Male-Biased Cyp17a2 Governs Antiviral Sexual Dimorphism in Fish via STING Stabilization and Viral Protein Degradation

Long-Feng Lu[a,c,1], Bao-jie Cui[a,e,1], Sheng-Chi Shi[a,c,1], Yang-Yang Wang[a,c], Can Zhang[a,c], Xiao Xu[a,e], Meng-Ze Tian[a,c], Zhen-Qi Li[a,c], Na Xu[a,c], Zhuo-Cong Li[a,c], Dan-Dan Chen[a,c], Li Zhou[a,c], Gang Zhai[a,c,2], Zhan Yin[f,a,c,2], Shun Li[a,b,c,d,e,2]

[a]Key Laboratory of Breeding Biotechnology and Sustainable Aquaculture, Institute of Hydrobiology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Wuhan, Hubei 430072, China

[b]Laboratory for Marine Biology and Biotechnology, Qingdao Marine Science and Technology Center

[c]University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China

[d]Key Laboratory of Aquaculture Disease Control, Ministry of Agriculture, Wuhan, China

[e]College of Fisheries and Life Science, Dalian Ocean University, Dalian, China

[f]Key Laboratory of Mariculture, Ministry of Education, Ocean University of China, Qingdao 266003, China

[1]These authors have contributed equally to this work

[2]To whom correspondence may be addressed. Email: bob@ihb.ac.cn, zyin@ihb.ac.cn and zhaigang@ihb.ac.cn

Abstract

Differences in immunity between males and females in living organisms are generally thought to be due to sex hormones and sex chromosomes, and it is often assumed that males have a weaker immune response. Here we report that in fish, males exhibit stronger antiviral immune responses, which are driven by the male-biased gene Cyp17a2 rather than by hormones or sex chromosomes. First, we observed that male zebrafish exhibit enhanced antiviral resistance compared to females, and notably, zebrafish lack sex chromosomes. Through transcriptomic screening, we found that *cyp17a2* was specifically highly expressed in male fish. *Cyp17a2* knockout males were equivalent to wild-type males in terms of sex organs and androgen secretion, but the ability to upregulate IFN as well as antiviral resistance was greatly reduced. Then, Cyp17a2 is identified as a positive IFN regulator which located at endoplasmic reticulum, and specifically interacts with and enhances STING mediated antiviral responses. Mechanistically, Cyp17a2 stabiles STING expression by recruiting the E3 ubiquitin ligase bloodthirsty-related gene family member 32 (btr32), which facilitates K33-linked polyubiquitination. The capacity of IFN induction of Cyp17a2 was abolished when STING is knockdown. Meanwhile, Cyp17a2 also attenuates viral infection directly to strengthen the antiviral capacity as an antiviral protein, Cyp17a2 degrades the spring viremia of carp virus (SVCV) P protein by utilizing USP8 to reduce its K33-linked polyubiquitination. These findings reveal a sex-based regulatory mechanism in teleost antiviral immunity, broadening our understanding of sexual dimorphism in immune responses beyond the conventional roles of sex chromosomes and hormones.

Keywords

Cyp17a2; Sexual Dimorphism; STING; SVCV; Ubiquitination

Introduction

Research has demonstrated that innate immune responses to viruses differ significantly between the sexes. Males exhibit heightened susceptibility to viral pathogens, correlating with their generally weaker innate immune activation compared to females[1]. This immunological dimorphism manifests clinically as elevated infection intensity (quantified by intra-host viral load) and prevalence (population-level infection rates) in males[2]. Notably, sex-specific clinical outcomes are exemplified by severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) infections, where epidemiological data suggest males face twice the risk of intensive care unit (ICU) admission and a 30% higher mortality rate compared to females[3]. Similar trends extend to other viral pathogens including Dengue virus, hantaviruses, and hepatitis B/C viruses, all exhibiting male-biased infection prevalence[4, 5, 6].

Several factors have been identified as contributors to these sex-specific disparities in antiviral immunity, including hormonal variations and sex chromosomes. For instance, androgens such as testosterone exhibit broad immunosuppressive effects, including reduced NK cell cytotoxicity, impaired neutrophil chemotaxis, and attenuated macrophage proinflammatory cytokine production *in vitro*[7]. In addition, the Y chromosome harbors only two annotated miRNAs, while the X chromosome contains numerous immune-relevant miRNAs, and emerging evidence implicates X-escapee miRNAs as key modulators of sex-biased immune responses[8, 9].

It is well known that the interferon (IFN) response is an important host immune response to viral infection, in both mammals and fish[10]. The signaling pathways that activate IFN expression, although slightly different in fish and mammals, are generally conserved in both[11]. The endoplasmic reticulum (ER) protein stimulator of IFN genes (STING) is an important antiviral protein capable of resisting both DNA and RNA viruses by activating TANK binding kinase 1 (TBK1) during the induction of IFN production, which in turn phosphorylates IFN regulatory Factor 3 (IRF3) in the nucleus and activates the signaling of IFN transcription[12, 13]. For instance, STING deficiency has been shown to impair innate immune responses against multiple RNA viruses, such

as dengue virus, West Nile virus, and Japanese encephalitis virus[14, 15, 16]. Notably,

oncogenes of the DNA tumor viruses, including human papillomavirus E7 and

adenovirus E1A, function as potent and specific inhibitors of the cyclic GMP-AMP

synthase (cGAS)-STING signaling pathway[17].

Cyp17a is classified within the cytochrome P450 (CYP450) family. In mammals,

there is only one form, cyp17a1, which possesses both hydroxylase and lyase functions.

Mutations in the human *cyp17a1* gene are associated with congenital adrenal

hyperplasia (CAH)[18]. Comparative genomic analyses reveal that teleost fishes possess

two distinct *cyp17a* isoforms, the evolutionarily conserved *cyp17a1* and a

phylogenetically divergent *cyp17a2* paralog, with the latter representing a teleost-

specific innovation absent in mammalian genomes[19]. Current investigations of

Cyp17a2 in teleost species have predominantly centered on its mechanistic roles

governing sexual development and differentiation, for example, with knockout of

zebrafish *cyp17a2* leads to significant impairment of sperm motility[20]. Although

Cyp17a2 has been characterized in sexual development, its non-canonical physiological

roles have yet to be fully elucidated.

In most vertebrates, the XY sex chromosomes exhibit significant physiological

differences between males and females, as exemplified in humans. However, the sex

determination mechanisms in fish are more complex. For instance, zebrafish lack sex

chromosomes, which confers a natural advantage. This absence allows for the exclusion

of sex chromosome-related differences in the study of immunological disparities

between males and females. Consequently, we selected zebrafish as the model organism

for this investigation. This enabled us to more precisely identify the genes that are

differentially expressed in male and female autosomes, which is crucial for

understanding the immunological differences between the sexes. This study elucidates

the role of the teleost-specific gene *cyp17a2* in antiviral immunity. Furthermore, the

discovery that the male-biased expression of *cyp17a2* confers enhanced resistance to

infection in males provides valuable insight into the complex mechanisms underlying

sexual immune dimorphism.

Results

1. Male fish exhibit enhanced resistance to viral infection compared to female fish

To determine whether sex differences exist in the antiviral response capacity of fish, age-matched female and male zebrafish were intraperitoneally (i.p.) injected with SVCV. Male fish exhibited a significantly higher survival rate than female fish within seven days post-infection (Fig. 1A). Concurrently, females demonstrated a markedly higher incidence of cutaneous hemorrhages relative to males (Fig. 1B). Consistent with the reduced mortality, male fish showed less tissue damage in the liver and spleen following viral infection (Fig. 1C). IF analysis revealed that the SVCV N protein, represented by green fluorescence, was barely detectable in male tissues but was prominently present in female tissues (Fig. 1D). At the mRNA level, viral transcripts were quantified in these tissues, and the abundance of *svcv-n* gene was significantly lower in male tissues (Fig. 1E). At the protein level, SVCV N and G proteins were less frequently detected in male tissues compared to female tissues in 7 samples (Fig. 1F). Additionally, viral titers were significantly lower in the hearts of male fish compared to female fish (Fig. 1G). These findings demonstrate a stronger antiviral response capacity in male fish compared to female fish.

