Divergence of endocrine and metabolic responses to stress in two rainbow trout lines selected for differing cortisol responsiveness to stress

C. E. Trenzado^{1*}, T. R. Carrick² & T. G. Pottinger²

¹Departamento de Biología Animal y Ecología, Facultad de Ciencias, Universidad de Granada, Campus Fuentenueva s/n, 18071 Granada, Spain, ²Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Windermere Laboratory, The Ferry House, Far Sawrey, Ambleside, Cumbria LA22 0LP, U.K.

Running title: Stress response in selected rainbow trout

* Corresponding author: C. E. Trenzado; Departamento de Biología Animal y Ecología, Facultad de Ciencias, Universidad de Granada, Campus Fuentenueva s/n, 18071 Granada, Spain, tel: (34) 958-243247, fax: (34) 958-243238, email: ctrenzad@ugr.es. Abstract. Rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss) of two lines selected for low (LR) and high (HR) cortisol stress-responsiveness were subjected to confinement for a period of 336 hours. Endocrine (plasma cortisol, hepatic cortisol binding) and metabolic (plasma glucose, lactate, amino acids; hepatic glycogen and alanine aminotransferase levels) indices of stress were measured at intervals in confined and unconfined fish of both lines. During confinement plasma cortisol concentration reached maximum values earlier in HR fish (2 hours) than in LR fish (6 hours) returning to control values within 336 hours in both lines. Paradoxically, although both HR and LR lines displayed a characteristic metabolic stress response, these changes were more pronounced in LR fish. Plasma glucose and lactate levels increased during confinement in both lines but to a significantly greater extent in LR fish. Confinement significantly elevated plasma amino acids to a greater extent in LR fish than in HR fish. Liver glycogen concentration was depleted most rapidly in LR fish but was significantly higher in confined fish of both lines than controls at the end of the experiment. No significant changes were observed in hepatic alanine aminotransferase activity during confinement. Confined fish of both lines displayed a decrease in hepatic cortisol receptor abundance within 24 h and this was more sustained in HR fish. The more pronounced disturbance of a broad range of indicators of stress in confined LR fish, compared to HR fish, throws doubt on the magnitude of the cortisol response being the primary driver of these differences.

Key Words: stress, cortisol, selective breeding, metabolic response, rainbow trout, *Oncorhynchus mykiss*.

1. INTRODUCTION

The stress response is characterized by activation of the neuroendocrine system resulting in a cascade of physiological and metabolic changes that enable an animal to cope with a potentially hostile environment (van der Boon et al., 1991; Pickering, 1992; Wendelaar Bonga, 1997). The hormones that are primarily associated with this response are the catecholamines, adrenaline and noradrenaline, and the corticosteroids. Accurate measurement of the first presents difficulties because of the sensitivity and rapidity with which the catecholamine response to stressors occurs. The cortisol response is slower and is therefore more easily quantified. Consequently, cortisol has been widely employed as an indicator of stress in actinopterygian fishes (Pickering, 1992; Sumpter, 1997; Arends et al., 1999; Belanger et al., 2001). Cortisol release is mediated by activation of the hypothalamicpituitary-interrenal (HPI) axis (Wendelaar Bonga, 1997; Rotllant, et al., 2000) in response to a stressor. In metabolic terms, the effect of the cortisol response can be considered to be broadly catabolic. Although complex, and not fully defined, the metabolic role of cortisol in fish seems to be significant (see review by Mommsen et al., 1999) and includes the promotion of pathways that increase glucose levels in the blood (Leach and Taylor, 1980; Vijayan et al., 1997; Diouf et al., 2000). Therefore, glycogenolysis and gluconeogenesis in which metabolites such as amino acids (Milligan, 1997) and lactate (Young and Cech, 1993, 1994) are used as substrates, are activated during stress.

Cortisol release during exposure to stressful conditions has an adaptive role in the short term, but when cortisol levels are elevated over a prolonged period cortisol may increase susceptibility to disease, depress growth rates and interfere with reproduction (Pickering, 1992). During prolonged exposure to a stressor a number of mechanisms may help to reduce the deleterious effects of elevated blood cortisol levels. These include: (i) negative feedback of cortisol on the release of the hypothalamic and pituitary hormones that promote its secretion (Barton et al., 1987); (ii) desensitisation of the interrenal tissue to ACTH stimulation (Barton and Iwama, 1991; Rotllant et al., 2001); (iii) increased cortisol degradation rate (Vijayan and Leatherland, 1990); (iv) desensitisation of target tissues to cortisol via a reduction in the abundance of cortisol receptors (Pottinger, 1990). There is considerable interindividual variability in stress-induced cortisol levels and this has a genetic basis (Fevolden et al., 2002). Lines of rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) with divergent low and high cortisol responses to stressors have been produced by selective breeding, and these offer potential for optimising performance of fish under intensive rearing conditions in aquaculture (Fevolden et al., 1993, 2002; Pottinger and Carrick, 1999a). However, little is known as yet of the functional benefits or costs of being a high- or low-responder to stressors.

The aim of this study was to establish whether modifying the cortisol response to stressors by selection has any effect on the magnitude or duration of stress-induced metabolic changes (linked to intermediary metabolism) in rainbow trout and, if evident, whether such differences are mediated exclusively by the divergent cortisol response to stressors or in part by differences in target tissue sensitivity.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1. Fish

Fish used in the study were rainbow trout lines (Stirling strain; F2 generation; 187 ± 4 g; mean \pm SEM, n = 108) with a divergent responsiveness to stressors (low-responding: LR; high-responding: HR; Pottinger and Carrick, 1999a). From hatch, the fish were maintained in circular glass fibre tanks (1500 1 capacity), each tank supplied with a constant flow of Windermere lake water (30 l/min) at ambient temperature (ranging from 4°C in March to

17°C in September) and photoperiod. Fish were fed once daily, five times a week with commercial trout feed (Trouw) at the manufacturers recommended rate.

