

1 **Growth hormone regulates intestinal gene expression of nutrient transporters in tilapia**
2 **(*Oreochromis mossambicus*)**

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24 **Abstract**

25 Among the various ways that growth hormone (GH) underlies the growth physiology
26 of teleost fishes, GH stimulates transport pathways that facilitate the absorption of nutrients
27 across intestinal epithelia. The current study investigated the effects of GH on the gene
28 expression of nutrient transporters in an omnivorous teleost, the Mozambique tilapia
29 (*Oreochromis mossambicus*). We employed pituitary gland removal (hypophysectomy) and
30 hormone replacement to assess whether GH directs the gene expression of the *GH receptor*
31 (*ghr2*), the peptide transporters, *pept1a*, *pept1b* and *pept2*, the amino acid transporter, *slc7a9*,

32 the Na⁺/glucose cotransporter, *splt1*, the glucose transporter, *glut2*, and the myo-inositol
33 transporter, *smit2*, in anterior, middle, and posterior intestine. *ghr2* was predominantly
34 expressed in posterior intestine, while *pept1a*, *pept1b*, *slc7a9*, *splt1*, *glut2*, and *smit2* exhibited
35 the highest mRNA levels in anterior and/or middle intestine. While hypophysectomized
36 tilapia exhibited diminished expression of *ghr2*, *pept1a*, *pept1b*, *slc7a9*, and *glut2* compared
37 with intact and sham-operated controls, only *ghr2*, *pept1a*, *pept1b* and *glut2* levels were
38 restored by GH replacement. Our findings indicate that GH supports growth, at least in part,
39 by stimulating the gene expression of its cognate receptor and key nutrient transporters in the
40 intestine.

41

42 **Highlights:**

- 43 • This study investigated the regulation of intestinal nutrient transporters in tilapia
- 44 • *ghr*, *pept1a*, *pept1b*, *slc7a9*, and *glut2* were diminished following hypophysectomy
- 45 • *ghr*, *pept1a*, *pept1b*, and *glut2* were stimulated by growth hormone replacement

46

47 **Keywords:** growth hormone, intestine, nutrient transporters, receptor, tilapia

48

49 **1. Introduction**

50 Growth in vertebrates, including teleost fishes, is principally controlled by the growth
51 hormone (GH)/insulin-like growth-factor (IGF) system (Reinecke et al., 2005; Duan et al.,
52 2010; Pérez-Sánchez et al., 2018). Under favorable environmental conditions such as when
53 food is available, factors within the GH/IGF system regulate the absorption of nutrients from
54 the diet (Collie & Ferraris, 1995; Pérez-Sánchez & Le Bail 1999; Mommsen, 2001) and the
55 allocation of acquired nutrients toward anabolic processes (Reindl & Sheridan, 2012). Thus,
56 plasma GH and IGF1 levels are sensitive to both short-term (periprandial) and long-term
57 (prolonged fasting) nutritional conditions (Uchida et al., 2003; Bertucci et al., 2019). With
58 respect to their periprandial dynamics, plasma GH and IGF1 typically rise within several
59 hours after a meal (Fox et al., 2009; Canosa et al., 2005). Alternatively, coho salmon
60 (*Oncorhynchus kisutch*), masu salmon (*O. masou*), and Mozambique tilapia (*Oreochromis*
61 *mossambicus*) subjected to prolonged nutrient restriction exhibited lower plasma IGF1 and
62 hepatic *igf1* mRNA levels compared with fed controls (Duan & Plisetskaya, 1993; Uchida et

63 al., 2003; Pierce et al., 2007; Fox et al., 2010; Kawaguchi et al., 2013). During prolonged
64 fasts, however, plasma GH generally rises to mobilize energy reserves (Fox et al., 2009;
65 Breves et al., 2014; Shimizu et al., 2009; Small et al., 2005). Collectively, these patterns
66 indicate that GH signaling responds to nutrient availability in fashions that match adaptive
67 metabolic strategies with environmental conditions. While one consequence of the
68 postprandial rise in plasma GH is to promote a rise in plasma IGF1 that will stimulate growth
69 (Shimizu et al., 2009), how the GH/IGF system directs nutrient absorptive processes in the
70 gastrointestinal tract remains unresolved (Collie & Ferraris, 1995; Reshkin et al., 1989;
71 Farmanfarmaian & Sun, 1999).

