

1 **Active behaviour during early development shapes glucocorticoid reactivity**

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11

12 **Abstract**

13 Glucocorticoids are the final effectors of the stress axis with numerous targets in the central  
14 nervous system and the periphery. They are essential for adaptation, yet currently it is unclear  
15 how early life events program the glucocorticoid response to stress. Here we provide evidence  
16 that involuntary swimming at early developmental stages can reconfigure the cortisol  
17 response to homotypic and heterotypic stress in larval zebrafish (*Danio rerio*), also reducing  
18 startle reactivity and increasing spontaneous activity as well as energy efficiency during  
19 active behaviour. Collectively, these data identify a role of the genetically malleable zebrafish  
20 for linking early life stress with glucocorticoid function in later life.

21

## 22 **Introduction**

23 The increased secretion of glucocorticoids like cortisol after the onset of stress (a.k.a.)  
24 glucocorticoid reactivity ( $GC_R$ ) plays a pivotal role in the response to challenge. It is critical  
25 for adaptation and central to an organism's resilience (Sapolsky et al., 2000).  $GC_R$  is a tightly  
26 regulated phenomenon, a response of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis to  
27 exogenous or endogenous stressors. Altered functionality of the HPA axis and of  $GC_R$  have  
28 been associated with detrimental and beneficial consequences for health. They have been  
29 linked to stress-evoked disorders including mental disorders as well as increased resilience  
30 (Daskalakis et al., 2013; Khulan and Drake, 2012; McEwen, 2008; Nederhof and Schmidt,  
31 2012; Reynolds, 2013; Schmidt, 2010; Seckl and Meaney, 2004). Glucocorticoid secretion  
32 has been investigated extensively under steady-state and stress conditions (Reul et al., 2014),  
33 and there is ample evidence that HPA axis functionality is susceptible to disturbance by early  
34 life stress. Early adversity can, for example, alter glucocorticoid regulation and coping  
35 capacities later in life (Russo et al., 2012; Strüber et al., 2014). However, it is still unclear  
36 how active responses to early life stress can reconfigure HPA axis function, pending a  
37 detailed functional evaluation of developmental programming of  $GC_R$ . Larval zebrafish are  
38 excellent to address this knowledge gap due to their external development, their  
39 hypothalamic-pituitary-interrenal (HPI) axis, homologous to the mammalian HPA axis  
40 (Wenderlaar Bonga, 1997), their translucent body, ideal for non-invasive brain imaging and  
41 optogenetics (De Marco et al., 2016; Gahtan and Baier, 2004; Portugues et al., 2013), their  
42 small size, highly suitable for high-throughput screens with full environmental control, and  
43 the availability of tools and methods for identifying genetic and epigenetic modulators,  
44 including proteomic technology. Therefore, as a first step, we set out to determine the effect  
45 of early life stress on  $GC_R$  and coping capacity in larval zebrafish. Taken together our results  
46 introduce a high-throughput forced swim test for developing zebrafish and demonstrate that

47 mild early life stress can at least transiently reconfigure GC<sub>R</sub> and elicit modulatory  
48 adjustments in spontaneous activity and startle reactivity.

49

## 50 **Results**

### 51 ***High-throughput induction of forced swimming and cortisol increase***

52 Firstly, we exposed groups of larvae to water vortex flows of varying strength, expressed in  
53 revolutions per minute (rpm) (for details, see Methods). To compare the strength of these  
54 flows, we video-recorded and examined the paths (x-y coordinates) of anesthetized larvae  
55 (i.e., unable to swim) exposed to vortex flows of increasing rpm (Fig. 1a). The results of these  
56 observations confirmed that, as rpm increased, anesthetized larvae followed the vortex  
57 currents, thereby moving at higher speeds and larger distances from the source of the vortex.  
58 These measurements were used to determine vortex flows of low, medium and high strength.  
59 We then assessed the relationship between the strength of the flows and the behaviour of  
60 freely swimming larvae. Larval zebrafish have been shown to display positive rheotaxis  
61 (Olszewski et al., 2012; Suli et al., 2012), i.e., spontaneous swimming against an oncoming  
62 current, which allows them to hold their position instead of being swept downstream by the  
63 current. When exposed to vortex flows, freely swimming larvae held their position away from  
64 the vortex's source, thereby avoiding the strongest currents (Fig. 1b, one-way ANOVA,  
65  $F(2,39)=26.6$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ , followed by *post hoc* comparisons). They also faced the oncoming  
66 current (Fig. 1c, top, Chi-square test,  $X^2(1, N=270)=55.4$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ) and adjusted their swim  
67 bouts and turns (Fig. 1c, bottom, one-way ANOVA,  $F(2,29)=6.7$ ,  $p = 0.004$ , followed by *post*  
68 *hoc* comparisons) to compensate for vortex strength. As indicated by their GC<sub>R</sub>, these  
69 behaviours were taxing for the larvae. Their whole-body cortisol increased together with the  
70 strength of the vortex (Fig. 1d, one-way ANOVA,  $F(2,17)=35.4$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ , followed by *post*  
71 *hoc* comparisons).