2.2. Confinement stress and sampling

Fish from LR and HR holding tanks (stocking density approx 20 kg/m³) were transferred to 50-liter confinement tanks, six fish per tank (density approx 60 kg/m³), five tanks per line. Each confinement tank was supplied with a constant flow of lake water (15 l/min). To minimise unwanted effects of stock tank environment, each confinement tank received two fish from each of three holding tanks. At each sampling time (2, 6, 24, 168, 336 hours), the fish within one confinement tank were transferred to anaesthetic (2-phenoxyethanol, 1: 2000) and a blood sample was removed within 2-3 minutes from the caudal vessels into a heparinized syringe. Six control fish for tank transfer and confinement for each line were sampled from previously undisturbed holding tanks at 0, 24, 168 and 336 hours in the same way. After blood sampling, fish were killed by a blow to the head and the weight, fork length, and sex of each fish was recorded. At 24, 168 and 336 hours the liver was removed from each fish, weighed and processed as described below.

2.3. Blood and Tissue preparation

Blood samples were kept on ice until centrifugation. After separation, plasma was dispensed in four aliquots (100 μ l for cortisol and 150 μ l for glucose, lactate and amino acids) that were stored frozen (-70°C) until required for assays. After weighing, livers were halved; one half was frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -70°C for enzyme and glycogen analysis; the remainder was placed on ice and, within 30 min of removal, was homogenized in ice cold buffer (0.2 M Tris HCl, 1 mM EDTA, 10 mM sodium molybdate and 12 mM monothioglycerol) in the ratio 1:2.5 (weight: volume). The tissue was homogenized on ice (Ultra-Turrax TP 18/10) and afterwards centrifuged at 20,000 rpm for 120 min at 4°C. The resultant cytosol was dispensed into capped tubes and frozen at -70° C until required for assay. Cytosol for alanine aminotransferase (AAT) assays was prepared in a similar manner, using a different buffer (100 mM / 250 mM Tris- sucrose pH 7.6) in a ratio 1:9 (weight: volume). For glycogen assays, livers were homogenised in 0.05 M acetate buffer in the ratio 1:5 (weight: volume) with no centrifugation step. Both preparations were stored frozen until required for assays.

2.4. Assay procedures

Plasma cortisol levels were determined by a validated radioimmunoassay procedure (Pickering et al., 1987). Plasma glucose concentrations were measured colorimetrically by the Trinder method which couples glucose oxidase to peroxidase reaction (Sigma Diagnostics, Kit. No. 315). Plasma lactate levels were also measured colorimetrically by lactate oxidase coupled to peroxidase reaction (Sigma Diagnostics, Kit No. 735). Amino acids were estimated by the ninhydrin method following the procedure of Rosen (1957). Glycogen in liver homogenates was assayed as glucose following treatment with amyloglucosidase (Roehrig and Allred, 1974). Hepatic alanine aminotrasferase was assayed in liver cytosol by colorimetric measurement of phenylhydrazones derived proportionately from the reaction of 2,4-dinitrophenylhydrazine and the pyruvic acid formed in transaminase activity (Sigma Diagnostics, Kit No. 505). The measured activity was standardized to the tissue total protein concentration, determined by the Biuret-Folin method (Ohnishi and Barr, 1978). The concentration of specific cortisol binding sites was determined by saturation analysis. Aliquots of liver cytosol (200 µl) were incubated in duplicate for 2 h at 4°C together with 50 µl of [1,2,6,7-³H] cortisol (Amersham; 1.74 TBq/mmol) at 29.14 nM, both in the absence and in the presence of 1000-fold excess of inert cortisol. After incubation, a 200-µl aliquot of dextran-coated charcoal (0.5 % activated charcoal, 0.1 % dextran, in homogenization buffer) was added to each tube. The tubes were mixed, allowed to stand on ice for 10 min, and then centrifuged at 3600 rpm for 10 min at 4°C. A 300-µl aliquot of supernatant was transferred to a 5.0-ml scintillation vial together with 4.0-ml Ecoscint A (National Diagnostics), mixed, and counted under standard ³H conditions in a Packard 1900 TR liquid scintillation counter. Sample total protein concentration was determined as above (Ohnishi and Barr, 1978).

2.5. Statistical Analysis

Multifactorial analysis of variance (ANOVA, Genstat 5) was employed to assess the significance of changes with time and differences between selection lines (HR, LR) and treatment (confined, unconfined). Where mean and variance did not vary independently, as indicated by a plot of residuals against fitted values, an appropriate transformation was applied (log or square root) to improve homogeneity of variance. Significant differences between times or treatment groups were determined using the estimated standard error of the differences between means.

3. RESULTS

3.1. Plasma cortisol

After the onset of confinement, plasma cortisol levels in both LR and HR fish increased significantly in relation to levels in the control unstressed groups (Fig. 1). Plasma cortisol levels in confined HR fish were significantly higher at 2 hours ($116 \pm 13.2 \text{ ng/ml}$) than those in the LR confined fish ($43.2 \pm 7.7 \text{ ng/ml}$; *P*<0.001). Maximum plasma cortisol levels occurred in the LR fish at 6 hours ($97.4 \pm 18.3 \text{ ng/ml}$). The initial elevation of plasma cortisol levels was followed by a progressive decrease in both LR and HR stressed groups approaching baseline levels at 168 hours (6.1 ± 0.8 and $9.3 \pm 1.9 \text{ ng/ml}$ respectively)

although these levels were still significantly higher than those in control fish at this time (1.2 \pm 0.4 and 1.3 \pm 0.6 ng/ ml respectively). At 336 hours levels in confined and control fish were similar in both LR and HR lines (LR stress and control: 2.5 \pm 0.5; 2.6 \pm 1.2; HR stress and control: 4.1 \pm 1.1; 1.0 \pm 0.2) although the difference between confined and control HR fish remained significant (*P*<0.05).

3.2. Plasma glucose

There were pronounced and significant differences between plasma glucose levels of the confined HR and LR fish. During confinement plasma glucose levels in both HR and LR fish increased significantly above those in unconfined fish of the same lines (P<0.01 at 24h; Fig. 2). However, in confined LR fish at 24 h plasma glucose levels were markedly higher (326 ± 44.5 mg/100 ml) than those in HR fish at this time (156 ± 13.2 mg/100 ml; P<0.001) and plasma glucose levels in the HR confined fish did not exceed approximately 150 ng/ml during the first 24 hours of confinement. In confined fish of both lines plasma glucose levels declined between 24 h and 168 h and were significantly lower in confined HR fish than control HR fish at 168 hours (P<0.05). After 336 hours of confinement, plasma glucose levels in the LR and HR groups were similar to each other (83.5 ± 1.4 and 94.1 ± 9.7 ng/ml respectively) and similar to those in the LR and HR control groups (84.5 ± 5.70 and 87.5 ± 7.16 ng/ml respectively).