2. Male-biased gene cyp17a2 orchestrates antiviral immunity through RLR pathway

To explore the potential causes of the observed differences in virus resistance between male and female fish, transcriptome sequencing was performed on head-kidney tissues of healthy hermaphroditic adult zebrafish. Differential expression analysis identified 1511 upregulated genes and 1117 downregulated genes (Fig. 2A and Table S2). Among these, *cyp17a2* exhibits significant male-biased upregulation in eight sex-related genes, and it was confirmed by subsequent qPCR (Fig. 2B and S1A). Furthermore, we systematically quantified Cyp17a2 mRNA and protein expression in

multiple tissues of male and female zebrafish, demonstrating a consistent male-biased expression pattern of Cyp17a2 (Fig. 2C and 2D). Thus, Cyp17a2 was selected for further study. We first sought to understand whether it was associated with host antiviral immunity, and the significant upregulation of the Cyp17a2 at the mRNA and protein level in response to viral stimulation suggested its possible involvement in the antiviral process (Fig. S1B and S1C). Following generation of *cyp17a2* knockout zebrafish, previous study revealed that male *cyp17a2*⁻ᐟ⁻ mutants displayed normal development of male-typical secondary sexual characteristics comparable to WT males. However, female *cyp17a2*⁻ᐟ⁻ mutants exhibited significantly underdeveloped genital papillae compared to their WT counterparts. To eliminate potential confounding effects of androgen-mediated pathways on immune parameters, subsequent experiments were conducted exclusively using male specimens from both genotypes. The male *cyp17a2*⁻ᐟ⁻ mutants exhibited a higher mortality rate than WT males after viral infection (Fig. 2E). Significant tissue damage and strong green fluorescence representing the SVCV N protein was observed in the *cyp17a2*⁻ᐟ⁻ tissues, virus titers assay also confirmed that viral proliferation was higher in *cyp17a2*⁻ᐟ⁻ group (Fig. S1D-S1F). Consistent with these observations, the replication of viral genes transcription and protein levels were increased in *cyp17a2*⁻ᐟ⁻ homozygote tissues, these data demonstrated that Cyp17a2 is crucial for host antiviral defense (Fig. 2F and S1G). To further understand their functional mechanisms, a transcriptomic analysis contains total of 3,114 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were identified, there are 1,217 genes upregulated and 1,897 were downregulated in the liver of *cyp17a2* knockout male zebrafish compared to WT males after viral infection (Fig. S1H). Kyoto encyclopedia of genes and genomes (KEGG) pathway analysis revealed RIG-I-like receptors (RLRs), NOD-like receptors (NLRs), and Toll-like receptors (TLRs) signaling pathways were significantly affected (Fig. S1I). Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) showed that RLRs were downregulated in *cyp17a2*⁻ᐟ⁻ group under SVCV infection, combining with numerous IFN-stimulated genes (ISGs) decreases (Fig. S1J and S2). To validate the transcriptome data, *ifnφ1* levels were assessed and identified significantly downregulated in the *cyp17a2*⁻ᐟ⁻ group (Fig. 2G). Collectively, these data suggest that viral proliferation was

175   enhanced and IFN response were reduced in *cyp17a2*$^{-/-}$ fish.

3. Cyp17a2 enhances IFN expression and suppresses viral proliferation

Given the critical role of the IFN response in host defense against viral infections,

we investigated the impact of Cyp17a2 on IFN expression and viral infection *in vitro*.

Overexpression of Cyp17a2 significantly upregulated the IFN promoter and ISRE

activities in response to poly I:C or SVCV stimulation (Fig. 3A and S3A-S3B). An

effective sh-*cyp17a2*#2 was generated and confirmed at both the mRNA and protein

levels, and knockdown of *cyp17a2* inhibited both the IFN promoter and ISRE activity

(Fig. 3B-3E and S3C-S3D). RNA sequencing analysis of the cell line revealed that

SVCV infection activated numerous ISGs in Cyp17a2-overexpressing cells, whereas

these ISGs were significantly suppressed upon *cyp17a2* knockdown (Fig. 3F and Table

S3). The induction or attenuation of IFN and ISGs upon Cyp17a2 overexpression or

knockdown were confirmed by qPCR analysis, respectively (Fig. 3G and S3E). For

antiviral capacity assays, Cyp17a2 from zebrafish and gibel carp both inhibited the

proliferation of host-specific viruses, conversely, *cyp17a2* knockdown significantly

enhanced viral proliferation (Fig. 3H and S3F). Regarding viral mRNA and proteins,

overexpression or knockdown Cyp17a2 also displayed the similar opposite findings

(Fig. 3I-3J and S3G-S3H). IF assays indicated a lower intensity of green signals

representing the viral protein in the Cyp17a2 overexpression group compared to the

control, while a higher green signal was observed in the *cyp17a2* knockdown group

relative to the normal group (Fig. 3K and S3I). These results suggest that Cyp17a2

upregulates IFN expression and enhances antiviral capacity in the host.

4. Cyp17a2 interacts with STING and stabilizes its expression

Given the critical role of the RLR signaling pathway in fish IFN activation, the

relationship between Cyp17a2 and RLR signaling adaptors was investigated. Co-

transfection with Myc-Cyp17a2 and Flag-tagged RLR components (MAVS, TBK1,

STING, IRF3, IRF7) followed by anti-Flag immunoprecipitation identified specific

Cyp17a2-STING interaction via anti-Myc detection (Fig. 4A). Reciprocal Co-IP and

semi-endogenous IP assays confirmed this interaction (Fig. 4B and 4C). Truncated
STING mutants were generated to map binding domains (Fig. 4D). The transmembrane
domain (TM)-deficient STING-ΔTM-HA failed to bind Cyp17a2, indicating TM
domain dependence (Fig. 4E). Cyp17a2-GFP overlapped with ER markers in confocal
microscopy and colocalized with STING but failed to colocalize with the ΔTM mutant
(Fig. 4F-4G and S4A). To identify the effect of Cyp17a2 on STING regulation, the
mRNA level of sting was first analyzed, minimal change was observed in *sting* upon
Cyp17a2 overexpression (Fig. 4H). Protein-level studies demonstrated Cyp17a2
remarkably enhanced STING abundance and confirmed by confocal microscopy (Fig.
4I and S4B). Endogenous STING was similarly stabilized dependent on Cyp17a2
under untreated or stimulated conditions (Fig. 4J and S4C). Cycloheximide (CHX)
chase assay showed prolonged exogenous and endogenous STING half-life with
Cyp17a2 co-expression, and it was also confirmed by knockdown experiments (Fig.
4K and S4D-S4E). These data demonstrate that Cyp17a2 binds STING via its TM and
enhances STING posttranslational stability.

