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## Minireview

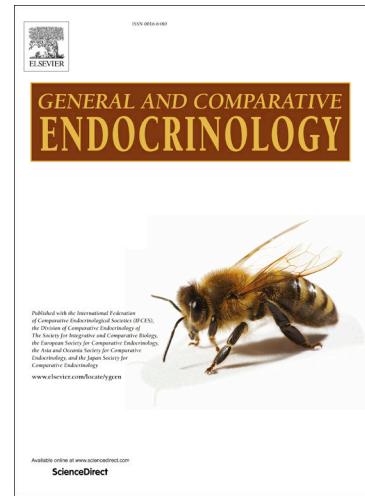
### Osmoregulatory actions of prolactin in the gastrointestinal tract of fishes

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## Mini-Review

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**Osmoregulatory actions of prolactin in the gastrointestinal tract of fishes**

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**Abstract:**

24

24 In fishes, Prl signaling underlies the homeostatic regulation of hydromineral  
26 balance by controlling essential solute and water transporting functions performed by the  
26 gill, gastrointestinal tract, kidney, urinary bladder, and integument. Comparative studies  
28 spanning over 60 years have firmly established that Prl promotes physiological activities  
28 that enable euryhaline and stenohaline teleosts to reside in freshwater environments;  
30 nonetheless, the specific molecular and cellular targets of Prl in ion- and water-  
30 transporting tissues are still being resolved. In this short review, we discuss how  
32 particular targets of Prl (e.g., ion cotransporters, tight-junction proteins, and ion pumps)  
32 confer adaptive functions to the esophagus and intestine. Additionally, in some  
34 instances, Prl promotes histological and functional transformations within esophageal  
34 and intestinal epithelia by regulating cell proliferation. Collectively, the demonstrated

actions of Prl in the gastrointestinal tract of teleosts indicate that Prl operates to promote phenotypes supportive of freshwater acclimation and to inhibit phenotypes associated with seawater acclimation. We conclude our review by underscoring that future investigations are warranted to determine how growth hormone/Prl-family signaling evolved in basal fishes to support the gastrointestinal processes underlying hydromineral balance.

**Highlights:** ► Prl regulates gastrointestinal processes supportive of hydromineral balance. ► Prl receptors are expressed in esophagus and intestine of fishes. ► Prl directs the expression of intestinal solute transporters in euryhaline teleosts. ► Agnathans will provide insight into how Gh/Prl-family hormone function evolved.

**Keywords:** hydromineral balance; euryhaline; hormone; teleost; esophagus; intestine

## 1. Introduction

Pituitary hormones regulate many of the physiological systems that vertebrates utilize to maintain homeostasis. In species spanning the vertebrate lineage, the peptide hormone prolactin (Prl) coordinates critical aspects of hydromineral balance, reproduction, lactation, growth, metabolism, and immunity (Bole-Feysot et al., 1998; Freeman et al., 2000). Fishes are conventionally classified into three classes: Agnatha (jawless fishes), Chondrichthyes (cartilaginous fishes), and Osteichthyes (bony fishes). Among teleost fishes (class Osteichthyes; subclass Actinopterygii; infraclass Neopterygii; division Teleostei), Prl was first recognized in mummichog (*Fundulus heteroclitus*) as an essential “freshwater (FW)-adapting hormone” (Pickford and Phillips, 1959). Since then, decades of research have firmly established that Prl exerts highly conserved actions on teleost osmoregulatory organs, namely the gill, kidney, intestine, integument, and urinary bladder, to promote ion-conserving and water-secreting processes. Here, our intent is to complement prior reviews (Bern, 1983; Breves et al., 2014; Collie and Hirano, 1987; Hirano, 1986; Loretz and Bern, 1982; Manzon, 2002; Power, 2005; Sakamoto and McCormick, 2006) by concentrating on the molecular and cellular targets of Prl within the gastrointestinal tract of fishes.

Hydromineral balance is contingent upon the tight control of solute and water movements at the molecular, cellular, and organismal levels. Perturbations in internal osmotic conditions caused by drops in environmental salinity directly elicit the secretion

of Prl from the rostral pars distalis (Ingleton et al., 1973; Kwong et al., 2009; Sage, 1968; 70 Seale et al., 2012). Accordingly, elevations in *prl* gene expression and plasma Prl levels occur when euryhaline teleosts encounter marked reductions in environmental salinity 72 (Fuentes et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2006a; Seale et al., 2012; Shepherd et al., 1999; Yada et al., 1994). In stenohaline FW-species (e.g., zebrafish (*Danio rerio*)), Prl signaling is 74 activated when animals are exposed to 'ion-poor' conditions (Hoshijima and Hirose, 2007; Liu et al., 2006). Through systemic circulation, Prl directs the expression, 76 localization, and/or function of macromolecular mediators of hydromineral balance in target tissues (Breves et al., 2014; Manzon, 2002; Seale et al., 2012). Moreover, Prl may 78 simultaneously dampen ionoregulatory processes appropriate to seawater (SW) acclimation that would otherwise be deleterious to euryhaline fish inhabiting FW 80 (Seidelin and Madsen, 1997).