3.3. Plasma lactate

Plasma lactate levels in both HR and LR confined groups rose rapidly within 2 hours relative to the controls, and significant differences (P<0.001; Fig. 3) were evident between the confined LR (119.3 ± 10.5 mg/100 ml) and HR (93.2 ± 5.4 mg/100 ml) fish at 2 h. Lactate in

the confined groups returned to pre-confinement levels within 6 hours of the onset of confinement. No further changes in plasma lactate levels occurred.

3.4. Plasma amino acids

Plasma amino acids showed, in both confined groups, a slight tendency to decline during the first 6 hours of confinement. This was most obvious in the HR fish resulting in significant differences (P<0.01; Fig 4.) between LR (4.8 ± 0.4 mg/100 ml) and HR (3.8 ± 0.1 mg/100 ml) fish after 6 h. At 24 hours after the onset of confinement there was a marked increase in plasma amino acids in both confined groups, but this was most evident in the LR fish with amino acid levels (7.7 ± 0.5 mg/100 ml) significantly higher than those in the HR fish (4.7 ± 0.4 mg/100 ml; P<0.001) and in the unconfined LR fish (5.2 ± 0.3 mg/100 ml; P<0.001). Plasma amino acid levels in the confined HR fish returned to pre-stress levels within 24 hours, whereas in confined LR fish 168 hours was required. From this time, no further significant differences between the stress and control groups were apparent.

3.5. Liver glycogen

At 24 hours after the onset of confinement there were significantly lower levels of glycogen in the livers of confined LR fish (25.9 \pm 4.5 mg/g wet weight; Fig. 6) than in the LR control group (67.9 \pm 6.4 mg/g wet weight; *P*<0.05) or the HR confined group (52.0 \pm 8.3 mg/g wet weight ; *P*<0.01). After 168 hours confinement, liver glycogen levels in both LR and HR groups (19.2 \pm 9.6 and 15.8 \pm 11.8; LR and HR respectively) were significantly lower (*P*< 0.001) than controls (58.8 \pm 6.1 and 56.3 \pm 8.7; LR and HR respectively). Between 168 hours and 336 hours after the start of confinement there was a marked increase in liver glycogen levels in both groups of confined fish (88.0 \pm 12.8 and 95.8 \pm 13.0; LR and HR respectively)

to levels significantly (P < 0.001; P < 0.01) higher than controls at 336 hours (43.9 ± 4.5 and 39.1 ± 8.1; LR and HR respectively).

3.6. Liver AAT

Hepatic AAT activity did not show changes during confinement in any group other than a slight but significant difference (P<0.05; Fig. 6) between the HR confined fish (1069 ± 72 mU/mg protein) and the HR control group (898 ± 33 mU/mg protein) at 168 hours.

3.7. Liver cortisol binding

The abundance of specific cortisol binding sites in liver was significantly reduced in both confinement groups at 24 hours, with significant differences (P<0.01; Fig. 7) between LR confined and control fish (26.9 ± 5.6 and 66.5 ± 9.5 fmol/mg protein respectively) and HR confined and control fish (29.3 ± 10.9 and 72.7 ± 12.4 fmol/mg protein respectively) being observed. As confinement progressed an increase in the abundance of binding sites in both HR and LR confined groups occurred such that by 336 hours there was no significant difference between LR and HR confined groups (7.2 ± 1.0 and 5.1 ± 0.5 fmol/mg protein respectively) and their corresponding controls. The number of binding sites in confined LR fish was significantly greater than that in confined HR fish at 168 hours (P<0.001) but no differences between the lines were evident at 24 hours or 336 hours. There was no significant variation with time in the number of binding sites in control groups in either line.

4. DISCUSSION

Exposure of fish from the LR and HR lines to the combined stressor of tank transfer followed by confinement resulted in a marked increase of plasma cortisol in both groups. Levels in the confined fish remained significantly greater than those in unconfined controls for almost the entire duration of the study although there was overall a marked decline in levels with time. There was a clear difference between cortisol levels in fish from the HR and LR lines at 2 hours after transfer to confinement tank, however, this was not sustained throughout the period of confinement as might have been expected from previous studies with the F1 generation of these lines (Pottinger and Carrick, 1999a). Instead, little difference was evident in cortisol levels between the lines from 6 hours onwards. The main difference in the cortisol response between the selected lines appeared to be the rate of change during the early stage of the stressor, immediately following capture and transfer. However, it is difficult to assess which element of the combined stressor is most important in evoking this response. Similar observations were made during a previous study with rainbow trout selected for stress responsiveness (Pottinger et al., 1994b) and has been confirmed during a recent study with the same F2 lines (T. G. Pottinger and K. G. T. Pulman, unpublished observations). Further investigations are being made to establish whether the dynamics of change in plasma cortisol levels during stress in the HR and LR F2 lines has altered radically from that observed in the F1 lines.

In terms of the metabolic response to the stressor in the two lines, a clear trend was apparent in the results of this study for alterations to be more pronounced in the LR fish than in the HR fish as might instead have been predicted. A hyperglycaemic response was observed during confinement in both lines. Elevation of blood glucose levels is a characteristic response of salmonid fish subjected to acute or chronic stressors (Vijayan and Moon, 1992; Vijayan et al., 1994; Biron and Benfey, 1994; Pottinger and Carrick, 1999b; Diouf et al., 2000). The glucose response pattern in confined LR and HR fish displayed similar trends, increasing to attain peak values within 24 h before declining to control values. However, plasma glucose concentrations in LR fish were more than two-fold greater than those in HR fish during the first 24 hours of confinement. While in the short-term at least this response may be catecholamine-mediated (Weber and Shanghavi, 2000) there is evidence that cortisol plays both direct and permissive roles in glycogenolysis (Mommsen et al., 1999). During recovery (24 hours-336 hours), there was an apparent undershoot in glucose levels in confined fish which declined to concentrations below those of controls, possibly as a result of continued utilisation of glucose in certain tissues with elevated energy requirements (Soengas et al., 1993). The difference in stress-induced plasma glucose levels observed here between the HR and LR lines contrasts with previous observations suggesting that selection for cortisol responsiveness had no effect on the glucose response to a stressor (Pottinger and Carrick, 1999b). However, in the previous study, glucose levels were determined at a single point, after 3 hours of confinement, and not at intervals during a prolonged period of confinement, raising the possibility that differences may have been overlooked. It is also possible that the response characteristics of the F2 lines differ from those of the F0 or F1 fish.

