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Interferon-stimulated genes in zebrafish and human define an ancient arsenal of antiviral immunity

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Abstract

The evolution of the interferon (IFN) system, the major innate antiviral mechanism of vertebrates, remains poorly understood. This system is believed to have appeared 500My ago, based on the detection of type IFN genes in cartilaginous fish genomes. However, the IFN system integrates many other components, most of which are encoded by IFN-stimulated genes (ISGs). To shed light on the evolution of this system, we have used deep RNA sequencing to generate a comprehensive list of ISGs of zebrafish, taking advantage of the high quality genome annotation in this species. We analyzed larvae after inoculation of recombinant zebrafish type I IFN, or infection with chikungunya virus, which induces a potent IFN response. We identified more than 400 zebrafish ISGs, defined as being either directly induced by IFN or induced by the virus in an IFN receptor-dependent manner. Their human orthologues were highly enriched in ISGs, particularly for highly-inducible genes. We identified 72 orthology groups that included ISGs in both zebrafish and human, revealing a core ancestral ISG repertoire, which includes most of the known signaling components of the IFN system. Many downstream effectors were also already present 450 My ago in the common ancestor of tetrapods and bony fish, and diversified as multi-gene families independently in the two lineages. A large proportion of the ISG repertoire is lineage-specific; around 40% of protein-coding zebrafish ISGs had no human orthologue. We identified 14 fish-specific gene families containing multiple ISGs, including finTRIMs. This work illuminates the evolution of the IFN system and provides a rich resource to explore new antiviral mechanisms.

Introduction

All living organisms are targeted by viruses, and evolution has given rise to various antiviral strategies. Vertebrates possess many unique immune features, including their principal innate antiviral system based on signaling by type I interferons (IFNs). Type I IFNs induce the expression of hundreds of proteins encoded by ISGs (IFN-stimulated genes), making cells refractory to viral infection (Schoggins and Rice, 2011). The origin of the IFN system, which seems to have replaced the RNA interference antiviral system still used by plants and most invertebrates (Backes et al., 2014; Guo et al., 2019), is shrouded in mystery. Cartilaginous fish are the most basal clade with genomes containing recognizable type I IFN genes (Secombes and Zou, 2017), suggesting that this system appeared about 500My ago with jawed vertebrates. The IFN system integrates many components, most of which are encoded by ISGs, which can be traced back in genomes from distant clades. However, finding the orthologue(s) of a human ISG in another taxon does not imply that this gene is part of its IFN system. To understand the evolution of antiviral immunity, it is therefore desirable to establish how the repertoire of ISGs changed from early to modern vertebrates. This can be inferred by comparing the ISGs of current living representatives of distant vertebrate taxa.

Bony fishes (hereafter simply called "fish") diverged from the tetrapod lineage about 450My ago, and, since viral infections are a major problem in aquaculture, their IFN system has been the subject of many studies, as reviewed in (Boudinot et al., 2016; Langevin et al., 2013; Robertsen, 2018; Zou and Secombes, 2011). Teleost fish possess several subgroups of type I IFNs (but no type III genes), with strong variation in gene numbers among fish taxa (Boudinot et al., 2016). The zebrafish possess four type I IFN genes, named *ifnphi1-4*; only *ifnphi1* and *ifnphi3* are active at the larval stage (Aggad et al., 2009). Their receptors have

been identified (Aggad et al., 2009). Even before fish IFNs were known, the first fish ISGs

were identified by homology cloning from cells stimulated by poly-I:C (Staeheli et al., 1989)

or by differential transcript analysis of cells infected by viruses (Boudinot et al., 1999;

O'Farrell et al., 2002). Because many virus-induced genes (*vig*) were homologous to well-

known mammalian ISGs, they were hypothesized to be IFN-inducible, which was often

confirmed by later studies, as in the case of *vig-1*, the *rsad2/viperin* orthologue (Boudinot et

al., 1999; Levraud et al., 2007). Similarly, upon cloning of fish IFNs, induction of *Mx* (Staeheli

et al., 1989) was used as a readout for their activity (Altmann et al., 2003; Lutfalla et al.,

2003; Robertsen et al., 2003), confirming it was an ISG. The list of fish homologues of known

ISGs rapidly grew with the release of new fish genomes and EST collections, allowing the

development of micro-arrays to study fish response to virus or recombinant type I IFNs

(Martin et al., 2007; Purcell et al., 2006). Candidate gene approaches were also developed,

testing orthologues of known mammalian ISGs in qRT-PCR assays in multiple fish infection

models (Levraud et al., 2007; López-Muñoz et al., 2009; Rothenburg et al., 2008). In parallel,

approaches without a priori identified fish ISGs that had no orthologue in mammals,

although they belonged to gene families involved in antiviral immunity. A large set of

tripartite-motif protein-encoding genes, called *fintrims* (*ftr*), distantly related to *trim25* was

identified in rainbow trout cells as a induced by virus infection (O'Farrell et al., 2002) and

later shown to form multigene families in teleosts, particularly extensive in zebrafish (van

der Aa et al., 2009). Similarly, a family of IFN induced ADP-ribosyltransferases named *Gig2*

was identified in crucian carp cells treated with UV-inactivated GCHV (grass carp

hemorrhage virus) (Zhang and Gui, 2004; Zhang et al., 2013). Some ISG were restricted to

particular fish groups such as the non-coding RNA *vig2* that is found only in salmonids

(Boudinot et al., 2001).

We previously established a list of zebrafish candidate ISGs using microarray analysis (Briolat

et al., 2014). For this, we compared the response to a poor IFN inducer, IHNV (infectious

hematopoietic necrosis virus) (Ludwig et al., 2011) and a strong IFN inducer, CHIKV

(chikungunya virus) (Palha et al., 2013). However, the array did not include the full

complement of zebrafish genes, and the study identified virus-induced genes which were

not necessarily ISGs. Here, to directly identify ISGs, we analyze the transcriptional response

of zebrafish larvae injected with recombinant type I IFN. We rely on deep RNA sequencing,

which is intrinsically quasi-exhaustive. Our approach is therefore limited mainly by the

quality of genome assembly and annotation, which is excellent for the zebrafish (Howe et

al., 2013). We complemented this analysis with a study of the response to CHIKV and its

dependence to expression of the zebrafish IFN receptor chains *crfb1* and *crfb2* (Aggad et al.,

2009). We thus established a comprehensive list of ISGs of zebrafish larvae, and performed a

detailed comparison with the human ISG repertoire. Our comparative analysis was

facilitated by a compilation of human ISGs made to perform a systematic screen (Schoggins

et al., 2011), and by the specialized database Interferome (Rusinova et al., 2013). We

identify about 70 orthology groups that include ISG in both species and thus approximate

the ISG repertoire of the common ancestor of all Osteichthyes. As ISGs typically evolve fast,

with frequent duplications and gene loss, we also identify many families of fish-specific ISGs,

which represent a rich resource for seeking new antiviral mechanisms. Our study provides a

broad overview of the evolutionary patterns of genes belonging to the type I IFN pathway,

and identifies gene modules induced by a viral infection independently of IFN.

