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1 2	The multi-level regulation of clownfish metamorphosis by thyroid hormones
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35 Abstract:

36 Most marine organisms have a biphasic life cycle during which a pelagic larva is transformed 37 into a radically different juvenile. In vertebrates the role of thyroid hormones (TH) in triggering this 38 transition is well known, but how the morphological and physiological changes are integrated in a 39 coherent way with the ecological transition remains poorly explored. To gain insight into this 40 question, we performed an integrative analysis of metamorphosis of a marine teleost, the clownfish 41 Amphiprion ocellaris. We reveal how TH coordinate a change in color vision as well as a major 42 metabolic shift in energy production, hence highlighting its central integrative role in regulating this 43 transformation. By manipulating the activity of LXR, a major regulator of metabolism, we also reveal 44 a tight link between metabolic changes and metamorphosis progression. Strikingly, we observed that 45 these regulations are at play in the wild revealing how hormones coordinate energy needs with 46 available resources during life cycle.

47

48

49 Introduction

50 In vertebrates, metamorphosis is a common post-embryonic transition regulated by thyroid 51 hormones (TH) during which a larva is transformed into a juvenile. The role of TH as the main trigger 52 and coordinator of the distinct biological processes that occurred during metamorphosis has been 53 extensively studied, mostly in anurans as well as in flatfish (Power et al., 2008; Tata, 2006). Both 54 biological models exhibit a spectacular metamorphosis during which major morphological, 55 physiological and ecological transitions occurred (Laudet, 2011). TH not only trigger but also 56 coordinate at the tissue and cellular level the transformation of the larva into a juvenile. For example, 57 in tadpole, cell-specific actions of TH are instrumental for the transformation of several organs 58 (intestine, limbs, tail) illustrating the pleiotropic action of this hormone (Grimaldi et al., 2013). This 59 action is mediated by the binding of TH to thyroid hormone receptors (TR) that act as transcription 60 factor and regulate the expression of target genes (Sachs and Buchholz, 2017). However, these 61 models (flatfish and amphibian) are more exceptions than the rule as in most vertebrate species 62 morphological changes are more subtle (Buchholz, 2015; Holzer and Laudet, 2013; Laudet, 2011). 63 Indeed, all chordates, including amniotes, are passing through such a post-embryonic transformative 64 period even if, in many species, it is not morphologically spectacular (Holzer and Laudet, 2013). In 65 addition, several reports suggest that the successful completion of metamorphosis is decisive for the 66 quality and therefore the ecological success of the juvenile emanating from it (Besson et al., 2020). 67 Therefore, understanding how TH control this transformation is critically important to better 68 understand the pleiotropic action of the hormone and how juvenile can cope with their new 69 environment (Lowe et al., 2021).

70 A particular challenge, common to all vertebrate species, is to make sure that the 71 transformation is well aligned with available environmental conditions and with the metabolic status 72 of the organism (Hulbert and Else, 2000; Sheridan and Kao, 1998). THs, with their well-known 73 metabolic effects, are critical for this action (Sayre and Lechleiter, 2012; Sinha et al., 2018). This has 74 been shown in several species; particularly in sticklebacks in which they control metabolic rate in 75 freshwater populations that are living in an energy-poor environment (Kitano et al., 2010). Similarly, 76 studies in several teleost fish have shown that TH impact the activity of enzymes involved in lipid 77 metabolism therefore influencing energy availability (Deal and Volkoff, 2020). However, these 78 metabolic actions of TH are mostly studied in juveniles or adults and how this occurred during 79 metamorphosis remain largely unknown (Deal and Volkoff, 2020). Shedding light on how TH control 80 metabolism during metamorphosis would be particularly desirable as it is known that metabolic 81 pathways are heavily modified during larval transformation (Darias et al., 2008). Therefore, it 82 remains to be determined: (i) how TH regulate metabolism during metamorphosis and (ii) how this

action is integrated with the transformation of the larvae into a juvenile, also controlled by the hormone. To fulfil this gap, we carried out for the first time an integrative study of metamorphosis to better understand the central role of TH in the coordination of larval transformation with metabolic status. Understanding these processes is critical to better understand the ecological function of TH but also the constrains and bias affecting metamorphosis, a key process ensuring natural population replenishment. This is particularly important in the context of the global changes affecting natural populations worldwide (Lowe et al., 2021).

90 We used the false clownfish A. ocellaris as a model system to explore the hormonal basis of 91 this metabolic integration. These fishes live in coral reefs, in symbiosis with sea anemones in which 92 they form colonies with a reproductively active pair and a variable number of juveniles (Buston, 93 2003). Every two to three weeks, the couple lays ca. 500 eggs on a substrate near their host. After 94 hatching the larvae disperse in the ocean for 10–15 days. At the end of this pelagic phase, the larvae 95 transform via metamorphosis into small juveniles, called young recruits, which must locate a reef and 96 actively look for a host sea anemone using their sensory abilities combining visual, chemical and 97 acoustic cues (Barth et al., 2015). During metamorphosis, the larvae lose their larval characteristics 98 (light pigmentation, elongated body shape) and transform into miniature adults, with an ovoid body 99 shape and a conspicuous pigmentation pattern displaying white bars on a bright orange background 100 (Roux et al., 2019). These pigmentation changes have been shown to be regulated by TH indicating 101 that as for other teleost fishes this metamorphosis is controlled by TH (Holzer et al., 2017; Salis et al., 102 2021).

103 In this paper, we conducted an extensive study of vertebrate metamorphosis by combining 104 developmental transcriptome assembly, TH levels measurements, behavioral observations, lipid 105 content analysis, in situ observations, and functional experiments. By focusing on visual perception 106 and metabolic changes, we uncover how TH control gene regulatory programs, as well as behavioral 107 and physiological outputs, hence highlighting the central integrator role of TH in regulating the whole 108 larva to juvenile transformation. Our results demonstrated that TH link metabolic regulation, 109 morphological transformation and behavioral changes ensuring the full ecological transformation of 110 the pelagic larvae into a benthic reef associated juvenile.

111

112 Results

113 Three distinct post-embryonic phases.

The entire larval development period of *A. ocellaris* have been divided into seven distinct developmental stages (named S1 to S7 for stage 1 to 7 in Fig. 1A, Roux et al. 2019). To obtain a global perspective on gene expression levels during post-embryonic development, we performed a transcriptomic analysis of these seven stages. RNAs from three entire larvae per stage were extracted and sequenced on an Illumina platform giving a total of 21 samples (see Material and Methods).

Principal component analysis (PCA) and global hierarchical clustering were first applied on the 120 genes with the highest amplitude of expression (variance) without considering the 122 developmental stages (Fig. 1A and Supp. Fig. 1A). Both methods allowed distinguishing three distinct 123 groups: (i) early developmental stages which included stages 1, 2 and 3, (ii) late developmental 124 stages including stages 5, 6 and 7, and (iii) the pivotal stage 4. Of note, one stage 4 individual is 125 tending toward the late stages cluster, indicating that there may be a gap between transcriptional 126 regulation and the observed morphological changes (Fig. 1A and Supp. Fig. 1A).

127 The same three groups were also observed on the heat map clustering the 100 genes with the 128 highest variance (Fig. 1B). One group showed genes that are up regulated (in red) during early larval 129 development, corresponding to stages 1-3. Another group is formed by individuals in which genes 130 are up regulated during late larval development (stages 5-7). Finally, some genes appeared to be up-131 regulated early on, at stage 4. Interestingly, when we considered the number of differentially 132 regulated genes between each consecutive stage, we observed that stage 4 coincides with a major 133 transition of the regulatory program with 178 significantly differentially expressed between stage 3 134 and 4 (Fig. 1E, Supp. Fig. 2).

135 The two periods we observed are distinct in terms of morphological transformation. On a PCA 136 performed with morphological measurements (body depth (BD)/standard length (SL); head length 137 (HL)/SL and snout vent length (SVL)/SL), we observed that the three first stages are aligned along the 138 main axis of variation (PC1), whereas after stage 4 there is an inflexion and the metamorphic stages 139 are, then, varying mostly along PC2 (Fig. 1C). These changes can be explained by a change in body 140 shape, metamorphic stages becoming more ovoid (increase of body depth). During the last stages, 141 we also observed major changes in body pigmentation. We conclude that stages S5 to S7 correspond 142 to the metamorphosis per se, whereas stage 4 appears to be a pivotal stage assuring the transition 143 between the larval period and the metamorphosis.

144 Interestingly, TH levels measurements showed a high level of T4 and T3 at stage 1 and 2 that 145 likely correspond to residues of maternal loading as observed in other species (Fig. 1D) (see for

example (Chang et al., 2012; Einarsdóttir et al., 2006a) on Atlantic halibut and Chang et al., 2012; on zebrafish). Then, we observed a surge of T4 levels at stage 4 which precedes white bars appearance occurring at stage 5 (Roux et al. 2019; Salis et al., 2020) followed by a decline in later stages. T3, the most active form of TH, showed on the contrary more stable levels than T4, probably linked to the fact that T3 is mostly produced and metabolized by deiodinases with different kinetics in different peripheral tissues (Darras and Van Herck, 2012).

Overall, these results reveal that *A. ocellaris* post-embryonic development is characterized by three distinct phases: (i) larval development, (ii) the pivotal stage 4 that marks the onset of metamorphosis with a peak of TH and (iii) metamorphosis that corresponds to the actual transformation.

156

157 TH pathway is activated during metamorphosis

To investigate the role played by TH in this process, we analyzed the expression levels of the TH signaling genes. We selected genes from the hypothalamo pituitary thyroid (HPT) axis involved in the central control of TH synthesis (*trh*: thyrotropin releasing hormone, and *tsh*^B: thyrotropin stimulating hormone subunit θ); genes involved in TH synthesis in the thyroid follicles (*tg*: *thyroglobulin*, *tpo*: thyroperoxidase, *nis* sodium/iodine symporter, *duox*: dual oxidase); genes involved in TH metabolism (*dio1*, *dio2*, *dio3a* and *dio3b*: deiodinase 1, 2, 3a, 3b respectively); as well as the genes encoding thyroid hormone receptors (*TRaa*, *TRab* and *TRB*; Fig.2).

165 The expression level of trh is relatively stable and $tsh\beta$ expression levels rise from the onset of 166 metamorphosis (stage 4) and stabilize until stage 7. In the thyroid gland, duox have been shown to be 167 critical for TH production and is associated with high TH levels in clownfish (Salis et al., 2021). 168 Interestingly, we observed that its expression levels strongly rise during metamorphosis, starting at 169 stage 5. The expression level of nis (encoding for iodine transporter in thyroid follicles) increased, at 170 stage 6. In contrast, the expression of the gene encoding for the precursor of TH, tq, increased early 171 on (stage 3) and reached a peak at stage 4 as did the expression of tpo. These results clearly 172 corroborate the high production of T4 observed in stage 4 confirming that this corresponds to the 173 onset of metamorphosis.

Deiodinases are known to be key enzymes controlling the amount of T3, the most active thyroid hormone, available in peripheral tissues and their expression in specific tissues are known to be excellent indicators of the activity of the pathway (Bianco and Kim, 2006). We observed a spectacular peak of expression of *dio3b*, one of the duplicates of the *dio3* gene which is coherent with the known regulation of this gene by high TH levels (Russo et al., 2021). We also observed a strong two step increase of *dio1* (known to either activate or inactivate TH depending on the context) at stage 4 and stage 7, respectively. In contrast, both *dio3a* and *dio2* (which activates TH by converting T4 into T3) 181 expression remains constant. This lack of change in global expression levels for *dio3a* and *dio2* may 182 hide significant differences at tissues levels that are not visible in the context of entire larvae as it is 183 also the case for the global T3 levels.

184 Finally, we analyzed the expression levels of the three TR that are known to mediate the 185 action of TH in target cells: TRB displayed a spectacular increase of expression starting at stage 4, 186 clearly in accordance with its role as a TH regulated gene in many species (McMenamin and Parichy, 187 2013). Its expression level remains high until stage 7. $TR\alpha a$ and $TR\alpha b$ expression peaked at the stage 188 4 and stage 6. The statistical significance of the variations of expression levels described above are 189 summarized in Supp. Fig. 1B. A global PCA analysis of TH signaling gene expression level again 190 separated the three first stages from S5-S7, indicating a clear activation of this pathway at stage 4 191 (Supp. Fig. 1C). Taken together, TH signaling gene expression levels are in accordance with the peak 192 of T4 observed at stage 4 confirming that clownfish metamorphosis starts at this stage.

The above results suggest that several of these TH signaling genes may be regulated by TH as observed in other species (Tata 2006; Power et al. 2008). Additionaly, after investigating the effects of exogenous TH by treating stage 3 larvae with three different concentrations of T3 we observed a positive or negative regulation of TH signaling genes. This is very similar to what has been observed in other species (Campinho, 2019; McMenamin and Parichy, 2013). In summary, our analysis clearly suggests that TH-signaling is activated during clownfish metamorphosis and that TH are the main driver of the complex transformation of a pelagic larva to a reef associated juvenile.

200

201 TH control a molecular and behavioral shift in vision

202 During their transformation, clownfish larvae must switch from an oceanic (pelagic) 203 environment to a colorful reef environment. It is well known that in many fish species this ecological 204 transition is accompanied by a change in color vision (Cortesi et al., 2016). Since TH appeared critical 205 for larval to juvenile transition in clownfish, we investigated the regulation of genes encoding for 206 visual opsin during metamorphosis.