Several authors have demonstrated the contribution made by hepatic glycogen reserves to stressor-induced hyperglycaemia (Bourne, 1986; De Boek et al., 2000) particularly during short-term responses. In the present study only in the LR fish were liver glycogen concentrations significantly lower than control groups after 24 hours of confinement, although it must be borne in mind that the absence of data for time 0 for confined fish does not allow us to say with certainty that glycogen declined at 24 hours. If a genuine change, this lower level may be functionally related to the considerably higher plasma glucose levels observed in the LR fish than HR fish at this time and therefore might reflect differences in glucose mobilization between the lines, perhaps linked to differential activation of the glycogenolytic pathways. In particular those associated with an increase in glycogen phosphatase (GPase) activity linked to a decrease in glycogen synthetase (GSase) activity (Soengas et al., 1992b, 1993). The return of plasma glucose levels to pre-stress baseline levels coincided with the

recovery of hepatic glycogen that could be explained by a stimulation of GSase activity linked to a decrease in GPase activity (Soengas et al., 1992a). These results agree with previous experiments that demonstrate the recovery of glycogen stores after a period of stress (Morales et al., 1990). In both confined HR and LR fish hepatic glycogen concentrations were higher than those in control fish at the end of the study. The replenishment of glycogen reserves by glyconeogenesis may occur at the expense of other substrates such as lipids and proteins (Vijayan and Moon, 1992; Vijayan et al., 1994) and this may have occurred here.

The glycogenolytic action of catecholamines during stress is well established (Janssens and Waterman, 1988; Ottolenghi et al., 1989; Fabri et al., 1998) but there is also evidence that cortisol makes an important contribution to glycogen mobilization (Paxton et. al., 1984; Morales et al., 1990; Soengas et al., 1992b, 1993; Reubush and Heath, 1996). However, in this case the most pronounced elevation of plasma glucose was observed in the LR group and the hyperglycaemic response in the HR fish was muted, suggesting, on the basis of blood cortisol levels in the two lines, little direct involvement of cortisol in glucose mobilisation. Furthermore, at 168 hours after the onset of confinement the HR fish showed a decrease in hepatic glycogen concentration that was not clearly correlated to an increase in either cortisol or glucose. Of course, hormones other than the catecholamines and cortisol, such as thyroxine and glucagon, are implicated in glycogen breakdown (Janssens and Waterman, 1988; Soengas et al., 1992b). Enhanced glycogen breakdown in the absence of increased total glucose production has previously been interpreted to indicate a mobilization of carbohydrate reserves for endogenous use by the liver (Vijayan et al., 1993).

An increase in plasma lactate levels is one of the earliest responses associated with "urgent" fuel consumption in tissues. It is manifested as a result of anaerobic metabolism in white

muscle. Both acute and chronic stressors elicit a rise in plasma lactate levels, presumably primarily due to physical disturbance and hypoxia arising from the onset of stressful conditions, and this response has been widely used as an indicator of stress in fish (Huber et al., 1989; Rotllant et al., 2001). Results in the present study are consistent with those from others (Schoonbee et al., 1989; Vijayan and Moon, 1992; Vijayan et al., 1994; Barton et al., 1998; Iversen et al., 1998; Barton et al., 2000) with confined groups displaying a rapid increase in plasma lactate levels within 2 hours of the onset of confinement. Interestingly, this elevation of lactate was significantly greater in the LR than HR fish. Baseline levels of lactate were re-established in the confined fish of both lines within 6 hours. The rapid removal of circulating lactate may be in part the result of a gluconeogenic conversion to glucose (Reubush and Heath, 1996) but it is possible that some of the lactate used by the liver is channelled for the replenishment of glycogen in addition to glucose production (Vijayan et al., 1994).

Plasma amino acid levels in both groups of confined fish displayed a slight decrease relative to control groups during the first 6 hours of confinement. It has previously been suggested that a decline in plasma amino acids observed in hypoxic conditions in rainbow trout was due to an increased utilization by tissues for energy supply, for example via participation in hepatic gluconeogensis (Medale et al. 1987). After 6 hours of confinement the decrease was followed by an elevation in plasma total amino acid concentration that in LR fish reached significantly higher values than HR, which only returned to pre-stress basal levels. A number of authors have reported an increase in plasma amino acids after exhaustive exercise, handling, or confinement (Morales et al., 1990; Braley and Anderson, 1992; Milligan, 1997; Vijayan et al., 1997). It has been shown that elevated cortisol levels can provoke a net catabolism of peripheral proteins (synthesis is also inhibited) and an elevation of plasma free

amino acid levels would be followed by a gluconeogenic removal (van der Boon et al., 1991; Vijayan et al., 1997). High plasma amino acid levels lead to induction of liver aminotransferases and consequently the participation of these metabolites in hepatic gluconeogenesis (Morales et al., 1990; van der Boon et al., 1991; Milligan, 1997). Several studies have provided evidence that alanine constitutes a good hepatic gluconeogenic precursor in fish (Medale et al., 1987; Braley and Anderson, 1992; Vijayan et al., 1994). However, in this study there was no evidence of a systematic induction of AAT activity in confined groups. This is consistent with the findings of Foster and Moon (1986) who showed that AAT activity was not affected by cortisol administration. Other transaminases (TAT, GOT) may have been affected (van Der Boon et al., 1991), but increased activity in these enzymes has not been reported to occur in response to cortisol administration (Leach and Taylor, 1982). The disparity in the extent to which plasma amino acid levels were elevated in the two lines during confinement contrasts with the similarity in hepatic glycogen concentrations that was evident by the end of the confinement period and counters the likelihood that transamination contributed significantly to the re-establishment of liver glycogen levels.

Cortisol-dependent effects are mediated at the target tissue by specific receptors. Persistent stimulation of cortisol-sensitive pathways may be detrimental and consequently target tissue receptor abundance may be down-regulated. In this study, re-establishment of hepatic cytosolic cortisol receptor numbers in confined fish appears to proceed more rapidly in LR than HR fish, despite there being no substantial difference in the blood cortisol profiles for the two groups of confined fish from 24 h onwards. Most of the pronounced differences in plasma and hepatic metabolite levels between HR and LR fish that occurred during confinement were

evident within the first 24 h of the onset of confinement. At this time, hepatic cortisol receptor numbers were similar in both HR and LR fish.