Materials and methods

Zebrafish husbandry

Wild-type AB zebrafish, initially obtained from the Zebrafish International Resource Center (Eugene, OR, USA), were raised in the Institut Pasteur facility. Animal experiments were performed according to European Union guidelines for handling of laboratory animals (http://ec.europa.eu/environment/chemicals/lab_animals/home_en.htm) and were approved by the Institut Pasteur Animal Care and Use Committee. Eggs were obtained by marble-induced spawning, cleaned by treatment with 0.003% bleach for 5 minutes, and then kept in Petri dishes containing Volvic source water at 28°C. All timings in the text refer to the developmental stage at the reference temperature of 28.5°C. At 3 dpf (days post fertilization), shortly before injections, larvae that had not hatched spontaneously were manually dechorionated. Larvae were anesthetized with 200 µg/ml tricaine (A5040, Sigma-Aldrich) during the injection procedure.

Interferon and virus inoculation

Recombinant zebrafish IFNφ1 (Aggad et al., 2009), kindly provided by Rune Hartmann (University of Aarhus, Denmark), was inoculated by intravenous (IV) injection in the caudal cardinal vein. One nanoliter of 1mg/ml IFNφ1, or as a control, bovine serum albumin (BSA, New England Biolabs) in PBS1x/10% glycerol was injected. CHIKV infections were performed as described (Briolat et al., 2014; Palha et al., 2013). Briefly, ~200PFU of CHIKV115 was injected IV in a volume of 1 nl at 3dpf.

Interferon receptor knock-down

Morpholino antisense oligonucleotides (Gene Tools) were injected at the one to two cells stage as described (Levraud et al., 2008). Two ng of *crfb1* splice morpholino (CGCCAAGATCATACCTGTAAAGTAA) was injected together with 2ng of *crfb2* splice morpholino (CTATGAATCCTCACCTAGGGTAAAC), knocking down all type I IFN receptors (Aggad et al., 2009). Control morphants were injected with 4 ng of control morpholino (GAAAGCATGGCATCTGGATCATCGA) with no known target.

RNA extraction

For RNAseq analysis, total RNA was extracted from replicate pools of 10 injected larvae (at 6 hours post injection for IFNφ1 treatment, or 24 hours post injection for CHIKV infections), using TRIzol (Invitrogen), following the manufacturer's protocol. The integrity of the RNA was confirmed by laboratory-on-chip analysis using the 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies), using only samples with an RNA integrity number of at least 8.

Illumina sequencing

Libraries were built using a Truseq mRNA-Seq Library Preparation Kit (Illumina, USA), according to the manufacturer's recommendations. Quality control was performed on an Agilent Bioanalyzer. Sequencing was performed on a HiSeq 2500 system (Illumina, USA) and produced 65-base single-end reads.

Mapping reads and gene expression counts

164   Sequences were trimmed using cutadapt (v1.8.3). The reads quality was checked with

165 FastQC. Reads were then spliced-aligned to the zebrafish genome (GRCz10, Ensembl release

166 88) using TopHat2 (v2.0.14). The average number of mapped read per sample was

167 16.500.000. Only fragments mapping coherently and unambiguously to genes have been

168 considered for gene counts. Gene counts have been assigned using featureCounts v1.5.2

169 (Liao, 2014).

171 *Identification of differentially expressed genes (DEG)*

172   Differentially expressed nuclear genes between larvae treated with IFNφ1 and

173 controls, between larvae infected by CHIKV and controls, or between crfb1+2 and control

174 morphants all infected by CHIKV, were identified. DEG were identified using DESeq 1.18.0

175 (BioConductor) (Love et al., 2014) and R: 3–1-2 (R core team, 2017). Briefly, raw counts of

176 genes were subjected to a minimal pre-filtering step: genes for which the count sum, per

177 group of samples, was equal or higher than 10, in at least one group, were kept. Raw counts

178 were normalized for library size and normalized data were fitted using a negative binomial

179 general linear model. Data were adjusted for multiple testing using the Benjamini-Hochberg

180 procedure (adjusted p value). Genes with an adjusted *p* value less than 0.01 and an absolute

181 Fold Change (FC) > 2 or FC < 0.5 were considered as DEGs.

182 Sequence data were registered in the BioProject ncbi database with the SRA accession

183 number: PRJNA531581.

185 *Identification of human orthologues and ISGs*

186   Orthology analysis was primarily based on data from the Ensembl database

187 (www.ensembl.org), the zfin database (zfin.org), and the literature, notably our previous

analysis of zebrafish orthologues of human ISGs (Briolat et al., 2014). Data were

systematically curated manually, and conflicts resolved using a combination of literature

search, synteny analysis, and sequence homology analysis (two-way protein BLAST). When

human genes were present on the list compiled by Schoggins *et al.* (Schoggins et al., 2011),

they were labelled as ISGs. If absent from the list, gene names were further queried on the

Interferome website (http://www.interferome.org/interferome/search/showSearch.jspx)

which compiles the results of many transcriptomic studies on human and mouse samples

after IFN stimulation (Rusinova et al., 2013). We postulated that human genes present in

Interferome could be considered as ISG when being significantly induced at least 2-fold with

a stimulation for no more 12 hours by type I IFN in at least 4 datasets.

qRTPCR

RNA was extracted from individual larvae using RNeasy® Mini Kit (Qiagen). cDNA was

obtained using M-MLV H- reverse-transcriptase (Promega) with a dT17 primer. Quantitative

