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***Gonadal soma-derived factor* expression is a potential biomarker for predicting the effects of endocrine-disrupting chemicals on gonadal differentiation in Japanese medaka (*Oryzias latipes*)**

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Disclaimer

The authors have no conflicts of interest related to this research.

Data Availability Statement

The authors confirm that all data underlying the findings are fully available without restriction.

Author Contributions Statement

Y. Horie: Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal Analysis, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Validation, Methodology, and Writing - original draft; N. Kanazawa: Data curation, Methodology, and Writing - original draft; C. Takahashi: Resources, Data curation, Visualization, and Methodology; N. Tatarazako: Project administration and Writing – review & editing; T. Iguchi: Validation, Project administration, Supervision, and Writing – review & editing.

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Abstract

Chemicals with androgenic or estrogenic activity induce the sex reversal and/or intersex condition in various teleost fish species. Previously, we reported that exposure to 17 α -methyltestosterone, bisphenol A, or 4-nonylphenol induces changes in expression of *gonadal soma-derived factor (gsdf)* gene accompanied by disruption of gonadal differentiation in Japanese medaka (*Oryzias latipes*). These findings suggest that *gsdf* expression might be a useful biomarker for predicting potential of chemicals on gonadal differentiation. Here, we examined the *gsdf* expression in Japanese medaka exposed to chemicals with estrogenic or androgenic activity. Exposure to the androgenic steroid 17 β -trenbolone at 0.5–22.1 μ g/L induced ovotestis (presence of ovarian tissue with testicular tissue) development and female-to-male sex reversal in XX embryos, and exposure at 6.32 and 22.1 μ g/L significantly increased *gsdf* expression in XX embryos compared with controls at developmental stage 38 (1 day before hatching). In the present study, no statistically significant difference in *gsdf* mRNA expression was observed by 17 β -estradiol, 17 α -ethinylestradiol, and 4-t-octylphenol exposure, which have estrogenic activity. In addition, anti-androgenic chemicals or chemicals without endocrine-disrupting activity did not induce changes in *gsdf* expression in XX nor XY embryos. Thus, an increase of *gsdf* expression after androgen exposure was observed in XX embryos. Together, these findings indicate that *gsdf* expression might be useful for predicting the adverse effect of chemicals on gonadal differentiation.

1. Introduction

The endocrine system plays an important role in the homeostasis of organisms by overseeing the production and secretion of hormones. Chemicals that interfere with the endocrine system by mimicking or blocking hormonal activity (i.e., endocrine-disrupting chemicals, EDCs) can have detrimental effects on the reproductive health of an organism, its offspring, and its population. 17 β -Trenbolone has been detected in the natural environment, especially at beef feedlots. For example, Durhan et al. (2006) reported that 17 β -trenbolone was detected at 10–20 ng/L in the runoff from a beef feedlot in southwest central Ohio in the United States. Similarly, Gall et al. (2011) have reported that 17 β -trenbolone was detected at 3.3–162 ng/L in the discharge from a tile-drained agroecosystem receiving animal wastes in the Midwestern United States. In the present study, ovotestis development or female-to-male sex reversal in XX medaka was induced by 17 β -trenbolone exposure at concentrations of 0.5 μ g/L or greater. In previous studies, masculinization was induced in zebrafish by exposure to 17 β -trenbolone at 10 ng/L (Baumann et al., 2013) or 50 ng/L (Örn et al., 2006), in western mosquitofish by exposure at 1 μ g/L (Sone et al., 2005), and in Japanese medaka by exposure at 32 ng/L (*O. latipes*) (Flynn et al., 2017). These toxic concentrations are close to the previously reported environmental concentrations, suggesting that continued environmental monitoring of 17 β -trenbolone levels is needed to protect teleosts from the harmful effects of trenbolone exposure.

Japanese medaka (*Oryzias latipes*) are small, freshwater, teleost fish that inhabit the gently flowing rivers and waterways of Japan. The mechanisms underlying sex determination and gonadal sex differentiation are well understood in this fish, thus making it an ideal model organism for examining the effects of chemicals on sexual

dimorphism (Matsuda et al., 2002; Kobayashi et al., 2004). Medaka sex is determined by the presence or absence of a sex-determining gene, *DM-domain gene on the Y chromosome* (*dmy*). When *dmy* is present, the fish will develop to male; if not, the fish will develop to female (Matsuda et al., 2002). When *dmy* is present, it stimulates the expression of gonadal soma-derived factor (Gsdf) in XY gonads at developmental stage 36 (around 6 days after fertilization) in Qurt and HdrR (closed colony) (Shibata et al., 2010), HNI and d-rR strain (Horie et al., 2016), which in turn induces testis differentiation (Shibata et al., 2010). It has also been reported that the *gsdf* gene is involved in sex determination in Luzon medaka (*Oryzias luzonensis*) (Myosho et al., 2012) and in testis differentiation in Nile tilapia (Kaneko et al., 2015).