Overall, these observations suggest that the divergent alterations in intermediary metabolism observed during confinement in fish from the HR and LR lines were not dependent on either plasma cortisol levels or on target tissue sensitivity to cortisol. We interpret these data to indicate that the response of the HR and LR fish to stressors may be characterised by divergence across a range of responses that share a commonality other than the hypothalamicpituitary-interrenal axis. This is not entirely consistent with emerging data on differences between the lines in behaviour (Pottinger and Carrick, 2001a; Øverli et al., 2002) and in brain monoaminergic profiles (Øverli et al., 2001). A recent study suggests that the interrenal is the site at which HPI divergence is mediated in these lines (Pottinger and Carrick, 2001b) and that therefore differences in behaviour and brain neuroendocrinology can be explained in terms of direct effects of cortisol. The present data do not readily fit this hypothesis and the possibility that selection may have altered, for example, the chromaffin catecholaminergic response to stress must also be considered. Further work will be required to clarify the causality of the differences in metabolic responsiveness between the two lines. In practical terms, from an aquaculture perspective these data clearly indicate that selection of one specific trait may inadvertently co-select for other alterations in ways that are unpredictable and may even be detrimental to the performance of the fish in culture conditions.

Acknowledgements

This study was funded by the Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia (Spain) and by the Natural Environment Research Council (U.K.). The authors would like to thank Dr. Manuel de la Higuera for his academic and intellectual support.

REFERENCES

- Arends, R. J., Mancera, J. M., Muñoz, J. L., Wendelaar Bonga, S. E. and Flik, G. 1999. The stress response of the gilthead sea bream (*Sparus aurata* L.) to air exposure and confinement. J. Endocrinol., 163:149-157.
- Barton, B. A., Bollig, H., Hauskins, B. L. and Jansen, C. R. 2000. Juvenile pallid (*Scaphirhynchus albus*) and hybrid pallid x shovelnose (*S. albus x platorynchus*) sturgeons exhibit low physiological responses to acute handling and severe confinement. Comp. Biochem. Physiol., 126A: 125-134.
- Barton, B. A. and Iwama, G.K. 1991. Physiological changes in fish from stress in aquaculture with emphasis on the response and effects of corticosteroids. Ann. Rev. Fish Dis., 1: 3-26.
- Barton, B. A., Rahn, A. B., Feist, G., Bolling, H. and Schreck, C. B. 1998. Physiological stress responses of the freshwater chondrostean paddlefish (*Polyodon spathula*) to acute physical disturbances. Comp. Biochem. Physiol., 120A: 355-363.
- Barton, B. A., Schreck, C. B. and Barton, L. D. 1987. Effects of chronic cortisol administration and daily acute stress on growth, physiological conditions, and stress responses in juvenile rainbow trout. Dis. Aquat. Org., 2: 173-185.
- Belanger, J. M., Son, J. H., Laugero, K. D., Moberg, G. P., Doroshov, S. I., Lankford, S. E. and Cech Jr., J. J. 2001. Effects of short-term management stress and ACTH injections on plasma cortisol levels in cultured white sturgeon, *Acipenser transmontanus*. Aquaculture, 203: 165-176.
- Biron, M. and Benfey, T. J. 1994. Cortisol, glucose and hematocrit changes during acute stress, cohort sampling, and the diel cycle in diploid and triploid brook trout (*Salvelinus fontinalis* Mitchill). Fish Physiol. Biochem.,13: 153-160.

- Bourne, P. K. 1986. Changes in haematological parameters assciated with capture and captivity of the marine teleost, *Pleuronectes platessa* L. Comp. Biochem. Physiol., 85A: 435-443.
- Braley, H. and Anderson, T. A. 1992. Changes in blood metabolite concentrations in response to repeated capture, anaesthesia and blood sampling in the golden perch, *Macquaria ambigua*. Comp. Biochem. Physiol., 103A: 445-450.
- Carragher, J. F. and Rees, C. M. 1994. Primary and secondary stress responses in golden perch, *Macquaria anbigua*. Comp. Biochem. Physiol., 107: 49-56.
- Diouf, B., Rioux, P., Blier, P. U. and Rajotte, D. 2000. Use of brook char (Salvelinus fontinalis) physiological responses to stress as a teaching exercise. Advanc. Physiol. Educ., 23: 18-23.
- De Boeck, G., Vlaeminck, A., Van der Linden, A. and Blust, R. 2000. The energy metabolism of common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) when exposed to salt stress: an increase in energy expenditure or effects of starvation?. Physiol. Bichem. Zool., 73: 102-111.
- Fabbri, E., Capuzzo, A. and Moon, T. W. 1998. The role of circulating catecholamines in the regulation of fish metabolism: An overwiew. Comp. Biochem. Physiol., 120C: 177-192.
- Fevolden, S. E., Refstie, T. and Gjerde, B. 1993. Genetic and phenotypic parameters for cortisol and glucose stress response in Atlantic salmon and rainbow trout. Aquaculture, 118: 205-216.
- Foster, G. D. and Moon, T. W. 1986. Cortisol and liver metabolism of immature American eels, *Anguilla rostrata* (LeSueur). Fish Physiol. Biochem., 2: 113-124.
- Fevolden, S. E., Roed, K. H. and Fjalestad, K. T. 2002. Selection response of cortisol and lysozyme in rainbow trout and correlation to growth. Aquaculture, 205: 61-75.

