- 1 Sex-specific transcription and DNA methylation profiles of reproductive and
- 2 epigenetic associated genes in the gonads and livers of breeding zebrafish.
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#### Abstract:

Reproduction is an essential process for life and is regulated by complex hormone networks and environmental factors. To date, little is known about the contribution of epigenetic mechanisms to the regulation of reproduction, particularly in lower vertebrates. We used the zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) model to investigate the sex-specific transcription and DNA methylation profiles for genes involved in the regulation of reproduction and in epigenetic signalling in the livers and gonads. We found evidence for associations between DNA promotor methylation and transcription for *esr1* (gonads and female livers), *amh* (gonads) and *dnmt1* (livers). In the liver, *esr1* was shown to be significantly over-expressed in females compared to males, and its promoter was significantly hypo-methylated in females compared to males. In the gonads, genes involved in epigenetic processes including *dnmt1*, *dnmt3* and *hdac1* were over-expressed in the ovary compared to the testis. In addition, *dnmt1* and *dnmt3* transcription in the testis was found to be strongly correlated with global DNA methylation. These data provide evidence of the sex-specific epigenetic regulation and transcription of genes involved in reproduction and epigenetic signalling in a commonly used vertebrate model.

**Keywords:** LUMA assay, pyrosequencing, teleost, gamete, hepatic, germ cells.

#### 1. Introduction:

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Reproduction is essential for species proliferation and a variety of sexual and asexual reproductive strategies have evolved in multicellular organisms. Vertebrates generally reproduce sexually and, for gonochoristic species, undifferentiated gonads differentiate into either ovaries or testis during development. Compared to mammals, where sex determination is controlled by a cascade of molecular events associated with the presence or absence of the sex determining region in the Y chromosome (SRY) (Eggers et al., 2014), many fish species, including the zebrafish, display a greater degree of plasticity with regards to sexual determination and differentiation (Martínez et al., 2014; Ribas et al., 2017). Studies in medaka have shown that DMY (the DM-domain gene on the Y chromosome), an SRY homologue, is the key initiator of male masculinisation (Chakraborty et al., 2016; Matsuda et al., 2007). For zebrafish, evidence for polygenic sex determination mechanisms have been proposed (Liew et al., 2012; Wilson et al., 2014). Despite the variability in sex determination mechanisms, the downstream pathways regulating sex differentiation and reproductive function are well conserved across vertebrates (Aron, 1979; Hewitt and Korach, 2003; Piferrer, 2001; Simerly, 2002). At the level of the gonads, large numbers of transcripts were reported to be differentially expressed between ovaries and testis in a range of vertebrate species including the zebrafish (Santos et al., 2007; Wen et al., 2005), rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss) (Daniel Baron et al., 2005) and mouse (Menke and Page, 2002). Several of these genes have been linked to gonad differentiation including anti-mullerian hormone (amh) and sry (sex determining region Y)-box 9a (sox9a), both predominantly expressed in the testis, and aromatase (cyp19a1a), an enzyme responsible for catalyzing the irreversible conversion of androgen to estrogens, predominantly expressed in the ovaries (Rodríguez-Marí et al., 2005; Santos et al., 2007). Although less pronounced, sexual dimorphism in gene transcription has also been reported in other tissues for both mammals and fish, including in the brain, liver, kidney, muscle and adipose tissue

(Ribas et al., 2017; Rinn and Snyder, 2005; Santos et al., 2008; Yang et al., 2006; Zheng et al., 2013).

In the liver of fish (and other oviparous vertebrates), vitellogenin (vtg) and zona radiata proteins (zrp) are strongly over-expressed in females and their expression are regulated by estrogens (Arukwe and Goksøyr, 2003; Tyler et al., 1999). In addition, estrogen receptor 1 (esr1) transcription was found to be greater in the livers of females compared to males in the fathead minnow (Pimephales promelas), but in contrast estrogen receptor 2b (esr2b) was significantly higher in males (Filby and Tyler, 2005).

Besides being regulated by molecular and endocrine factors, sexual differentiation in fish is sensitive to environmental cues, including temperature and oxygen saturation, and can be disturbed when fish are exposed to altered environmental conditions resulting in altered sex ratios in fish populations (Baroiller et al., 2009; Shang et al., 2006). The role of epigenetic processes on both the endogenous and environmental regulation of reproduction is still poorly understood (Piferrer, 2013). Several epigenetic mechanisms of gene expression regulation have been described to date, including changes in DNA methylation, histone modifications and ncRNAs (Goldberg et al., 2007; Vandegehuchte and Janssen, 2011) and they all have the potential to contribute to the regulation of expression of reproductive genes. Recent reports have focused principally on DNA methylation and evidence from a range of vertebrates have demonstrated its importance for the regulation of reproductive processes in some circumstances including in animals exposed to environmental chemicals (Laing et al., 2016) and increased temperature (Navarro-Martín et al., 2011; Ribas et al., 2017).

In mammalian species the SRY gene is normally epigenetically silenced and activated during specific developmental windows (Nishino et al., 2004), and DNA methylation has been associated with sex-linked differential expression of sex steroid hormone related genes in conjunction with histone modifications in human cells (Martinowich et al., 2003; Yamane et al., 2006). In addition, a sex difference in DNA methylation of the estrogen receptor – alpha (*esr1*) promotor region has been

reported in rats, with males exhibiting a greater proportion of DNA methylation in the preoptic area of the brain (Kurian et al., 2010).

Examples of epigenetic regulation of genes involved in reproduction have also been reported in fish species. In the Japanese Flounder (*Paralichthys olivaceus*), the expression of doublesex and Mab-3-related transcription factor 1 (*dmrt1*), a transcription factor involved in sex determination and differentiation in fish, was reported to be 70 times higher in the testis compared to the ovary in mature fish (Wen et al., 2014). The *dmrt1* promotor was found to be predominantly unmethylated in testis cells, while in the ovary the 13 CpG sites measured were found to be relatively hypermethylated (57.69%). In the same study the expression of *cyp19a1a* was found to be 40 times higher in the ovary than in the testis, with the *cyp19a1a* promoter being notably hyper-methylated on average across 12 CpG sites in the testis compared to the ovary (Wen et al., 2014). This sex related pattern of *cyp19a1a* transcription and promoter DNA methylation has also been described in the European sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*) (Navarro-Martín et al., 2011). In this study, elevated temperature resulted in the masculinization of females and was associated with an increase in *cyp19a1a* promotor DNA methylation and a decrease in gene expression, suggesting that the temperature-dependent masculinization process involves DNA methylation-mediated control of the *cyp19a1a* gene.

