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Behavioural fever in zebrafish larvae

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1	Behavioural fever in zebrafish larvae				
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28 Highlights (max 85 characters)

- Behavioural fever is a synergic immune response to infection in ectotherms.
 Zebrafish larvae (*Danio rerio*) select their preferred temperature within a vertical gradient tank.
- The onset of the behavioural fever response was established at 18-20 dpf.
- Under an immersion challenge with double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) zebrafish
 larvae display a behavioural fever response coupled to increased antiviral
 mRNA transcript abundance.

36 Abstract

Behavioural fever has been reported in different species of mobile ectotherms 37 including the zebrafish, Danio rerio, in response to exogenous pyrogens. In this study 38 we report, to our knowledge for the first time, upon the ontogenic onset of behavioural 39 40 fever in zebrafish (Danio rerio) larvae. For this, zebrafish larvae (from first feeding to juveniles) were placed in a continuous thermal gradient providing the opportunity to 41 select their preferred temperature. The novel thermal preference aquarium was based 42 43 upon a continuous vertical column system and allows for non-invasive observation of larvae vertical distribution under isothermal (T_R at 28 °C) and thermal gradient 44 conditions (T_{CH}: 28-32°C). Larval thermal preference was assessed under both 45 conditions with or without an immersion challenge, in order to detect the onset of the 46 47 behavioural fever response. Our results defined the onset of the dsRNA induced 48 behavioural fever at 18-20 days post fertilisation (dpf). Significant differences were observed in dsRNA challenged larvae, which prefer higher temperatures (1-4°C 49 increase) throughout the experimental period as compared to non-challenged larvae. In 50 51 parallel we measured the abundance of antiviral transcripts; viperin, gig2, irf7, trim25 and Mxb mRNAs in dsRNA challenged larvae under both thermal regimes: T_R and T_{Ch} . 52

53 Significant increases in the abundance of all measured transcripts were recorded under 54 thermal choice conditions signifying that thermo-coupling and the resultant 55 enhancement of the immune response to dsRNA challenge occurs from 18 dpf onwards 56 in the zebrafish. The results are of importance as they identify a key developmental 57 stage where the neuro-immune interface matures in the zebrafish likely providing 58 increased resistance to viral infection.

59 Keywords

60 Zebrafish larvae, thermo-preference, behavioural fever, antiviral response, dsRNA61 challenge, larval development, temperature choice.

62 1. Introduction

Fever, an ancient defensive reaction from the innate immune system in response 63 64 to infection, occurs in all groups of vertebrates and some invertebrates (Bicego et al., 2007). Endotherms regulate their body temperature by behavioural and autonomic 65 means by increasing their core body temperature in response to stress or infection 66 (stress induced hyperthermia-SIH and fever). Fever is mediated by endogenous 67 pyrogens such as the prostaglandins or by exogenous pyrogens such as bacterial 68 lipopolysaccharides or viral RNA. The fever response is closely associated with the 69 activation of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis and the sympathetic-70 adrenal-medullary (SAM) system in mammals or their functional equivalent across the 71 vertebrates leading to the release of adrenocorticotropic hormone (ACTH) and 72 73 corticosterone or in fish, cortisol (Adriaan Bouwknecht et al., 2007; Carl V. Gisolfi and Francisco Mora, 2000). Mobile ectotherms such as fish thermoregulate mainly by 74 75 behavioural means by locating themselves at their preferred optimal temperature in their environment if available. The behavioural fever response is an acute change in the 76

individuals thermal set-point driven by stress (Rey et al., 2015) or by pathogen
recognition with a subsequent immune response (Reynolds et al., 1976, Boltana et al,
2013). In ectotherms the fever response is suggested to be mediated by prostaglandins
acting at the preoptic area (POAH) of the hypothalamus in the central nervous system
(CNS). However the neural pathways responsible for the effector response are still
mostly unknown (Bicego et al., 2007; Hamada et al., 2008).

