1 Developmental Glucocorticoid exposure in zebrafish primes expression of genes linked to
2 human psychiatric disorders
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Abstract

Chronic or severe stress exposure during development primes an individual for altered stress sensitivity in adulthood and increases psychiatric disease susceptibility. However, the identity and function of genes affected by developmental stress exposure are poorly understood. Here, we used an optogenetic zebrafish model to identify brain-wide molecular alterations caused by chronic Glucocorticoid (GC) exposure during development and following subsequent exposure to an acute stressor in adulthood. We show that developmental GC-exposed fish display wide-ranging behavioral changes affecting social behavior, food consumption, and associative learning. The brain transcriptome of GC-exposed fish showed alteration of genes associated with DNA metabolism, axon development, and social behavior-related genes such as oxytocin across the life course. Strikingly, when GC-exposed fish were subjected to a stress challenge in adulthood, they showed exaggerated endocrine responses and a great number of brain-wide transcriptional changes, including gene sets associated with axon development, neuronal signaling, and epigenetic modulators. These altered gene sets showed an overrepresentation of genes linked to human psychiatric disorders. In short, our study provides a unique resource of long-term, time-dependent gene expression changes induced by developmental GC-exposure and identifies novel GC-primed genes which may shape adult responses of early life stress-exposed individuals.

Introduction

Chronic or severe stress exposure in early life has long-term consequences affecting the development of an individual[1]. In the brain, early life stress (ELS) can lead to long-term alterations in neural plasticity, functional connectivity, epigenetic dynamics, and behavior[2-6]. Reflecting these far-reaching effects, ELS is a strong risk factor for developing psychiatric disorders in humans[7-9]. The molecular response to stress in vertebrates is primarily mediated by a highly conserved neuroendocrine stress regulatory system called the Hypothalamo-Pituitary-Adrenal axis (HPA-axis) in humans[10] and the Hypothalamic-Pituitary-Interrenal axis (HPI-axis) in fish[11]. Like the mammalian adrenal gland, the fish interrenal gland is composed of two cell types: aminergic chromaffin cells and steroidogenic interrenal cells, the latter of which predominantly produce glucocorticoids (GCs), effector stress hormones that are highly conserved across the vertebrate kingdom[10]. While GCs have pleiotropic effects on many aspects of animal physiology, exposure to elevated GCs during brain development is known to cause long-term alteration of behavior, physiology, and stress regulation[1]. However, how high GC exposure during development causes alteration of adult phenotypes is poorly understood. One potential mechanism is long-lasting epigenetic changes, which modify how animals respond to stress in adulthood. For example, a recent study identified differentially expressed genes (DEGs) "primed" by ELS in specific regions of ELS-exposed mouse brains[12]. These genes showed enhanced differential expression in adulthood upon re-exposure to stress and may be associated with behavioral changes in adulthood. Another study identified GC-primed molecular alterations using a GC (dexamethasone)-exposed human hippocampal progenitor cell line and identified long-lasting DNA methylation alterations[13]. The above studies show that ELS or developmental GC exposure results in differential responses to stress exposure later in life by long-term maintained alteration and priming of specific genes. However, so far, ELS or GC-primed genes have only been identified in specific tissues or cell lines and brain-wide GC-primed molecular alterations have not been investigated.

In this study, we utilized optogenetic manipulation of steroidogenic interrenal cells in a zebrafish model to increase the endogenous GC level during development and identified subsequent behavioral and molecular alterations using whole-brain transcriptome analyses in both larval and adult brains. We found changes in adult behavior and brain-wide transcriptomic alteration of GC-exposed fish across the life course. Strikingly, when subjected to acute stress in adulthood, GC-exposed fish show highly exaggerated endocrine and transcriptional responses. Interestingly, the DEGs primed by GC-exposure were enriched in gene sets associated with human neuropsychiatric disorders. In short, our study reports brain-wide

transcriptional changes following the elevation of endogenous GC and identifies for the first

time GC-primed DEGs in the whole brain, a gene set likely to play an important role in

modifying the adult stress response.

Methods and materials

The detailed protocol for all the procedures used in this study is available at the step-wise

online methods[14].

Zebrafish husbandry and maintenance

The tübingen (TU) strain was kept at 28°C on a 12:12 hour light/dark cycle and housed at a

maximum density of 5 fish/L. For experiments with adult fish, only females were used. All

animal procedures were carried out in compliance with the ethical guidelines of the national

animal welfare law and approved by authorities (Landesuntersuchugsamt Rheinland-Pfalz,

Germany, Project number 23 177-07/G20-1-033 or UK Home Office PPL number

PEF291C4D).

Generation of transgenic line

Linearized pT2-2kbStAR:bPAC-2A-tdTomato[15](ZFIN ID: ZDB-GENE-001120-3)

recombinant plasmids were injected into 1-cell stage wild-type embryos of TU strain at 10-50

ng/mL in the presence of 10-50 ng/mL Tol2 transpose mRNA and 0.05% phenol red. The

progenies of injected fish were screened for interrenal-specific tdTomato expression and the

stable transgenic line, *Tg(star:bPAC-2A-tdTomato)^uex300*, was established.

Sample collection

All samples were collected within a 2-hour window during the morning (08:30 to 10:30)

without feeding.

Whole-body Cortisol assay

The competitive cortisol assay (Cisbio HTRF® Cortisol Kit, 62CRTPEG) was performed

following the manufacturer's protocol. ELISA signal was detected by CLARIOstar plate

reader (BMG Labtech, Ortenberg, Germany).

Behavior tests

Social behavior tests and LD (looming dot) presentation were carried out as described in Cook et al., 2023[16]. For all behavioral tests, female adult zebrafish (6-9 months old) were moved into a designated behavior experimental room one week prior to testing and housed in groups of 10 fish in a 3L tank. Experiments were carried out between 09:00 and 14:00 and fish were not fed on the morning of testing. Fish were not used in any repeat experiments. The trials were recorded with cameras at 30 FPS. A camera was positioned at the front and/or top side of the tank. The test fish was tracked live using Ethovision (EthoVision XT 13, Noldus Information Technology), which generated X and Y coordinates for each frame.