PCR was then performed on an ABI7300 thermocycler (Applied Biosystems) using Takyon™

ROX SYBR© 2x MasterMix (Eurogentec) in a final volume of 25 µl. The following pairs of

primers were used: ef1a (housekeeping gene used for normalization): 5'-

GCTGATCGTTGGAGTCAACA-3' and 5'-ACAGACTTGACCTCAGTGGT-3'; mxa: 5'-

GACCGTCTCTGATGTGGTTA-3' and 5'-GCATGCTTTAGACTCTGGCT-3'; ddx58: 5'-

ACGCCGGAGAAAGAATTTTTC-3' and 5'-TCGACAGACTCTCGATGTTG-3'

Results

RNAseq analysis of IFNφ1-regulated genes

To make an inventory of zebrafish ISGs, we first injected 3dpf larvae with recombinant zebrafish IFNφ1, the first type I IFN to be identified in zebrafish, or BSA as a negative control. Based on preliminary kinetic experiments, we chose 6 hours post injection as the early plateau phase of ISG expression (Additional File 1A). RNA was extracted from multiple pools of ten larvae and subjected to deep sequencing using an Illumina-based platform sequencing. Reads were mapped to zebrafish genome (zv10), and the differential analysis performed using the DESeq package.

Choosing as cutoff values adjusted *p* values <5% and fold-change (FC) >2, we identified 360 IFNφ1 up-regulated genes (which are ISGs, by definition) and 75 down-regulated genes (Additional File 2). As expected, genes with high basal expression levels tended to display lower fold-change (Figure 1A). The top IFNφ1-upregulated genes (with FC >100) comprised many well-known ISGs, many previously used as IFN signature genes in zebrafish, including several *mx* genes, *rsad2, cmpk2*, several *ifit* genes, the ubiquitin-like *isg15*, the helicase *dhx58* (aka *lgp2*), the kinase *pkz*, the transcription factor *stat1b*, and the chemokine *ccl19a.2* (Figure 1B). To our surprise, *ddx58* (encoding RIG-I), a well-known and conserved ISG (Biacchesi et al., 2009), was not found in that list. In fact, the gene model is

missing on the zebrafish reference genome, with only fragments of the sequence present in

the assembly. Therefore, we performed qRT-PCR for *ddx58* and confirmed that it is induced

by IFNϕ1 (Additional File 1B).

Gene ontology (GO) analysis was performed using David and Gorilla, and showed, as

expected, that IFNϕ1 upregulated genes were strongly enriched in genes linked to "antiviral

response", "type I interferon pathway" and "antigen processing and presentation" (not

shown). Similarly, enrichment analyses identified KEGG pathways for Influenza, Measles and

Herpes simplex infection as well as RIG-I signaling and cytosolic DNA sensing pathways. The

list of downregulated genes was not found associated with any particularly notable function

in these analyses.

Human orthologues of zebrafish ISGs are enriched in ISGs

We then searched for the human orthologues of the 360 identified zebrafish ISGs

(Additional File 3). All types of orthology relationships between zebrafish and human were

observed, from none to "many-to-many". One-to-one orthology was found for 77 genes

(Figure 1C). We identified one or several human orthologues for 200 zebrafish ISGs. Even

after exclusion of the 23 zebrafish ISGs corresponding to non-coding RNAs or transposons,

this proportion (200/337, 59%) is significantly lower than the 71% reported for the whole

genome (Howe et al., 2013) (Fischer's exact test, $p<0.0001$). We then searched which of

these 196 human genes were themselves ISGs. We found 61 ISGs present in the list of 446

human ISGs compiled by Schoggins et al. (Schoggins et al., 2011); by querying the

Interferome database (Rusinova et al., 2013), we identified 11 additional human ISGs

(Additional File 3). In total, 97 zebrafish IFNϕ1-inducible genes were orthologous to at least

one human ISGs (Figure 1C). In addition, we identified a handful of genes that were not true

orthologues, but shared ancestry with a human ISG at the vertebrate level, such as MHC

class I genes (see comments on Additional File 3). As expected, human orthologues of

zebrafish ISGs were strongly enriched in ISGs: 37% (72 out of 196 genes), compared with 2%

in the entire genome based on the Schoggins list of human ISGs (Fischer's exact test, $p<$

0.0001). Interestingly, FC values of zebrafish ISGs were higher when they were orthologous

to a human ISG than when their orthologues were not ISGs (red vs blue on Figure 1C-D),

while FCs of zebrafish ISGs without human orthologues (grey on Figure 1C-D) were

intermediate (mean values, 127.7, 10.6 and 46.9, respectively; all groups significantly

different from each other, p<0.001, Kruskal-Wallis test). Thus, inducibility by type I IFNs is

often evolutionary conserved, making it possible to infer an ancestral set of ISGs.

Fish-specific ISG genes and families

270   Consistent with the expected high rate of duplication and divergence of ISGs, a

271   significant proportion of zebrafish IFNφ1-up-regulated protein-coding genes had no

272   identifiable orthologue in the human genome (137/337; 41%). Interestingly, but not unlike

273   genes with human orthologues, many of these genes belonged to multigenic families. We

274   show on Figure 2 the fish-specific gene families that contain several zebrafish ISGs.

275   This included more than 20 *fintrim (ftr)* genes, a family identified first as virus-

inducible genes in rainbow trout (O'Farrell et al., 2002), highly diversified in zebrafish, and

hypothesized to antagonize retroviruses (van der Aa et al., 2009). Of note, besides finTRIM,

there are two other large TRIM gene expansions in zebrafish, each with a single human

orthologue of unknown function (Boudinot et al., 2011). The *btr* (bloodthirsty-like TRIMs),

related to human TRIM39, include several ISGs. By contrast, no member of the TRIM35-like

family was upregulated by IFNφ1.

282   Another family had been described as virus-inducible in fish: *gig2* (GCRV-induced

283 gene 2) genes (Zhang and Gui, 2004). *gig2* genes are distantly related to the PARP family

284 (Zhang et al., 2013), which include several ISGs in humans and zebrafish. The zebrafish *gig2p*

285 and *gig2o* genes are induced by IFNφ1.

286   To our knowledge, the genes in the remaining fish-specific families had not previously

287 been described to be interferon- or virus-inducible. These families are diverse, encoding for

288 proteins expected to be membrane receptors, and presumably secreted, nuclear, or

289 cytosolic proteins (Figure 2).