72

73 ***Cortisol change in response to water vortex flows as a function of development***

74 Secondly, we assessed GC<sub>R</sub> to vortex flows as a function of development, expressed in days  
75 post fertilization (dpf). For these tests we selected vortex flows of medium strength (i.e., 330  
76 rpm), avoiding the high strength causing maximum levels of vortex-dependent cortisol  
77 increase and occasional disruptions of positive rheotaxis (not shown). The HPI axis of  
78 zebrafish matures early. Basal whole-body cortisol and expression levels of genes involved in  
79 corticosteroid synthesis and signaling increase drastically around the time of hatching (Alsop  
80 and Vijayan, 2008; Alderman and Bernier, 2009). We observed that whole-body cortisol  
81 increased gradually between 2 and 8 dpf (Fig. 2a, top, one-way ANOVA,  $F(6,107)=23.0$ ,  $p <$   
82  $0.0001$ , followed by *post hoc* comparisons), and that the magnitude of the vortex-dependent  
83 elevation of cortisol peaked at 6 dpf (Fig. 2a, bottom, one-way ANOVA,  $F(4,53)=27.2$ ,  $p <$   
84  $0.0001$ , followed by *post hoc* comparisons), with circulating levels of cortisol measured ten  
85 minutes after a three minute exposure to vortex flows (for details, see Methods).  
86 Mechanistically, this points to fundamental alterations in the HPI axis occurring at 4-6 dpf.

87

88 ***Prolonged forced swimming and HPI activation at 5 dpf***

89 Thirdly, building on the above findings, we exposed 5 dpf larvae to vortex flows of medium  
90 strength for 9 hours. Exposed larvae showed increased levels of whole-body cortisol which  
91 peaked shortly after the onset of the vortex and remained high four hours later compared with  
92 controls, i.e., unexposed larvae that were equally handled, but the vortex flows were not  
93 present. Both exposed and control larvae showed similar levels of whole-body cortisol six  
94 hours after the onset of the vortex (Fig. 2b, two-way ANOVA, group:  $F(1,90)=263.3$ ,  $p <$   
95  $0.0001$ , time:  $F(8,90)=13.8$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ , group x time:  $F(8,90)=19.4$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ , followed by  
96 *post hoc* comparisons). Also, exposed larvae remained engaged in positive rheotaxis from the  
97 beginning to the end of the vortex, as indicated by their  $\delta$  body angle (average change in  
98 orientation after a swim bout) measured 5 minutes (Fig. 2c, top, two-tailed *t*-test,  $t(32)=3.8$ ,  $P$

99 = 0.0007) and 8.5 hours (Fig. 2c, bottom, two-tailed  $t$ -test,  $t(32)=4.1$ ,  $P = 0.0003$ ) after the  
100 onset of vortex flows (see also Methods).

101

### 102 ***Increased baseline swimming and reduced startle reactivity in pre-exposed larvae***

103 Next, using video-recordings and off-line measurements (for details, see Methods), we  
104 assessed the behaviour of 6 dpf larvae that had or had not been exposed to vortex flows at 5  
105 dpf, i.e., pre-exposed and control larvae, respectively. Compared with controls, pre-exposed  
106 larvae showed higher levels of baseline swimming (Fig. 2d, top, two-tailed  $t$ -test,  $t(41)=2.2$ ,  $P$   
107 = 0.03) and reduced startle reactivity upon re-exposure to vortex flows of medium strength, as  
108 specified by the distance they swam directly after the onset of the water current (Fig. 2d,  
109 bottom, two-tailed  $t$ -test,  $t(24)=2.7$ ,  $P = 0.01$ ). Importantly, pre-exposed larvae engaged in  
110 positive rheotaxis as efficiently as controls, as indicated by the proportion of larvae facing the  
111 oncoming current (Fig. 2e, top, Chi-square test,  $X^2(1, N=180)=1.4$ ,  $p = 0.24$ ) and  $\delta$  body  
112 angle (Fig. 2e, bottom, two-tailed  $t$ -test,  $t(18)=0.08$ ,  $P = 0.94$ ).

