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1 **LINKING STRESS COPING STYLES WITH BRAIN mRNA**
2 **ABUNDANCE OF SELECTED TRANSCRIPTS FOR**
3 **SENEGALESE SOLE (*Solea senegalensis*) JUVENILES.**

4

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Highlights

- Stress coping styles behavioural classification is linked with mRNA abundance in Senegalese sole juveniles.
- Senegalese sole juvenile population in captive conditions could be classified in three different stress coping styles categories; proactive, intermediate and reactive.
- Several transcripts associated with important biological aspects in Senegalese sole are differently expressed depending on the stress coping styles categories.
- This study addressed an emerging field for the fish biology related to physiology, behaviour and individual variation.

19 **Abstract**

20 In fish, proactive and reactive individual stress coping styles (SCS) have been used to
21 resolve variation in molecular expression data. Stress coping styles have been previously
22 described in several stages of *Solea senegalensis* by validating for the species the use of
23 standard behavioural screening tests. The present study aimed to link behavioural SCS
24 tests with brain transcript abundance in early Senegalese sole juveniles in order to observe
25 the natural variation in a molecular pathway in this species. A total of 50 juveniles were
26 subjected to three individual behavioural (Restraining, New environment and
27 Confinement) and one group (Risk-taking) screening tests. The fish were classified in
28 SCS categories by applying a hierarchical cluster to the variable “Total activity” (the total
29 activity time that the fish was moving in each individual test). Three categories were
30 defined, proactive, intermediate and reactive sole. Six transcripts were chosen and tested,
31 one related to basic metabolism (*gapdh-2*), three to feeding behaviour (*per1*, *igf-Ia*,
32 *pparβ*) and two to the stress response (*crh-BP* and *hsp90aa*) in 30 juveniles (10
33 individuals per SCS category) using *rt*-qPCR to observe differences in the abundance of
34 those transcripts among SCS. Four transcripts were differentially expressed (DETs)
35 among them. The transcript *gapdh-2* showed up-regulation for proactive and intermediate
36 SCS sole while reactive individuals showed down-regulation. Target mRNAs *per1*, *igf-*
37 *Ia* and *pparβ*, showed different levels of up-regulation for proactive and reactive fish
38 while intermediates were highly down-regulated. Surprisingly no differences in stress
39 related transcripts were observed. Correlations were found between variation in coping
40 styles and variation in the abundance of mRNAs involved in important biological
41 functions in Senegalese sole. These results are the first evidence of the relationship
42 between the behavioural individual variation and the fluctuation in brain transcripts
43 abundance in Senegalese sole.

44 Key words: Flatfish; Transcripts; Behavioural traits; Individual variation

45 **Introduction**

46 The study of individual differences in animal behaviour is recognised as an important
47 field in sociobiological studies related to ecology and evolution in animals (Morgan and
48 Dall, 2015). Such behavioural studies have been considered an essential tool that can be
49 used to explain individual variation inside of the same population (Reale et al., 2007;
50 Wolf and Weissing, 2012).

51 Some research has already shown that wild individuals or non-selected line from the same
52 population behave differently among them (Koolhaas et al., 1999). This difference in
53 behaviour is more evident when stressful factors are present in the environment.
54 Individuals exhibit different responses or stress coping styles (SCS) when subjected to
55 stressful or risky situations and these may range from proactive to reactive responses
56 (Koolhaas et al., 1999). Proactive animals are considered more active, aggressive, tend to
57 grow faster and may have better mating opportunities by higher dominance but show
58 lower plasticity to changes in the natural environment than reactive animals (Koolhaas et
59 al., 1999; Sih et al., 2004; Coppens et al., 2010; Wilson and Godin, 2009). Contrarily,
60 reactive animals are characterized by low levels of conspecific aggression, avoid taking
61 risk in unknown environments with lower rates of activity, and show passive behaviours
62 such as immobility in response to stressful stimuli (Koolhaas et al., 1999; Koolhaas et al.,
63 2007; Castanheira et al., 2017).

64 Moreover, the proactive versus reactive as stress coping styles extremes has been
65 reinforced by the fact that phenotypical dissimilarity might have a genetic (heritability)
66 and genomic (gene expression) influence with differences in the physiological stress axis
67 (Koolhaas et al., 1999, 2010; Øverli et al., 2007; Driscoll et al., 1998). Physiologically,
68 proactive fish have a lower activity at hypothalamus-pituitary-adrenal/interrenal (HPI)

69 level than reactive fish, which affects the stress response to different stressors, presenting
70 lower post-stress levels of glucocorticoids, which may be broadly classified to affect two
71 major categories, immunological and metabolic response (Koolhaas et al., 2010;
72 Braithwaite et al., 2011; Castanheira et al., 2017). These coping style profiles may remain
73 consistent across time and between different contexts (predation, confinement,
74 environmental variations, amongst others) for each of the individuals of the population
75 studied (Coppens et al., 2010; Braithwaite et al., 2011; Ibarra-Zatarain et al., 2016).

76 Therefore, gene expression in relation to SCS in terms of individual variation has other
77 influences and the genetic component would be delimiting the coping strategies of the
78 individuals for several features, such as behavioural responses, genomic and the
79 ecological niche. Moreover, genomic methods using fish have already offered
80 discernments into the mechanisms that trigger short and long-term environmental
81 adaptations. Individual variation has been associated with genomic variation in several
82 fish species (Huntingford et al., 2010; MacKenzie et al., 2009; Øverli, 2007; Rey et al.,
83 2013; Rey et al., 2016) and the information of mRNAs differentially expressed between
84 diverse SCS groups could be used for the interpretation of biological responses to resolve
85 variation, knowing that those variations might be adaptive or genetically fixed within the
86 population (MacKenzie et al., 2009). For example, some studies found that proactive fish
87 showed up-regulation of the immune and metabolic related genes (such as *gapdh*) after a
88 simulated infection challenge with LPS (lipopolysaccharide) as a similar bacterial
89 infection while reactive fish showed down-regulation in the same challenge (MacKenzie
90 et al., 2009; Rey et al., 2013).

91 Senegalese sole (*Solea senegalensis*) is an important marine flatfish species for the
92 European aquaculture industry due to its high market price and demand (Howell et al.,
93 2011). Furthermore, conservation measures are unknown and there exist few data on their

94 wild population (Monroe et al., 2015). Conversely, besides their aquaculture interest,
95 Senegalese sole could be used as model species to study the difference in gene expression
96 associated with coping styles categories due to the variability of stress responses recently
97 found in this species. Moreover, Senegalese sole possesses different ecological features
98 which make even more interesting the study of this behavioural-molecular association.
99 This marine flatfish species is euryhaline with high range of tolerance to environmental
100 changes (temperature and salinity) (Morais et al., 2016), however, Senegalese sole
101 species does not possess specific phenotypic characteristics to get information about the
102 individual coping styles categories. In other species these coping styles categorization has
103 had influence in the gene expression. Several behavioural tests designed specifically for
104 Senegalese sole have been published characterizing stress coping styles (proactive and
105 reactive) in juveniles and breeders (Ibarra-Zatarain et al., 2016). The same study
106 demonstrated that proactive sole reached the puberty earlier than reactive fish, had better
107 growth rate and lower levels of cortisol (Ibarra-Zatarain, 2015).