290   Eight members of the very large NLR family were ISGs. These genes belong to groups

291 1, 2, 3 and 4 as defined in (Howe et al., 2016), and two of them belong to a fish specific

292 subset defined by the presence of a C-terminal B30.2 (or PRY-SPRY) domain (Laing et al.,

293 2008; Stein et al., 2007), which is most similar to the corresponding domain of finTRIM genes

294 (van der Aa et al., 2009). The specific function(s) of zebrafish NLR genes remain poorly

295 understood, but this highly expanded family may be central for inflammatory mechanisms.

296   Additionally, 3 ISGs corresponded to surface proteins with two immunoglobulin (Ig)

297 domains and a transmembrane region but not ITAM or ITIM (immunoreceptor tyrosine-

298 based activating/inhibiting motif). These genes belong to a very large family with 140

299 members, which we propose to name f2Ig (fish genes with two Ig domains).

301 *RNAseq analysis of CHIKV-induced genes*

302   Experimental infection of zebrafish larvae with chikungunya virus (CHIKV) induces a

303 strong type I IFN response (Palha et al., 2013). Our previous microarray-base analysis

304 indicated that the response to CHIKV was dominated by ISGs (Briolat et al., 2014). However,

305 to allow comparison with another virus with slower IFN induction kinetics, this analysis had

been performed at 48 hours post infection (hpi), while the peak of the IFN and ISG response,

as determined by qRT-PCR, is at 24 hpi (Briolat et al., 2014). Therefore, we re-analyzed here

the transcriptome of CHIKV-infected larvae at 24 hpi using deep RNA sequencing. Choosing

the same cutoff values as for the IFNφ1 analysis, we identified 466 CHIKV up-regulated genes

and 26 down-regulated genes (Additional File 4). Hundreds of new CHIKV-inducible genes

were identified, either because they were absent from the microarray, or because their

induction were below the cutoff of the first analysis. Among the genes significantly

upregulated in the microarray study, all those with a human ISG orthologue were also

upregulated in this new dataset, and, as expected, typically much more (Additional File 5).

About half of genes induced by IFNφ1 were also induced by the viral infection

(181/360 Figure 3A; Additional File 4, yellow), including almost all (84 out of 97) genes

orthologous to a human ISG, such as *mxa, b* and *e, stat1a* and *b; stat2; rasd2, isg15*, etc.

There was an excellent correlation of the FC values for genes induced by both IFNφ1 and

CHIKV (Figure 3B). However, almost two thirds of the genes induced by CHIKV infection were

not significantly modulated by IFNφ1 (285/466; Figure 3A). We then asked whether this

CHIKV-specific response could correspond essentially to genes for which there was weak

induction by recombinant IFNφ1, below our arbitrary cutoff. We therefore extracted from

this list genes induced by IFNφ1 with FC>1.5 and with an adjusted *p* value<20%, and we

found 66 genes matching these conditions (Additional File 4, green): 21 genes without

annotation and 45 annotated genes, many of which were notoriously linked to the type I IFN

system. These genes notably comprised *crfb1*, encoding a type I IFN receptor subunit, and

two other cytokine receptors *il10Ra* and *il13Ra*; four chemokines (*ccl34, cxcl11.6, cxc18b* and

cxc20); ten additional *fintrim* and 3 other members of the *gig2* family; and two *irf*

transcription factors (2 and 10). It also includes the metalloreductase *steap3*, whose

mammalian orthologue is not an ISG, but regulates type I IFN response, CXCL10 induction

and iron homeostasis in mouse macrophages (Zhang et al., 2012).

Besides this intermediate gene set, a conservative list of 219 genes seems to be up-

regulated only by the virus, independently of IFNφ1 (Additional File 4, blue; Figure 3C). This

list contains 105 genes without annotation, but also several functional modules providing

interesting insights on the virus-host interactions. Functional analysis using DAVID identified

6 enriched KEGG pathways, namely Cytokine-cytokine receptor interaction, Cytosolic DNA-

sensing, Toll-like receptor signaling, RIG-I-like receptor signaling, Proteasome, Herpes

simplex infection.

Importantly, type I IFNs were induced by the infection. Consistent with our previous report

with another virus (Aggad et al., 2009), *ifnphi1* and *ifnphi3* were clearly dominant at this

larval stage, with 58±3 and 47±11 reads respectively, compared with 9±4 reads for *ifnphi2*,

and none detected for *ifnphi4*. Two pro-inflammatory cytokines *il1b* and *tnfb* were also

upregulated. Among typical sensors, *tlr3, mb21d1* (encoding cGAS) and its downstream

adaptor *tmem173* (encoding STING), and several kinases of the IFN signaling pathways

(*ripk1, tbk1*) were present. Seven proteasome subunits are induced by the virus, suggesting

activation of protein degradation and Ag presentation pathways. The complement pathway

also stands out as an important module upregulated by CHIKV infection: twelve complement

genes (*c1, c2*, several *c3, c7; c9; cfB; cfhl-1,-3* and *-5*) were induced by CHIKV, suggesting that

it is an important defense triggered in a Type I IFN independent manner. Additionally, this

response comprises 3 metalloaminopeptidases (*anpepb, erap1b* and *2*); the myeloid markers

ncf1, mpx and *marco*; 2 guanylate binding proteins (*gbp1* and *2*) that have well known

orthologues in human; the transcription factors *atf3* and *irf1b*, and with a high level of

expression, the enzyme *rnasel3* (an orthologue of human RNASE4, not of RNASEL, an ISG

with no fish counterpart). Nine *fintrim* and 3 *btr* can also be noted, underscoring the

importance of these TRIM with PRY/SPRY domains in virus host interactions altogether.

Thus, CHIKV induces a typical IFN-stimulated response of high magnitude, but also a broader

and less overt inflammatory response.

