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The influence of 17β -oestradiol on lymphopoiesis and immune system ontogenesis in juvenile sea bass, *Dicentrarchus labrax*

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Abstract

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The female sex steroid 17β-oestradiol (E2) is involved in the regulation of numerous physiological functions, including the immune system development and performance. The role of oestrogens during ontogenesis is, however, not well studied. In rodents and fish, thymus maturation appears to be oestrogen-dependent. Nevertheless, little is known about the function of oestrogen in immune system development. To further the understanding of the role of oestrogens in fish immune system ontogenesis, fingerlings of European sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*) were exposed for 30 days to 20 ng $E2 \cdot L^{-1}$, at two ages tightly related to thymic maturation, i.e., 60 or 90 days post hatch (dph). The expression of nuclear and membrane oestrogen receptors was measured in the thymus and spleen, and the expression of several T cell-related gene markers was studied in both immune organs, as well as in the liver. Waterborne E2-exposure at 20.2 ± 2.1 (S.E.) ng·L⁻¹ was confirmed by radioimmunoassay, leading to significantly higher E2-contents in the liver of exposed fish. The majority of gene markers presented age-dependent dynamics in at least one of the organs, confirming thymus maturation, but also suggesting a critical ontogenetic window for the implementation of liver resident $\gamma\delta$ and $\alpha\beta$ T cells. The oestrogen receptors, however, remained unchanged over the age and treatment comparisons with the exception of esr2b, which was modulated by E2 in the younger cohort and increased its expression with age in the thymus of the older cohort, as did the membrane oestrogen receptor gpera. These results confirm that oestrogen-signalling is involved in thymus maturation in European sea bass, as it is in mammals. This suggests that esr2b and gpera play key roles during thymus ontogenesis, particularly during medulla maturation. In contrasts, the spleen expressed low or non-detectable levels of oestrogen receptors. The E2-exposure decreased the expression of tcry in the liver in the cohort exposed from 93 to 122 dph, but not the expression of any other immune-related gene analysed. These results indicate that the proliferation/migration of these innate-like T cell populations is oestrogen-sensitive. In regards to the apparent prominent role of oestrogen-signalling in the late thymus maturation stage, the thymic differentiation of the corresponding subpopulations of T cells might be regulated by oestrogen. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study investigating the dynamics of both nuclear and membrane oestrogen receptors in specific immune organs in a teleost fish at very early stages of immune system development as well as to examine thymic function in sea bass after an exposure to E2 during ontogenesis.

32 **Key-words:** liver; oestrogen receptor; T cell; teleost fish; thymus; spleen.

Abbreviations: 18s, 18S ribosomal RNA gene; E2, 17β-oestradiol; ER, oestrogen receptor; ESR, nuclear oestrogen receptor; fau, 40S ribosomal protein S30; foxn1, transcription factor forkhead-box n1; foxp3, forkhead transcriptional regulator P3; GPER, G protein-coupled oestrogen receptor; HSI, Hepato-somatic index; K, Fulton's condition factor; 113a, L13a ribosomal protein; mhc, major histocompatibility complex; pcna, proliferating cell nuclear antigen; qPCR, quantitative reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction; rag, recombination-activating genes; TEC, thymic epithelial cells; Tregs, regulatory T cells. Protein and gene nomenclature followed that recommended by genenames.org and used for fish at http://zfin.org/.

1. Introduction

The vertebrate immune system consists of two major components: the adaptive and innate immune responses. The latter generally precedes, activates and determines the nature of the adaptive response, and co-operates in the maintenance of homeostasis (Fearon, 1997; Fearon and Locksley, 1996). The adaptive immune system –unique to jawed vertebrates– is highly specialized and based on two lineages of effector immune cells: the B and T lymphocytes (Kasahara et al., 2004), which are characterized by their respective T and B cell receptors (TCR, BCR). Recombination-activating genes (RAG) 1 and 2 encode nuclear proteins that directly mediate the recombination of TCR and BCR gene segments. This recombination is necessary to produce a diversity of receptors that are able to specifically recognize a large number of antigens (Randelli et al., 2009). The TCRs are formed by membrane heterodimers composed either of TCR γ and δ chains, or of TCR α and β chains, thus defining two fundamentally different T cell lineages. The $\gamma\delta$ T cells have innate-like properties, including rapid effector function after activation and the capacity to bind antigens directly. The $\alpha\beta$ T cells, on the other hand, are commonly referred to as 'conventional T cells' and recognize antigen peptides presented by the class I or II major histocompatibility complex (MHC), which are expressed by antigen presenting cells such as thymic epithelial cells (TEC) to select self-tolerant T cells (Klein et al., 2009; Mantegazza et al., 2013). Conventional T cells have a highly diverse TCR repertoire allowing a specific adaptive immune response, which follows the innate response.

The thymus plays a pivotal role in the ontogenesis of the adaptive immune system. It is the major site for T lymphocyte-education and -maturation, *i.e.*, thymopoiesis. T cell-development, including T cell-commitment and -maturation, depends on the interaction with TECs, the function of which is regulated by the transcription factor forkhead-box n1 (FOXN1) (Bajoghli et al., 2009; Žuklys et al., 2016). Among the various conventional T cell subpopulations, the regulatory T cells (Tregs) are particular in that they develop either in the thymus, or in peripheral immune organs, such as the spleen or the liver, depending on their TCR specificity (Plitas and Rudensky, 2016). Their function is to regulate innate and adaptive immune cell activity and to maintain self- and non-self-tolerance (Quintana et al., 2010; Wing and Sakaguchi, 2010). The forkhead transcriptional regulator P3 (FOXP3) is essential for the genetic programming of Treg-differentiation and -function (Sakaguchi et al., 2001; Shevach, 2002). From the thymus, naïve and mature self-tolerant T cells emigrate to peripheral lymphoid organs, including the spleen and the liver (Bowden et al., 2005). Thymopoiesis and the regulation of the abundance of peripheral T cells is dependent on cell migration and on the expansion of proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA)-positive T cells (Goronzy and Weyand, 2019). B and T lymphocytes colonize the spleen after they have been

detected in the thymus and head kidney, proving that the spleen is a secondary lymphoid organ in jawed vertebrates (Boehm et al., 2012; Neely and Flajnik, 2016). The spleen plays an important role in antigen presentation and in the initiation of the adaptive immune response, *i.e.*, T and B cell-activation (Boehm et al., 2012; Mebius and Kraal, 2005). In mammals, the liver is also involved in T cell-education, although its innate immune functions appear to be more important. In fact, the liver promotes their dysfunction and mediates adaptive immune tolerance by acting as a 'graveyard' of activated T cells (Racanelli and Rehermann, 2006; Zheng and Tian, 2019). In fish, the role of the liver in immunity is far less documented. Nevertheless, intrahepatic immune cells, which are dominated by T cells, have been described by Möller *et al.* in rainbow trout (2014).

