ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Seasonal and Sex-specific mRNA Levels of Key Endocrine Genes in Adult Yellow Perch (*Perca flavescens*) from Lake Erie

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Abstract To better understand the endocrine mechanisms that underlie sexually dimorphic growth (females grow faster) in yellow perch (Perca flavescens), real-time quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) was used to measure pituitary, liver, and ovary mRNA levels of genes related to growth and reproduction-sex in this species. Adult perch were collected from Lake Erie and body mass, age, gonadosomatic index (I_G) , hepatosomatic index (I_H) , and gene expression for growth hormone (GH), prolactin, somatolactin, insulin-like growth factor Ib (IGF-Ib), estrogen receptor α (esr1), estrogen receptor βa (esr2a), and aromatase (cyp19a1a) were measured. Females had higher body mass, I_H, and liver esr1 mRNA level than males, while males had higher liver IGF-Ib, liver esr2a, and liver cvp19a1a mRNA levels. In both sexes, season had a significant effect on GH and liver IGF-Ib mRNAs with higher levels occurring in spring, which also corresponded with higher liver cyp19a1a mRNA levels. For females, $I_{\rm G}$, liver esr1, and ovary cyp19a1a mRNA levels were higher in autumn than the spring, and ovary cyp19a1a mRNA levels showed a significant negative correlation with pituitary GH and liver IGF-Ib mRNA levels. The most significant $(p \le 0.001)$ relationships across the parameters measured were positive correlations between liver IGF-Ib and esr2a mRNA levels and liver IGF-Ib and cyp19a1a mRNA levels. This study shows significant effects of season and sex on adult yellow perch endocrine physiology.

Keywords Yellow perch · Hormone · Physiology · mRNA · Teleost

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Introduction

Yellow perch (Perca flavescens Mitchell) is an economically, ecologically, and recreationally important teleost species throughout the upper Midwest (Malison 1999), especially in the Great Lakes, and have historically comprised the largest inland fishery in North America (Troutman 1980). Commercial fisheries harvest more than ten million pounds per year of yellow perch from the Great Lakes, with greater than 80% coming from Lake Erie (Malison 1999; Kinnunen 2003). Yellow perch are one of a group of fishes (including flatfish, carp, and salmon, etc.) which exhibit a sexual size dimorphism (SSD) in which females grow faster than males (Malison et al. 1988; Devlin and Nagahama 2002; Chen et al. 2007). The basis for SSD is complex and unclear, but growth in species that display SSD has been linked to hormonal cues involved with sexual maturation (Devlin and Nagahama 2002). As for yellow perch, the female-biased SSD has been demonstrated in

laboratory (Schott et al. 1978) and wild populations (Hile and Jobes 1942), but it was not until the mid-1980s that 17β-estradiol (E₂) was determined to be a growth promoter in yellow perch SSD (Malison et al. 1985, 1986, 1988). In a series of experiments using E2, MT, triiodothyronine, and zeranol, with different size classes of juvenile perch, Malison et al. (1985) found that only the low dosages of E_2 (2 and 20 μg g⁻¹ diet) significantly stimulated growth in both sexes of fish which were 80-110 mm total length (TL) or greater. The critical size range of 80-110-mm TL is the same size at which females normally begin to outgrow males (Schott et al. 1978) and female-biased SSD is first observed. This size range is also the minimum body size for the onset of vitellogenesis in females and spermatogenesis in males (Malison et al. 1986), suggesting an upregulation of E₂ receptors (ERs) on target tissues (ovary, liver, or pituitary) and a coinciding increase in tissue expression of growth factors. While yellow perch SSD is first manifested in juvenile fish (80–110-mm TL), it remains readily apparent in adult yellow perch with or without estrogen treatment. Hayward and Wang (2001) found that growth rate and growth efficiency of adult female vellow perch exceeded those of males twofold in animals fed without restriction or hormone treatment. These observations point out a clear linkage between growth and reproductive endocrinology in this species. Similar relationship have been shown in salmonids and the sex-dependent growth has been linked to chromosomal regions associated with sex determination, sexual maturation, and reproductive hormones known to be involved with steroid production (Devlin and Nagahama 2002; Haidle et al. 2008; Patil and Hinze 2008).

Several endocrine genes associated with growth and estrogen physiology have recently been cloned and characterized in the yellow perch (Roberts et al. 2004; Lynn and Shepherd 2007; Lynn et al. 2008). In vertebrates, the pituitary gland is the "master gland" and as such at least partially regulates aspects of growth and reproduction. Pituitary growth hormone (GH) and insulin-like growth factor I (IGF-I), primarily produced in the liver, are considered to be the key players in the growth process (Duan 1997). Many studies have shown a causative effect of GH on the release of hepatic IGF-I (Carnevali et al. 2005) and it is believed that much of the effect GH has on growth is mediated through IGF-I (Vong et al. 2003). There is increasing evidence that somatolactin (SL), a pituitary hormone found only in fish, is involved in metabolism, sexual maturation, and reproductive cycle regulation (Mayer et al. 1998) with the highest SL receptor levels in masu salmon (Oncorhynchus masou) found in liver and fat tissue (Fukada et al. 2005). Prolactin (PRL), another pituitary hormone, has long been suspected of involvement in fish reproduction based on its well-known role in mammalian reproduction (Freeman et al. 2000) and the ability of tilapia (Oreochromis mossambicus Peters) PRL (tPRL₁₇₇) to elevate IGF-I mRNA levels in the liver (Shepherd et al. 1997) indicates that PRL may possess somatotropic actions similar to GH. Estrogen receptors (ERs) are distributed in many tissues in teleosts (gonad, liver, brain, and pituitaries; Choi and Habibi 2003; Lynn et al. 2008) and are intricately involved in sexual determination and development (Guiguen et al. 1999). Estrogen levels, however, are controlled primarily by P450 aromatase (cyp19a1a), the terminal enzyme in the conversion of testosterone to estrogen. Cvp19a1a is expressed in many tissues associated with reproduction (gonad, brain, and pituitary; Kumar et al. 2000; Lynn et al. 2008) and growth (liver, brain, and pituitary; Menuet et al. 2003; Lynn et al. 2008) and varies with sexual maturation (Melo and Ramsdell 2001), age, and season (González and Piferrer 2003). Because of the clear link between growth and sex in yellow perch, there is a need for a better understanding of the basal levels and interactions of these endocrine genes in this species.