The zebrafish is an important model organism frequently used in studies of vertebrate development, disease, behaviour, physiology and as a model for human health research (Wilson et al., 2014). Given its extensive use as a model organism, information about the sex-specific transcription patterns and promoter DNA methylation of reproductive and epigenetic related genes is highly relevant to inform on the design and interpretation of studies investigating how reproduction is regulated and how this process is disrupted by environmental stressors. To date, little is known regarding the primary mode of sex determination, differentiation and maintenance in the zebrafish, and no true conserved sex chromosomes have been determined for lab strains (Kallivretaki et al., 2007; Sreenivasan et al.,

2008; Wilson et al., 2014). Evidence thus far suggests that zebrafish sex determination is polygenic and may require female-dominant genetic factors, and genes influencing sex determination may vary depending on the strain or environmental condition (Anderson et al., 2012; Tong et al., 2010). The present study aimed to investigate the sex-specific transcription and DNA methylation profiles for reproductive and epigenetic genes in the livers and gonads of breeding zebrafish. To achieve this, we quantified the transcription of key genes involved in epigenetic signalling and reproductive function, together with global and locus-specific DNA methylation in the gonads and livers of mature males and females.

#### 2. Materials and Methods:

### 2.1 Fish husbandry

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Adult wild-type WIK strain zebrafish (originating from a stock population at the University of Exeter) were maintained according to conditions reported by Paull and colleagues (Paull et al., 2008; Westerfield, 1995). Mains tap water was filtered by reverse osmosis and reconstituted with Analargrade mineral salts. Water was then heated to 28°C in a reservoir and aerated before it was supplied to each aquarium via a flow-through system. Preceding the start of the experiment, fish were allocated randomly into breeding groups (4 males and 4 females). These groups were then kept in individual 15 L tanks and allowed to breed naturally. Tanks were supplied with a flow rate of 48 L/day with constant aeration and maintained at 28 ± 0.5 °C and pH 7-7.5. Fish were kept under a 12h light:dark cycle, including dawn and dusk transition periods of 30 minutes and were fed live Artemia nauplii once daily (ZM Premium Grade Artemia; ZM Ltd.) and TetraMin tropical flake food (Tetra; Melle, Germany) twice daily, to satiation (Laing et al., 2016). All experiments were approved by the University of Exeter Ethics committee and conducted under approved protocols according to the UK Home Office regulations for use of animals in scientific procedures. Initially, reproduction was monitored in several colonies and after a 10-day acclimation period, breeding groups that failed to spawn consistently were removed from the experiment. Reproduction (number of eggs produced per female, % of fertilization) was monitored for a total of 25 days on the two breeding groups selected for this study. At the end of this period fish were sacrificed humanely according to UK Home Office regulations, the fork length and weight were measured; the gonads and livers were dissected, weighted, immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C for molecular analysis. The gonadosomatic index (GSI) = gonad weight (mg)/[total weight (mg)- gonad weight (mg)] x 100, hepatosomatic index (HSI) = liver weight (mg)/[total weight (mg)- liver weight (mg)] x 100 and the condition factor (k) = [weight (g) x 100]/[fork length (cm)]<sup>3</sup> were calculated for each fish.

#### 2.2 DNA and RNA isolation

RNA and DNA were extracted from the livers and gonads of 8 male and 8 female fish using the AllPrep DNA/RNA Micro Qiagen Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The extraction of both RNA and DNA was performed from the same tissue sample to allow for comparisons of the DNA methylation and transcription for the same gene within the same individual. In order to assess RNA and DNA purity and concentration, samples were analysed using a NanoDrop ND-1000 Spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technologies, Wilmington, USA).

### 2.3 Transcript profiling

Transcript profiling of genes encoding epigenetic regulatory proteins was performed. Epigenetic marker genes were selected based on their role in DNA methylation maintenance and *de novo* DNA methylation, including DNA (cytosine-5)-methyltransferase 1 (*dnmt1*) and DNA (cytosine-5)-methyltransferase 3 (*dnmt3*) respectively. Methyl binding domains and binding proteins such as methyl-CpG-binding protein 2 (*mecp2*), methyl-CpG-binding domain protein 2 (*mbd2*) and methyl-CpG-binding domain protein 3a (*mbd3a*) were also measured, representing further key targets associated with indirect regulation of transcription as a result of promoter methylation. In addition, we explored the differential transcription of histone modifiers, including histone deacetylase 1 (*hdac1*) and histone deacetylase 3 (*hdac3*), which are known to play a key role in the regulation of eukaryotic gene expression, and therefore hypothesized to play a role in differential transcriptional regulation between male and female gonads and livers.

We also measured the transcription of a number of target genes involved in reproductive processes including, aromatase (*cyp19a1a*), estrogen receptor 1 (*esr1*), estrogen receptor 2a (*esr2a*), estrogen receptor 2b (*esr2b*), androgen receptor (*ar*), anti-Mullerian hormone (*amh*), and vitellogenin (*vtg*)).

Transcription profiling was conducted using real-time quantitative PCR (RT-QPCR) as previously described (Laing et al., 2016). Primers for each target gene were designed using Beacon Designer 3.0 software (Premier Biosoft International, Paulo Alto, CA) and using zebrafish NCBI RefSeq sequences. Primers were purchased from MWG-Biotech (Ebersburg, Germany). Assays were optimized for each transcript and standard curves were generated as previously described (Uren-Webster et al., 2014). Primer specificity was confirmed by the observation of a single amplification product of the expected melting temperature throughout the range of detection of the assays. The linear correlation (R²) between the mean Ct and the logarithm of the cDNA dilution was > 0.99 in each case, and efficiencies were between 1.86 - 2.24. The primer sequences, annealing temperatures, PCR product sizes and PCR efficiencies for each primer pair were previously described in Laing et al., 2016 and are shown in Supplementary Information Table S1.

RNA was treated with DNase I (Qiagen) to remove any potential DNA contamination. 2  $\mu$ g of total RNA was then converted to cDNA using random hexamers (MWG-Biotech, Ebersberg, Germany) and M-MLV reverse transcriptase (Promega, Madison, USA), according to manufacturer's instructions. cDNA was then diluted 1:2 and RT-QPCR was performed in duplicate using an iCycler iQ Real-time Detection System (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA) and SYBR Green chemistry as previously described (Laing et al., 2016). A template-minus negative control was run in duplicate to verify the absence of contamination on each plate. Efficiency-corrected relative expression levels were determined using the  $\Delta\Delta$  Ct method (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001). Data were normalized to the control gene, ribosomal protein l8 (rpl8), shown to have stable expression in the livers and gonads in another cyprinid fish species (Filby and Tyler, 2007, 2005).