83 Behavioural fever in response to infection has been described in several adult fish species like bluegill (Lepomis macrochirus) and goldfish, Carassius auratus,, 84 (Reynolds et al., 1978a and b), Mozambique tilapia, Oreochromis mossambicus, (Tsai 85 and Hoh, 2012), Nile tilapia, Oreochromis niloticus, (Cerqueira et al., 2016) and in 86 response to the proinflammatory cytokine, interleukin 1 beta (II1 β) in the rainbow trout, 87 Oncorhynchus mykiss, (Gräns et al., 2012). In zebrafish, behavioural fever induced by 88 viral infection or dsRNA challenge, promotes extensive and highly specific 89 temperature-dependent changes in the brain transcriptome. These changes, highlighted 90 by a significant increase in antiviral mRNA transcript abundance, promote an 91 abrogation of the viral infection and increased survival (Boltaña et al., 2013). Increased 92 survival to infection has been shown in several studies (Covert and Reynolds, 1977; 93 Elliot et al., 2002; Golovanov, 2006a; Kluger, 1986) suggesting an evolutionary link 94 and important regulatory role for behaviour fever in ectothermic vertebrates. 95

Interestingly, there are few studies available addressing fish larval distribution in
thermal gradients (Catalán et al., 2011; Golovanov, 2013; Vollset et al., 2009) although
such systems are clearly pertinent to some natural aquatic systems including the native
habitat of the zebrafish. On the other hand there is a significant body of research
describing the utility of zebrafish for studies of the immune system (Meijer and Spaink,
2011; Novoa and Figueras, 2012; Van Der Vaart et al., 2012; Yoder et al., 2002) and the

development of the immune system itself (Trede et al., 2004). Innate immune responses 102 103 have been described earlier than 5 days post fertilisation (dpf) in zebrafish larvae (Dios 104 et al. 2010) although the major maturation events of the complete immune system are 105 described to occur 2-4 weeks post-fertilization (Lam et al., 2004). To our knowledge no 106 studies have reported upon the development of thermal choice behaviour in zebrafish larvae or upon the activation of the immune system under such conditions. A few 107 studies have suggested that fish larvae selecting higher environmental temperatures 108 109 would exhibit an improved immune performance (Casterlin, 1977; Catalán et al., 2012) however no gene expression data was reported. 110

In this study we firstly report upon thermal preference in zebrafish larvae at different days post fertilization in order to understand dynamic changes in thermal choice behaviour during development. We then identify the emergence of the behavioural fever response to an immersion challenge with dsRNA mimicking a viral infection. Finally we determined how the immune response was enhanced at the gene expression level by measuring selected anti-viral response mRNAs in whole larvae.

117

118 2. Materials and Methods

119 2.1 Animals and rearing conditions

Adult wild-type short fin (WT as defined by ZFIN.org) an unspecified outbred population of zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) were bred and reared in a recirculating aquarium rack system (zfbiolabs®) at the aquarium facilities of the IBB (Institut de Biotecnologia i Biomedicina, UAB, Spain). Broodstock were maintained in separated tanks of 25 litres each at $28^{\circ}C \pm 1^{\circ}C$ water temperature on a 14 L: 10 D photoperiod cycle. A week before breeding they were fed a combination of bloodworm and dry food (zfbiolabs®) two or three times per day to improve their body condition. Mass breeding was carried

127 out using six adult males and six adult females, from different breeding stocks, placed 128 together in a small 6 L breeding tank in the afternoon and left overnight. Embryos were collected in the early morning from the breeding tank and transferred to Petri dishes 129 with E3 medium. Embryos and larvae were reared following established protocols 130 (Lawrence, 2007; zfin.org) and fed with an artificial fresh zebrafish larvae diet 131 (zfbiolabs®). At 5 days post fertilization (dpf) when larvae inflated their swim bladders, 132 they were transferred to a 6L tank system and kept at 28°C. At 6 dpf the yolk was 133 mostly depleted and first feeding began. All protocols and animal experiments were 134 approved by the Institutional Animal Care Committee and by the Ethics and Animal 135 Welfare Committee of the Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, Spain, and adhere to 136 Spanish National and Institutional guidelines and regulations (Dir 2010/63/UE). 137