72 In fishes, the proximal region of the midgut (intestine), is generally the primary site of
73 nutrient absorption (Diaz et al., 1997; Olsen et al., 1999; Nordrum et al., 2000). Apically
74 located transmembrane proteins mediate the active and passive transport of nutrients into the
75 interior of enterocytes. Then, nutrients are transported across the basolateral membrane and
76 distributed via blood to organs and tissues (Grosell et al., 2010). Small peptides are absorbed
77 more efficiently by fishes than free amino acids (Terjesen et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2006).
78 The transport of di- and tripeptides is mediated by apically located members of the peptide
79 transporter (PepT/SLC15A) family (Daniel & Kottra 2004; Verri et al., 2010; Con et al.,
80 2017; Wang et al., 2017). There are at least three PepT variants expressed in teleost intestine,
81 PepT1a/SLC15A1a, PepT1b/SLC15A1b, and PepT2/SLC15A2 (Romano et al., 2006;
82 Bucking & Schulte, 2012; Ronkin et al., 2015). PepT1 is a high capacity, low affinity, H⁺-
83 dependent cotransporter of protons and oligopeptides with three or fewer amino acids (Daniel,
84 2004; Benner et al., 2011). By contrast, PepT2 is a high affinity, low capacity, H⁺-dependent
85 cotransporter more selective for substrate binding than PepT1 (Romano et al., 2006). The
86 transport of free amino acids is largely mediated by heterotrimeric transporters formed by
87 light and heavy-chain proteins, such as the neutral and dibasic amino acid transporter complex
88 (B⁰⁺AT) encoded by *slc3a1* and *slc7a9* genes (Wagner et al., 2001; Nitzan et al., 2017). The
89 chemical digestion of carbohydrates yields glucose that is available for intestinal uptake by
90 Na⁺/glucose cotransporter 1 (SGLT1/SLC5A1) and glucose transporter 2 (GLUT2/SLC2A2)
91 across the apical and basolateral membranes of enterocytes, respectively (Polakof et al., 2012;
92 Chen et al., 2017). Inositol is a vitamin-like nutrient that is often included in formulated fish
93 diets (Waagbo et al., 1998; Shiau et al., 2005). Myo-inositol, the most abundant isomer of

94 inositol, is transported by Na⁺/myo-inositol transporter 2 (SMIT2/SLC5A11) (Aouameur et
95 al., 2007). In Nile tilapia (*O. niloticus*), *splt1* and *smit2* were more highly expressed in the
96 intestine than any other identified *slc5* gene transcripts (Subramaniam et al., 2019).

97 The teleost gastrointestinal tract is an established target of GH given the varied
98 physiological responses by intestine to GH administration (Farmanfarmaian & Sun, 1999).
99 Individual teleost fishes contain two putative GH receptors (GHRs) that group into distinct
100 clades, GHR1 and GHR2 (Saera-Vila et al., 2005; Jiao et al., 2006). Accordingly,
101 Mozambique tilapia express two *ghr* gene transcripts denoted *ghr1* and *ghr2* (Kajimura et al.,
102 2004; Pierce et al., 2007). *ghr1* encodes the putative receptor for somatolactin in tilapia
103 (Pierce et al., 2007; Uchida et al., 2009). In this study, we targeted *ghr2* which encodes the
104 primary receptor for GH and is expressed in the intestine (Pierce et al., 2007, 2012). Given the
105 coincident increases in plasma GH and intestinal absorptive capacities that occur following a
106 meal (Collie & Ferraris, 1995), we hypothesized that a regulatory link connects GH with
107 particular nutrient transporters. In turn, the current study assessed whether GH directs the
108 expression of *ghr2* and nutrient transporters in intestinal segments of hypophysectomized
109 tilapia injected with GH.