The cDNAs for yellow perch GH, PRL, SL, IGF-Ib, esr1, esr2a, and cyp19a1a have recently been published (Roberts et al. 2004; Lynn and Shepherd 2007; Lynn et al. 2008) and in this study we developed real-time quantitative PCR (qPCR) assays to measure mRNA or expression levels of these genes in a natural population of yellow perch from Lake Erie. Against this background, yellow perch were sampled twice per year, just after spawning (May) and during the autumnal period when growth and gonadal recrudescence occurs (October), over a 2-year period. We examined the seasonal expression levels of these key endocrine genes in target tissues, from both adult male and female yellow perch, to obtain baseline data on the seasonal expression of these genes to gain a better understanding of their sex-specific regulation which will hopefully aid in future efforts aimed at elucidating the potential endocrine pathways involved with estrogenstimulated SSD in this species.

Materials and Methods

Sample Collections

Adult yellow perch (*P. flavescens*) from Lake Erie were sampled in late May and October for 2 years from October 2002 to May 2004. Trap nets owned by a commercial fisheries company, Swartz Fisheries (Port Clinton, OH, USA), which are designed to exclude fish less than 15.24 cm (6 in.) in length, were set (~12-m depth) and maintained just north of Sandusky, OH, USA (approximate N 41 22 875, W 082 30 833) for the duration of the yellow perch commercial fishing season (May to October) and were



tended every 3 days. On sample days, nets were pulled and up to 30 adult fish were randomly placed into 19-L aerated buckets (five per bucket). Fish were anesthetized with 50 mg L^{-1} of MS222 and 100 mg L^{-1} of NaHCO₃ to minimize a stress response and, once on shore, the fish were given a lethal dose of MS222 (1 g L^{-1}), weighed, and sexed and pituitaries, livers, and ovaries were collected. Whole livers and ovaries were weighed to determine hepatosomatic index ($I_{\rm H}$) and gonadosomatic index ($I_{\rm G}$), respectively, and tissues were immediately frozen, transported to the University of Kentucky, and stored at $-80^{\circ}{\rm C}$ until analysis.

Sample Preparations and Analysis

Otoliths were removed and age was determined by drying, viewing a fractured portion of the otolith under a dissecting microscope and counting the annular rings (DeVries and Frie 1996). Age was not determined for all fish, as in some cases otoliths were not recovered. For each sampling time point (four: twice per year for 2 years), six male and six female sets of samples were randomly chosen for gene expression analyses. Ovaries were stripped of oocytes and manually homogenized and approximately 1 mg of each ovary and liver tissue was mechanically homogenized for RNA extraction. Whole pituitaries were mechanically homogenized and total RNA was extracted from all samples with the GenEluteTM Mammalian Total RNA Kit (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) and treated with amplification-grade DNase I (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA). RNA samples were quantified on a NanoDrop ND-1000 (NanoDrop Technologies, Wilmington, DE, USA) and 750 ng of sample was reversetranscribed to cDNA using iScriptTM cDNA Synthesis Kit (BioRad, Hercules, CA, USA). cDNA samples were treated with amplification-grade RNase (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) and quantified.

Real-Time qPCR

Sequences for yellow perch GH (AY007303), PRL (AY332491), SL (AY332490), IGF-Ib (AY332492), esr1 (DO984124), esr2a (DO984125), and cvp19a1a (DO984126) are available from the GenBank-EMBL-DDBJ nucleotide sequence database. Primers (Table 1) were designed for real-time qPCR using Beacon Designer v. 3.0 (PREMIER Biosoft International, Palo Alto, CA, USA). Designed primers were tested with a 25 µl total volume PCR mixture using a MasterTaq Kit (Eppendorf Scientific Inc., Westbury, NY, USA) and 1 µl of cDNA template. GH, PRL, and SL used pituitary tissue cDNA as a template; IGF-Ib used liver tissue cDNA as a template and esr1, esr2a, and cyp19a1a used gravid ovary tissue cDNA as a template. Real-time qPCR consisted of 3 min at 94°C follow by 45 cycles of 45 s at 94°C and 45 s at 60°C. For product size and identity verification, PCR products were electrophoresed in 1% low melt agarose-2% nuseive gels with a 100-bp DNA ladder (Takara Shuzo Co., Otsu, Japan) and visualized by ethidium bromide staining. PCR products were then purified using Amicon Centrifugal Ultrafiltration Devices (Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA) and quantified. Purified PCR products were ligated into a pCR®4-TOPO® vector and transformed into TOP10 chemically competent cells using the TOPO TA Cloning® Kit for Sequencing (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). The plasmid DNA was then extracted from the bacterial cells using the GenEluteTM Plasmid Miniprep Kit (Sigma, Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA). Plasmid samples were quantified and up to 600 ng of plasmid DNA was used for PCR sequencing using BigDye® Terminator v. 3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). Products were sequenced at the University of Kentucky Advanced Genetic Technologies Center. Sequencing products were compared to known template

Table 1 Forward (F) and reverse (R) primer sequences and Accession numbers used for gene specific qPCR assays

| Target Gene | Accession # | | Start | Primer sequence | | | |
|-------------|-------------|---|-------|------------------------|--|--|--|
| GH | AY007303 | F | 224 | CGGAGGAGCAGCGTCAAC | | | |
| | | R | 370 | CCCAGGACTCGACCAAACG | | | |
| PRL | AY332491 | F | 304 | ACCAGGCTCTTCAAGTATCAG | | | |
| | | R | 406 | GTGTTAGCAGAGGTGGAGAG | | | |
| SL | AY332490 | F | 321 | CTCCAAAGGTGAAATCCAACAG | | | |
| | | R | 449 | TCAGGAGCGGCATCGTAG | | | |
| IGF-Ib | AY332492 | F | 539 | CGCAGGGCACAAAGTGGAC | | | |
| | | R | 686 | CCCAGTGTTGCCTCGACTTG | | | |
| esr1 | DQ984124 | F | 1072 | AGGTGCTGATGATCGGGCTC | | | |
| | | R | 1165 | TCGCCTACGTTCCTGTCCAG | | | |
| esr2a | DQ984125 | F | 1887 | TCTGGACGCTGTGACGGAC | | | |
| | | R | 1969 | GGGCGAGGCGGTGTAC | | | |
| cyp19a1a | DQ984126 | F | 278 | TCTGGGTTTGGGGCCACTTC | | | |
| | | R | 427 | ACCGCTGATGCTCTGCTGAG | | | |



sequences using Vector NTI Suite 7.0 (Informax, Inc., Frederick, MD, USA) and GeneDoc (Nicholas et al. 1997) to verify primer specificity.