RNA preparation and quantification

Each sample for the larval stage (6 and 13 days post fertilization (dpf)) contained 25-30 larval whole brains whilst for the adult stage (120 dpf) three whole brains constituted one sample. Transcripts were quantified using real-time qPCR and next-generation mRNA sequencing. Primer information for qPCR is described in Supplementary Table 13. A total of 60 samples was sequenced, consisting of 5 biological replicates at four different time points (6, 13, 120 dpf, and acute-stressed at 120 dpf) for each genotype (wild type, bPAC+ and bPAC-).

Immunohistochemistry

Immunohistochemistry was performed as described with minor modifications[17]. Custom-made primary rabbit anti-oxt antibodies in 1:200 dilution[17] and Alexa 488 anti-rabbit antibodies (A-11008, Invitrogen, USA) as secondary antibodies (in 1:1000 dilution) were used for the visualization of oxytocinergic neurons.

Imaging and analysis

Confocal stacks through the larval head were recorded using a Zeiss LSM 880 with Airyscan FAST with PApo 10X/0.45 – dry objective with Airyscan mode. Stacks were analyzed using ImageJ (FIJI, 1.53c)[18]. Corrected Total Cell Fluorescence (CTCF) was calculated as integrated density $-$ (Area of cells $\times$ Mean fluorescence of background reading).

Statistics

Statistical analyses were performed using R and Prism 9 (Graphpad Software Inc, San Diego, CA, USA). A detailed description of the statistical analyses is provided in online methods[14]

Data availability

All sequenced reads for RNA-seq were deposited in European Nucleotide Archive (ENA,

PRJEB53713).

Code availability

The detailed data processing and R scripts for bioinformatic analysis are available at the

GitHub repository (https://github.com/minkechoi/tx_star-bPAC_brain).

Results

Optogenetic elevation of endogenous GC during development

We have previously reported that elevation of endogenous GC is induced in a transgenic

zebrafish line by blue light present in ambient light which activates *beggiatoa* Photoactivated

Adenylate Cyclase (bPAC), expressed specifically in steroidogenic interrenal cells[15, 19]. For the

present study, we generated *Tg(star:bPAC-2A-tdTomato)^uex300* using the same construct in a

different strain to obtain a higher cortisol level than what was previously feasible and raised

the fish under ambient light (hitherto referred to as bPAC+) (Fig. 1a,b). Indeed, we observed a

strong cortisol increase at 5 days post fertilization (dpf) in bPAC+ compared to bPAC-, siblings

of bPAC+ which do not carry the transgene (Fig. 1c). bPAC+ larvae raised under a filter, which

restricts blue light penetration, did not show a cortisol increase, supporting that the cortisol

elevation was due to optogenetic activation of bPAC (Fig. 1c). Moreover, the expression of

fkbp5, which regulates the responsiveness of the glucocorticoid receptor (GR)[20], was increased

in bPAC+ compared to bPAC- and to wild type, confirming the activation of the GR signaling

cascade (Fig. 1d). Although bPAC- fish did not carry the transgene, since transgenerational

inheritance of stress-induced phenotypes is reported in mammals and fish[21-23], we compared

bPAC+ and bPAC- to each other, as well as to wild type in this study. Consistent with the

reported onset of endogenous *star* gene expression in an Expression Atlas[24], an increased

cortisol level was observed starting around 2 dpf (Fig. 1e). The high cortisol level was sustained

during larval and juvenile stages in bPAC+ fish, however, by adulthood (three months post-

fertilization (mpf)), no significant difference was detected between bPAC+ and wild type (Figs.

1e,f). These results indicate that using bPAC+ we can achieve a robust and persistent increase

in endogenous cortisol levels during development.

Alteration of adult behavior in developmental GC-exposed fish

We assessed whether bPAC+ fish exhibited behavioral changes as adults using a battery of

tests aimed at assessing goal-directed behaviors affected in neuropsychiatric diseases[25]. bPAC+

fish did not show significant differences in basal locomotor activity compared to wild type and

bPAC- fish (Supplementary Figs. 1a,b). To assess social behavior, we employed a new test that

we recently established, which allows assessment of different phases of social behavior,

namely a drive to approach a social cue, plus an ability to engage and maintain social

interaction (Fig. 2a)[16]. After the fish was placed in a test tank and before the presentation of

conspecifics, wild type, bPAC- and bPAC+ all displayed an immediate and spontaneous

preference for the blue-colored bottom zone with no significant genotype differences

(Supplementary Figs. 1d-f). When the social cue was revealed (Supplementary Fig. 1c), within

10 seconds the vast majority of wild type, bPAC-, and bPAC+ entered the social interaction

zone, a C-shaped zone (shaded green in Fig. 2a) adjacent to the conspecifics, within which wild

type display a stereotypical pattern of swimming. No difference in social approach between the

groups was found using a log-rank test for trend (P=0.69), indicating that bPAC+ did not show

deficits in recognition or approach to social cues (Supplementary Fig. 1g). In contrast, we

found significant differences in the time spent in the interaction zone and the number of social

interactions performed between wild type and bPAC+ during the 2-minute social phase (Figs.

2b,c). We confirmed that bPAC- also spent less time in the interaction zone and performed

fewer interactions than the wild type (Supplementary Figs. 1h,i).

Next, we tested food consummatory behavior by counting the number of floating food pellets

eaten by a fish during a 10-minute interval (Fig. 2d). Wild-type adult fish consumed an average

of 14.5 pellets while bPAC+ fish consumed an average of 2.33 pellets out of a total of 25 (Figs.

2e,f). This was not due to the lack of recognition nor interest in the food, as bPAC+ fish

approached the food pellets and actually spent a longer time in the zone near the pellets (feeding

zone) than wild type (Fig. 2g).