In mammals, early haematopoiesis already begins in the yolk sac and temporarily moves to the liver before definitive haematopoiesis is finally established in the bone marrow and thymus, where the full set of immune and blood cells will be generated (Jagannathan-Bogdan and Zon, 2013). In fish, however, the ontogeny of the haematopoiesis and the immune system is far less studied. It is believed that the protection of larvae and fry depends on maternally transferred components like lectins and antibodies and that a non-specific innate immunity is already present at early egg stages (Ferraresso et al., 2016). In several teleost species, the thymus is the first lymphoid organ in which lymphoid cells appear (Bowden et al., 2005). Nevertheless, the antibody response against T celldependent antigens, which highlights a mature adaptive immune response, occurs after the thymus becomes morphologically mature and is delayed in comparison to the maturation of humoral immunity (Lam et al., 2004). Accordingly, fish immunocompetence becomes enhanced as soon as thymic regionalization is completed (Seemann et al., 2017). Nevertheless, before thymus ontogenesis is completed, peripheral T cells are already detected (Huttenhuis et al., 2006; Romano et al., 2011; Scapigliati et al., 2018). Together with the expression of rag1 in peripheral T cells, this suggests that (i) innate-like T cells arise from both intra- and extrathymic origins in teleost fish, akin to mammals (Boschi et al., 2011; Cheroutre et al., 2011; Huttenhuis et al., 2006) and (ii) during ontogenesis, innate-like T cells probably represent a major component of the immune defence of fish, as has been shown previously for *Xenopus* tadpoles and mammals (Cheroutre et al., 2011; Edholm et al., 2016).

The oestrogenic regulation of the immune system, including the thymus, seems to be conserved across vertebrates (Paiola et al., 2018; Segner et al., 2013). Oestrogenic regulation in different tissues can result from either slow (*via* nuclear-initiated steroid signalization - NISS), or rapid (*via* membrane initiated steroid signalization - MISS) signalling through their binding to multiple oestrogen receptors (ERs). Most fish species have three intracellular nuclear receptors (ESRs), *i.e.*, one Esr1 and two Esr2, while terrestrial vertebrates have only one Esr1 and one Esr2. In addition, fish may have two G Protein-Coupled Estrogen Receptors (GPERs), *i.e.*, Gpera and Gperb,

while mammals have only the GPER1 form. The functions of GPERs are less well understood, but it is now evident that both types of signalling and receptors may interact with each other (Amenyogbe et al., 2020; Lafont et al., 2016; Pinto et al., 2014; Thomas et al., 2010). The expression pattern of the full set of nuclear and membrane receptors determines the global cellular response to oestrogens. According to the conserved immunomodulatory function of oestrogen, the various ER-isoforms have been detected in immune cells and immune organs, including the thymus, across numerous vertebrates from mammals to fish (Paiola et al., 2018; Segner et al., 2013). In addition to its modulatory role in thymic T cell-differentiation, as evidenced in mammals with a thymus atrophy during pregnancy or after puberty, oestrogen appears to be involved in thymus ontogenesis. In fact, aromatase-, ESR2-, GPER- and especially ESR1-knockout mice display defective thymus ontogenesis (Chunhe et al., 2008; Erlandsson et al., 2001; Li et al., 2002; Yellayi et al., 2000). Interestingly, studies from various jawed vertebrates, including the European sea bass (Dicentrarchus labrax), have shown that oestrogen can also increase thymus volume during critical windows of the thymus ontogenesis, during which immunocompetence is established (DeWitt et al., 2012; Kondo et al., 2004; Seemann et al., 2015). Therefore, oestrogen-exposure during thymus ontogenesis may have long-term consequences for the T cell-dependent immune response in mammals (Chapman et al., 2009; Forsberg, 2000) and in fish (Rehberger et al., 2020).

In the European sea bass, Seemann et al. (2015) observed that 17β -oestradiol (E2)-exposure triggers a change in thymus size, *i.e.*, hypertrophy, in fish exposed for one month from 90 dph onward, but not from 60 dph or 120 dph. This E2-sensitive window of thymus ontogenesis seems to begin at 90 dph, which corresponds to the late stages of thymic regionalization. Therefore, in this study, we tested the hypothesis whether E2 is involved the immune system ontogeny by interfering with the thymic T cell development. To test this hypothesis, oestrogen responsiveness of the developing immune system was studied in European sea bass, at two developmental stages from 60 to 90 dph and from 93 to 122 dph. We investigated (*i*) the expression of the five fish oestrogen receptor isoforms in a central and a major secondary immune organ, thymus and spleen, respectively, and (*ii*) the thymic function, by studying the expression of thymic specific genes, as well as by measuring T cell-related genes in the periphery (spleen and liver). Potential effects on extrathymic T cell-differentiation were assessed by the measurement of rag2 expression in the spleen and liver.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Animal rearing

European sea bass fingerlings were obtained from the hatchery 'Poissons du Soleil' (Sete, France) at 40 dph, and then reared at the facilities of the Institute of Aquaculture Torre de la Sal (CSIC, Castellon, Spain) until they reached the appropriate age for the-experimental assay (see Fig. 1 for details on the experimental design). During this time, fish were fed daily *ad libidum* with a diet manufactured by Life Bioencapsulation S. L. (Spin-Off Universidad de Almeria, Spain) and maintained in 20 L aquaria with aerated filtered natural seawater (35‰ salinity), and a photoperiod of 12h light:12h darkness. Physicochemical parameters were assessed weekly and 80% of the water was changed daily (see Table 1 for details).