Generally, qPCR assays employ one of two standard procedures: relative or absolute quantification. Relative quantification compares expression of the target gene with three or more reference genes; however, recent studies have shown that expression levels of housekeeping (reference) genes can vary considerably within a sample set (Dheda et al. 2005; Arukwe 2006; Sellars et al. 2007). Given the limited number of reference genes available in yellow perch at the time of this study and a lack of knowledge regarding their expression levels, we chose to utilize absolute qPCR (Bustin 2000; Sellars et al. 2007). Purified PCR products were serially diluted to generate six standards (10,000, 1,000, 100, 10, 1, and 0.1 fg μl^{-1}). Real-time qPCR reactions (25 µl) were prepared in 0.2-ml thin-wall 96-well plates (BioRad, Hercules, CA, USA) each containing the following components: 12.5 µl iQTM SYBR® Green Supermix (BioRad, Hercules, CA, USA), 0.75 µl (15 ng) each forward and reverse primers, 1 µl template, and 10 µl ddH₂0. After pipetting, the plates were sealed with BioRad iCycler iQ Optical Tape and spun at 2,200 rcf for 1 min. Amplification and detection of samples were performed with the BioRad iCycler Thermal Cycler and Optical Module (BioRad, Hercules, CA, USA). Each 96-well plate had duplicate wells of standards, no template, RNA template, and samples. Duplicate sample Ct values with a coefficient of variation >2\% were rerun. When necessary, dilutions of template cDNAs were performed to ensure samples fell within the standard curve. All plates had standard curves with R>0.98 and PCR efficiencies between 85% and 110% with the exception of IGF-Ib which had PCR efficiencies up to 114%. Melt curves were performed following all runs to further verify primer template specificity. Real-time qPCR results (ag of template per microliter of cDNA) were standardized to cDNA concentration (µg µl⁻¹) and log-transformed before statistical analyses.

Statistics

 $I_{\rm H}$ and $I_{\rm G}$ proportions were arcsine-transformed (arcsine of square root for each value; Sokal and Rohlf 1995) and tested for deviations from a normal distribution before any statistical analyses were performed. Statistical outliers within each variable were identified as data points beyond three times the interquartile range using a box plot. Only one data point, a GH mRNA measurement from an autumnal male, was defined as an outlier and removed from all analyses. A general linear model (GLM) was used to determine year effects for each variable and if a year effect existed the data were divided into sex-specific

seasonal groups for further clarification of the year effect. Since only one variable showed a year effect, the data from both years were combined and a GLM was used to examine variables (body mass, IH, and GH, PRL, SL, IGF-Ib, liver esr1, liver esr2a, and liver cyp19a1a mRNA levels) for sex, season, age, sex × season interaction, and sex × season × age interaction effects. Differences among groups were further evaluated by two-way analysis of variance (GLM procedure) with sex and season as independent variables. Pairwise comparisons between groups (e.g., autumn male, spring female, etc.) were performed using Tukey's post hoc pairwise comparison for variables (body mass, $I_{\rm H}$, and GH, SL, IGF-Ib, liver esr1, liver esr2a, and liver cyp19a1a mRNA levels) which showed a significant (p<0.05) sex or season effect. For variables with only female data (I_G and ovary esr1, ovary esr2a, and ovary cyp19a1a mRNA levels), a GLM was used to examine for season, age, and season × age interaction effects only. For female-only variables which did not show an age or season × age interaction effect, a t test was performed to examine for season effects only. Relationships between 13 measured variables were determined by generating a Pearson (r) correlation matrix; significant differences from 0 were tested using Fisher's z (Zar 1999). SYSTAT Grad Pack v. 10.0 (Systat, Chicago, IL, USA) was used for all analyses and differences between groups and relationships between parameters were considered significant at $p \le 0.05$. Figures were generated to illustrate effects of season and sex (bar graphs), but when there was a significant effect of age or an age interaction (e.g., body mass, liver cyp19a1a, and ovary esr1) or a post hoc t test was significant (e.g., I_G and ovary cyp19a1a) a scatter plot figure was necessary.

Results

Year Effects

There was a significant effect of year on $I_{\rm H}$ ($F_{1,~46}$ =8.0; p=0.007) only, but when the data were separated into sexspecific seasonal groups (e.g., autumn males, spring females, etc.) only the autumn groups (autumn males, p=0.034; autumn females, p=0.004) showed significant differences between years for $I_{\rm H}$, with year 2 being higher than year 1, for both sexes.

Sex, Season, and Age Effects

There were significant effects of sex and age on body mass, with female yellow perch having a greater mean body mass (~176 g) than male (~144 g) yellow perch (Fig. 1). Female yellow perch showed a positive relationship between body mass and age with the older fish being larger than the



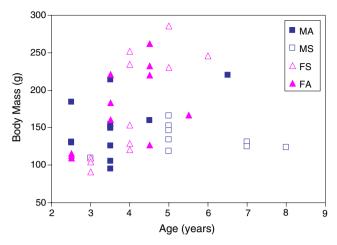


Fig. 1 Age vs. body mass for individual male (M) and female (F) Lake Erie yellow perch in autumn (A) and spring (S). Sample sizes for each sex-specific seasonal group were: MA=12, MS=9, FA=11 and FS=11. Body mass showed significant effects of sex (p=0.04), with females (\overline{X} =176±14) being heavier than males (\overline{X} =144±7), and age (p=0.001), with older fish generally being heavier, but no effect of season (p=0.11), nor sex × season (p=0.21) or sex × season × age (p=0.07) interactions. There were no significant differences at p<0.05 between each sex-specific seasonal group (MA, MS, FA, and FS)

younger fish, whereas male body mass was not related to age. There was a significant effect of season on GH mRNA levels with spring yellow perch having higher GH mRNA levels than autumn yellow perch (Fig. 2). For pituitary PRL mRNA levels, there were no significant effects of sex ($F_{1, 37}$ = 0.04; p=0.84), season ($F_{1, 37}$ =0.7; p=0.40), age ($F_{1, 37}$ =0.8;