138

139 2.2 Vertical gradient establishment

Experiments were performed using an in house custom-built tank system that 140 141 consisted of a series of four hollow methacrylate columns (28,5 cm length and 1,2 cm 142 diameter) used as replicate tanks for the experiments. Each tube was filled with treated and filtered water from the aquarium at 28°C. The gradient was established and 143 stabilised using an external water jacket system set at different temperatures. This set-up 144 145 provided a continuous vertical thermal gradient within the columns (Mean±SD: 32,35°C \pm 0,12 - 27,93°C \pm 0,26; from top to bottom respectively mimicking natural thermal 146 gradients; see schematic experimental set-up in Fig 1). Water temperature in the vertical 147 column was recorded by a thermal sensors located within different zones of the water 148 149 column (Thermocouple thermometer 53/54 II, Fluke®). No significant differences were 150 noted in oxygen levels throughout the gradient.

151

152 2.3 Zebrafish larvae thermopreferendum at different dpf.

Prior to the challenge test, spatial vertical distribution of the zebrafish larvae 153 under normal conditions (non-challenged) in the water column at constant (28°C) and 154 under thermal gradient (27-34°C) was assessed. Under constant temperature we 155 assessed space/area preference and by implementing a more extended gradient for 156 thermal preference we aimed to capture changes in thermal preference during 157 development. Five groups of naïve larvae (n=6 larvae/group) were used. Each group 158 159 was placed in one of the five gradient columns either at constant temperature or under thermal gradient. Three key different ontogenetic times were selected: 6 dpf, after gas 160 bladder inflation; 13dpf, after yolk sac absorption at the end of early larvae and 24 dpf, 161 close to the end of mid larvae. Distribution of the larvae was assessed by visual 162 instantaneous scan sampling each 15 min during 10 sec for a total of 4 hours (n total=17 163 164 recorded events per group/ 5 groups = 85 recording events). Larvae were left to acclimatize 30 min before the beginning of the experiment. 165

166 2.4 Behavioural fever experiment

Our experimental design was as follows: a total of six replicate groups of 20 167 larvae, (n=120 challenge larvae per 2 thermal conditions+ control non-challenge; at 168 both thermal conditions, N=480; see Fig1) were used for this experiment. Two 169 170 conditions (thermal restriction or thermal choice: $T_R vs T_{CH}$) were tested under the same challenge test (dsRNA; 100 µg/ml Poly (I: C)). Larvae were always tested in the same 171 four tubes, used only once, and never fed throughout the experiment (maximum time in 172 gradient 5h). Larvae were introduced into the thermal gradient initially at the same 173 temperature as their acclimation temperature (28°C), at the bottom of the vertical 174 175 column and habituated for a minimum of 30 minutes to the new environmental conditions. Zebrafish larvae distribution was recorded by an instantaneous visual 176

scanning method every 15 min for 4h (n total=17 recorded events per group/ 6 groups
per 2 treatments= 408). Temperature in the testing room was kept at 28°C. When tests
were finished whole larvae were carefully collected, instantly frozen in liquid nitrogen
and stored at -80°C for posterior molecular analysis.

181 2.6 RNA isolation, Complementary DNA Synthesis and Quantitative Real-Time
182 Polymerase Chain Reaction Assay