#### 2.4 Bisulfite-PCR-Pyrosequencing

The sequences of promoter regions of *esr1*, *amh* and *dnmt1* were obtained from Ensembl (release 83; Cunningham et al 2015) (Cunningham et al., 2015) using the Biomart portal (Kinsella et al., 2011). Zebrafish *esr1* (ENSDARG00000004111) has three known transcripts (*esr1*-001 (3449 bp), *esr1*-201 (3502 bp) and *esr1*-202 (212 bp)) and two TSSs. The *dnmt1* gene (ENSDARG00000030756) also has two TSSs and three transcripts (*dnmt1*-001 (4896 bp), *dnmt1*-201 (4893 bp) and *dnmt1*-202 (5031 bp)). *amh* (ENSDARG00000014357) has one transcript (*amh*-001, 3243 bp) and one TSS (Figure 1). The promoter regions were screened for the presence of putative binding sites for transcription factors known to be involved in reproduction, including estrogen-responsive elements (EREs), Dmrt3 and Sox9 using JASPAR (Sandelin et al., 2004), and the matrix models ESR1 (MA0112), ESR2 (MA0258), DMRT3 (MA0610) and SOX9 (MA0077). PCR and Pyrosequencing assays were designed using the PyroMark Assay design software (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Pyrosequencing primers and their corresponding target sequences were previously described in Laing et al., 2016 (Laing et al., 2016) and are shown in Supplementary Information Table S2.

Genomic DNA (500 ng) was treated with sodium bisulfite using the EZ-96 DNA Methylation-Gold Kit (Zymo Research, CA, USA) according to the manufacturers' standard protocol. Template preparation and pyrosequencing in a Qiagen Pyromark Q24 pyrosequencer was carried out as described by Tost and Gut (2007) (Tost and Gut, 2007) on bisulfite-treated DNA from the gonads and liver of 8 individual fish per treatment group. In this technique, the degree of methylation at each CpG position in a sequence is determined from the ratio of T and C and the analytical sensitivity is approximately 5%–10% for individual CpG dinucleotides (Mikeska and Craig, 2014). To verify the absence of DNA contamination, negative controls were run in duplicate. Bisulfite-PCR amplification was performed in duplicate using the primers and assay conditions provided in Supplementary Information Table S2. In order to confirm primer specificity for bisulfite-modified DNA, unmodified DNA samples were included during primer optimization. For figures 2-4, data are presented as an average of CpG sites within each amplicon.

### 2.5 Luminometric-Based Assay (LUMA) for Global DNA Methylation

The LUMA assay was performed using DNA extracted from gonad samples from 8 individual fish per sex, as described by Karimi and colleagues (Karimi et al., 2006). Analyses of global DNA methylation were conducted only for gonad samples since sufficient quantities of DNA were not available to perform the LUMA assay in liver samples. 250ng of each DNA sample were digested in duplicate with both Hpall and Mspl, and data were normalized to the EcoRI peak to account for any technical differences between samples (Head et al., 2014). Hpall and Mspl are restriction endonucleases which are sensitive and insensitive to CpG methylation in the sequence CCGG, respectively, while EcoRI is included in all reactions as a normalization reference. Global DNA methylation values were calculated according to the formula (Hpall(G)/EcoRI(T))/(Mspl(G)/EcoRI(T)), where G and T refer to the peak heights for Hpall or Mspl (DNA methylation) and EcoRI (input DNA), respectively.

#### 2.6 Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were carried out using R (version 3.0.2) (R Core Team, 2012). Data were tested for equal variance and for normality using the Shapiro–Wilk test prior to analysis. Comparisons between male and female groups were performed using the Student's t-Test. P values of  $\leq$ 0.05 were considered to be significant. All data are presented as mean  $\pm$  SEM.

For transcript profiles, data points classified as outliers (using Chauvenet's criterion) and data points for which the expression was below the assay detection limit were excluded from analysis. Where for both of the sexes amplification was detected in more than 70% of individuals, data were represented as relative expression. Where amplification was detected in less than 70% of the individuals from one or more of the sexes, data were represented as the proportion of individuals for which the target genes were detected.

In order to determine if there were associations between the DNA methylation levels for specific loci in the promoter regions of genes of interest and their transcription, correlation analysis was conducted. Pearson correlation was used when data was normally distributed, and where data did not meet the assumptions of parametric testing, Spearman correlation analysis was performed. Correlation analyses were also conducted to determine the relationship between global DNA methylation and transcription for dnmt1 and dnmt3, as above. All graphs were created using the R packages ggplot2 (Wickham, 2009), gplots (Warnes et al., 2015), beeswarm (Eklund, 2015) and ggbiplot (Vincent Q. Vu, 2011).

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#### 3. Results:

Zebrafish breeding groups of 4 males and 4 females were allowed to breed naturally and reproduction (egg output and proportion of fertilization) was quantified for 25 days. During this period, fish reproduced normally as demonstrated by consistent egg production and fertilization rates (Supplementary Information Figure S1). The gonadosomatic index (GSI; the ratio of gonad weight to body weight) was also significantly lower in male fish compared to female fish (0.92 and 6.75 respectively;  $P \le 0.001$ ; Supplementary Information Figure S2A). The mean hepatosomatic index (HSI; the ratio of liver weight to body weight) in males was significantly lower than for females (1.04 and 3.87 respectively;  $P \le 0.001$ ; Supplementary Information Figure S2B). There were no significant differences in the condition factors of male and female fish in this study (0.97 and 1.08 respectively; P = 0.093).

#### 3.1 Sex-Specific Transcription and DNA Methylation Levels in the Gonads

We measured the transcription of target genes of interest using quantitative PCR, locus specific methylation using bisulfite pyrosequencing in selected loci (chosen based on their proximity to the transcription start site (TSS) and binding sites for transcription factors of recognised importance for reproductive function; Figure 1) and global methylation using the LUMA assay.

In the gonads, sex-specific patterns of transcription were identified for estrogen receptor 1 (esr1; 4.66 fold; P = 0.031), esr2b (14.75 fold; P = < 0.001), amh (21.71 fold; P = < 0.001) and exp19a1a (46.47 fold; P = 0.032) but not for estrogen receptor 2a (esr2a) or the androgen receptor (ar; Figure 2A). esr1 and exp19a1a were predominantly expressed in the ovary, while esr2b and exp19a1a were found to be predominantly expressed in the testis. For transcripts involved in epigenetic regulation, sex-specific patterns of transcription were observed for exp19a1a (45.46 fold; P = 0.031), exp19a1a fold; P = 0.035), exp19a1a (30.13 fold; P = 0.022), exp19a1a (7.22 fold; P = 0.006), exp19a1a

0.028) and mbd3a (24.10 fold; P = 0.033), where the relative mRNA transcription level for each of these gene was found to be greater in the ovary compared to the testis (Figure 2A).