There are several reports showing that exposure to EDCs induces changes in the expression of *gsdf* in medaka. For example, Zhang et al. (2020) have reported in Indian medaka that *gsdf* expression is decreased in males after 17 α -ethinylestradiol exposure but increased in females after 17 β -trenbolone exposure. In Japanese medaka (*O. latipes*), *gsdf* expression is reduced in males after exposure to estradiol benzoate (Kobayashi et al., 2017) or 17 β -estradiol (Shibata et al., 2010). Our group has reported in Japanese medaka that *gsdf* expression was decreased in males (*O. latipes*) after exposure to bisphenol A (Horie et al., 2020) or 4-nonylphenol (Horie et al., 2021) but increased in females (*O. sakaizumii*) after exposure to 17 α -methyltestosterone (Horie et al., 2016). These results suggest that *gsdf* expression may be a useful biomarker for screening the sex-related effects of chemicals using Japanese medaka. However, further studies using a broad range of chemicals are needed to clarify the applicability of this approach.

Here, we conducted a series of experiments to confirm the applicability of *gsdf* gene expression in Japanese medaka as a biomarker of chemicals having adverse effects on

gonadal development. First, we examined the applicability of *gsdf* gene expression by using 17 β -trenbolone which has a potent androgenic chemical and still unclear for influence of *gsdf* gene expression in *O. latipes*. Then, we examined the effect of 10 other chemicals with various activities on *gsdf* expression at the early stage of gonadal development in Japanese medaka: four estrogen/estrogenic chemicals (4-*t*-octylphenol, 17 β -estradiol, 17 α -ethinylestradiol, and *p,p'*-DDE), two anti-androgenic chemicals (fenitrothion and flutamide), two chemicals without hormonal activity (tributyltin chloride and triphenyltin chloride), and two pesticides without endocrine-disrupting activity (amitrole and endrin). These test chemicals were selected by using data from the SPEED (Strategic Programs on Environmental Endocrine Disruptors) '98 medaka test conducted by the Japanese Ministry of the Environment (summary of medaka studies conducted by the Japanese Ministry of the Environment ; http://www.env.go.jp/en/chemi/ed/extend2010_full.pdf), although detailed information has not been published.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Test fish and test chemicals

The NIES-R strain of Japanese medaka (*O. latipes*), maintained at Akita Prefectural University (Akita, Japan), was used. Medaka fish were bred under an artificial photoperiod of 16-h/8-h light/dark at 25 \pm 2 $^{\circ}$ C. All animal experiments were conducted according to the relevant national guidelines (Act on Welfare and Management of Animals, Ministry of the Environment, Japan) and the fish used in the present study were handled according to the animal care and use guidelines of Akita Prefectural University. All animal experiments were approved by the institutional animal care and use committee,

Faculty of Bioresource Sciences, Akita Prefectural University. Our research was also performed in accordance with the ARRIVE guidelines.

4-*t*-Octylphenol (CAS no. 140-66-9; purity, >97.0%), *p,p'*-DDE (72-55-9; >99.0%), fenitrothion (122-14-5; >99.0%), flutamide (13311-84-7; >98.0%), tributyltin chloride (1461-22-9; >97.0%), and triphenyltin chloride (639-58-7; >98.0%) were obtained from FUJIFILM Wako Pure Chemical Corporation (Osaka, Japan). 17 β -Estradiol (50-28-2; >97.0%), 17 α -ethinylestradiol (57-63-6; >98.0%), amitrole (61-82-5; >98.0%), endrin (72-20-8; >95.0%), and 17 β -trenbolone (10161-33-8; >97.0%) were obtained from Tokyo Chemical Industry Co., Ltd. (Tokyo, Japan).

2.2. Trenbolone exposure test

17 β -Trenbolone exposure testing of medaka was conducted by using a flow-through exposure system (SIS-1F; Shibata Scientific Technology, Tokyo, Japan). Exposure nominal concentrations of 0 (control), 0.32, 1, 3.2, 10, or 32 μ g/L 17 β -trenbolone were used. To prepare 0.032, 0.1, 0.32, 1, and 3.2 mg/L 17 β -trenbolone aqueous stock solutions, 0.144, 0.45, 1.44, 4.5, and 14.4 mg, respectively, of 17 β -trenbolone were placed into separate 5-L glass media bottles (diameter, 182 mm) and dissolved in 4.5 L of Milli-Q water with sonication for 120 min in an ultrasonic bath. The stock solutions were then diluted 1:100 with dechlorinated tap water to obtain the nominal concentrations when using the flow-through exposure system. The water exchange rate was 5 vols per day, and the stock solution was renewed every 4 days by using the same acetone solution, which was kept in a glass reagent bottle.