Eight visual opsin genes ($opnsw1-\alpha$, $opnsw1-\beta$, opnsw2B, rh1, Rh2A-1, rh2A-2, rh2B, opnlw) have been identified in *A. ocellaris* (Mitchell et al., 2021). In our transcriptomic data we observed a reciprocal shift in their expression (Fig. 3A): short wavelength opsins ($opnsw1-\alpha$, $opnsw1-\beta$, opnsw2B), and mid-wavelength opsins (rh2A, rh2B) are highly expressed at the beginning of larval development and are down-regulated after stage 4. Of note we observed a larval expression of both duplicates of opnsw1, including $opnsw1-\alpha$ for which no clear expression was yet detected (Mitchell et al., 2021). In contrast, the long wavelength opsin (opnlw) is poorly expressed in larval stages and

its expression strongly increase from stage 4 onwards and remains high throughout metamorphosis(Fig. 3A).

216 This reciprocal shift (decrease in shortwave length and increase in long wavelength opsins, 217 respectively) suggested that there could be a shift in visual perception from blue/green to yellow/red 218 during metamorphosis. We therefore tested the visual preferences of A. ocellaris before and after 219 metamorphosis using a dual choice chamber (illustrated in Fig. 3B). Stage 2 larva spent significantly 220 more time in the blue compartment (50% vs. 23% in the orange compartment p-value = 0.004) 221 whereas stage 5 larva prefer the orange one (41% vs. 17% in the blue compartment, *p*-value = 0.009). 222 This indicated that opsin gene expression correlates with visual preference. This shift is also visible by 223 in situ hybridization: The opnsw2B gene is strongly expressed in photoreceptors at stage 2 and 224 slightly visible at stage 4 and 6 on the perimeter of the retina except on the ventral side whereas the 225 opnlw gene is not expressed at stage 2 and is detected in the photoreceptors at stage 6 (Fig. 3C).

We then tested if TH is controlling this molecular and behavioral shift. We observed that T3 strongly up regulated the expression levels of *opnlw* and down regulated *opnsw2B* from 12 to 72 hours after treatment (Fig. 3D, Supp. Fig. 4A). It also up regulated the expression of *Rh2A* after 48 hours of exposure (Supp. Fig. 4A). These data therefore suggest that the shift in opsin gene expression is controlled by TH.

231 We next investigated if TH could also induce a shift in visual preferences. We treated stage 3 232 larvae (*i.e.*, before metamorphosis) for 72 hours with either T3 or DMSO as a vehicle and measured 233 the color preference of the larvae in a dual chamber, as described above. Interestingly, we observed 234 that control larvae spent significantly more time in the blue compartment than T3 treated larvae 235 (53% vs 1% respectively, p-value=5,2x10⁻⁷, Fig. 3E), which can be correlated with the higher 236 expression of opnsw2B observed in control larvae (Fig. 3D). Surprisingly, T3 treated larvae did not 237 spend much time in the orange compartment compared to DMSO treated larvae (11% vs 16% 238 respectively). Instead, they remained most of the time in the central compartment (88% vs 31% for 239 the DMSO controls, p-value=1,3x10⁻⁵). Observation of the larvae after 72 hours of T3 treatment 240 during the experimental trial revealed however that they remained close to the bottom of the 241 chamber, barely swimming, whereas control larvae were actively exploring the blue compartment. 242 The same behavior was observed when 30 days post hatching (dph) juveniles were similarly tested 243 (Supp. Fig. 4B). This indicated that, as expected, T3 accelerates the appearance of a juvenile-type 244 behavior which is in accordance with the benthic lifestyle of juvenile's clownfish, hiding in the 245 tentacles of their sea anemone host.

Taken together these results clearly demonstrate that TH control a shift in opsin gene expression that coincides with a change in color preference occurring during metamorphosis. Even if the shift of opsin gene expression cannot solely explain the visual preference, our results clearly

indicate that TH is coordinating a molecular, behavioral, and ecological transition essential for larvalsurvival in the wild.

251

252 A TH regulated metabolic transition during metamorphosis

Because TH is known to regulate metabolism in mammals, we investigated metabolic gene expression during clownfish metamorphosis (Mullur et al., 2014). Figure 4 shows the expression profile of the main genes involved in these pathways and highlights the rate limiting steps for glycolysis (phosphofructokinase, *pfkma* and *pfkmb*), citric acid cycle (citrate synthase, *cs*; isocitrate dehydrogenase, *idh3a*; oxoglutarate dehydrogenase, *ogdhl*, *dlst2*) and fatty acid β -oxidation (carnitine palmitoyl transferase *cpt1aa*, *cpt1b*, *cpt2*). The expression profile of all the genes implicated in these pathways are shown in Supplementary figures 5, 6 and 7.

260 These profiles revealed a clear overall pattern: glycolysis genes are highly expressed in larval 261 stages (S1 to S3) while their expression decreases during metamorphosis. This is particularly true for 262 the expression of the rate limiting enzymes (*pfkma* and *pfkmb*) which surges at S3 and strongly 263 decreases up to stage 7. In sharp contrast, the expression of fatty acid β -oxidation genes showed an 264 inverse profile with a low expression in larval stage and a sharp increase starting at stage 3 or 4. This 265 is especially the case for the *acads* gene that encodes acyl-coA dehydrogenase, an enzyme involved 266 in the second step of β -oxydation. This trend is again encountered on the rate limiting step (*cpt1aa*, 267 *cpt1b, cpt2*). The citric acid cycle genes are, in overall, expressed at lower level during larval stages 268 and their expression tends to increase early on during metamorphosis. This trend is more subtle and 269 early than the ones observed with glycolysis and fatty acid β -oxidation but again is observed on the 270 three rate limiting steps (cs, idh3a, ogdhl and dlst2). The lactic acid fermentation genes (lactate 271 dehydrogenase, *Idha*, *Idhba*, *Idhbb*, *Idhd*) are showing a more complex regulation.

Taken together, these results suggest that larval fish mainly rely on glycolysis and lactic acid fermentation (considered as anaerobic energy production) whereas during metamorphosis, the young juveniles rely more on fatty acid, degraded by the β -oxidation, and use the citric acid cycle for aerobic energy production. Of note, this trend is the inverse to what is observed in some other fish species such as the sea bass (Darias et al., 2008; Mazurais et al., 2011). This difference is likely to be explained by a difference in life history trait, sea bass being a pelagic fish whereas clownfish is reef associated.

279 We then studied if TH were instrumental in controlling this transition in energy production by 280 investigating their effects on the expression levels of *pfkma* and *pfkmb* (rate limiting step) and *pkmb* for glycolysis, *acads* for fatty acid β-oxidation, *idh3a* for the citric acid cycle as well as *ldhba* and *ldhbb* for lactic acid fermentation (Fig. 4B). In accordance with expression profile described above, TH down regulated the expression of glycolysis gene and up regulated those involved in the citric acid cycle and β-oxidation. For lactic acid fermentation we observed a dual effect with TH up regulating *ldhbb* and down regulating *ldhba*, consistent with the respective increase and decrease of those two genes during metamorphosis (Fig. 4A-B). This clearly indicates that TH control a switch between glucose-based anaerobic toward a fatty acid, aerobic-energy production.

288

289 TH favors a complexification of lipids during metamorphosis

290 The previous data suggest a transition in energy source during metamorphosis with fatty acid 291 β -oxidation being the main energy pathway during metamorphosis. In line with this observation, we 292 noticed that the genes implicated in lipid biosynthesis and fat storage are not induced and 293 sometimes even repressed during metamorphosis.

294 Lipid biosynthesis requires the transport of citrate from the mitochondria to the cytosol by 295 the tricarboxylate carrier protein SLC25A1 and then the formation of acetyl-coA by the ATP citrate 296 lyase (acly) (Fig. 5A). This acetyl-coA is then used by acetyl-coA carboxylase (acaca and b) that form 297 malonyl-coA, the main starting susbstrate for fatty acid biosynthesis by fatty acid synthase (fasn). In 298 our transcriptomic data, we observed that *slc25a1* expression decreased regularly from stage 1 until 299 stage 6 with a final slight increase in stage 7 (Fig. 5A). The following genes in the pathway were either 300 slightly increasing (aclya, acacb) or constant (aclyb, acaca and fasn). All this suggest that de novo 301 fatty acid biosynthesis is minimal during metamorphosis. In accordance with this notion, TH 302 treatment decreased fasn expression, suggesting that TH does not favor de novo fatty acid 303 biosynthesis in this context (Fig. 5B). These data also suggest that the main source of fuel for fatty 304 acid β -oxidation are fatty acid coming from the diet, a situation that has already been observed in 305 many marine fish species as fatty acids are abundant in marine algae and zooplankton (Tocher, 2010).

In sharp contrast to these *de novo* fatty acid biosynthesis steps, we observed that the genes implicated in the desaturation and elongation of fatty acids are regulated during metamorphosis. This is important as long-chain fatty acid (polyunsaturated and highly unsaturated fatty acid, respectively PUFA and HUFA) participate in many biological processes and are precursors of key signaling molecules. PUFAs and HUFAS are generated by the action of front-end desaturases (FADS, SCD) and elongase (ELOVL). In contrast to mammals, in clownfish there is only one FADS that is encoded by the *fads2* gene, as in most marine fishes. This gene is up regulated during

313 metamorphosis (Fig. 5A). The other desaturases, stearoyl-coA desaturase (scda and scdb) are also 314 activated with similar dynamics. The many elongase genes, including *elov15* acting on C_{18} and C_{20} 315 PUFAs, elov/4 also acting on PUFAs and elov/6 acting on saturated fatty acids (FA) and 316 monounsaturated fatty acids (MUFA) (Xie et al., 2021) showed a wide variety of patterns suggesting 317 an intricate level of regulation: elov/5 expression is up-regulated so are the two elov/6 genes, 318 whereas *elovl4* expression decreases. We also observed that *srebp1*, *ppary*, *lxr* and *chreb*, 319 transcription factors known to be implicated in the regulation of *fads* and *elovl* genes in fish, are also 320 up-regulated during metamorphosis suggesting that a major coordinated change of gene expression 321 related to lipid biochemistry occurred at this stage (Fig. 5A) (Alves Martins et al., 2012; Pinto et al., 322 2016; Zhang et al., 2016).

323 These data reveal that, while fatty acids are used as energy source during metamorphosis, 324 they are also metabolized to generate more complex lipids that are precursors for signaling 325 molecules. We therefore compared the lipids content between four post-embryonic stages: S3, S4 326 the pivotal stage, and two metamorphic stages, S5 and S6 (n=3 per stage; Fig. 5B). In accordance with 327 the increased expression of *fads2*, *elov15* and *elov16*, we observed a strong statistically significant 328 decrease of saturated lipids and, concomitantly, an increase in MUFA and PUFA. In contrast to those 329 two fatty acid classes, HUFA content decreased steadily during metamorphosis. Supplementary 330 Figure 8 show the complex changes of individual lipid molecules that we observed. Taken together, 331 these results suggest that the metamorphosis coincides also with a major change in fatty acid 332 biochemistry and the complexification of the molecules present that can be used as cell membranes 333 constituents, energy storage, fatty acid transport and as a source of signaling molecules (Hulbert, 334 2021).

335 To determine if these changes are under TH coordination, we analyzed the effects of TH on 336 the expression of key enzymes implicated in fatty acid desaturation and elongation and we studied if 337 TH treatment (10^{-7} and 10^{-8} M, 72 hours post treatment of stage 3 larvae) was effectively able to alter 338 the amount of specific lipids. At the gene expression level, we observed that TH exposure effectively induces a change in the expression of key genes, increasing fads2 expression and, surprisingly, 339 340 repressing *elov15* gene expression (Fig. 5C). Interestingly, we noticed that TH also up regulate the 341 expression of ppary, srebp1, chreb and lxr, major transcriptional regulators of desaturases and 342 elongases.

343 Concerning lipids, we observed a great variability from one fish to another, a situation 344 probably linked to the fact that it is almost impossible to control the metabolic status and feeding 345 time of such tiny aquatic organisms. This variability impacted the number of lipids for which we can

get statistically significant differences in level between TH treatment and controls (DMSO). However, we observed that 37 lipids upon the 1323 studied show differences in levels after TH treatment (Supp. Fig. 9) and we noticed a non-statistically significant trend for 197 others (data not shown). In overall our data suggest that 144 lipids are increased after TH treatment whereas 137 are decreased revealing a major implication of TH in lipid metabolism.

Taken together these data suggest that during metamorphosis, clownfish used free fatty acids (saturated and HUFA) as a major energy source and, in addition, dietary lipids as substrates to generate a pleiad of molecules, many of which served as fatty acid transport (acyl carnitine), energy storage (triacylglycerol), membrane constituents (ceramide, sphingomyelin, phosphatidyl ethanolamine) or signaling molecules (phosphatidylglycerol sphingomyelin). As vision and energy metabolism, this transition in lipid biochemistry is also controlled by TH that appear as a major conductor of the metamorphosis process.

358

359

LXR modulation reveal an intimate link between metabolic transition and metamorphosis

360 In the transcription factors regulating fatty acid biochemistry, LXR (liver X regulators, also 361 called NR1H3) is particularly interesting given its known pivotal role. This receptor is a major 362 regulator of lipid metabolism and also regulates fatty acid metabolism through, for example, the 363 control of srebp and elongases and desaturases genes (Wang and Tontonoz, 2018). Additionally, in 364 mouse $lxr\beta$ control TH signaling in the brain and adipose tissue and its knock-out resulted in 365 increased dio2, nis and TH transport genes (Ghaddab-Zroud et al., 2014; Miao et al., 2015). We used 366 SR9243, a selective LXR antagonist to test if inhibiting LXR action will affect clownfish metamorphosis 367 and its underlying gene regulatory program. Importantly, we verified that this compound specifically 368 inhibits fish LXR activity and is inactive on PPAR γ and PXR (Supp. Fig. 10).

As expected, after treating stage 3 larvae for 5 days with 10⁻⁷M SR9243, we observed a dysregulation of lipid metabolism genes such as *acads, srebp, fads2* and *elovl5* genes (Fig. 6A) confirming that in clownfish as in zebrafish, LXR is a regulator of lipid metabolism. We also observed that glycolysis genes (*pfkma* and *pkmb*) are down regulated whereas citric acid cycle genes are up regulated (Fig. 6A).