The experimental protocols involving fish were approved by the Ethics and Animal Welfare Committee of IATS (CSIC) and Generalitat Valenciana. They were carried out in a registered installation facility in accordance with the principles published in the European animal directive (2010/63/EU) and Spanish laws (Royal Decree RD53/2013) for the protection of animals, and all efforts were made to minimize the suffering of animals.

Table 1. Experimental information, physicochemical parameters and biometric indices of fish of the two age cohorts. The physicochemical parameters (Mean \pm SD) were measured weekly in all aquaria. Biometric indices (Mean \pm SD) were measured after each sampling.

Age on sampling	90 dph	122 dph		
Water volume	16 L	16 L		
Number of tanks	4 replicate tanks per group (CTR or E2)	6 replicate tanks per group (CTR or E2)		
Number of fish per tank	25 fish *	13 fish *		
Temperature (°C)	17.98 ± 0.21 °C	18.02 ± 0.30 °C		
рН	7.84 ± 0.33	7.78 ± 0.37		
Salinity	35.70 ± 0.87 ‰	35.10 ± 1.36 ‰		
Oxygen	95.20 ± 1.72 %	96.33 ± 2.03 %		
Fish Length	CTR: 32.75 ± 4.69 mm	CTR: $45.90 \pm 6.04 \text{ mm}$		
	E2: 32.40 ± 4.14 mm	E2: 46.90 ± 5.48 mm		
Fish Body Weight	CTR: 0.32 ± 0.15 g	CTR: 0.96 ± 0.39 g		
	E2: 0.30 ± 0.13 g	E2: 1.02 ± 0.33 g		

K ¹	CTR: $0.87 \pm 0.17 \text{ g} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$	CTR: $0.94 \pm 0.15 \text{ g} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$	
	E2: $0.81 \pm 0.11 \text{ g} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$	E2: $0.95 \pm 0.06 \text{ g} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$	
HSI ²	CTR: 2.71 ± 1.03 %	CTR: 1.58 ± 0.58 %	
	E2: 1.84 ± 0.67 %	E2: 1.49 ± 0.33 %	

^{*}The results presented are part of a larger study. Some of the fish were sampled for other analyses, which were not included in this article.

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2.2. Treatment and sampling

Following the acclimation period, animals were exposed in the same 20 L aquarium under semi-static conditions for 30 days (beginning at either 60 or 93 dph, see Fig.1) to a concentration of 20 ng·L⁻¹ of waterborne E2 (Sigma-Aldrich) diluted in methanol, or to the solvent control only (*i.e.*, filtered sea water with the equivalent concentration of methanol at 0.000001%, v/v). Previous studies have shown this waterborne E2 concentration to be most effective in soliciting immune-related responses in juvenile sea bass at similar ages (Seemann et al., 2016; Seemann et al., 2015; Seemann et al., 2013).

Water quality and E2-concentrations were assured by the daily exchange of 80% of the water body with subsequent E2-spike for the treatment groups. Once a week, a water sample from each aquarium (before and after dosing) was collected and stored at 4 °C in the dark until analysis of E2concentrations. After 30 days of exposure, i.e., at a final age of 90 dph and 122 dph, respectively, 12 fish were randomly chosen from the different tank replicates of both treatments (control and exposed - see Table 1 for details) to avoid tank effects. Fish were sacrificed with an overdose of MS-222 (Sigma-Aldrich) and body weight and length were recorded. Blood was not collected from the sampled fish but instead, the tissues were carefully dissected on paper to absorb the excess of blood. Whole thymus, spleen, and liver comprising all cell types contained in these organs (including lymphocytes) were dissected from the same 12 fish that were embedded in RNA later (Sigma-Aldrich) and stored at -20 °C until RNA extraction. All fish analysed in the present study were considered as 'sexually immature', as the first signs of histological sex differentiation in sea bass usually appear only after 150 dph in females to 200 dph in males (Blázquez et al., 2008; Carrillo et al., 2015), while at the analysed ages (60 to 122 dph) the undifferentiated gonads are not sufficiently developed to differentially produce sex steroid hormones. Papadaki et al. 2005 (Papadaki et al., 2005) reported a differential peak in circulating E2-levels only after 200 dph, when the first primary oocytes appeared.

¹Fulton's condition factor (K) = body weight (g) \cdot (total length (cm)) ⁻³

²Hepato-somatic index (HSI) = liver weight (g) / body weight (g) x 100

The Fulton's condition factor (K) and hepato-somatic index (HSI) were calculated according to Hadidi et al. (2008) and Zha et al. (2007), respectively: K ($g \cdot cm^{-3}$) = body weight (g) · (total length (cm))⁻³; HSI (%) = liver weight (g) / body weight (g) x 100. Details of the experiment, physiochemical parameters and biometric indices of the experiment are specified in Table 1.

40 60 90 122 (dph)

Sampling

Acclimation E2 waterborne exposure (20 ng·L⁻¹)

Figure 1. Experimental design: juvenile European sea bass, *Dicentrarchus labrax*, from the same batch were acclimated and exposed to $20 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ of waterborne 17β-oestradiol (E2) at two developmental stages, *i.e.*, at 60 and 93 dph, for 30 days. At the end of exposure time, the fish were sampled (n = 12 fish per treatment and the same eight fish were used for gene expression analysis in the thymus, spleen and liver) at a final age of 90 dph and 122 dph, respectively.

The oestrogenic compounds were extracted from water using Sep-Pak cartridges Vac C18

2.3. Oestradiol radioimmunoassay

1cc (Waters) from a 1.8 mL sample of each aquarium, resolved in 4 mL ethanol (Sigma-Aldrich), evaporated in a 40 ± 2 °C water bath and 0.5 mL of gelatine buffer was added. Fish livers of the 122 dph cohort were macerated, followed by an ether extraction with 200 μ L of distilled water and 3 mL of diethyl ether (VWR) and centrifuging at 40 g for 5 min. Samples were frozen in liquid nitrogen for 5 s, the ether phase was decanted and evaporated and 1 mL of gelatine buffer was added. Water and liver E2-levels were determined in duplicate using an optimized radioimmunoassay (RIA) and a specific antiserum against E2 (Guerreiro et al., 2002). Free hormones were separated from total bound hormones using dextran-coated charcoal and a control thin-layer chromatography (TLC) was performed to confirm that E2 has been quantified in both water and liver samples. The quantification of E2 in the liver was only used as a technical validation E2-uptake by the fish. Because the older fish provided enough material for both molecular and E2 measurements, these were used as

2.4. Gene expression

representatives for the validation of the E2 exposure.