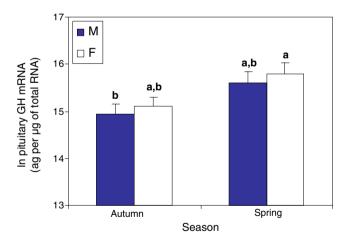
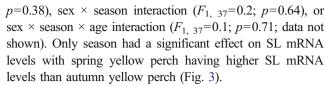


Fig. 2 Mean pituitary GH mRNA levels for male (M) and female (F) Lake Erie yellow perch in autumn (A) and spring (S). Units for GH are expressed as ln (ag of GH mRNA per microgram of total RNA). Bars indicate standard error and sample sizes for each sex-specific seasonal group were: MA=11, MS=9, FA=11, and FS=11. GH mRNA levels showed a significant effect of season (p=0.001), with spring (\overline{X} =15.70±0.16) being higher than autumn (\overline{X} =15.08±0.13), but no effect of sex (p=0.54), age (p=0.06), nor sex × season (p=0.59) or sex × season × age (p=0.47) interactions. Groups with different alpha characters (a-b) are significantly different at p≤0.05 from other groups



There was a significant effect of sex on $I_{\rm H}$ with female yellow perch having a higher average $I_{\rm H}$ than male yellow perch (Fig. 4). Both sex and season had significant effects on liver IGF-Ib mRNA levels with male yellow perch having higher liver IGF-Ib mRNA levels than female yellow perch and spring yellow perch having higher liver IGF-Ib mRNA levels than autumn yellow perch (Fig. 5). There were also significant effects of sex and season on liver esr1 mRNA levels with female yellow perch having higher liver esr1 mRNA levels than male yellow perch and autumn yellow perch having higher liver esr1 mRNA levels than spring yellow perch (Fig. 6). There was a significant effect of sex on liver esr2a mRNA levels with male yellow perch having higher liver esr2a mRNA levels than female yellow perch (Fig. 7). While there were no significant effects of season or sex × season interaction on liver esr2a mRNA levels, levels in males were significantly greater than levels in females but only in autumn and not in spring (Fig. 7). There were significant effects of both sex and season on liver cvp19a1a mRNA levels with male yellow perch having higher liver cyp19a1a mRNA levels than female yellow perch and spring yellow perch having higher liver cyp19a1a mRNA levels than autumn yellow perch (Fig. 8). Also, there were significant effects of age and sex \times season \times age interaction on liver *cvp19a1a* (Fig. 8)

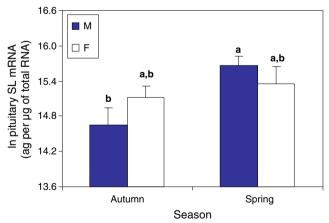


Fig. 3 Mean pituitary SL mRNA levels for male (M) and female (F) Lake Erie yellow perch in autumn (A) and spring (S). Units for SL are expressed as ln (ag of SL mRNA per microgram of total RNA). *Bars* indicate standard error and sample sizes for each sex-specific seasonal group were: MA=12, MS=9, FA=11, and FS=11. SL mRNA levels showed a significant effect of season (p=0.02), with spring (\overline{X} =15.49±0.17) being higher than autumn (\overline{X} =14.89±0.19), but no effect of sex (p=0.66), age (p=0.42), nor sex × season (p=0.79) or sex × season × age (p=0.46) interactions. Groups with different alpha characters (a-b) are significantly different at p ≤0.05 from other groups



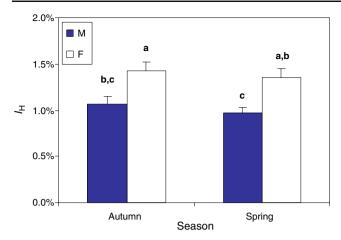


Fig. 4 Mean $I_{\rm H}$ for male (M) and female (F) Lake Erie yellow perch in autumn (A) and spring (S). Units for $I_{\rm H}$ (hepatosomatic index) are expressed as percentage liver mass of body mass. *Bars* indicate standard error and sample sizes for each sex-specific seasonal group were: MA=12, MS=9, FA=11, and FS=11. $I_{\rm H}$ showed a significant effect of sex (p=0.002), with females ($\overline{\rm X}$ =1.39±0.06) being higher than males ($\overline{\rm X}$ =1.03±0.05), but no effect of season (p=0.48), age (p=0.61), the sex × season interaction (p=0.08) nor the sex × season × age interaction (p=0.07). Groups with different alpha characters (a-c) are significantly different at p≤0.05 from other groups

with a general trend of higher liver *cyp19a1a* mRNA levels in younger yellow perch.

There were no significant effects of season, age nor season \times age interaction on I_G in the yellow perch sampled

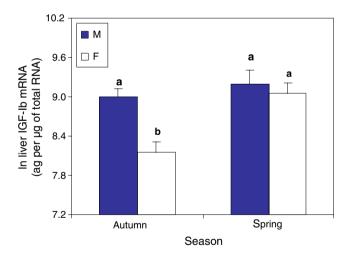


Fig. 5 Liver IGF-Ib mRNA levels for male (M) and female (F) Lake Erie yellow perch in autumn (A) and spring (S). Units for IGF-Ib are expressed as ln (ag of IGF-Ib mRNA per microgram of total RNA). Bars indicate standard error and sample sizes for each sex-specific seasonal group were: MA=12, MS=9, FA=11, and FS=11. Liver IGF-Ib mRNA levels showed significant effects of sex (p=0.004), with males (\overline{X} =9.09±0.11) being higher than females (\overline{X} =8.61±0.14), and season (p<0.001), with spring (\overline{X} =9.12±0.11) being higher than autumn (\overline{X} =8.59±0.14), but no effect of age (p=0.14), the sex × season interaction (p=0.40) nor the sex × season × age interaction (p=0.68). Groups with different alpha characters (a-b) are significantly different at p<0.05 from other groups