Upon binding to Prl receptors (Prlrs), Prl activates dimerization and cross-phosphorylation events that activate Jak/Stat, MAPK, PI3K, and/or Src signaling pathways (Bole-Feysot et al., 1998; Freeman et al., 2000; Horseman and Gregerson, 82 2013). Teleost Prlrs share highly conserved functional domains with other vertebrate Prlrs, including an extracellular ligand-binding domain, a single-pass transmembrane 84 region, and a Box 1 region (Bole-Feysot et al., 1998; Fiol et al., 2009; Huang et al., 2007; Pierce et al., 2007; Prunet and Auperin, 1994; Prunet et al., 2000; Sandra et al., 86 1995). In fishes, Prl binding was initially characterized in the gill, kidney, liver, gonad, and intestine of Mozambique tilapia (*Oreochromis mossambicus*) (Dauder et al., 1990; 88 Edery et al., 1984; Fryer, 1979). More recently, it was revealed that teleosts possess multiple *prlr* gene loci (Huang et al., 2007). The two distinct encoded Prlrs, denoted Prlr1 90 and -2, control the expression of distinct target genes upon ligand binding (Chen et al., 2011; Fiol et al., 2009; Huang et al., 2007). The plasticity of *prlr1* and -2 gene expression 92 in osmoregulatory organs during salinity acclimation seemingly provides a mechanism to modulate tissue sensitivity to circulating Prl (Breves et al., 2011; Fiol et al., 2009; Flores 94 and Shrimpton, 2012; Pierce et al., 2007; Tomy et al., 2009).

Growth hormone (Gh) and cortisol, the traditional "SW-adapting hormones" in 98 teleosts, promote the survival of animals in hyperosmotic environments in part by 100 antagonizing the actions of Prl (McCormick, 2001; Seidelin and Madsen, 1997). The widespread expression of the Gh receptor (Ghr) suggests that Gh is pleiotropic in its 102 support of SW acclimation; however, exactly how Gh regulates osmoregulatory systems is largely unknown (Björnsson, 1997; Reindl and Sheridan, 2012). Cortisol is widely

accepted as a “SW-adapting hormone” because it directly stimulates the activities and/or  
 104 expression of  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$ -ATPase (NKA) and ion transporters linked with ion extrusion and  
 106 fluid uptake capacities in the gill and intestine, respectively (Cornell et al., 1994; Hirano  
 and Utida, 1968; Utida et al., 1972; Veillette et al., 1995). Cortisol also indirectly  
 108 promotes SW acclimation by synergizing with Gh/insulin-like growth factor signaling  
 110 (McCormick, 2001). In some instances, cortisol may promote FW acclimation by acting  
 alone, or in concert, with Prl (Jackson et al., 2005; McCormick, 2001).

## 2. Gastrointestinal functions and hydromineral balance: an overview

Because the majority of teleosts typically maintain internal conditions between  
 112 270-400 mOsm/kg, fish inhabiting FW environments are at constant risk of both  
 114 excessive hydration and the diffusive loss of ions across body surfaces (Evans and  
 116 Claiborne, 2008). In turn, FW-acclimated teleosts simultaneously excrete water via dilute  
 118 urine and actively absorb ions ( $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ) from both the external environment and  
 120 their diet across branchial and gastrointestinal epithelia, respectively (Evans et al., 2005;  
 122 Guh et al., 2015; Kaneko et al., 2008). Teleosts in marine environments, on the other  
 124 hand, must excrete ions gained through passive diffusion and combat dehydration by  
 126 continuously drinking ambient SW. The drinking rates of euryhaline fishes are thus  
 markedly greater in marine versus FW-environments (Carrick and Balment, 1983;  
 128 Fuentes and Eddy, 1997; Hirano, 1974; Lin et al., 2002; Malvin et al., 1980; Perrott et al.,  
 130 1992). As a necessary source of water, imbibed SW is processed by multiple segments  
 132 of the gastrointestinal tract that work in concert to sustain solute-linked water absorption.  
 Imbibed SW is first desalinated to ~500 mOsm/kg by the esophagus, a process which  
 134 produces a fluid closer to the osmolality of plasma (Grosell, 2014; Hirano and Mayer-  
 136 Gostan, 1976).  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  are moved from the luminal fluid into blood plasma by active  
 and passive transport and are subsequently extruded by branchial ionocytes (Hirano and  
 Mayer-Gostan, 1976; Kaneko et al., 2008; Takei et al., 2017). Desalinated SW from the  
 esophagus then passes through the stomach where some additional desalination may  
 occur prior to entering the anterior intestine at ~400 mOsm/kg (Grosell, 2014). The  
 stomach exhibits similar rates of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  uptake in SW- and FW-acclimated fishes  
 (Hirano and Mayer-Gostan, 1976). Upon entering the intestine, monovalent ions and  
 water are absorbed from the luminal fluid through both transcellular and paracellular  
 routes (Madsen et al., 2015; Sundell and Sundh, 2012). In SW-acclimated/marine fishes,  
 $\text{HCO}_3^-$  is secreted by enterocytes into the lumen of the intestine to produce  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and