The fish were exposed to 17 β -trenbolone by using a method we reported previously (Horie et al., 2020, 2021). Eggs were obtained from natural mating in the early morning,

and fertilized eggs were selected under a stereomicroscope. After selection, the fertilized eggs were exposed to 17 β -trenbolone-free water (control) or water containing 17 β -trenbolone at one of the predetermined concentrations (0.32, 1, 3.2, 10, or 32 μ g/L) within 4 h after fertilization until the end of the test (60 days post-hatching [dph]). Then, 20 fertilized eggs per vessel from each treatment group were distributed into 100-mL glass vessels (exposure volume, 60 mL) and cultured until hatching. Four replicate 100-mL glass vessels were used for each of the six treatment conditions. During the embryo stage, the test solution was refreshed once every 24 h. After hatching, the fry were pooled, and there were 15 fish per tank in each of 4 replicate tanks for a total of 60 fish per concentration, and cultured until 60 dph by using the flow-through exposure system (water exchange rate, 5 volumes/day). The embryos and fish were exposed to the same concentration of 17 β -trenbolone both before and after hatching. At 60 dph, all fish in each tank were dissected and the abdomen (including gonads) and caudal fins were collected.

2.3. Chemical exposure tests for the 10 test chemicals

Table 1 summarizes the concentrations used for the 10 test chemicals examined. The table also shows the four chemicals that are known to induce the intersex condition, as well as the associated lowest observed effect concentrations (LOEC). We selected concentrations of the test substances that were less than the water solubility in all of the substances tested, although we did not conduct chemical analyses for the 10 test chemicals. Eggs were obtained from natural mating in the early morning, and fertilized eggs were selected under a stereomicroscope. After selection, the fertilized eggs were exposed to chemical-free water (control) or water containing one of the test chemicals at one of the predetermined concentrations within 4 h after fertilization until the end of the test (8 days post-

fertilization [developmental stage 38]). Then, 20 fertilized eggs from each treatment group were distributed into 100-mL glass vessels (exposure volume was 60 mL) and cultured until stage 38. The developmental stage was determined by using a previously published atlas (Iwamatsu, 2004). The test solution was refreshed once every 24 h. DNA was obtained from caudal fins (see Section 2.2) and genetic sex was determined (see Section 2.2). The remaining part of the embryos after removal of caudal fins were soaked in RNAlater (Sigma-Aldrich) and stored at 4 °C until RNA isolation (within 7 days).

2.4. Chemical analysis

Actual concentrations of the 17 β -trenbolone solutions were measured by analysis using high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC-1260 Infinity; Agilent, CA, USA). HPLC analysis was conducted under the following conditions: LC column, Mightysil RP-18 GP (5 μ m, 2.0 mm I.D. \times 150 mm; Kanto Chemical, Tokyo, Japan); mobile phase A, 0.01 mol/L ammonium formate in 0.1% formic acid; mobile phase B, acetonitrile (1:1, v/v); flow rate, 0.2 mL/min; column temperature, 45 °C; injection volume, 5 μ L ; detector, UV absorbance at 335 nm. Detection limit and quantification limit for the exposure concentration were 0.17 μ g/L and 0.58 μ g/L, respectively.

2.5. Histopathology

Analysis after exposure was conducted as reported previously (Horie et al., 2020, 2021). The abdomen (including gonads) were fixed in Bouin's solution for 24 h, dehydrated in a standard graded series of ethanol, and embedded in Paraplast Plus (McCormick Scientific, St. Louis, MO, USA). Serial cross-sections of the whole abdomen (including gonads) (6 μ m thickness) were then prepared and stained with Carazzi's hematoxylin

(Fujifilm Wako Pure Chemical Industries) and used to observe gonadal sex differentiation.

2.6. Sex determination by PCR

Caudal fins were cut, dissolved in TE/PK solution (200 ng/μL Proteinase K, 10 mM Tris-HCl, 1 mM EDTA, pH 8.0), and incubated for 12 h at 55 °C. Caudal fin lysates were used for PCR amplification. Genetic sex was determined by PCR analysis with primer sets for the *doublesex and mab-3-related transcription factor 1 (dmrt1)* and *dmy* genes, i.e., PG17.5 (5'-CCGGGTGCCCAAGTGCTCCCGCTG-3') and PG17.6 (5'-GATCGTCCCTCCACAGACAAGAGA-3'), as described previously (Kobayashi et al., 2004). The PCR conditions were 5 min at 95 °C, followed by 35 cycles of 20 s at 96 °C, 30 s at 55 °C, 30 s at 72 °C, and then 5 min at 72 °C. The PCR products were electrophoresed in a 1.5% Tris-acetate-EDTA agarose gel for analysis.