Interestingly, in this context, we also observed a clear acceleration of metamorphosis revealed by white bar appearance (Salis et al., 2021; Figure 6B-C). By counting the number of individuals harboring white bars we observed a significant difference in SR9243-treated fishes (66% for head bar and 50% for trunk bar vs 16% and 16% in DMSO controls, respectively; Fig. 6C). This

378 shows that, as in mouse, LXR inhibition activate TH signaling and we effectively observed that $tr\beta$, 379 *dio2* and *dio3a* are up regulated after treatment (Fig. 6A).

Based on these results, we investigated if SR9243 exposure also affects the other processes that are coordinated by TH and in particular vision. Interestingly, LXR antagonist also promoted the opsin genes expression shift, decreasing short wavelength and increasing long wavelength opsin expression (Fig. 6A). LXR antagonist also regulated the phototransduction gene *guca1a*, as observed in zebrafish (Fig. 6A ; Pinto et al., 2016). Taken together, these results show that modulating lipid homeostasis by inhibiting LXR activity affect TH signaling and vision, linking metabolic regulation with the coordination of metamorphosis.

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Natural TH regulation in an ecological context, reveals metabolic and visual effect.

We previously reported a natural situation in which endogenous TH level regulation occurs (Salis et al., 2021). In Kimbe bay, Papua New Guinea *Amphiprion percula* can inhabit in two different sea anemone hosts: the carpet sea anemone *Stichodactyla gigantea* and the magnificent sea anemone *Heteractis magnifica*. In these two hosts, the new recruits exhibit differences in white bar formation that are linked to a higher TH level (Fig. 7A) and higher *duox* expression in fish hosted by *S*. *gigantea* (Salis et al., 2021). Given the results described above, we therefore measured the expression levels of genes implicated in vision and metabolic regulation in this natural context.

We compared gene expression between new recruits found in *H. magnifica* (n = 3) or *S. gigantea* (n = 3) by RNA sequencing of whole fish. On a PCA analysis based on vision and metabolic genes, we observed a clear separation between both types of recruits (Fig. 7B). We noticed that, in accordance with the higher TH level in *S. gigantea* recruits, the phototransduction gene *guca1a* is up regulated whereas the short wavelength opsin *opnsw1* as well as the rhodopsin *rh1* and *rh2a* are down regulated (Fig. 7D). We also detected a small down regulation of the long wavelength opsin *opnlw*.

403 At the metabolic level we also observed a clear separation of recruits living in *S. gigantea vs.* 404 those in *H. magnifica* suggesting that effectively the metabolic status of both type is different (Fig. 405 7C). When individual genes are studied, we observed that *S. gigantea* recruits contain higher TH 406 level, a decrease in expression of the glycolytic *pkmb* gene and the lactic fermentation gene *ldhba* 407 and an increased expression of the TCA cycle gene *idh3* and the β -oxidation genes *acaa1* and *acads* 408 (Fig. 7E-F). Similarly, we observed a decrease in the expression level of the fatty acid synthase gene 409 *fasn*. These results are in accordance with the metabolic transition observed during metamorphosis

410 and demonstrate the relevance of these effects in natural populations living in their pristine 411 environment.

412

413 Discussion

In this paper we reveal how TH control and coordinate a major ecological transition, the metamorphosis of a pelagic coral reef fish larvae into a benthic reef associated juvenile. Our data therefore suggest a model, discussed below, according to which TH has a central coordinating function to ensure the ecological success of the metamorphosed juvenile.

Three main functions were attributed to TH in vertebrates: (i) the triggering of metamorphosis in amphibians and fish; (ii) the regulation of adult physiology and metabolism in mammals and (iii) the adaptation to seasonality regulation in vertebrates (Dardente et al., 2014; Laudet, 2011; Sayre and Lechleiter, 2012). The extends to which these functions are shared across vertebrates remains unclear, but our data clearly suggest that the two first functions are active during clownfish metamorphosis: TH promotes the morphological and behavioral transformation of the larvae while alo promoting a metabolic shift in energy source.

We have studied in detail the action of TH on vision and metabolism and in a recent report, we uncovered their function for adult pigmentation pattern formation (Salis et al., 2021). Interestingly, our transcriptomic data obtained on whole larvae reveal that several other important biological processes such as bone mineralization and digestion are also changing during metamorphosis. This, together with the detailed analysis of vision and metabolism that we have performed, clearly illustrate the pleiotropic TH action during metamorphosis.

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A behavioral shift in vision controlled by TH

433 We observed a TH-induced shift in between short wavelength and long wavelength opsin 434 gene expression at stage 4 during clownfish metamorphosis (Fig. 3). Interestingly, this shift occurs 435 concomitantly with a behavioral change, namely a change in color preference. Larval fish prefers a 436 blue background, in accordance with their natural pelagic environment, whereas juveniles prefer an 437 orange background in accordance with the shallow, colorful and chromatically dynamic environment 438 of the reef (Chiao et al., 2000). In addition, we showed that TH exposure decreases the preference 439 for blue background on treated fish. In addition, the TH-treated larvae, adopted a benthic behavior 440 characterized by low swimming activity close to the bottom of the experimental tank, which is in 441 accordance with the benthic live style of anemonefish juveniles. Our data do not unequivocally 442 demonstrate a direct effect of TH in color vision as many effects can also be elicited in neural circuit

443 mechanisms for color vision (Baden, 2021). However, they strongly suggest that TH globally controls
444 a visual shift that is ecologically critical for the recruitment success of juveniles.

445 Vision is one of the main sensory systems that has been studied by ecologists in the context 446 of fish recruitment (Job and Shand, 2001; Shand, 1997). A shift in opsin gene expression, and in 447 particular an increase of opnlw expression, has been observed in many fish species such as flatfishes, 448 black bream or cichlids (Carleton et al., 2008; Ferraresso et al., 2013; Härer et al., 2017; Shand et al., 449 2008; Shao et al., 2017). However, up to date, there is only a partial understanding of the 450 mechanistical control of this phenomenon and its integration with metamorphic transformation. In 451 zebrafish, TH signaling has been shown to regulate the *opnlw* and mutation of the $TR\beta$ gene resulted 452 in an absence of red cones but no link with an ecological transition was established (Suzuki et al., 453 2013). In surgeonfish, we have observed that shifts in retina structure and in the ability to visually 454 recognize predators are both controlled by TH but no data on gene expression have been obtained so 455 far, leaving the mechanism underpinning this recognition unclear (Besson et al., 2020).

The data we obtained here, are in accordance with what has been observed in mammals. In the mouse, (Eldred et al., 2018) have shown that TH controls the temporal switch between S and L/M cones which contains short and medium/long wavelength opsins, respectively. This suggests that the TH action on opsin gene expression and more generally visual function is a general phenomenon in vertebrates. By its ability to combine *in vitro* and field studies, the anemonefish model could allow to integrate the TH action on retina formation and more generally on sensory systems maturation in an ecologically relevant context (Roux et al., 2020).

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The metabolic transition is instrumental for metamorphosis completion

We observed a major metabolic transition during metamorphosis, and we provided evidence
 that TH is implicated in this transition. Namely, larvae preferentially use glycolysis and fermentation
 to produce energy whereas juveniles rely on fatty acid β-oxidation and citric acid cycle.

468 Our data show that there is a clear shift from glycolysis during early larval life (stage 1-3) to β -469 oxidation starting at stage 4 (Fig. 4). To put this finding in perspective we need to consider three 470 parameters: (i) the changes in the organism growth; (ii) the transition of the fish into a new 471 ecological life and (iii) the energy produced by each pathway. In glycolysis, one molecule of glucose 472 produces a net excess of only 2 ATP, 2 NADH and 2 molecules of pyruvate while oxidation of one 473 molecule of palmitic acid (C16:0) (one of the most common saturated fatty acid found in vertebrates), 474 produces a net gain of 129 ATP molecules by β -oxidation (Wang et al., 2020). Therefore, utilizing 475 fatty acid as a fuel source generates much more energy that sugar. During A. ocellaris post-476 embryonic development, we observe a massive increase in size soon after stage 4. Growth in 477 vertebrates in highly demanding in energy and having the possibility for the larvae to utilize a fuel 478 source that produces a large number of ATP is certainly an advantage. Moreover, after stage 4, the 479 transforming fish must actively swim to find its juvenile habitat and once settled, will have to fight 480 with congeners to be accepted in the colony. All this will require high energy demand, hence high 481 ATP production explaining the transition to a more energy producing system.

In addition to this shift in energy production, we also reveal that TH also stimulates the production of complex lipids suggesting that the biochemical landscape of the juvenile is more elaborated than the larval one, because of TH action. These lipids can be used for fatty acid transport (acyl carnitine), energy storage (triacylglycerol), membrane constituents (ceramide, sphingomyelin, phosphatidyl ethanolamine) or signaling molecules (phosphatidylglycerol sphingomyelin) (Hulbert, 2021).

488 Interestingly, this metabolic transition is deeply linked to the morphological and behavioral 489 changes that we describe in this paper. Indeed, when we modify lipid metabolism by using a LXR 490 antagonist, we observed an acceleration of white bar appearance as well as a shift in opsin gene 491 expression, two of the most salient endpoints of metamorphosis. This suggests that LXR is active 492 during this period, in accordance with its expression peak at stage 4 and its up regulation by TH. LXR 493 might be involved in slowing-down the process, ensuring that it is progressing concomitantly with the 494 available energy production. In addition, by its known action in regulating elongases and desaturase 495 genes, LXR is likely playing an important role in the complexification of fatty acids that we observed 496 (Xie et al., 2021).

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The ecological function of thyroid hormone

499 Collectively our data suggest that TH is instrumental in integrating the complex remodeling 500 occurring during metamorphosis with the available resources provided by the environment. This is 501 highly relevant for a marine fish that similarly to a pelagic larvae, is living in a very dynamic 502 environment characterized by patchy food resources (Seuront et al., 2001). It must be pointed out 503 that the challenges faced by a tiny pelagic fish larvae are impressive: It must combine energy 504 production from highly patchy food resources, mobilize its reserves in case of fasting and, at the 505 same time, mature sensory systems that can detect future juvenile habitat, all this while avoiding 506 predators! Our paper strongly suggests that TH plays a major role to orchestrate this complex 507 transformation.

508 Interestingly, the fact that metabolism must be coupled with developmental transition to 509 fulfill the energy requirements during organisms' life cycle, have been previously pointed out in the 510 context of insect metamorphosis. (Nishimura, 2020) have revealed that the programed regulation of 511 metabolism by steroid hormones control the key steps during drosophila metamorphosis. This is 512 remarkably similar to the effects we observed here with the major difference that, in contrast to

insect pupa, the transforming fish larva rely on an external food source. However, in both cases, the
coordination of the larval transformation must integrate both environmental and internal conditions.
Adjusting metabolic regulation is a major tool for achieving this.

516 Our data are also relevant to consider in the light of previous work done on stickleback. 517 These fish can live in either marine or freshwater environment and the energy resource available in 518 these two situations are drastically different. Interestingly, Kitano et al., 2010 have shown that, in 519 freshwater sticklebacks there was a fine tuning of numerous physiological and metabolic traits that 520 ensure a reduced energy expenditure. These changes are driven by TH, as a genetic variant 521 expressing low level of TSH, the main hypothalamic peptide controlling TH production, has been fixed 522 in these populations (Kitano et al., 2010). In these freshwater sticklebacks in which TH level is low, 523 there is also evidence of a shift in opsin gene expression linked to local adaptation to different light 524 environment (Rennison et al., 2016). This suggests that, in stickleback as in anemonefish, there is a 525 tight integration of metabolic and sensory changes, and that TH may be instrumental in this process. 526 This case provides a genuinely nice illustration of a still unappreciated potential for TH regulation to 527 induce pleiotropic changes, allowing a multi-level regulation of a developmental transition (Laudet, 528 2010).

529 Our model has also a general significance regarding the effect of climate change and 530 pollution in animal populations. Indeed, the sensitivity of metamorphosis to environmental stressors 531 has been recently emphasized (Lowe et al., 2021). Metamorphosis being a life-history transition with 532 abrupt oncogenic changes tightly connecting to environmental conditions can make young life stages 533 vulnerable to stressors. Indeed, we demonstrated previously in convict surgeonfish, that 534 temperature and pollution both synergistically disrupt TH signaling affecting the ability of the young 535 juveniles to perform their ecological function (Besson et al., 2020). Our study therefore suggests that 536 more research is needed to decipher how stressors affects not only metamorphosis endpoints but 537 also the metabolic regulations that ensure its correct progression.

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539

540 Material and Methods

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542 Amphiprion ocellaris maintenance and rearing

543 *Amphiprion ocellaris* larvae were obtained from breeding paired maintained as described in Roux 544 et al. (2021) in a rearing structure. Reproductive pairs laid eggs every two weeks allowing us to rear 545 larvae regularly for the purpose of this study.

546 Transcriptomic analysis

547 **RNA extraction**

Three larvae per stage are sampled making a total of 21 samples. Larvae are euthanized in a MS222 solution (200 mg/l), photographed for stage identification, and kept in RNAlater prior to RNA extraction. Total RNA is extracted from whole individual larval body using a Maxwell®16 System (Promega, Madison, USA) and following the manufacturer's instructions. RNA integrity and concentration is verified with an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, USA) and only samples with RIN values equal to, or above 8 are used. In our case, all samples had RIN values above 9.

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RNA-Seq libraries preparation and sequencing

RNA-Seq libraries and sequencing are performed by the IGBMC in Strasbourg on an Illumina
HiSeq4000 sequencer using a stranded protocol with paired-end 2x100bp.

558 Software

Transcriptomic analyses are performed by the Altrabio Company (Lyon, France) using the following
software: FasQCversion 0.11.8 and fastq_screen version 0.13.0, Salmon version 0.14.1, R version
3.6.1 (2019-07-05), x86_64-apple-darwin15.6.0.