113

### 114 ***Reduced glucocorticoid reactivity to vortex flows in pre-exposed larvae***

115 At 6 dpf, pre-exposed larvae, which had prior experience with the vortex flows at 5 dpf,  
116 showed reduced GC<sub>R</sub> as well as the above behavioural adjustments. Relative to controls, pre-  
117 exposed larvae showed similar levels of basal cortisol and reduced levels of vortex-dependent  
118 cortisol increase upon re-exposure to vortex flows of medium strength (Fig. 2f, two-way  
119 ANOVA, group:  $F(1,30)=24.2$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ , time:  $F(2,30)=111.1$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ , group x time:  
120  $F(2,30)=6.9$ ,  $p = 0.003$ , followed by *post hoc* comparisons). We found the same pattern of  
121 results at 10 dpf (Fig. 2g, two-way ANOVA, group:  $F(1,30)=32.8$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ , time:  
122  $F(2,30)=40.5$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ , group x time:  $F(2,30)=5.6$ ,  $p = 0.009$ , followed by *post hoc*  
123 comparisons).

124

125 ***Short-term reduced glucocorticoid reactivity to heterotypic stress***

126 To complement these assessments we examined the relationship between GC<sub>R</sub> in pre-exposed  
127 larvae and heterotypic stress. For this we exposed 6 dpf pre-exposed and control larvae to  
128 hyperosmotic medium (NaCl), a known stress protocol (for details, see Methods). The results  
129 showed that, relative to controls, pre-exposed larvae showed reduced GC<sub>R</sub> to moderate and  
130 high levels of salt stress (Fig. 2h, left, two-way ANOVA, group:  $F(1,20)=51.0$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ,  
131 NaCl concentration:  $F(1,20)=299.0$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ , group x NaCl concentration:  $F(1,20)=0.3$ ,  $p =$   
132  $0.59$ , followed by *post hoc* comparisons). By contrast, at 10 dpf, both groups showed similar  
133 cortisol responses to salt stress (Fig. 2h, right, two-tailed *t*-test,  $t(10)=0.9$ ,  $P = 0.42$ ).

134

135 **Discussion**

136 Hormones react to the environment and cause changes in physiology as a function of  
137 maturation. Thus the question arises as to how dynamical patterns of hormone secretion are  
138 achieved and what effects they exert on well-being. How does the environment activate and  
139 guide the development of resilience mechanisms? Current paradigms stipulate that  
140 glucocorticoids are fundamental to the mitigation of allostatic load (Reul et al., 2014;  
141 McEwen, 2001). However, the impact of early life stress on developmental programming of  
142 GC<sub>R</sub> has not been explored in full, in part due to a lack of suitable models. We now show in  
143 zebrafish that the increase in cortisol elicited by a brief period of involuntary swimming peaks  
144 at 6 days post fertilization (dpf), pointing to fundamental changes in GC<sub>R</sub> at early larval  
145 stages. Importantly, we found that, if prolonged for hours, forced swimming at 5 dpf caused a  
146 transient form of hypercortisolaemia and later led to reduced GC<sub>R</sub>. If subsequently exposed to  
147 a brief period of involuntary swimming (i.e., homotypic stress), pre-exposed larvae showed a  
148 decreased cortisol response that persisted for at least five more days. Moreover, twenty-four

149 hours after prolonged forced swimming at 5 dpf, the reduced GC<sub>R</sub> appeared invariant to  
150 stressor identity, as indicated by a decreased cortisol response to heterotypic stress, i.e.,  
151 osmotic shock. These data suggested that the sustained reduction in GC<sub>R</sub> did not reflect a  
152 process of habituation to sensory input (Grissom and Bhatnagar, 2009). It seems likely that, in  
153 pre-exposed larvae, reduced GC<sub>R</sub> was underpinned by changes in state variables of the HPI  
154 axis.

