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► **To cite this version:**

Joël Gautron. Recent advances on the avian eggshell biomineralization and on involvement of extracellular vesicles. 26. World Poultry Congress (WPC 2022), WPSA French Branch, Aug 2022, Paris, France. hal-04217301

**HAL Id: hal-04217301**

**<https://hal.inrae.fr/hal-04217301>**

Submitted on 25 Sep 2023

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1 **Recent advances on the avian eggshell biomineralization and on involvement of**  
2 **extracellular vesicles**

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6 **Abbreviated title:** Review on avian eggshell biomineralization

7 **Summary**

8 The eggshell is a critical barrier against mechanical stresses and microbial penetration. Its  
9 integrity is essential to maintain the hygienic quality of this basic human food and to limit the  
10 number of downgraded eggs. The eggshell is made of 95% mineral phase (calcium carbonate  
11 on calcite form) and an organic matrix (3.5%) mostly containing proteins. Eggshell formation  
12 arises from an extra-cellular biomineralization process. We describe in this review, the latest  
13 advances in the formation of the eggshell, which takes place in a fluid that contains eggshell  
14 precursors and involves a transient phase of amorphous calcium carbonate (ACC). We also  
15 describe recent insight on the identification of transient amorphous calcium carbonate  
16 explaining this rapid mineralization process. We also report on the advances on the function of  
17 shell matrix proteins to interact with mineral, thus determining the crystal polymorph, the first  
18 event of nucleation and the final texture of the shell and consequently its resulting mechanical  
19 properties. The role of vesicular transport to provide stabilized ACC in chicken uterine fluid  
20 where mineralization takes place was also demonstrated recently. These extra-cellular vesicles  
21 play a crucial role in eggshell mineralization, in which annexins transfer calcium into vesicles  
22 and carbonic anhydrase 4 catalyzes the formation of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ , for accumulation of ACC in  
23 vesicles. ACC is stabilized by ovalbumin and/or lysozyme or additional proteins identified in  
24 vesicles in this study. Finally, EDIL3 and MFGE8 are proposed to guide EVs to the  
25 mineralization site.

26 **Keywords:** Chicken, eggshell, biomineralization, calcium supply, extracellular vesicles

27 **Introduction**

28 The eggshell constitutes the external envelope of the eggs and fulfils five essential functions to  
29 allow the harmonious development of a chicken embryo. It prevents the dehydration of the  
30 internal environment of the terrestrial egg, it ensures a role of physical protection against the

31 shocks, a thermic protection, it allows gas exchanges and it prevents the penetration of the  
32 microbes. The shell is the only non-consumable part of an egg, and a large number of socio-  
33 economic issues for the consumer egg industry will depend on its integrity and quality. Thus,  
34 cracked shells will lead to an economic loss for the producer and to food infection risks for the  
35 consumers. Moreover, in the current context of evolution of the societal demand for rearing  
36 systems with outdoor runs and an extension of the production period, the maintenance of the  
37 integrity of the shell is then preponderant to guarantee a healthy egg and preserving good  
38 mechanical properties (Gautron et al., 2021). The shell quality depends of numerous factors as  
39 genetics of the birds, the hen's physiology, the environment, the nutrition and management of  
40 hens. Then finally the egg quality is depending of the « insult » that occur in the rearing system,  
41 the egg transport and egg sorting. Many of these factors impacting shell quality are perfectly  
42 controlled. The use of appropriate genetic, optimal nutrition, limit but do not eliminate the  
43 breakage, notably for elderly birds for which the egg percentage breakage can increase to 10-  
44 12% at the end of laying period.

45 Further improvement of the mechanical properties of the shell will be achieved by taking into  
46 account not only the mass of the shell, but also mechanisms largely dependent on the  
47 ultrastructure of the shell, i.e. the arrangement, shape and orientation of the constituent crystals  
48 that give the shell its structure and mechanical properties (Gautron et al., 2021, Nys et al., 2022).  
49 This manufacturing process is the result of an interaction between minerals and proteins  
50 secreted in the formation environment that control this process. The knowledge of these  
51 processes is crucial to allow the integration of this component in new genomic selection  
52 programs and also to study nutritional factors such as vitamin D whose metabolism could be  
53 limiting at different periods of the hen's life and, which could potentially be corrected by  
54 nutrition. The objective of this paper is therefore to review the state of knowledge on the  
55 mechanisms of eggshell biomineralization, in order to identify avenues for further  
56 improvement.