The expression of several genes was assessed in the three different immune organs (thymus, spleen, and liver) unless stated otherwise. Details on the genes and their respective primers are given in Table 2. Total RNA was extracted using PureZOL (BioRad) according to the supplier's instructions. Briefly, whole organs (except for liver, which was sectioned) were grinded in a glass homogenizer with 850 µL of PureZOL. Then, 170 µL of chloroform (Sigma-Aldrich) was added and the samples were centrifuged at 12,000 g for 15 min at 4 °C to eliminate the debris. Glycogen (Glycoblue, Ambion) and ammonia acetate (Sigma-Aldrich) were added to have a final concentration of 0.05 mg·mL⁻¹ and 0.5 M, respectively, as well as one half of the volume of isopropyl alcohol and then incubated overnight at -80 °C, in order to improve the precipitation and visualization of the pellet. Subsequently, the samples were centrifuged at 12,000 g for 15 min at 4 °C, washed with 75% ethanol and the pellet was resuspended in RNase-free water (MilliQ water, Sigma-Aldrich). After RNA-extraction, possible DNA-contamination was removed by digestion with the TURBO DNA-free Kit (Invitrogen Ambion) according to the supplier's instructions. The yield and purity of RNA were quantified with a Nanodrop One (ThermoFisher) at 260 nm and 280 nm. Absorbance ratios 260/280 between 1.90 and 2.00 indicated pure RNA samples. Eight extracts that yielded RNA with good quality and quantity from isolated tissues were selected for gene expression, with a representation across all replicate tanks. Samples were stored at -80 °C until further processing. Reverse transcription was performed using 500 ng of RNA for all samples with the exception of thymus and spleen from the younger cohort (250 and 350 ng, respectively), 200 ng·μL⁻¹ of random hexamers, 10nM of dNTP and MMLV-RT (reverse transcriptase, Promega) in a final volume of 20 µL. RNA was denatured for 5 min at 70 °C and the cDNA-synthesis proceeded for 60 min at 42 °C, after which the cDNA was stored at -20 °C. Real-time quantitative PCR (qPCR) was performed using two technical replicates per individual sample by separately adding cDNA diluted 1:20 in MilliQ water.

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All genes were analysed with Rotor-Gene Q (Quiagen) using one of two commercial master mixes, QuanTitec (Quiagen) or EvaGreen® (BioRad), according to the manufacturer's recommendations (see Table 2, for details). For each organ and primer pair, the amplification efficiency was calculated by running serial dilutions of cDNA-pools from samples of all conditions. The efficiencies ranged from 1.90 and 2.20. All qPCR reactions had a single peak melt curve and primer specificity was confirmed by sequencing the amplicons. Three reference genes, *i.e.*, the ribosomal protein L13a (113a), the 40S ribosomal protein S30 (fau) and the 18S ribosomal RNA subunit (18S) were used for the quantification of relative gene expression. The primers of the reference genes were previously tested with the same species following oestrogenic exposure (Paiola et al., 2018; Pinto et al., 2016) and they were evaluated as generally stable during ontogenesis (Mitter et

al., 2009). Using Pfaffl's formula (2001), the relative expression of each gene of interest was calculated using the efficiency of each primer pair for each organ and the geometric mean of the three reference genes as recommended by Vandesompele et al. (2002). Gene-expressions were calibrated by normalizing individual expression to the average of all cDNAs across treatments and age.

Table 2. Analysed genes and their functions, primer sequences or sources, qPCR conditions and analysed organs.

Genes	Function	Primer	Amplicon	Annealing	Analysed
		source	(bp)	Temperature	organs
esr1	Oestrogen regulation (via NISS†)	Seemann et	139	60 °C	Thymus,
		al. (Seemann			Spleen
		et al., 2015)			Spicen
esr2a	Oestrogen regulation (via NISS)	Seemann et	118	61 °C	Thymus, Spleen
		al. (Seemann			
		et al., 2015)			
esr2b	Oestrogen regulation (via NISS)	Seemann et	295	61.5 °C	Thymus, Spleen
		al. (Seemann			
		et al., 2015)			
	Oestrogen regulation (via MISS [‡])	Pinto et al.		60°C	Thymus, Spleen
gpera		(Pinto et al.,	157		
		2016)			
		Pinto et al.		60°C	Thymus, Spleen
gperb	Oestrogen regulation (via MISS)	(Pinto et al.,	122		
		2016)			
	TEC function	Paiola et al.	84	61°C	Thymus, Spleen, Liver
foxn1		(Paiola et al.,			
		2018)			
	Treg differentiation and function	Paiola et al.	80	62°C	Thymus, Spleen, Liver
foxp3		(Paiola et al.,			
		2018)			
	Cell proliferation	Paiola et al.	137	60.5°C	Thymus, Spleen, Liver
pcna		(Paiola et al.,			
		2018)			Spicen, Liver
rag2	Early T cell development	This study ¹	102	62°C	Thymus,
rugz		This study	123		Spleen, Liver
	conventional T cell lineages	Paiola et al.	213	62°C	Thymus, Spleen, Liver
tcra.		(Paiola et al.,			
		2018)			
		Paiola et al.			Thursus
tcry	innate-like T cells	(Paiola et al.,	164	61°C	Thymus, Spleen, Liver
		2018)			Spicen, Livei
mhcIIa.	Conventional T cell selection	Paiola et al.	67	63°C	Thymus,
		(Paiola et al.,			Spleen, Liver
		2018)			Spicen, Livel
il6	proinflammatory cytokine*	Seemann et	221	60°C	Spleen
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		al. (Seemann			
		et al., 2013)			
		Seemann et			
tnfα	proinflammatory cytokine*	al. (Seemann	154	60°C	Spleen
		et al., 2013)			
hepcidin	iron absorption regulation and modulation of innate immunity*	This study ²	97	60°C	Liver

2.5. Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were conducted using GraphPad Prism (version 8.0.1, GraphPad Software) and R software (R Core Team, 2013). Prior to the analyses, outliers were eliminated using the ROUT (Q=1%) outlier test. The datasets were checked for normality and equal variances using the Shapiro-Wilk test and the Levene Median test, respectively. The results from the gene expression were LogL transformed, when necessary, to assure normal distribution. Two-Way ANOVA was performed to determine the effect of the two factors, 'age' and 'treatment', on the expression of the selected genes in each organ, followed by a Tukey HSD post-hoc test. Significant differences were considered at an α -level of 5% (p \leq 0.05), with a total of n=8 for all genes, organs and age cohorts. Gene-expression data are shown as box-and-whisker plots, indicating the median, the 25 and 75 percentiles, as well as the minimum and maximum values.