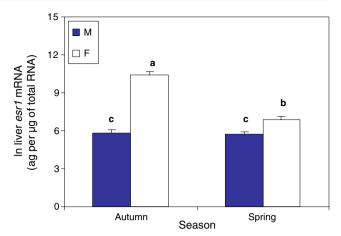


Fig. 6 Mean liver *esr1* mRNA levels for male (M) and female (F) Lake Erie yellow perch in autumn (A) and spring (S). Units for liver *esr1* are expressed as ln (ag of liver *esr1* mRNA per microgram of total RNA). *Bars* indicate standard error and sample sizes for each sex-specific seasonal group were: MA=12, MS=9, FA=11, and FS=11. Liver *esr1* mRNA levels showed significant effects of sex (p< 0.001), with females (\overline{X} =8.65±0.43) being higher than males (\overline{X} =5.78±0.15), and season (p<0.001), with autumn (\overline{X} =8.11±0.54) being higher than spring (\overline{X} =6.36±0.22), but no effect of age (p=0.98), the sex × season interaction (p=0.21) nor the sex × season × age interaction (p=0.65). Groups with different alpha characters (a-c) are significantly different at p<0.05 from other groups

(Fig. 9). However, because the data from Fig. 9 suggest a seasonal difference, a t test was performed to compare spring and autumn I_G in female yellow perch. The t test reveals that autumn females, with ovaries containing

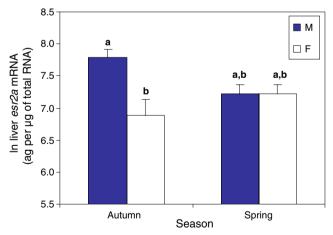


Fig. 7 Mean liver esr2a mRNA levels for male (M) and female (F) Lake Erie yellow perch in autumn (A) and spring (S). Units for liver esr2a are expressed as ln (ag of liver esr2a mRNA per microgram of total RNA). Bars indicate standard error and sample sizes for each sex-specific seasonal group were: MA=12, MS=9, FA=11, and FS=11. Liver esr2a mRNA levels showed a significant effect of sex (p=0.02), with males $(\overline{X}=7.54\pm0.11)$ being higher than females $(\overline{X}=7.05\pm0.15)$, but no effect of season (p=0.68), age (p=0.88), the sex × season interaction (p=0.74) nor the sex × season × age interaction (p=0.78). Groups with different alpha characters (a-b) are significantly different at $p\leq0.05$ from other groups



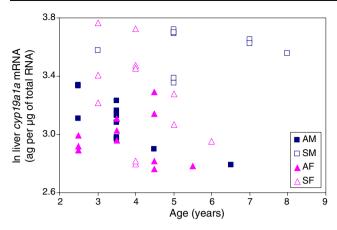


Fig. 8 Age vs. liver cyp19a1a mRNA levels for individual adult male (M) and female (F) Lake Erie yellow perch in autumn (A) and spring (S). Units for liver cyp19a1a are expressed as ln (ag of liver cyp19a1a mRNA per microgram of total RNA) and sample sizes for each sexspecific seasonal group were: MA=12, MS=9, FA=11, and FS=11. Liver cyp19a1a mRNA levels showed significant effects of sex (p=0.01), with males $(\overline{X}=3.34\pm0.07)$ being higher than females $(\overline{X}=3.12\pm0.07)$, season (p<0.001), with spring $(\overline{X}=3.41\pm0.07)$ being higher than autumn $(\overline{X}=3.08\pm0.05)$, age (p=0.04), with older fish generally being lower, and sex \times season \times age interaction (p=0.04), but no sex \times season interaction (p=0.11). Pairwise comparisons for the following groups are indicated by superscript alpha characters (a-c) and groups with different letters are significantly significant at $p\le0.05$: MS^a $(\overline{X}=3.58\pm0.05)$, FS^b $(\overline{X}=3.27\pm0.11)$, MA^{b,c} $(\overline{X}=3.16\pm0.09)$ and FA^c $(\overline{X}=2.97\pm0.05)$

previtellogenic oocytes, had a significantly higher average I_G than spring females, with postspawning ovaries that were deplete of all forms of gametes (S Lynn, personal observation). There was a significant effect of season on

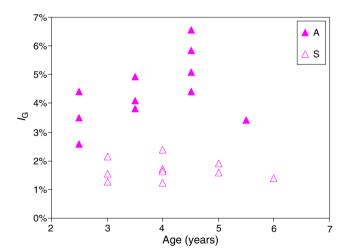


Fig. 9 Age vs. $I_{\rm G}$ for individual female Lake Erie yellow perch in autumn (A) and spring (S). Units for $I_{\rm G}$ (gonadosomatic index) are expressed as percentage ovary mass of body mass and sample sizes for each seasonal group were: A=11 and S=11. $I_{\rm G}$ showed no significant effect of season (p=0.48), age (p=0.23), or season × age interaction (p=0.16). A t test revealed a significant effect of season on $I_{\rm G}$ (p<0.001), with autumn levels ($\overline{\rm X}$ =4.43±0.36) being higher than spring levels ($\overline{\rm X}$ =1.68±0.11)

ovary esr1 mRNA levels with spring yellow perch having higher ovary esr1 mRNA levels than autumn yellow perch (Fig. 10) and there was also a significant season \times age interaction on ovarian esr1 mRNA levels. Ovary esr2a mRNA levels did not show a significant effect of season ($F_{1, 18}$ =2.2; p=0.16), age ($F_{1, 18}$ =0.3; p=0.60), or season \times age interaction ($F_{1, 18}$ =2.2; p=0.16; data not shown). There were no significant effects of season, age, nor season \times age interaction on ovary exp19a1a mRNA levels (Fig. 11). However, a exp19a1a mRNA levels were significantly higher in female yellow perch sampled in the autumn versus females sampled in the spring.

Correlations

A Pearson (*r*) correlation matrix for relationships between 13 measured variables is shown in Table 2. Body mass showed significant negative correlations with liver IGF-Ib and liver *cyp19a1a* mRNA levels. Pituitary GH mRNA levels showed significant positive correlations with PRL and SL mRNA levels and significant negative correlations with *I*_G and ovary *cyp19a1a* mRNA levels. Pituitary SL mRNA levels showed significant positive correlations with GH and liver *cyp19a1a* mRNA levels and a significant negative correlation with liver *esr2a* mRNA levels. *I*_H showed a significant positive correlation with liver *esr1* mRNA levels and significant negative correlations with IGF-Ib, liver *esr2a*, and liver *cyp19a1a* mRNA levels.