108 Considering the background information related to Senegalese sole, the aim of this study
109 was to test whether stress coping styles traits are involved in gene expression changes
110 using six candidate genes involved in several functions (basic metabolism, feeding
111 behaviour and stress response) analysed in cultured Senegalese sole (*Solea senegalensis*).
112 These mRNAs were chosen because some of them such as *gapdh* has been observed to
113 express differently depending on behavioural traits in other fish species (Mackenzie et
114 al., 2009) and others such as *per1* because is a gene involved in circadian rhythmicity
115 which is very important in species like Senegalese sole due to the change of locomotor
116 activity from day to night. It is critical to uncover the mechanisms that underlie
117 behavioural traits to understand how they have progressed, are sustained and could evolve
118 in the future.

119 **Material and Methods**

120 All trials on fish that formed part of this study were in agreement with the Spanish and
121 European regulations on animal welfare (Federation of Laboratory Animal Science
122 Associations, FELASA) and accepted by the Animal Ethics Committee of IRTA.

123 *1. Animal rearing conditions*

124 Fish used for this experiment were provided by Stolt Sea Farm (Santiago de Compostela,
125 Spain) and were transported from La Coruña to IRTA's facilities in March of 2012. Fish
126 were kept at the Research Centre facilities of IRTA, in Sant Carles de la Ràpita, North
127 East Spain and were held in 10 m³ fiberglass tanks with natural photoperiod
128 (40°62'82.42", 0°66'09.37, using artificial lighting). All tanks were located in a
129 greenhouse structure and were connected to a recirculation system (IRTAMar®) to
130 maintain a simulated natural water temperature (9 – 19 °C: winter to summer), oxygen (5
131 – 6mg l⁻¹) levels and salinity (35 – 38 ‰) levels. Sole were fed *ad libitum* five days per
132 week with balanced feed (LE - 3mm ELITE, Skretting, Co.). Fifty early juvenile
133 Senegalese sole (121.4 ± 8.1 g) were randomly selected to conduct the behavioural tests
134 in November (the temperature registered was 12 – 14 °C). Animals were moved and
135 acclimated to a 400 L fiberglass tank two weeks before tests started. The acclimation tank
136 was also connected to a recirculation system (IRTAMar®) to maintain a constant
137 temperature of 13 ± 1 °C to avoid the environmental influences on the different
138 behaviours among individuals and oxygen (5 – 6mg l⁻¹) levels. Water quality parameters
139 were registered by computer system using temperature and oxygen probes. The pooled
140 control animals used for RNAs transcripts analysis were from the same batch of the
141 experimental sole used for this study and were acclimated to the same tanks as the
142 experimental fish. Control fish were fed normally and were not used for any experimental
143 procedure to obtain objective data similar to standard husbandry conditions. All fish were

144 PIT tagged (Passive Integrated Transponder: ID100A, Unique Trovan-Zeuss; Madrid,
145 Spain) intramuscular for individual identification.

146 2. Behavioural assays

147 The tests applied were selected as appropriate SCS tests following Ibarra-Zatarain et al.,
148 (2016) who demonstrated that one “Risk-taking” in group and three individual tests
149 (“Restraining”, “New environment” and “Confinement”) screened Senegalese sole
150 juveniles into a range of different coping styles (proactive through to reactive), and those
151 tests were the most representative to explain the individual variation.

152

153 2.1. In group testing

154 The first test performed was *Risk taking in groups*. The objective of this test was to
155 determine the fish willingness to cross from a well-known “safe” area to an unfamiliar
156 area (risky zone). This has been established as a standardised test to screen for SCS in
157 fish and other animals (Smith et al., 1992; Huntingford et al., 2010; van Oers et al., 2004).
158 A 400 L fiberglass tank was divided into two equal zones by a polyvinyl chloride (PVC)
159 wall. The wall had a small window at the bottom to allow fish to cross between both
160 areas. The window was at the centre of a PIT (passive integrated transducer) tag reading
161 antenna (SQR series; TROVAN-ZEUS, Madrid, Spain) that read the tag number of the
162 fish which crossed through the window to the unfamiliar zone. (*see* Fig. S1A). The known
163 sheltered area simulated natural conditions for the species, the area was isolated from
164 light (2 *lux* on the surface) and covered by sand. On the other hand, the risky or unknown
165 area was provided with more light (15 *lux* (OSRAM DULUX 48W on the surface) and
166 the bottom was lacking substrate. Before beginning the test, the fish were acclimated 24
167 hours in the well-known sheltered zone keeping the window closed until the beginning
168 of the test. The duration of the test was 24 hours and the Risk-taking test was video

169 recorded to validate the results registered by the antenna. The test was performed for two
170 groups of 25 fish. The number of fish was the variable observed in this group behavioural
171 test.

172 *2.2. Individual testing*

173 The other stress coping style tests were performed to all 50 fish individually in a serial
174 way - when in relation to the risk test (*see* Fig. 1 for experimental design and time line of
175 the behavioural tests). All tests were performed in a serial way to ensure less fish handling
176 and stress.

177 Fish were divided and held in two tanks of 25 fish per tank. The first test performed was
178 the “Restraining” test (REST), which was evaluated by holding individual fish in a small
179 handling net inside the water for 90 seconds (*see* Fig. S1B). The net was 54 x 60 cm
180 rectangular shape, white colour with 6 mm mesh. The variables registered in this test were
181 a) the latency time or time of first activity when the fish started to move inside the net
182 and b) the total activity time that fish was moving inside the net.

183 The next test performed, was the “New environment” test (NE); fish was individually
184 placed in a plastic tank that was novel for them and so considered as a new environment.
185 The novel tank dimensions for this test were 56.5 x 36.5 x 30 cm, rectangular shape and
186 grey colour (*see* Fig. S1C). The duration of the test was of a maximum time of 5 min (300
187 seconds), during which two variables were measured: a) the latency time or time of first
188 activity when the fish started to explore the new environment and b) the total activity
189 time, which was the total time the fish spent exploring, swimming forward in the tank.

190 The last test performed was the “Confinement” test (CON); each fish was individually
191 placed in a plastic tank that simulated a confinement situation. The tank dimensions were
192 25 x 14 x 8 cm, rectangular shape and white colour (*see* Fig. S1D). The duration of the
193 test was again 5 min (300 seconds), during which two variables were measured: a) the

194 latency time or time of first activity when the fish started to move in the tank and b) the
195 total activity time referring to the total time the fish was moving.

196 For the last two tests (New environment and Confinement test), if fish did not move at all
197 during the period of the test, the maximum duration of the test (300s) was noted for
198 statistical analysis. At the end of the “Confinement” test, all animals were euthanized
199 with an overdose of MS-222 (tricaine methanesulfonate; Acros-Organic, New Jersey,
200 USA), brains were dissected, frozen in dry ice and stored at -80 °C for posterior molecular
201 analysis.