IFN receptor dependence of the response to CHIKV

To test the IFN-dependence of the response to CHIKV, we used morpholinos to knock down

in zebrafish larvae *crfb1* and *crfb2* which encode specific chains of the two types of type I IFN

receptors of zebrafish (Aggad et al., 2009). We previously showed that such IFNR morphant

larvae are hypersusceptible to CHIKV infection, dying 2 to 3 days after virus injection (Palha

et al., 2013). We analyzed by deep RNAseq their transcriptional response to CHIKV at 24

hours post-inoculation, and compared it to that of control morphant larvae. Choosing as

cutoff values adjusted *p* values <5% and a ratio between IFN-R morphants and controls >2,

we identified 187 genes for which induction was dampened by IFNR knockdown, and 10

genes that were upregulated in morphants (Additional File 6). Among CHIKV-induced genes

(Additional File 4), 181 were IFNR-dependent, representing a significant fraction (181/466;

39%) (Figure 3A). Predictably, the list of genes upregulated by CHIKV in a IFNR-dependent

manner largely - but not fully - overlapped with the gene set induced by recombinant IFNφ1

(129/181; 71%, see Figure 3A). This approach led us to classify 52 new zebrafish genes as

ISGs, being induced by CHIKV in an IFNR-dependent manner, even if they were not

significantly induced by recombinant IFNφ1. As previously, we searched the human

orthologues of these additional ISGs (Additional File 3, bottom), identifying a few more

human ISGs in this list, such as cGAS, NLRC5 or IFI35.

Together, our results provide a near-exhaustive list of zebrafish ISGs at the larval stage,

identified by two independent approaches, and a useful reference for future studies.

Ancestral ISGs

Assuming that the common ancestor of genes that are IFN-inducible in both human and

zebrafish was itself an ISG in their last common ancestor ~450 My ago, we can define a list of

ancestral ISGs. We identified 66 orthology groups that included an ISG on both the human

and the zebrafish sides (Table 1, Additional File 7). A few more ancestral ISGs were also

defined by pairs of ISGs with orthology relationships at the early vertebrate level. In total,

our list includes 72 ancestral genes (Table 1, Figure 4A).

Based on our orthology analysis, we propose new, more explicit names for many of the

zebrafish ISGs with known human orthologues (in red on Table 1 and Additional File 7). This

ancestral ISG core includes most ISGs with known functions. The IFN system of 450My ago

seems fairly similar to the present one, particularly in its signaling components (Figure 4;

Additional File 8). Many ancestral genes have been duplicated independently in one or both

lineages (Additional File 7), in addition to multiple ISGs apparently gained by either group

(Figure 5).

IFN-downregulated genes

Two of the most strongly IFNφ1-downregulated genes were orthologous to human genes

downregulated by type I IFNs, according to the Interferome database: *plin1* (perilipin 1) and

acox1 (palmytoil acyl-CoA oxidase 1). This suggests that downregulation of fatty acid

oxidation pathway is an ancient feature of the IFN system.

Many IFNφ1-downregulated genes were orthologous to a human gene in a 1-to-2 manner

(Additional File 3), with the two zebrafish paralogues having arisen during the teleost

specific whole genome duplication (ohnologues). Systematically, only one of the two

paralogues was downregulated.

Remarkably, no gene was downregulated by both IFNφ1 injection and CHIKV infection

(Figure 3b, Additional File 4).

Discussion

The zebrafish has become an important model to study host-pathogen interactions,

particularly at its early life stages which are the most prone to live imaging and genetically

tractable. Although its antiviral interferon genes and receptors are now well identified,

knowledge of IFN-induced genes, or ISGs, was only partial. In this work, we used deep

sequencing to characterize the transcriptomic response of the 3dpf zebrafish larva to

recombinant IFNφ1, the first type I IFN identified in zebrafish and the most highly inducible

one. We analyzed in parallel the response to an alphavirus inducing a strong type I IFN

induction, ant the impact of IFN receptor knock-down on this response. From these different

datasets, we established a comprehensive list of zebrafish ISGs. This list was compared to

the human ISG repertoire, and a phylogenetic analysis was performed to approach the

ancestral ISG repertoire of early vertebrates.

1. New insights and limitations of the work

A number of studies have identified genes induced by IFN or viral infections in fish (reviewed

in (Langevin et al., 2013)). However, very few global descriptions after treatment with

recombinant type I IFN have been reported, using micro-arrays (Martin et al., 2007). Micro-

array analyses are limited by probe choice, and are typically biased towards genes with

known human homologues. RNAseq, by contrast, is mainly limited by the genome

annotation quality and by the analysis method, and can be reanalyzed; this approach is thus

more complete. Since the early zebrafish larva constitutes a reference model for

investigating innate immune response, drug screening as well as for modelling diseases, we

undertook a comprehensive description of the repertoire of ISG up-regulated at this

developmental stage. Importantly, we previously reported a clear transcriptional response

of zebrafish embryos to IFNφ1 as early as 24 hpf (Levraud et al. 2007); the responsiveness to

type I IFNs is thus already well established at 3 dpf. We are aware that cells present in adult

but not yet in larvae, notably those of the adaptive immune system such as lymphocytes and

dendritic cells may express additional ISGs, which should be assessed in further work.

There are two groups of type I IFNs in teleost fish (Zou et al., 2007) with two different

receptors (Aggad et al., 2009). This study only addresses the ISG repertoire induced by IFNφ1

(a group 1 IFN) and it is possible that group 2 IFNs (IFNφ2 and IFNφ3) induce a different ISG

subset. Determining this will require more studies; however, since CHIKV induces both

IFNφ1 and IFNφ3 while *crfb1&2* morpholinos target receptors for both type I IFN groups,

IFNφ3-only induced ISGs should therefore be found among CHIKV-induced, IFNR-dependent,

but non IFNφ1-induced genes. Such genes (listed on Table S2, bottom) constituted about

30% of genes for which induction by CHIKV was impacted in morphants – and only about

15% if one also excludes genes for which induction by IFNφ1 is almost significant (Figure 3A

and C).

2. Comparative and phylogenetic analysis of zebrafish ISGs

Our comparative and phylogenetic approach led to a tentative reconstruction of the ISG repertoire of the last common ancestor of teleosts and tetrapods (LCATT) that lived ~450My ago and probably resembled the fossil osteichtyan *Ligulalepis* (Clement et al., 2018). To do so, we looked for human (co-)ortholog(s) of all zebrafish ISGs identified in our analysis. Based on available data compilations (Rusinova et al., 2013; Schoggins et al., 2011), we then determined which one(s) of these human orthologs were themselves induced by type I IFN. In such cases, we considered that they most likely originated from an "ancestral" ISG, present in the LCATT. It is generally believed that the type I IFN system emerged during the early evolution of jawed vertebrates, since Chondrichtyans (rays, sharks and chimeras) but not Agnathans (lampreys and hagfish) possess typical type I IFN genes (Secombes and Zou, 2017; Venkatesh et al., 2014). Hence, it is important to note that the IFN system had already evolved, expanded and standardized for more than 50My before our last common ancestor with zebrafish.