RNA was isolated from homogenate pools of whole larvae (20 fish larvae x 183 pool) at similar interval stage of development (18 to 20 dpf) using 1 ml per sample of 184 TriReagent (Molecular Research Centre) following the manufacturer's instructions. 185 RNA quantification was measured with a NanoDrop ND-1000 (Thermo Scientific) and 186 187 quality verified with the Bioanalyzer 2100 using the 6000 Nano LabChip kit (Agilent Technologies). All RNA integrity number values obtained were >8, indicative of 188 excellent RNA integrity and quality. One microgram of total RNA was used to 189 synthesize complementary DNA (cDNA) with SuperScript IIITM reverse transcriptase 190 (Invitrogen) and oligo-dT primer (Promega). cDNA was used as a template for 191 quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction assays for the same genes of RT-PCR. 192 Total volume of 20 µl was used, and every reaction contained 500 nM of each 193 amplification primer, 10 µl of iTaq[™] Universal SYBR® Green Supermix (BioRad) and 194 195 5 μ l of 1:10 or 1:100 dilution of cDNA (1:1000 for EF-1 α). Controls lacking cDNA were included. Reaction were run in the iCycler iQTM Real-time PCR Detection System 196 197 (Bio-Rad Laboratories), under the following protocol: 1 cycle of 95 °C for 3 min, 40 198 cycles of 95 °C for 10 sec and 60°C for 30 sec, 70 cycles of 60°C for 10 sec and a melting curve at 60°C. All the samples were run in triplicate. Threshold samples cycle 199 200 (CT) and calculated a quantification of gene expression relative to untreated controls (Pfaffl, 2001). Values for each sample were expressed as 'fold differences', calculated 201

and normalized to EF-1 α (Elongation factor 1-alpha)(McCurley and Callard, 2008). The relative mRNA abundances of five transcripts representative of the antiviral response (Viperin, Grass Carp Reovirus (GCRV)-induced gene 2: Gig2, Interferon regulatory factor 7: Irf7, tripartite motif containing 25: trim25 and Myxovirus (influenza) resistance B, protein-coding gene: MxB) were compared (see Table 1 for primer sequences and accession numbers).

208 2.7 Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using STATISTICA 7.0[©] (StatSoft, Inc. 209 (2004)) and IBM® SPSS® 17 Statistics v19 for MAC® OS X software. Graphs were 210 plotted using PRISM 6 for Mac OS X software (http://www.graphpad.com). Vertical 211 distribution of larvae (at different dpf) under gradient conditions was analysed with a 212 GLM repeated measures ANOVA. Zebrafish larvae distribution along the temperature 213 gradient under a simulated viral infection challenge (control vs. challenged dsRNA 214 215 larvae) was tested with a non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test. Quantitative gene expression data for the 5 different genes studied were examined by a GLM Multivariate 216 ANOVA (MANOVA) for larvae challenged with dsRNA under both different thermal 217 conditions (T_R vs. T_{CH}). Equality of covariance Matrices was tested (Box's Test). 218 Univariate ANOVA followed for each gene specific effect. 219

All data was tested for normality and homogeneity of variances using the Shapiro-Wilk's and Levene's test respectively. Non-normal behavioural data on larval distribution was analysed with non-parametric statistical tests. Gene expression data was log₁₀ transformed to achieve normality and all variances were homogeneous. Significance value was set at p<0.05. Confidence intervals were 95%.

225 **3. Results**

226 *3.1 Zebrafish larvae thermopreferendum at different dpf.*

227 Zebrafish larvae at constant 28°C (T_R conditions) mainly occupied the surface zone within the vertical column irrespective of age (see supplementary Fig 1: daily 228 rhythms for vertical distribution at constant temperatures for larvae at 6,13 and 24 dpf). 229 In contrast, larvae within the thermal choice environment (T_{CH}) , displayed significant 230 changes in thermal preference relative to developmental stage at 6, 13 and 24 dpf. 231 Thermal stratification in the T_{CH} environment clearly influenced vertical distribution 232 and larvae actively sought out preferred temperatures. Larvae from 13 dpf onwards 233 preferred temperatures of 30-31°C (Fig 2) whereas larvae at 6 dpf did not show any 234 discrimination at higher temperature ranges of 32-34°C. 235

236

237 *3.2 Behavioural fever in larvae*

238 Using the dsRNA immersion test we were able to identify the onset of behavioural fever at 18-20 dpf. No behavioural fever response was detected before this 239 240 developmental stage (data not shown). The vertical distribution of larvae throughout the 241 gradient was significantly different between control and dsRNA challenged larval groups (Mann-Whitney U test; N1=N2=120, at 32°C U=7821.50, at 31°C U=11.452 and 242 at $<30^{\circ}$ C U=8693, all were p < 0.001, Fig. 3). Challenged larvae were located more 243 frequently in the upper zone $(32.35^{\circ}C \pm 0.12)$ in comparison to sham-treated controls. 244 The latter maintained body temperature in line with the previous thermopreferendum 245 results $(31,10 \pm 0,11^{\circ}C, Fig. 4)$. Behavioural data residuals on larval distribution across 246 247 the gradient were not normally distributed even with log10 (var+1) transformation of the data. 248