202 *Quantitative real time PCR*

203 The differential expression of brain target transcripts (*gapdh2*, *per1*, *igf-1a*, *pparβ*,
204 *hsp90aa* and *crh-BP*) for stress coping behaviour (Table 1) was measured in brains from
205 thirty sole, ten fish from each phenotypical category (proactive/intermediate/reactive)
206 (see *statistical analyses (behaviour)* section for classification of behavioural traits).
207 Target transcripts were chosen according to their proven relation to stress coping styles
208 in zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) (Rey et al., 2013) and also for their biological significance such
209 as, basic metabolism, lipid metabolism, growth, circadian rhythms and stress response.
210 Primers used were specific for Senegalese sole and already published (Table 2). The
211 mRNAs were analysed by real-time quantitative PCR (*qPCR*). Data were normalised
212 using 18S as a housekeeping transcript. Relative mRNA expression for each transcript
213 was determined using the method $(1 + ET)^{(\Delta Ct)} / (1 + ER)^{(\Delta Ct)}$ (Pfaffl, 2001). For this
214 purpose, RNA was extracted using TRI Reagent RNA Isolation Reagent following
215 manufacturer’s instructions (SigmaAldrich). The complementary DNA was synthesised
216 using 1 µg of total RNA and oligo dT(20) in 20 µl reactions and the SuperScript® III
217 First-Strand Synthesis SuperMix 50 rxn kit following the manufacturer’s protocol
218 (Invitrogen, Life technologies, USA). Before performing the *qPCR*, primers were

219 validated by conventional PCR using a cDNA pool from several samples randomly
220 chosen. The HSX My taq Mix (Bioline) was used to perform the conventional PCR with
221 the following conditions: initial activation step at 98 °C for 1 min, followed by 35 cycles:
222 denaturation at 95 °C for 10 s, annealing at T_m (58 - 60 °C) for 15 s and extension at 72
223 °C for 15 s. Primers efficiency was evaluated by serial dilutions from 10 to 10,000. The
224 *Q-rtPCR* was run using a Biometra TOptical Thermocycler (Analytik Jena, Goettingen,
225 Germany) in 96-well plates in duplicate 20 µl reaction volumes containing 10 µl of
226 Luminaris Color HiGreen qPCR Master Mix (Thermo Scientific), 1 µl of the primer
227 corresponding to the analysed transcript (10 pmol), 3 µl of RNA / DNA water free and 5
228 µl of cDNA at the validated dilution. Furthermore, amplifications were carried out with
229 a systematic negative control (NTC; no template control) containing no cDNA. Standard
230 amplification conditions contained a uracil DNA glycosylase (UDG) pre-treatment at 50
231 °C for 2 min, an initial activation step at 95 °C for 10 min, followed by 35 cycles: 15s at
232 95 °C, 30 s at the annealing T_m and 30 s at 72 °C.

233 *Statistical analyses*

234 *Behaviour*

235 Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS Statistics 20.0 (IBM®). A hierarchical
236 clustering algorithm using the Euclidean distance matrix and complete linkage method
237 was run to classify the fifty sole into different SCS categories (proactive, intermediate
238 and reactive) according to the total activity time (in seconds) of all the individual
239 behavioural tests conducted (Ibarra-Zatarain et al., 2016). A coefficient of variation (CV
240 % = SD/mean*100) was calculated for each category representing the inter-individual
241 sole variability in the population studied. Data were not distributed normally (Shapiro-
242 Wilks) in all tests and a Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric test was performed to analyse the
243 significant differences among SCS categories for the behavioural tests with non-normally

244 distributed data. However, when data was normal, the statistical test performed was One-
245 way ANOVA, followed by Tukey's *post-hoc* test.

246 Pearson rank correlation test was run to observe the possible relationship between
247 behaviours and between behaviours and genes with the possibility to strengthen the
248 differential analysis of behavioural traits. Significance was set at P - value < 0.05 for all
249 cases.

250 *Q-rtPCR*

251 Results were expressed as mean \pm S.E.M (Standard error of the mean) and statistics
252 analyses were performed using SPSS software and plotted with GraphPad Prism 6
253 software. Outliers of the corrected ratio for every mRNA on the different groups
254 (proactive, intermediate and reactive) were extracted using the Tukey's test formula ($k =$
255 1.5). All data sets analysed were normally distributed (Shapiro-Wilks), although
256 logarithmic transformation was performed when needed.

257 Raw data from both stress coping styles behaviour and mRNA abundance are available
258 in *figshare* (DOI: 10.6084/m9.figshare.6300992). Comparisons of the mRNA transcripts
259 among proactive, intermediate and reactive groups were made using One-way ANOVA,
260 followed by Tukey's *post-hoc* test. A P - value < 0.05 indicated a statistically significant
261 difference in all tests performed.

262 **Results**

263 **Behavioural assays**

264 The hierarchical cluster divided the population in three different clusters grouping similar
265 stress responses in terms on total activity (*see* Fig. S2) from the individual tests
266 "Restraining", "New environment" and "Confinement". Therefore, the final classification

267 of the hierarchical cluster was proactive, intermediate reactive animals according to the
268 total activity displayed in every individual behavioural test.

269 Senegalese sole individuals presented a wide range of responses to the different tests
270 performed indicative of inter-individual behavioural differences. The variability of the
271 individual tests for the variable total activity was similar for the tests “Restraining”
272 (REST; CV = 123.9 %) and “New Environment” (NE; CV = 132.7 %). However, the
273 “Confinement” test presented the highest variability (CON; CV= 213.9 %). According to
274 the other variables measured as first activity, NE and CON showed similar variability of
275 the data for the first activity (CV = 90.7 % and 120.7 % respectively).

276 The total activity (Fig. 2) in the “New environment” (NE; K-W = 26.13; P < 0.001; Fig.
277 2B) and “Confinement” (Con; K-W = 25.46; P < 0.001; Fig. 2C) were significantly
278 different (P < 0.05) among SCS categories. In the case of **NE**, intermediate (Total activity
279 = 34.5 s; CV = 19.5 %; P < 0.001) and proactive juveniles (Total activity = 16.2 s; CV=
280 122.0 %; P < 0.05) showed significantly higher total activity than reactive (Total activity
281 = 3.1 s; CV = 178.0 %), but there was no difference between proactive and intermediate
282 individuals. In the case of **CON**, differences were found between proactive (Total activity
283 = 55.5 s; CV = 75.6 %), being significantly higher than intermediate (Total activity = 3.8
284 s; CV = 108.0 %; P = 0.001) and reactive (Total activity = 2.1 s; CV = 147.1 %; P <
285 0.001), but not between intermediate and reactive. In the case of the restraining test,
286 **REST**, marginal differences were found among groups (K-W = 5.491; P = 0.0642; Fig.
287 2A) and there were no significant differences among proactive (Total activity = 14.1 s;
288 CV = 122.7 %), intermediate (Total activity = 13.8 s; CV = 96.7 %) and reactive (Total
289 activity = 4.9 s; CV = 55.3 %).