3. Results

3.1. Oestrogen concentrations and fish biometric measurements

The mean effective concentration of E2 in the treatment aquaria water over the 30 days of the exposure was of 20.22 ± 2.12 (S.E.) ng E2·L⁻¹ and did not vary substantially, confirming the treatment nominal concentration in the two groups. The E2-concentration for the control aquaria was below the limit of detection (< 1.39 ng·L⁻¹) in all measurements. The liver samples from the E2-exposed fish presented a significantly higher concentration of E2 than the control group at 122 dph: 2038.6 ± 361.6 ng·g⁻¹ vs. 538.9 ± 186.4 ng·g⁻¹, respectively (p = 0.007). No significant differences in fish size or weight were observed between treated and control groups and, consequently, there were no differences in the K condition factor or the hepatosomatic index. However, the K condition factor was significantly different between the two age-cohorts (Two-Way ANOVA, p = 0.0001), and there was a trend towards a decrease in the hepatosomatic index (Two-Way ANOVA, p = 0.052, see Table

[†]nuclear-initiated steroid signalization, ‡membrane initiated steroid signalization; * proinflammatory cytokines and *hepcidin* were measured as potential indicators of E2-responsiveness

¹ F: CCGTGGCTGCAATCGTAAAC; R: ACACAAGCTGTCTTCCCTCG

² F: GACACTCGTGCTCGCCTTTA; R: TTGAGTGTCATTGCTCCCTG

1). The survival rate was about 95% and did not differ between treated and control groups, which indicates that 30 days exposure to 20 ng $E2 \cdot L^{-1}$ did not negatively affect survival of fish of either of the age cohorts.

3.2. Oestrogen receptors gene expression

The expression of the three ESRs and the two GPERs was analysed in the two immune organs, thymus and spleen. In general, the expression of all receptors was well detectable in the thymus, whereas only *gperb* could be consistently quantified across the age cohorts and treatment groups in the spleen (Fig. 2). Among ESRs, only the *esr2b* seemed to be modulated by age as well as by E2-treatment. A significant increase of its expression in the thymus was detected in the 90 dph cohort when treated with E2 (Fig. 2, Tukey's test, p = 0.013). In addition, the 122 dph cohort also had a higher *esr2b*-expression compared to that of the 90 dph cohort (Fig. 2, Tukey's test, p = 0.001). Concerning the membrane ERs, only *gpera* was modulated by the age of the fish, with a significantly higher expression level in the thymus of the 122 dph cohort (Fig.2, Tukey's test, p = 0.008), but not by E2-exposure. *Gperb* had a relatively constant expression in both organs, irrespective of age or E2-exposure, whereas no expression of *gpera* expression was detected in the spleen.

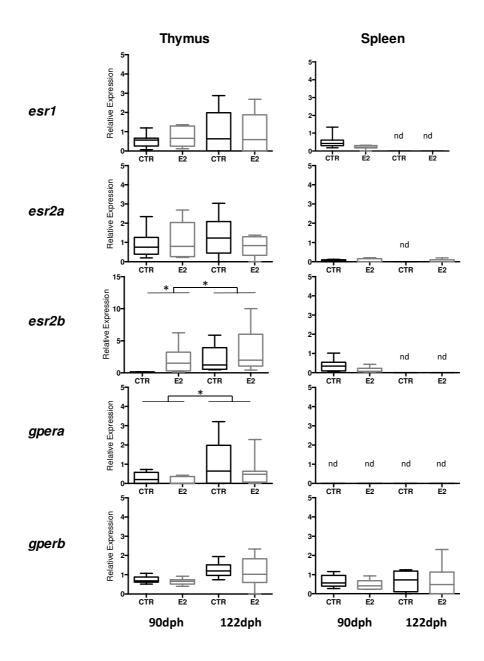


Fig. 2. Relative expression of the oestrogen receptors in the thymus and spleen of European sea bass, *Dicentrarchus labrax*, sampled at two developmental stages, *i.e.*, 90 and 122 dph, after exposure to E2 (20 ng·L⁻¹) for 30 days, or in non-exposed control fish (CTR). Expression-levels are related to the geometric mean of the expression of three reference genes (*fau*, *l13a* and *18S*). The graphs are represented as box-and-whisker plots with the median, 25 % and 75 % quartiles as well as extreme values depicted by the bars. * indicates significant differences between the two age cohorts or between E2-exposed and CTR fish within the same age, at $p \le 0.05$; nd, non-detectable; n = 8 per treatment for all the organs and ages.

3.3. Immune-related gene expression

The dynamics of *foxp3*-expression in the thymus, spleen or liver were neither modulated by age, nor by E2-treatment (Fig. 3). In the liver, a significantly lower expression of *pcna* was observed

at 122 dph compared to the younger cohort (Fig.3, Tukey's test, p = 0.016) and an increase was observed in the thymus at 122 dph (Fig.3, Tukey's test, p = 0.050). However, there was no significant modulation by age, or by E2 in the spleen for the same gene. The $tcr\alpha$ -expression was also modulated by age in all the tissues analysed, with a significant increase in expression at 122 dph in the thymus and liver, and a significant decrease in the spleen when compared to the 90 dph cohort (Fig. 3, Tukey's test, p < 0.0001, in all tissues). A trend towards an effect of the E2-treatment was detected in the liver of the older cohort, which had higher levels of tcra-expression, and in which tcra tends to be reduced in the E2-treated group, as compared to the controls of the same age (Fig. 3, Tukey's test, p = 0.052). The tery increased significantly between 90 dph and 122 dph in the liver (Fig. 3, Tukey's test, p < 0.0001), the tissue where generally higher tery-levels were found. The expression of tery in the thymus did not show any alteration with age or treatment, whereas it decreased in the spleen with age to expression-levels below the detection limit at 122 dph; furthermore, there was a down-regulation of the liver tcry-expression following E2-exposure in the 122 dph cohort (Fig. 3, Tukey's test, p = 0.018). No foxn1-expression was detected in the liver and similarly low levels were found in the spleen, but foxn1 was detected at quantifiable levels in the thymus, although not being significantly modulated by the treatment or by age. The expression of rag2 was detected in all organs and significantly modulated in the thymus, where it increased at 122 dph compared to 90 dph (Fig. 3, Tukey's test, p = 0.006). For liver or spleen, no significant modulation by treatment or age was found. For all the organs, the expression of $mhcII\alpha$ significantly increased at 122 dph compared to 90 dph, whereas no effect of E2-exposure was detected (Fig. 3, Tukey's test, p < 0.0001, < 0.0001 and 0.001, respectively).