Mean global DNA methylation in the gonads was significantly higher in males (87.76%) compared to females (82.78%;  $P \le 0.001$ , Figure 3). Furthermore, in the testis *dnmt1* and *dnmt3* transcription were strongly inversely correlated with global DNA methylation (correlation coefficient = -0.919, P = 0.010 and correlation coefficient = -0.927, P = 0.003 respectively; Table 1).

In the gonads, sex-specific DNA methylation levels were identified in the promoter region of esr1 (male = 93.13%, female = 18.95%, P  $\leq$  0.001, Figure 2B) and amh (male = 75.14%, female = 50.88%, P = < 0.001, Figure 2B; DNA methylation levels are reported as an average percentage methylation across all CpG sites measured). However, there was no significant difference in the sex-specific DNA methylation levels for dnmt1 (Figure 2B) despite the differences in dnmt1 transcription observed between males and females.

The *esr1* gene transcription was significantly inversely correlated with promoter DNA methylation in the ovary (positions 1 and 2; Table 1) and in the testis (CpG position 1; Table 1). For the *amh* gene, transcription levels were strongly inversely correlated with promotor DNA methylation in the ovary (CpG position 1; Table 1) and the testis (CpG positions 2 and 3; Table 1). The *dnmt1* transcription did not correlate with promotor DNA methylation in the ovary or testis.

### 3.2 Sex-Specific Transcription and DNA Methylation Levels in the Liver

In the liver, at the transcriptional level, sex-specific differences were identified for a number of transcripts involved in reproductive function including the transcripts encoding vitellogenin (vtg1; 1322.96 fold;  $P \le 0.001$ ; Figure 4A), esr1 (8 fold;  $P \le 0.001$ ; Figure 4B), and esr2a (2.8 fold; P = 0.012; Figure 4B), but not for estrogen receptor 2b (esr2b; Figure 4A). vtg1 (Figure 4A) and esr1 (Figure 4B) were found to be predominantly expressed in female compared to male livers, while esr2a was

found to be predominantly expressed in males (Figure 4B). For transcripts involved in epigenetic regulation, differences in transcription between males and females were identified only for *hdac1* (P ≤ 0.001; over-expressed in males; Figure 4A).

Analysis of DNA methylation in the promoter region for *esr1* revealed consistently higher average DNA methylation at 2 CpG sites in males compared to females (male = 13.17%, female = 9.03%, P = 0.013, Figure 4C), but no significant differences in methylation were detected in the promoter region of *dnmt1*.

The transcription of *esr1* was significantly inversely correlated with its promoter DNA methylation in the liver of female fish (CpG positions 1 and 2; Table 1). In addition, for the *dnmt1* gene, transcription was significantly inversely correlated with promotor DNA methylation both in the livers of females (CpG positions 5, 7 and 10; Table 1) and males (CpG positions 2, 3, 9 and 11; Table 1).

#### 4. Discussion:

A wealth of information exists about zebrafish reproductive biology at the physiological and molecular levels, but little is known about the role of epigenetic regulation on reproductive function in adult tissues. Here we report for the first time sexually dimorphic DNA methylation profiles, and associations between transcription and DNA methylation in the promoters of *esr1*, *amh* and *dnmt1*, providing a valuable contribution to our understanding of the epigenetic regulation of reproduction in this important model organism.

# 4.1 Sex-Specific Transcription and DNA Methylation in the Gonads

Comparisons of global DNA methylation between males and females revealed that the DNA in the testes was significantly hyper-methylated compared to that in the ovaries. The relative proportion of germ cells to somatic cells in oviparous animals differs in the male and female gonads, with testis containing a far greater proportion of maturing germ cells, including sperm, compared to ovaries, which contain large oocytes surrounded by many somatic cells (Leal et al., 2009; Schulz et al., 2010; Selman et al., 1993). The differences in global DNA methylation between testes and ovaries could be due to the differences in cell type composition between these two organs and in particular to the high proportion of maturing gametes, including mature sperm which are known to be hypermethylated across vertebrates (Jiang et al., 2013; Potok et al., 2013).

In the gonads, *amh* was over-expressed in the testis compared to the ovary, as previously reported in fish (Ribas et al., 2017; Schulz et al., 2007) and other vertebrates (Houmard et al., 2009) where *amh* is known to play an important role in testis development. Studies in zebrafish have associated the upregulation of *amh* with the gonadal transcriptional profile in heat-induced masculinization of female fish (Ribas et al., 2017). In the ovary, *amh* is expressed in granulosa cells and is thought to have multiple functions including the regulation of germ cell proliferation and follicular development

(Morinaga et al., 2007), while in males amh is expressed by Sertoli cells, inhibits the development of the Müllerian ducts during development and maintains the differentiation of the gonads in adult fish (Schulz et al., 2007). Comparisons between the mean gonadal DNA methylation levels in the 5' flanking region of amh revealed that the transcription of this gene and the level of DNA methylation measured in its promotor region were significantly inversely correlated both in testicular and ovarian tissues. DNA methylation of CpG sites located in gene promotors has previously been associated with the regulation of transcript expression in a number of organisms, suggesting that for amh, transcription may be influenced by DNA methylation in this region of the promotor (Jones, 1999). In addition, the amh promotor region analysed was significantly hyper-methylated by 24.26% in testes compared to ovaries, despite the fact that transcription of amh is higher in males. We hypothesise that this may be due to the low proportion of cells expressing amh (Sertoli cells), compared to germ cells in the testis, which would have masked the DNA methylation profiles present in Sertoli cells. This result highlights the issues of conducting epigenetic studies in tissues with multiple cell types, each with unique DNA methylation patterns, where changes in DNA methylation on a specific cell type may not reflect the dynamics of the methylome in other cell types. Comparisons between the relative expression levels for the three estrogen receptor subtypes show that the predominantly expressed receptor in both males and females was esr2a, but no differences were observed between the sexes. In contrast, for esr1, there was a sex specific pattern of transcription and DNA methylation; we found hyper-methylation of the 5' flanking region of the esr1 gene in the testis (93.13%) compared to the ovary (18.95%). We also observed that esr1 was predominantly expressed in the ovaries, similar to previous reports in adult Oryzias latipes (Chakraborty et al., 2011) and Pimephales promelas (Filby and Tyler, 2005), associated with the important role of esr1 in estrogen signalling in females. In addition, for both ovarian and testicular

tissues, esr1 expression was found to be significantly inversely correlated with promotor DNA

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methylation, suggesting relative hypo-methylation of CpG sites in the promoter may be associated with elevated transcription for this gene.