### 57 **Eggshell structure, formation and composition**

58 The chicken eggshell contains 1.6 % water, 3.3 to 3.5 % organic matrix when eggshell  
59 membranes are included and 95 % inorganic minerals. It is mainly made of calcium carbonate  
60 (98.4 % of its mineral part), which is pervaded by an organic matrix corresponding to 2.3 % of  
61 the shell weight. From inside to outside, six different layers are observed in the eggshell  
62 (Gautron et al., 2021). In chicken, the most documented bird, the eggshell is about 0.4 mm  
63 thick. The innermost layers are made of two shell membranes composed of interlacing protein

64 fibers. There are two of them and they are entirely made up of organic matter. The inner shell  
65 membrane is 20  $\mu\text{m}$  thick and is in contact with the egg white. It is from the outer shell  
66 membrane (50  $\mu\text{m}$ ) that the mineralisation of the shell is initiated to give rise to the mammillary  
67 layer. The mamillary layer of about 70  $\mu\text{m}$  is the innermost part of the calcified layer. Its base  
68 consists of the mamillary knobs which are organic clusters deposited on the surface of the outer  
69 shell membrane and from which mineralisation is initiated. The mineralisation continues  
70 outwards, initially forming a cone or mamelon-like structure. The palisade layer begins when  
71 the multidirectional growth of the cones of the mamillary layer leads to a fusion of adjacent  
72 cones. The palisade layer is therefore a compact layer of minerals associated with an organic  
73 framework. This continuity is broken at the level of the pores which cross the shell from one  
74 side to the other to allow the gas exchanges necessary for the development of the embryo. A  
75 surface layer of small adjacent single calcite crystals is then deposited vertically on the surface  
76 of the palisade layer under the cuticle. The cuticle is the outermost layer of the egg and consists  
77 of organic material. The cuticle closes the pores and thus prevents the penetration of bacteria  
78 into the egg. Gas exchange is made possible by cracks that appear in the dried cuticle.

79 Shell mineralisation occurs in the uterine part of the oviduct of birds. When the egg enters the  
80 uterus five hours after ovulation of the yolk, it is a soft egg on which mineralisation will start  
81 in a process that will last about 17 hours in the laying hen. This process takes place in the lumen  
82 of the organ, where the physico-chemical conditions necessary for cell-free biomineralisation  
83 are present. Shell formation is temporally controlled, and in chickens four main steps can be  
84 identified during the 17 h process (from 5 h to 22 h post-ovulation) (Rodriguez-Navarro et al.  
85 2015). They corresponded to the initial stages dominated by amorphous calcium carbonate  
86 (ACC) deposition on eggshell membranes (5 h p.o.), its progressive transformation to form  
87 calcite aggregates on mammillary knobs surrounded by ACC particle and the growth of large  
88 calcite units surrounded by ACC. Calcite crystals rapidly grow to form larger crystal units. The  
89 interaction with eggshell organic matrix components inhibits calcite crystal faces parallel to the  
90 c-axis, thus causing elongated crystal growth in this direction. Calcite crystals growing with  
91 their c-axis nearly perpendicular to the surface block the growth of adjacent crystals with less  
92 favourable orientations, resulting in the development of columnar calcite units. Finally,  
93 mineralization is terminated and a thin proteinaceous layer (cuticle) is deposited on the shell  
94 surface.

95

96 **Molecular control of the avian eggshell biomineralization**

97 There are two physiological processes that allow the mineralisation of the shell. They are the  
98 transfer mechanisms of the large quantity of minerals necessary for the formation of the shell  
99 and the biomineralisation process controlled by the organic matrix to give an ordered structure  
100 with exceptional mechanical properties.