2.7. Real-time quantitative PCR

Real-time quantitative PCR was performed as described previously (Horie et al., 2020, 2021). Total RNA was extracted from whole one embryo without caudal fins by using an RNeasy Mini Kit and RNase-Free DNase (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) in accordance with the manufacturer's protocol. The concentration of RNA in the extracts was measured with a NanoDrop One Microvolume UV–Vis Spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). RNA was then reverse-transcribed into cDNA by using PrimeScript RT Master Mix (Perfect Real Time, Takara, Shiga, Japan) in accordance with the manufacturer's protocol; the concentration of each cDNA solution was adjusted to 10 ng/μL. Real-time quantitative PCR was performed with a LightCycler 96 System (Roche, Basel, Switzerland) and a Kapa SYBR Fast qPCR Master Mix (2×) Kit (Kapa Biosystems,

Basel, Switzerland). Each reaction mixture (20 µL) contained 10 µL of KAPA SYBR Fast qPCR Master Mix (2×), 0.2 µL of each 20 µM primer, 1 µL of 10 ng/µL cDNA, and 8.6 µL of PCR-grade water. The reaction profile consisted of 180 s at 95 °C followed by 40 cycles at 95 °C for 10 s, 49 °C for 20 s, and 72 °C for 1 s. The sequences of the specific primers were as follows: *gsdf* (forward, 50-GGCTGGGACAATTGGGTGATC-30; reverse, 50TTTCATCCATGAAGACGATGG-30) and *efla* (forward, 50-AGTACGCCTGGGTGTTGGAC-30; reverse, 50-AAACGGGCCTGGCTGTAAG-30). All primers and predicted amplicons were checked by using BLAST (NCBI; <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/>). Each sample for each target was run in triplicate. The data were analyzed by using LightCycler 96 analysis software (SW 1.1; Roche) and exported to Microsoft Excel (Microsoft, USA). The expression level of *gsdf* (n = 6) was normalized to that of the *efla* housekeeping gene by using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta C_t}$ method (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001).

2.8. Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were conducted as we reported previously (Horie et al., 2017). By using the open-source statistical software R (<http://www.R-project.org/>) and Rcmdr (Fox and Bouchet-Valat, 2018), we first applied Bartlett's test (significance level, 5%) to test for homogeneity of variance. When the criterion for homogeneity of variance was not rejected, we tested for differences in the test results among treatments by using Dunnett's test; otherwise, we used Steel's test.

3. Results

3.1. Trenbolone exposure test

Table 2 shows the nominal and average measured concentrations of 17 β -trenbolone for the whole test period. The measured concentrations of 17 β -trenbolone remained stable during the test period (data not shown), although were lower than the nominal concentrations. 17 β -Trenbolone was not detected in the control water.

At the end of the test period, none of the XX medaka in the control and 0.1 μ g/L exposure groups showed abnormal gonadal development (Fig. 1 and Table 3). However, all of the XX medaka exposed to 17 β -trenbolone at 0.5, 1.92, 6.32, and 22.1 μ g/L except one in the 6.32 μ g/L exposure group, showed ovotestis (presence of ovarian tissue with testicular tissue) development or female-to-male sex reversal. Also, at the end of the test period, expression of *gsdf* in control XY embryos was significantly higher than that in the control XX embryos (Fig. 2). After 17 β -trenbolone exposure, *gsdf* expression in XX embryos in the 6.32 and 22.1 μ g/L exposure groups was significantly increased compared with that in the control XX embryos (Fig. 2).

3.2. Change in *gsdf* expression after chemical exposure

We examined the changes in *gsdf* expression at developmental stage 38 after exposure to chemicals with various activities. First, we examined *gsdf* expression after estrogen and estrogenic chemicals (Fig. 3). In all exposure groups, *gsdf* expression in control XY embryos was significantly higher than that in control XX embryos. After 17 β -estradiol, 17 α -ethinylestradiol, 4-*t*-octylphenol, or *p,p'*-DDE exposure in XY embryos no statistically significant difference in *gsdf* expression was observed compared with control XY embryos in the present study.