Approximately half of what we defined as ancestral ISGs are represented by 1-to-1 co-orthologs in zebrafish and human (Additional File 7, top rows) – a situation of practical interest, as the likelihood of conservation of gene function is highest in this case. These are either isolated genes (e.g. *RSAD2*, *ISG15* or *cGAS*), or members of "old" families already stabilized in the LCATT (e.g., *IRF7* and *IRF9*) (Briolat et al 2014). The situation is relatively similar for a few ancestral genes such as *STAT1* or *SOCS1*, with one human orthologue and two zebrafish co-orthologues that arose during the teleost-specific whole genome duplication and were retained. In contrast, many other "young" families have clearly been subjected to further duplication during later evolution of fish or tetrapods, leading to

orthology groups containing multiple ISG both in zebrafish and human, the most spectacular

examples being the *ISG12*, *IFIT* and *IFI44* families.

In addition to the ancestral genes with true zebrafish and human orthologs, we added to this

list a few genes with a more complex history, with a human and zebrafish ISGs that shared

an ancestor at the basal vertebrate level (Table 1 and Additional File 7, bottom). These

ancestral genes must have been duplicated in the LCATT genome; the teleost and tetrapod

lineages then retained distinct paralogues. This comprises some genes whose evolutionary

history is extremely difficult to trace due to multiple copies and extensive polymorphism,

such as MHC class I genes. Here, only *mhc1zba* was found to be a zebrafish ISG, but this does

not necessarily imply that other zebrafish MHC class I genes are not ISGs, as they may have

been missed due to mapping issues; the strain we used (AB) is not the same as the one of

the reference genome (Tü), and strain-specific divergences are considerable between strains

for MHC class I, with deep evolutionary roots (McConnell et al., 2016). Importantly, we did

not define ancestral ISGs for zebrafish-human ISG pairs that appeared to be related at first

glance, but, upon further analysis, were too distant; for example, zebrafish *vamp5* and

human *VAMP8* are both ISGs, but share their last common ancestor at the Opistokontha

level, before the split of fungi and animals, very long before the emergence of IFNs.

Nevertheless, the type I IFN system also includes very old genes that were already present in

basal metazoans. The RNAseL/OAS module is a good example of such cases, being found

across metazoans from mammals to sponges (Päri et al., 2007) - but lost in the fish branch.

Another striking example is the cGAS-STING module recently identified in cnidaria

(Kranzusch et al., 2015). The implication of these genes in the antiviral immunity of basal

branches of animals is unknown but certainly worth investigating. The main models for

invertebrate immunity are flies and mosquitoes but they largely rely on RNAi mechanisms to

contain viruses (Guo et al., 2019). Central signaling modules of the vertebrate IFN system

such as TLR/NFκB and JAK/STAT, are also present in insects and in more distant metazoans,

but with different outcomes (Liongue et al., 2016).

Additionally, a few important genes do not meet our criteria for "ancestral" ISG because

they are not typically inducible either in zebrafish or in human (Figure 5). For example, *irf3* is

an ISG in fish but not in human, while it is the reverse for *JAK2*. Hence, our list of ancestral

ISG is likely not complete, but it provides a core repertoire pointing to most fundamental

factors of the vertebrate innate antiviral arsenal.

A relatively large number of ISGs have no orthologue in the other lineage, such as human

APOBEC3, RNASEL, OAS, AIM2 (Figure 5). Similarly, many fish-specific ISG likely have been

co-opted by the IFN pathway during fish evolution. In this case, they do not have clear

orthologs in human and other tetrapods (as for finTRIMs and nlr-B30.2), or their ortholog(s)

have no link with the type I IFN system. The finTRIM family contains the largest number of

zebrafish ISGs of any family, ancestral or not. Interestingly, ISGs are found only among the

recently diversified, species-specific finTRIMs; the most basal members (*ftr82-84*), well-

conserved among fish, were not found here to be induced by IFNφ1 or by CHIKV, consistent

with previous studies (Langevin et al., 2019). Nevertheless, *ftr83* appears to mediate

protection especially in the gill region by stimulating local *ifnphi1* expression (Langevin et al.,

2017). The diversity and evolution under positive selection of the IFN-inducible finTRIMs

evoke viral recognition (van der Aa et al., 2009), yet their functions remain unclear.

The co-optation of new genes in the ISG repertoire may be operated quickly and in a group-

specific manner, by introduction of sequence motifs in the regulatory sequences, for

example via retroviral insertion (Arnold and Kunte, 2017; Chuong et al., 2016). However, we

cannot exclude that these branch-specific ISGs are in fact ancestral, but lost in one of the

two lineages; this is the case for *Gig2* genes, which are present in the Coelacanth genome as

well as in fish, and thus were lost in tetrapods. Thus, our repertoire of ancestral ISGs is

underestimated because we cannot include the lineage-specific losses.

Ancestral ISGs encode very diverse proteins in localization and function (Figure 4). We

provide an extended discussion of their classification in Additional File 8.

4. Characterization of the IFN independent response to CHIKV infection

Knowing the repertoire of ISG also offers the possibility to identify genes that are induced by

viral infection independently of the type I IFN pathway. While a subset of ISGs can be

induced via IFN-dependent and -independent pathways in human and fish - for example

rsad2 (Boudinot et al., 1999). Thus, IRF3 dependent, type I IFN independent induction of

many ISG by particular viruses has been described (Ashley et al., 2019).

However, about half of the genes upregulated by CHIKV were not induced by IFNϕ1

injection, and most were not affected by IFNR knockdown. Notably, three gene sets stand

out in this list: (1) components of the complement cascade, that are known to play a role in

antiviral defense; (2) cytokines including some CC and CXC chemokines as well as the type I

IFN themselves, which do not appear to be strongly auto/cross inducible and (3) many *btr*

and *ftr* TRIM E3 ligases as well as multiple proteasome components. Interestingly too, *irf1b*,

the zebrafish orthologue of IRF1 (a human ISG), is CHIKV-inducible, but not in a IFNR-

dependent manner – consistent with previous work (Briolat et al., 2014) - and was not

induced by IFNϕ1. Many other genes of unknown function also share the same induction

pattern, and would certainly be worth investigating. A strong redundancy of antiviral

pathways has certainly been selected during evolution, since viruses have developed

multiple strategies of immune subversion.