138  $Mg^{2+}$  carbonate aggregates. The formation of these aggregates enhances water  
 absorption by lowering the osmolality of the luminal fluid (Grosell, 2014). For a  
 comprehensive coverage of solute and water handling by the teleost gastrointestinal  
 140 tract we direct readers to previous reviews (Grosell, 2006; Loretz, 1995, Sundell and  
 Sundh, 2012; Whittamore, 2012).

142 Despite decades of sustained research on the osmoregulatory actions of Prl in  
 fishes, a detailed picture of the mechanisms underlying these actions has remained  
 144 largely undeveloped due to limitations in our understanding of how ions and water are  
 transported across osmoregulatory epithelia. The identification of Prl-regulated  
 146 mediators (e.g., ion transporters and channels, NKA subunits,  $Ca^{2+}$ -ATPases,  
 aquaporins (Aqps), and tight-junction proteins) of ion and water transport within  
 148 branchial epithelium (Breves et al., 2014, 2017; Flik et al., 1996) suggests that teleosts  
 will serve as tractable models from which to also determine how Prl operates  
 150 mechanistically in extrabranchial sites (e.g., kidney, urinary bladder, and gastrointestinal  
 tract). It is toward this objective that we highlight recent findings and specify emerging  
 152 themes for future study.

154 **3. Prolactin action on gastrointestinal functions**

3.1 *Esophagus*

156 Effective osmoregulatory strategies entail the controlled entry of external fluids  
 into the gastrointestinal tract. Hormonal regulation of drinking behavior in fishes is  
 158 conventionally attributed to “fast-acting” hormones (e.g., angiotensin II and atrial  
 natriuretic peptides) as opposed to Gh/Prl-family peptides (Takei et al., 2014). While the  
 160 administration of Prl affected drinking rates in rats (Kaufman, 1981), to our knowledge,  
 Prl has not been directly linked with anti-dipsogenic responses that could guard against  
 162 excessive hydration in FW environments.

164 The esophageal epithelium undergoes functional and histological changes in  
 response to variations in environmental salinity (Meister et al., 1983). For instance, the  
 166 transfer of SW-acclimated Japanese eel (*Anguilla japonica*) to FW resulted in reduced  
 $Na^+$  and  $Cl^-$  permeability via the transformation of a simple columnar epithelium into a  
 stratified epithelium (Yamamoto and Hirano, 1978). Increased cell proliferation (PCNA-  
 168 positive nuclei) within the esophageal epithelium of Mozambique tilapia undergoing FW  
 acclimation coincided with increases in plasma Prl and esophageal *prl/r* gene expression  
 170 (Takahashi et al., 2007). Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*), which cannot readily