To test associative learning, we employed a Pavlovian avoidance learning test where fish learn

to associate the color green with a mild electric shock in the testing chamber (Figs. 2h,i). Fish

were first habituated in the chamber for 30 minutes and tracked to determine the baseline

preference for green or blue color. Wild type and bPAC+ fish showed no significant difference

in baseline color preference (Fig. 2j). However, after the conditioning, wild-type fish spent an

average of 89.2% of their time in the blue zone, significantly more than bPAC+ fish who spent

62.68% of their time in the blue zone (Fig. 2k), suggesting a deficit in associative learning in

bPAC+ fish.

Lastly, we tested the behavior of bPAC+ fish in a novel environment using a novel tank test

(Supplementary Figs. 1j-p). In the novel tank test, wild-type fish first dive to the bottom and

demonstrate a sustained depth-preference whilst performing bouts of erratic high-speed

swimming[26, 27], meanwhile bPAC+ fish showed reduced depth-preference (Supplementary

Figs. 1k,n) and swam slower than wild- type controls (Supplementary Figs. 1l,o). Time spent

performing fast-swimming bouts was also significantly decreased in bPAC+ fish

(Supplementary Fig. 1m). However, there was no significant difference in freezing duration

between groups (Supplementary Fig. 1p).

Together these results show that social interaction, food consumption, associative learning, and

adaptation to a novel environment are altered in bPAC+ fish. Our results point to modification

of a broad range of goal-directed behavior performance without changes in basal locomotion

parameters in bPAC+.

Whole-brain transcriptional alterations in bPAC+ fish across the life course

Whole-brain RNA sequencing was carried out using larval (6 and 13 dpf) and adult (120 dpf)

brains to identify and compare transcriptomic differences in wild type, bPAC+, and bPAC-. A

large number of DEGs was identified in pairwise comparisons of bPAC+ and wild-type brains

at 6 dpf (up/down=602/1253), 13 dpf (up/down=777/1566), and 120 dpf (up/down=684/1078)

(Fig. 3, Supplementary Table 1). At all-time points, the number of downregulated genes was

greater than the number of upregulated genes, indicating that developmental GC-exposure

tends to repress rather than activate genes (Fig. 3a). Further, the number of DEGs consistently

downregulated from early life until adulthood (273 DEGs) was greater than the upregulated

DEGs (48 DEGs) (Fig. 3a). We identified fewer DEGs when comparing bPAC- to wild type,

with 571 (up/down=329/242), 1026 (up/down=372/654), and 74 (up/down=42/32) DEGs at 6,

13, and 120 dpf, respectively, and many of these DEGs overlapped with those identified in the

bPAC+/wild type comparison (Supplementary Fig. 2a). To compare the overall transcriptomic

landscape of all identified DEGs, we performed unsupervised hierarchical clustering, which

revealed large differences in the gene expression landscape between the bPAC+ and bPAC-

compared to wild type (Fig. 3b). At each time point, bPAC+ and bPAC- transcriptome profiles

clustered together separately from wild type. Next, to confirm an increase in GR signaling, we

measured the expression level of GR target genes, *nr3c1, nr3c2, tsc22d3, fkbp5,* and *hsd11b2*

at 6, 13, and 120 dpf. The expression levels of *nr3c1, tsc22d3, fkbp5,* and *hsd11b2* were altered

at multiple time points in bPAC+ (Fig. 3c). bPAC- also showed differences to wild type, albeit

generally to a lesser degree (Fig. 3c). Both the alteration of GR signaling and similarity of

DEGs identified in bPAC- and bPAC+ point to potential transgenerational effects present in

bPAC- resulting from high GC-exposure in the parental generation. Supporting this notion,

even though bPAC- was not exposed to a high level of GC, some of the DEGs at 6 dpf in

bPAC- are involved in processes that potentially regulate GC inactivation (Supplementary Fig.

2b, Supplementary Table 2). Therefore, overlapping GO terms for DEGs that were enriched in

both bPAC- and bPAC+ may reveal functions associated with transgenerational effects.

Developmental GC exposure leads to long-lasting suppression of nervous system

development and adult-onset alteration of gene regulation

To identify direct molecular consequences of developmental GC exposure, we characterized

DEGs in bPAC+ compared to wild type. Upregulated DEGs in bPAC+ fish brains at 6 dpf were

enriched in the GO terms that include potential regulatory enzymes for GC such as cytochrome

monooxygenases, 11β-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase or sulfotransferases[28-30] (left panel of

Fig. 3d). At 13 dpf, the top-ranked enriched biological processes for upregulated DEGs were

cell cycle, chromosome segregation, and DNA metabolic process which can cause genomic

instability by replication stress[31] (left panel of Fig. 3d). At 120 dpf, bPAC+ brains showed

upregulation of genes involved in ribonucleoprotein complex biogenesis, peptide metabolic,

translation, protein modification, RNA processing and more, suggesting effects of

developmental GC exposure on gene expression regulation and post-transcriptional

modification in adulthood (left panel of Fig. 3d, Supplementary Table 2). In contrast,

downregulated DEGs across all time points were mainly enriched in processes related to cell

adhesion and cell migration, as well as nervous system development including neuron

differentiation, cell morphogenesis, and axon development (right panel of Fig. 3d,

Supplementary Table 2). During larval stages, downregulated DEGs were enriched in

anatomical structure formation, muscle structure development, vasculature development,

external encapsulating structure organization and more. We also identified functions associated

with time-point-specific downregulated DEGs (Supplementary Table 2). For example, DEGs

at 6 dpf were enriched in brain development while DEGs at 13 dpf were enriched in the cellular

response to organic substance (right panel of Fig. 3d). At 120 dpf, we identified downregulated

DEG enrichments in synaptic signaling, regulation of molecular function, and regulation of

GTPase activity and more (right panel of Fig. 3d).