249 *3.3 Behavioural fever and gene expression*

250 To determine if behavioural fever drives a thermo-coupled modification of the 251 anti-viral response at the mRNA level, as previously observed in adult fish, we compared the dsRNA challenged larvae under temperature gradient (T_{CH}; thermal 252 253 choice) and constant temperature (T_R; thermal restriction) conditions. The mRNA abundance of Viperin, Gig2, Irf7, Trim25 and Mxb viral response transcripts were 254 measured using rtQPCR. Covariance Matrices were equal (Box's Test; $F_{15}=1.289$, 255 p=0.205) and the measured transcript abundances highlighted significant group 256 differences between T_{CH} and T_R conditions. The mRNA abundances of the 5 measured 257 transcripts in response to dsRNA were significantly higher in the T_{CH} larvae (Wilks' 258 259 Lambda; $\Lambda = 0.075$, F_{1.10}=14.88, p=0.003). Differences between Mxb and Gig2 mRNA 260 abundances were the most significant between treatments: one-way ANOVA $F_{1,10}=23.134$ and $F_{1,10}=19.019$, p<0.001; see Fig. 5). Irf7 ($F_{1,10}=11.272$, p<0.01), 261 Trim25 ($F_{1,10}$,=10.002, p<0.01) and Viperin mRNA transcripts were also significantly 262 263 different (F_{1.10},=5.219, p<0.05).

264 **4. Discussion**

265 Environmental temperature influences all aspects of an organism's physiology and behaviour, from reproduction to development and growth, and this dynamic 266 267 interaction impacts upon individual fitness and survival. In mobile ectotherms, such as fish, body temperature closely follows environmental temperature and can only be 268 modified by behavioural means. This behavioural regulation occurs across different 269 270 temporal scales including daily and seasonal cycles. At a daily/weekly scale our recent studies addressing behavioural and emotional fever responses in adult fish highlight the 271 importance of rapid dynamic changes in thermal preference that impact upon underlying 272 273 regulation (Boltana et al, 2013, Rey et al, 2015, Cerqueira et al, 2016). This 'thermal choice' experimental model is in stark contrast to the standard experimental approach 274

where fish, as a whole, are kept and challenged under constant temperature regimes thatare not similar to that observed in the natural environment.

The development of zebrafish larvae has been exceptionally well described and 277 has been a major driver of the rise in use of zebrafish as a universal vertebrate model 278 (Santoriello and Zon, 2012). However to our knowledge there have been no studies 279 addressing thermal choice during the development of zebrafish larvae. A few studies, 280 using different non-model fish species, have evaluated vertical distribution of larval fish 281 282 in experimental thermal gradients to estimate how a thermal choice can influence larval distribution and how this changes throughout development (Catalán et al., 2011; 283 Golovanov, 2013; Vollset et al., 2009). Our measurements of temperature preference in 284 non-challenged zebrafish larvae are in agreement with these studies highlighting this 285 effect across significant phylogenetic scale. Non-challenged larvae older than 13dpf 286 287 show a clear preference for 30-31°C even although this higher temperature represents increased oxygen consumption in comparison to the habitual acclimation laboratory 288 289 temperature of 28.5 °C (López-Olmeda and Sánchez-Vázquez, 2011). The impact of 290 thermally restrictive conditions that is the current practice upon the fitness and welfare of zebrafish has not been addressed. It has previously been suggested that under thermal 291 gradient conditions, larvae prefer temperatures near the upper thermal limit for 292 293 maximizing growth efficiency (Ehrlich and Muszynski, 1982). Therefore innate thermal preference for higher temperatures in eurythermic fish could decrease from larval to 294 juvenile stages (Magnuson et al., 1979). The underpinning neural circuitry and 295 296 strategies of thermal choice in vertebrates still remain largely unknown (Hamada et al., 297 2008) and further research is required to understand how thermal choice is centrally 298 regulated. In this study the ontogenetic effect described highlighted a lack of thermal discrimination (with most larvae going to temperatures $> 31^{\circ}$ C) in larvae of < 13dpf. 299

300 suggesting that the thermal sensation network is not fully functional at this301 developmental stage.