Next, we examined *gsdf* expression after exposure to chemicals with anti-androgenic activity (Fig. 4). In both exposure groups, *gsdf* expression in control XY embryos was significantly higher than that in control XX embryos. After fenitrothion or flutamide exposure, *gsdf* expression in XY embryos was comparable to that in XY controls.

Finally, we examined *gsdf* expression after exposure to chemical substances with no hormonal activity (Fig. 5). In all exposure groups, *gsdf* expression in control XY embryos was significantly higher than that in control XX embryos. After tributyltin chloride exposure, *gsdf* expression was significantly increased in XX embryos and decreased in XY embryos in the 250- μ g/L concentration group compared with that in control embryos; there were no other significant differences for the higher exposure groups. After triphenyltin chloride or amitrole exposure, *gsdf* expression in XX embryos and XY embryos in all exposure groups was comparable to that in the controls. After endrin exposure, *gsdf* expression was significantly lower in XY embryos at 25 ng/L concentration group than in the control XY group; there were no other significant differences for the other XX and XY embryo exposure groups.

4. Discussion

Trenbolone is a synthetic androgenic steroid that is used to promote growth or enhance feeding efficiency in beef cattle. Ankley et al. (2018) reviewed the effect of 17 β -trenbolone using *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies and concluded that it is a potent androgen receptor agonist. Here, we show that 17 β -trenbolone exposure induced ovotestis development or female-to-male sex reversal in XX medaka. This finding is consistent with previous reports that 17 β -trenbolone exposure induces ovotestis development and sex reversal in medaka and zebrafish (Baumann et al., 2013; Örn et al., 2006) and in

western mosquitofish (*Gambusia affinis*) (Sone et al., 2005). Together, these findings indicate that early life-stage exposure to 17 β -trenbolone induces masculinization of female medaka.

Here, we also examined the effects of exposure to chemicals with different hormonal activities on *gsdf* expression in the developing medaka. Together with our previous data (Horie et al., 2016), our findings strongly suggest that *gsdf* expression in XX medaka is increased by exposure to chemicals with androgenic activity, although the lowest-observed-effect concentration value of 17 β -trenbolone (6.32 μ g/L) that induced increasing of *gsdf* mRNA expression during embryo development (i.e., just before hatching) was not consistent with the 17 β -trenbolone concentration that induced sexual differentiation (0.5 μ g/L), as determined in the OECD TG234 assay. In addition, findings from previous studies indicate that *gsdf* expression in XY medaka is decreased by exposure to chemicals with estrogenic activity (Kobayashi et al., 2017; Horie et al., 2020, 2021). Although previous reports using 17 β -estradiol (Shibata et al., 2010) and estradiol benzoate, which is synthetic estrogen, (Kobayashi et al., 2017) reports that *gsdf* expression in XY medaka is decreased, in the present study, no statistically significant difference in *gsdf* expression was observed by 17 β -estradiol and 17 α -ethinylestradiol which is synthetic estrogen. One of the possible differences is the difference in exposure concentration. The previous study with 17 β -estradiol and synthetic estrogen involved a higher concentration; 10 μ g/L 17 β -estradiol (Shibata et al., 2010) vs 100 ng/L (this study) and 800 ng/L synthetic estrogen (Kobayashi et al., 2017) vs 100 ng/L (this study). In the present study, we found that *gsdf* expression was not changed by exposure to anti-androgenic chemicals or chemicals without hormonal activity. These findings are consistent with previous reports of an increase or decrease in *gsdf* expression after

exposure to chemicals with androgenic or estrogenic activity. For example, Lee et al. (2017) have reported that exposure to 17 α -methyltestosterone induces masculinization of gonads and upregulates *gsdf* expression in zebrafish. Zhang et al. (2020) have reported in Indian medaka that *gsdf* expression is decreased in males after exposure to 17 α -ethinylestradiol, but increased in females after exposure to 17 β -trenbolone. Together, these findings suggest that *gsdf* expression is altered by chemicals having androgenic or estrogenic activity.

Gsdf, a member of the transforming growth factor beta superfamily, was first identified in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) (Sawatari et al., 2007). Since then, *gsdf* expression has been identified in the testes of sablefish (*Anoplopoma fimbria*) (Hayman et al., 2021), Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) (Kleppe et al., 2020), spotted scat (*Scatophagus argus*) (He et al., 2019), Luzon medaka (Myosho et al., 2012), Japanese flounder (*Paralichthys olivaceus*) (Yang et al., 2019), Chinese tongue sole (*Cynoglossus semilaevis*) (Zhu et al., 2018), and Japanese pufferfish (*Takifugu rubripes*) (Yan et al., 2018). Jiang et al. (2016) have reported that *gsdf*-deficient XY Nile tilapia develop ovotestes or ovaries. Similarly, Imai et al. (2015) have reported that XY Japanese medaka (*O. latipes*) harboring a mutated *gsdf* develop ovaries. In contrast, Zhang et al. (2016) have reported that *gsdf* addition induces masculinization in XX Japanese medaka (*O. latipes*). In addition, Myosho et al. (2012) have reported that *gsdf* is a sex-determining gene in Luzon medaka. Together, these findings indicate that *gsdf* is likely a key gene controlling testicular differentiation in medaka and Nile tilapia. It has also been reported that *gsdf* knockout zebrafish can develop as male or female, and that the mutant males are fertile (Yan et al., 2017), indicating that *gsdf* expression can probably not be used to