These results highlight long-lasting downregulation of neuronal development and signaling

processes, and adult-onset alteration of transcription and translation regulation following

developmental GC exposure.

Social behavior-associated genes are downregulated in bPAC+ fish

To search for a potential link between the observed molecular changes and social behavior, we analyzed the expression patterns of 101 known social behavior-associated genes from the Gene Ontology Annotation database (henceforth referred to as social genes). Interestingly, 47 of these social genes were differentially expressed in bPAC+ brains, where 37 were downregulated at one time point at least ($|FC|>1.5$ and FDR<0.05) and only 9 were upregulated (Supplementary Fig. 3a). Among the three-time points analyzed, 6 dpf brains showed the largest change (up/down=2/31). The most significant downregulated social genes over time were *nlgn2b*, *mapk8ip2*, *brinp1*, *slc6a4a,* as well as *oxytocin (oxt)*, well-known social gene (Supplementary Fig. 3a). We confirmed the downregulation of *oxt* both in larval and adult brains using qPCR and immunohistochemistry (Supplementary Fig. 3b,c).

Using differentially expressed social genes at 6 dpf, we performed network-based analyzes using the String database[32] (Supplementary Fig. 3d). The identified protein network was enriched in modulation of chemical synaptic transmission, synaptic signaling, learning and memory, pre-synapse assembly and social behavior. Notably, *oxt* regulators including *myt1la*, *med12*, and *thrab* were downregulated at 6 dpf and two of them (*myt1la*, *med12*) remained downregulated until adulthood (Supplementary Fig. 3e). Further, transcription factor (TF) enrichment analysis of human orthologues of the social genes identified *myt1la* as one of the top regulators of 47 differentially expressed social genes, based on the ChEA3 database[33] (Supplementary Fig. 3f). These results suggest that downregulation of *myt1la* in bPAC+ may result in the altered expression of social genes including *oxt*.

bPAC+ fish show an enhanced endocrine response to acute stress in adulthood

To assess whether high GC exposure during development affects the stress response in adulthood, we subjected wild-type, bPAC+, and bPAC- fish to a looming dot stimulus (LD), which mimics an approaching predator[16] (Fig. 4a, Supplementary Fig. 4a). Interestingly, bPAC+ adults exhibited a much greater cortisol increase after LD exposure compared to wild-type adults (Fig. 4b), indicative of a sensitized endocrine response to acute stress in bPAC+. Similarly, we found an altered transcriptional response of stress-associated genes in bPAC+ after LD exposure (Fig. 4c). For example, the expression of *nr3c2*, the gene coding for the mineralocorticoid receptor (MR), was further downregulated only in bPAC+ adults following LD exposure, although basal expression of *nr3c2* was already decreased in bPAC+ compared to wild type. In contrast, the GC-inactivating enzyme coding gene, *hsd11b2,* was significantly upregulated in the wild type after LD exposure, but upregulated to a lesser degree in bPAC+ following LD exposure. Together, the significant increase in LD-induced cortisol level and

altered expression of *nr3c2*, *fkbp5,* and *hsd11b2* indicate an enhanced endocrine response following acute stress exposure in adult bPAC+.

Developmental GC exposure primes large-scale differential gene expression following acute stress in adulthood

To identify the transcriptional response to acute stress following developmental GC exposure, we carried out whole-brain RNA sequencing of wild type, bPAC+ and bPAC- that had been exposed to LD in adulthood and made three separate comparisons (Figs. 4d,e). First, we compared the wild-type transcriptome at basal (pre-LD) and after LD exposure (post-LD), to identify the normal acute stress response in wild-type fish (referred to as DEG1). Secondly, we compared pre-LD and post-LD in bPAC+ (referred to as DEG2), and finally the post-LD transcriptome of wild type and bPAC+ was also compared (referred to as DEG3). DEG3 includes LD-induced DEGs (overlapping with DEG1 and DEG2) as well as those DEGs that were already altered in bPAC+ prior to LD exposure and therefore the number of DEG3 genes (2034 genes) was greater than that of DEG2 (Fig. 4f). Strikingly, bPAC+ showed more than 20-fold greater number of DEGs in response to LD exposure (DEG2, 1617 genes) compared to wild type (DEG1, 64 genes) (Fig. 4f). Altogether we identified 2515 genes (DEG1+DEG2+DEG3) that appeared to be altered in the adult brain by developmental GC exposure in bPAC+, and refer to them collectively as adult bPAC+ DEGs.

The exaggerated transcriptional LD response in bPAC+ indicates that developmental GC exposure in zebrafish primes enhanced alteration of gene expression in adulthood, similar to observations in previous mammalian ELS or GC-primed gene studies[12, 13]. To characterize the GC-primed genes, we combined the 18 genes in DEG1 indicating altered stress responses in bPAC+ that did not overlap with DEG2, with the DEG2 genes excluding the 44 genes representing normal stress responses in bPAC+ that overlapped with DEG1 (Fig. 4f, Supplementary Table 3). This set of 1591 genes is collectively referred to as GC-primed genes here and represents those genes that are primed by developmental GC exposure to produce an altered transcriptional response to acute stress in adulthood. Among the 1591 GC-primed genes, 1337 downregulated genes were enriched in neuron projection development, synaptic signaling, receptor complex, synapse, metal ion transmembrane transport, and more (Fig. 4g, Supplementary Table 4). A subset of social genes was also part of the GC-primed genes (Supplementary Fig. 4b). Next, we performed a TF enrichment test of GC-primed genes using the ChEA3 platform[33] and identified common potential upstream regulators of GC-primed genes (Supplementary Table 5, Supplementary Fig. 5). For the upregulated GC-primed genes,

immediate early genes were top-ranked TFs. Among the top-ranked TFs for downregulated

GC-primed genes, *camta2* and *myt1l* may be involved in the regulatory process of 149 and 139

downregulated genes, respectively. Expression of *myt1l* was consistently downregulated in

bPAC+ adults at both pre-LD and post-LD condition (Supplementary Fig. 5c).