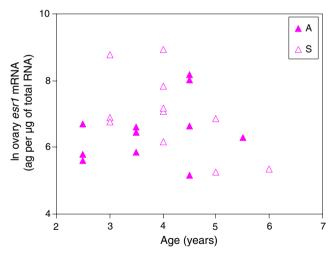


Fig. 10 Age vs. ovary esr1 mRNA levels for individual female Lake Erie yellow perch in autumn (A) and spring (S). Units for ovary esr1 are expressed as ln (ag of ovary esr1 mRNA per microgram of total RNA) and sample sizes for each seasonal group were: A=11 and S=11. Ovary liver esr1 mRNA levels showed significant effects of season (p=0.02), with spring levels ($\overline{X}=7.01\pm0.38$) being higher than autumn levels ($\overline{X}=6.48\pm0.30$), and season × age interaction (p=0.03), but no effect of age (p=0.33)



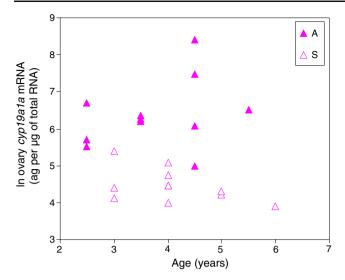


Fig. 11 Age vs. ovary cyp19a1a mRNA levels for individual female Lake Erie yellow perch in autumn (A) and spring (S). Units for ovary cyp19a1a are expressed as ln (ag of ovary cyp19a1a mRNA per microgram of total RNA) and sample sizes for each seasonal group were: A=11 and S=11. Ovary cyp19a1a mRNA levels showed no significant effect of season (p=0.96), age (p=0.86) or season × age interaction (p=0.14). A t test reveals a significant effect of season on ovary cyp19a1a mRNA levels (p<0.001), with autumn levels (\overline{X} =6.38±0.29) being higher than spring levels (\overline{X} =4.47±0.14)

Liver IGF-Ib mRNA levels showed significant positive correlations with liver esr2a and liver cyp19a1a mRNA levels and significant negative correlations with body mass, I_H, I_G, liver esr1, and ovary cyp19a1a mRNA levels. Liver esr1 mRNA levels showed significant positive correlations with $I_{\rm H}$, $I_{\rm G}$, and ovary cyp19a1a mRNA levels and significant negative correlations with liver IGF-Ib and liver cvp19a1a mRNA levels. Liver esr2a showed a significant positive correlation with IGF-Ib mRNA levels and significant negative correlations with $I_{\rm H}$ and SL mRNA levels. Liver cyp19a1a mRNA levels showed significant positive correlations with SL and IGF-Ib mRNA levels and significant negative correlations with body mass, $I_{\rm H}$, $I_{\rm G}$ and liver esr1 and ovary cyp19a1a mRNA levels. IG showed significant positive correlations with liver esr1 and ovary cyp19a1a mRNA levels and significant negative correlations with GH, IGF-Ib, and liver cyp19a1a mRNA levels. Ovary esr1 mRNA levels showed a significant positive correlation only with ovary esr2a mRNA levels and vice versa. And finally, ovary cyp19a1a mRNA levels showed significant positive correlations with I_G and liver esr1 mRNA levels and significant negative correlations with GH, IGF-Ib, and liver cyp19a1a mRNA levels.

Table 2 Pearson correlation matrix for 13 measured variables from adult Lake Erie yellow perch

| n=48 | | Wt | GH ^a | PRL | SL | $I_{ m H}$ | IGF-Ib | liver esr1 | liver esr2a | liver | $I_{\mathrm{G}}^{}}$ | ovary esr1 ^b | ovary esr2a b |
|----------------------------|--------|-------|-----------------|-------|-------|----------------|---------|---------------|----------------|-------|----------------------|----------------------------|------------------|
| 11-40 | ТТ | -0.09 | OH | TKL | SL | 1 _H | 101-10 | ES/ 1 | esizu | Сургэ | 1G | esti | esrzu |
| GH^a | r p | 0.55 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | r | -0.04 | 0.45 | | | | | | | | | | |
| PRL | p | 0.77 | 0.002 | | | | | | | | | | |
| | r | -0.04 | 0.60 | 0.26 | | | | | | | | | |
| SL | p | 0.81 | < 0.001 | 0.07 | | | | | | | | | |
| | r | n/a | -0.06 | -0.07 | -0.05 | | | | | | | | |
| $I_{ m H}$ | p | | 0.69 | 0.65 | 0.72 | | | | | | | | |
| | r | -0.33 | 0.12 | -0.22 | -0.01 | -0.31 | | | | | | | |
| IGF-Ib | p | 0.02 | 0.40 | 0.13 | 0.93 | 0.03 | | | | | | | |
| liver | r | 0.13 | -0.13 | 0.21 | 0.06 | 0.41 | -0.46 | | | | | | |
| esr1 | p | 0.37 | 0.37 | 0.15 | 0.71 | 0.003 | 0.001 | | | | | | |
| liver | r | -0.25 | -0.27 | -0.17 | -0.31 | -0.34 | 0.63 | -0.16 | | | | | |
| esr2a | p | 0.08 | 0.07 | 0.26 | 0.03 | 0.02 | < 0.001 | 0.26 | | | | | |
| liver | r | -0.34 | 0.16 | -0.08 | 0.35 | -0.30 | 0.50 | -0.35 | 0.14 | | | | |
| cyp19a1a | p | 0.02 | 0.28 | 0.61 | 0.02 | 0.04 | < 0.001 | 0.02 | 0.33 | | | | |
| | r | n/a | -0.40 | 0.21 | 0.04 | 0.26 | -0.82 | 0.79 | -0.38 | -0.48 | | | |
| $I_{\rm G}^{ {f b}}$ | p | | 0.05 | 0.32 | 0.85 | 0.21 | < 0.001 | < 0.001 | 0.06 | 0.02 | | | |
| ovary | r | -0.10 | 0.11 | -0.05 | 0.07 | 0.10 | 0.15 | -0.34 | -0.18 | 0.34 | -0.19 | | |
| ovary esr1 ^b | p | 0.63 | 0.60 | 0.83 | 0.73 | 0.63 | 0.49 | 0.10 | 0.41 | 0.10 | 0.38 | | |
| ovary | r | -0.01 | -0.02 | 0.04 | -0.11 | -0.03 | -0.01 | -0.13 | -0.12 | 0.12 | -0.05 | 0.79 | |
| ovary esr2a b | p | 0.95 | 0.94 | 0.86 | 0.60 | 0.88 | 0.96 | 0.56 | 0.59 | 0.57 | 0.82 | < 0.001 | |
| ovary | r | 0.06 | -0.49 | 0.18 | -0.17 | 0.18 | -0.59 | 0.72 | -0.25 | -0.49 | 0.75 | 0.23 | 0.39 |
| cyp19a1a ^b | p | 0.77 | 0.02 | 0.41 | 0.43 | 0.40 | 0.002 | < 0.001 | 0.23 | 0.02 | < 0.001 | 0.28 | 0.06 |

^asingle outlier removed, n=47; ^bfemale specific variable, n=24.