562

Pre-treatment (read quality, quantification, filtering, normalization)

563 Quality of raw reads is assessed using the FastQC guality control tool1. Sample contamination is 564 assessed using the fastq_screen quality control tool2. The Bowtie2 indexes for Amphiprion ocellaris 565 are generated from Ensembl "Amphiprion ocellaris.AmpOce1.0.dna.toplevel.fa" file. Amphiprion 566 ocellaris transcript sequences and annotations (Ensembl release 97) are downloaded from the 567 Amphiprion_ocellaris.AmpOce1.0.cdna.all.fa, Ensembl website3 (files 568 Amphiprion ocellaris.AmpOce1.0.ncrna.fa and Amphiprion ocellaris.AmpOce1.0.97.gtf). Some genes 569 which had no official symbols in Ensembl are given the following symbols: ENSAOCG0000023317 570 =tg, ENSAOCG0000008531 = mct8, ENSAOCG00000005709 = dio3a, ENSAOCG00000017526 = edn3b, 571 and ENSAOCG00000019494 = bnc2. Transcript expression quantification is performed from the raw 572 read data (FASTQ files) using Salmon4 (with parameters --gcBias, --seqBias, --validateMappings, --573 discardOrphansQuasi, and --consistentHits). They are then summarized as gene counts using function 574 tximport from package tximport5 (with parameters type="salmon" and 575 countsFromAbundance="lengthScaledTPM"). Genes that did not have more than 0.502 count per 576 million counts in at least three samples are filtered out. To generate the normalized signals, the 577 effective library sizes are first computed using function estimateSizeFactors from package DESeq26. 578 The raw count values are then transformed using a variance stabilizing transformation (function 579 VarianceStabilizingTransformation from package DESeq2 with parameter blind=TRUE).

580 Hierarchical clustering

Hierarchical clusterings of samples are performed using the Wards agglomerative method, passing the euclidean distances between samples to function hclust from package stats (with parameter method="ward.D2"). Cluster stability is estimated by multiscale bootstrap resampling using function pvclust from package pvclust7 (with parameter nboot=10000). Hierarchical clusterings of genes are performed using the complete agglomerative method, passing the Euclidean distances between centered (for expression data) or uncentered (for fold change data) and scaled gene signals with function hclust from package stats.

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Principal component analysis

590 Principal Component Analyses (PCA) of sample expression levels are performed with gene 591 signals centered but not scaled (using function prcomp from package stats). When displayed, gene 592 coordinates correspond to these genes' correlations with the presented components. Only the genes 593 that contribute most to the components are displayed.

594

595 TH dosage

596 To determine at which stage TH are surging and marking the beginning of metamorphosis, pools 597 of five clownfish larvae are sampled in triplicate at each of the seven developmental stages identified 598 in Roux et al. (2019). THs are extracted from dry-frozen larvae (previously euthanized in a 200 mg/l 599 solution of MS-222) following the protocol developed by Holzer et al. (2017) and adapted from 600 previous TH extractions in teleost fishes (Einarsdóttir et al., 2006b; Kawakami et al., 2008; Tagawa 601 and Hirano, 1989). TH concentrations are measured by a medical laboratory in Perpignan (Médipole) 602 using an ELISA kit (Access Free T3, T4, Beckman Coulter).

603 *In situ* hybridization

Digoxigenin RNA probes were synthesized using the T3/T7 Transcription Kit (Roche; Supp. Table 1). Larvae were collected, euthanized in MS222 at 200 mg/L and fixed 12 hours in 4%. paraformaldehyde diluted in PBS (phosphate-buffered saline). Samples were subsequently dehydrated stepwise in PBS/ethanol, and then put three times 10 min in butanol 100% and finally in two bath of paraffin (respectively 1 and 4 hours) before being embedded in block. Embedded larvae were sectioned transversally at 7µm using Leica Biosystems RM2245 Microtome the day before starting ISH. The samples were then treated as in Thisse, Thisse, Schilling, and Postlethwait (1993).

611 Behavioral test for visual perception

612 Choice experiments are conducted on stage 2 and stage 5 to determine if there is a shift in visual 613 perception before and after metamorphosis. Thus, a dual choice aquarium (measuring 25x10x10 cm) 614 is built with white opaque comassel, fitted with transparent plexiglass on the sides (Fig. 3C). The 615 aquarium is divided into three equal compartments (Fig. 3C). The larvae are given the choice 616 between a short wavelength color: blue and a long wavelength color: orange. Each color is placed 617 close to the plexiglass sides. Behavioral experiments are conducted in a dark room where the choice 618 chamber is installed under a light ramp to ensure homogenous distribution of the light over the 619 device. All the larvae are tested individually. The larvae are introduced carefully in the choice 620 chamber without the colored panels and left for acclimation for 2 min. They are free to explore the 621 three compartments. After acclimation and once the larvae are localized in the central compartment, 622 blue and orange panels are installed, and the time spent by the larvae in each compartment is 623 recorded during a 5 min period. We established that a larva preferred a color when it is spending 624 most of its time in the compartment of the given color (Fig. 3C). Color panels are inverted after each 625 tested larva to ensure that the choice is due to the color and not to a defect in the experimental 626 device. Results are expressed in the mean percentage of time spent in each compartment. A Kruskall-627 Wallis test is performed to determine if the difference in the amount of time spent between larvae 628 (stage 2 vs stage 5, and DMSO vs T3) is significantly different in each compartment.

629

630 T3 treatments

To test the effects of THs on the metamorphosis of clownfish A. ocellaris, larvae were exposed to various concentration of T3 using the low-rearing volume protocol developed by Roux et al., (2021). Briefly, larvae were exposed to three different concentrations of a mix of T3 and iopanoic acid (IOP) to induce metamorphosis. IOP was added to block the action of the deiodinases and avoid the degradation of the added T3 (Holzer et al., 2017). Larvae were exposed to increasing doses of T3: 10⁻ 636 ⁸M, 10⁻⁷M, 10⁻⁶M (the IOP concentration remained constant at 10-7M), and to DMSO (as control) 637 diluted at 1:1000. Larvae were sampled at 12h, 24h, 48h and 72h for gene expression analysis using 638 nCounter technology from Nanostring. Exposition started at stage 3 before the beginning of the 639 metamorphosis and lasted for 12h, 24h, 48h and 72h. Larvae were introduced by groups of 10 in 800 640 ml beakers placed in a water bath to maintain the temperature at 27°C. Larvae were fed 3 times a 641 day with rotifers at a final concentration of 10 rotifers/ml and once a day with nauplii of artemia 642 (Roux et al., 2021). The algae *N. oculata* was added (500µl/beaker) at each feeding to create a green 643 environment and improve survival rates. During the experiment, water changes of 100 ml (with 644 addition of each treatment to maintain constant concentrations) were done daily to ensure water 645 guality. Larvae were sampled after 12h, 24h, 48h, and 72h of exposition, euthanized in a MS222 646 solution (200mg/l) and photographed under a Zeiss stereomicroscope (V20 discovery Plan S) 647 equipped with an Axiocam 105 camera for morphological analysis. Three replicates composed of 648 pools of two larvae were then kept in RNA later at -20°C for gene analysis using nCounter technology 649 from Nanostring.

650

651 Gene expression measurements using nCounter technology

652 **Probe synthesis**

Probes of 100 nucleotides were designed by Integrated DNA Technology for all the genes investigated in this study (Supp. Table 2). However, no probes could be designed that specifically targeted $TR\alpha a$, $TR\alpha b$, rh2a-1 and rh2a-2 as sequences were too similar. For this reason, only one pair of probes has been designed and targeting both $TR\alpha$ and rh2a genes. Seven reference genes were chosen for normalization and expression analysis: *Tuba1*, *PolD2*, *g6pd*, *eif4a3*, *tbp*, *rpl7* and *rpl32*.

658

659 Sample processing

Samples of each experiment were processed in multiplexed reaction including, in each case, six negative probes (to determine the background) and six positive control probes. Hybridization reactions lasted 16 hours at 67°C. Data were then imported into the nSolver analysis software (version2.5) for quality checking and normalization of data according to NanoString analysis guidelines, using positive probes and 7 housekeeping genes (*Tuba1, PolD2, g6pd, eif4a3, tbp, rpl7* and *rpl32*) (Kulkarni, 2011).

666

667 Statistical analysis

668 After normalization, analysis of the difference between treatments for each experiment was 669 conducted using ANOVA (R software 3.2.3 version) and fold change calculated on a log2 scale. As

670 multiple comparison was used, p-value was adjusted using the Benjamini & Hochberg method 671 (Ferreira and Zwinderman, 2006).

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Lipid composition measurements and analysis

Larvae were sampled at stage 3, 4, 5 and 6 and starved for one hour before being flash frozen
in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 C° until analysis. Three individuals were collected for each
condition and lipid extraction was done on each individual.

677 Samples were analyzed as previously described (Weir et al., 2013), briefly, samples were 678 thawed and lyophilized to remove all liquid. Samples were then reconstituted prior to extraction in 679 10 µl of water and 10 µl of internal standard mix (ISTD) was added to each sample. Lipids were 680 extracted by adding 200 µl chloroform/methanol (2:1) and sonicated in a bath for 30 minutes before 681 the supernatant was transferred to a 96-well plate and dried under vacuum in a SpeedVac 682 Concentrator (Savant). Samples were then reconstituted with 50 μ l water saturated butanol and 50 683 µl methanol with 10 mM ammonium formate and analysed by LC ESI-MS/MS using an Agilent 1200 684 LC system and an ABSciex 4000 Qtrap mass spectrometer. Data was processed using MultiQuant 2.1 685 software. Lipids are presented as pmol/mg protein. The lipid standards used in this analysis were as 686 previously described (Weir et al., 2013).

587 Statistical analysis on developmental stage was performed using one way ANOVA with R 588 software for each lipid followed by a multiple pairwise comparison performed by pairwise t-test in 589 case of significant differences (p-value<0.05) (Fraher et al., 2016).

590 Similar analysis was performed on larvae treated for 72hours at 10⁻⁸ M and 10⁻⁷ M T3(mixed 691 with 10⁻⁷ M IOP). Sampling was performed as explained previously. Statistical analyses were 692 performed on comparing each T3 concentration with DMSO control condition using the test of 693 Student with R software.

694

695 **LXR experiments**

Specificity of a human LXR antagonist SR9243 was tested in reporter cell lines expressing the
ligand binding domains of zebrafish receptors LXR, PPARγ and PXR. Briefly, SR9243 was tested alone
for its agonistic activity in HG5LN-zfLXR, -zfPPARγ and zf-PXR cells (Creusot et al., 2020; Garoche et al.,
2021). For its antagonistic activity on -zfLXR, -zfPPARγ and zf-PXR cells, SR9243 was tested in
combination with T091317 30 nM, GW3965 3 µM and clotrimazole 0.1 µM respectively (Supp. Fig.
10).

702 Larvae of A. ocellaris were sampled at stage 3 and treated for 5 days with DMSO (control 703 condition) and LXR antagonist SR9243 at 10⁻⁷ M. Experiment was conducted following the protocol 704 described in Roux et al., 2021 and detailed previously. Gene expressions was obtained by RT-qPCR 705 (PrimeScript transcriptase, Takara, SYBRgreen) and normalized with Pfaffle equation using two 706 housekeeping genes (rpl7, rpl32) (Stahlberg et al., 2004). Specific primers were designed using 707 Primer3 software (Untergasser et al., 2012). Primers sequenced are summarized in Supp. Table 1. 708 Significant difference of gene expression level between DMSO control and SR9243 conditions was 709 assessed by using the test of Student with R software. Difference between the number of individuals 710 displaying white bars in both conditions was assessed by a Chi² test performed with R software.

711

Amphiprion percula RNA sequencing

712 Amphiprion percula new recruit were sampled in Kimbe, Papua New Guinea in both 713 Heteractis magnifica and Stichodactyla gigantea. A total of three new recruits per sea anemone were 714 euthanized in MS222 solution and stored in RNAlater until RNA extraction and RNA sequencing of the 715 whole fish individually (Salis et al. 2021). Potential adapter contaminations were removed and 716 trimmed to obtain raw reads with cutadapt (v.1.13; (Martin, 2011)) and sickle (v1.29, (Joshi and Fass, 717 2011)), respectively. The processed reads were mapped against A. percula reference genome 718 (Ensembl ID: GCA 003047355.1; (Lehmann et al., 2019)) using HiSat2 (v.2.1.0; (Kim et al., 2015)). Raw 719 counts for each gene were obtained with HTSeq (htseq-count, v.0.9.1; (Anders et al., 2015)), using 720 the available gene annotation of the A. percula reference genome (Salis et al. 2021). Raw counts 721 were then normalized as transcript per million to assess the difference in expression levels for gene 722 involved in vision and metabolic processes using the test of student. Principal component analysis 723 was also performed on each biological process separately.

724

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734

735 Author contribution

736 NR and VL wrote the manuscript with contributions from YG, KG, DL and LB. NR, VL, DL, LB 737 designed the whole study with the help of YG and KG for the metabolic aspects. Transcriptome 738 assembly was performed by SB and analysis were performed by SB and NR. NR performed all the 739 pharmacological treatments with the help of SM, MD, YT and FL. NR performed gene expression and 740 behavioral experiments linked to visual perception and metabolism (with the help of SM and YT). YG 741 and KG brought their expertise on metabolic regulation and lipid metabolism. YG helped in the lipid 742 analysis. NR, SM and YT conducted experiments on lipid metabolism gene expression. PS generated 743 the transcriptomic data set of Amphiprion percula recruits sampled in Kimbe, Papua New Guinea. ABa and NR analyzed A. percula transcriptome. NR and MR conducted thyroid hormone 744 745 measurments. Abo performed LXR antagonist activity experiment on zebrafish.