Lastly, we carried out a comparative analysis with a recent study that reported 702 GC-primed

DEGs linked with long-lasting differentially methylated sites following re-exposure to GC

(dexamethasone)[13]. These DEGs were identified in GC-treated mature neurons which were

exposed to GC during neurogenesis in a human hippocampal progenitor cell (hpc) line.

Through the comparison between 702 DEGs (hpc_ELS-primed genes, up:368, down:334)[13]

and our DEG3, which represents a similar GC re-exposed condition, we found 163 overlapping

genes (up/down=99/64). Among them, 21 overlapping DEGs were also classified as GC-

primed DEGs and they were linked to functions such as generation of neurons (*AUTS2, IRX5,*

SPOCK1, POU3F2) (Supplementary Fig. 6, Supplementary Table 6).

Together, these results reveal for the first time a brain-wide set of genes primed by

developmental GC exposure and identify their potential upstream regulators. Further, we found

a significant overlap between subsets of GC-primed genes identified in zebrafish with those

from mammalian studies suggesting a high degree of evolutionary conservation of molecular

mechanisms underlying epigenetic reprogramming by GC.

Adult bPAC+ DEGs are associated with neuropsychiatric disorders in humans

Since stress exposure during development is a risk factor for the development of psychiatric

disorders in humans[7-9], GC-primed genes were compared with known psychiatric disease risk

factors using the curated DisGeNET database[34]. Strikingly, human homologs of GC-primed

genes exhibit a significant enrichment of known psychiatric disease-associated genes

(Supplementary Table 7). Top-ranked psychiatric disorders were schizophrenia, bipolar

disorder, and autistic disorder (Supplementary Fig. 7). Further, the entire adult bPAC+ DEGs

set was strongly enriched in known psychiatric disease risk factors and in this case depressive

disorder was also included in the top four ranked diseases (Figs. 5a,b, Supplementary Table 8).

Upon LD exposure, the difference in expression of schizophrenia-associated genes in bPAC+

was greatly enhanced as represented by the size of nodes in Fig. 5c. Further, schizophrenia-

associated adult bPAC+ DEGs were enriched in either of two KEGG pathways: neuroactive

ligand-receptor interaction (FDR=2.01e-08), or MAPK signaling pathway (FDR=9.74e-08).

Overall, across all four disease categories, the top-ranked disease-associated with adult bPAC+

DEGs were mainly enriched in cell communication, nervous system development, response to endogenous stimulus, and neuroactive ligand-receptor interaction (Supplementary Fig. 8). Adult bPAC+ DEGs associated with schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, depressive disorders and autistic disorders were predominantly downregulated (Fig. 5d). Interestingly, we noted that some of the disease-associated adult bPAC+ DEGs were already differentially expressed from the larval stage (trans-temporal, 60 genes) while some others showed alteration in their expression only upon exposure to acute stress in adulthood (adult-onset, 65 genes) (Figs. 5e). Other non-disease-associated adult bPAC+ DEGs maintained differential expression from the larval stage (540 genes) or exhibited an enhanced alteration upon adulthood stress (adult-onset, 463 genes) (Supplementary Table 9). Trans-temporal adult bPAC+ DEGs were mostly enriched in axon development (FDR= 1.33e-08, 31 DEGs), whilst adult-onset adult bPAC+ DEGs were enriched in ion transport (FDR= 7.26eE-05, 44 DEGs) (Supplementary Table 10). Interestingly, a cell-type enrichment test using the human homologs of adult bPAC+ DEGs showed that 24 trans-temporal adult bPAC+ DEGs were associated with non-microglial oligodendrocyte lineages. In contrast, the downregulated adult-onset adult bPAC+ DEG set was associated with non-microglial neuron-enriched genes including GABAergic receptor-associated genes (*GABRA1*, *GABRG2*), other ion channel activity genes (*SLC12A5*, *CACNA1E*, *CACNA1I*, *UNC80*, *KCNH1*, *SCN2B*), and genes associated with synapse and neuronal cell signaling (*DNM1*, *DLGAP2*, *RPH3A*, *GPR158*) (Supplementary Table 11). More than half of those genes were GC-primed genes. These results indicate that oligodendrocyte lineage cells are consistently suppressed following developmental GC-exposure, and developmental GC primes suppression of neuronal signaling primarily in adulthood when encountering stressful stimuli.

Altered gene expression associated with epigenetic modifications and RNA processing in bPAC+ fish

To identify underlying mechanisms by which developmental GC exposure regulates gene expression in the brain, we analyzed the expression of epigenetic modifiers. We identified 70 adult bPAC+ DEGs associated with epigenetic modifications (Figs. 6a,b, Supplementary Table 12). These genes are associated with RNA modification (up/down=3/3), RNA processing including mRNA splicing (up/down=27/17), histone modification (up/down=4/18), and DNA modification (up/down=0/3). Among them, the DNA methyltransferase (DNMT) 3aa gene and the histone modification-associated genes, *chd3*, *hdac4*, *hdac5*, *kdm2ba*, *kdm4aa*, *mta3*, *nsd3*, *padi2*, *suv39h1b*, and *yeats2*, showed consistent downregulation across time-points.

We also found significant differences in the expression of 4 out of 7 *DNMTs* in the zebrafish

genome including *dnmt1*, *dnmt3aa*, *dnmt3ab,* and *dnmt3bb.3* across time points and conditions

in bPAC+ compared to the wild type (Fig. 6c). In the wild type, *dnmt1* is highly expressed at

6 dpf and expression then gradually decreases over time, but in bPAC+ expression was

significantly reduced at 6 dpf. Expression patterns of *dnmt3aa* and *dnmt3ab*, orthologous to

human *DNMT3A,* known as one of the writers of *de novo* methylation, mainly showed

differences in bPAC+ adult brains. Further, low expression of *dnmt3aa* and upregulation of

dnmt3ab was observed upon LD exposure in adulthood in bPAC+. To identify whether

alteration of the top epigenetic modulators (labeled with * in Fig. 6a) is long-lasting throughout

adulthood, we analyzed their expression at 8 mpf, with and without LD exposure.