- Huber, M., Dalla Via, J. and Wieser, W. 1989. Fish intermediary metabolism and recovery after acute handling stress. Aquaculture- A biotechnology in progress. De Pauw, N., Jaspers, E., Ackefors, H., Wilkins, N. (Eds). European Aquaculture Society, Bredene, Belgium.
- Iversen, M., Finstad, B. and Nilssen, K. J. 1998. Recovery from loading and transport stress in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.) smolts. Aquaculture, 168: 387-394.
- Janssens, P. A. and Waterman J. 1988. Hormonal regulation of gluconeogenesis and glycogenolysis in carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) liver pieces cultured *in vitro*. Comp. Biochem. Physiol., 91A: 451-455.
- Leach, G. J. and Taylor, M. H. 1980. The role of cortisol in stress-induced metabolic changes in *"Fundulus heteroclitus"*. Gen. Comp. Endocrinol. 42: 219-227.
- Leach, G. J. and Taylor, M. H. 1982. The effects of cortisol treatment on carbohydrate and protein metabolism in *Fundulus heteroclitus*. Gen. Comp. Endorinol., 48: 76-83.
- Medale, F., Parent, J. P. and Vellas, F. 1987. Responses to prolonged hypoxia by rainbow trout (*Salmo gairdneri*) I. Free amino acids and proteins in plasma, liver and white muscle. Fish Physiol. Biochem., 3: 183-189.
- Milligan, C. L.1997. The role of cortisol in amino acid mobilization and metabolism following exhaustive exercise in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss* Walbaum). Fish Physiol. Biochem., 16: 119-128.
- Mommsen, T. P., Vijayan, M. M. and Moon, T. W. (1999). Cortisol in teleosts: dynamics, mechanisms of action, and metabolic regulation. Rev. Fish Biol. Fisheries, 9: 211-268.
- Morales, A. E, García-Rejón, L. and De la Higuera, M. 1990. Influence of handling and/or anaesthesia on stress response in rainbow trout. Effects on liver primary metabolism. Comp. Biochem. Physiol., 95A: 87-93.

- Ohnishi, S. T. and Barr, J. K. 1978. A simplified method of quantitating protein using biuret and phenol reagents. Anal. Biochem., 86: 193-200.
- Ottolenghi, C., Puviani, A. C., Gavioli, M. E., Fabbri, E., Brichenti, L. and Plisetskaya, E. M. 1989. Glycogenolytic action of glucagon-family peptides and epinephrine on catfish hepatocytes. Fish Physiol. Biochem., 6: 387-394.
- Øverli, Ø., Pottinger, T. G., Carrick, T. R., Øverli, E., Winberg, S. (2001). Brain monoaminergic activity in rainbow trout selected for high and low stress responsiveness. Brain Behav. Evol., 57: 214-224.
- Øverli, Ø., Pottinger, T. G., Carrick, T. R., Øverli, E. And Winberg, S. (2002). Differences in behaviour between rainbow trout selected for high- and low-stress responsiveness. J. Exp. Biol., 205: 391-395.
- Paxton, R., Gist, D. H. and Umminger, B. L. 1984. Serum cortisol levels in thermally-aclimated goldfish (*Carassius auratus*) and killifish (*Fundulus heteroclitus*): implications in control of hepatic glycogen metabolism. Comp. Biochem. Physiol., 78 B: 813-816.
- Pickering, A. D. 1992. Rainbow trout husbandry: management of the stress response. Aquaculture, 100: 125-139.
- Pickering, A. D., Pottinger, T. G. and Sumpter, J. P. 1987. On the use of dexamethasone to block the pituitary-interrenal axis in the brown trout, *Salmo trutta* L. Gen. Comp. Endocrinol., 65: 346-353.
- Pottinger, T. G. 1990. The effect of stress and exogenous cortisol on receptor-like binding of cortisol in liver of rainbow trout, *Oncorhynchus mykiss*. Gen. Comp. Endocrinol., 78: 194-203.
- Pottinger, T. G. and Carrick, T. G. 1999a. Modification of the plasma cortisol response to stress in rainbow trout by selective breeding. Gen. Comp. Endocrinol., 116: 122-132.

- Pottinger, T. G. and Carrick, T. G. 1999b. A comparison of plasma glucose and plasma cortisol as selection markers for high and low stress-responsiveness in female rainbow trout. Aquaculture, 175: 351-363.
- Pottinger, T. G. and Carrick, T. R. (2001a). Stress responsiveness affects dominantsubordinate relationships in rainbow trout. Horm. Behav., 40: 419-427.
- Pottinger, T. G. and Carrick, T. R. (2001b). ACTH does not mediate divergent stress responsiveness in rainbow trout. Comp. Biochem. Physiol. A, 129: 399-404.
- Pottinger, T. G., Carrick, T. G., Appleby, A. and Yeomans, W. E. 2000. High blood cortisol levels and low cortisol receptor affinity: is the chub, *Leuciscus cephalus*, a cortisolresistant teleost?. Gen. Comp. Endocrinol., 120: 108-117.
- Pottinger, T. G., Knudsen, F. R. and Wilson, J. 1994a. Stress-induced changes in the affinity and abundance of cytosolic cortisol-binding sites in the liver of rainbow trout, *Oncorhynchus mykiss* (Walbaum), are not accompanied by changes in measurable nuclear binding. Fish Physiol. Biochem., 12: 499-511.
- Pottinger, T. G., Moran, T. A. and Morgan, J. A. W. (1994b). Primary and secondary indices of stress in the progeny of rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss* Walbaum) selected for high and low responsiveness to stress. J. Fish Biol., 44: 149-163.
- Reubush, K. J. and Heath, A. G. 1996. Metabolic responses to acute handling by fingerling inland and anadromous striped bass. J. Fish Biol., 49: 830-841.
- Roehrig, K. L. and Allred, J. B. 1974. Direct enzymatic procedure for the determination of liver glycogen. Anal. Biochem., 58: 414-421.
- Rosen, H. 1957. A modified ninhydrin colorimetric analysis for amino acids. Arch. Biochem. Biophys., 67: 10-15.
- Rotllant, J., Balm, P. H., Pérez-Sánchez, J., Wendelaar Bonga, S. E. and Tort, L. 2000. Pituitary proopiomelanocortin-derived peptides and hypothalamus-pituitary-interrenal

axis activity in gilthead sea bream (*Sparus aurata*) during prolonged crowding stress: differential regulation of adrenocorticotropin hormone and alpha-malanocytestimulating hormone release by corticotropin-releasing hormone and thyrotropinreleasing hormone. Gen. Comp. Endocrinol., 119: 152-163.