tolerate salinities >25‰ (Watanabe et al., 1985), did not exhibit discernable differences  
 172 in the esophagus following salinity changes (Cataldi et. al., 1988). The coincident  
 activation of Prl signaling with esophageal remodeling in Mozambique tilapia provided  
 174 indirect evidence for a link between Prl and esophageal phenotypes associated with FW  
 acclimation (Takahashi et al., 2007). Supporting evidence for a link between Prl and  
 176 esophageal remodeling was provided when Prl stimulated cell proliferation within  
 explants of Japanese medaka (*Oryzias latipes*) esophagus (Takahashi et al., 2013).  
 178 Given their responses to salinity challenges, Prl, Gh, and/or cortisol may control  
 additional characteristics of the esophagus such as mucosal vascularization (Cataldi et  
 180 al., 1987; McCormick, 2001). In mammals, Prl (and Prl fragments termed vasoinhibins)  
 regulates angiogenesis depending on the physiological context (Clapp et al., 2006), but  
 182 to date, no links have been made between Gh/Prl-family peptides and vascularization of  
 teleost esophagus. Apoptosis underlies the stratification of esophageal epithelium during  
 184 SW acclimation, and accordingly, treatment with Gh or cortisol increased the presence  
 of TUNEL-positive nuclei in medaka esophagus (Takagi et al., 2011; Takahashi et al.,  
 186 2013). Together, Prl, Gh, and cortisol exert activities (as mitogenic or apoptotic factors)  
 in the esophagus consistent with their established roles in teleost osmoregulation.  
 188 Future studies are now required to better resolve comparative patterns of esophageal  
 Gh/Prl-family hormone receptor expression in euryhaline teleosts.

190

### 3.2 Intestine

#### 192 3.2.1 Prolactin receptors

It was first reported that Prl administration affected intestinal  $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$ , and fluid  
 194 absorption in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) and Japanese eel (Morley et al.,  
 1981; Utida et al., 1972). Consistent with these functional observations, Prl binding and  
 196 Prlr immunoreactivity were observed within the intestinal epithelium of rainbow trout and  
 gilthead sea bream (*Sparus aurata*), respectively (Morley et al., 1981; Santos et al.,  
 198 2001). *prlr* genes are expressed in the intestine of Nile and Mozambique tilapia (Fiol et  
 al., 2009; Pierce et al., 2007; Sandra et al., 1995, 2000, 2001; Zhang et al., 2010),  
 200 Japanese pufferfish (*Takifugu rubripes*) (Lee et al., 2006a, 2006b), gilthead and black  
 sea bream (*Spondyliosoma cantharus*) (Huang et al., 2007; Santos et al., 2001), rainbow  
 202 trout (Rouzic et al., 2001), goldfish (*Carassius auratus*) (Tse et al., 2000), mangrove  
 killifish (*Kryptolebias marmoratus*) (Rhee et al., 2010), Japanese flounder (*Paralichthys  
 204 olivaceus*) (Higashimoto et al., 2001), blue discus (*Sympodus aequifasciata*) (Khong

et al., 2009), turbot (*Scophthalmus maximus*) (Liu et al., 2020), and zebrafish (Breves et al., 2013). Recall that teleosts express two *prlr* genes (*prlr1* and -2). In Nile tilapia, *prlr1* expression is higher in the posterior intestine versus the anterior intestine and *prlr1* expression in the anterior intestine was increased following a reduction in environmental salinity (Sandra et al., 2000, 2001). In contrast, *prlr2* expression was higher in the anterior intestine of Mozambique tilapia acclimated to SW versus FW (Seale et al., 2014). This pattern paralleled the elevated *prlr2* expression in other tissues following the transfer of FW-acclimated fish to SW (Fiol et al., 2009; Seale et al., 2012). It is important to note that particular studies did not report dynamic *prlr* expression in the intestine following salinity changes (Fiol et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2006b). Going forward, the intestine may serve as an appropriate organ from which to resolve how the multiple Prlrs mediate distinct and/or overlapping physiological responses to circulating Prl. While zebrafish cannot tolerate a broad range of salinities, as a model they do offer conditional gene mutagenesis as a means to analyze the functions of two *prlr*s expressed in the intestine (Burg et al., 2018). It must also be acknowledged that Prl plays pivotal roles in immunity (Harris and Bird, 2000). Since the intestinal epithelium constitutes a barrier between the organism and the environment, intestinal *prlr* expression may also enable immunomodulatory activities that are independent from aspects of ion and water balance (Yada et al., 2002).

224

### 3.2.2 Cell proliferation

226 Salinity-induced changes in the morphology of the intestinal epithelium resemble those of the esophageal epithelium; in FW-acclimated mudskipper (*Periophthalmus modestus*), Nile tilapia, and Japanese eel the intestinal epithelium is typically stratified with expanded folds, while in SW/brackish water (BW)-acclimated animals the epithelium 228 is thinner and columnar (Takahashi et al., 2006b; Tran-Ngoc et al., 2017; Yamamoto and Hirano, 1978). As in the esophagus (Takagi et al., 2011; Takahashi et al., 2013), enhanced cell proliferation (and decreased apoptosis) during FW acclimation underlies 230 the development of stratified intestinal epithelium with reduced permeability (Takahashi et al., 2006b). In mudskipper, Prl stimulated cell proliferation, without affecting apoptosis, 232 in the intestinal epithelium of animals acclimated to BW (10‰) (Takahashi et al., 2006a). 234 From a comparative perspective, these findings align with the plethora of Prl actions identified within fishes and other vertebrates that involve the promotion of cell 236 proliferation (Sakamoto and McCormick, 2006). In mammals, Prl stimulated cell 238 proliferation (Sakamoto and McCormick, 2006).