#### 101 *Role of organic matrix proteins during eggshell biomineralization*

102 During its formation, the shell is bathed in a uterine fluid (UF) secreted by uterine cells that  
103 contains the organic and mineral precursors necessary for shell calcification (Gautron et al.,  
104 1997). The transition of ions to a crystalline state is achieved through amorphous transitional  
105 forms allowing crystallisation under physiological conditions. In birds, calcium carbonate is  
106 initially deposited as an amorphous calcium carbonate phase (ACC), which progressively  
107 transforms into calcite (Rodriguez et al., 2015). Matrix proteins play a crucial role in this  
108 process. They stabilize ACC, promote crystal nucleation, select the calcite polymorph, and  
109 regulate the evolution of crystal size and morphology (Gautron et al., 2021 ; Dominiguez-Vera  
110 et al., 2000 ; Hernandez-Hernandez et al., 2008). These matrix–mineral interactions determine  
111 the orientation of calcite crystals, which results in the complex ultrastructure of the eggshell, its  
112 texture, and consequently, its mechanical properties. These observations have largely  
113 stimulated research to identify organic matrix proteins by proteomic and transcriptomic  
114 approaches. The set of sequences identified were grouped into 904, 697, 622, 475, 484 and 149  
115 unique proteins constituting the chicken, turkey, quail, zebra finch, duck and Guinea fowl  
116 eggshell proteomes (Gautron et al., 2019; Mann and Mann, 2013; 2015; Mann, 2015; Le Roy  
117 et al., 2019). The role and function of these proteins in shell calcification has only been studied  
118 in chicken and only for a limited number (Gautron et al., 2021; Hincke et al., 2012). Among  
119 this large list of shell matrix proteins, are proteins with an established role in the  
120 biomineralization, which directly interact with the mineral phase to stabilize ACC and/or to  
121 modify the morphology of crystals that determine the eggshell ultrastructure of avian eggshells  
122 and their resulting mechanical properties. Another group is composed of proteins involved in  
123 the regulation of proteins directing mineralization. This group is made of uterine fluid proteins  
124 that interact with proteins directing mineralization. Indeed, mineralization takes place in an  
125 acellular medium and the proteins belonging to this group inhibit or activate proteins of the  
126 mineralization milieu. Some of these proteins may be involved in proper folding of eggshell  
127 matrix proteins to ensure an appropriate template for calcium and mineral interactions. Protease  
128 and protease inhibitors are also belonging to this group. They are believed to play specific and

129 controlled roles during the calcification process, either by degrading proteins or regulating  
130 processing of proteins into their mature forms.

### 131 *Regulation of calcium supply*

132 The calcium metabolism linked to egg formation in birds is strongly exaggerated. Indeed, there  
133 is no calcium storage in the shell gland (uterus) before shell formation (Nys et al., 2022).  
134 Calcium is directly provided by ionic blood calcium, to supply daily the necessary 2 g of shell  
135 calcium. Calcium is provided by the hen diet, directly by intestinal absorption, although 40%  
136 of this is derived from bone mobilisation because of desynchronization between the period of  
137 feed intake (daytime) and shell formation, which mainly takes place during the night (Nys et  
138 Le Roy, 2018; Nys et al., 2022). Both components of the shell mineral ( $\text{Ca}_2^+$  and  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ ) are  
139 continuously supplied during eggshell formation via the blood plasma, firstly by trans-epithelial  
140 ionic transport through the uterine epithelium and secondly, by vesicular secretion of ACC  
141 mineral particles.

142 A comprehensive and further refined model for calcium and carbonate transport to the  
143 mineralization site during eggshell formation was recently proposed (Nys et al., 2018; Nys et  
144 al., 2022; Gautron et al., 2021). Calcium and carbon dioxide originate from the blood. Blood  
145  $\text{CO}_2$  passively diffuses into uterine cells (Hodges and Lörcher, 1967), where it is hydrated by  
146 Carbonic Anhydrase 2 (CA2). Alternatively, bicarbonate can be actively transferred into uterine  
147 cells using the  $\text{Na}^+/\text{HCO}_3^-$  co-transporters SLC4A4-A5-A10 (Nys and Le Roy, 2018).  
148 Bicarbonates are actively extruded from cells by the  $\text{HCO}_3^-/\text{Cl}^-$  exchanger SLC26A9 (Nys and  
149 Le Roy, 2018). Additionally, bicarbonate ions can be directly produced in the uterine fluid by  
150 hydration of  $\text{CO}_2$  by membrane-bound CA4, which has its active site in the extracellular space  
151 (Zhu et al., 1990). The transcellular pathway to secrete calcium and bicarbonate ions into the  
152 fluid has been previously described (Jonchère et al., 2012; Brionne et al., 2014). Plasma  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$   
153 is transferred into uterine cells by transient receptor potential cation channels (TRPVs) and/or  
154 otopetrin 2 (OTOP2) and/or ATPase secretory pathway  $\text{Ca}_2^+$  transporting 2 (ATP2C2) (Sah et  
155 al., 2018; Nys and Le Roy, 2018). Intracellular calcium ions are buffered/transferred by  
156 calbindin. Other  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  pumps associated with the endoplasmic reticulum could also be involved  
157 in this transfer (ATP2A2/3 and ITPR1/2/3). Finally, the  $\text{Ca}_2^+/\text{Na}_2^+$  exchangers SLC8A1-3 and  
158 the  $\text{Ca}_2^+$  pumps ATP2B1-B2 are involved in the apical extrusion of calcium into the uterine  
159 fluid (Sah et al., 2018; Nys and Le Roy, 2018). Uterine  $\text{Ca}_2^+$  secretion is quantitatively  
160 associated with calbindin levels and the regulation of uterine calcium transfer in conjunction  
161 with its synthesis has been studied in detail (Nys and Le Roy, 2018; Bar, 2009).