290 Regarding first activity (Fig. 3) the situation was similar to the total activity, so the “New
291 Environment” (NE; F_{2, 47} = 7.822; P = 0.0012; Fig. 3B) and “Confinement” (CON; F_{2, 47}

292 = 3.387; $P = 0.0423$; Fig. 3C) tests presented differences among SCS categories. In case
293 of the NE, intermediate (first activity = 38.6 s; CV = 167.0 %; $P < 0.001$) presented
294 significantly lower latencies than reactive sole juveniles (first activity = 203.6 s; CV =
295 65.4 %), however, proactive animals (first activity = 105.9 s; CV = 117 %; $P > 0.05$)
296 presented no significant differences in comparison to intermediate and reactive sole.
297 “Confinement” test, CON, showed clearly differences between proactive (first activity =
298 27.4 s; CV = 225.5 %; $P < 0.001$) and reactive latencies (first activity = 150.5 s; CV =
299 96.2 %), however, intermediate sole (first activity = 95 s; CV = 149.0 %; $P > 0.05$) did
300 not present differences in latencies with the extremes. In the case of REST, no differences
301 were found among coping styles (K-W = 2.366; $P = 0.3064$; Fig. 3A), where proactive
302 animals (first activity = 10.8 s; CV = 258.1 %), intermediate (first activity = 1.9 s; CV =
303 149.8 %) and reactive (first activity = 8.2 s; CV = 278.2 %; $P > 0.05$) showed similar
304 latencies profile.

305
306 Analysing the group-test, the risk-taking test, eleven of fifty juveniles (22 %) crossed
307 from the well-known to the unfamiliar area, 6 of them coincided with proactive
308 classification, 4 with intermediate and 1 was classified as reactive by the cluster.
309 According to the results, the classification of the stress coping style groups was
310 considered appropriate to continue with the brain transcripts abundance statistical
311 analysis.

312 **Brain transcripts abundance**

313 Brain mRNAs abundance was analysed in ten individuals from each SCS category
314 (proactive, intermediate and reactive). In the case of the reactive group, the ten fish
315 considered as the most reactive (the last ten fish in the list of the hierarchical cluster) were
316 used to balance the number among categories. According to the brain transcripts
317 abundance in sole juveniles, the abundance or expression of four of the six mRNAs tested

318 were significantly different among coping styles' categories. In the case of
319 glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenases 2 (*gapdh-2*) proactive and intermediate
320 individuals (up-regulated) exhibited significantly higher expression than reactive
321 individuals (down-regulated) ($F_{2,27} = 8.173$; $P = 0.0017$; Fig. 4A). The other transcripts
322 that were differentially expressed, presented similar expression profile for the extremes
323 categories (proactive and reactive), which were up-regulated and were significantly
324 differently expressed than intermediate (down-regulated): Period 1 (*per1*) ($K-W = 14.43$;
325 $P = 0.0007$; Fig. 4B), Insuline-like Growth factor (*igf-Ia*) ($F_{2,27} = 4.606$; $P = 0.0190$; Fig.
326 4C) and Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (*pparβ*) ($F_{2,25} = 7.554$; $P = 0.0027$;
327 Fig. 4D). The other two transcripts did not present significant differences in expression,
328 Specific hypothalamic corticotropin-releasing hormone (CRH) binding protein (*crh-BP*)
329 ($F_{2,24} = 0.4842$; $P = 0.6221$) and Heat shock protein 90, alpha (cytosolic) class (*hsp90aa*)
330 ($F_{2,27} = 2.346$; $P = 0.1150$).

331 **Behavioural and brain mRNA abundance relationship**

332 First of all, correlation among variables from the different behavioural tests was observed
333 to try to discern the association among them. To observe the complete map of the
334 relationship, the data was not split in categories, it was treated in continuous. In this
335 context, the Restraining variables (first and total activity) do not present significantly
336 correlation between them ($r = -0.158$; $P = 0.403$), however, negatively correlation was
337 observed between the New environment variables (first and total activity) ($r = -0.655$; P
338 $= 0.001$) and also Confinement variables (first and total activity) ($r = -0.382$; $P = 0.037$).
339 It is worth mentioning that there was no correlation among the variables from the different
340 behavioural tests observed in this study.
341 In case of the association among the candidate genes used for this study, *gapdh-2* is
342 slightly correlated with *per1* ($r = 0.395$; $P = 0.031$), good correlated with *hsp90aa* ($r =$

343 0.713; $P < 0.001$), *igf-a* ($r = 0.548$; $P = 0.002$), and *ppar β* ($r = 0.619$; $P = 0.001$). The *per1*
344 transcript was strongly correlated with *igf-a* ($r = 0.774$; $P < 0.001$) and *ppar β* ($r = 0.641$;
345 $P = 0.001$). The *hsp90aa* gene was positively correlated with *igf-a* ($r = 0.414$; $P = 0.023$)
346 and *ppar β* ($r = 0.596$; $P = 0.001$). The *igf-a* gene was strongly correlated with *ppar β* ($r =$
347 0.758 ; $P < 0.001$) and slightly correlated with *crh-bp* ($r = 0.375$; $P = 0.041$). The *ppar β*
348 transcript was correlated with *crh-bp* ($r = 0.549$; $P = 0.002$).

349 After the observation whether genes involved in several biological functions varied in
350 expression with coping styles, the individual correlation was carried out to observe the
351 relationship between coping styles variables from the different behavioural tests applied
352 and gene expression (Table 3). In this case, there were just two variables from the same
353 behavioural test (“New environment”) which obtained significant correlation with the
354 expression of 4 mRNAs of the 6 tested (*Per1*, *hsp90aa*, *ppar β* and *crh-bp*). However,
355 there exist some association between behavioural variables and gene expression which
356 were not significantly correlated but showed a clear trend. For example, first activity from
357 Confinement test was slightly non-correlated with *gapdh-2* ($r = 0.315$; $P = 0.09$) and
358 *hsp90aa* ($r = 0.323$; $P = 0.082$).

359 **Discussion**

360 In the present study natural variation in mRNA brain abundance of selected transcripts
361 was described in cultured Senegalese sole early stage juveniles and whether coping traits
362 were associated with these transcriptional differences. Based on previous studies
363 differences in mRNA brain abundance were expected in relation to the behavioural traits
364 (Mackenzie et al., 2009; Aubin-Horth et al., 2012; Rey et al., 2013).

365 **Behavioural assays**

366 In terms of the behavioural study, previous studies have demonstrated that the same
367 behavioural tests conducted in this study classify animals according to their behavioural

368 traits (proactive through to reactive) in diverse fish species, such as stickleback
369 (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*) (Bell, 2005), gilt-head seabream (*Sparus aurata*) (Castanheira
370 et al., 2013) and zebrafish (Tudorache et al., 2015). In the present study we classified
371 early stage Senegalese sole juveniles in three SCS categories (proactive, intermediate and
372 reactive) using a hierarchical cluster analysis. The present study considered the
373 intermediate as another category having in mind the association of the presence of this
374 category with captive environment. Oortmerssen and Busser (1989), observed in a natural
375 feral mice population a proactive and reactive bimodal distribution of SCS variables.
376 However, this distribution changed when the experiment was performed under laboratory
377 conditions (controlled), where another coping style category was found, the intermediate,
378 probably due to the low natural selection pressure in captive conditions. In case of the
379 Senegalese sole, domestication could be the reason of the presence of this third coping
380 category, as under captive conditions animals have no biological limited resources such
381 as food, proper habitat conditions (pH, temperature, salinity...) and no predators, so there
382 are no or different selective pressures acting upon them. This model, with proactive,
383 reactive and intermediate coping styles has been observed in a widespread variety of
384 animal species, including fish such as African catfish (*Clarias gariepinus*) (van de
385 Nieuwegiessen et al. 2010), several salmonids species (Huntingford and Adams, 2005),
386 among others. The presence of correlation between the variables of the different
387 behavioural tests denoted the importance of phenotypic pleiotropy to perceive the
388 variability of the population. However, no correlation was observed among variables
389 from the different behavioural tests applied, showing the possibility that the activity in
390 this species fluctuates depending on the test conducted. Hence, in the present study,
391 proactive sole presented lower latencies and higher activity than reactive, indicating
392 higher explorative behaviour and different response to stressful circumstances. However,

393 intermediate sole is less consistent obtaining a different profile according to the
394 behavioural test conducted.