predict the effects of chemicals with endocrine disrupting potency in all teleosts, but it can be used in medaka.

The expression of several teleost genes is altered by exposure to chemicals with androgenic or estrogenic activity, including two genes encoding proteins thought to be involved in ovarian differentiation; forkhead box L2 (*Foxl2*), a member of the forkhead family of transcription factors, and *Cyp19a1a* (aromatase), which is involved in 17 β -estradiol synthesis by catalyzing the conversion of androgens to estrogens (Wang et al., 2007), and the gene encoding *Dmrt1*, which functions in male sex determination and testis development (Masuyama et al., 2012). More specifically, exposure to chemicals with estrogenic activity increases the expression of *Foxl2* in zebrafish (Yang et al., 2018) and rare minnow (Yuan et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2012), and of *Cyp19a1a* in zebrafish (Yang et al., 2018), Nile tilapia (Gennotte et al., 2014), and mangrove rivulus (Lee et al., 2006). In contrast, exposure to chemicals with androgenic activity increases the expression of *dmrt1* in orange-spotted grouper (*Epinephelus coioides*) (Lyu et al., 2019), zebrafish (Lee et al., 2017), and rainbow trout (Baron et al., 2008). In addition, changes in the expression of *foxl2*, *cyp19a1a*, and *dmrt1* by hormone exposure have been reported in Japanese medaka (*O. latipes*); for example, Kobayashi et al. (2017) have reported that *foxl2* expression is increased after exposure to estradiol benzoate. However, we found recently that *foxl2* expression was unchanged after exposure to bisphenol A (Horie et al., 2020), suggesting that *foxl2* expression may not be a good biomarker for predicting the sex-related effects of chemicals. Upregulation of *cyp19a1a* and *dmrt1* expression is induced by 17 α -ethinylestradiol (Scholz and Guyzeit., 2000), bisphenol A (Horie et al., 2020), and 17 α -methyltestosterone (Horie et al., 2016), suggesting that *cyp19a1a* or *dmrt1*

expression are also potential biomarkers for predicting the sex-related effects of chemicals with androgenic or estrogenic activity.

In recent years, animal welfare-friendly test methods have been recommended for ecotoxicological investigations, and in the EU, notably, since Directive 2010/63/EU (EU 2010) on the protection of animals used for scientific purposes, live non-human vertebrate animals including independently feeding larval forms are covered by its scope. In Japanese medaka, although *gsdf* expression is detectable in the somatic cells surrounding the primordial germ cells at developmental stage 36 (around 6 days post-fertilization) in XY embryos (Shibata et al., 2010; Horie et al., 2016), *dmrt1* and *cyp19a1a* expression is detectable only after hatching in XY and XX gonads (Kobayashi et al., 2004; Nakamoto et al., 2006). Furthermore, our present and previous findings indicate that whereas *gsdf* expression in XX embryos is induced during embryogenesis after androgen (17 α -methyltestosterone) exposure (Horie et al., 2016), *gsdf* expression in XY embryos is decreased during embryogenesis after estrogen (bisphenol A and 4-nonylphenol) exposure (Horie et al., 2020, 2021).

5. Conclusions

Here, we evaluated the potential of using *gsdf* expression as a biomarker for predicting the sex-related toxicological effects of chemicals with androgenic or estrogenic activity in Japanese medaka. Exposure to 17 β -trenbolone, which has androgenic activity, induced ovotestis development and female-to-male sex reversal, as well as increased *gsdf* expression, in XX embryos. Although no statistically significant difference in *gsdf* expression was observed by exposure to four estrogens/chemicals with estrogenic activity in the present study, our previous studies indicate that *gsdf* expression in XY embryos is

decreased by exposure to chemicals with estrogenic activity. In contrast, chemicals with anti-androgenic activity or chemicals without hormonal activity did not induce changes in *gsdf* expression in XX or XY embryos.

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Disclaimer

The authors have no conflicts of interest related to this research.