It is important to note that the very prominent hyper-methylation of the targeted *esr1* promotor region reported in testicular tissue is potentially associated with the proportion of germ cells, including mature sperm, within the testis in addition to specific regulation within cell types where *esr1* is expressed (Jiang et al., 2013; Potok et al., 2013).

In contrast to that observed for *esr1*, *esr2b* was overexpressed in the testis, similarly to previous reports in the Korean rockfish (*Sebastes schlegeli*) (Mu et al., 2013). Our findings support the hypothesis that *esr2b* may play a role in mediating the effects of estrogen on testicular function and spermatogenesis in fish, as previously proposed for another cyprinid species (Filby and Tyler, 2005).

In ovaries, we found significant overexpression of *cyp19a1a*, as previously reported in a number of species including in *Perca flavescens* and *Pimephales promelas* (Halm et al., 2002; Lynn et al., 2008). Aromatase is responsible for the irreversible conversion of androgens into estrogens and it is fundamental for female sex differentiation and development, with its inhibition resulting in masculinization of the population (Fenske and Segner, 2004; Navarro-Martín et al., 2011), accounting for its overexpression in ovaries (granulosa cells) compared to testes. For example, a study in zebrafish associated the downregulation of *cyp19a1a* with the heat-induced masculinization of female fish (Ribas et al., 2017).

For the transcripts involved in epigenetic pathways, in the gonads, sex-specific levels of transcription were observed for six of the seven transcripts measured, and all were significantly overexpressed in ovaries compared to testes. These findings suggest an important role for these transcripts during oogenesis and/or during embryonic development. It is important to note that sperm cells contain very little cytoplasm, and within this, few transcripts are stored and delivered to the embryo during fertilization (Krawetz, 2005; Sauvan et al., 2004). In contrast, oocytes contain large reserves of

maternal transcripts that support embryo development prior to the zygotic genome activation (ZGA), with many maternal transcripts playing important roles well beyond this point (Aanes et al., 2011; Andersen et al., 2013). In zebrafish, ZGA occurs at approximately the 1,000 cell blastula stage, much later in development than in mammalian species including mice (~2 cell) or humans (~4-8 cell) (Andersen et al., 2012; Braude et al., 1988; Flach et al., 1982; Potok et al., 2013). Therefore, in comparison to mammalian models, zebrafish are likely to be significantly more dependent on maternal transcripts to support the critical early stages of embryo development. We hypothesize that, in addition to their role within somatic and germ cells in the gonads, many of these transcripts involved in epigenetic regulation which we have shown to be overexpressed in ovaries, may be related to their role as maternal transcripts during embryo development, and are potentially involved in the dynamics of demethylation and re-methylation occurring prior to ZGA, as well as histone remodelling, occurring during this period (Jiang et al., 2013; Potok et al., 2013). This hypothesis is supported by the fact that several of these transcripts were reported to be strongly expressed during early embryo development prior to ZGA which begins during the maternal-tozygotic transition as the embryo enters the mid blastula transition (reviewed in (Andersen et al., 2013)).

In the gonads, there were no significant differences in the DNA methylation patterns for *dnmt1*, despite the fact that this gene was significantly overexpressed in ovaries at the transcript level. However, *the* expression of *dnmt1* and *dnmt3* was significantly inversely correlated with global DNA methylation in the testis, supporting the idea that these enzymes may be important in regulating global DNA methylation levels (Bestor, 2000). For example; the expression of *dnmt1* has been associated with changes in global DNA methylation, and inactivation of *dnmt1* has been shown to cause global demethylation of the genome (Bestor, 2000). In addition, it has been demonstrated that *dnmt3* is important in the maintenance of DNA methylation patterns during *de novo* methylation processes (Okano et al., 1999; Potok et al., 2013). The mean promoter DNA methylation of the 11 CpG sites measured was very low, 1.52% and 2.62% for males and females,

respectively. It is important to note, that while pyrosequencing is considered to be one of the most accurate methods for measuring DNA methylation available, at this level of methylation the detection accuracy of the Pyrosequencer is compromised. In addition, previous studies have reported little correlation between transcription and DNA hypomethylation, suggesting that hypomethylated promoters create a transcriptionally permissive state (Andersen et al., 2013), with no predictive value on gene activation (Emerman et al., 2010). The fact that the promoter of dnmt1 was found to be hypo-methylated indicates that it was likely available to be regulated by other mechanisms including transcription factors, histone recruitment and modifications (reviewed in (Andersen et al., 2013)). In addition to repression of transcription through DNA hyper-methylation, genes may be blocked indirectly through the recruitment of methyl-binding proteins or methyl-CpGbinding domain proteins, and these in turn may recruit co-repressors such as histone deacetylases (Klose and Bird, 2006). Interestingly, in this study hdac1 was the most highly expressed gene of those we studied in the gonads and was significantly over-expressed in ovarian tissue. Mecp2, mbd2 and mdb3a were also significantly over-expressed in ovarian tissue compared to the testis; therefore, it is possible that the transcription of dnmt1 in the ovaries may be regulated indirectly through histone modifications or the recruitment of methyl-CpG-binding domain proteins.

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#### 4.2 Sex-Specific Transcriptional and DNA Methylation in the Liver

We found significant over-expression of the transcripts encoding *esr1* and *vtg1* in female livers, likely associated with the role of these genes in vitellogenesis (Filby and Tyler, 2005). In parallel, the 5' flanking region of the *esr1* gene was hyper-methylated in male compared to female livers. The transcription for *esr1* was found to be significantly inversely correlated with *esr1* promotor DNA methylation in the livers of female fish, suggesting that the level of promoter DNA methylation contributes to regulation of transcription for this gene. In contrast, the transcript encoding *esr2a* was over-expressed in male livers compared to females. This estrogen receptor subtype is thought

to be responsible for maintaining basal *esr1* levels and to act as an adjustment mechanism for estrogen function (Griffin et al., 2013; Nelson and Habibi, 2010). The *esr2a* transcript profile levels are therefore variable and have been reported to be higher either in females (Lynn et al., 2008) or in males (Filby and Tyler, 2005; Halm et al., 2004).

For transcripts involved in epigenetic regulation, one gene (hdac1) was differentially expressed between males and females in the liver and was over-expressed in males. The significance of this finding is unknown, and to our knowledge this is the first time that a sex specific transcription pattern for this gene is reported for hepatic tissue. For dnmt1, significant inverse correlations were found between transcription and promotor DNA methylation in both male and female livers, suggesting that the DNA methylation present on the promotor of this gene may play a role in the regulation of its transcription in this tissue, even though the promoter region analysed was strongly hypo-methylated, and therefore likely regulated by other mechanisms of transcriptional regulation. This demonstrates the importance of DNA methylation of the promoter region analysed for the functional regulation of this gene.