- Rotllant, J., Balm, P. H., Pérez-Sánchez, J., Wendellar Bonga, S. E. and Tort, L. 2001.
 Pituitary and interrenal function in gilthead sea bream (*Sparus aurata* L., *Teleostei*) after handling and confinement stress. Gen. Comp. Endocrinol., 121: 333-342.
- Schoonbee, H. J., Barham, W. T. and Visser, J. G. J. 1989. An evaluation of the effects of handling, exercise, and transport stress on selected blood parameters of *Oreochromis mossambicus* (Peters). De Pauw, N., Jaspers, E., Ackefors, H., Wilkins, N. (Eds). European Aquaculture Society, Bredene, Belgium.
- Soengas, J. L., Fuentes, J., Otero, J., Andrés, M. D. and Aldegunde, M. 1992a. Seasonal changes in carbohydrate metabolism in the rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) and their relationship to changes in gill (Na⁺ -K⁺) ATPase activity. Aquaculture, 108: 369-380.
- Soengas, J. L., Rey, P., Rozas, G., Andrés, M. D. and Aldegunde, M. 1992b. Effects of cortisol and thyroid hormone treatment on the glycogen metabolism of selected tissues of domesticated rainbow trout, *Oncorhynchus mykiss*. Aquaculture, 101: 317-328.
- Soengas, J. L, Barciela, P., Fuentes, J., Otero, J., Andrés, M. D. and Aldegunde, M. 1993. The effect of seawater transfer on liver carbohydrate metabolism of domesticated rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*). Comp. Biochem. Physiol., 105B: 337-343.
- Sumpter, J. P. 1997. The endocrinology of stress. *In* "Fish Stress and Health in Aquaculture" (G. K. Iwama, A. D. Pickering, J. P. Sumpter, and C. B. Schreck, Eds.), pp:102-108. Cambridge Univ. Press, Cambridge, UK.

- van der Boon, J., Van Den Thillart, G. E. E. J. M. and Addink, A.D.F. 1991. The effects of cortisol on intermediary metabolism in teleost fish. Comp. Biochem. Physiol., 100A: 47-53.
- Vijayan, M. M., Foster, G. D. and Moon, T. W. 1993. Effects of cortisol on hepatic carbohydrate metabolism and responsiveness to hormones in the sea raven, *Hemitripterus americanus*. Fish Physiol. Biochem., 12: 327-335.
- Vijayan, M. M. and Leatherland, J. F. 1990. High stocking density affects cortisol secretion and tissue distribution in brook charr, *Salvelinus fontinalis*. J. Endocrinol., 124: 311-318.
- Vijayan, M. M. and Moon, T. W. 1992. Acute handling stress alters hepatic glycogen metabolism in food-deprived rainbow trout (*Oncorhinchus mykiss*). Can. J. Fish. Aquat. Sci., 49: 2260-2266.
- Vijayan, M. M., Pereira, C., Grau, E. G. and Iwama, G. K. 1997. Metabolic responses associated with confinement stress in tilapia: the role of cortisol. Comp. Biochem. Physiol., 116C: 89-95.
- Vijayan, M. M., Pereira, C. and Moon, T. W. 1994. Hormonal stimulation of hepatocyte metabolism in rainbow trout following an acute handling stress. Comp. Biochem. Physiol., 108C: 321-329.
- Weber, J. M. and Shanghavi, D. S. (2000). Regulation of glucose production in rainbow trout: role of epinephrine in vivo and in isolated hepatocytes. American Journal of Physiology-Regulatory Integrative and Comparative Physiology, 278: R956-R963.
- Wendelaar Bonga, S. E. 1997. The stress-response in fish. Physiological Reviews,. 77: 591-625.

- Young, P. S. and Cech, J.J. Jr. 1993. Effects of exercise conditioning on stress responses and recovery in cultured and wild young-of-the-year striped bass, *Morone saxatilis*. Can. J. Fish. Aquat. Sci. 50: 2094-2099.
- Young, P. S. and Cech, J.J. Jr. 1994. Effects of different exercise conditioning velocities on the energy reserves and swimming stress responses in young-of-the-year striped bass (*Morone saxatilis*). Can. J. Fish. Aquat. Sci. 51: 1528-1534.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Fig. 1. Plasma cortisol levels in LR and HR unconfined control and confined fish at intervals following the onset of confinement. Each point is the mean \pm SEM, n = 6. Significant differences between confined LR and HR groups are denoted by: * *P*<0.05, ** *P*<0.02, *** *P*<0.01, **** *P*<0.001. Significant differences between confined and unconfined control groups from the same line (LR or HR) are denoted by: **a** p < 0.05, **b** p < 0.02, **c** p < 0.01, **d** p < 0.001.

Fig. 2. Plasma glucose levels in LR and HR unconfined control and confined fish at intervals following the onset of confinement. Each point is the mean \pm SEM, n = 6. Significant differences between confined LR and HR groups are denoted by: * *P*<0.05, ** *P*<0.02, *** *P*<0.01, **** *P*<0.001. Significant differences between confined and unconfined control groups from the same selection (LR or HR) are denoted by: **a** p < 0.05, **b** p < 0.02, **c** p < 0.01, **d** p < 0.001.

Fig. 3. Plasma lactate levels in LR and HR unconfined control and confined fish at intervals following the onset of confinement. Each point is mean \pm SEM, n = 6. Significant differences between LR and HR confined groups are denoted by: * *P*<0.05, ** *P*<0.02, *** *P*<0.01, **** *P*<0.001.

Fig. 4. Plasma total amino acid levels in LR and HR unconfined control and confined fish at intervals following the onset of confinement. Each point is the mean \pm SEM, n = 6. Significant differences between LR and HR confined groups are denoted by: * *P*<0.05, ** *P*<0.02, *** *P*<0.01, **** *P*<0.001. Significant differences between confined and unconfined

control groups from the same line (LR or HR) are denoted by: **a** P<0.05, **b** P<0.02, **c** P<0.01, **d** P<0.001.

Fig. 5. Liver glycogen levels in LR and HR unconfined control and confined fish at 24, 168, and 336 hours of confinement. Each point is the mean \pm SEM, n = 6. Significant differences between LR and HR confined groups are denoted by: * *P*<0.05, ** *P*<0.02, *** *P*<0.01, **** *P*<0.001. Significant differences between confined and unconfined control groups from the same line (LR or HR) are denoted by: **a** *P*<0.05, **b** *P*<0.02, **c** *P*<0.01, **d** *P*<0.001.

Fig. 6. Liver AAT activity in LR and HR unconfined control and confined fish at 24, 168, and 336 hours of confinement. Each point is the mean \pm SEM, n = 6. Significant differences between LR and HR confined groups are denoted by: * *P*<0.05, ** *P*<0.02, *** *P*<0.01, **** *P*<0.001. Significant differences between confined and unconfined control groups from the same selection (LR or HR) are denoted by: **a** *P*<0.05, **b** *P*<0.02, **c** *P*<0.01, **d** *P*<0.001.