Data Availability Statement

Data are available from the corresponding author (horie@people.kobe-u.ac.jp).

Author Contributions Statement

Y. Horie: Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal Analysis, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Validation, Methodology, and Writing - original draft; N. Kanazawa: Data curation, Methodology, and Writing - original draft; C. Takahashi: Resources, Data curation, Visualization, and Methodology; N. Tatarazako: Project administration and Writing – review & editing; T. Iguchi: Validation, Project administration, Supervision, and Writing – review & editing.

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553

554 **Tables**

555 Table 1. Test chemicals used

Chemical		Concentration used in the present study	Intersex	LOEC for induction of intersex	Reference
4- <i>t</i> -Octylphenol	estrogen receptor agonist	6.2, 12.5, 25, 50, 100 µg/L	○	23.7 µg/L	unpublished data
<i>p,p'</i> -DDE	—	1, 3.2, 10, 32, 100 µg/L	○	32.4 µg/L	unpublished data
17β-Estradiol	estrogen receptor agonist	6.2, 12.5, 25, 50, 100 ng/L	○	23.8 ng/L	unpublished data
17α- Ethinylestradiol	estrogen receptor agonist	6.2, 12.5, 25, 50, 100 ng/L	○	24.5 ng/L	unpublished data
Fenitrothion	androgen receptor antagonist	375, 750, 1500, 3000 µg/L	—	—	Horie et al., 2017
Flutamide	androgen receptor antagonist	125, 250, 500, 1000 µg/L	—	—	Nakamura et al., 2016
Tributyltin chloride	—	250, 500, 1000, 2000 ng/L	—	—	unpublished data
Triphenyltin chloride	—	250, 500, 1000, 2000 ng/L	—	—	unpublished data

Amitrole	—	62.5, 125, 250, 500, 1000 µg/L	—	—	unpublished data
Endrin	—	12.5, 25, 50, 100, 200 ng/L	—	—	unpublished data

556

557

558

559 Table 2. Nominal and average measured concentrations of trenbolone for the whole test
560 period

Nominal concentration (µg/L)	n	Average measured concentration (µg/L)	Standard deviation (µg/L)
Control	10	ND	–
0.32	10	0.1	0.053
1	10	0.5	0.11
3.2	10	1.92	0.35
10	10	6.32	0.78
32	10	22.1	0.13

561 * The exposure concentrations of trenbolone were measured by analysis using HPLC-
562 1260 Infinity every week.
563

564 Table 3. Effects of trenbolone on gonadal sex differentiation in XX medaka

Age	Measured concentration	Genetic sex	Gonadal sex (%)		
	µg/L	XX	Ovary	Ovotestis	Testis
60 dph	control	21	21 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	0.1	23	23 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	0.5	13	0 (0)	7 (54)	6 (46)
	1.92	15	0 (0)	6 (40)	9 (60)
	6.32	21	1 (4)	10 (48)	10 (48)
	22.1	12	0 (0)	2 (17)	10 (83)

565 dph, days post hatch

566

Figure legends

Figure 1. Histological analysis of gonad after 17 β -trenbolone exposure at 60 days after hatching. Normal ovary (a) and testis (b) from control XX and XY medaka, respectively. 17 β -Trenbolone treatment induced ovotestis development (0.5 μ g/L) (c) or sex reversal (0.5 μ g/L) (d) in XX medaka. Red arrows indicate ovarian tissue. Blue arrows indicate testicular tissue. Scale bars, 100 μ m

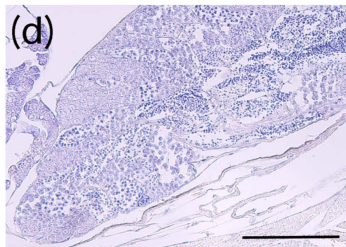
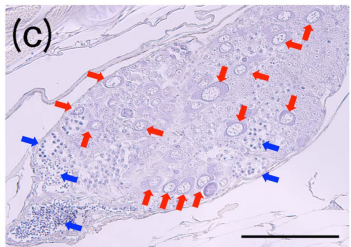
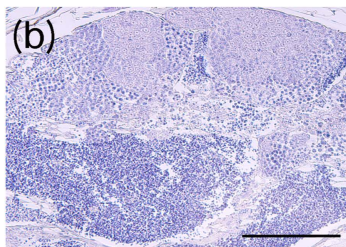
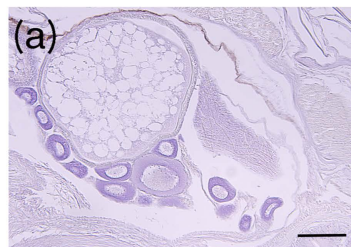
Figure 2. Expression of *gsdf* mRNA in Japanese medaka, as measured by real-time quantitative polymerase chain reaction at stage 38 after exposure to trenbolone. Columns and error bars represent means \pm SEM ($n = 6$ per group). After the expression level of *gsdf* was normalized to that of the *efl α* housekeeping gene, the each data were normalized additionally to a control, in this case to the XX control embryos. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences compared with control XX (Dunnett's test or Steel's test; $P < 0.05$). Numbers above the columns indicate the number of ovotestis (IS) and sex reversal (SR) individuals at the end of test day (= ovotestis or sex reversal individuals/total number of individuals).