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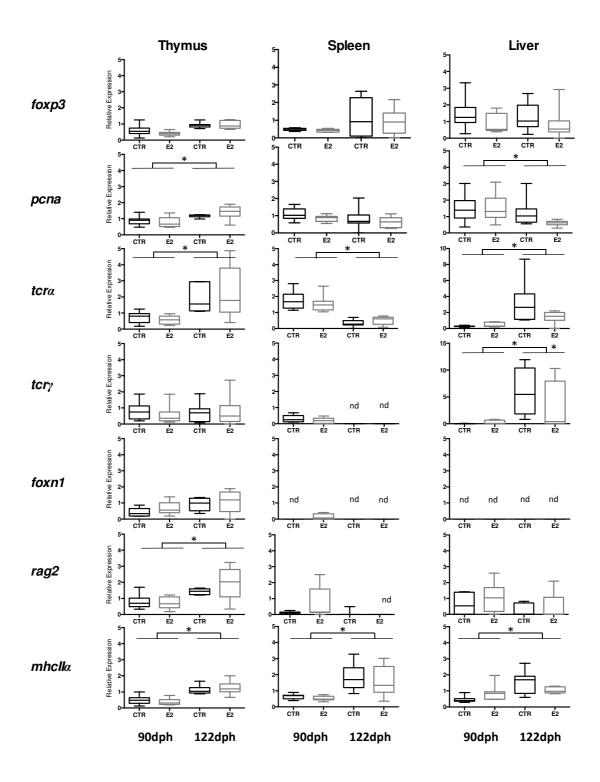


Fig. 3. Relative expression of selected genes related to T cells in the thymus, spleen and liver of European sea bass, *Dicentrarchus labrax*, sampled at two developmental stages, *i.e.*, 90 and 122 days post-hatch (dph), either exposed to 20 ng E2·L⁻¹ over 30 days (E2), or in non-exposed controls (CTR). Gene expression-levels are represented relative to the geometric mean of the expression of three reference genes, *fau*, *l13a* and *18S*. Box-and-whisker plots show median, 25 % and 75 % quartiles as well as extreme values depicted by the bars. *, significant differences between the two age cohorts or between E2-exposed and control fish within the same age, at $p \le 0.05$; nd, non-detectable; n = 8 per treatment for all organs and ages.

The expression of the two proinflammatory cytokine genes il6 and $tnf\alpha$ in the spleen was neither significantly affected by age, nor by E2-exposure (Fig. 4). In the liver, a significantly higher expression of *hepcidin*, a protein involved in iron-absorption that can indirectly modulate innate immune responses, was observed at 122 dph compared to the 90 dph cohort (Fig. 4, Two-way ANOVA, p < 0.001), but no effect of the E2-exposure was found.

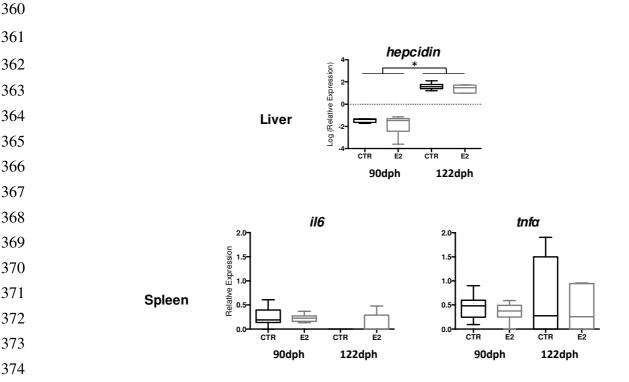


Fig. 4. Relative expression of genes for two cytokines (il6 and $tnf\alpha$) in the spleen and hepcidin in the liver of 90 and 122 dph European sea bass, $Dicentrarchus\ labrax$, either exposed to 20 ng E2·L⁻¹ (E2), or non-exposed controls (CTR). Gene expression levels are related to the geometric mean of the expression of three reference genes (fau, l13a and l8S). Box-and-whisker plots show median, 25 % and 75 % quartiles as well as extreme values depicted by the bars. $Hepcidin\$ expression was log-transformed for representation. *, significant differences between the two age cohorts at $p \le 0.05$; n = 8 per treatment, organs and ages.

4. Discussion

In this study, we tested the hypothesis that oestrogens are directly involved in thymus maturation and associated T cell development in the European sea bass at two distinct developmental stages, previously identified as oestrogen sensitive and non-sensitive windows of thymus ontogenesis, respectively (Seemann et al., 2015): a) between 60 to 90 dph, comprising the beginning of thymus regionalisation (Romano et al., 2011), and b) between 93 to 122 dph, corresponding to the

final phase of thymus maturation, particularly of the medulla (dos Santos et al., 2000; Romano et al., 2011). First of all, we validated the oestrogen uptake, and then investigated oestrogen responsiveness (ERs) and gene expression related to T cell-development in the thymus and in two peripheral immune organs, the spleen and the liver.