Fig. 7. The abundance of specific hepatic cortisol binding sites (Bs) in LR and HR unconfined control and confined fish at 24, 168, and 336 hours of confinement. Each point is the mean \pm SEM, n = 6. Significant differences between LR and HR confined groups are denoted by: * P<0.05, ** P<0.02, *** P<0.01, **** P<0.001. Significant differences between stress and control groups from the same selection (LR or HR) are denoted by: **a** P<0.05, **b** P<0.02, **c** P<0.01, **d** P<0.001.

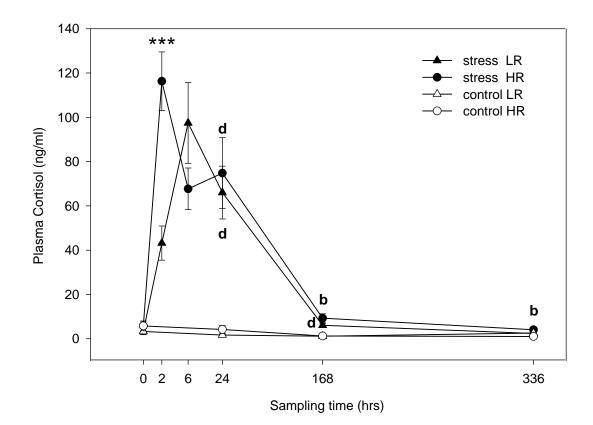


Fig 1.

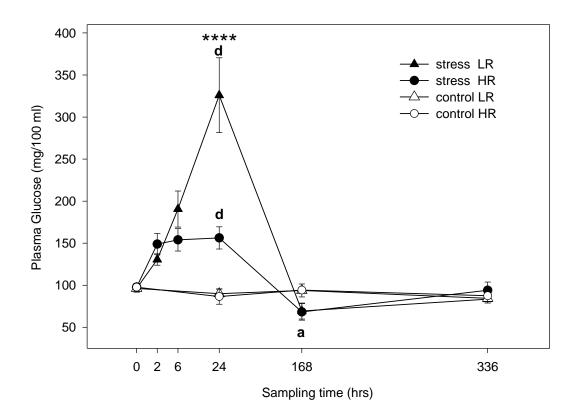


Fig 2.

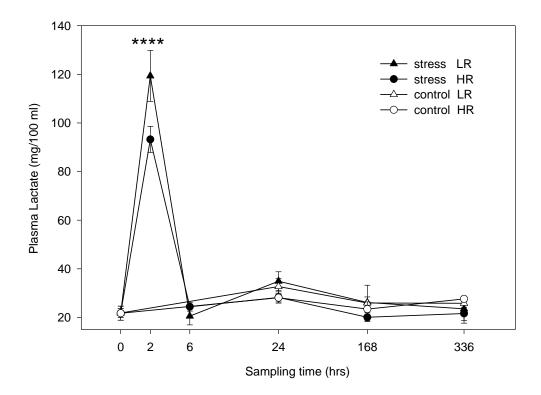
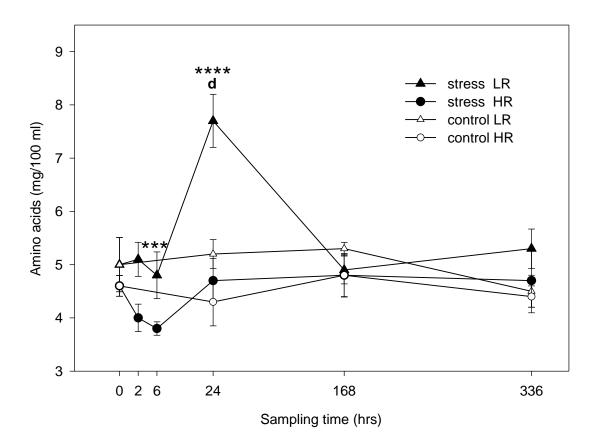


Fig 3.





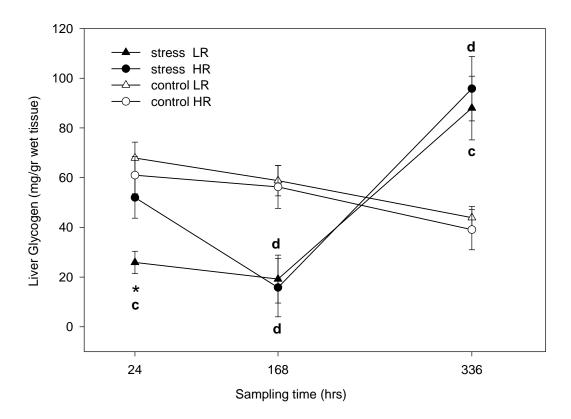


Fig 5.

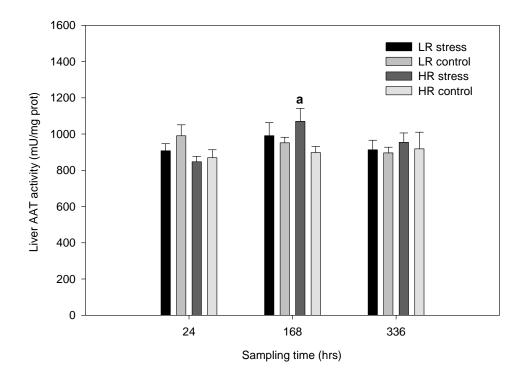


Fig 6.

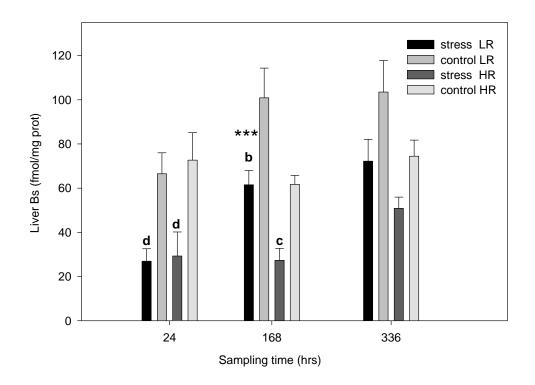


Fig 7.