110

111 **2. Materials and methods**

112 *2.1 Animals*

113 Male Mozambique tilapia (70-150 g) were selected from a population reared in
114 outdoor tanks supplied with a continuous flow of municipal freshwater (FW) at the Hawai'i
115 Institute of Marine Biology. The fish were maintained at 24-26 °C under natural photoperiod
116 and fed a commercial diet (Skretting, Tooele, UT). During the experimental period and
117 recovery from hypophysectomy (4 days), however, fish were not fed to avoid confounding the
118 effects of between-subject variance in feed intake and GH treatment (Con et al, 2017). The
119 Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the University of Hawai'i approved all
120 housing, surgical, and experimental protocols.

121

122 *2.2 Hypophysectomy and GH replacement*

123 Hypophysectomy was performed by the transorbital technique described by Nishioka
124 (1994). Prior to surgery, fish were anesthetized in buffered tricaine methanesulfonate (100

125 mg/L, Argent Chemical Laboratories, Redmond, WA) and 2-phenoxyethanol (2-PE; 0.3 ml/L,
126 Sigma, St. Louis, MO) in FW. After the procedure, fish recovered in experimental aquaria
127 containing recirculating brackish water (BW; 12 ppt) composed of seawater (Kaneohe Bay,
128 Hawaii) diluted with municipal FW. Fish were maintained in BW for 3 days. Experimental
129 aquaria were maintained at 24-26 °C. Fish were treated with kanamycin sulfate (National Fish
130 Pharmaceuticals, Tucson, AZ) and not fed following surgery.

131 Three days after hypophysectomy, fish (n = 6-9) were anesthetized with 2-PE (0.3
132 ml/l) and administered ovine GH (oGH; 5 µg/g body weight) or saline vehicle (0.9% NaCl) by
133 a single intraperitoneal injection (1.0 µL/g body weight). All animals were treated in the same
134 fashion prior to injections. The concentration of oGH administered in the current study was
135 based on previous studies in which oGH was shown to regulate components of the
136 GH/IGF/IGFBP system in Mozambique tilapia (Pierce et al., 2012; Breves et al., 2014;
137 Douros et al., 2017). Intact and sham-operated groups were included as controls. oGH was
138 obtained from the National Hormone and Peptide Program (NIDDK-oGH-15). After injection,
139 fish were returned to the experimental aquaria and sampled after 12 h. Our previous study
140 showed that GH elicits clear effects on the GH/IGF/IGFBP system within 12 h (Breves et al.,
141 2014). At the time of sampling, fish were lethally anesthetized and three intestinal segments
142 (anterior, middle, and posterior) were collected. The anterior, middle, and posterior segments
143 corresponded to the hepatic loop, gastric loop, and terminal segment, respectively (Seale et
144 al., 2014). Tissue samples were washed with 0.9% NaCl, snap frozen in liquid nitrogen, and
145 stored at -80 °C. The completeness of all hypophysectomies was confirmed by postmortem
146 inspection of the cranial cavity.

147

148 *2.3 RNA isolation, cDNA synthesis, and quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR)*

149 Total RNA was extracted from homogenized tissue samples using TRI Reagent
150 (MRC, Cincinnati, OH) according to the manufacturer's protocols. Reverse transcription
151 negative control reactions confirmed the absence of contaminating DNA. RNA quality and
152 quantity were determined by spectrophotometry using a NanoDrop One (Thermo Fisher
153 Scientific, Waltham, MA). cDNA was synthesized from 500 ng of total RNA using a High
154 Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Reference and target
155 genes were assayed by the relative quantification method (Pfaffl, 2001). Primer pairs and their

156 amplification efficiencies and amplicon sizes are provided in Table 1. The qRT-PCR reaction
157 volume (15 μ L) contained Power SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific),
158 200 nM of forward and reverse primers, and 1–3 μ l of undiluted cDNA (equivalent to 25-75
159 ng of total RNA). PCR cycling conditions were as follows: 2 min at 50 $^{\circ}$ C, 10 min at 95 $^{\circ}$ C,
160 40 cycles at 95 $^{\circ}$ C for 15 s and 60 $^{\circ}$ C for 1 min. Gene expression is reported as the ratio of
161 target to reference RNA levels; 18s ribosomal RNA (18s) levels were used to normalize the
162 levels of target genes.