746

747 Ethics Approval

748 All experiments conducted in this study were done under the approval from the C2EA-36 Ethics

749 Committee for Animal Experiment Languedoc-Roussillon (CEEA-LR - approval N°A6601601) as well as

- 750 following the Animal Experiment Regulations at Okinawa Institute of Science and Technology
- 751 Graduate University (approval N°20052605).
- 752

753 **Competing interests**

The authors declare no competing interests.

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- 939
- 940 Figure legends

941 Figure 1: Three distinct periods during clownfish post-embryonic development. (A) Principal 942 component analysis (PCA) according to the 1000 genes with the highest variance showing three 943 major groups: early developmental stages, stage 4, and late developmental stages. (B) Heatmap of 944 the 100 genes with the highest variance. Colors represent the intensity of the centered (but 945 unscaled) signal that, for each gene, ranges from low (blue), to medium (white) and to high (red). (C) 946 PCA of the morphological transformation according to body depth (BD), head length (HL) and Snout 947 vent length (SVL) over Standard length (SL, in red). (D) Variation in TH levels during the seven post 948 embryonic stages of A. ocellaris. (E) Number of genes differentally expressed between contiguous 949 developmental stages.

950

951 **Figure 2: TH pathway is active during metamorphosis.** Expression levels of TH signaling pathway 952 genes extracted from the transcriptomic data, depicted in front of each step of the pathway. TRH:

thyroid releasing hormone, TSH: thyroid stimulating hormone, DUOX: dual oxidase, TG: thyroglobulin,
TPO: thyroperoxidase, NIS: sodium iodine symporter, DIO: deiodinase, TR: thyroid hormone receptor.

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956 Figure 3: TH control visual perception shift by regulating opsin gene expression. (A) Heat map of the 957 eight opsin genes involved in visual perception organized from top to bottom according to short 958 (opnsw2B, opnsw1 α , opnsw1 β), medium (rh2B, rh2A-1, rh2A-2, rh1) and long (opnlw) wavelength 959 sensitivity. (B) Behavioral test for color preference. Mean percentage of time spent by stages 2 960 (n=20) and 5 (n=20) larvae in each compartment of a dual choice chamber. Statistical differences 961 (indicated by a star (*)) between each stage in each compartment were calculated by a chi² test. (C) 962 In situ hybridization of sectioned stage 2, 4 and 6 larval retina using probes for opnsw2b and opnlw. 963 Black arrowhead indicates expression signals in the photoreceptors (external nuclear layer). (D) 964 Regulation of opnsw2B and opnlw expression after 48 hours of treatment at 10^{-8} , 10^{-7} , 10^{-6} M T3 + 965 IOP (n=3 pools of 2 larvae per condition). Expression levels are expressed in fold change and 966 statistical differences between treatment and DMSO control are indicated by a star (*). (E) T3 affect 967 the color preference. Effects of T3 at 10^{-6} M (n=19) compared to DMSO control (n=14) after 48 hours 968 treatment on the mean percentage of time spent by larvae in each compartment. Statistical 969 differences (indicated by a star (*)) between each condition in each compartment were calculated by 970 a chi² test.

971 Figure 4: TH induce a major metabolic shift during metamorphosis. (A) Expression levels of genes 972 involved in glycolysis, lactic fermentation, fatty acid β oxidation, and citric acid cycle at each 973 developmental stage (S1: stage 1; S2: stage 2; S3: stage 3; S4: stage 4; S5: Stage 5; S6: stage 6 and 974 S7: stage 7) extracted from transcriptomic data clearly revealing a change of expression at stage 4 975 (indicated on each graph by a green rectangle) for each pathway. (B) Effects of T3 (10^{-8} , 10^{-7} , 10^{-6} M, 976 n=3 pools of 2 larvae per condition) after 12-, 24-, 48- and 72-hours post treatment (hpt) on the 977 expression levels of the representative genes for glycolysis (*pkmb*, *pfkma* and *pfkmb*), β oxidation 978 (*acads*), citric acid cycle (*idh3a*), lactic fermentation (*ldhba*, *ldhbb*).

979 Figure 5: TH action on lipid metabolism regulation during A. ocellaris metamorphosis. (A) 980 expression levels of genes involved in *de novo* lipogenesis and lipid desaturation and elongation at 981 various stages (S1: stage 1; S2: stage 2; S3: stage 3; S4: stage 4; S5: Stage 5; S6: stage 6 and S7: stage 982 7). (B) Fatty acid content of A. ocellaris at stage 3, 4 5 and 6 illustrated with an heat map (left) and 983 box plots (right). Significant differences between each fatty acid class are indicated by different 984 letters. (Sat: saturated, MUFA: monounsaturated fatty acids, PUFA: polyunsaturated fatty acids, 985 HUFA: highly unsaturated fatty acids). (C) Effects of T3 (10⁻⁸, 10⁻⁷, 10⁻⁶ M, n=3 pool of 2 larvae per 986 condition) after 12, 24, 48 and 72 hours post treatment (hpt) on the expression levels of

representative genes for fatty acid synthesis (*fasn*) desaturation (*fads2*), elongation (*elov15*) and for
the transcription factors involved in lipid metabolism regulation (*pparg, srebp1, chreb, lxr*).

989 Figure 6: Link between metabolic changes and metamorphosis progression revealed by LXR 990 antagonist treatment. (A) Effect of LXR antagonist at 10-7M after 5 days of treatment on the 991 expression levels of genes involved in TH signaling (trb, dio2, dio3a), glycolysis (pfkma, pkmb), citric 992 acid cycle (TCA) (idh3a), lipid metabolism (lxr, acads, srebp1, fads2, elovI5) and vision (quca1a, 993 opnsw2B and opnlw). Significant differences are indicated by a star (*). (B) Pictures of A. ocellaris 994 larvae after 5 days of treatment (dpt) with LXR antagonist (SR9243) at 10⁻⁷ M (bottom) compared to 995 DMSO control (top). Grey and blue arrowhead indicates white bar appearance in controls and LXR 996 antagonist treated fish, respectively. (C) Quantitative analysis showing the percentage of individuals 997 presenting white bar on the head and trunk (n=6 per condition). Significant differences are indicated 998 by a star (*).

Figure 7: Natural variations in TH levels reveal metabolic and visual effect. (A) Thyroid hormone level (T3) of new recruits sampled in the sea anemone *Heteractis magnifica* (blue, n=5) versus *Stichodactyla gigantea* (orange, n=5) (from Salis et al., 2021). (B-C) Principal component analysis of genes involved in vision and metabolism showing the separation between *A. percula* recruits sampled in *H. magnifica* vs *S. gigantea*. (D-E-F) *Expression levels of genes involved in vision* (D) and metabolism (E and F), obtained after RNA sequencing of *A. percula* recruit sampled in both sea anemone species, n=3 per condition.

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1007 Supplementary Figure legends

Supplementary Figure 1: (A) Principal component analysis generated using TH signaling pathway gene expression (obtained by RNA sequencing, n=3 per stage) showing a clear separation before and after metamorphosis. (B) Table summarizing the TH signaling genes significantly differentially expressed between each stage.

Supplementary Figure 2: Volcano plots showing the number of gene significantly differentially
expressed between each contiguous developmental stage (S1: stage 1; S2: stage 2; S3: stage 3; S4:
stage 4; S5: Stage 5; S6: stage 6 and S7: stage 7).

1015

1016 **Supplementary Figure 3:** Graphics showing the effect of thyroid hormone (T3 at 10⁻⁸, 10⁻⁷, 10⁻⁶ M) 1017 after 12, 24, 48 and 72hours of treatment on the expression levels (fold change) for genes involved in

1018 (A) thyroid hormone receptors (*TRa, TRb*), (B) genes involved in TH metabolism (*dio1, dio2, dio3a, dio3b*) and (C) TH synthesis (*tq, tpo,* sis),

Supplementary Figure 4: (A) Graphics showing the expression levels of *opnlw1, opnsw1, opnsw2B, Rh1, Rh2A* and *Rh2B* when larvae were treated for 48 hours to increasing concentrations of T3 (10⁻⁸,
 10⁻⁷, 10⁻⁶ M). Stars (*) Indicate the significant differences between treatment and control DMSO. (B)
 Graphic showing the percentage of time spent by five 30 days post hatching (dph) clownfish juveniles
 in the dual choice chamber when given the choice between orange and blue colors.
 Supplementary Figure 5: Figure showing the expression levels of all the genes encoding for the

enzyme involved in glycolysis. Each color indicates the organs in which these genes are known to be preferentially expressed in zebrafish. (S1: stage 1; S2: stage 2; S3: stage 3; S4: stage 4; S5: Stage 5; S6: stage 6 and S7: stage 7).

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Supplementary Figure 6: Figure showing the expression levels of all the genes encoding for the
enzyme involved in citric acid cycle during *A. ocellaris* development (S1: stage 1; S2: stage 2; S3: stage
3; S4: stage 4; S5: Stage 5; S6: stage 6 and S7: stage 7).

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Supplementary Figure 7: (A) the expression levels (obtained by RNA sequencing) during larval development of genes encoding for enzymes of the pyruvate dehydrogenase complex (catalyzing the transformation of pyruvate in acetyl coA).

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Supplementary Figure 8: Fatty acid concentration measured at stage 3, 4, 5 and 6 (n=3 per condition).
 Fatty acid with concentration significantly different between stages are highlighted in yellow and
 different letters indicate significant differences between stages.

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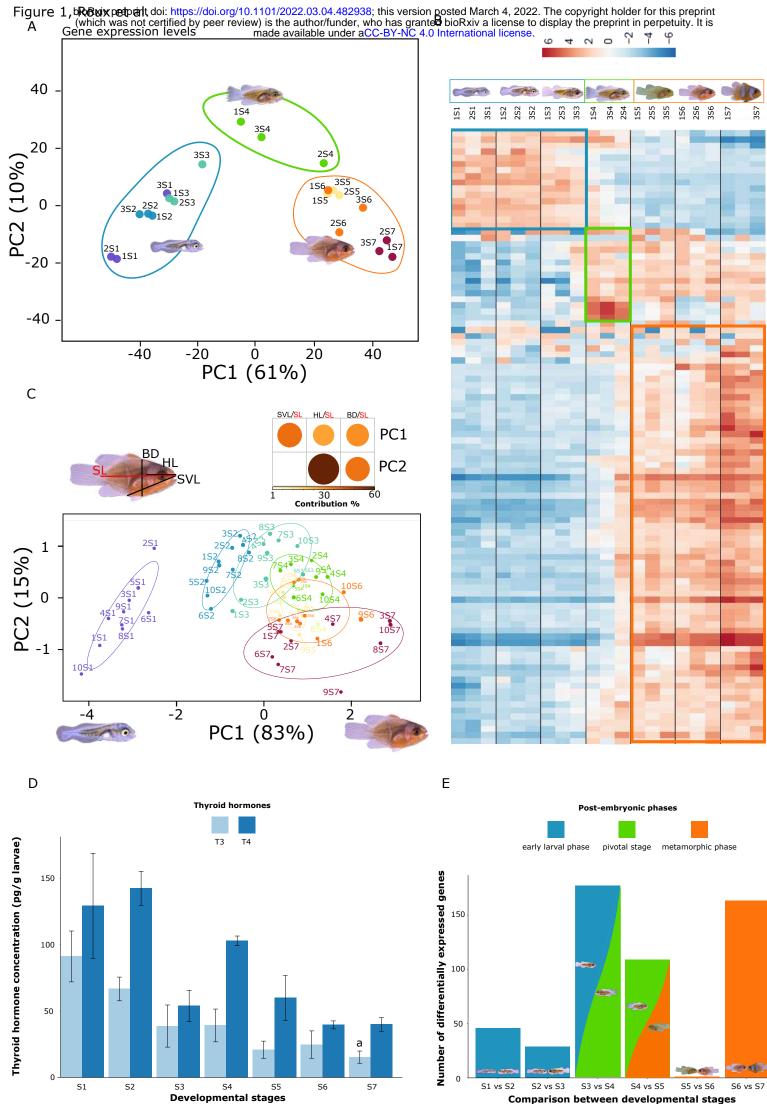
1044 **Supplementary Figure 9**: Complex fatty acid concentration whose differences are significantly 1045 different (*) between DMSO control larvae and T3 treated larvae (10⁻⁸, 10⁻⁷M, n=3 per condition).

- 1046
- Supplementary Figure 10: Antagonist Activities of zebrafish nuclear receptors (PXR, PPARg, LXR)
 against SR9243 confirming that SR9243 is a specific LXR antagonist.