The E2-concentrations in the water and in the liver of exposed fish confirmed that the correct nominal E2-concentration of the water was obtained and that E2 was indeed taken up by the fish. Nevertheless, no significant effects of E2 were observed in any of the general biometric parameters of the two cohorts. In addition, neither the inflammatory cytokines, nor the hepcidin-expression responded to the exposure to 20 ng E2·L⁻¹ at the analysed time points. Together with interleukin 1β (IL-1 β), TNF α is one of the first cytokines present in the proinflammatory process of fish and mammals (Chadzinska et al., 2008). Previous studies on juvenile fish have shown a reduction of proinflammatory cytokine $tnf\alpha$ - and il6-expression, while others found an increase of the same cytokines following exposure to oestrogens (Cabas et al., 2012; Chaves-Pozo et al., 2005; Seemann et al., 2013; Wenger et al., 2014). This suggests that depending on the concentration of oestrogens, the age or the species, E2 can either be a pro- or an anti-inflammatory regulator in fish, as has been reported for mammals (Straub, 2007). Furthermore, hepcidin, a protein linked to iron metabolism that may influence innate immunity (Cuesta et al., 2008; Zhou et al., 2016) was previously shown to be down-regulated by E2 in the liver of six-month old largemouth bass, four days after E2-injection (Robertson et al., 2009). In summary, tnfa, il6 and hepcidin are components or modulators of the immune system that have been previously shown to respond to E2 in particular conditions, but in the present study, the concentration used and the timing chosen did not reveal any significant effect of E2 on their gene expression. However, the increase in hepcidin-expression with age was pronounced and similar to that previously detected in whole larvae from 1 to 33 dph in sole (Ferraresso et al., 2016), which can be related to a change in iron metabolism.

Initially, we investigated the expression-levels of the full set of five fish oestrogen receptors, which allow for potential direct oestrogenic regulation (Segner et al., 2013). The presence of ESRs in the immune organs spleen and thymus clearly establishes the existence of their paracrine or autocrine regulation by oestrogens (Szwejser et al., 2017). However, few studies have yet revealed the dynamics of ER-expression at early stages of fish development and they have focused on the nuclear isoforms only. Chandrasekar et al. (Chandrasekar et al., 2010) detected ESR gene-expression (especially for *esr2a* and *2b*) from less than three hours post fertilization in zebrafish embryos, while for sea bass aromatase-related expression and activity was detected in 50 dph animals and onwards (Blázquez et al., 2008) in a study describing the interplay between ESRs during sexual maturation in the brain and in the gonads. Seemann et al., (Seemann et al., 2016) have shown that all three nuclear

receptors are expressed in sea bass head kidney at about 70 dph and the expression of esr1 increased steadily after 120 dph. Correspondingly, we found esr1, esr2a and esr2b to be expressed in the thymus from 90 dph. We also observed a significant increase in esr2b- and gpera-expression with thymus maturation at 122 dph, which more specifically corresponds to the late stage of medulla maturation (dos Santos et al., 2000; Romano et al., 2011). This up-regulation of one nuclear and one membrane oestrogen receptor in the developing thymus at this stage suggests putative key functions during medulla differentiation, and points to a possible role of oestrogen in the sea bass immune system development. According to the stereological study from Seemann et al. (2015), oestrogenexposure during this specific developmental stage triggers significant morphological changes, i.e., thymus hypertrophy. Similarly, in mice, oestrogen exposure during neonatal stages has been shown to trigger thymus hypertrophy (Forsberg, 2000; Leceta et al., 1988). This developmental stage in mice also corresponds to a critical window of medulla maturation (Klein et al., 2009; Li and Rudensky, 2016; Watanabe et al., 2005). The neonatal period is associated with the generation and release of αβ Tregs that have a specific function in maintaining T cell self-tolerance in order to prevent autoimmunity (Fujikado et al., 2016; Li and Rudensky, 2016). As a matter of fact, thymicderived αβ Treg-differentiation takes place in the medulla. Functional and developmental homology between fish and mammals would suggest that in sea bass, Tregs probably expand during the oestrogen-sensitive developmental window. Nevertheless, the expression of foxp3 (involved in Tregdifferentiation and -function) was not significantly increased at 122 dph in the thymus as well as in the analysed peripheral lymphoid organs, which does not support Treg-expansion during this period of medulla maturation in European sea bass. Nevertheless, in the spleen, foxp3-expression was not down-regulated, despite the decrease of $tcr\alpha$ -expression. Since the density and proportion of $\alpha\beta$ T cells in the spleen of sea bass is expected to be reduced after 90-101 dph (dos Santos et al., 2000; Romano et al., 2011), this suggests that αβ Treg may represent a higher proportion of splenic αβ T cells and, therefore, expand at this developmental period. Accordingly, in zebrafish, the increase of $foxp3\alpha$ corresponded to the period of thymus ontogenesis when the regionalization and the maturation of the medulla are acquired, confirming that Treg-development in teleosts takes place in the medulla, as in the case of mammalian Tregs (Lam et al., 2004; Sugimoto et al., 2017). Our results, therefore, suggest that esr2b- and gpera-signalling is important for the maturation of the thymic medulla. In adult sea bass, Esr2b and Gpers have been detected in the thymic parenchyma including endothelial cells, Hassall's corpuscles and the myeloid cells, which reside in the medulla (Paiola et al., 2017). The increase of esr2b and gpera expression corroborate, therefore, the maturation of the medulla as well as the development of the vascular system. Yet, the first appearance of the myoid cells and Hassall's corpuscles during sea bass ontogenesis remains

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unknown. Interestingly, despite their function being unclear, Hassall's corpuscles are apparently involved in Treg production (Watanabe et al., 2005). In fact, ER-subtypes may accomplish different regulatory functions, depending on the timing when and the cells and organs in which they are expressed (Morani, 2008; Zhang and Trudeau, 2006). Our results contrast with the observation made in mice, in which ESR1-signalling is apparently crucial for medulla maturation at the late stage. In fact, only ESR1-deficient neonatal mice, but not foetal mice, showed an altered formation of the thymic medulla (Yellayi et al., 2000). Nevertheless, in mice ESR1 is not restricted to the medulla. It is localized in TEC of the medulla and the cortex and its expression is detected during early during gestation at the beginning of the medulla formation (Seiki and Sakabe, 1997). Its dynamics during the neonatal stage as well as the localization of the other oestrogen receptors remain unknown to date. In mice, the effects of neonatal exposure to oestrogen have been poorly described, but include (1) long lasting and time-delayed modulation of 'delayed-type hypersensitivity', which is a T celldependent immune response (Forsberg, 2000) and (2) induced polycystic ovarian syndrome, which may involve thymic-derived Tregs (Chapman et al., 2009). In summary, these data and our results indicate that E2 is probably involved in the long-lasting establishment of immune tolerance during teleost development through both gper and esr-signalling. This further supports previous findings in adult sea bass, which also suggested that E2 unbalances immune tolerance by acting on Treg and γδ T cells (Paiola et al., 2018).