Conclusions

Antiviral genes are well known to evolve very fast, as postulated by the Red Queen

hypothesis, under strong pressure from pathogens. This is indeed illustrated by the large

number of ISGs that are either fish- or mammal-specific. Nevertheless, our data define a

surprisingly stable set of core ISGs, that were apparently co-opted into the new IFN system

of early vertebrates about 500My ago, and have been maintained for the last 450My both in

fish and tetrapods. The full list of zebrafish ISG provides a powerful reference to characterize

the subtle interactions between viruses and the host response, including redundancy of

immune pathways and viral subversion mechanisms. It also constitutes a valuable resource

for the study of autoinflammatory disease using the emerging zebrafish model.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Author's contribution

JPL and PB designed the project, acquired funding, generated figures and wrote the paper.

JPL performed microinjections. LJ made the bioinformatics analysis. VB managed fish and

extracted RNA. VB and VL performed qRT-PCR and drafted figures.

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Declaration

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Figure legends

Figure 1. Zebrafish larva transcriptional response to type I IFN (A) Fold change (FC)/basal

expression representation with all genes detected in the analysis. Basal expression was the

average of read numbers mapped onto a given gene in control (BSA-injected) larvae. FC is

the ratio of reads numbers in IFNφ1-injected larvae divided by basal expression. pVal

corresponds to adjusted p-Value. (B) FC/basal expression representation, limited to ISGs

identified in IFNφ1-injected larvae (e.g. red dots in panel A); key genes commented in the

text are indicated with gene families identified by different colors. (C) FC/basal expression

representation for zebrafish ISGs represented according to the type of orthology with

human genes, and if human orthologues include at least one human ISG. (D) Fold change

distribution for zebrafish ISG with different types of orthology relationship to human genes,

using the same color code as in C but pooling genes with single and multiple human

orthologues. Zebrafish ISGs with a human ISG within a vertebrate-level orthology groupes

were not included in this analysis.

Figure 2. Main families of fish-specific ISG and their domain organisation. Each panel show

the typical domain organization of a family of fish-specific ISGs (e.g., with no human

orthologue), as determined by SMART analysis (http://smart.embl-heidelberg.de/). The

accession numbers of IFNφ1-induced genes (FC>2, pVal<5%) and the fraction they represent

within the family are indicated.

Figure 3. Comparison of ISG repertoires identified by IFNφ1 induction and by CHIKV

infection. (A) Venn analysis of genes up- or down-regulated in zebrafish larva by IFNφ1

treatment (IFNφ1), CHIKV infection (ChikV), and CHIKV infection in the context of type I IFN

receptor knock-down ("MoCrfb"). ISG are identified either by their responsiveness to IFNφ1

or by a CHIKV induction abolished in crfb1+2 morphants (venn diagram at the top). Genes

induced by CHIKV infection in an IFNφ1 independent way are analysed in the Venn diagram

at the bottom of the panel. (B) FC/FC representation of transcriptome response to IFNφ1

and CHIKV. Color code identifies genes significantly induced by IFNφ1 and/or CHIKV, and

genes which are significantly induced in one condition (FC>2, adj p val< 0.05) while almost

significantly induced in the other ("quasi Sig"; thresholds FC>1.5 and/or adj p value < 0.2).

(C) Venn analysis of genes significantly induced by IFNφ1 and/or CHIKV. Gene subsets

corresponding to genes induced quasi-significantly is represented within dotted lines.

Figure 4. Graphic overview of the ancestral ISG repertoire, organized by functional

modules.

Figure 5. Evolution of the ISG repertoire since the LCATT. Genes names are given as

examples, with no attempt to be exhaustive.

Additional File 1. A. Kinetics of response to recombinant IFNφ1, measured by RT-qPCR. Data

normalized on the mean of expression of control (samples), displayed as mean ± SD. **B.**

***ddx58*, encoding RIG-I, is an zebrafish ISG**, as measured by qRT-PCR in zebrafish larvae 6

hours after IFNφ1 injection; quantification of *MXA* also shown as a control.

Additional File 5. Transcriptomic response to CHIKV at 24 and 48 hours post infection. 48h

data from (Briolat et al., 2014), 24h data from this study; only genes identified as

upregulated in the 2014 microarray study are displayed here.

A   IFNφ1 vs BSA, all genes

B   IFNφ1 vs BSA, adj *p*val<5%, FC>2

C   IFNφ1 vs BSA, adjpval<5%, FC>2

D   IFNφ1 vs BSA, adj *p*val<5%, FC>2

finTRIMs   21 ISGs out of ~80 paralogues
ENSDARG00000067661 ENSDARG00000095678 ENSDARG00000052971 ENSDARG00000026704 ENSDARG00000053293 ENSDARG00000030954 ENSDARG00000095345
ENSDARG00000038646 ENSDARG00000078065 ENSDARG00000098004 ENSDARG00000032043 ENSDARG00000095298 ENSDARG00000099940 ENSDARG00000074360
ENSDARG00000041220 ENSDARG00000100250 ENSDARG00000097679 ENSDARG00000079537 ENSDARG00000092961 ENSDARG00000095032 ENSDARG00000039852

fish-specific NLRs   6 ISGs out of ~350 paralogues (several subfamilies)
ENSDARG00000102440 ENSDARG00000077488   ENSDARG00000077673   ENSDARG00000090033   ENSDARG00000078912 ENSDARG00000087597

septin-related   2 ISGs out of 15 paralogues
ENSDARG00000053761 ENSDARG00000078093