5. Cyp17a2 enhances STING-mediated IFN expression and antiviral responses

Considering that Cyp17a2 targets STING, a positive regulator of IFN production,
we investigated whether Cyp17a2 influences the IFN expression induced by STING.
The IFNφ1pro activity induced by STING overexpression was significantly
enhanced by Cyp17a2, with similar amplification observed for ISRE promoter
activation (Fig. 5A and S5A). Conversely, *cyp17a2* knockdown was shown to impair
STING-mediated IFNφ1pro and ISRE activation (Fig. 5B and S5B). Corresponding
increases in *ifn* and *vig1* transcripts were detected in Cyp17a2 overexpressing cells,
while Cyp17a2 knockdown suppressed these responses (Fig. 5C-5D and S5C-S5D).
The subsequent investigation focused on the potential modulatory effect of Cyp17a2
on the STING-induced cellular antiviral response. STING overexpression reduced
cytopathogenic effect (CPE), with viral titers decreased 336-fold compared to the
control group. This protection was augmented by Cyp17a2 co-expression, achieving an
additional 20-fold reduction (Fig. 5E and S5E). IB and IF analysis confirmed
that Cyp17a2 potentiated STING-mediated suppression of viral protein expression (Fig.

5F and S5F). SVCV gene transcripts were suppressed by STING, with enhanced inhibition upon Cyp17a2 co-expression (Fig. 5G). STING dependency was validated using shRNA knockdown (Fig. S5G). The antiviral capacity enhanced by Cyp17a2 was markedly attenuated in cells with *sting* knockdown, as evidenced by restored viral titers, gene and protein expression (Fig. 5H-5J and S5H-S5I). These results demonstrate that Cyp17a2 potentiates STING activity to enhance IFN production and antiviral responses.

6. Cyp17a2 stabilizes STING through btr32-mediated K33-linked polyubiquitination

To elucidate the molecular mechanism by which Cyp17a2 augments STING stabilization, proteasomal and lysosomal degradation were pharmacologically inhibited using MG132 and Chloroquine (CQ), respectively. Accelerated STING degradation caused by *cyp17a2* knockdown was rescued by MG132 but not CQ, suggesting knockdown of *cyp17a2* promoted STING degradation via the proteasome pathway (Fig. 6A). Then, enhanced polyubiquitination of STING was detected upon Cyp17a2 co-expression (Fig. 6B). Ubiquitin linkage analysis revealed selective enhancement of K33-linked chains, with *cyp17a2* knockdown shown to reduce both WT and K33-specific ubiquitination (Fig. 6C and S6A). Subsequently, candidate E3 ligases were screened, revealing btr32 and SOCS3a as STING interactors (Fig. 6D). btr32 was specifically identified as a Cyp17a2 binding partner through reciprocal Co-IP (Fig. 6E-6G). Then the subcellular localization of btr32 was monitored, btr32-GFP signal overlapped with the red signals of the ER marker, indicating that btr32 colocalizes with the ER (Fig. 6H). Since the results identify that both STING and Cyp17a2 are localized to the ER, btr32 was examined for cellular localization with both STING and Cyp17a2, and the anticipated colocalization pattern was confirmed (Fig. 6I and 6J). Cyp17a2 was found to strengthen btr32-STING interaction (Fig. 6K and S6B). Functional assays demonstrated that btr32 augmented of Cyp17a2-mediated IFNφ1pro activity and *vig1* mRNA induction (Fig. 6L and 6M). btr32 potentiated the Cyp17a2-dependent stabilization of STING in both endogenous and exogenous systems (Fig. 6N). Two

shRNAs target btr32 were designed and generated, and after validating the knockdown

efficiencies for both endogenous and exogenous targets, sh-*btr32*#2 was selected for

the subsequent assay (Fig. S6C-S6D). The knockdown of btr32 impaired Cyp17a2-

enhanced STING activity, as shown by reduced IFNφ1pro response and *vig1* transcripts

(Fig. S6E and S6F). Additionally, *btr32* knockdown abolished Cyp17a2-mediated

STING upregulation in endogenous and overexpression system (Fig. S6G). These

findings establish that Cyp17a2 recruits btr32 to catalyze K33-linked

polyubiquitination, thereby stabilizing STING protein.

7. STING K203 is essential for Cyp17a2-mediated ubiquitination

The mechanism between btr32 and Cyp17a2 in STING stabilization was further

characterized. btr32 overexpression was shown to intensify Cyp17a2-driven STING

ubiquitination, while *btr32* knockdown attenuated this effect (Fig. 7A and S7A).

Specific enhancement of K33-linked ubiquitination by btr32 was demonstrated, with

reciprocal reduction upon btr32 abrogation (Fig. 7B and S7B). Mass spectrometry

analysis identified K203 and K221 as candidate ubiquitination sites (Fig. 7C). Among

generated lysine-to-arginine mutants (K203R, K221R), STING stabilization by

Cyp17a2 was abolished specifically in K203R mutant (Fig. 7D). Corresponding loss of

IFN induction and ubiquitination capacity were observed in K203R mutant (Fig. 7E-

7G). K33-linked ubiquitination was specifically impaired in K203R but not K221R

variants (Fig. S7C). btr32-mediated enhancement of WT and K33-specific

ubiquitination was eliminated in K203R mutant (Fig. 7H and S7D). btr32 domain

analysis was performed using RING/BBOX/SPRY deletion mutants (Fig. 7I). The

SPRY domain was required for btr32-STING-Cyp17a2 interactions (Fig. 7J-7L). Both

RING and SPRY domains were essential for btr32-driven ubiquitination (Fig. 7M and

S7E). These data establish K203 as the critical ubiquitination site in STING and define

RING/SPRY domains of btr32 as necessary for Cyp17a2-mediated stabilization.

8. Cyp17a2 Degrades SVCV P Protein Through Modulation of K33-Linked
Polyubiquitination

To determine whether Cyp17a2 directly engage in antiviral activity beyond
regulating host immune responses, Co-IP assays were performed. Transient transfection
experiments revealed specific interaction between Cyp17a2 and SVCV P protein,
which was confirmed reciprocally (Fig. 8A and 8B). This interaction was further
observed in SVCV-infected cells using P protein-specific antibody (Fig. 8C). In our
antiviral trials, overexpression of Cyp17a2 led to a reduction in P protein levels during
SVCV infection. Consequently, the investigation focused on whether Cyp17a2 could
directly target the SVCV P protein for degradation. As anticipated, the co-expression of
Cyp17a2 resulted in a decrease in the level of SVCV P protein Overexpression of
Cyp17a2 reduced P protein levels during SVCV infection (Fig. 8D). Fluorescence
microscopy confirmed diminished red fluorescent signals corresponding to SVCV P
protein in Cyp17a2-expressing cells (Fig. 8E). Confocal microscopy analysis of SVCV
P protein subcellular distribution revealed that the fluorescent signals from P-mCherry
fusion constructs (red) showed partial co-localization with Cyp17a2 (green) in
cytoplasmic compartments (Fig. 8F). To investigate degradation mechanisms,
inhibitors targeting distinct pathways were tested. Cyp17a2-mediated P protein
degradation was blocked by the proteasome inhibitor MG132, but not by autophagy
inhibitors (3-MA, Baf-A1, CQ) (Fig. 8G). Ubiquitination assays demonstrated that
Cyp17a2 significantly reduced P protein polyubiquitination (Fig. 8H). Mutation
analysis using ubiquitin variants revealed that Cyp17a2 selectively decreased K33-
linked polyubiquitination, as K33R mutants exhibited no significant changes, while
K33-specific ubiquitination was markedly reduced (Fig. 8I and 8J). In contrast,
knockdown of *cyp17a2* exhibited minimal impact on both WT-Ub and K33-linked
polyubiquitination levels of the P protein (Fig. 8K). These findings demonstrate that
Cyp17a2 promotes proteasomal degradation of the SVCV P protein by selectively
attenuating K33-linked polyubiquitination, defining its role as an antiviral protein.
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9. The K12 site of P protein is essential for Cyp17a2-mediated degradation
To investigate the specific molecular mechanism underlying ubiquitination-
mediated degradation of the P protein, mass spectrometry analysis revealed ubiquitin-
specific protease 7 (USP7) and USP8 as candidate deubiquitinating enzymes (Fig. 9A).
Both USP7 and USP8 were found to associate with the P protein, however, only USP8
interacted with Cyp17a2. Therefore, USP8 became the focus of subsequent study (Fig.