Thermal variation is known to have a strong modulatory effect upon the immune 302 303 response in ectothermic organisms including teleost fish (LeMorvan et al., 1998; Sano et al., 2009; Workenhe et al., 2010). There have been many studies regarding 304 temperature and its impact upon the efficacy of the immune response in fish (Bly and 305 Clem, 1992; Le Morvan et al., 1998; Magnadóttir, 2006; Tort et al., 2003; Watts et al., 306 307 2001). There is a general consensus that at higher temperatures, within a speciesspecific tolerance window, immune responses improve in fish whereas at lower 308 temperatures hamper them (Avunje et al., 2012; Bly and Clem, 1992; LeMorvan et al., 309 1997; Magnadóttir, 2006). Different responses can be modelled for example in salmon 310 skin across a range of temperatures that highlight the adaptation of the immune response 311 312 to environmental conditions (Jensen et al., 2015). However it is important to account for temperature effects upon pathogen virulence and the development of disease (Guijarro 313 314 et al., 2015).

315 It is known that variation in immune responses in ectothermic vertebrates may also be affected by multiple abiotic and intrinsic biological factors including age 316 (Zimmerman et al., 2010). In zebrafish larvae the major maturation events of the 317 318 immune system occur between 2 and 4 weeks pf (at the larval-juvenile transitory phase) (Lam et al., 2004). This has been suggested to be a developmental strategy based upon 319 the intrinsic link between factors such as nutrient availability, metabolic efficacy, 320 hormonal factors and the developing immune system. Our results in larvae expressing 321 322 behavioural fever highlight the thermo-coupling of the immune response at 17dpf 323 onwards reflected by the increasingly coordinated dsRNA-TLR3 driven transcriptome activation. T_R larvae showed a lower and generally more scattered response whereas 324

325 T_{CH} has significantly increased values. Dios et al. (2010) investigated the expression 326 levels of several antiviral transcripts at 28 °C after dsRNA challenge, during larval development in zebrafish. The antiviral response at 28 °C increased during ontogeny 327 until 17 dpf and afterwards decreased in intensity. This result was interpreted as a 328 general trend for more robust responses during the first stages of the development (5-17 329 dpf), at 28 °C (standard laboratory holding temperature condition for zebrafish). 330 According to our data an alternative explanation can be forwarded that suggests that the 331 observed decrease is likely due to the uncoupling of behavioural thermoregulation and 332 the immune response. This would decrease the efficacy of the response, as larvae are 333 unable to express a behavioural fever response. Under T_{CH} conditions, dsRNA 334 challenged larvae express an improved response compared to animals held at T_R, as 335 previously reported in adults (Boltaña et al., 2013). Thus thermocoupling of the 336 337 immune response exists throughout the life of zebrafish emerging early in the developmental programme. 338

339

340 Conclusions

In this study we have demonstrated that zebrafish larvae display shifts in thermal 341 preference when presented with a thermal choice under both normal husbandry and 342 343 dsRNA stimulated conditions. A significant ontogenetic effect was observed with larvae > 13dpf being able to discriminate between different thermal conditions and actively 344 locating themselves within a specific preferred thermal window. In the absence of a 345 346 thermal choice larvae migrate vertically to the surface possibly as a conditioned response to food. From 18 - 20 dpf larvae develop a behavioural fever response to 347 dsRNA challenge by modifying their distribution within a thermal gradient column to 348 349 significantly increase body temperature. This behavioural response is coupled to

350 increase in the anti-viral response demonstrated by increased specific mRNA abundance 351 of key anti-viral factors. The use of thermal gradients by vertebrates during development and throughout their lifecycle is not a novel observation. However the 352 353 impact of thermal choice upon underpinning molecular responses during development and to pathogens appears to be highly significant. Further studies aiming at different 354 levels of regulation and examining the impact of thermal choice throughout the lifecycle 355 356 will be essential to understand how ectotherms use thermal gradients to optimize fitness and survival. 357

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489	Tables
490	Table 1 Primer sequences designed for qPCR analyses of selected mRNA transcripts.
491	EF-1a was used as a housekeeping control.