163

164 *2.4 Statistical analyses*

165 Data were analyzed by two-way ANOVA with treatment and intestinal segment as
166 main effects. Data that did not meet the assumptions of variance (Brown-Forsythe and
167 Bartlett's tests) and normality (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test) were log-transformed prior to
168 further analysis. Significant main effects of treatment and intestinal segment ($P<0.05$) were
169 followed up by Fisher's protected LSD test. All statistical tests were performed using
170 GraphPad Prism 8.0 (San Diego, CA).

171

172 **3. Results**

173 Significant effects of treatment, intestinal segment, and an interaction were observed
174 for intestinal *ghr2* expression (Fig. 1A). *ghr2* levels in the anterior and middle intestine were
175 diminished following hypophysectomy compared with intact and sham-saline controls; oGH
176 restored *ghr2* expression in both segments.

177 There were significant treatment, intestinal segment, and interaction effects on *pept1a*
178 (Fig. 1B). Intestinal expression of *pept1a* was robust in the anterior and middle intestine, and
179 nearly undetectable in the posterior intestine. *pept1a* levels were diminished in the middle
180 intestine by >100-fold following hypophysectomy and were restored by oGH. Significant
181 effects of treatment, intestinal segment, and an interaction were observed for *pept1b* (Fig. 1C).
182 Hypophysectomy diminished *pept1b* expression in the middle intestine by ~1000-fold and
183 was restored by oGH. Resembling *pept1a*, *pept1b* levels were highest in the anterior and
184 middle intestine. While expression levels were higher in the middle and posterior intestine,
185 there were no significant treatment or interaction effects on *pept2* expression (data not
186 shown).

187 There were significant treatment and intestinal segment main effects on *slc7a9*
188 expression (Fig. 1D). *slc7a9* expression was highest in the middle intestine where levels were
189 diminished following hypophysectomy; however, oGH did not rescue the marked fall in
190 expression. There was only a significant main effect of intestinal segment on *splt1*; *splt1*
191 levels were higher in the anterior and middle intestine compared with the posterior intestine
192 (Fig. 1E). There were significant treatment and intestinal segment effects on *glut2* levels (Fig.
193 1F). *glut2* expression in both the anterior and middle intestine was diminished following
194 hypophysectomy; *glut2* expression was only restored by oGH in the anterior intestine. *glut2*
195 levels were higher in the anterior and middle intestine compared with the posterior intestine.
196 Lastly, there was no significant treatment effect on *smit2* levels; *smit2* expression was higher
197 in the anterior and middle intestine compared with the posterior intestine (Fig. 1G).

198

199 **4. Discussion**

200 To our knowledge, the current study is the first to report links between GH and
201 specific molecular targets in the intestine of Mozambique tilapia that underlie nutrient
202 absorption. We specifically identified *ghr2*, *pept1a*, *pept1b*, and *glut2* as GH-stimulated gene
203 transcripts in the anterior and/or middle intestine of tilapia. GH exerts its varied actions by
204 binding to its cognate receptor in target tissues or, indirectly, through stimulating the release
205 of IGFs from the liver. In previous investigations, intact and hypophysectomized tilapia, as
206 well as cultured hepatocytes, were employed to characterize how plasma GH directs hepatic
207 *ghr2/ligf1* and plasma IGF1 patterns (Pierce et al., 2011, 2012; Breves et al., 2014). In the
208 current study, we employed hypophysectomy and hormone replacement to reveal that *ghr2*
209 expression in the anterior and middle intestine was similarly modulated by GH (Fig. 1A).
210 Collectively, these results indicate that GH promotes the gene expression of its receptor at
211 multiple sites to enhance tissue responsiveness to circulating GH under particular
212 circumstances.