155       Early adversity and chronic stress later in life can decrease hypothalamic activity and  
156 expression of corticotropin-releasing-hormone (CRH) and arginine-vasopressin (AVP). These  
157 changes are mediated at least in part by glucocorticoids (Erkut et al., 1998; Herman et al.,  
158 2008; Tasker and Herman, 2011; Wismer Fries et al., 2005). Previous studies in fish showed  
159 that prolonged stimulation of the HPI axis can attenuate the stress response (Barton, 2002).  
160 This effect can result from transcriptional regulation of CRH and adrenocorticotrophic  
161 hormone (ACTH) (Birnberg et al., 1983; Eberwine and Roberts, 1984; Imaki et al., 1991).  
162 Additionally, pituitary corticotrophs and cortisol-producing cells in the interrenal gland may  
163 be desensitized to CRH or ACTH, respectively (Hontela et al., 1992; Mommsen, 1999). It has  
164 been shown in rainbow trout that stressor exposure at early developmental stages can lead to  
165 HPI axis hypoactivity later in life (Auperin and Geslin, 2008). In zebrafish, incubation in  
166 cortisol during the first 48 hours post fertilization caused altered locomotor reactions to photic  
167 stimuli (Steenbergen et al., 2011). Also, cortisol incubation of zebrafish embryos during the  
168 first five days post fertilization increased whole-body cortisol, glucocorticoid signalling and  
169 expression of immune system-related genes; these changes can be long-lasting and result in  
170 dysfunctional regeneration capacities and increased expression of inflammatory genes (Hartig  
171 et al, 2016). A similar treatment using dexamethasone also induced long-lasting behavioural  
172 and metabolic changes still detectable in adulthood (Wilson et al., 2016). Further experiments  
173 are necessary to determine whether reduced GC<sub>R</sub> in pre-exposed larvae occurs via receptor  
174 downregulation, decreased synthesis and/or depletion of hormones, and/or increased



175 sensitivity to glucocorticoid feedbacks (Fries et al., 2005; Heim et al., 2000; Hellhammer and  
176 Wade, 1993).

177         An organism is said to be engaged in active behaviour when it is the source of the  
178 output energy required for a given action (Rosenblueth et al., 1943). Glucocorticoids are  
179 known to mobilize energy (Sapolsky et al., 2000), which is necessary to cope with the high  
180 energy demands associated with forced swimming. In response to the vortex, larvae engaged  
181 in rheotaxis had to adjust their swim bouts and turns continuously to compensate for the  
182 oncoming current. These actions were energy demanding for the larvae, as revealed by their  
183 GC<sub>R</sub>. The notion that upholding positive rheotaxis for hours involved mobilizing energy was  
184 supported by the long-lasting hypercortisolic state observed during prolonged forced  
185 swimming. Twenty-four hours after prolonged exposure to the vortex, we observed  
186 differences between pre-exposed and control larvae. Firstly, pre-exposed larvae displayed  
187 increased levels of baseline swimming. A previous study in zebrafish showed that involuntary  
188 swimming at larval stages can subsequently increase spontaneous activity (Bagatto et al.,  
189 2001). Secondly, upon a brief re-exposure to the same vortex, pre-exposed larvae showed  
190 reduced startle reactivity to the onset of water motions. Thirdly, they engaged in positive  
191 rheotaxis as efficiently as controls. On the assumption that the cortisol response to the vortex  
192 reflects an energy requirement for positive rheotaxis, these observations indicated that pre-  
193 exposed larvae responded more efficiently to the energy demands of forced swimming.

194         In conclusion, we have shown in larval zebrafish that early life stress caused by  
195 prolonged forced swimming at least transiently reconfigures the increased secretion of  
196 cortisol after the onset of homotypic or heterotypic stress, as well as spontaneous activity and  
197 efficient energy use during active behaviour. It remains open how these changes relate to  
198 survival in a species facing greater mortality during early life; there is a lack of evidence  
199 linking early activity patterns of the HPI axis to survival and reproductive outcome.  
200 Collectively, our data provided direct evidence to support the contention that long-term

201 changes in HPI axis function after early adversity may later lead to increased resilience in  
202 developing zebrafish. Increased resilience to stress may have advantages for larval zebrafish.  
203 Such ability may help larvae to better cope with antagonistic environments. An important  
204 question emerging relates to the study of stress reactivity during adulthood as a function of  
205 early life events in zebrafish. A previous study in mice reported that individuals that had  
206 endured early life stress coped better with forced swimming compared with those that had  
207 experienced a favourable early care regime (Santarelli et al., 2014). In adult rats, the adverse  
208 experience of maternal separation during early life strengthened freezing during fear  
209 conditioning after chronic stress compared with non-maternally separated rats (Zalosnik et al.,  
210 2014). These studies support the view that early life stress can lead to increased resilience in  
211 later life. Long-lasting changes in HPA axis function due to early experiences have been  
212 attributed to changes in the epigenome (Weaver et al., 2004). However, the link between early  
213 life stress and the activation of resilience mechanisms has been difficult to pin down in  
214 models with intrauterine development. In zebrafish, all three elements of the HPI axis can be  
215 visualized and genetically manipulated at early developmental stages and measured with  
216 modern molecular tools (De Marco et al., 2016). Moreover, the larval brain is readily  
217 accessible and provide excellent access for assessing how systematic variations in  
218 physiological and behavioural schemes relate to differences in the activity of neuronal and  
219 humoral networks. Further studies are required to determine the applicability of our high-  
220 throughput procedure. In anticipation to these studies, we speculate that zebrafish larvae will  
221 prove fruitful to link early HPI axis activity to proteomic regulation, epigenetic programming  
222 and measures of stress resilience.