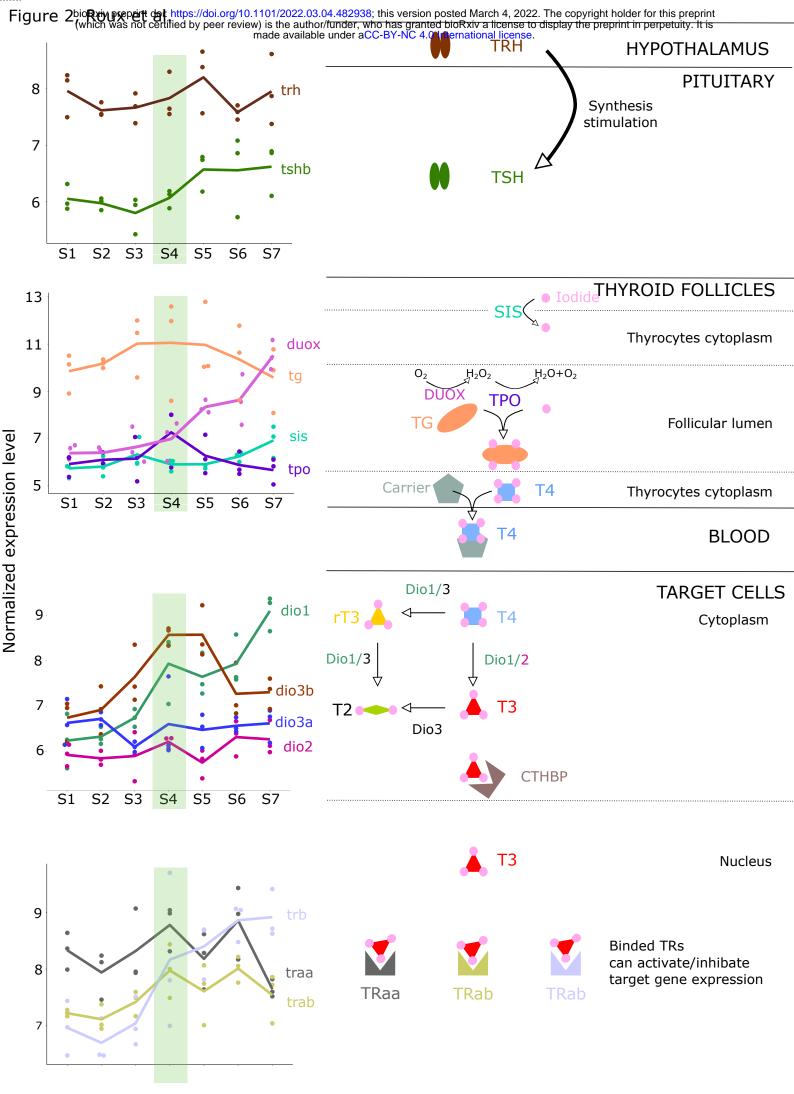
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1050 **Supplementary Table 1:** Primers sequence for RT-qPCR analysis of the LXR antagonist experiment.

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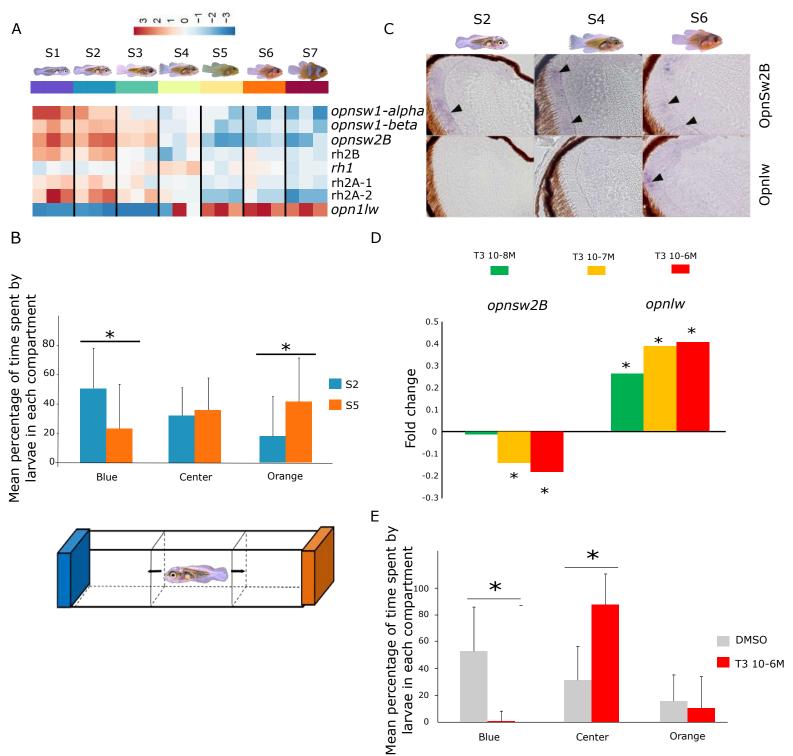


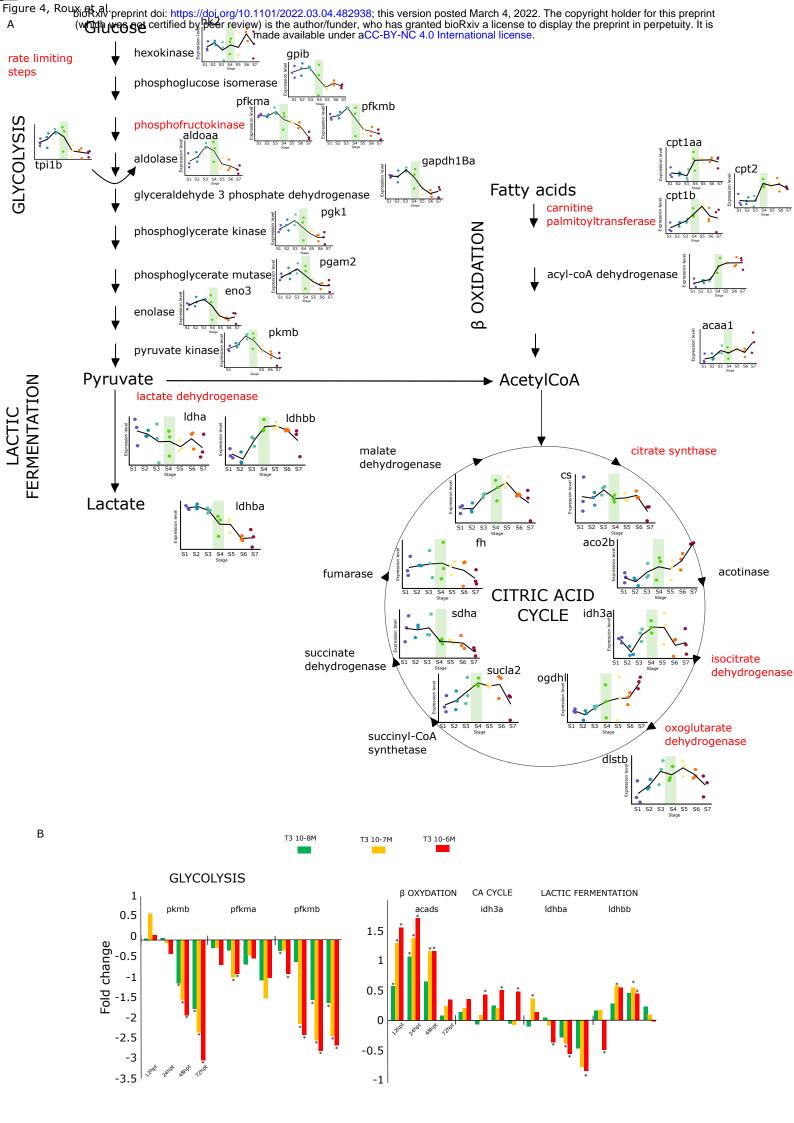
Comparison between developmental stages

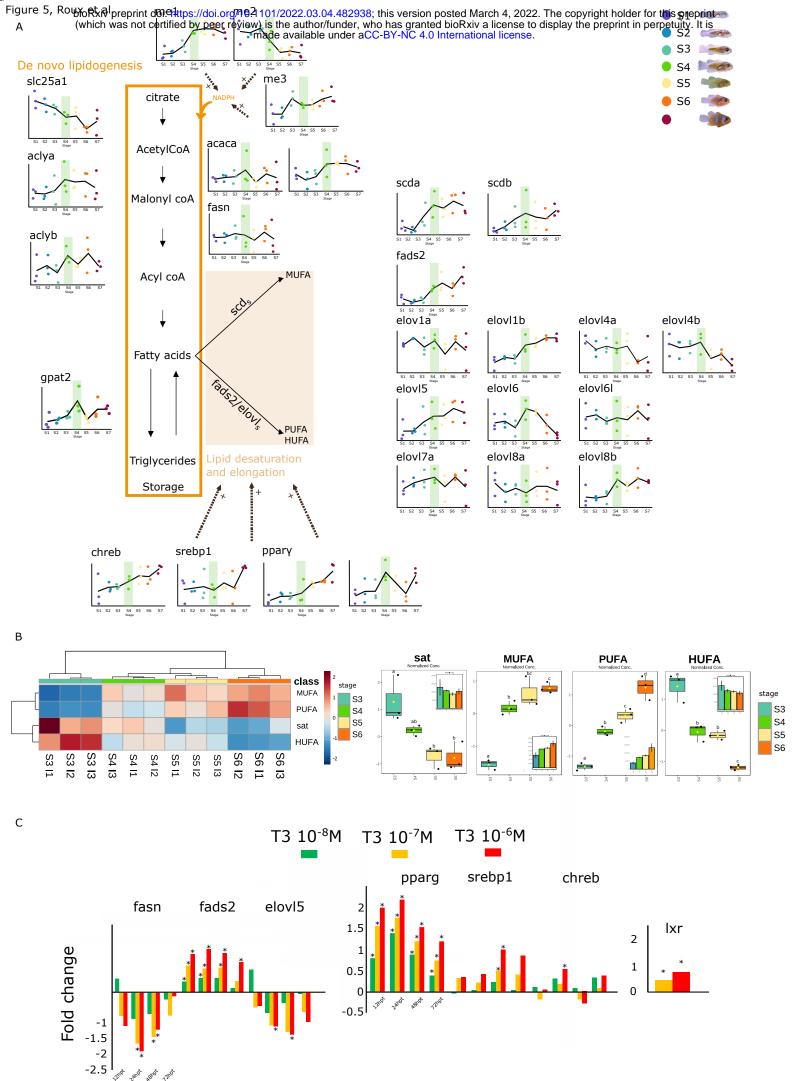


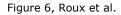
Developmental stages

Figure 3, Roux et al.

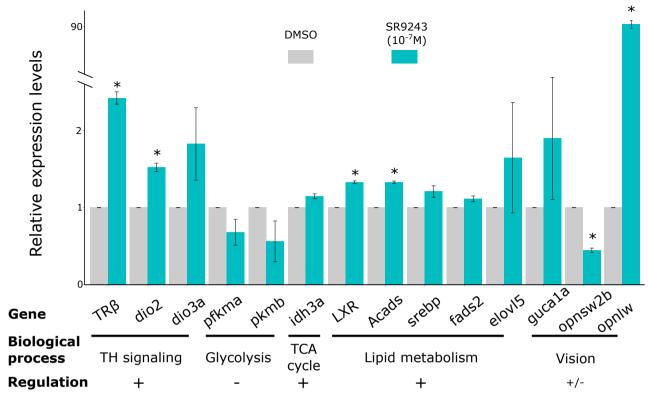




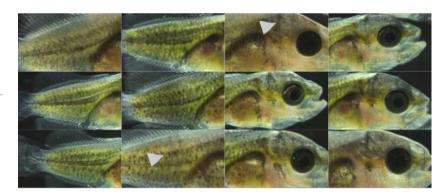


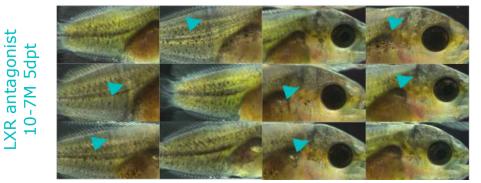






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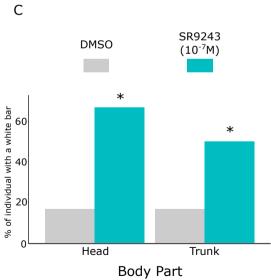
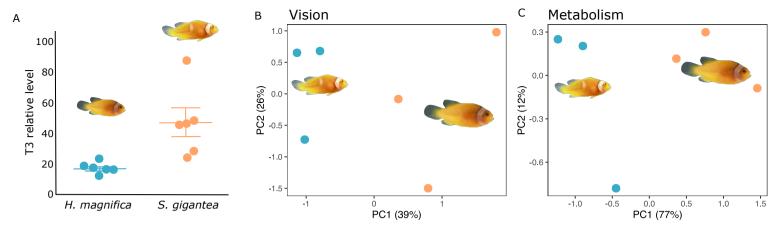
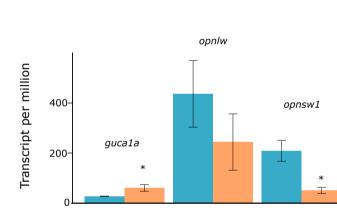
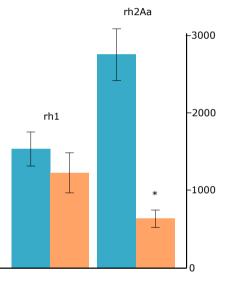


Figure 7, Roux et al.