proliferation within the gut (Bujanover et al., 2002; Mainoya, 1978) in addition to various  
 240 organs such as mammary glands, skin, vascular smooth muscle, pancreas, brain, and  
 241 lymph nodes (Bole-Feysot et al., 1998; Freeman et al., 2000; Hennighausen and  
 242 Robinson, 2005).

244 **3.2.3  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+/\text{2Cl}^-$  cotransporter 2 and  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$ -ATPase**

246 In SW-acclimated/marine teleosts, the intestine mediates solute-linked water  
 247 uptake via a suite of ion transporters, channels, and pumps (Grosell, 2006; Sundell and  
 248 Sundh, 2012). For example, apically located  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+/\text{2Cl}^-$  cotransporter 2 (Nkcc2)  
 249 mediates the entry of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  into the interior of enterocytes prior to their subsequent  
 250 transport across the basolateral membrane (Whittamore, 2012). Accordingly, *nkcc2*  
 251 expression in the anterior intestine increased in several species following their exposure  
 252 to SW (Esbaugh and Cutler, 2016; Gregório et al., 2013; Li et al., 2014; Ruhr et al.,  
 253 2016; Watanabe et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2019). Albeit based on a limited number of  
 254 studies, intestinal Nkcc2 appears to be under hormonal control. Arginine vasotocin (Avt)  
 255 inhibited the bumetanide-sensitive absorptive current of gilthead sea bream intestine  
 256 mounted in Ussing chambers (Martos-Sitcha et al., 2013). Accordingly, arginine  
 257 vasopressin (Avp), the mammalian homolog to Avt, diminished distal colonic ion  
 258 absorption in mice by inhibiting the insertion of Nkcc2 into the apical membrane (Xue et  
 259 al., 2014). Renoguanylin and guanylin also inhibited Nkcc2-mediated ion transport in gulf  
 260 toadfish (*Opsanus beta*) and Japanese eels, respectively (Ando et al., 2014; Ruhr et al.,  
 261 2016). Because Prl promotes phenotypes associated with FW acclimation and it was  
 262 reported that Prl administration reduced intestinal  $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$ , and fluid absorption in  
 263 Japanese eel and rainbow trout (Morley et al., 1981; Utida et al., 1972), one would  
 264 predict that Prl exerts similar inhibitory actions on Nkcc2. Paradoxically, Prl actually  
 265 stimulated *nkcc2* expression in hypophysectomized Mozambique tilapia (Seale et al.,  
 266 2014). This pattern may reflect the fact that Mozambique tilapia exhibit greater solute  
 267 and water uptake in the anterior intestine when acclimated to FW (Mainoya, 1982),  
 268 making them an exception to the stereotypical pattern of enhanced intestinal solute and  
 269 water transport in SW-acclimated fishes. Future investigations should examine Prl  
 270 control of Nkcc2 in models shown to exhibit enhanced solute-linked water transport  
 271 under SW conditions (e.g., Atlantic salmon, mummichog, sea bream, and Japanese eel)  
 272 to further assess the relationship between Prl and Nkcc2.

273 The NKA enzyme is a ubiquitously expressed ion pump consisting of three

subunits ( $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$ ) responsible for energizing active transport by key osmoregulatory organs as well as maintaining  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{K}^+$  gradients across all cell membranes. Varied effects of Prl on branchial and renal NKA activity have been reported in teleosts (Manzon, 2002), and similarly, there is not a clear picture of how Prl regulates intestinal NKA. For example, Prl stimulated NKA activity in the intestine of silver sea bream (*Sparus sarba*) (Kelly et al., 1999) and climbing perch (*Anabas testudineus*) (Peter et al., 2014), whereas other studies reported no effect of Prl on NKA activity or *NKA  $\alpha$ -subunit* gene expression in FW- or BW-acclimated fishes (Pickford et al., 1970; Seale et al., 2014; Seidelin and Madsen, 1999). The functions of the regulatory  $\gamma$ -subunit of the NKA enzyme, or Fxyd, in teleosts are becoming better resolved (Saito et al., 2010; Tipsmark, 2008; Wang et al., 2008; Yang et al., 2013). Fxyd proteins modify the transport properties of NKA by binding to the  $\alpha$ -subunit; thus, given the dynamics of intestinal NKA activity during salinity acclimation (Sundell and Sundh, 2012), it is highly plausible that Prl will emerge as a regulator of intestinal Fxyd proteins. While Prl inhibited *fxyd-11*/Fxyd-11 in salmon and tilapia gill (Tipsmark et al., 2010a, 2011), *fxyd-11* is not highly expressed in the intestine (Yang et al., 2013). Thus, *fxyd* isoforms more robustly expressed in the intestine (e.g., medaka *fxyd-5*, *-9*, and *-12*) may offer better targets for probing Prl-Fxyd links underlying intestinal function.