223

## 224 **Methods**

225 *Zebrafish husbandry and handling*

226 Zebrafish breeding and maintenance were performed under standard conditions (Westerfield,  
227 2000). Groups of thirty wild-type embryos (cross of AB and TL strains, AB/TL) were  
228 collected in the morning and raised on a 12:12 light/dark cycle at 28 °C in 35 mm Petri dishes  
229 with 5 ml of E2 medium. At 3 days post fertilization (dpf), the E2 medium was renewed and  
230 chorions and debris were removed from the dishes. Experiments were carried out with 5-6 dpf  
231 larvae, with the exception of the cortisol measurements in Fig. 2a, g and h(left). Larvae older  
232 than 6 dpf were transferred to plastic cages with 400 ml of egg water in groups of thirty and  
233 fed with paramecia daily. Tests were performed between 09:00 hours and 18:00 hours, with  
234 different experimental groups intermixed throughout the day. Zebrafish experimental  
235 procedures were performed according to the guidelines of the German animal welfare law and  
236 approved by the local government (Regierungspräsidium Karlsruhe; G-29/12).

### 237 *Water vortex flows*

238 Water current can trigger rheotaxis in larval zebrafish and, if sufficiently strong, it can also act  
239 as a stressor, causing a sharp increase in whole-body cortisol via the activation of the HPI  
240 axis. We used water vortex flows in a high-throughput fashion to induce both rheotaxis and  
241 cortisol increase. For this we exposed groups of thirty (4-8 dpf) larvae in 35 mm Petri dishes  
242 with 5 ml of E2 medium to the vortex flows caused by the spinning movements of small  
243 magnetic stir bars (6 x 3mm, Fischerbrand, #11888882, Fisher scientific, Leicestershire, UK.)  
244 inside the dishes. The Petri dishes, each with a single stir bar, were positioned on magnetic  
245 stirrer plates (Variomag, Poly 15; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Leicestershire, UK) and kept at  
246 28°C inside an incubator (RuMed 3101, Rubarth Apparate GmbH, Laatzen, Germany).  
247 Larvae were presented with either short (3 minutes) or long (9 hours of continuous  
248 stimulation) exposure periods to the vortex flows caused by the highly-controlled magnetic  
249 field inversions of the stirrer plate, of 130, 330 or 530 revolutions per minute (rpm). For the  
250 short exposure, we avoided exposure periods longer than 3 minutes to elude maximum levels  
251 of stressor-mediated cortisol increase (not shown). The long exposure at 5 dpf consisted of 9

252 hours to achieve the longest possible exposure period adjustable to the light/dark cycle. Once  
253 exposed, larvae were immobilized in ice water and used for cortisol measurement (see below).  
254 Control larvae were collected after equal handling, omitting exposure to vortex flows (i.e., stir  
255 bars inside the Petri dishes were absent). To rule out unspecific effects of the magnetic field  
256 inversions produced by a stirrer plate, we compared the level of basal whole-body cortisol  
257 across groups of 6 dpf larvae that either remained unexposed or had been exposed to magnetic  
258 field inversions alone (i.e., without stir bars inside the Petri dishes and thus in the absence of  
259 vortex flows), of 130, 330 and 530 rpm. The results of these tests showed that magnetic field  
260 inversions per se did not alter the level of whole-body cortisol (one-way ANOVA,  
261  $F(3,23) = 0.05, p = 0.98$ ).

#### 262 *Re-exposure to vortex flows*

263 For these tests we selected vortex flows of medium strength to avoid possible ceiling effects  
264 caused by maximum levels of vortex-dependent cortisol increase. Using the above protocol,  
265 larvae that had or had not been exposed to vortex flows for 9 hours at 5 dpf were re-exposed  
266 to vortex flows (330 rpm) for 3 minutes at either 6 or 10 dpf. They were subsequently used  
267 for cortisol detection or behaviour evaluation.