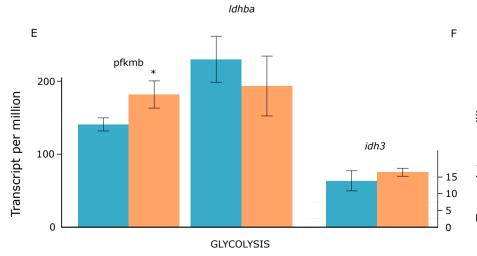


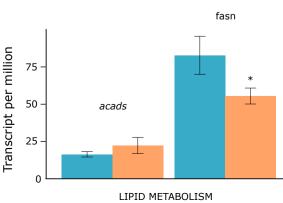




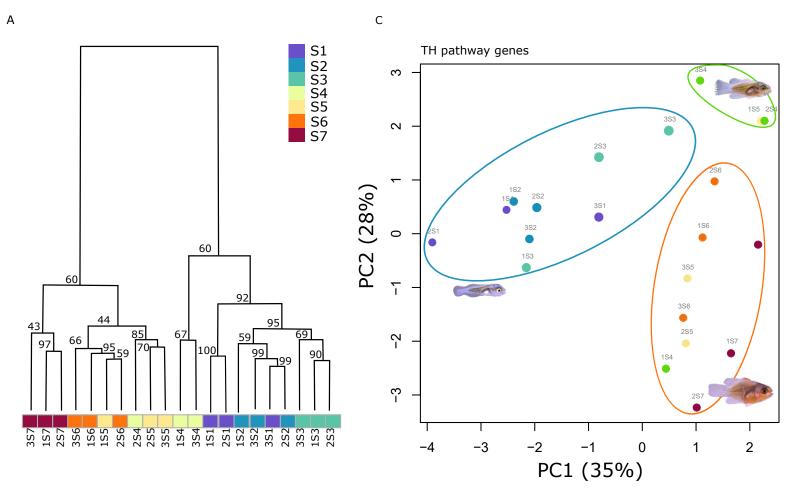


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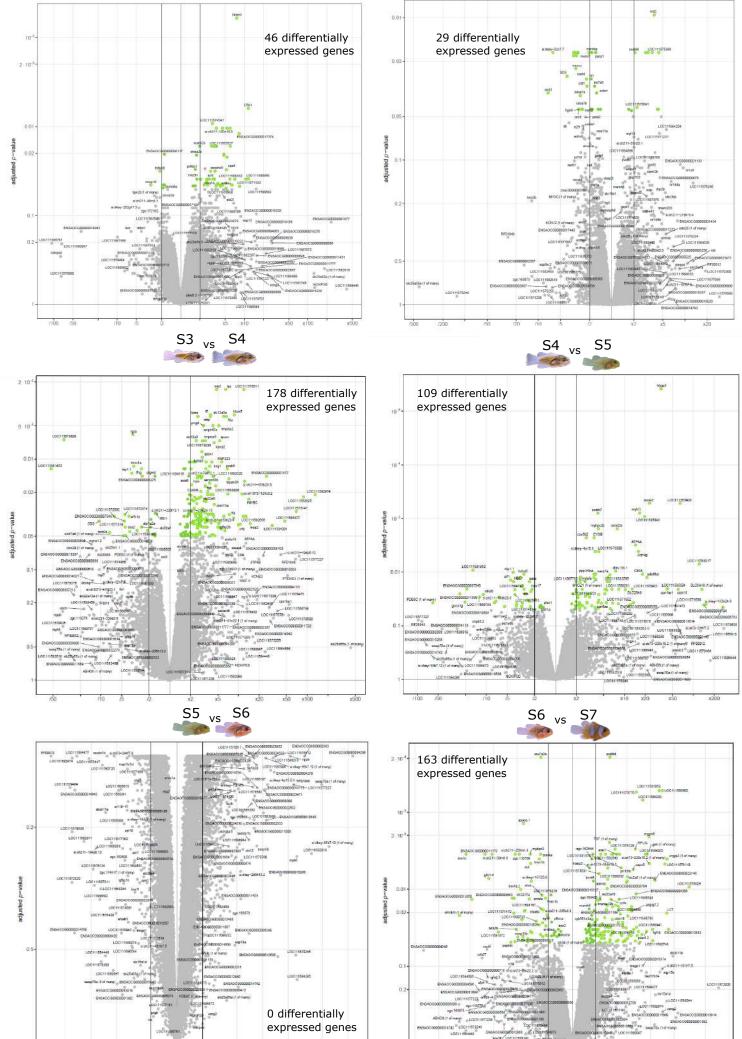
Supp figure 1 Roux et al.

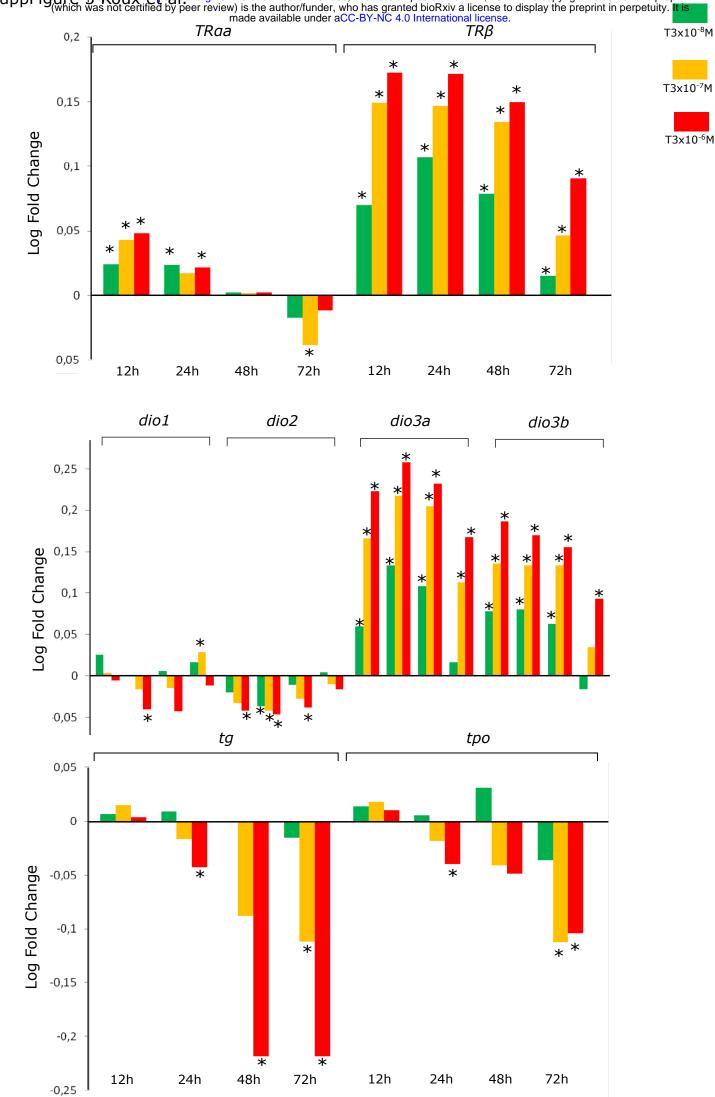


В

Gene	S2 vs S1	S3 vs S1	S4 vs S1	S5 vs S1	S6 vs S1	S7 vs S1	S3 vs S2	S4 vs S2	S5 vs S2	S6 vs S2	S7 vs S2 S4	vs S3	S5 vs S3	S6 vs S3	S7 vs S3	S5 vs S4	S6 vs S4	S7 vs S4	S6 vs S5	S7 vs S5	S7 vs S6
trh	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
tshb	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	*	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
sis	-	-	-	-	-	*	-	-	-	-	*	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
duox	-	-	-	*	**	-	-	-	*	*	***	-	-	*	***	-	-	**	-	*	*
tg	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
tpo	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
dio1	-	-	*	**	**	-	-	-	*	*	-	-	-	-	***	-	-	-	-	-	-
dio2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
dio3a	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
dio3b	-	-	-	*	-	-	-	-	*	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Τrαa	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Trαb	-	-	-	-	**	-	-	-	-	*	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
TRβ	-	-	-	**	**	**	-	-	**	**	**	-	-	*	**	-	-	-	-	-	-
												-									

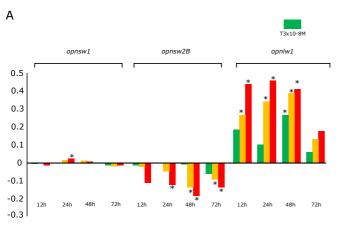
SuppFigure in Replicit et in Replici

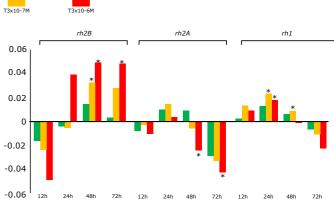




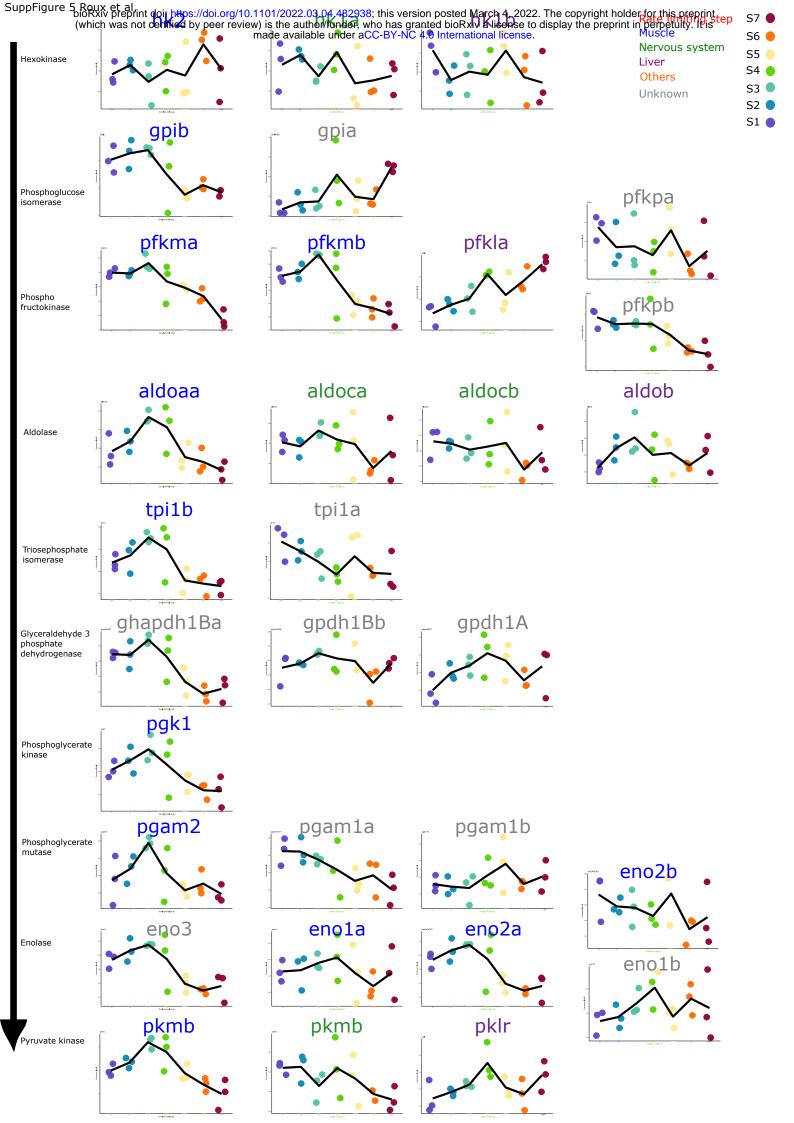
SuppFigirReiv BreRinger: BreRinge

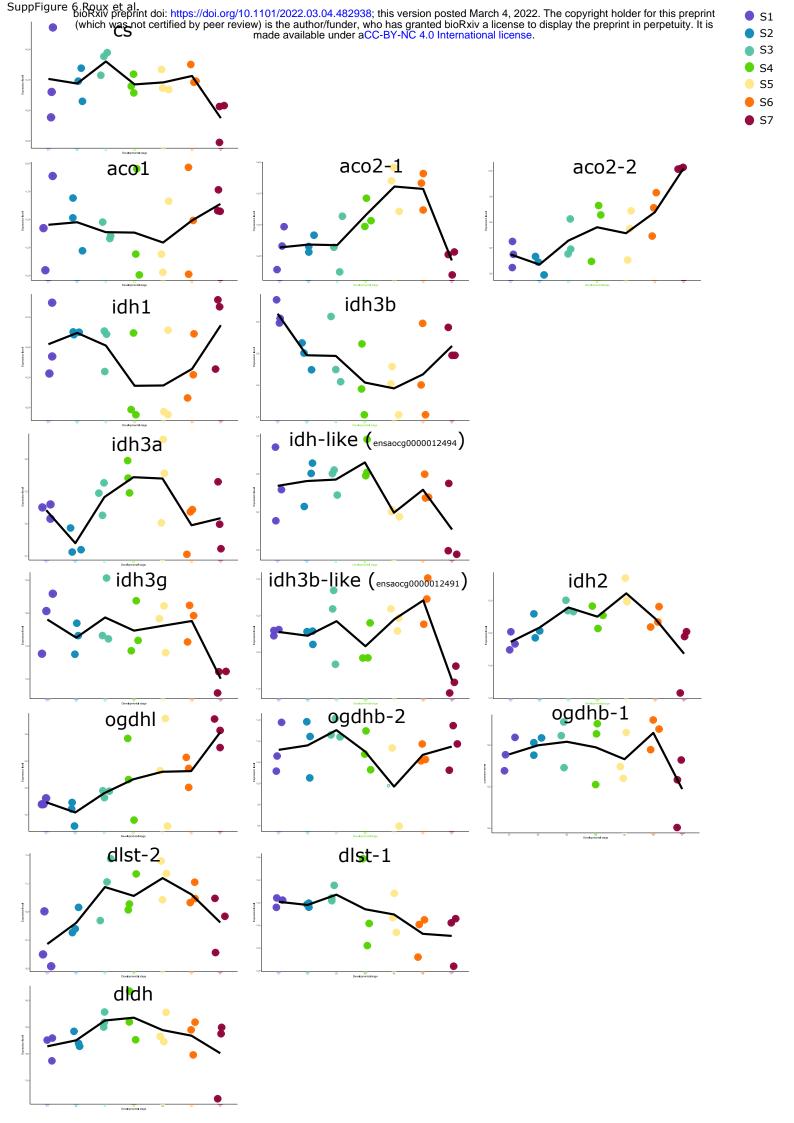
SuppFigure 4 Roux et al.