### 292 3.2.4 $\text{Na}^+/\text{HCO}_3^-$ cotransporters and carbonic anhydrase

293 SW-acclimated/marine fishes secrete  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  into the intestinal lumen to support  
 294 fluid absorption (Alves et al., 2019; Grosell, 2011). Intestinal  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  secretion is  
 295 regulated by multiple endocrine factors with contrasting activities. For example,  $\text{HCO}_3^-$   
 296 secretion is stimulated by stanniocalcin and guanylin, yet inhibited by parathyroid  
 297 hormone-related protein, renoguanylin, and Prl (Ferlazzo et al., 2012; Fuentes et al.,  
 298 2010; Ruhr et al., 2018; Takei et al., 2019). The transit of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  through enterocytes  
 299 involves basolateral entry of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  from the blood plasma by a Slc4-type  $\text{Na}^+/\text{HCO}_3^-$   
 300 cotransporter (Nbce1) followed by apical exit into the intestinal lumen via a Slc26-type  
 301  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$  exchanger (Kurita et al., 2008). Another source of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  for apical secretion  
 302 comes from the intracellular hydration of  $\text{CO}_2$  by carbonic anhydrase (Grosell, 2006;  
 303 Grosell et al., 2009). Ferlazzo et al. (2012) showed that Prl inhibited *in vitro* secretion of  
 304  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  in explants of gilthead sea bream anterior intestine. Accordingly, chemical  
 305 inhibitors of transduction pathways linked with Prl signaling (Jak2, Mek, and PI3K)  
 306 disrupted Prl-stimulated  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  secretion (Ferlazzo et al., 2012). A dose-dependent

inhibitory effect of Prl occurred in the absence of basolateral  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  within 20 min; thus,  
 308 Prl seemingly targeted the intracellular generation and subsequent secretion of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ .  
 There is currently no information on whether Prl affects the expression or activity of  
 310 carbonic anhydrase, but this enzyme should now be viewed as a putative target of Prl  
 given its role in intracellular  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  generation. Interestingly, Prl also reduced the gene  
 312 expression of *s/c4a4* (Ferlazzo et al., 2012), potentially affecting the basolateral  
 acquisition of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  from blood plasma. Prl, therefore, emerges as a potential regulator  
 314 of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  secretion through multiple mechanisms.

316 **3.2.5 Tight-junction proteins and aquaporins**

Tight junction complexes, composed of claudins and occludins, govern  
 318 paracellular solute and water movements across teleost epithelia (Chasiotis et al., 2012;  
 Sundell and Sundh, 2012; Tipsmark et al., 2008a, 2008b). In support of solute-linked  
 320 water uptake, intestinal paracellular ionic permeability decreases during SW acclimation  
 (Grosell, 2006; Sundell et al., 2003; Sundell and Sundh, 2012). The elevated expression  
 322 of *claudin-3*, *-15*, and *-25b* in pufferfish (*Tetraodon nigroviridis*), European bass  
 (*Dicentrarchus labrax*), and Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) intestine during SW  
 324 acclimation supports the involvement of their encoded proteins in regulating paracellular  
 permeability (Bagherie-Lachidan et al., 2008; Boutet et al., 2006; Clelland et al., 2010;  
 326 Tipsmark et al., 2010b; Tipsmark and Madsen, 2012). In general, there is limited  
 information on the role of Prl in regulating intestinal claudins in vertebrates. In mice, Prl  
 328 down regulated *claudin-3* expression in crypt cells (Teerapornpuntakit et al., 2012). In  
 the only report that directly assessed Prl-claudin connections in fish intestine, Prl  
 330 inhibited *claudin-15* and *-25b* gene expression in Atlantic salmon (Tipsmark et al.,  
 2010b). This was notable given that *claudin-15* and *-25b* were enhanced during  
 332 smoltification and SW acclimation (Tipsmark et al., 2010b). In contrast to *claudin-15* and  
*-25b*, *claudin-3a* and *-3b* were enhanced in FW-acclimated pufferfish; however, a link to  
 334 Prl-signaling has not been assessed (Bagherie-Lachidan et al., 2008). While occludin  
 was localized to the intestine of stenohaline (FW) goldfish (Chasiotis and Kelly, 2008),  
 336 there is currently no information on intestinal occludin expression patterns in euryhaline  
 fishes undergoing salinity acclimation or following hormone treatment.