Given the functional role of the hepatic tissue in sexually mature females, including the production of vitellogenins and chorion proteins that are incorporated into developing oocytes, the physiology of the liver in females differs from that of males. This is reflected in the higher hepatosomatic index of females compared to males and it is possible that the proportion and volume of hepatocytes compared to other cell types within the liver vary between males and females. If this is the case, this could also contribute to the differences in transcription and promoter DNA methylation observed between the livers of males and females.

There are some limitations to the methodologies used in this study: the locus- specific DNA methylation measurements were conducted only on a small number of CpG sites (2-11), within the regulatory regions of select target genes, hypothesized to be play important roles in the regulation of reproduction. CpG sites were chosen based on their proximity to the TSSs and putative binding

sites for transcription factors known to be key regulators of reproduction, including estrogenresponsive elements (EREs). This analysis therefore does not provide a comprehensive view of the changes of methylation potentially occurring at other CpG sites, including those within gene bodies and potentially important for the regulation of splicing (Laurent et al., 2010).

In the future, we advocate that studies should perform measurements of transcription and methylation at the genome wide level at the various stages of sex development, and ideally on isolated populations of cells to avoid the cellular heterogeneity of complex tissues, to better understand the potential for DNA methylation to play a role in transcriptional regulation and contribute to the establishment and maintenance of sexual dimorphism in zebrafish. In addition, it would have been interesting to expand our studies to other important tissues involved in the regulation of reproduction (brain and pituitary) to build a more complete picture of the epigenetic regulation of reproduction in this species. Further to this, while this study focused on methylation, epigenetic regulation of transcription is not limited to DNA methylation. Our finding that *hdac1* was differentially expressed between males and females in both gonads and livers advocates for the importance of measuring histone acetylation, as well as other histone and DNA modifications, in further studies.

#### 5. Conclusions:

We provide evidence for sexual dimorphism in transcription and DNA methylation profiles in the livers and gonads of an important model organism. We report novel evidence for associations between DNA promotor methylation and transcription for *esr1*, *amh* and *dnmt1*, and between *dnmt1* and *dnmt3* transcription and global DNA methylation in the gonads. In addition, we document for the first time a significant overexpression of a group of genes involved in DNA and histone modifications in ovaries compared to testis, likely associated with their role as maternal transcripts to support embryo development. In addition, our data highlight critical considerations for investigating epigenetics in multicellular tissues, where each cell population is characterized by its own unique transcriptional and epigenetic signature.

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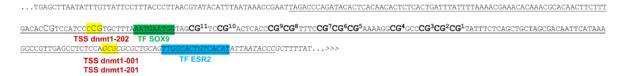
## 8. Figure captions and Tables:

**Figure 1.** Promoter regions of *amh*, *dnmt1* and *esr1*, showing the location of the CpG sites (indicated in bold), the target sequences used for pyrosequencing (underlined) and putative transcription factor binding sites (EREs, DMRT3, and SOX9; highlighted in blue, orange and green, respectively) in relation to the transcription start sites (TSSs; highlighted in yellow). The sequences shown were derived from Ensembl Zv9 (release 83; assembly GRCz10) and correspond to the following genomic positions: chr22:20,736,779-20,737,279 (*amh*), chr3:54,352,519-54,352,819 (*dnmt1*) and chr20:26,483,369-26,484,513 (*esr1*).

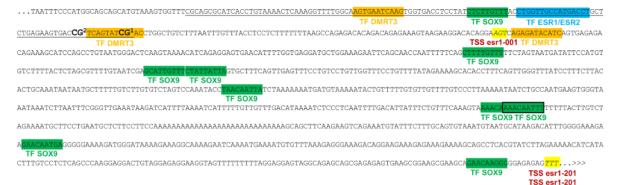




#### DNA (cytosine-5-)-methyltransferase 1 (dnmt1) - GRCz10 3:54,352,519-54,352,819



### Estrogen receptor 1 (esr1) - GRCz10 20:26,483,369-26,484,513



**Figure 2. A)** Comparison of the relative transcript profiles (target gene transcription/rpl8 transcription) between females and males in adult zebrafish gonads (n= 6-8 for each group). **B**) Comparison of gene specific average promoter methylation between females and males in adult zebrafish gonads. Data for individual CpG sites are presented in supplementary figure 3. Asterisks indicate significant differences between males and females (Student's t-Test; \*P<0.05 \*\*P<0.01 \*\*\*P<0.001)

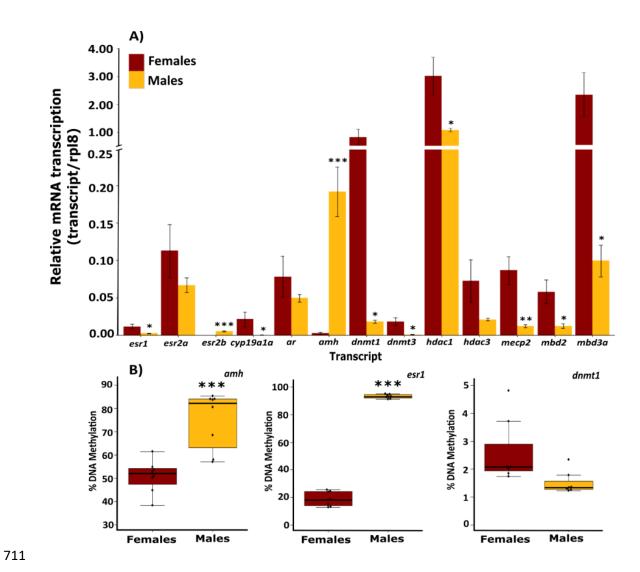
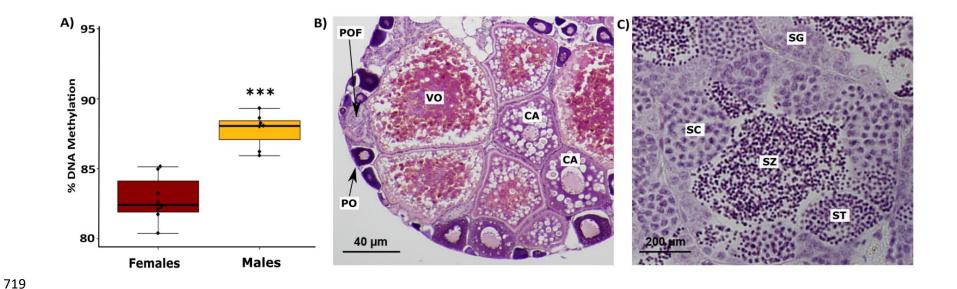
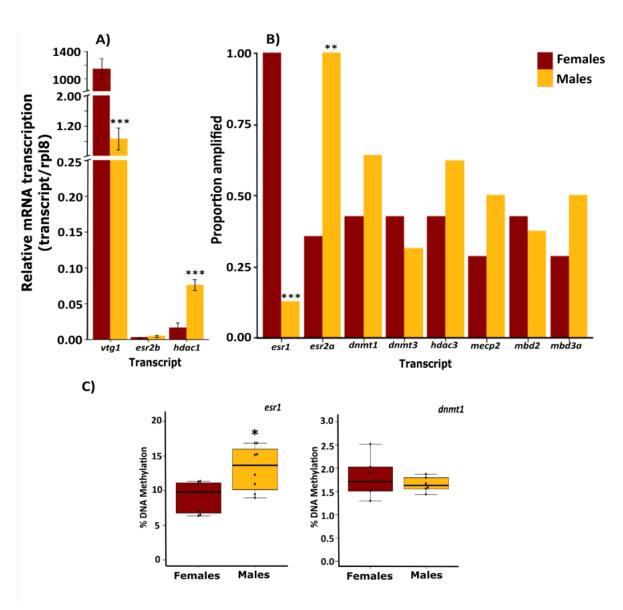