395 **Brain transcripts abundance**

396 Gene expression data is usually difficult to analyse in terms of variability, which could
397 be influenced by several factors including environmental elements. The interpretation of
398 such interactions with the different variations between individuals inter and intra-
399 populations have remarkable potential for evolution, unravelling the patterns of gene
400 expression and phenotypic variation (Whitehead and Crawford, 2006). In our study, those
401 interactions were considered according to the different coping styles profiles (proactive,
402 intermediate and reactive) where Senegalese sole provided different levels of mRNAs
403 transcript abundances under the same environmental conditions (temperature,
404 photoperiod, salinity, oxygen saturation, feeding regime...) exposing the fish to some
405 kind of challenge which has been considered the stress coping styles behavioural tests.
406 Hence, differences in behavioural traits might reveal a specific outline presenting
407 altogether a specific profile, phenotype and genotype.

408 The few studies that have been completed have found a clear relationship between stress
409 coping styles classification and gene expression. In this context, the results of the present
410 study were in concordance to previous studies, for example, MacKenzie et al. (2009)
411 found differences in transcript abundance between proactive and reactive common carp
412 (*Cyprinus carpio*) when those animals were under the same environmental circumstances
413 (temperature and photoperiod) and applying an immune challenge afterwards. In that
414 report, coping styles were included in the analysis reducing the unexplained variation and
415 increasing the interpretation of the experimental data.

416 The transcripts abundance profile was carried out by *q*-rtPCR in 6 specific mRNAs
417 (*gapdh2*, *Per1*, *igf-Ia*, *pparβ*, *hsp90aa* and *crh-BP*) where 4 of the 6 candidate mRNAs

418 (*gapdh2*, *pparβ*, *igf-Ia* and *Per1*) were considered differential expressed transcripts
419 (DETs) suggesting that there exist variations in the transcriptome among Senegalese sole
420 individuals classified by coping styles. The primers of all these mRNAs have been
421 published before exhibiting the importance of the study of these ones associated with
422 Senegalese sole species. Specifically, the different mRNAs chosen for this study were
423 related to basic metabolism, stress responses and biologic conditions specifics for
424 Senegalese sole, which could provide important information in terms of development (*see*
425 Table 2). Differences in metabolism have been linked with changes in coping styles in
426 some species (Biro and Stamps, 2008; Martins et al., 2011), including fish such as
427 zebrafish (Rey et al., 2013), common carp (MacKenzie et al., 2009; Rey et al., 2016),
428 Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*) (Vera Cruz and Brown, 2007) and rainbow trout
429 (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) (Thomson et al., 2011) where these studies associated
430 physiological and gene expression variation with behavioural phenotypic traits. One of
431 the most recent studies performed on sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*) (Alfonso et al.,
432 2019) found some transcripts linked with stress axis and neurogenesis were differently
433 expressed depending on the behavioural traits, however, this species has not shown
434 consistency in boldness over time using different behavioural tests (group and
435 individual).

436 In the present study, one of the transcripts differentially expressed was Glyceraldehyde-
437 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (*gapdh*), which is habitually used as a housekeeping
438 transcript for its ubiquitous presence in all tissues in quantitative *rt*-PCR. However, there
439 are facts that evidence that *gapdh* levels of expression may vary among tissues,
440 development, or during different physiological processes including behavioural traits
441 (MacKenzie et al., 2009; Rey et al., 2013). Moreover, *gapdh* was discarded as a suitable
442 housekeeping transcript for Senegalese sole (Infante et al., 2008). The metabolic function

443 might be compromised by acute and chronic stress, explaining why *gapdh-2*, which has
444 been demonstrated to be the *gapdh* isoform more expressed in brain in Senegalese sole
445 (Manchado et al., 2007), was up-regulated in proactive sole relative to reactive fish
446 (down-regulated). MacKenzie et al. (2009) made similar observations with common carp,
447 where *gapdh* presented up-regulation in proactive fish and down-regulation in reactive
448 animals demonstrating differences between coping styles and basic metabolism. These
449 outcomes would be consider similar to the association found by Ibarra-Zatarain et al.,
450 2016 between physiological response and behavioural traits in Senegalese sole, who
451 perceived differences in cortisol concentration between proactive (low concentration) and
452 reactive sole (high concentration). As observed before, *gapdh-2* expression was
453 correlated with the expression of *per1*, *ppar β* , *hsp90aa* and *igf-I* genes, exhibiting that all
454 these transcripts are also involved with metabolism, however, the distinct expression
455 profiles in the different behavioural traits show that there is large inter-individual
456 variation in post-stress responses in early Senegalese sole juveniles affecting gene
457 expression.

458 The other three mRNAs (*ppar β* , *igf-Ia* and *per1*) differentially expressed among coping
459 style categories in this study, presented similar expression profiles in proactive and
460 reactive animals which were up-regulated and intermediate animals presented high down-
461 regulation, and these transcripts are associated with feeding behaviour and nutrition.
462 There are no data to compare with in other fish species in relation with these specific
463 transcripts and individual variation in mRNA abundance. Moreover, the expression of
464 these three genes presented a strong correlation, highlighting the relationship among them
465 in functionality and expression profile. In general, intermediate animals present more
466 behavioural plasticity than the extremes coping styles categories, proactive and reactive
467 (Dingemanse et al., 2010). According to these results in mRNAs abundance, intermediate

468 sole presented also different profiles depending on the behavioural test performed (*for*
469 *more detail see Fig. 2*).