338 Aqps are integral membrane proteins that facilitate passive movements of water  
 and small non-ionic compounds across cell membranes (Cerdà and Finn, 2010).  
 340 Teleosts coordinate the expression of Aqps in the intestine during SW acclimation as a

means to enhance transcellular osmotic permeability (Madsen et al., 2015; Sundell and Sundh, 2012). Accordingly, the expression of particular Aqps/aqps isoforms (e.g., Aqp1, -8, -10, -12) were enhanced in a series of teleosts during SW acclimation (Aoki et al., 2003; Deane et al., 2011; Engelund et al., 2013; Giffard-Mena et al., 2007; Jung et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2010; Lignot et al., 2002; Madsen et al., 2011, 2014; Martinez et al., 2005; Raldúa et al., 2008; Tipsmark et al., 2010c). To date, Prl-Aqp3 connections have only been characterized in branchial epithelium (Breves et al., 2016; Ellis et al., 2019). Future investigations should evaluate a role for Prl in inhibiting intestinal Aqps during FW acclimation; such an effect would complement the modulation of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  secretion (Ferlazzo et al., 2012) that attenuates fluid absorption during FW acclimation.

### 352 3.2.6 $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ absorption

Teleosts inhabiting FW must actively absorb  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  across branchial and intestinal epithelia to counter diffusive loss to the external environment (Flik, 1993; Pang, 1973; Wongdee and Charoenphandhu, 2013). Greater than 90% of whole-body  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake is achieved via branchial (or epidermal) ionocytes (Flik et al., 1995; Lin and Hwang, 2016). Nonetheless, given that rates of intestinal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake are greater when fish are acclimated to FW versus SW, the gut also seemingly supports  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  homeostasis (Flik et al., 1996). The transcellular uptake of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  by ionocytes entails the entry of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  through an apical  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel (ECaC; Trpv5/6) followed by basolateral exit via  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -ATPase (PMCA) and  $\text{Na}^+/\text{Ca}^{2+}$  exchanger (NCX) (Flik et al., 1995; Lin and Hwang, 2016). Prl operates as a hypercalcemic factor in multiple teleosts (Chakraborti and Mukherjee, 1995; Fargher and McKeown, 1989; Flik et al., 1989, 1994; Kaneko and Hirano, 1993; Pang et al., 1978; Wongdee and Charoenphandhu, 2013), at least in part, by stimulating branchial PMCA activity (Flik et al., 1996). In contrast to ionocytes, the basolateral transport of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  by enterocytes relies primarily on NCX rather than PMCA (Flik et al., 1993); thus, a role for Prl in the control of intestinal NCX expression/localization warrants investigation. Indeed, Prl enhanced intestinal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  absorption in mammals by stimulating the duodenal expression of *trpv6*, *pmca<sub>1b</sub>*, and *ncx1* (Charoenphandhu et al., 2009; Wongdee et al., 2016). Given the conserved pathways for transcellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transport by mammals and teleosts (Lin and Hwang, 2016), and the hypercalcemic effects of Prl in both groups, it will be interesting to learn the extent to which connections between Prl and intestinal pathways for  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  absorption are conserved.