Figure 3. A) Comparison of the proportion of global DNA methylation (measured using the LUMA assay) between ovaries and testis in control adult zebrafish (n = 6-8 for each group). Asterisks indicate significant differences between males and females (Student's t-Test; \*\*\*P<0.001). Example of histological sections of zebrafish testicular (B) and ovarian tissue (C) of mature fish to illustrate the histological structure and proportion of the various cell types in ovaries and testes. The testes section is a normal testes showing different stages of spermatogenesis; SG spermatogonia, SC Spermatocytes, ST Spermatids and SZ spermatozoa. The ovarian section shows a normal ovary with oocytes at different stages of development; POF post ovulatory follicle, CA, Cortical alveoli, VO vitellogenic oocyte and PO primary oocytes. Histological images were obtained from samples analyzed as part of a different experiment but kept under similar husbandry conditions.



**Figure 4. A** and **B**) Comparison of the relative transcript profiles (target gene transcription/*rpl8* transcription) between females and males in adult zebrafish livers (n= 6-8 for each group). For each gene of interest, where amplification was detected in more than 70% individuals in both sexes, data are represented as relative expression compared to *rpl8*. Where amplification was detected in less than 70% of the individuals of one or both sexes, data are presented as the proportion of individuals for which the target genes of interest were detected. **C**) Comparison of gene specific average promoter methylation between females and males in adult zebrafish livers. Data for individual CpG sites are presented in supplementary figure 3. Asterisks indicate significant differences between males and females (Student's t-Test; \*P<0.05 \*\*P<0.01 \*\*\*P<0.001)



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Table 1A. Correlation analysis between transcript expression and global methylation for dnmt1 and dnmt3.							
<b>-</b> '			Correlation	Р			
Tissue	Gene	-	coefficient	value			
Testis	dnmt1	-	-0.919	0.010			
Ovary	dnmt1	-	-0.225	0.668			
Testis	dnmt3	-	-0.927	0.003			
Ovary	dnmt3	- 0.052		0.934			
Table 1B	. Correla	tion analysis bet	ween transcript expr	ession			
and specific CpG loci methylation.							
Correlation							
Tissue	Gene	CpG Position	coefficient	value			
	05r1	1	-0.765	0.045			
	esr1	2	-0.470	0.029			
		1	-0.271	0.659			
	amh	2 -0.957		0.017			
		3	-0.547	0.341			
	dnmt1	1	-0.584	0.224			
		2	-0.573	0.234			
		3 -0.580		0.227			
Ovary		4	-0.540	0.269			
		5	-0.582	0.225			
		6	-0.552	0.256			
		7	-0.603	0.206			
		8	-0.625	0.160			
		9	-0.701	0.121			
		10	-0.625	0.185			
		11	-0.461	0.358			
		Mean	-0.148	0.779			
	05:1	1	-0.875	0.004			
	esr1	2	-0.697	0.055			
	amh	1	-0.072	0.878			
		2	-0.818	0.025			
Testis		3	-0.920	0.003			
	dnmt1	1	0.526	0.284			
		2	0.522	0.288			
		3	0.525	0.285			
		4	0.509	0.302			

		5	0.503	0.309
	•	6	0.447	0.374
	-	7	0.461	0.358
	•	8	0.449	0.371
	-	9	0.532	0.277
		10	0.599	0.401
		11	0.484	0.516
		Mean	0.071	0.893
	1	1	-0.971	0.006
	esr1	2	-0.906	0.034
		1	-0.761	0.079
	-	2	-0.686	0.132
	-	3	-0.751	0.085
	-	4	-0.268	0.663
Liver	-	5	-0.912	0.011
Females	1	6	-0.736	0.993
	dnmt1	7	-0.813	0.049
	-	8	-0.689	0.199
		9	-0.717	0.173
		10	-0.836	0.038
		11	-0.758	0.080
		Mean	-0.843	0.035
	esr1	1	-0.065	0.878
		2	-0.268	0.522
		1	-0.736	0.095
		2	-0.818	0.047
	dnmt1	3	-0.901	0.014
		4	-0.534	0.275
Liver		5	0.431	0.394
Males		6	-0.843	0.352
		7	-0.683	0.135
		8	-0.669	0.146
		9	-0.826	0.043
		10	-0.683	0.135
		11	-0.847	0.034
		Mean	-0.872	0.024

**Supporting Information** 

Sex-specific transcription and DNA methylation profiles of reproductive and

epigenetic associated genes in the gonads and livers of breeding zebrafish.

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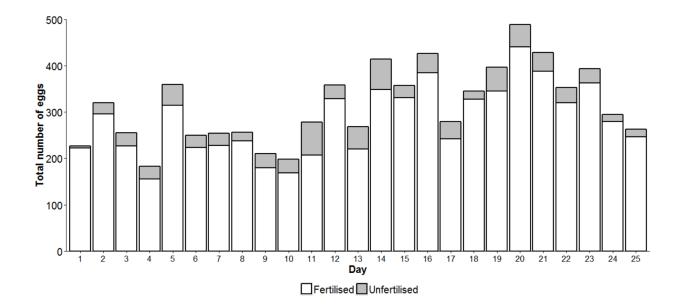
<sup>5</sup> Centre for Environment, Fisheries and Aquaculture Science, Barrack Road, The Nothe, Weymouth,