Downregulated expression of those genes was continuously observed in the later adult stage (8

mpf) mainly upon acute stress in bPAC+ adults (Fig. 6d). These results suggest that

developmental GC exposure leads to pervasive, long-lasting changes to epigenetic modulators.

Discussion

This study examines the effects of chronic developmental GC exposure in shaping adult

phenotypes at both behavioral and molecular levels. We report altered goal-directed behaviors

in adults and brain-wide molecular consequences of GC-exposure in both larvae and adults.

Further, this study represents the first comprehensive brain-wide identification of genes

differentially expressed in adult bPAC+, many of which correspond to genes associated with

neuropsychiatric disorders in humans.

Our bPAC+ model involves the optogenetic activation of *star*-expressing interrenal cells,

leading to an increase in endogenous cortisol levels in transgenic animals. The mammalian

counterpart of the fish interrenal, the adrenal gland, is known to produce three types of steroid

hormones, GCs, mineralocorticoids (MCs), and androgens[35]. However, cortisol/GC is believed

to be the primary output of the zebrafish interrenal gland. Previous studies in fish using LC-

MS have not detected MCs in any significant quantities in either larval or adult samples[36-39],

suggesting that the zebrafish interrenal produces no/negligible amounts of MC. Androgens are

not detectable in zebrafish larvae[36], but are detectable in adult male whole-body samples [37-39],

suggesting that androgens are most likely only produced in the testes in zebrafish. As such, we

believe that the phenotypes observed in our bPAC+ model are the effects of GC exposure,

rather than of exposure to additional non-GC interrenal hormones.

One of our interesting findings is the enhanced endocrine sensitivity of adult bPAC+ fish in response to acute stress. Further, we observed a significant decrease in the expression of *nr3c2*, which encodes the high GC-affinity MC receptor (MR), both at pre- and post-LD exposure (Fig. 4c). Given the higher affinity of MR to GC, MR can be a regulator of GR signaling in MR and GR co-expressing cells in basal conditions[40, 41]. Moreover, reduced transcriptional reactivity of *hsd11b2*, a key enzyme for cortisol inactivation[42, 43], in bPAC+ after LD (Fig. 4C) may lead to an increased accumulation of active cellular cortisol. These results suggest that developmental GC-exposure may lead to a sensitized response to stress by decreased MR expression at pre- and post-LD and an attenuated increase of *hsd11b2* expression. This blunted response to stress is reminiscent of the HPA axis dysregulation observed in humans exposed to ELS and in those suffering from psychiatric diseases[44, 45].

We show that goal-directed behaviors relevant to neuropsychiatric disorders are altered in bPAC+ fish. bPAC+ fish exhibit a reduction in the maintenance of social interactions in the absence of social recognition or approach deficits. These results are consistent with phenotypes observed in rodent ELS models in which deficits in social interaction in the absence of social recognition and approach have been observed[46]. Furthermore, social withdrawal is a common feature of autism[47] and schizophrenia[48] models in rodents. Similarly in previous zebrafish ELS studies, diminished shoaling behavior was observed following early-life social isolation and was associated with both motivational deficiencies linked to dopaminergic systems[49] and increased sensitivity to stimuli which was reversed by anxiolytic treatment[50]. Further, bPAC+ fish showed deficits in cognition and fear processing. This phenotype is also consistent with what has been reported of rodent ELS models, which showed deficits in fear learning, learning impairment, and decreased cognitive flexibility[51-53]. In zebrafish, fear-conditioned avoidance learning is a robust phenotype whereby fish exhibit freezing and erratic behavior upon re-exposure to the conditioned stimulus (CS)[54, 55]. Although one study found that chronic unpredictable stress did not have any effect on fear conditioning in adult zebrafish[56], a different ELS protocol found improvement of short-term memory by early life stress when testing in the unconditioned y-maze[57]. Our results demonstrate that developmental GC exposure results in far-reaching behavioral alterations in zebrafish, which manifests in a diminished response and engagement to both positive and negative stimuli, combined with cognitive deficits consistent with ELS-associated clinical outcomes.

We identified brain-wide GC-modulated alterations through whole-brain transcriptome analyses using larval and adult zebrafish. The GC-modulated downregulated genes are mainly enriched in cell morphogenesis, neuronal cellular signaling, and neuropsychiatric disorders-associated gene sets. Despite the differences in species, stressor type, and brain region, results of our GO enrichment test and observed phenotypes are broadly similar with previous findings obtained from ELS rodent models which report alterations in axon development, synaptic density and plasticity, altered hippocampal mossy fibres[5, 6, 58]. However, mammalian ELS paradigms may represent a milder and shorter stress exposure when compared to the chronic high GC elevation in the model described here.

Interestingly, we identified a large set of adult-onset upregulated DEGs which were enriched in DNA metabolism, various RNA processing processes, and posttranslational modifications. This may indicate that developmental GC-exposure can lead to genome instability by DNA replication stress and altered gene expression regulation via alternative splicing, non-coding RNAs, and posttranslational modifications in adulthood. Moreover, in adult bPAC+, we identified oligodendrocyte lineage cell markers in downregulated trans-temporal DEGs while neuron-enriched genes were enriched in downregulated adult-onset DEGs. This result suggests that developmental GC-exposure has a cell-type-specific impact.