#### 4. Concluding remarks

376 When considering the collective actions of Prl within the gastrointestinal tract of  
 teleosts, it becomes apparent that Prl has the capacity to both promote phenotypes  
 378 supportive of FW acclimation and to inhibit phenotypes associated with SW acclimation  
 (Fig. 1). To this point, this review has focused entirely on the activities of Prl in teleosts  
 380 because to our knowledge no studies have identified distinct actions of Prl within the  
 gastrointestinal tracts of jawless or cartilaginous fishes. Gh/Prl-family hormones are  
 382 class-I helical cytokines (Huisings et al., 2006). Ocampo Daza and Larhammar (2018)  
 proposed that distinct Prl- and Gh-encoding genes arose in a vertebrate ancestor that  
 384 preceded Agnathans. While only Gh has been identified in sea lamprey (*Petromyzon*  
*marinus*) (Kawauchi et al., 2002), seemingly due to loss of the *prl* gene (Ocampo Daza  
 386 and Larhammar, 2018), sea lamprey were recently shown to express distinct *prl/r* and *ghr*  
 genes in the intestine (Gong et al., 2020). Thus, Prlr-mediated signaling emerged earlier  
 388 in the vertebrate lineage than previously supposed and may participate in regulating  
 osmoregulatory processes within basal vertebrates (albeit with Gh acting as a possible  
 390 ligand). Barany et al. (2020) recently described regional specialization within sea  
 lamprey intestine for solute and fluid transport that parallels patterns in teleosts. The  
 392 next challenge is to link Gh/Prl-family hormone receptors in lamprey with specific  
 intestinal processes. Perhaps the emergence of distinct *prl/r* and *ghr* genes facilitated the  
 394 evolution of complex control over intestinal processes; this control enabled migration  
 between FW and marine habitats. Investigations of this nature will reveal how the  
 396 regulatory roles of Gh/Prl-family hormones evolved to support the gastrointestinal  
 processes that underlie hydromineral balance in fishes.

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408 The authors declare there are no competing interests that could be perceived as

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### CRediT authorship contribution statement

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### Figure legend

1134 **Figure 1.** Overview of the molecular, cellular, and organ level responses to prolactin  
 (Prl) signaling in the gastrointestinal tract of teleosts. Processes stimulated by Prl are  
 1136 listed within green-shaded boxes with solid lines; processes inhibited by Prl are listed  
 within red-shaded boxes with dashed lines. The demonstrated effects of Prl are listed  
 1138 alongside their associated study species (indicated within parentheses). Specific  
 references: <sup>1</sup>Takahashi et al., 2007, <sup>2</sup>Takahashi et al., 2013, <sup>3</sup>Utida et al., 1972, <sup>4</sup>Morley  
 1140 et al., 1981, <sup>5</sup>Ferlazzo et al., 2012, <sup>6</sup>Tippsmark et al., 2010b, <sup>7</sup>Takahashi et al., 2006a,  
<sup>8</sup>Seale et al., 2014, <sup>9</sup>Kelly et al., 1999, <sup>10</sup>Peter et al., 2014, <sup>11</sup>Mainoya et al., 1982,  
 1142 <sup>12</sup>Madsen et al., 1997.

1144 **Highlights:** ► Prl regulates gastrointestinal processes supportive of hydromineral  
 balance. ► Prl receptors are expressed in esophagus and intestine of fishes. ► Prl  
 directs the expression of intestinal solute transporters in euryhaline teleosts. ►  
 1146 Agnathans will provide insight into how Gh/Prl-family hormone function evolved.

1148

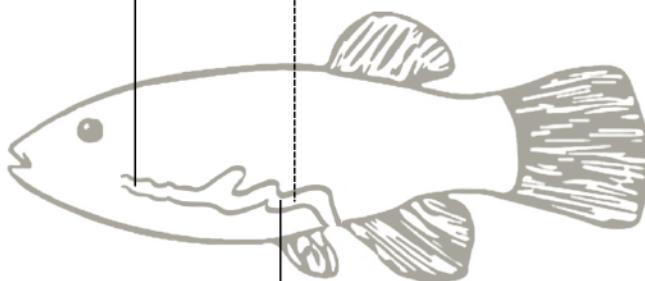
**Fig. 1**

**Esophagus:**

↑ Epithelial cell proliferation (*Oreochromis mossambicus*; *Oryzias latipes*)<sup>12</sup>

**Intestine:**

↓ Na<sup>+</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup>, and H<sub>2</sub>O absorption (*Anguilla japonica*)<sup>3</sup>  
↓ H<sub>2</sub>O absorption (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*)<sup>4</sup>  
↓ HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> secretion (*Sparus aurata*)<sup>5</sup>  
↓ *slc4a4* mRNA (*Sparus aurata*)<sup>5</sup>  
↓ *claudin-15* and -25b mRNA (*Salmo salar*)<sup>6</sup>



**Intestine:**

↑ Epithelial cell proliferation (*Periophthalmus modestus*)<sup>7</sup>  
↑ *nkcc2* mRNA (*Oreochromis mossambicus*)<sup>8</sup>  
↑ Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase activity (*Sparus sarba*; *Anabas testudineus*)<sup>9-10</sup>  
↑ Na<sup>+</sup> and H<sub>2</sub>O absorption (*Oreochromis mossambicus*)<sup>11</sup>  
↑ H<sub>2</sub>O absorption (*Morone saxatilis*)<sup>12</sup>