9B and 9C). The validity of these interactions was further confirmed through reciprocal

experiments (Fig. S8A). Confocal microscopy analysis of USP8 subcellular

localization demonstrated overlapping cytoplasmic co-localization between USP8-GFP

(green fluorescence) and mCherry-tagged Cyp17a2 or the P protein (red fluorescence)

(Fig. 9D and S8B). Cyp17a2 overexpression enhanced USP8 and P protein binding,

whereas *cyp17a2* knockdown disrupted this interaction (Fig. 9E and S8C). USP8

overexpression amplified Cyp17a2-mediated P protein reduction (Fig. 9F). Knockdown

of USP8 abolished Cyp17a2-dependent P protein degradation (Fig. 9G and S8D). USP8

facilitated Cyp17a2-induced deubiquitination of P protein, with knockdown reversing

this effect (Fig. 9H and S8E). This result was also observed in the K33-linked

ubiquitination assay (Fig. 9I and S8F). Mass spectrometry identified K12 as a critical

lysine modification site (Fig. 9J). The K12R mutant resisted Cyp17a2-mediated

degradation and showed impaired deubiquitination in WT ubiquitin and K33-linked

assays (Fig. 9K-9L and S8G). USP8 failed to enhance Cyp17a2-mediated

deubiquitination in K12R mutants (Fig. 9M and S8H). Truncation analysis

demonstrated that USP8 residues 1-301 aa or 734-1067 aa were essential for

interactions with P protein and Cyp17a2 (Fig. 9N and 9O). USP8 mutants only residues

1-301 aa or 302-733 aa lost the ability to support Cyp17a2-mediated P protein

deubiquitination (Fig. 9P and S8I). These data establish that Cyp17a2 requires USP8

and the P protein K12 site to mediate deubiquitination-dependent degradation, with

USP8 residues 734-1067 aa being indispensable for this process.

Discussion

The influence of biological sex on antiviral immunity shows both evolutionary

parallels and divergences across species. While mammals typically exhibit stronger

female immunity through sex chromosome and hormonal mechanisms, our study

reveals an intriguing reversal in zebrafish, where males show enhanced antiviral

responses via an autosomal gene-mediated pathway. This supplements conventional

views and highlights the evolutionary plasticity of teleost immune systems.

Teleost display remarkable diversity in sex determination mechanisms, including

XX/XY, ZZ/ZW, and environmental systems[21, 22, 23]. This diversity provides a unique

framework for studying sexual dimorphism independent of sex chromosomes. Using

zebrafish, which lack conserved sex chromosomes, allows us to exclude the

confounding effects of divergent sex-chromosome gene dosage and focus on the role

of autosomal genes and their differential regulation in shaping sex-biased immunity.

Our study leverages this unique context to demonstrate that enhanced antiviral

immunity in males is driven not by canonical sex chromosomes or hormones, but by

the male-biased expression of the autosomal gene *cyp17a2*.

Mechanistically, Cyp17a2 operates through dual antiviral pathways, it stabilizes

STING via btr32-mediated K33-linked ubiquitination, enhancing IFN production, and

recruits USP8 to remove K33-linked chains from viral P protein, promoting its

degradation (Fig. 10). This establishes Cyp17a2 as a central regulator of sex-specific

antiviral immunity independent of sex chromosome pathways. Particularly noteworthy

is the demonstration that sexual dimorphism in immunity can arise through differential

regulation of autosomal genes rather than direct sex chromosome effects - a mechanism

distinct from mammalian X-linked immune gene dosage effects or estrogen-mediated

immunomodulation.

A key question emerging from our findings is whether the Cyp17a2-mediated

antiviral mechanism is conserved across the teleost lineage or represents an adaptation

specific to cyprinids such as zebrafish. The teleost-specific nature of *cyp17a2* suggests

functions shaped by aquatic environmental challenges. While further studies in diverse

teleost families are needed, the presence of *cyp17a2* orthologs across fish genomes

indicates potential conservation. It is proposed that the recruitment of a core component

of the steroidogenic enzyme machinery into the innate immune network may represent

a significant evolutionary adaptation in teleost. Aquatic environments have been shown

to have a persistently high pathogen load. The co-option of a gene such as *cyp17a2*,

which is already subject to sex-biased regulatory control, offers an efficient and rapidly

deployable strategy for establishing sexually dimorphic immunity, obviating the

necessity for de novo evolution of entirely new pathways.

Sexual dimorphism in viral susceptibility represents a conserved yet

mechanistically complex phenomenon across vertebrates[24]. While males generally

exhibit increased vulnerability to numerous viral pathogens such as dengue virus and

influenza A virus, notable exceptions exist where females demonstrate higher

susceptibility, including infections by herpes simplex virus and measles virus[2]. These

divergent patterns underscore a dual dependency of sex-biased infection outcomes on

both host immunological determinants and viral evolutionary strategies[1]. For instance,

the male predominance observed in severe dengue virus cases may be explained by

both gender-specific occupational exposure risks and sexual dimorphism in Ab-

dependent enhancement mechanisms, potentially linked to androgen-mediated

modulation of antiviral immune responses[25]. Whereas female susceptibility to herpes

simplex virus could be related to ovarian sex hormones, including estradiol and

progesterone[26]. Critically, sex differences in antiviral immunity are not static but evolve

across the lifespan and are tightly linked to age and reproductive status[27]. For example,

sex disparities in hantavirus infection outcomes emerge post-puberty, coinciding with

hormonal maturation[28]. Similarly, during the 2009 H1N1 pandemic in Japan, morbidity

rates exhibited a triphasic sex bias: males<20 and >80 years old showed higher

susceptibility than females, whereas females of reproductive age (20-49 years) faced

elevated risks[29]. This pattern aligns with the hypothesis that estrogen peaks during

reproductive years enhance antiviral defenses in females, while age-related declines in

gonadal hormones may diminish this protective effect in postmenopausal populations[30].

Our study extends these principles to teleost species, revealing novel sex-specific

resistance patterns in fish-virus interactions. Male zebrafish demonstrated heightened

resistance to SVCV, while male crucian carp exhibited reduced susceptibility to CyHV-

2[31]. These findings suggest that male-biased resistance may represent an evolutionarily

conserved strategy in certain fish-virus system. This may reflect evolutionary

adaptations to unique aquatic pressures. We propose several non-mutually exclusive

hypotheses, which are rooted in the unique life histories and ecological pressures faced

by aquatic vertebrates[32]. Firstly, the aquatic environment acts as a potent reservoir for

pathogens, constantly exposing fish to diverse microbial challenges. This high pathogen

pressure may select for specialized and potent immune strategies. If males and females

encounter different levels or types of parasites or infections due to their behavior or

morphology, this could lead to the evolution of sex-specific immune adaptations.

Secondly, this phenomenon can be viewed through the lens of life-history trade-offs.

Investment in immunity is costly in terms of energy and must be balanced against other

demands, such as reproduction. In many teleost species, male reproductive success

depends heavily on courtship displays, nest guarding and aggressive competition with

other males, all of which are high-energy activities that can compromise immune

function. Finally, the prevalence of external fertilization in teleost is a crucial factor.

Unlike mammals, where the embryo develops internally and is protected by the

maternal immune system, fish embryos are exposed to the pathogen-rich aquatic

environment from the moment of fertilization. Therefore, a male's contribution to

offspring survival includes not only his genetic material, but also the intrinsic pathogen

resistance of his sperm and the antimicrobial properties of the seminal fluid or nest site.

STING was originally identified as a critical adaptor molecule mediating antiviral

signaling cascades[33, 34]. Subsequential studies have established its indispensable role in

orchestrating innate immune responses against both DNA and RNA viral pathogens.