#### 268 *Re-exposure to vortex flows at 10 dpf*

269 A plastic cage (5 L) containing thirty pre-exposed or control 10 dpf larvae and three magnetic  
270 stir bars (25 x 6 mm, Fisherbrand, #10226853, Fisher scientific, Leicestershire, UK)  
271 distributed equidistantly along the bottom of the cage were placed on top of the magnetic  
272 stirrer plate (Variomag, Poly 15, Thermo Scientific, Leicestershire, UK). Larvae were then  
273 exposed to vortex flows (330 rpm) for 3 minutes. Larvae were then immobilized with ice  
274 water and used for cortisol extraction 10 minutes after the onset of the vortex flows.

#### 275 *Hyperosmotic medium*

276 Groups of thirty larvae (either 6 or 10 dpf) in 35 mm Petri dishes were incubated for 10 min in  
277 steady state E2 medium (controls) or E2 + 50 or 250 mM NaCl (Merck, #106404, Darmstadt,

278 Germany) at 28°C under white light illumination. They were washed three times with E2  
279 medium and kept for immediate cortisol detection. The wash and transfer period took 3 min  
280 ( $\pm 10$  s) and was performed at room temperature.

#### 281 *Whole-body cortisol*

282 Groups of thirty larvae were immobilized in ice water after being exposed to water vortex  
283 flows or NaCl. Unexposed larvae (control samples) were collected after equal handling,  
284 omitting stressor exposure. Samples were then frozen in an ethanol/dry-ice bath and stored at  
285  $-20$  °C for subsequent extraction. Each replicate consisted of a well with 30 larvae. Cortisol  
286 extraction and detection were carried between 10:30 and 11:30 hours out using a home-made  
287 cortisol ELISA protocol, as described elsewhere (Yeh et al., 2013).

#### 288 *Independent sampling*

289 Cortisol and behavioural measurements were made on different groups of equally treated  
290 larvae and therefore constitute fully independent samples. For the behavioural measurements,  
291 each replicate involved a single larva. Yet, these individual measurements were made on  
292 larvae that had also been kept in wells containing a total of thirty larvae per well. Thus, the  
293 number of single larvae matched the number of independent wells. In this manner, the density  
294 of larvae per well during vortex flow exposure remained a constant factor for both the cortisol  
295 and behavioural measurements. For each cortisol measurement, all thirty larvae in a well were  
296 used, whereas each behavioural measurement involved only one larva, the remaining twenty-  
297 nine larvae in the well were used elsewhere. Each replication was fully independent from the  
298 others thus avoiding pseudo-replication.

#### 299 *Anesthetized larvae*

300 To assess the speed and trajectories of anesthetized larvae exposed to vortex flows of  
301 increasing strength, 6 dpf larvae in 35 mm Petri dishes were first incubated in 5 mL of steady  
302 state E2 medium + 100  $\mu$ L of Tricaine (Sigma-Aldrich #E10521, Schnelldorf, Germany); they

303 were considered to be anesthetized when they failed to respond to tactile stimulation. They  
304 were then transferred to a new Petri dish with fresh E2 medium (5 mL) for testing.

### 305 *Behaviour evaluation*

306 Video recordings were conducted under conditions identical to those of the cortisol  
307 measurements. Groups of thirty larvae (either 5 or 6 dpf, depending on the experiment) were  
308 imaged at  $12.5 \text{ frames s}^{-1}$  with a camera (HDR-CX240 HD Flash, Sony, Berlin, Germany)  
309 positioned above a 35 mm Petri dish with 5 ml of E2 medium and a magnetic stir bar placed  
310 on a magnetic stirrer plate inside the incubator, as described above. Videos samples were later  
311 used for offline data recovery using ImageJ 1.48v software (National Institutes of Health,  
312 Bethesda, USA) and MTrackJ (Biomedical Imaging Group Rotterdam, Rotterdam, The  
313 Netherlands). Larvae were individually tracked and their x-y coordinates at every time point  
314 were subsequently used to calculate motion values, body orientation and position relative to  
315 the rotation axis of the magnetic stir bar, which corresponded in all cases to the center of the  
316 Petri dish. Motion values were expressed as either speed (mm per second) or distance swum  
317 every 5 or 30 seconds. To quantify the proportion of larvae engaged in rheotaxis, we  
318 measured the proportion of larvae directly facing the oncoming current 120 s after the onset  
319 of vortex flows. For this we measured - three times every 10 s - the angle formed between a  
320 larva's body axis and a line connecting the center of its head and the rotation axis of the  
321 magnetic stir bar. A larva was considered to be engaged in rheotaxis when the coefficient of  
322 variation arising from the three angles measured over 30 s remained lower than 10 % and, at  
323 the same time, it exhibited minimum body displacements, i.e., shorter than  $0.5 \text{ mm} * (10$   
324  $\text{ms})^{-1}$ . To assess the average change in orientation after a swim bout ( $\delta$  body angle, in  
325 degrees), we measured, as before, the angle formed between a larva's body axis and a line  
326 connecting the center of its head and the rotation axis of the magnetic stir bar, every 933 ms  
327 over a 5 s period 120 s after the onset of vortex flows. The resulting ' $\delta$  body angle' values (in