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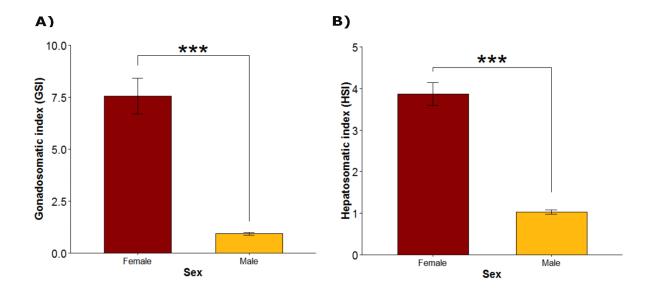
\* Corresponding authors

E-mail: <u>ll292@exeter.ac.uk</u>, <u>e.santos@exeter.ac.uk</u>

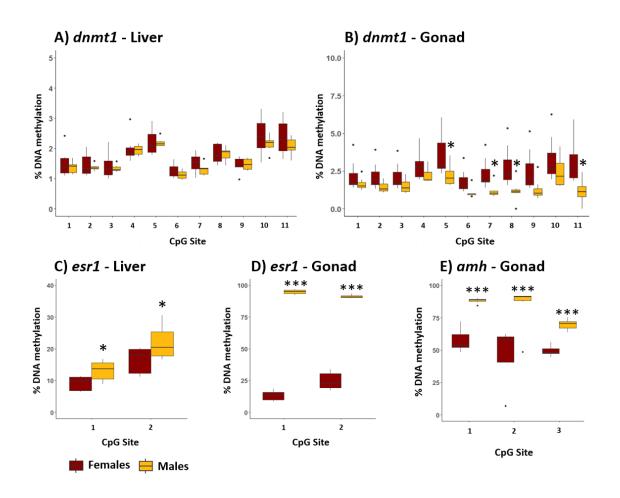
**Supplementary Information Figure S1.** Total number of eggs spawned for all females (n=8) during the 25 day period prior to sampling. Proportion of eggs unfertilized and fertilized eggs are shown in grey and white, respectively.



**Supplementary Information Figure S2.** Morphometric parameters for female (red) and male (yellow) fish (n=8 individuals per group). Individual plots represent the gonadosomatic index (**A**) and hepatosomatic index (**B**). Asterisks indicate significant differences between males and females (Student's t-Test, \*\*\*p < 0.001).



Supplementary Information Figure S3. Gene specific DNA methylation profiles for the individual CpG sites (shown in Figure 1 of the main manuscript) in the promoter region of *dnmt1* (A– liver, B - gonad), *esr1* (C – liver, D - gonad) and *amh* (E - gonad) in adult zebrafish. Data are presented as boxplots (n = 6-8 for each group). Asterisks indicate significant differences between males and females (\*P<0.05 \*\*P<0.01 \*\*\*P<0.001).



# **Supplementary Information Table 1.** Target genes, primer sequences and assay details for the RT-QPCR analysis.

Name	Symbol	Forward Primer (5'-3')	Reverse Primer (5'-3')	Product size (bp)	Ta (°C)	PCR efficiency
Ribosomal protein L8	rpl8	CCGAGACCAAGAAATCCAGAG	CCAGCAACAACACCAACAAC	91	59.5	1.95
Aromatase	cyp19a1a	AGCCGTCCAGCCTCAG	ATCCAAAAGCAGAAGCAGTAG	101	61.5	2.06
Estrogen receptor 1	esr1	TATGACCTGTTGCTGGAGATG	CGCCGTTGGACTGAATGG	130	59.5	2.14
Estrogen receptor 2a	esr2a	AGGAGAAAACCAAGTAAACCAATC	AGGCTGCTAACAAGGCTAATG	173	59.0	1.86
Estrogen receptor 2b	esr2b	ATCTGCTAATGCTGCTCTCAC	СССТСТСТТСТСТСТСС	131	57.8	2.18
Androgen receptor	ar	ACGAGGGTGTTAGATGAGAC	AAGTATGAGGAAAGCGAGTAAAG	129	58.0	1.97
Anti-Mullerian hormone	amh	TGTCTCAACCATCGTCTTCAG	CAGTCAATCCATCCATCCAAAC	124	61.0	2.24
Vitellogenin	vtg1	AGCAGCAGCAGTCGTAAC	CAATGATGGTGGCAGTCTTAG	148	57.5	1.84
DNA (cytosine-5)- methyltransferase 1	dnmt1	CGCTGTCGTGTTGAGTATGC	тсссттдссстттсстттсс	180	58.5	2.06
DNA (cytosine-5)- methyltransferase 3	dnmt3	TGATGCCGTGAAAGTGAGTC	TTGCCGTGTAGTGATAGTGC	172	58.5	2.19
Histone deacetylase 1	hdac1	TGACAAACGCATCTCCATTCG	CTCTTCTCCATCCTTCTCTTC	157	58.0	2.04
Histone deacetylase 3	hdac3	GAATGTGTGGAGTTTGTGAAGG	CTGGATGAAGTGTGAAGTCTGG	190	57.0	1.98
Methyl CpG binding protein 2	теср2	GAGGCAGAAACAGGACAG	TGGTGGTGATGATGA	176	58.0	2.13
Methyl-CpG-binding domain protein 2	mbd2	AACAGCCTCCATCTTCAAG	CGTCCTCAGCACTTCTTC	166	59.0	2.19
Methyl-CpG-binding domain protein 3a	mbd3a	ACTCTTCTTTCGGCTCTG	TCTTCCTGCTTCCTGATG	164	57.0	1.99

# **Supplementary Information Table 2.** Bisulfite-pyrosequencing primers and assay details for the gene promoters analyzed.

Name	Symbol	Forward Primer (5'-3')	Reverse Primer (5'-3')	Sequence Primer (5'-3')	Sequence analysed (5'-3')	Ta (°C)
Oestrogen receptor 1		AGAGGAGGTAAATAAATTAAAGAT AGTTAG	Biotin- TACTCCTTTAACATATAATTTCCC ATAACA	GGTAAATAAATTAAAGATAGTTAGG	TYGATATTGAYGGTTATTTTTTAGAGTAGGTTATGGTAAT TAG	58.0
Anti- Mullerian hormone	amh	GTTTTTATTTTTATGGGATGGTA GTTAGG	Biotin- AAACACAACTTAAAAACTTCCACT TATAT	TTGTTTTGAAGTATATTTGGAT	TATAYGTAATGGGGAATGTTTTAGTTTAAGGAAYGGTAT TTGGTATTATTAAYGGGTTATTTATAAAATAATGTTTTTA	58.0
DNA (cytosine-5)- methyltransf erase 1	dnmt1	GGGTATTAATATGTGATAGTGTT AATTGTAG	Biotin - TAAACCCAAATACACTCACAACA C	TTATGAATTGTAGTTAGTAGTTGA	GAAATAYGYGYGGGTYGTTTTTTYGYGYGGAAAYGYGGG TGAGTYGGAYGTTATT	58.0