Current mechanistic understanding reveals that upon detection of cytoplasmic

pathogen-derived DNA, STING operates through two distinct molecular pathways:

serving as a downstream effector of essential single-stranded/double-stranded DNA

sensors or functioning as a direct receptor for microbial cyclic dinucleotides (CDNs).

Following activation, this TM protein recruits and activates TBK1, which subsequently

phosphorylates IRF3 to facilitate its nuclear translocation and initiate IFN production.

Notably, the protein demonstrates functional pleiotropy in RNA viral infections through

selective interaction with RIG-I rather than melanoma differentiation-associated

protein 5 (MDA5), thereby activating parallel IRF3-dependent antiviral signaling

pathways. Numerous studies indicate remarkable conservation of STING-mediated

IFN induction mechanisms across teleost species[35, 36, 37]. Mechanism studies further

reveal that fish STING maintains dual antiviral functionality against both nucleic acid

virus types, while simultaneously being subjected to targeted manipulation by various

viral pathogens as an immune evasion strategy.

Beyond its steroidogenic functions, Cyp17a2 represents a novel scaffold protein

in ubiquitination pathways. Despite the absence of clearly identifiable domains that are

directly implicated in ubiquitination (e.g., RING, HECT, or U-box domains), it is

proposed that the subcellular localization and protein-interaction capability of Cyp17a2

are pivotal to its novel function. As an ER-resident protein, Cyp17a2 is strategically co-

localized with central innate immune sensors such as STING. This shared localization

facilitates specific protein-protein interactions, enabling Cyp17a2 to serve as an

essential platform that recruits the E3 ubiquitin ligase btr32 to stabilize STING via K33-

linked ubiquitination. In contrast, Cyp17a2 engages the deubiquitinate USP8 to remove K33-linked chains from the viral P protein, thereby targeting it for degradation. This bifunctional and scaffolding role, which orchestrates both the addition and removal of specific ubiquitin chains to fine-tune antiviral responses, represents a fascinating evolutionary adaptation in teleost.

The CYP450 enzyme superfamily exhibits multifaceted roles across species, encompassing physiological processes and immune regulation. In human immune cells, pharmacological inhibition of CYP1A has been demonstrated to upregulate the expression of stem cell factor receptor and interleukin 22, directly linking CYP1-dependent metabolism of environmental small molecules to immune modulation[38]. Evolutionary conservation of this regulatory mechanism is evident in teleost, where grass carp (*Ctenopharyngodon idella*) CYP1A demonstrates dynamic expression during grass carp reovirus (GCRV) infection, implicating its role in antiviral immunity[39]. Our study further identifies Cyp17a2 as a sexually dimorphic regulator of IFN signaling in fish. This finding expands the recognized roles of the CYP450 superfamily in immune regulation, revealing a novel mechanism underlying sex-specific immunity in lower vertebrates.

In conclusion, zebrafish model with its lack of conserved sex chromosomes and environmental sex determination plasticity, provides unique insights into the evolutionary continuum of sexual dimorphism. Our results suggest that the relationship between sexual differentiation and immune competence may be more fluid in teleost than in mammals, potentially reflecting adaptive responses to aquatic pathogens and variable mating systems. Future investigations should explore whether this autosomal-centered mechanism represents a teleost specific adaptation or an ancestral feature subsequently modified in terrestrial vertebrates, while also examining potential interactions between environmental sex determinants and immune gene regulation.

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Declaration of interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

STAR Methods

Ethics statement

The experiments involved in this study were conducted in compliance with ethical regulations. The fish experiments were carried out under the guidance of the European Union Guidelines for the Handling of Laboratory Animals (2010/63/EU) and approved by the Ethics Committee for Animal Experiments of the Institute of Hydrobiology, Chinese Academy of Sciences (CAS) (No. 2024-069).

Fish, cells, and viruses

Mature zebrafish individuals 2.5 months after hatching (0.4 ± 0.1 g) were selected in this study. Wild-type (WT) zebrafish (AB strain; *Danio rerio*) were procured from the China Zebrafish Resource Center (CZRC), while *cyp17a2* mutant lines were generously provided by Dr. Zhan Yin's laboratory at the Institute of Hydrobiology, Chinese Academy of Sciences. All specimens were bred using standardized procedures. In accordance with the ethical requirements and national animal welfare guidelines, all experimental fish were required to undergo a two-week acclimatization period in the laboratory and have their health assessed prior to the commencement of the study. Only fish that appeared healthy and were mobile were selected for scientific investigation.

ZF4 cells (American Type Culture Collection, ATCC) were cultured in Ham's F-12

medium (Invitrogen) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) at 28˚C and 5%

CO_2. EPC cells were obtained from the Chinese Culture Collection Centre for Type

Cultures (CCTCC), Gibel carp brain (GiCB) cells were provided by Ling-Bing Zeng

(Yangtze River Fisheries Research Institute, Chinese Academy of Fishery Sciences),

these cells were maintained at 28°C in 5% CO_2 in medium 199 (Invitrogen)

supplemented with 10% FBS. Spring viremia of carp virus (SVCV) was propagated in

EPC cells until a CPE was observed, and then cell culture fluid containing SVCV was

harvested and centrifuged at 4×10^3 g for 20 min to remove the cell debris, and the

supernatant was stored at -80°C until used. Cyprinid herpesvirus 2 (CyHV-2, obtained

from Yancheng city, Jiangsu province, China) was provided by Prof. Liqun Lu

(Shanghai Ocean University). CyHV-2 was propagated in GICB cells and harvested in

a similar way to SVCV.

Plasmid construction and reagents

The sequences of zebrafish and gibel carp (*Carassius gibelio*) Cyp17a2 (GenBank

accession number: NM_001105670.1 and XM_026199804.1) were obtained from the

National Centre for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) website. Cyp17a2 was

amplified by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using cDNA from adult zebrafish or

gibel carp tissues as a template and cloned into the expression vector pCMV-HA or

pCMV-Myc (Clontech) vectors. Zebrafish MAVS (NM_001080584.2), TBK1

(NM_001044748.2), STING (NM_001278837.1) and the truncated mutants of STING,

IRF3 (NM_001143904.1), IRF7 (BC058298.1), btr32 (XM_021470074.1) and the

truncated mutants of btr32, TRAIP (NM_205607.1), SOCS3a (NM_199950.1), USP7

(XM_021473871.1), USP8 (XM_009293353.4), and N, P, and G protein (DQ097384.2)

of SVCV were cloned into pCMV-Myc and pCMV-Tag2C vectors. The shRNA of

Pimephales promelas Cyp17a2 (XM_039679078.1), STING (HE856620.1), and USP8

(XM_039680290.1) were designed by BLOCK-iT RNAi Designer and cloned into the

pLKO.1-TRC Cloning vector. For subcellular localization experiments, Cyp17a2 was

constructed onto pEGFP-N3 (Clontech), while STING and P protein were constructed

onto pCS2-mCherry (Clontech). The plasmids containing zebrafish IFNφ1pro-Luc and

ISRE-Luc in the pGL3-Basic luciferase reporter vector (Promega) were constructed as

described previously. The *Renilla* luciferase internal control vector (pRL-TK) was

purchased from Promega. The ubiquitin mutant expression plasmids Lys-33/63 (all

lysine residues were mutated except Lys-33 or Lys-63) and Lys-33R/63R (only Lys-33

or Lys-63 mutated) were ligated into the pCMV-HA vectors named Ub-K33O/K63O-

HA and Ub-K33R/K63R. All constructs were confirmed by DNA sequencing.

Polyinosinic-polycytidylic acid (poly I:C) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich used at

a final concentration of 1 µg/µl. MG132 (Cat. No. M7449), 3-Methyladenine (3-MA)

(Cat. No. M9281), CQ (Cat. No. C6628) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich.