470 The first transcript differentially expressed associated with nutrition was peroxisome
471 proliferator-activated receptor (*pparβ*). This transcript is implicated in the skeletal, brain
472 and skin functions in mammals (Lee et al., 2003; Giaginis et al., 2007) and in addition,
473 this nuclear receptor has been associated with the early step towards adipogenesis.
474 Moreover, *pparβ* is a target transcript for fatty acids and vitamin A. The expression of
475 *pparβ* is influenced by nutrition in fish such as gilthead seabream (Fernandez et al., 2011)
476 and sea bass (Vagner et al., 2009) acting as regulators of lipid and lipoprotein metabolism
477 and associated with feeding behaviour. The second transcript associated with nutrition
478 and feeding behaviour was Insuline-like growth factor I (*igf-I*) which shows a central role
479 in postnatal growth in mammals (Baxter, 1994). *Insuline-like growth factor I* mRNA
480 profile in hepatic and non-hepatic tissues are dependent to the growth hormone (GH),
481 which is synthesized in the pituitary gland and secreted into the blood circulation under
482 the regulation of different factors such as neuronal, hormonal and nutritional.
483 Nevertheless, GH does not appear to control the relative expression of *igf-I* in non-hepatic
484 tissues in fish. Duan (1998) demonstrated that *igf-I* is highly conserved between fish and
485 mammals and is found in all development stages in fish. Besides, nutritional status has a
486 deep effect on *igf-I* expression in fish. The third transcript associated with feeding
487 behaviour was period 1 (*per1*), which is one of the clock genes that control the circadian
488 rhythm. The *period* genes (*per1*, *per2* and *per3*) are negative regulators, which inhibit the
489 CLOCK and BMAL1 activators (Reppert and Weaver, 2002). This mechanism is cyclic,
490 where the expression of clock genes is approximately daily. The transcripts, *per* are
491 expressed during daylight (diurnal), however, CLOCK and BMAL1 are expressed at
492 night (nocturnal). Fish have a feeding schedule when they are under captive conditions

493 and feeding can work as a strong synchronizer of circadian rhythms in several animals,
494 increasing the locomotor activity some hours before the food is provided, which is called
495 food anticipatory activity (Mistlberger, 2009). In case of the Senegalese sole, even
496 though, is considered a nocturnal species, it has been observed that feeding schedule can
497 modify the locomotor activity to diurnal when they are in captive conditions, due to
498 operational activities (Carazo et al., 2016). This activity can affect the expression of the
499 clock genes, for example in zebrafish it was observed that the animals exposed to different
500 lights and different feeding schedules, including random feeding presented different *perl*
501 expression profiles (Lopez-Olmeda et al., 2010). In the random feeding regime, the
502 animals did not present food anticipatory activity and *perl* expression rhythm
503 disappeared demonstrating the importance of feeding behaviour in the circadian
504 rhythmicity. In the present study, sole were fasted 24 hours prior to the behavioural tests
505 and according to their feeding regime all sole used for the experiment should present
506 similar expression profile, however, only proactive and reactive presented up-regulation
507 in every transcript of these three and intermediate sole showed high down-regulation, so
508 the different expression among coping styles categories of those genes might be explained
509 just by the behavioural screening prior to molecular analysis.

510 Intriguingly, both stress-related transcripts (*hsp90aa* and *crh-BP*) tested in this study were
511 not differentially expressed among coping styles categories. Curiously, *hsp90aa*
512 expression was also correlated with *ppar β* and *igf-I*, associated with feeding behaviour
513 and nutrition, but the expression of this transcript was not correlated with *crh-bp* that
514 presents another expression profile. The *hsp90* transcript has been associated with
515 nutritional stress in early stages in fish (Cara et al., 2005) and as a protection against
516 different stressors such as infections, heat shock, etc. (Basu et al., 2002). In previous
517 studies performed with Senegalese sole revealed that *hsp90aa* was activated in the

518 moment that sole was under a heat shock treatment, however, no significant differences
519 were found after a cold shock treatment. Nevertheless, in our study, all animals used for
520 the experiment were under the same prior and experimental conditions without any
521 treatment, so the change in the regulation of *hsp90aa* transcript could be caused by the
522 variability between individuals due to the behavioural tests conducted. The crh-binding
523 protein is considered different from the crh receptors and it is very conservative among
524 phylum, suggesting that the functions are also evolutionary conserved. Corticotropin
525 releasing hormone binding protein (*crh-BP*) presented down-regulation in the three
526 groups, but the variability intra- and inter-group resulted higher than the other transcripts.
527 This could be explained whether the animals did not accuse a high influence according to
528 the stressful period performing the different tests. Wunderink et al. (2011) found that *crh-*
529 *BP* levels were not affected at different stocking densities (chronic stress response) in
530 Senegalese sole and in addition, the *crh-BP* expression was improved in both densities
531 when animals were moved to hypersaline seawater (acute stress response) proposing that
532 *crh-BP* worked as a modulator of the acute stress reaction. Another study showed that the
533 exposure to air during 30 seconds in Senegalese sole did not alter the expression of *crh-*
534 *BP* transcript (Lopez-Olmeda et al., 2013). The stress-induced regulation of this transcript
535 in fish, seems to be related to the sort of stress and its duration. Therefore, in the present
536 study, the down-regulation in all groups could be explained that in the moment the fish
537 finished the tests did not present an acute stress, however, the variability in the three
538 coping style categories proposed that the expression of this transcript could be analysed
539 individually. The association of *hsp90aa* transcript to SCS has not been evaluated in other
540 fish species before the present study. However, other transcripts related to stress axis (*mr,*
541 *crf, crf-r2, pomc1, gr1 and gr2*) were tested to associate gene expression and SCS in other
542 fish species, such as, stickleback (Aubin-Horth et al., 2012) and sea bass (Alfonso et al.,

2019). Some of those transcripts were differentially expressed depending on behavioural traits, for example in case of sea bass, *mr*, *crf*, and *gr2* were higher expressed in shy fish (considered as reactive). In the present study the expression of *crh-BP* transcript was down-regulated in all behavioural traits, showing a pattern of expression completely different from sea-bass *crf* transcript expression. These differences with our study could be related to the differences in activity and swimming behaviour, which is completely dissimilar between sea bass (constantly swimming and active) and sole (sedentary during long periods). However, it is worth to mention here that the expression of the *crh* and *crh-BP* are not always comparable, due to the high variability in mRNA expression inside the CRH system and among species. For example, social status variation using visual cues in African cichlid (*Astatotilapia burtoni*) showed higher expression in whole brain *crf* and *crf-BP* in dominant males than subordinates (Chen and Fernald, 2011). Therefore, social status would be one of the reasons to obtain differences in stress responses. Recent studies have been observed differences in physiological responses in sea bass depending on social hierarchy where dominant fish presented different muscle activity, immune response and stress response (Carbonara et al., 2015, 2019).

Nevertheless, the results from this study suggest that the life strategy, the absence of constant swimming, activity, sedentary and non-aggressive behaviour (Salas-Leiton et al., 2010; Fatsini et al., 2017) of Senegalese sole could be behind these differences compared with active species, showing the variability of the data depending on the different behavioural tests conducted. Moreover, there was no relationship between SCS classification and social status in this species (*data not shown*), that means that proactive sole did not always display dominance behaviour, being also variable depending on the dominance test applied. However, Ibarra-Zatarain et al., 2016 demonstrated the presence of two clear stress coping behavioural axes (“fearfulness-reactivity” and “activity-

568 exploration”) in this species, which are also reflected in this study noticing the results
569 from different behavioural test and brain gene expression.

570 **Conclusions**

571 In conclusion, Senegalese sole were classified into three different stress coping style
572 groups, proactive, intermediate and reactive. One transcript, *gapdh-2* was differentially
573 expressed between proactive and reactive behavioural trait and three DETs were
574 differentially expressed between the intermediate group and the other SCS categories.
575 The three DETs may have importance to screen for intermediate individuals. Coping style
576 and molecular expression appear to be linked in this species with clear differential
577 expression between behavioural traits, however, the transcriptional expression pattern of
578 Senegalese sole in relation to SCS was different to the patterns observed in other fish
579 species, these differences may be due to species specific behavioural differences.
580 Altogether indicates the complexity and the potential to explain mechanisms controlling
581 behavioural pleiotropy and increase our understanding of the molecular context of
582 adaptive variation among individuals within and between populations. Besides, this
583 knowledge of coping styles could improve management and welfare under captive
584 conditions, to envisage population dynamics widening information for its status
585 conservation. However, more physiological and functional studies are needed to
586 understand the effects of the stress coping style phenotypes to the development of this
587 species in captivity.