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493 Figure captions

Fig. 1. Vertical gradient tank design: Four independent methacrylate columns, 28,5 cm
length and 1,2 cm diameter, were filled with filtered water and heated and cooled by
externally running water through the upper, middle and bottom exterior compartments.
The columns were divided into 5 zones (Z1-5) each representing a 1^oC step in mean
temperature in the gradient. Each column holds n=20 larvae.

Fig. 2 Mean distribution of larvae at differential developmental stages (6, 13 and 24dpf) in the thermal gradient over time (4 hours). Under gradient conditions, 6dpf larvae do not show temperature discrimination whereas larvae >13dpf show preference for temperatures $\approx 30^{\circ}$ C (repeated measures ANOVA, F(8,1008)=35.296; p<0.0001).

Fig. 3 Frequency of occupation for zebrafish larvae along the thermal gradient challenged with dsRNA (poly (I:C), 100 μ g/ml) or untreated control. Mann-Whitney *U* test; p<0.001(Mean ± SD, ^{***} p < 0.001).

506 Fig. 4 Behavioural fever in dsRNA-challenged zebrafish larvae. Thermal zone 507 occupation (32° C) for zebrafish larvae along the thermal gradient challenged with 508 dsRNA (poly (I:C), 100 µg/ml) or control untreated. Mann-Whitney U test; 509 p<0.001(Mean ± SD, ^{**} p < 0.01).

- **Fig. 5** Comparison of the abundance of five antiviral mRNA transcripts after 4h postdsRNA challenge (poly (I:C), 100 μ g/ml), T_{Ch} (28-32 °C) versus T_R (28 °C) in pooled zebrafish larvae (n = 20 larvae per pool) (GLM MANOVA, ^{**}*p* < 0.01). Values shown on individual columns are mRNA relative abundance ratios (Mean ± SD, *GLM one-way ANOVA*, ^{*}*p* < 0.05, ^{**}*p* < 0.01, ^{***}*p* < 0.001).
- 515 **SFig. 1.** Mean distribution of larvae at differential developmental stages (6, 13 and 24dpf) at constant temperature over time (4 hours). At constant conditions all zones 517 were at the same temperature (28°C) and larvae were mostly at the water surface.

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Primer	Sequence (5'-3')	Accession number
Viperin F Viperin R	GCTGAAAGAAGCAGGAATGG AAACACTGGAAGACCTTCCAA	EF014961.1
Mxb(b) F Mxb(b) R	AATGGTGATCCGCTATCTGC TCTGGCGGCTCAGTAAGTTT	AJ544824.2
IRf7(a) F IRf7(a) R	AGGCAGTTCAACGTCAGCTACCAT TTCCACCAAGTTGAGCAATTCCAG	NM_200677.1
Trim25 F Trim25 R	TGCATCAAGAGCTGACACAA GTGAAGTGAAGCTGGGAACA	XM_001337964.4
Gig2 F Gig2 R	AGGGTACGACACTGCCTGGT AGGGTCACCAAAGCCACAAT	NM_001245991.2
EF-1α F EF-1α R	CTTCTCAGGCTGACTGTGC CCGCTAGCATTACCCTCC	AY422992

Table 1. Primer sequences designed for qPCR analysis of selected genes. EF-1 α was chosen as housekeeping gene.





Vertical thermal gradient



20 Frequency of occupation *** 15 10 5 0 Control Control dsRNA dsRNA dsRNA Control 32 °C 31 °C < 30 °C



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