328 degrees) were then calculated as the average difference between the consecutive angles for  
329 each larva.

### 330 *Statistics*

331 All data are shown as single measurement points or mean and standard error of the mean. We  
332 used a random experimental design, Student's *t*-tests (two-tailed) for two-group comparisons,  
333 Chi-square tests and ANOVAs for multiple group comparisons (followed by Bonferroni's  
334 *post hoc* tests). Normality was tested using Kolmogorov–Smirnov, Shapiro–Wilk and  
335 D'Agostino tests. Analyses were made with MS-Excel (Microsoft Corp; Redmond, WA,  
336 USA), Prism 5 (Graphpad Software Inc, San Diego, CA, USA), ImageJ (Freeware) and  
337 VirtualDub (Freeware).

### 338 *Data accessibility*

339 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the authors on request.

340

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347

### 348 **Author Contributions**

349 Conceptualization, R.J.D.M. and S.R.; Methodology, R.J.D.M. and S.R.; Investigation,  
350 L.A.C-R., S.R. and R.J.D.M.; Writing – Original Draft, L.A.C-R and R.J.D.M.; Writing –  
351 Review & Editing, R.J.D.M.

352

### 353 **Competing Interests**

354 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

355

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481

## 482 **Figure Legends**

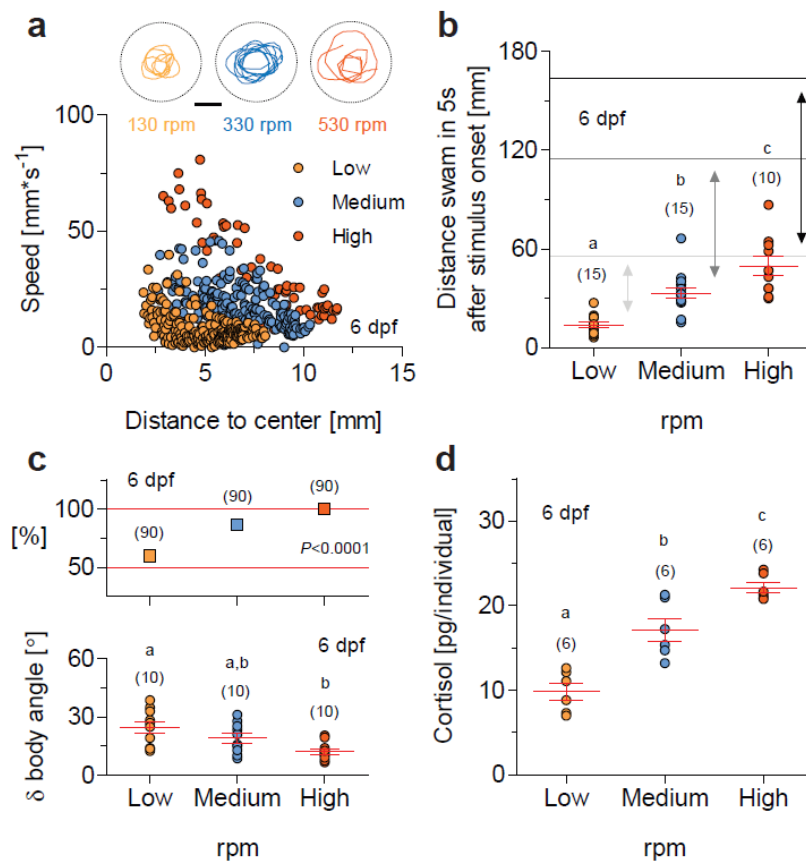
483 **Figure 1. High-throughput induction of forced swimming and cortisol increase.** Groups  
484 of thirty zebrafish larvae in 35 mm diameter petri dishes can be exposed to water vortex flows  
485 in a high-throughput manner while their behaviour is being video-recorded. **(a)** Top,  
486 representative x-y coordinates (recorded every 93.3 ms over a 2.4 s period) of single  
487 anesthetized 6 dpf larvae exposed to vortex flows of increasing strength, expressed in  
488 revolutions per minute (rpm). Scale bar, 10 mm. Bottom, swim velocity and distance to the  
489 center of the dish of a larva exposed to vortex flows of low (orange), medium (blue) and high  
490 (vermilion) strength levels (data from the top figures). **(b)** Distance swam in 5 s by freely  
491 behaving larvae after the onset of vortex flows as a function of vortex strength (as in **a**). Grey  
492 and black lines indicate the average distance covered by anesthetized larvae under similar  
493 conditions; double headed arrows highlight the differences between anesthetized and freely  
494 behaving larvae due to rheotaxis: the higher the vortex strength the lower the distance covered  
495 by individuals engaged in rheotaxis. **(c)** Top, Proportion of larvae engaged in rheotaxis  
496 (measured 120 s after the onset of vortex flows) as a function of vortex strength (as in **a**);  
497  $P < 0.0001$  after a Chi-square test. Bottom, Average change in orientation after a swim bout ( $\delta$   
498 body angle, in degrees, recorded every 933 ms over a 5 s period 120 s after the onset of vortex  
499 flows) of freely swimming larvae as a function of vortex strength (as in **a**). **(d)** Whole-body  
500 cortisol in 6 dpf larvae as a function of vortex strength (as in **a**). **(b,c,d)** Letters indicate  
501 results of Bonferroni's tests ( $p < 0.01$ ) after one-way ANOVAs. Sample size in parentheses.