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589
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595

596 **Competing interests**

597 The authors have no competing interests.

598

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848

849 **Figure Legends:**

850

851 **Figure 1. Chronogram illustrating the experimental design of the different stress**
852 **coping style (SCS) tests performed by early Senegalese sole juveniles ($n = 50$). First**
853 **activity (1st act), escape attempts and total activity.**

854

855 **Figure 2. Stress coping style tests regarding Total activity variable in seconds in**
856 **early Senegalese sole juveniles ($n = 50$). A) Restraining, B) New environment and C)**

857 Confinement compared among the different stress coping style categories (proactive,
858 intermediate and reactive) classified according to total activity measurement. Data was
859 shown in Mean \pm SEM. Different letters means to be significantly different (Kruskal-
860 Wallis $P < 0.05$ level of significance).

861

862 **Figure 3. Stress coping style tests regarding First activity variable in seconds in early**
863 **Senegalese sole juveniles ($n = 50$).** A) Restraining B) New environment and C)
864 Confinement compared among the different stress coping style categories (proactive,
865 intermediate and reactive) classified according to total activity measurement. Data was
866 shown in Mean \pm SEM. Different letters means to be significantly different (Kruskal-
867 Wallis or One-Way ANOVA $P < 0.05$ level of significance).

868

869 **Figure 4. Brain transcripts abundance of different genes which were differentially**
870 **expressed among groups (proactive, intermediate and reactive) in early Senegalese**
871 **sole juveniles ($n = 30$).** A) *gapdh-2*, B) *per1*, C) *igh-Ia* and D) *ppar β* . Data was
872 transformed to Log₁₀ and was shown in Mean \pm SEM. Different letters means to be
873 significantly different expressed (One-Way ANOVA $P < 0.05$ level of significance).