Bafilomycin A1 (Baf-A1) (Cat. No. S1413) and CHX (NSC-185) were obtained from

Selleck.

Transcriptomic analysis

Total RNA was extracted using the TRIzol method and evaluated for RNA purity

and quantification using a NanoDrop 2000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific,

Waltham, U.S.A.) and RNA integrity was assessed using an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer

(Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, U.S.A.). Transcriptome sequencing and data

analysis were conducted by OE Biotech (Shanghai, China). The raw sequencing data

was submitted to the NCBI (GEO accession number: GSE286486).

Transient transfection and virus infection

EPC cells were transfected in 6-well and 24-well plates using transfection reagents

from FishTrans (MeiSenTe Biotechnology) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

Antiviral assays were conducted in 24-well plates by transfecting EPC cells with the

plasmids shown in the figure. At 24 h post-transfection, cells were infected with SVCV

at a multiplicity of infection (MOI = 0.001). After 24 h, supernatant aliquots were

harvested for detection of virus titers, the cell monolayers were fixed by 4%

paraformaldehyde (PFA) and stained with 1% crystal violet for visualizing CPE. For

virus titration, 200 µl of culture medium were collected at 48 h post-infection and used

for detection of virus titers according to the method of Reed and Muench. The

supernatants were subjected to 3-fold or 10-fold serial dilutions and then added (100 µl)

onto a monolayer of EPC cells cultured in a 96-well plate. After 48 or 72 h, the medium

was removed and the cells were washed with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), fixed by 4% PFA, and stained with 1% crystal violet. The virus titer was expressed as 50% tissue culture infective dose ($TCID_{50}$/ml). For viral infection, fish were anesthetized with methanesulfonate (MS-222) and intraperitoneally (i.p.) injected with 5 μl of M199 containing SVCV (5×10^8 $TCID_{50}$/ml). The i.p. injection of PBS was used as mock infection. Then the fish were migrated into the aquarium containing new aquatic water.

Luciferase activity assay

EPC cells were cultured overnight in 24-well plates and subsequently co-transfected with the expression plasmid and luciferase reporter plasmid. The cells were infected with SVCV or transfected with poly I:C for 24 h prior to harvest. At 24 h post-stimulation, cells were washed with PBS and lysed for measuring luciferase activity by the Dual-Luciferase Reporter Assay System (Promega) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Firefly luciferase activity was normalized based on the *Renilla* luciferase activity.

RNA extraction, reverse transcription, and quantitative PCR (qPCR)

The RNA was extracted using TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen), and first-strand cDNA was synthesized with a PrimeScript RT kit with gDNA Eraser (Takara). qPCR was performed on the CFX96 Real-Time System (Bio-Rad) using SYBR green PCR Master Mix (Yeasen). The PCR conditions were as follows: 95°C for 5 min and then 40 cycles of 95°C for 20 s, 60°C for 20 s, and 72°C for 20 s. The primers utilized for the qPCRs are presented in Table S1, and the *β-actin* gene was utilized as the internal control. The relative fold changes were calculated by comparison to the corresponding controls using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method (where CT was the threshold cycle).

Co-immunoprecipitation (Co-IP) assay

EPC cells were cultured in 10-cm^2 dishes overnight and subsequently transfected with 10 μg plasmid as illustrated. At 24 h post-transfection, the medium was removed and cells were washed with PBS. Then the cells were lysed in 1 ml radioimmunoprecipitation (RIPA) lysis buffer [1% NP-40, 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM NaF, 1 mM sodium orthovanadate (Na_3VO_4), 1 mM phenyl-methylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF), 0.25% sodium deoxycholate] containing

protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma-Aldrich) at 4°C for 1 h on a rocker platform. The cellular debris was removed by centrifugation at 12,000 × g for 15 min at 4°C. The supernatant was transferred to a fresh tube and incubated with 20 μl anti-Flag/HA/Myc affinity gel (Sigma-Aldrich) overnight at 4°C with constant rotating incubation. These samples were further analyzed by immunoblotting (IB). Immunoprecipitated proteins were collected by centrifugation at 5000 × g for 1 min at 4°C, washed three times with lysis buffer and resuspended in 50 μl 2 × SDS sample buffer. The immunoprecipitates and whole cell lysates (WCLs) were analyzed by IB with the indicated antibodies (Abs).

***In vivo* ubiquitination assay**

The transfected EPC cells were washed twice with 10 mL ice-cold PBS and subsequently digested with 1 mL 0.25% trypsin-EDTA (1×) (Invitrogen) for 2-3 min until the cells were dislodged. 100 μL FBS was added to neutralize the trypsin and the cells were resuspended into 1.5 mL centrifuge tube, centrifuged at 2000 × g for 5 min. The supernatant was discarded and the cell precipitations were resuspended using 1 mL PBS and centrifuged at 2000 × g for 5 min. The collected cell precipitations were lysed using 100 μL PBS containing 1% SDS and denatured by heating for 10 min. The supernatants were diluted with lysis buffer until the concentration of SDS was reduced to 0.1%. The diluted supernatants were incubated with 20 μL anti-Myc affinity gel overnight at 4°C with constant agitation. Subsequently, these samples were subjected to further analysis by IB. The immunoprecipitated proteins were collected by centrifugation at 5000 × g for 1 min at 4°C, washed for three times with lysis buffer and resuspended in 100 μL 1× SDS sample buffer.

Immunoblot analysis

Immunoprecipitates or WCLs were analyzed as described previously. Abs were diluted as follows: anti-*β-actin* (ABclonal, AC026) at 1:10000, anti-Flag (Sigma-Aldrich, F1804) at 1:3000, anti-HA (Covance, MMS-101R) at 1:3000, anti-Myc (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, sc-40) at 1:3000, anti- btr32 (ABclonal, A13887) at 1:1000, anti-USP8 (proteintech, 27791-1-AP) at 1:1000, and HRP-conjugated anti-mouse/rabbit IgG (Thermo Scientific, 31430/31460) at 1:5000, anti-N/P/G/STING/ (prepared and purified in our lab) at 1:2000.

Immunofluorescence (IF)

EPC cells were plated onto glass coverslips in 6-well plates and infected with SVCV (MOI = 1) 24 h. The cells were then washed with PBS and fixed in 4% PFA at room temperature for 1 h and permeabilized with 0.2% Triton X-100 in ice-cold PBS for 15 min. The samples were incubated for 1 h at room temperature in PBS containing 2% bovine serum albumin (BSA, Sigma-Aldrich). After additional PBS washing, the samples were incubated with anti-N Ab in PBS containing 2% BSA for 2-4 h at room temperature. After three times washed by PBS, the samples were incubated with secondary Ab (Goat anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L) Highly Cross-Adsorbed Secondary Antibody, Alexa Fluor™ Plus 488) (Thermo Scientific, A32731, 1:5000) in PBS containing 2% BSA for 1 h at room temperature. After additional PBS washing, the cells were finally stained with 1 μg/ml 4′, 6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI, Beyotime Institute of Biotechnology, Shanghai, China) for 10 min in the dark at room temperature. Finally, the coverslips were washed and observed with a confocal microscope under a 10× immersion objective (SP8; Leica).

Fluorescent microscopy

EPC cells were plated onto coverslips in 6-well plates and transfected with the plasmids indicated for 24 h. Thereafter, the cells were washed twice with PBS and fixed with 4% PFA for 1 h. After being washed three times with PBS, the cells were stained with 1 μg/ml DAPI for 15 min in the dark at room temperature. Subsequently, the coverslips were washed and observed with a confocal microscope under a 63× oil immersion objective (SP8; Leica).