Discussion

This study reports a comprehensive measurement of the mRNA levels for key endocrine genes in a natural adult population of vellow perch from Lake Erie. The females sampled from this population were, on average, heavier than the males, had larger livers (I_H) , lower liver IGF-Ib, liver esr2a, and liver cyp19a1a mRNA levels and higher liver esr1 mRNA levels. Also, season had an effect on GH, SL, liver IGF-Ib, liver esr1, liver cyp19a1a, and ovary esr1 mRNA levels. The lowest age in this study (2.5 years), which was above the average age for sexual maturation (males ≈1.9 years; females ≈2.4 years) of Lake Erie yellow perch populations (Purchase et al. 2005), and the exclusionary mechanism of the nets used (no fish < 15.24 cm) ensure that only adult yellow perch, well above the threshold for adult-related estrogen-sensitive SSD (Malison et al. 1985; Purchase et al. 2005), were sampled. Therefore, these results provide considerable insight into the seasonal and sex-specific endocrine status of adult yellow perch with implications for understanding SSD.

Female yellow perch sampled from Lake Erie for this study were on average heavier than males (Fig. 1) which is consistent with female-biased SSD in yellow perch (Best 1981). Females showed a clear positive relationship between body mass and age, with older yellow perch being heavier and younger yellow perch being lighter while males did not show a significant relationship between body mass and age. Correlation analyses (Table 2) suggest that small vellow perch would have higher liver cvp19a1a and IGF-Ib mRNA levels than large yellow perch, which could be indicative of a faster growth rate in smaller yellow perch. GH mRNA levels followed a pattern of higher levels in females and higher levels in spring (Fig. 2). Several studies have shown season or sex effects on GH expression in teleost species, such as salmonids (Björnsson 1997), gilthead sea bream (Sparus aurata L.; Meiri et al. 2004) and common carp (Cyprinus carpio L.; Figueroa et al. 2005). In regards to yellow perch, Roberts et al. (2004) reported that GH protein levels in pituitaries were significantly higher in May than in other months, with a tenfold increase compared to October. In further support of our findings with seasonal GH mRNA levels in Lake Erie yellow perch, Swift and Pickford (1965) found that pituitary homogenates collected from European perch (Perca fluviatilis L.) during April-June had higher growth-promoting ability than July-August in a bioassay system using fathead minnow (Pimephales promelas Rafinesque).

Although many studies have shown that GH stimulates the transcription and release of IGF-I from the liver (Biga et al. 2005; Carnevali et al. 2005), there is not a significant correlation between GH and IGF-Ib mRNA levels in this

study (Table 2). In separate studies, both vellow perch (Jentoft et al. 2005) and the closely related Eurasian perch (Jentoft et al. 2004) showed a lack of responsiveness in hepatic IGF-I mRNA levels to exogenous GH treatment. This unresponsiveness to growth hormone treatment is not specific to perch, as barramundi (Lates calcarifer Bloch) also showed no response in IGF-I mRNA levels to GH treatment (Ståhlbom et al. 1999). Similarly, of the four alternative IGF-I transcripts identified in coho salmon (Oncorhynchus kisutch Walbaum) liver (Duguay et al. 1994), the ones which correspond to the two IGF-I transcripts in yellow perch (Lynn and Shepherd 2007) and Eurasian perch (Jentoft et al. 2004) are unresponsive to GH treatment. Further, while exogenous growth hormone did not stimulate growth in yellow perch, dietary E2 treatment did stimulate growth (Jentoft et al. 2005), suggesting that the growth-promoting actions of E2 may work independently of GH and/or IGF-I.

There was a significant effect of season on SL mRNA levels in yellow perch (Fig. 3), with higher levels occurring in spring rather than autumn, but studies on seasonal SL expression have produced rather conflicting results. In channel catfish (Ictalurus punctatus Rafinesque), SL mRNA levels in the largest adult class sampled were higher in April than in December (Tang et al. 2001). However, in rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss Walbaum), the highest levels of plasma SL in both mature male and mature female fish were in late summer (August) with a secondary peak in spring (April; Rand-Weaver et al. 1995). In masu salmon (O. masou Brevoort), during the second year of development, the highest SL mRNA levels were in late summer (August; Bhandari et al. 2003) but in gilthead sea bream the highest levels of plasma SL were very clearly in the winter (December; Mingarro et al. 2002). Perhaps seasonal SL expression levels are species dependent and related to the reproductive strategy of the fish, as there are studies that have shown SL to be modulated by GnRH and steroids (Rand-Weaver et al. 1992; Mayer et al. 1998).

There were significant differences between male and female $I_{\rm H}$ with females having a higher average $I_{\rm H}$ (>0.1) than males (\leq 0.1; Fig. 4), yet there was no effect of season or age on $I_{\rm H}$. The year effect on sex-specific autumn $I_{\rm H}$ indicates that, while the sampling took place on the same day of the year, most probably, some environmental aspect was significantly different between the years (e.g., temperature, light, water quality, etc.). Both sex and season had a significant effect on liver IGF-Ib mRNA levels, with females in the autumn having lower levels than the other sex-specific seasonal groups (Fig. 5). Unfortunately, there are few studies that have examined seasonal expression of liver IGF-I and within those studies there are somewhat conflicting results, making interpretation difficult (Duan et al. 1995; Beckman et al. 1998).