Growing evidence indicates that GC signaling can lead to modifications to DNA methylation, histone codes, and non-coding RNAs[59-61]. Similarly, we identified significantly altered expression of epigenetic modulators. One of the most significantly altered epigenetic regulators in bPAC+ brains are *DNMTs* (*dnmt1* and *dnmt3aa*) at the larval stage (6 dpf), which may result in a global or local reduction in DNA methylation. *DNMT1* mainly plays a role in the maintenance of DNA methylation[62] while accumulation or gain of DNA methylation is achieved by *DNMT3a* and *-3b*[63]. Therefore, developmental GC exposure may lead to an abnormal DNA methylation landscape by suppressing *dnmt1* and *dnmt3aa* expression during development and altering expression of *dnmt3aa* and *dnmt3ab* in adult brains. Indeed, we identified genes including *auts2b, dmbx1b, gadd45gb.1, isl2a, irx2a, irx5a, irx6a, neurod6b, uncx4.1, and zgc:110843* that are shared between adult bPAC+ DEGs and the list of DEGs associated with differentially methylated regions (DMR) in *dnmt3aa* knockout mutant zebrafish[64]. Lack of *DNMTs* during development causes defects in neuronal development and function[65, 66] as well as altered behaviors including social interest and anxiety-like behavior [67].

Given such far-reaching effects of each *DNMT*, alteration of *dnmt* levels that we observe in

bPAC+ are predicted to change the global DNA methylation landscape across the life course.

In our study, we identified consistently downregulated adult bPAC+ DEGs associated with

histone modifications across the life course (marked with light green bars in Fig. 6). Temporal

regulation of chromatin structure via the "histone code" in neurons has been regarded as a

crucial factor for dynamic plasticity in the mature nervous system and long-lasting neuronal

responses[68]. Among the histone modulators, *hdac4*, a consistently downregulated gene in

bPAC+ fish, has been implicated in depression, fear learning, PTSD, eating disorder (Anorexia

nervosa), and schizophrenia[69-73]. Furthermore, many epigenetic-associated adult bPAC+ DEGs

are involved in RNA processing and RNA editing. Among them, we found a downregulation

of *adarb2* and *pum2* in bPAC+ fish after exposure to LD. Chen et al. suggest that ADARB2

has a regulatory role in RNA editing by inhibiting the binding of other adenosine deaminases

acting on RNA (ADARs)[74] and ADARs are associated with the development of epileptic

seizures in mice and depressive phenotypes[75, 76]. Further, *pum2* is involved in axon growth and

branching[77]. However, further investigation is required to reveal direct mechanisms between

the identified adult bPAC+ DEGs and alterations to epigenetic modulators, as well as the

potential link between the adult bPAC+ DEGs and the phenotypes observed in human

neuropsychiatric disorders.

In conclusion, we show that developmental GC exposure leads to altered behaviors and brain-

wide transcriptional changes that were enriched in the processes of DNA metabolism, nervous

system development and neuronal signaling across the life course. We identified brain-wide

adult bPAC+ DEGs that are overrepresented in gene sets associated with neuropsychiatric

disorders and are enriched in epigenetic modulators. Further, developmental GC exposure led

to exaggerated endocrine responses and primed a set of genes to exhibit altered transcriptomic

responses to subsequent challenge in adult fish. We propose that the brain-wide DEG set

identified here will be useful for guiding future studies dissecting the mechanism underlying

developmental GC-exposure and behavioral dysfunction and neuropsychiatric disease

susceptibility in adulthood.

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547 Author contributions
548 SR conceived and MC designed the project. MC acquired, analyzed and interpreted data. AC

549 acquired, analyzed, and interpreted behavior data. SK, HE, AT and SK contributed to reagent

550 generation or data acquisition. MC, SR, and AC drafted the article. MC, HE, and SR critically

551 revised the manuscript. All authors approved the submission.

553 Competing interests
554 SR holds a patent, European patent number 2928288 and US patent number 10,080,355: "A

555 novel inducible model of stress.". The remaining authors declare no known competing interests.

 Figure legends

Figure 1. Ambient light-exposed bPAC+ fish show elevation of cortisol until the juvenile
stage. (a) An image of *Tg(star:bPAC-2A-tdTomato)*[+/-] larva at 5 dpf. The transgene is
expressed solely in the interrenal gland (arrow). The schematic presents the intracellular events
in the steroidogenic interrenal cells of transgenic fish (dotted box). Endogenous GC production
is initiated by Adrenocorticotropic Hormone (ACTH) signaling with adenylyl cyclase (AC).
Likewise, bPAC mimics ACTH signaling by synthesizing Cyclic adenosine monophosphate
(cAMP) when exposed to blue light. Scale bar indicates 1.5 mm. (b) Fish were raised under
conventional aquarium lighting conditions with white fluorescent light (12-hour light and 12-
hour dark). Elevation of basal GC level was observed at larval and juvenile stages. (c) White
ambient light (blue+) elevates the basal GC level of 6 dpf bPAC+ larvae. ***=P<0.001, two-
tailed unpaired t-test. However, there was no significant difference in GC level after filtering
out the blue light spectrum from the ambient light (blue-). (d) One of the well-known GR
signaling markers, *fkbp5*, was significantly upregulated in bPAC+ larvae ($P = 0.016$) compared
to wild-type control, two-tailed unpaired t-test. * = P<0.05. Basal GC level at larval stages (e)
and from juvenile to adult (f).

Figure 2. Reduced behavioral response to a novel environment, social interaction, feeding,
and fear conditioning in adult bPAC+ fish. (a) Schematic figures for the social approach and
maintenance test. Representative traces of fish during the social phase are shown on the right
side. Green shade indicates the interaction zone. (b-c) bPAC+ showed a significantly decreased
duration and frequency of social interactions compared to wild type. Dunnett's multiple
comparisons test followed one-way ANOVA; b: (F (2, 98) = 6.273, P=0.0027), c: (F (2, 98) =
10.93, P<0.0001). (d) Schematic for the feeding behavior test. (e-g) bPAC+ fish consumed
significantly fewer pellets within 10 min, despite spending more time near the food. Mann-
Whitney test, n=16. (h) Chambers for the fear conditioning test. (i) For fear conditioning, an
electric shock was given to subject fish when they swim onto the green color. After fear
conditioning, time spent in each color zone was measured. (j) No significant difference was
observed in color preference prior to fear conditioning. Mann-Whitney test, n=6. (k) bPAC+
showed less preference for the safe zone color (blue) after fear conditioning using an electric
shock. Mann-Whitney test, n=18. Error bars on bar graphs indicate the mean±SD, and shading
in line graphs represents the mean±SEM.