Histopathology

Liver and spleen tissues from three individuals of control or virus-infected fish at 2 days post infection (dpi) were dissected, and fixed in Bouin's Fixative overnight. Subsequently, the samples were dehydrated in ascending grades of alcohol and embedded into paraffin. Sections at 5 μm thickness were taken and stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E). Histological changes were examined by optical microscopy at ×40 magnification and were analyzed by the Aperio ImageScope software.

Statistics analysis

For fish survival analysis, Kaplan-Meier survival curves were generated and subsequently subjected to a log-rank test. For the bar graph, one representative experiment of at least three independent experiments is shown, and each was done in triplicate. For the dot plot graph, each dot point represents one independent biological replicate. Unpaired Student's t test was used for statistical analysis. Data are presented as mean ± standard error of the mean (SEM). A p value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

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Figure legends

Figure 1. Male fish show stronger viral resistance than females.

(A) Survival (Kaplan-Meier Curve) of male and female zebrafish (n = 15 per group) at

various days after i.p. injected with SVCV (5×10^8 TCID$_{50}$/ml, 5 μL/individual). (B)

Sex-specific morphological alterations in zebrafish given i.p. injection of SVCV for 48

h (n = 3 per group). (C) Microscopy of H&E-stained liver and spleen sections from

male and female zebrafish treated with SVCV for 48 h. (D) IF analysis of SVCV-N

protein in liver and spleen of male and female zebrafish treated with SVCV for 48 h.

(E) qPCR analysis of *svcv-n* mRNA in the liver and spleen of male and female zebrafish

(n = 26 per group) given i.p. injection of SVCV for 48 h. (F) IB analysis of SVCV

proteins in the liver and spleen sections of male and female zebrafish (n = 7 per group)

treated with SVCV for 48 h. (G) The viral titer of heart in male and female zebrafish (n

= 40 per group) treated with SVCV for 48 h.

Figure 2. Male-biased cyp17a2 regulates RLR-mediated antiviral immunity.

(A) The differently expressed gene number of mRNA variations presented as a volcano

plot in head-kidney of male and female zebrafish. (B) Heatmap view of mRNA

variations of eight sex-regulated genes in the head-kidney of male and female zebrafish.

Values are represented as $\log_2^{(FPKM+1)}$. (C) Heatmap view of *cyp17a2* mRNA in the brain,

heart, head-kidney, gill, liver, spleen, body-kidney, gonad, gut, muscle, and skin of male

and female zebrafish (n = 5 per group). Expression values [$\log_2^{(fold\ change)}$] were

transformed to Z-scores across rows for each gene to highlight patterns of relative

expression. (D) IB analysis of Cyp17a2 in the heart, head-kidney, gill, liver, spleen,

body-kidney, gonad, and skin of male and female zebrafish (n = 5 per group). (E)

Survival (Kaplan-Meier Curve) of *cyp17a2*$^{+/+}$ and *cyp17a2*$^{-/-}$ male zebrafish (n = 16 per

group) at various days after i.p. injected with SVCV (5×10^8 TCID50/ml, 5

μl/individual). (F) qPCR analysis of *svcv-n* mRNA in the liver and spleen of *cyp17a2*$^{+/+}$

and *cyp17a2*$^{-/-}$ male zebrafish (n = 20 per group) given i.p. injection of SVCV for 48 h.

(G) qPCR analysis of *ifnφ1* mRNA in the liver and spleen of *cyp17a2*$^{+/+}$ and *cyp17a2*$^{-/-}$

male zebrafish (n = 20 per group) given i.p. injection of SVCV for 48 h.

Figure 3. Cyp17a2 upregulates IFN expression and inhibits viral replication.

(A and E) Luciferase activity of IFNφ1pro in EPC cells transfected with indicated

plasmids for 24 h, and then untreated or transfected with poly I:C (0.5 μg) or infected

with SVCV (MOI = 1) for 24 h before luciferase assays. (B) qPCR analysis of *cyp17a2*

in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h, and then untreated or

transfected with poly I:C (2 μg) or infected with SVCV (MOI = 1) for 24 h. (C and D)

IB analysis of proteins in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. (F)

Heatmap view of mRNA variations of SVCV-activated ISG sets in the Cyp17a2-

overexpressing cells or *cyp17a2* knockdown cells and infected with SVCV for 24 h.

Expression values are $\log_2^{(FPKM+1)}$ transformed and presented as row Z-scores. (G)

qPCR analysis of *ifn* in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h, and then

untreated or infected with SVCV (MOI = 1) for 24 h. (H) Plaque assay of virus titers in

EPC cells or GICB cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h, followed by

SVCV or CyHV-2 challenge for 24 h or 48 h. (I and J) qPCR and IB analysis of SVCV

genes in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h, followed by SVCV

challenge for 24 h. (K) IF analysis of SVCV proteins in EPC cells transfected with

indicated plasmids for 24 h, followed by SVCV challenge for 24 h.

Figure 4. Cyp17a2 physically interacts with STING and stabilizes its expression.

(A-C and E) IB analysis of WCLs and proteins immunoprecipitated with anti- Flag or

HA Ab-conjugated agarose beads from EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids

for 24 h. (D) Schematic representation of full-length STING and its mutants. (F and G)

Confocal microscopy of Cyp17a2 and ER or STING and its mutants in EPC cells

transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. The coefficient of colocalization was

determined by qualitative analysis of the fluorescence intensity of the selected area in

Merge. (H) qPCR analysis of *sting* in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for

24 h, followed by untreated or infected with SVCV (MOI = 1) for 24 h. (I) IB analysis

of proteins in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. (J) IB analysis of

proteins in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h, followed by

untreated or infected with SVCV (MOI = 1) for 24 h. (K) IB analysis of proteins in EPC

cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 18 h, then treated with CHX for 4 h and 8

h.

Figure 5. Cyp17a2 potentiates STING-induced IFN production and antiviral

responses.

(A and B) Luciferase activity of IFNφ1pro in EPC cells transfected with indicated

plasmids for 24 h before luciferase assays. (C and D) qPCR analysis of *ifn* in EPC cells

transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. (E and H) Detection of virus titers in EPC

cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h and then infected with SVCV (MOI

= 1) for 24 h. (F and J) IB analysis of proteins in EPC cells transfected with indicated

plasmids for 24 h and then untreated or infected with SVCV (MOI = 1) for 24 h. (G and

I) qPCR analysis of SVCV genes in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h, followed by SVCV challenge for 24 h.

Figure 6. Cyp17a2 stabilizes STING by orchestrating btr32-catalyzed K33-linked polyubiquitination.

(A) IB analysis of proteins in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 18 h, then treated with CHX and DMSO, MG132, or CQ for 4 h and 8 h. (B and C) STING ubiquitination assays in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. (D-G, K) IB analysis of WCLs and proteins immunoprecipitated with anti-Flag Ab-conjugated agarose beads from EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. (H and I) Confocal microscopy of btr32 and ER or STING or Cyp17a2 in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. The coefficient of colocalization was determined by qualitative analysis of the fluorescence intensity of the selected area in Merge. (J) Colocalization analyses of figure 6I were performed by calculating Pearson correlation coefficient. (L and M) Luciferase activity of IFNφ1pro and qPCR analysis of *vig1* in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. (N) IB analysis of proteins in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h.

Figure 7 Cyp17a2-mediated ubiquitination of STING is dependent on the K203.

(A and B, G and H, and M) STING ubiquitination assays in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. (C) Mass spectrometry analysis of a peptide derived from ubiquitinated STING-Myc. (D) IB analysis of proteins in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. (E and F) Luciferase activity of IFNφ1pro and qPCR analysis of *ifn* in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. (I) Schematic representation of full-length btr32 and its mutants. (J-L) IB of WCLs and proteins immunoprecipitated with anti-Flag/HA Ab-conjugated agarose beads from EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h.