213 Intestinal *pept1* and -2 expression is highly plastic in fishes (Terova et al., 2009;
214 Koven & Schulte, 2012; Bucking & Schulte, 2012), including tilapia (Nitzan et al., 2017;
215 Chourasia et al., 2018). For instance, tilapia *pept1a* is diminished during prolonged fasting
216 and restored within 3 days of refeeding (Orozco et al., 2017). In Mozambique tilapia, plasma
217 GH is elevated as early as 0.5 h following a meal, but is also elevated in fish fasted for up to 8

218 days compared with fed animals (Fox et al., 2009). In the present study, *pept1a* and *-1b* were
219 dramatically stimulated in hypophysectomized fish injected with GH (Figs. 1B, C), indicating
220 that di- and tripeptide absorption capacities are regulated (directly and/or indirectly) by GH.
221 Importantly, this apparent link between GH and *pept1a/b* gene expression is consistent with
222 the enhanced transport of peptides and amino acids by teleost intestine following GH
223 administration (Collie & Ferraris, 1985; Sun & Farmanfarmaian, 1992; Farmanfarmaian &
224 Sun, 1999; Walker et al., 2004). *pept1a*, and *-1b* levels were markedly greater in the anterior
225 and middle intestine compared with the posterior intestine, consistent with the functional
226 observation that di- and tripeptide uptake predominantly occurs in the proximal intestine of
227 tilapia (Orozco et al., 2017). We thus propose that conditions that favor growth via the
228 activation of the GH/IGF system in tilapia may stimulate GH-mediated nutrient uptake
229 through transporters such as PepT1. Moreover, we found differences in *pept1* gene expression
230 response patterns among the different intestinal segments; expression of both *pept1a* and *-1b*
231 were >10,000-fold higher in anterior and middle segments compared with the posterior
232 intestine. These regions of high *pept1* gene expression correspond to regions previously found
233 to be responsive to fasting and refeeding in Mozambique tilapia (Orozco et al., 2017).

234 The systemic and local action of GH-dependent growth factors such as Igfs and Igfbps
235 may further modulate the actions of GH on intestinal nutrient transport (Collie & Ferraris
236 1995; Sun & Farmanfarmaian, 1992; Farmanfarmaian & Sun, 1999; Walker et al., 2004). We
237 found that while *slc7a9* levels were diminished following hypophysectomy, GH injection did
238 not impact *slc7a9* levels (Fig. 1D). One explanation for this pattern is that one or more
239 pituitary factors, beyond GH, underlie the regulation of *slc7a9* in tilapia. Moreover, the
240 specific transporter(s) underlying GH-stimulated amino acid capacities may not include
241 SLC7a9. The segment-specific expression of *splt1* and *glut2* observed in the current study is
242 consistent with higher transport of simple carbohydrates in the anterior intestine compared
243 with the posterior intestine (Chen et al., 2017; Subramaniam et al., 2019). Interestingly,
244 hypophysectomized fish exhibited reduced *glut2*, but not *splt1*, in the anterior and middle
245 intestine (Fig. 1E, F). Only *glut2* levels in the anterior intestine, however, were recovered by
246 GH replacement. These results suggest that *glut2*, at least in part, may underlie the GH-
247 stimulated uptake of glucose in teleosts (Deane & Woo, 2005; Sangiao-Alvarellos et al.,
248 2005). In vertebrates, SMIT2 transports inositol phosphates that contribute to the signal

249 transduction of neurotransmitters and growth factors (Aouameur et al., 2007). In the present
250 study, expression of *smit2* along the entire length of the intestine was consistent with a recent
251 study in Nile tilapia (Subramaniam et al., 2019) but we found no evidence that endocrine GH
252 regulates intestinal *smit2*.