Figure 3. Developmental GC exposure leads to differential gene expressions across the
life course (a) Venn Diagram for up- and down-regulated DEGs between wild type and bPAC+;
criteria for DEG identification: |FC|>2 and FDR <0.01. However, a weaker FC threshold,
|FC|>1.5, was applied for samples at 120 dpf. (b) Average read counts of genes by genotype
and time points are represented by z-score in the heat map. Bars on the right side indicate the
paternity of fish. (c) Expression profiles of GC-associated genes. *=P<0.05, **=P<0.01,
***=P<0.001, ****=P<0.0001. Dunnett's multiple comparisons test followed two-way
ANOVA. (d) Top enriched biological processes for up- and down-regulated DEGs in bPAC+.
d6: 6 dpf, d13: 13 dpf, d120: 120 dpf, wt: wild type, FC: fold change, GC: glucocorticoid, *adj.p*:
adjusted P-value, ratio: identified DEGs/the number of genes included in the term. Complete
DEG-enriched GO terms are described in Supplementary Table 2.

Figure 4. Developmental GC exposure primes differential gene expression following acute
stress in bPAC+ adults. (a) Schematic for acute-stressed and control sample collection
(arrows). Acute stress is induced by looming dot (LD)-exposure in adults (120 dpf). post-LD
samples were collected after 15 min of LD exposure. Yellow striped box: bPAC+ activation;
yellow stars: LD. (b) bPAC+ showed significantly higher GC levels in post-LD conditions,

compared with basal. One-way ANOVA; F(5, 54) = 19.31, $P<0.0001$. (c) Expression profiles of GC-induced genes following LD exposure. *= $P < 0.05$, ** = $P < 0.01$, *** = $P < 0.001$ from multiple two-tailed unpaired t-tests. Error bars indicate mean+SEM. (d) Schematic for three comparisons to identify transcriptional changes in response to LD exposure in adults. DEGs were determined by FC and FDR. |FC|>1.5 and FDR<0.01 for DEG1 and 2; |FC|>2 and FDR<0.01 for DEG3. Methods for LD exposure are described in Supplementary Fig. 4a. Yellow striped box: bPAC+ activation; yellow stars: LD. (e) z-score for mean CPM of adult bPAC+ DEGs is visualized in a heatmap. (f) Venn diagram for adult bPAC+ DEGs. The list of DEGs is described in Supplementary Table 3. GC-primed genes = DEG1 + DEG2 - (DEG1 ∩ DEG2). There is an unlabelled overlap (2 genes) between DEG1 and DEG3 due to lack of space. (g) The top 3 GO terms enriched in downregulated GC-primed genes. The enrichment score = $-\log_{10}$(adjusted P-value). The complete results of the functional enrichment test are described in Supplementary Table 4.

Figure 5. Adult bPAC+ DEGs **are enriched in gene sets associated with human neuropsychiatric disorders.** (a) Result of human disorders enrichment test based on the DisGeNET database. The ratio represents overlapping/input genes. Top ranked disorders are schizophrenia (FDR= 1.61e-04, ratio (adult bPAC+ DEGs/disease genes)=170/883), bipolar disorder (FDR= 7.48e-04, ratio=100/477), depressive disorder (FDR= 2.89e-03, ratio=63/289), mental depression (FDR= 2.87e-03, ratio=59/254) and autistic disorder (FDR= 1.61e-04, ratio=65/261). (b) Venn diagram for adult bPAC+ DEGs that are associated with the top five human psychiatric disorders in panel a. Depressive disorder and Mental Depression-associated genes (as shown in a), are combined and referred to as depressive disorders in b and d. (c) STRING protein-protein interaction (PPI) networks of schizophrenia-associated adult bPAC+ DEGs genes in pre- and post-LD conditions indicate LD-sensitive gene expression. The size and color of the node represent comparative fold change, and gene expression; up (orange) or downregulation (blue), respectively. DEGs enriched in KEGG pathways Neuroactive ligand-receptor interaction (FDR = 2.01e-08) are labelled in yellow whilst those enriched in MAPK signaling pathway (FDR=9.74e-08) are labelled in green. (d) The heatmap depicts the $\log_2$FC of GC-altered genes associated with the top five human psychiatric disorders in panel a (Depressive disorder and mental depression are merged). The numbers in the brackets represent the number of adult bPAC+ DEGs. 6, 13, and 120 denote dpf, and LD denotes post-LD at 120 dpf. (e) Subsets of adult bPAC+ DEGs associated with the top five diseases in a show consistent differential expression across the life course (significant at all timepoints, labelled trans-temporal) or only in adulthood (significant only in adulthood, labelled adult-onset). Genes that exhibited expression patterns outside of these conditions were excluded.

Figure 6. Adult bPAC+ DEGs gene expression changes associated with epigenetic modifications. (a) Heatmap represents $\log_2$FC of known epigenetic regulators associated with DNA (dark purple), RNA (yellow), and histone (green) modification or process among adult bPAC+ DEGs. The asteria mark in each cell refers to FDR < 0.05. (b) The number of adult bPAC+ DEGs in the three different categories. (c) Expression trajectories for differentially expressed DNMTs in bPAC+ brains, unpaired t-test with Welch correction. (d) real-time qPCR results of 5 selected genes from panel a labeled with asteria at 6, 13 dpf and 8 mpf. Gray: wild type, Pink: bPAC+, unpaired t-test. dpf: day post fertilization, mpf: month post fertilization. *=$P<0.05$, **=$P<0.01$, ***=$P<0.001$, ****=$P<0.0001$.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6