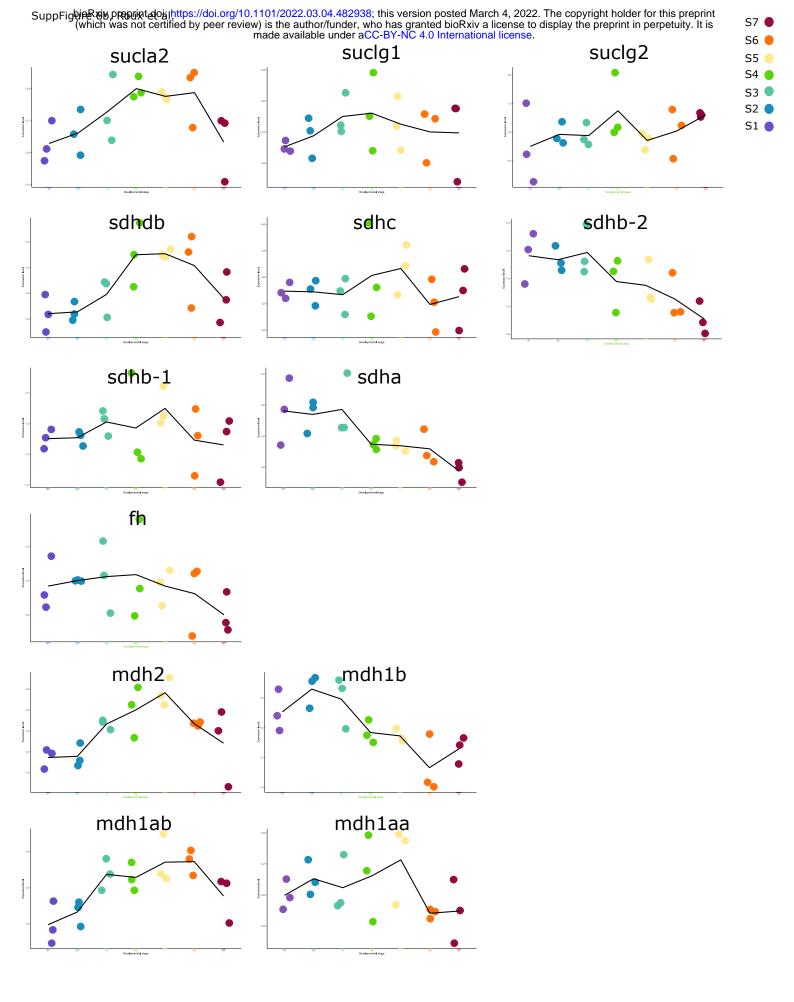


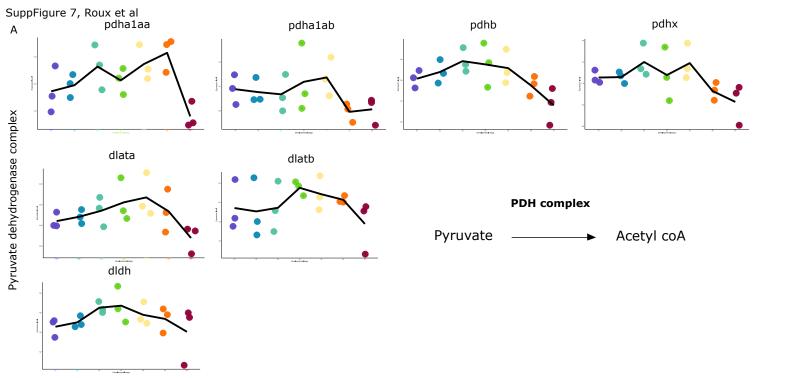


В Percentage of time spent by juveniles in each compartment Juvenile 1 100 Juvenile 2 Juvenile 3 80 Juvenile 4 Juvenile 5 60 40 20 0









Supp Figure 8. Roux et al

600

400

200

12500

70.

60

50 •

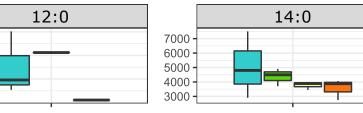
40.

100

75.

50 •

0.



800 .

600

400 ·

200 -

25000

22500

20000

17500 ·

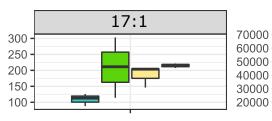
15000

2500

2000

1500

1000

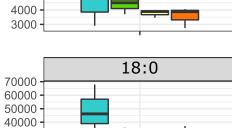


18:4

20:3 N9

22:3

a a

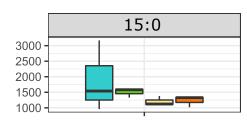


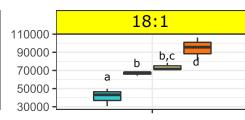
20:0

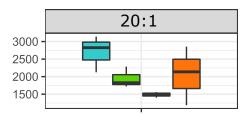
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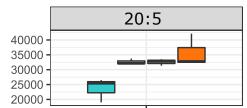
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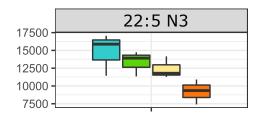
a,b

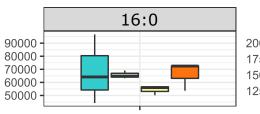












18:2

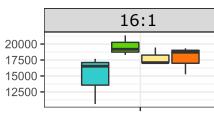
30000

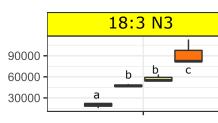
25000

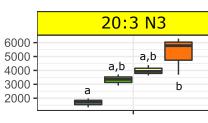
20000

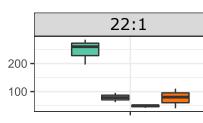
15000

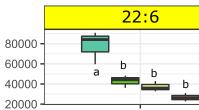
10000

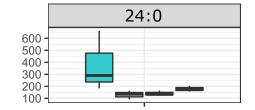


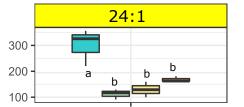


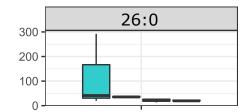


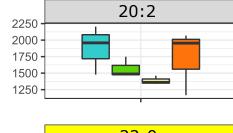


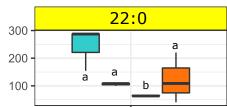


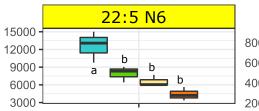


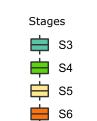


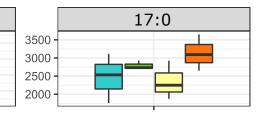


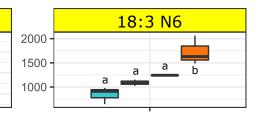


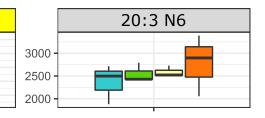


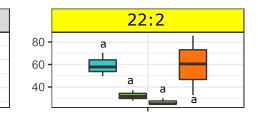


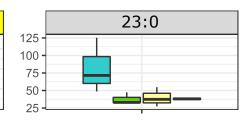




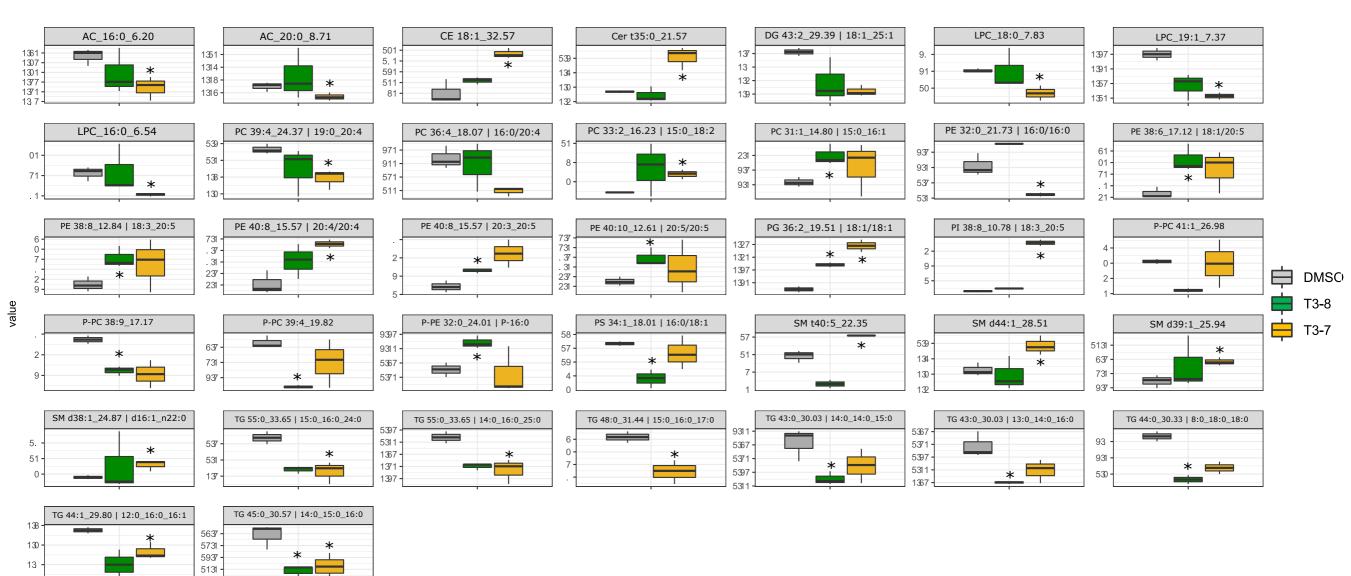








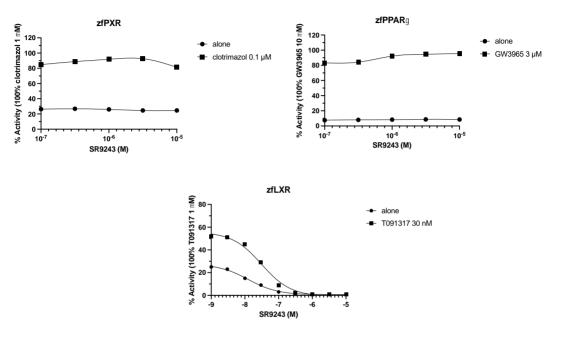
Supp FIgure 9 Roux et al.,



AC: Acylcarnitine , allow fatty acids to cross mitochondrial membrane to be oxidized

- CE: Cholesterol ester, store and transport cholesterol
- Cer: Ceramied, involved in cell programms (cell differenciation, cell death, cell proliferation), and membrane constitutants
- DG: Diacylglycerole, act as secondary messenger in lipid signalisation
- LPC: Lysophosphatidylcholine, involved in phosphatidylcholine synthesis and byproducts of lipogenesis
- PC: Phosphatidylcholine, involved in fat dissolution during digestion, component of cell membranes.
- PE: Phosphatidylethanolamine, component of cell membranes
- PG: Phosphatidylglycerol, component of cell membranes, and involved in the synthesis of numerous lipids
- SM:Sphyngomyelin, nerve myelin constitutans and invovled in transduction of extracellular signals
- TG: Triacylglycerol, Fatty acid storage for energetic purposes through oxidation

Supp Figure 10, Roux et al.



Gene	Protein	Sens	Sequence	Amplicon size(pb)	qPCR working	
opnlw	Opsin long wave length	Forward (5'- 3')	GAGGTGGGTAGTTGTGTGC	121	63	
opinw		Reverse (3'-5')	TCCAAACATGGGAGGAGCG	121		
onnew?	Opsin short wave length	Forward (5'- 3')	CCAGTGGGGTGCAAGGTC	101	63	
opnsw2		Reverse (3'-5')	CAGACAACCAGCCATCTCT	101		
	Guanylate Cyclase Activator 1A	Forward (5'– 3')	GGAAACTCATCAGGCAGCAC	245	63	
guca1a	Guarylate Cyclase Activator IA	Reverse (3'-5')	ATCACCAGACTCAGAGCAGC	245		
TR6	Thyroid hormone receptor β	Forward (5'– 3')	GTGAGCTGCCTTGTGAAGAC	102	63	
110	myrola normone receptor p	Reverse (3'-5')	GCGTCTCACTCTCTGGATCA	102		
Dio2	Deiodinase 2	Forward (5'– 3')	AGGTCAAACTGGGCTGTGAG	376	63	
DIUZ	Delouinase 2	Reverse (3'-5')	GCTCCCATCCTCTCCCAA	570		
Dio3a	Deiodinase 3a	Forward (5'– 3')	GGGGTCGTGCAGCAGAAC	139	63	
	Deloullase Sa	Reverse (3'-5')	CGCTCAGCCTGTCCTCCA	139		
		Forward (5'– 3')	AAGGGTATCAGTGCCTTTCTGG	074	63	
acads	Acyl-CoA dehydrogenase short chair	Reverse (3'-5')	TTCGTTTGTGTGCGTAGTCG	271		
		Forward (5'– 3')	TGATCATCGTTGCTGAAGGC		63	
pfkma	Phosphofructokinase, muscle	Reverse (3'-5')	TTGGTCACTTGCACACACTC	292		
pkmb	Pyruvate kinase	Forward (5'– 3')	CCATCATTGTGCTCACCAAGTC	229	63	
philip		Reverse (3'-5')	AAGAATTTGCGGTGCTTGCC	225		
idh3a	nydrogenase [NAD] subunit alpha, n	Forward (5'– 3')	AAAGGACCTGGTGGCAAATG	136	63	
lansa		Reverse (3'-5')	TTTTCCTCAGCAGCAGGTTC	150		
	rol regulatory element-binding prot	Forward (5'– 3')	CTCCTCCACCCCAGACAAG	394	63	
srebp	for regulatory clement binding prot	Reverse (3'-5')	ACTTGGAGGCGAAGAGGAC	554	05	
fads2	Fatty acid desaturase	Forward (5'– 3')	CAGGAGGGTTTCGGGTCAT	408	63	
		Reverse (3'-5')	TCTTGAAGACAGACAGATGACCA	400		
elovl5	Elongase	Forward (5'- 3')	GACTTACAAGAAGCACAGTGGT	124	63	
eiuvis	C C	Reverse $(3'-5')$	CACCCTCAGTTTCTTGGCTG		63	
rpl32	L ribosomal protein-7 (HKG)	Forward $(5' - 3')$	AACCAAGAAGTTCATTCGCCATCAG	116		
	L ribocomol protoin 22 (UKC)	Reverse $(3'-5')$	TGAGCATCTGACCCTTGAACC			
rpl7	L ribosomal protein-32 (HKG)	Forward $(5'-3')$	GAACAAGGCTTCCATCAACATGCTG	265	63	
		Reverse (3'-5')	CAGCTTGAAGGGCCACAGGAA			