Some of the most interesting results of this study involve liver ERs and liver cyp19a1a mRNA levels. Surprisingly, little work has been done on seasonal expression levels of liver ERs in fish despite their obvious role in reproduction and only recently have studies begun to examine the sexspecific expression levels of the various ERs in liver. Both liver esr1 and liver esr2a mRNA levels were significantly influenced by sex in addition to a sex × season interaction; however, only liver esr1 mRNA levels were significantly altered by sampling season (Figs. 6 and 7). Females clearly had higher mean liver esr1 mRNA levels than males and males had higher mean liver esr2a mRNA levels than females. Halm et al. (2004) found very similar results to this study, with female European sea bass (Dicentrarchus labrax L.) having much higher liver ER \alpha mRNA levels than males and males having higher liver ER \(\beta \) mRNA levels than females. Only Sabo-Attwood et al. (2004) measured seasonal expression levels over a single year of all three ER mRNAs in female largemouth bass (Micropterus salmoides Lacepède) livers from October to March. In their study, liver ERα mRNA levels in females peaked in late winter (February–March) and liver ERy (esr2a) mRNA levels changed very little over the 6-month sampling period with a slight increase during February to March. In yellow perch from this study, liver esr1 mRNA levels had the strongest (positive) relationships with I_G (r=0.79) and ovarian cyp19a1a mRNA levels (r=0.72; Table 2). The livers of female spotted sea trout (Cynoscion nebulosus Cuvier) showed increased levels of ER mRNA (presumably ER α) during the summer months along with a corresponding increase in I_G (Smith and Thomas 1991). The relationship between liver esr1 mRNA level and circulating estrogen is supported in the literature as the liver esr1 gene is known to have an estrogen response element and to be upregulated in response to increased E₂ levels (Pakdel et al. 1997; Bowman et al. 2002), but such a relationship is as yet unknown in adult yellow perch. However, we have observed that dietary administration of E₂ in juvenile yellow perch results in elevated liver esr1 mRNA levels (Lynn, unpublished data).

Both sex and season had significant effects on liver cyp19a1a mRNA levels in yellow perch (Fig. 8), with males being higher than females and levels being higher in spring than in autumn. There was also a significant effect of age, with older fish having lower liver cyp19a1a mRNA levels than younger fish within the same sex-specific seasonal group. The relationship between liver cyp19a1a and ovary cyp19a1a mRNA levels was significant with a negative correlation (Table 2), suggesting that liver cyp19a1a mRNA levels are tied to circulating estrogen levels and liver cyp19a1a could function as an intermediate between the ovarian estrogen and liver growth axes.

 $I_{\rm G}$ (Fig. 9) and ovarian *esr1* (Fig. 10), but not *esr2a*, mRNA levels showed significant differences between

seasons with larger ovaries in the autumn having lower ovarian esr1 mRNA levels. Yellow perch ovarian cyp19a1a mRNA levels were significantly influenced by season with autumn levels being significantly higher than spring levels (Fig. 11). Several studies have linked follicular development or spawning and ovarian cyp19a1a mRNA levels or estrogen levels. A study in adult killifish (Fundulus heteroclitus L.) found that reproductively active females (May-July) had higher ovarian CYP19A1 (cvp19a1a) mRNA levels than reproductively inactive females (August-September; Greytak et al. 2005). Another study on fathead minnow found similar results with higher ovarian CYP19A1 mRNA levels in reproductively active females than nonreproductively active females (Villeneuve et al. 2006). Choi et al. (2005) found steadily increasing levels of CYP19A1 mRNA in ovaries of wrasse (Halichoeres tenuispinis Günther) from May to August with levels peaking during the spawning period in July and August. In addition, ovarian follicles in channel catfish showed higher levels of CYP19A1 mRNA corresponding with vitellogenesis during the winter months (February; Kumar et al. 2000; Yoon et al. 2008). In other work conducted in yellow perch, it was reported that monthly plasma E2 concentrations in females from October to April were higher in autumn than spring, whereas testosterone levels showed an inverse pattern (low in autumn, high in spring; Dabrowski et al. 1996; Ciereszko et al. 1997). Also, yellow perch ovarian follicles showed significantly higher production of estradiol in October than any other month in the experimental period (October to April; Dabrowski et al. 2002). These results corroborate the findings of this study which showed significantly higher ovarian cyp19a1a mRNA levels in autumn (October) as compared to spring (May).

In this study, female yellow perch ovary cyp19a1a mRNA levels were negatively correlated with both pituitary GH and liver IGF-Ib mRNA levels (Table 2). Ovarian cyp19a1a mRNA levels at least partially control circulating E₂ levels as the ovary is the primary site of global E₂ synthesis. The implication is that, when E₂ levels in females are elevated in autumn (Dabrowski et al. 1996; Ciereszko et al. 1997), along with liver esr1 mRNA levels, GH and liver IGF-Ib mRNA levels are depressed. Furthermore, liver cyp19a1a mRNA levels showed a significant negative correlation with I_G and liver esr1 and ovary cyp19a1a mRNA levels, indicating that when ovaries are largest (in autumn) cyp19a1a mRNA levels are higher, leading to greater E₂ production, as supported by the studies of Ciereszko et al. (1997) and Dabrowski et al. (1996). This could likely result in the lower liver cyp19a1a mRNA levels and higher liver esr1 mRNA levels seen in this study, ultimately producing lower mRNA levels of growthregulating hormones (i.e., GH and IGF-Ib). While the correlations are significant, the true nature of the relationships



between these parameters requires further investigation. Moreover, although this pattern of gene expression does not support estrogen-stimulated SSD in yellow perch, it is important to remember that these are baseline endogenous levels of gene expression (not in response to exogenous administration of E_2) and not measurements of the protein or steroid levels.

In summary, we report significant sex-, tissue-, and seasonal-specific changes in the mRNA levels of most of the key endocrine genes measured (GH, PRL, SL, IGF-Ib, liver esr1, liver esr2a, liver cyp19a1a, ovary esr1, ovary esr2a, and ovary cvp19a1a) in adult yellow perch from Lake Erie. These results indicate that both male and female yellow perch have increased mRNA levels of growthregulating hormones (GH and IGF-Ib) in spring as opposed to autumn, indicating the importance of spring in yearly growth. Also, there is a distinct difference in male and female liver ER (esr1 and esr2a) mRNA levels and liver esr1 was significantly influenced by season. Lastly, ovarian cyp19a1a mRNA levels (a possible indicator of plasma E2 levels) showed a significant negative correlation with GH, IGF-Ib, and liver cyp19a1a mRNA levels and a significant positive correlation with liver esr1 mRNA levels and I_G in females. These results indicate new avenues for research related to seasonal and sex-specific expression of these genes in fish and also provide further insight into potential endocrine pathways involved with yellow perch SSD.

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