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Concomitantly, with the thymus maturation, $tcr\alpha$ - and $tcr\gamma$ -expression drastically increased in the liver indicating that this developing stage may correspond to the thymic development of liverspecific αβ and γδ T cells, as observed for γδ T cells of the mammalian skin and intestine, which persist throughout life (Cheroutre et al., 2011; Chien et al., 2014; Muñoz-Ruiz et al., 2017). In fact, rag2- and pcna-expression, which are indicators of extra-thymic regulation (Boschi et al., 2011; Cheroutre et al., 2011; Goronzy and Weyand, 2019; Huttenhuis et al., 2006), were not significantly altered. In mammals, as probably in teleosts, the involvement of the liver in adaptive immunity allows the clearance of activated T cells and signalling molecules following inflammatory reactions and promotes immunologic tolerance towards potentially antigenic proteins that are absorbed from the intestinal tract (Racanelli and Rehermann, 2006; Zheng and Tian, 2019). In mammals, the thymic medulla is also involved in $\gamma\delta$ T cell-development. Nevertheless, its possible modulation by oestrogen remains to be demonstrated. In fact, in mammals E2 has been suggested to stimulate adult intrathymic development of $\gamma\delta$ T cells, which results in the increase of the number of $\gamma\delta$ T cells in the peripheral organs (Abo, 2001; Chapman et al., 2015). The results of the present study also contrast with the observation made in adult sea bass, in which E2-treatment increased tcrgexpression in the spleen of males only (Paiola et al., 2018). Overall, the results reinforce our hypothesis that (1) the investigated developmental stages correspond to implementation of the adaptive immune system, including immune tolerance, and that (2) oestrogen plays a key role in its establishment by potentially acting on the thymus.

Apart from markers characterising T cell subpopulations, we investigated genes that reflect the selection and differentiation of T cells. In parallel to the increased expression of $mhcII\alpha$ and rag2, the $\alpha\beta$ T cells were increased in the thymus, which suggests an intensive T cell-differentiation followed by proliferation activity in the thymus. Notably, RAG2 is expressed in the cortex of the thymus by early immature T cells until positive selection occurs (Ruscher et al., 2017). The upregulation of rag2 with age in the thymus indicated that the thymus became functional over the developmental periods investigated in this study. Correspondingly, Øvergård et al. (2011) found an increase of rag1 from hatching to 159 dph in the whole body of halibut. Furthermore, the same observation was made in whole-body extracts from Senegalese sole larvae from 1 to 33 dph (Ferraresso et al., 2016). Additionally, Picchietti et al. (2015) described an increase of $mhcII\alpha$ in the thymus of the European sea bass with age (from 16 dph to 1 year old), especially at the beginning of the thymus formation and after the regionalization is finalised, which is coherent with our findings.

Concerning the modulation of oestrogen receptor-expression by oestrogens, it may vary between species and tissues. The presence of multiple ERs on immune cells and the fact that E2signalling pathways may be simultaneously induced can result in the highly diverse, cell typedependent effects in response to oestrogens (Thilagam et al., 2014). In several studies, a differential regulation by E2 was shown for the different ESR-isoforms and between tissues, in both developing and in adult fish (e.g. Casanova-Nakayama et al., 2018; Pinto et al., 2019; Pinto et al., 2016; Seemann et al., 2016). In the present study, among the various ERs analysed in the thymus, only esr2b was significantly modulated by E2-treatment for the younger cohort (90 dph). Apparently, E2 triggered the precocious increase of esr2b in the thymus, which normally increases with thymus maturation. Similar to our study, the esr2b of sea bass head kidney responded with increased expression to E2-exposure at 20 ng·L⁻¹ in the study of Seemann et al. (Seemann et al., 2016) at the same age. These E2-dependent dynamics in esr2b in both, the thymus and the head kidney, suggest a key function during thymopoeisis and hematopoiesis and point to important roles of oestrogen and esr2b in the primary lymphoid organ development. Interestingly, the increase of ER-expression in the thymus corresponds to the gonad development and the early production of gonadal E2 (Blázquez et al., 2008). This period could, therefore, correspond to the establishment of interactions along the hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal-thymus axis. Moreover, in the spleen, only esr1 and esr2b are expressed at 90 dph, but at much lower levels than in the thymus, and appear to decrease in older fish, thus suggesting a lower importance of the classical oestrogenic modulation of this peripheral immune organ during immune system ontogeny. Notwithstanding, the transcripts for the membrane receptor *gperb* are consistently expressed in the spleen of sea bass in both age cohorts, *i.e.*, 90 or 122 dph.

5. Conclusion

To the best of our knowledge, this study is the first to investigate the regulatory role of E2, both in thymus and in secondary lymphoid organs, and the first to examine the dynamics of ESRs and GPERs gene expression in immune organs of a teleost fish during thymic development. We have confirmed the importance of oestrogen-signalling in the thymus development across different vertebrates. In fact, although the ER-isoforms have low or undetected levels of expression in the spleen of juvenile European sea bass, all ERs were detected in the maturing thymus and nuclear and membrane ERs, *i.e.*, *esr2b* and *gpera* were upregulated with age along with the maturation of the thymic medulla. In addition, *esr2b* was further modulated by supplementary oestrogen-treatment. These results are indicative of critical roles for these two ER-isoforms in the maturation of the thymic medulla of European sea bass, which contrasts with the establishment of the immunocompetence in mice, in which only ESR1 has been identified as a critical element in the medulla formation.

The expression of different nuclear and membrane receptors suggests that E2 may have complex roles in the immune system ontogenesis. Further research in both, mammals and fish, is needed to identify the extent of conservation of the signalling pathways and the function of E2 throughout evolution. Our results show that in sea bass, as in mammals, the examined oestrogensensitive stage of thymus maturation corresponds to the implementation of the adaptive immune system, including immune tolerance, *via* the maturation of the thymic medulla and Tregdevelopment. Finally, our results suggest that the liver plays an important role in extrathymic regulation during the development of the immune system, as it does for mammals.

Acknowledgments

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