skeletons revealed antero-posterior compression, as well as abnormal fusion and articulation of 3 trunk vertebrae (numbers 26–28) in the larger specimen and 4 trunk vertebrae (numbers 22–25) in the smaller specimen.
CT scans also revealed distorted centra and hyperdorsal displacement of basapophyses and adjoining ventral ribs (Figs. 2, 3), particularly in the smaller gar. The obtusely angled apex (approximately 136 for the larger gar and approximately 138 for the smaller gar) and fusion of both vertebral columns resulted in hyperkyphosis in both specimens. Neural spines in the kyphotic regions of both gar were markedly flattened against the spinal column in comparison to a normal gar, probably as a result of compression against the rigid dorsal-scale armor (Fig. 2). Although neural spines and neural zygapophyses in the abnormal gar were oriented in atypical

Fig. 2. A and B, lateral CT scans of 2 hyperkyphotic female gar (A, 19 years old; B, 9 years old) in spawning condition captured 25 April 2010 from Lake Arrowhead, Clay County, Texas; C, a comparable normal female gar (15 years old) in spawning condition captured the on the same day at the same location. Anterior is oriented to the left, and fused vertebrae lie between the arrows.
positions, they did not appear to be physically damaged, nor were there any visible indicators of previous injuries (e.g., healed fracture lines). Additionally, the kyphotic spinal regions of both gar did not show evidence of dystrophic calcification or metaplastic replacement by fibrocartilaginous elements around the fused vertebrae, as might be expected in response to severe injury.

Previous reports of skeletal anomalies in the longnose gar (Kroger and Guthrie 1973) and the spotted gar (L. oculatus; Tyler 1987) exist, but this is the first reported case of kyphosis in either species. Although vertebral fusion is known to occur among mammalian vertebrae in response to injury, fusion requires a type-III injury, in which the opposing endplates of juxtaposed centra and the intervertebral disc are both substantially injured (Korres et al. 2000). Whether piscine vertebrae respond in a predictable, similar fashion is unknown; however, previous research has demonstrated some
cases of almost total regeneration of severed spinal columns in goldfish (Bignami et al. 1974). In addition, some evidence exists regarding vertebral fusion in fish as a result of trauma from electric shock (Dalbey and McMahon 1996). However, Roach (1992), who studied electrofishing-induced injuries to the morphologically similar northern pike (Esox lucius), indicated that very few pike (5%–12%) incurred significant fractured or separated vertebral columns from electrofishing activities, and all pike with such injuries also suffered from severe internal hemorrhaging, though 92% of shocked pike survived. Moreover, though electrofishing activities by the Texas Parks and Wildlife Department (TPWD) have been conducted on a regular basis in Lake Arrowhead since 1988, very few seem to be impacted by this activity (M. Howell, TPWD fisheries biologist, personal communication); however, such observations may be skewed by the fact that electrically stunned pike often sink rapidly to the bottom, rather than float up to the water’s surface (Burr 1931).

Skeletal deformities in fish and other vertebrates have been attributed to several possible causes such as response to injury or electric shock (e.g., electrofishing), genetic factors, unfavorable developmental conditions, or metal pollutants, among others (Sloof 1982). Lepisosteids have been recognized as important environmental indicator and biomarker species (Hartley et al. 1996, Huang et al. 1997, Huggett et al. 2001, Burger et al. 2004) because of their resilience, predatory habits, and high potential for biomagnification of environmental toxins. Notorious bioaccumulating pollutants include mercury (Valentine 1975), selenium (Lemly 1993), cadmium (Eaton 1974), lead (Holcombe et al. 1976), zinc (Bengtsson 1974), and arsenic (Willhite 1981), several of which are released by coal-fired power plants in fly ash (often used in road construction) or vented as airborne emission by-products. These contaminants may be carried by prevailing winds or runoff, dispersing far from their point of origin and into area surface waters.

No chemical testing of the anomalous gar tissues was performed due to limited funding and the high cost of such tests which may exceed $2000 per sample (K. Wiles, Texas Department of State Health Services, personal communication). However, a recent analysis of lake sediment sample concentrations exceeding the respective threshold-effect concentration (Ingersoll et al. 2001) for arsenic, chromium, copper, lead, and nickel, but below the probable-effect concentrations; no testing for mercury compounds was attempted.

Determining aetiology in these 2 cases, whether via deleterious/polluted environmental conditions, injury, or congenital mutations, remains difficult. If bioaccumulating pollutants caused these deformities, other fish species in the lake should, on occasion, exhibit similar conditions; however, no known records of skeletal deformities from abundant neighboring game fish (e.g., white crappie, white bass, blue catfish) or rough fish (e.g., spotted gar, shorthorn gar, drum, smallmouth buffalo, bignose buffalo, common carp) exist from Lake Arrowhead, though such cases may go unreported. Additionally, evidence from the CT scans coupled with the known developmental processes of lepisosteid vertebrae provides helpful insights. No evidence of previous segmentation, metaplasia, or osteogenic healing was visible in the fused vertebrae of either hyperkyphotic gar (Figs. 2, 3). If hyperkyphosis in these gar resulted from injury, then evidence of such injuries should manifest in those vertebrae; however, injuries incurred at very early (i.e., larval) life stages may not be readily apparent. Lepisosteid vertebrae are also unique in that they are opisthocoelous—the only such vertebrae known among extant fish. Furthermore, unlike the advanced teleosts, the completely ossified centra in Lepisosteus form by endochondral replacement of perichondral mesenchyme, and segmentation of those centra occurs only after the formation of the opisthocoelous joint (Laerm 1982). Thus, the complete absence of segmentation in these fused gar vertebrae, and the lack of evidence for either an injury or pollutant-related cause, suggests a congenital aetiology for disruption of the normal ontogeny in these fused opisthocoelous joints.

I thank the management and technical support staff of the Wilbarger General Hospital Radiology Department for their time and expertise and for the use of their equipment, which greatly enhanced this manuscript. Among these personnel, I especially thank C. McKee, P. Bachman, and S. Mitchell for their extraordinary helpfulness and generosity. Two anonymous reviewers provided helpful comments on an earlier version of the manuscript.
LITERATURE CITED


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Received 5 September 2010
Accepted 22 October 2010