Figure 1

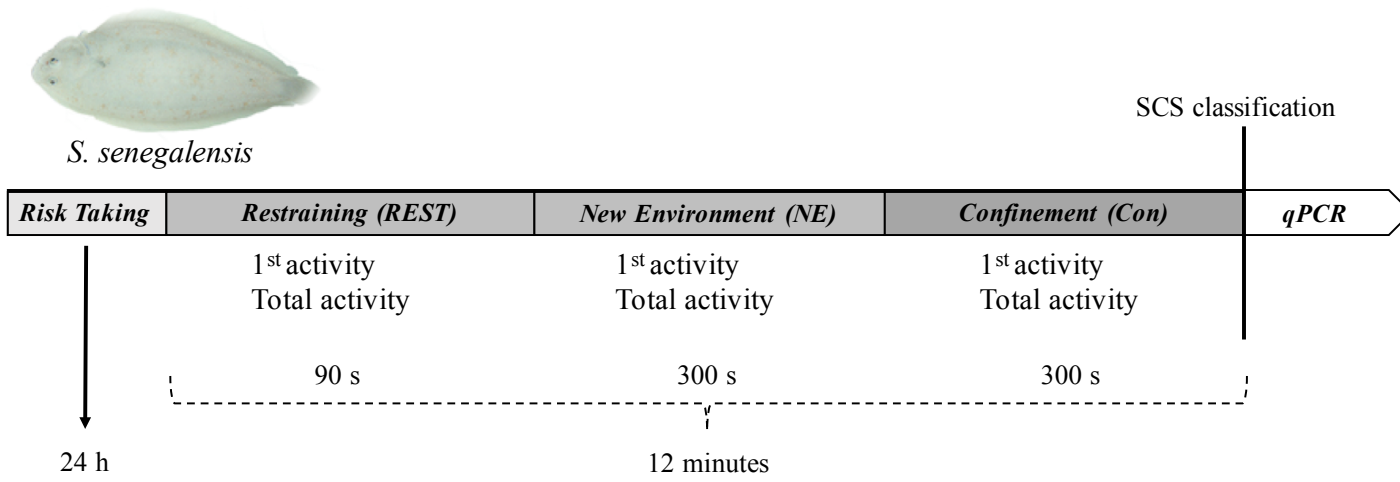


Figure 2

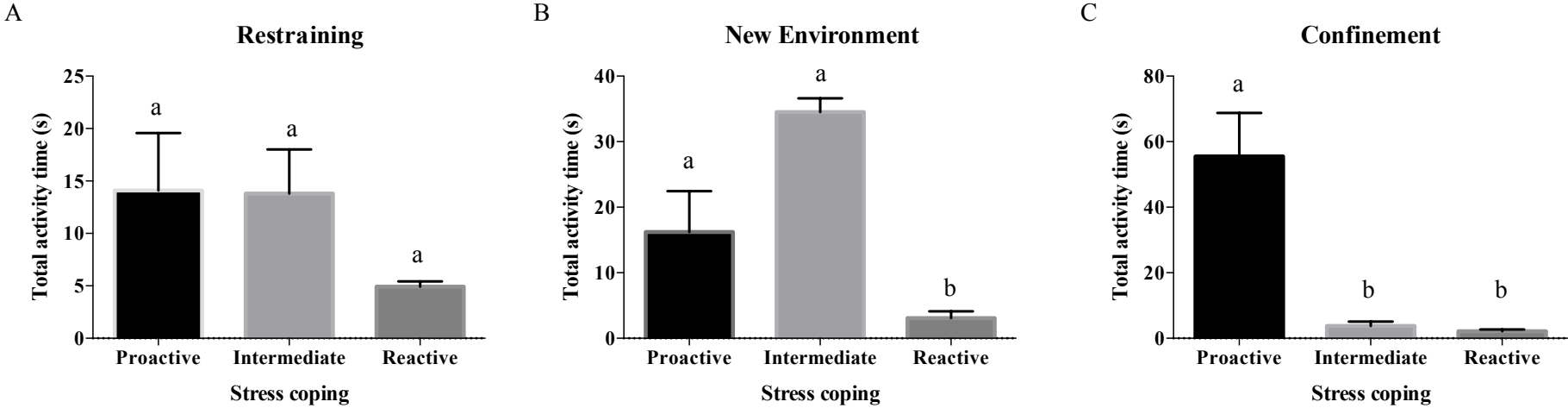


Figure 3

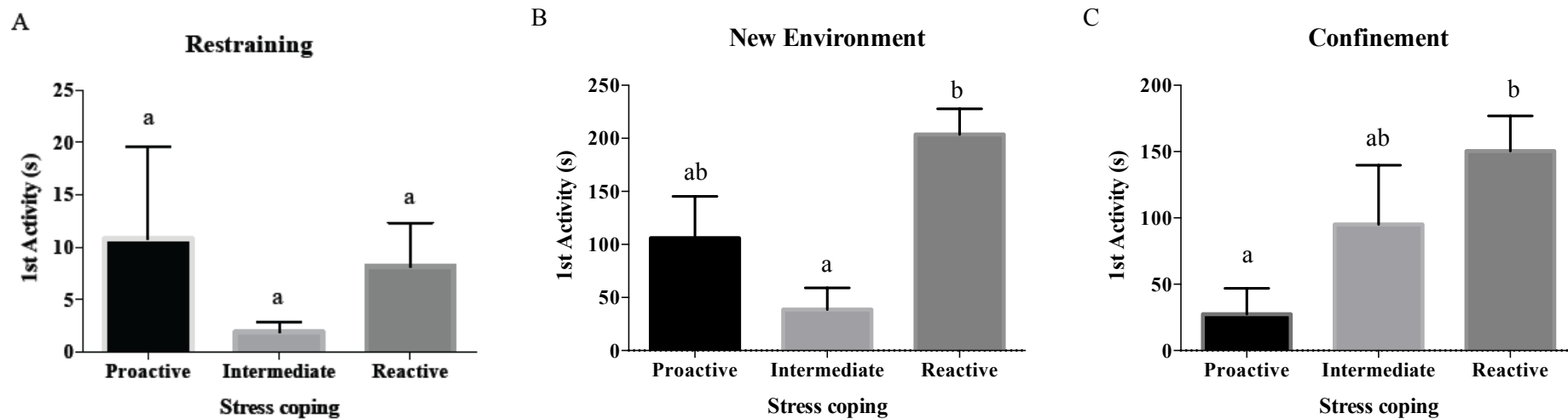
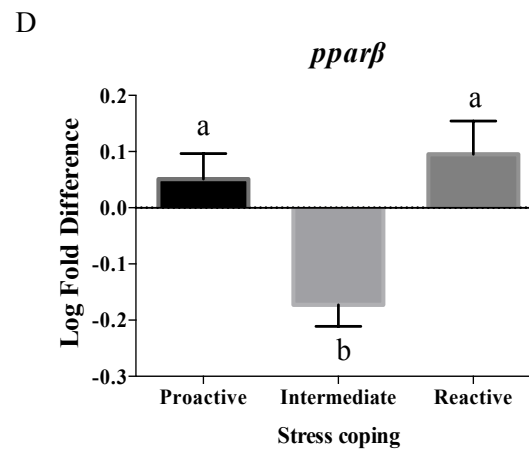
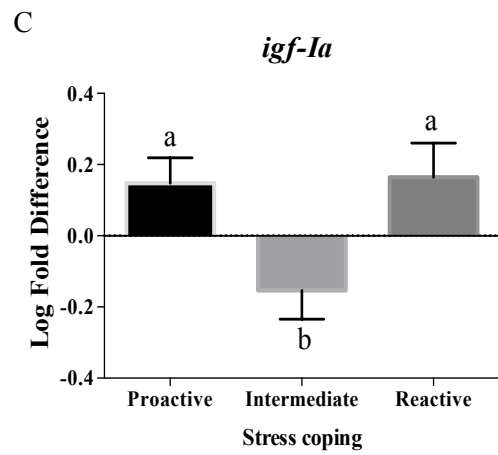
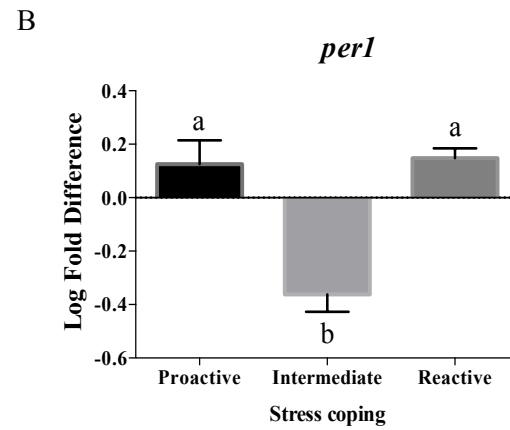
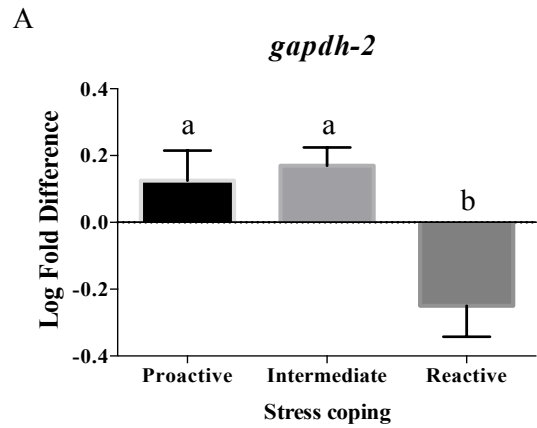


Figure 4

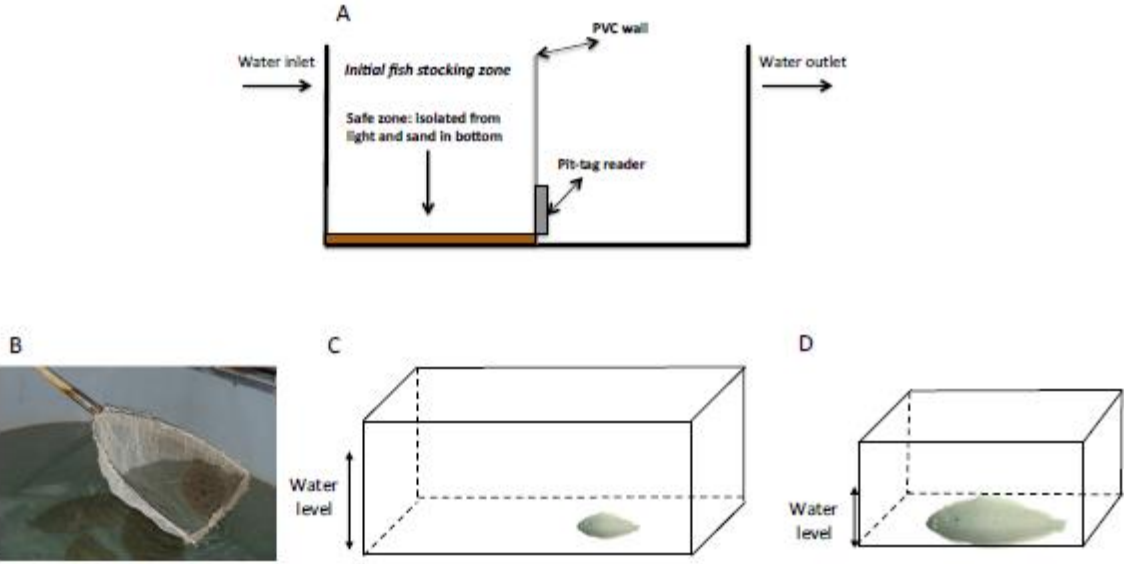


Legends:

Supplementary Figure 1. Description of material and indications to perform the coping styles tests on Senegalese sole juveniles. A Risk-taking test; B Restraining test; C New environment test; D Confinement test.

Supplementary Figure 2. Distribution of the Senegalese sole juveniles (n = 50) applying hierarchical cluster according to the “Total activity” variable of the three behavioural tests (Restraining, New environment and Confinement) conducted.

Supplementary Figure 1



Supplementary Figure 2