253 In the present study, the middle intestine was highly sensitive to GH treatment. In
254 enterectomized rabbit, expression of the amino acid transporter B⁰/ASC transporter 2
255 (ATB⁰/ASCT₂) in the ileum was stimulated by GH treatment (Avissar et al., 2004). The
256 sensitivity of nutrient transporters to GH in rabbit ileum suggests that GH sensitivity is
257 enhanced in the middle intestine of multiple vertebrate groups. Moreover, the region-specific
258 responses by particular tilapia transporters (*pept1a*, *pept1b*, *slc7a9*, and *glut2*) to
259 hypophysectomy are novel observations that warrant future investigation. We propose that
260 differences in *ghr2*/GHR2 expression may account for these region-specific patterns. Indeed,
261 receptors for GH/prolactin-family peptides are differentially expressed along the intestine of
262 Mozambique tilapia and other vertebrates (Seale et al., 2014; Ran et al., 2016; Velayudhan et
263 al., 2008). In conclusion, this study expands our understanding of how GH supports somatic
264 growth through the identification of specific transporters that underlie nutrient absorptive
265 capacities. The identification of such GH targets may contribute to the development of
266 strategies for enhancing the growth of domesticated fishes (Daniel, 2004; Hediger et al., 2004;
267 Verri et al., 2010).

268

269 **Conflict of interest**

270 There is no conflict of interest that could be perceived as prejudicing the impartiality
271 of the research reported.

272

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281

282 **Figure caption**

283 **Fig. 1.** Effects of hypophysectomy (Hx) and replacement with oGH on *ghr2* (A), *pept1a* (B),
284 *pept1b* (C), *slc7a9* (D), *splt1* (E), *glut2* (F), and *smit2* (G) levels in anterior, middle, and
285 posterior intestine. mRNA levels are presented as relative expression of the target gene
286 normalized to 18s (means \pm SEM; $n = 6-9$). Differences among groups were evaluated by
287 two-way ANOVA. Significant effects of treatment, intestinal segment, or an interaction are
288 indicated in respective panels (* $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$). When there was a
289 significant treatment effect, *post hoc* comparisons (Fisher's protected LSD test) were made
290 between groups within each intestinal segment. Within a given segment, means not sharing
291 the same lower-case letter are significantly different ($P < 0.05$). When there was a significant
292 intestinal segment effect, *post hoc* comparisons (Fisher's protected LSD test) were made
293 between control groups. Control groups not sharing the same upper-case letter are
294 significantly different ($P < 0.05$).

295

296 **References**

297

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Table 1. Gene specific primers used for qRT-PCR.

Gene	Primer Sequence (5'-3')	R²	Eff. %	Amplicon size (bp)	Accession no.	Reference
<i>18s</i>	F: GCTACCACATCCAAGGAAGGC R: TTCGTCACCTCCCCGAGT	0.99	97	69	AF497908	Magdeldin et al., 2007
<i>ghr</i>	F: CACACCTCGATCTGGACATATTACA R: CGGTTGGACAATGTCATTAACAA	0.89	106	102	EF452496	Pierce et al., 2007
<i>pept1a</i>	F: TAAAACCCCTGCCTGACTTCC R: AATCCTCATTAGCCCCAAAA	0.98	102	131	XM_003459630	Con et al., 2017
<i>pept1b</i>	F: CCAAGCCAGAACAAGGTAACA R: GGCTCAATTAGTCCCAAGTCC	0.99	97	100	XM_003447363	Con et al., 2017
<i>pept2</i>	F: CCAGTTTGGCGAGGAGCATA R: CACTGCACGTCACCTCTCAA	0.99	101	123	XM_005475385.4	Newly-designed primers
<i>slc7a9</i>	F: ATACGACGGCTGGAACAATC R: AGATAGCTCACATTCACCAGCA	0.96	93	132	XM_003445502	Nitzan et al., 2017
<i>sglt1</i>	F: CCCGAGTACTTGAAGAAGAG R: GCAATAACAGCGAGGTAGA	0.94	92	164	XM_019361133.1	Subramaniam et al., 2019
<i>smit2</i>	F: GAGACGGAAGAAGGAAGATG R: GCCCAGTAACCAATGATAAAG	0.99	96	150	XM_005461087.3	Subramaniam et al., 2019
<i>glut2</i>	F: GGCACCTCTAGCTCTGGCTGTGT R: GGGTGGTGACCTGGGTCTTCTT	0.99	99	185	XM_003442884.5	Chen et al., 2017

Figure 1

Control Sham-Saline Hx-Saline Hx-oGH