Figure 8 Cyp17a2 induces proteasomal degradation of the SVCV P protein by catalyzing K33-linked polyubiquitination.

(A-C) IB analysis of WCLs and proteins immunoprecipitated with anti-Flag, anti-HA, or anti-Myc Ab-conjugated agarose beads from EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. (D) IB analysis of proteins in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. (E) Fluorescent analysis of proteins in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. (F) Confocal microscopy of P and Cyp17a2 in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. The coefficient of colocalization was determined by qualitative analysis of the fluorescence intensity of the selected area in Merge. (G) IB analysis of proteins in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 18 h, followed by treatments of MG132 (10 μM), 3-MA (2 mM), Baf-A1 (100 nM), and CQ (50 μM) for 6 h, respectively. (H-K) P protein ubiquitination assays in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 18 h, followed by MG132 treatments for 6 h.

Figure 9 Cyp17a2 targets the K12 site of the P protein for K33-linked polyubiquitination.

(A) List of proteins interacting with P protein detected by mass spectrometry. (B and C, E, O) IB analysis of WCLs and proteins immunoprecipitated with anti-HA/Myc Ab-conjugated agarose beads from EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. (D) Confocal microscopy of USP8 and Cyp17a2 or P protein in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. The coefficient of colocalization was determined by qualitative analysis of the fluorescence intensity of the selected area in Merge. (F and G, K) IB analysis of proteins in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. (H and I, L and M, P) P protein ubiquitination assays in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 18 h, followed by MG132 treatments for 6 h. (J) Mass spectrometry analysis of a peptide derived from ubiquitinated P-Myc. (N) Schematic representation of full-length USP8 and its mutants.

Figure 10 A mechanistic model illustrating the dual regulatory roles of Cyp17a2 in upregulating STING expression and degrading SVCV P protein.

Upon virus infection, male-biased autosomal gene *cyp17a2* enhances antiviral

responses in males. Mechanistically, Cyp17a2, an ER-localized protein, stabilizes

STING expression through recruitment of the E3 ubiquitin ligase btr32, promoting

K33-linked polyubiquitination. Furthermore, Cyp17a2 facilitates proteasomal

degradation of the SVCV P protein by engaging USP8 to reduce its K33-linked

polyubiquitination, thereby amplifying antiviral IFN responses.

Figure S1 The male-biased expression of Cyp17a2 governs RLR antiviral signaling.

(A) qPCR analysis of *cyp17a2* mRNA in the head-kidney of male and female zebrafish

(n = 50 per group). (B) qPCR analysis of *cyp17a2* mRNA in the ZF4 or EPC cells

infected with SVCV for the indicated times. (C) IB analysis of Cyp17a2 in ZF4 and

EPC cells infected with SVCV for the indicated times. (D) Microscopy of H&E-stained

liver and spleen sections from *cyp17a2$^{+/+}$* and *cyp17a2$^{-/-}$* male zebrafish treated with

SVCV for 48 h. (E) IF analysis of SVCV-N protein in the liver and spleen of *cyp17a2$^{+/+}$*

and *cyp17a2$^{-/-}$* male zebrafish treated with SVCV for 48 h. (F) The viral titer of heart in

cyp17a2$^{+/+}$ and *cyp17a2$^{-/-}$* male zebrafish (n = 15 per group) treated with SVCV for 48

h. (G) IB analysis of SVCV proteins in the liver and spleen sections of *cyp17a2$^{+/+}$* and

cyp17a2$^{-/-}$ male zebrafish (n = 3 per group) treated with SVCV for 48 h. (H) The

differently expressed gene number of mRNA variations in liver of *cyp17a2$^{+/+}$* and

cyp17a2$^{-/-}$ male zebrafish infected with SVCV. (I) KEGG pathway enrichment map

showing the top 10 signaling pathways of total. (J) GSEA of differentially expressed

genes in the liver of *cyp17a2$^{+/+}$* and *cyp17a2$^{-/-}$*male zebrafish infected with SVCV and

enrichment of RLR signaling pathway. The *p*-values were corrected for the False

Discovery Rate (FDR) method, and modules with *p*-values less than 0.05 were selected

as significant.

Figure S2 Heatmap view of mRNA variations of RLR-mediated ISGs sets in the

liver of *cyp17a2$^{+/+}$* and *cyp17a2$^{-/-}$* male zebrafish infected with SVCV. Expression

values are $\log_2^{(FPKM+1)}$ transformed and presented as row Z-scores.

Figure S3 Cyp17a2 enhances IFN production to inhibit viral replication. (A-D)

Luciferase activity of IFNφ3pro and ISRE in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h, and then untreated or transfected with poly I:C (0.5 μg) or infected with SVCV (MOI = 1) for 24 h before luciferase assays. (E) qPCR analysis of *vig1* in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h, and then untreated or infected with SVCV (MOI = 1) for 24 h. (F) Plaque assay of virus titers in EPC cells or GICB cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h, followed by SVCV or CyHV-2 challenge for 24 h or 48 h. (G and H) qPCR and IB analysis of SVCV genes in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h, followed by SVCV challenge for 24 h. (I) IF analysis of SVCV proteins in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h, followed by SVCV challenge for 24 h.

Figure S4 STING stability is enhanced by Cyp17a2. (A) Colocalization analyses of figure 4G were performed by calculating Pearson correlation coefficient. (B) Fluorescent analysis of proteins in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. The fluorescence intensity (arbitrary unit, a.u.) was recorded by the LAS X software, and the data were expressed as mean ± SD, n = 5. (C) IB analysis of proteins in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h, followed by untreated or transfected with poly I:C (2 μg) for 24 h. (D and E) IB analysis of proteins in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 18 h, then treated with CHX for 4 h and 8 h.

Figure S5 Cyp17a2 enhances STING-mediated IFN activation and antiviral defense. (A and B) Luciferase activity of ISRE in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h before luciferase assays. (C and D) qPCR analysis of *vig1* in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. (E and H) Plaque assay in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h and then infected with SVCV (MOI = 1) for 24 h. (F and I) IF analysis of N protein and P protein in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h, followed by SVCV challenge for 24 h. The fluorescence intensity (arbitrary unit, a.u.) was recorded by the LAS X software, and the data were expressed as mean ± SD, n = 5. (G) IB analysis of proteins in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h.

Figure S6 Cyp17a2 promotes STING stabilization by facilitating btr32-catalyzed K33-linked polyubiquitination. (A) STING ubiquitination assays in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. (B) IB analysis of WCLs and proteins immunoprecipitated with anti-Flag Ab-conjugated agarose beads from EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. (C and D, G) IB analysis of proteins in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. (E and F) Luciferase activity of IFNφ1pro and qPCR analysis of *vig1* in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h.

Figure S7 The K203 residue is essential for the ubiquitination of STING mediated by Cyp17a2. (A-E) STING ubiquitination assays in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h.

Figure S8 Cyp17a2 mediates K33-linked polyubiquitination of the P protein at K12. (A and C) IB analysis of WCLs and proteins immunoprecipitated with anti-Flag/Myc Ab-conjugated agarose beads from EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. (B) Colocalization analyses of figure 9D were performed by calculating Pearson correlation coefficient. (D) IB analysis of proteins in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 24 h. (E-I) P protein ubiquitination assays in EPC cells transfected with indicated plasmids for 18 h, followed by MG132 treatments for 6 h.

Table S1 List of primer sequences used in this study.

Table S2 List of all identified genes in FHK-vs-MHK in transcriptomic analysis.

Table S3 Heatmap view of mRNA variations of SVCV-activated ISG sets in the Cyp17a2-overexpressing cells or *cyp17a2* knockdown cells.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure 8

Figure 9

Figure 10