502

503 **Figure 2. Prolonged forced swimming during early development increases spontaneous**  
504 **activity and reduces startle and glucocorticoid reactivity.** **(a)** Top, Basal cortisol as a  
505 function of time, expressed in days post fertilization (dpf). Bottom, Cortisol change in  
506 response to vortex flows of medium strength (330 rpm) as a function of development, in dpf.

507 Letters indicate results of Bonferroni's tests ( $p < 0.01$ ) after one-way ANOVAs. **(b)** Cortisol  
508 time course in 5 dpf larvae exposed to vortex flows (330 rpm) for 9 hours (shown up to 6  
509 hours) and controls (unexposed larvae). Cortisol in exposed larvae peaks shortly after the  
510 onset of the vortex and remains high 4 hours later; exposed and control larvae show similar  
511 values 6 hours after the onset of the vortex. **(c)**  $\delta$  body angle (as in **Fig. 1c**), indicative of  
512 rheotaxis, in exposed and control 5 dpf larvae, measured 5 minutes (top) and 8.5 hours  
513 (bottom) after the onset of the vortex (330 rpm). \*\* $P < 0.01$ , \*\*\* $P < 0.001$  after two-tailed  $t$ -  
514 tests. **(d)** Top, spontaneous activity (in mm swam in 30s) in pre-exposed and control 6 dpf  
515 larvae. Bottom, locomotor reaction to the onset of the vortex (330 rpm) (mm swam in 5s,  
516 measured 5 s after the onset) in pre-exposed and control 6 dpf larvae. Pre-exposed larvae,  
517 blue. Control larvae, white.  $P = 0.03$  (top) and  $P = 0.01$  (bottom) after two-tailed  $t$ -tests. **(e)**  
518 Proportion of individuals engaged in rheotaxis (top) and  $\delta$  body angle (bottom) (as in **Fig. 1c**)  
519 in pre-exposed (blue) and control (white) 6 dpf larvae. Top,  $P = 0.24$  after a Chi-square test.  
520 Bottom,  $P = 0.97$  after a two-tailed  $t$ -test. **(f,g)** Cortisol in pre-exposed (blue) and control  
521 (white) 6 dpf **(f)** and 10 dpf **(g)** larvae, before, 10 and 20 minutes after the onset of the vortex.  
522 **(h)** Cortisol in pre-exposed (blue) and control (white) 6 dpf (left) and 10 dpf (right) larvae in  
523 response to a 10 min incubation in hyperosmotic medium. Right,  $P = 0.42$  after a two-tailed  $t$ -  
524 test. **(b,f,g,h)** Asterisks (\*\* $P < 0.01$ , \*\*\* $P < 0.001$ ) indicate results of Bonferroni's tests after  
525 two-way ANOVAs. **(b,f,g)** Sample size per group, 6. **(a,c,d,e,h)** Sample size in parentheses.

526 **Figure 1**



527 **Figure 2**