162 A paracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake pathway is present in intestine [95] and acts to replenish calcium  
163 from dietary sources during eggshell biomineralization when soluble calcium in the intestinal  
164 lumen creates a favorable gradient for passive absorption. This intestinal paracellular pathway  
165 involves claudins (CLDN), occludins (OCN), junctional adhesion molecules (JAM) and tight  
166 junction proteins (TJP) (Gloux et al., 2019). RNA-Seq analysis reveals the expression of several  
167 genes of this paracellular pathway (Tjp1, Cldn1, Cldn10, Ocln, Jam2) (Gautron et al., 2020).  
168 Moreover, expression of Cldn10 has also been detected in chicken uterus (Sah et al., 2018; Yin  
169 et al., 2019). This paracellular pathway is probably contributing to the secretion of water and  
170 ions for osmotic regulation (K, Na) during the process of eggshell formation. The ionic calcium  
171 concentration in uterine fluid ranges from 6 to 10 mM depending of the stage of calcification  
172 (Nys et al., 1991), which is 6 times higher than blood calcium levels (1-2 mM); consequently,  
173 the concentration gradient is not in favor of calcium movement towards the uterine fluid through  
174 the paracellular pathway (Nys and Le Roy, 2018). However, Bar (2009) suggested that the  
175 electrical potential difference could invert this gradient, allowing some paracellular transfer of  
176 calcium into the uterine fluid. Consequently, the paracellular pathway could participate to  
177 maintain ionic and osmotic homeostasis.

#### 178 *Extracellular vesicles to transport and stabilize transient forms of calcium*

179 More recently, Stapane et al (2019-2020), have demonstrated a vesicular mechanism to stabilise  
180 the transient forms of calcium carbonate necessary for calcite crystal formation. Evaluation of  
181  $\text{CaCO}_3$  vesicular transport in chicken uterus was initiated following the observation of high  
182 levels of vesicular protein markers (EDIL3 and MFGE8) in eggshell and in uterine fluid during  
183 shell formation (Marie et al., 2015a). Bioinformatics tools, mRNA levels and protein  
184 quantification were used to explore the role of EDIL3 and MFGE8 in chicken eggshell  
185 biomineralization. In avian uterus, transmission electron microscopy (TEM) observations  
186 demonstrated the presence of intracellular vesicles (100 to 500 nm) in the cytoplasm of the  
187 epithelial ciliated cells (Stapane et al., 2020). Vesicles accumulate at the apical plasma  
188 membrane and bud to secrete extracellular vesicles (EVs), which were revealed in uterine fluid  
189 adjacent to the apical region of uterine cells (Stapane et al., 2020). The presence of calcium  
190 carbonate as ACC in the vesicles was confirmed by electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS)  
191 and by energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopic (EDS). Electron diffraction on EVs extracted  
192 from uterine fluid indicated that the calcium carbonate inside vesicles was amorphous, similar  
193 to the ACC previously identified at the initial stage of eggshell formation (Rodriguez-Navarro  
194 et al., 2015). This observation was further explored by studying the presence of major EV

195 proteins using transcriptomics, proteomics and immunochemistry to decipher the origin and  
196 mechanisms of vesicle formation and function.

197 EDIL3 and MFGE8 bind to EVs budding from uterine cells into the uterine fluid, in order to  
198 guide vesicular transport of stabilized ACC for delivery to the mineralizing site and moreover  
199 prevent non-specific precipitation. Three annexins (Anxa 1, 2 and 8) are expressed at high levels  
200 in the uterus at the onset of shell formation (Stapane et al., 2020), in agreement with previous  
201 proteomics studies (Mann, 2006; Jonchere et al., 2012; Marie et al., 2015b), and were revealed  
202 in the epithelium (Anxa 1, 8) and tubular glands (Anxa 8) by immunochemistry. Annexins are  
203 Ca channels proposed to contribute to uptake of Ca for intra-vesicular ACC formation. EDIL3  
204 is overexpressed in the uterus and is specific to the uterine fluid EV fraction (Stapane et al.  
205 2019; 2020). This protein possesses an EGF-like calcium- binding domain and is hypothesized  
206 to guide EVs to the mineralisation front. Carbonic anhydrase 4 (CA4) is present in the epithelial  
207 cells and in EVs and is highly expressed at the early stage of shell formation. CA4 catalyzes  
208 the reversible hydration of CO<sub>2</sub> forming HCO<sub>3</sub> and might contribute to accumulation of ACC  
209 in vesicles.