Gig2 family   2 ISGs of 11 paralogues
ENSDARG00000088260 ENSDARG00000086903

Fish two-Ig domain   3 ISGs out of ~140 paralogues
ENSDARG00000099577 ENSDARG00000095643   ENSDARG00000071657

lectin   2 ISGs out of 14 paralogues
ENSDARG00000087318 ENSDARG00000039099

AIG1 domain   2 ISGs out of 4 paralogues
ENSDARG00000018587 ENSDARG00000078182

Shisa-related   2 ISGs out of 2 paralogues
ENSDARG00000071543 ENSDARG00000013681

multi AIG1 domains   2 ISGs out of 10 paralogues
ENSDARG00000011581 ENSDARG00000101671

phospholipase   2 ISGs out of 5 paralogues
ENSDARG00000075622 ENSDARG00000099715

NIDO domain   2 ISGs of ouf 6 paralogues
ENSDARG00000103973 ENSDARG00000101930

tandem ZNFs   2 ISGs out of ~260 genes
ENSDARG00000091243 ENSDARG00000099872

Ly-related, GPI anchor   2 ISGs out of 9 paralogues
ENSDARG00000104775 ENSDARG00000089123

large, URGCP-related   3 ISGs out of 15 paralogues
ENSDARG00000087575 ENSDARG00000101189   ENSDARG00000078832

LCATT

Conserved ISG

**Ancestral ISG
maintained in teleosts as**

single copy:
rsad2, trim25, isg15, apol

or multiple paralogues:

*ifi44, mx, isg2,herc5/6,
sp100*

**Ancestral ISG
maintained in tetrapods as**

single copy:
RSAD2,TRIM25, ISG15

or multiple paralogues:

APOL,SP100,MX

Loss and gain of
ISG in fish or tetrapods

**Genes present in
teleosts and tetrapods but
IFN-inducible only in teleosts**

ctla4	*dram1*
il4r	*irf3*
nuggc	*rel, relb*
btr	*vamp8*
steap3	*casp3*

Loss or gain
of inducibility

**Old genes present in
teleosts and tetrapods but
IFN-inducible only in tetrapods**

GZMB	*GPX2*
IFNGR1	*IRF1*
JAK2	*JUNB*
MyD88	*OPTN*
SMAD3	*IFI30*

**ISG present in teleosts,
not in tetrapods**

gig2
fintrim
fish specific nlr
fish 2-Ig domains
phospholipases
pkz

Gene loss or gene
gain either in fish or
in tetrapods

**ISG present in tetrapods,
not in teleosts**

OAS	*DDX60*
APOBEC3	*IFNLR1*
CLEC4	*IL15 & IL15RA*
RNAseL	*ISG2*
IDO1	*AIM2/IFI16*
BST2	*TRIM5, 19, 21, 22*

Table 1. Orthology groups defining ancestral ISGs

ancestral gene	zebrafish	human
OSTEICHTYAN-LEVEL ORTHOLOGUES		
ADAR	adar	ADAR
AHNAK	ahnak	AHNAK
APOL	apol	APOL1, 2, 3, 6
B2M	b2m, b2ml	B2M
BATF2	batf2	BATF2
CASP1	caspb	CASP1, CASP4
CASP7	casp7	CASP7
CCL19	ccl19a.1, a.2	CCL19
CD40	cd40	CD40
cGAS	cgas	CGAS
CMPK2	cmpk2	CMPK2
CXCL11	cxcl11.3	CXCL11
DDX58 (RIGI)	ddx58	DDX58
DHX58 (LGP2)	dhx58	DHX58
DTX3L	dtx3lb1,2,3	DTX3L
EPSTI1	epsti1	EPSTI1
FAM111	fam111.1	FAM111A
FAS	fas	FAS
FPR	fpr	FPR2
GIMAP	gimapb1	GIMAP2
HELZ2	helz2a,b	HELZ2
HERC5/6	herc56.1, 2, 3, 4	HERC5, HERC6
IFI35	ifi35	IFI35
IFI44	ifi44a1, a5, c2, d, f3-6, g	IFI44, IFI44L
IFIH1 (MDA-5)	ifih1	IFIH1
IFIT	ifit8-12, 14-16	IFIT1-3, 5
IL4i1	il4i1	IL4I1
IRF7	irf7	IRF7
IRF9	irf9	IRF9
ISG12	isg12.1-4, 6-7	IFI6, IFI27
ISG15	isg15	ISG15
LGALS9	lgals9l1, 3	LGALS9, 9C
MOV10	mov10a, b.1, b.2	MOV10
MX	mxa, b, c, e	MX1, MX2
NAMPT	nampta, namptb	NAMPT
NCOA7	ncoa7a	NCOA7
NLRC5	nlrc5	NLRC5
OGFR	ogfrl1,2	OGFR
PARP12	parp12a,b	PARP12
PARP14	parp14a,c	PARP14
PARP9	parp9	PARP9
PHF11	phf11	PHF11
PKR	pkz, eif2ak2	EIF2AK2
PMAIP1	pmaip1	PMAIP1
PSMB8	psmb8a	PSMB8
PTMA	ptmaa	PTMA
PYCARD (ASC)	pycard	PYCARD
RARRES3	rarres3	RARRES3
RNF114	rfn114	RNF114
RNF213	rnf213a,b	RNF213
RSAD2	rsad2	RSAD2
SOCS1	socs1a,b	SOCS1
SP100	sp100.1, sp100.3, sp100.4	SP100, 110, 140, 140L
STAT1	stat1a,b	STAT1
STAT2	stat2	STAT2
TAP1	tap1	TAP1
TAP2	tap2a,t	TAP2
TDRD7	tdrd7b	TDRD7
TMEM173 (STING)	tmem173	TMEM173
TRAFD1	trafd1	TRAFD1
TREX	trex3	TREX1
TRIM25	trim25	TRIM25
UBA7	uba7	UBA7
USP18	usp18	USP18
XAF1	xaf1	XAF1
ZNFX1	znfx1	ZNFX1
VERTEBRATE-LEVEL ORTHOLOGUES		
CD9	cd9r	CD9
CDKN1	cdkn1d	CDKN1A
GJ	cx30.3	GJA4
MHC class I	mhc1zba	HLA-A, -B, -C
SAMD9	samd9r	SAMD9
TABPB	tapbpr1, tapbpr2	TAPBP

Orthology groups that include ISGs in both zebrafish and human, and therefore define an ancestral IDSG in their common ancestor. This is a condensed version of Additional File 7, which also includes non-IFN inducible genes which belong to the osteichtyan-level orthology groups, and provides Ensembl Gene IDs. In red, our gene re-naming proposals.