210 A global representation of vesicular transport and molecular actors during eggshell  
211 mineralization was proposed (Stapane et al., 2020; Gautron et al., 2021; Nys et al., 2022).  
212 Annexins would promote calcium entry into EVs, whereas CA4 would catalyze the hydration  
213 of CO<sub>2</sub> into bicarbonate ions. ACC accumulates inside EVs and is stabilized by specific  
214 proteins. EDIL3 and potentially MFGE8 would serve as guidance molecules to deliver vesicular  
215 ACC to the mineralization site. The quantitative contribution of the vesicular secretion of  
216 CaCO<sub>3</sub>, relative to the secretion of each ion by the transcellular pathway, remains to be  
217 explored.

#### 218 *Vitamin D and Regulation of the molecular actors involved in the shell calcification*

219 If the calcium contained in the eggshell comes entirely from the food, there is a  
220 desynchronization between the need for calcium for the formation of the eggshell during the  
221 night and the dietary intake of this calcium during the day. To do this, the hen has a particular  
222 bone structure, the medullary bone, which is mobilized during the night to provide part of the  
223 calcium necessary for the calcification of the shell. During the day, when the hen has access to  
224 its food, the medullary part of the bone will be mineralized again (Nys et al., 2022). The  
225 regulation of calcium metabolism during shell formation in the hen involves many organs. First,  
226 the gut, which will allow the transfer of calcium to the bone and uterus, via the bloodstream. It

227 also involves the uterus, which will have to transfer to the calcification site (uterine fluid), large  
228 quantities of calcium necessary for the formation of the shell while maintaining cellular  
229 homeostasis. Vitamin D and in particular its active metabolite ( $1.25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ ), will play a crucial  
230 role in the regulation of calcium transfers at the intestinal and bone level. Vitamin D is first  
231 hydroxylated to 25-hydroxycholecalciferol ( $25\text{-OH-D}_3$ ) in the liver before being hydroxylated  
232 to  $1.25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$  in the kidney (Christakos. et al, 2010). The use of the hydroxylated form ( $25\text{-}$   
233  $\text{OH-D}_3$ ) in the feed has a metabolic advantage by avoiding the initial hepatic step and would  
234 allow for better availability of the intermediate vitamin D metabolite. This role at the uterine  
235 level has been little explored and it is generally accepted that vitamin D would have no effect  
236 at the uterine level in the hen. In a recent study (Gautron et al., 2022), hens were fed with  
237 vitamin  $\text{D}_3$  and hydroxylated form ( $25\text{-OH-D}_3$ ) and the expression level in the uterus was  
238 analyzed for 91 genes. Of these, 17 genes encode organic matrix proteins known to play a major  
239 role in shell mineralization and 65 encode transporters of calcium, bicarbonate and other ions  
240 necessary for mineralization. Additionally, 21 overexpressed genes code for paracellular  
241 transport proteins and 44 allow transcellular transfers. It is particularly notable that all of these  
242 genes are stimulated by  $25\text{-OH-D}_3$ . This study clearly shown that vitamin D plays an important  
243 role in the regulation of calcium and mineral transfers in the hen's uterus. This role is not limited  
244 to calcium transfers to the gut and bone as previously described. Furthermore, this study shows  
245 that the use of the hydroxylated form of vitamin  $\text{D}_3$  as  $25\text{-OH-D}_3$  allows an overexpression of  
246 many genes involved in the transcellular, vesicular and paracellular calcium transfer pathways,  
247 as well as an overexpression of genes encoding organic matrix proteins.

248

## 249 **Conclusion**

250 The shell of chicken eggs is a complex structure and although it is not eaten, it is crucial to  
251 allow the marketing of eggs. It is therefore the object of particular attention from the point of  
252 view of breeding to improve its mechanical properties, as well as for scientists to understand its  
253 calcification. During the last 20 years, considerable progress has been made in terms of  
254 understanding the mechanisms of regulation, mineral supply and molecular actors of its  
255 biomineralization, which are at the origin of the mechanical properties of this natural  
256 biomaterial. This knowledge is already being used by breeders to integrate this component into  
257 the precision of genomic selection and to allow new gains other than those integrating shell  
258 mass alone. Recently, it has also been shown that shell formation is dependent on vitamin D  
259 and its form of intake. All this knowledge opens an important field of perspectives for a genetic-

260 nutrition interaction in order to improve shell quality in a sustainable way during production  
261 cycles maintained at advanced ages and in a strong context of evolution of the production  
262 systems of eggs for consumption towards alternative breeding.

263

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