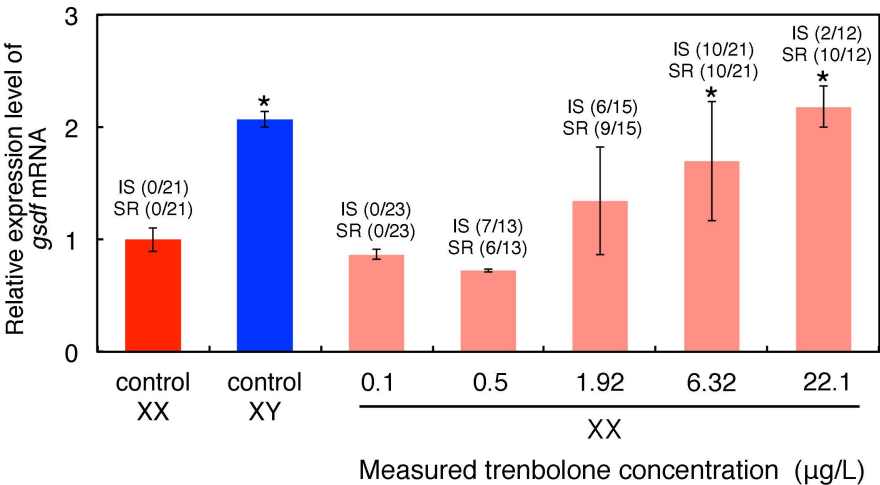
Figure 3. Expression of *gsdf* mRNA in Japanese medaka, as measured by real-time quantitative polymerase chain reaction at stage 38 after exposure to 17 β -estradiol (E2), ethinylestradiol (EE2), 4-*t*-octylphenol (4-*t*-OP), or *p,p'*-DDE. Columns and error bars represent means \pm SEM ($n = 6$ per group). After the expression level of *gsdf* was normalized to that of the *efl α* housekeeping gene, the each data were normalized additionally to a control, in this case to the XY control embryos. Asterisks indicate

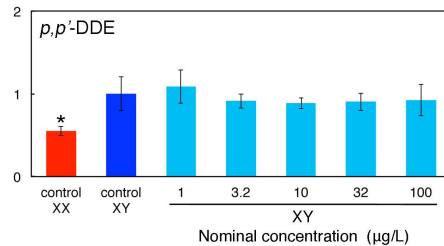
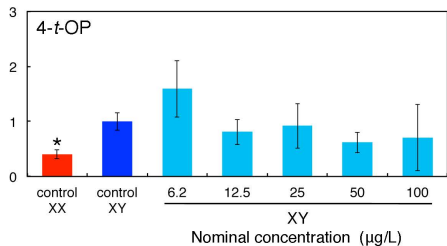
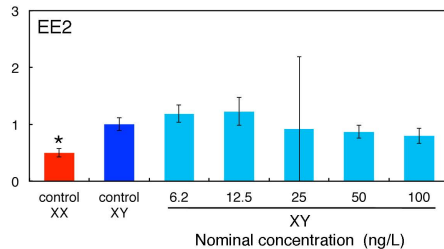
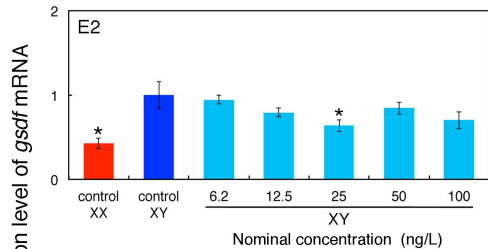
statistically significant differences compared with control XY (Dunnett's test or Steel's test; $P < 0.05$).

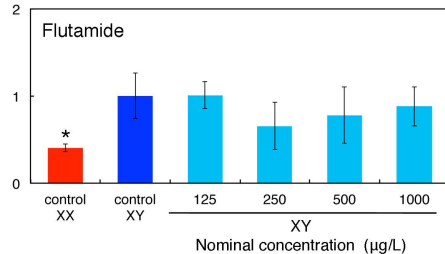
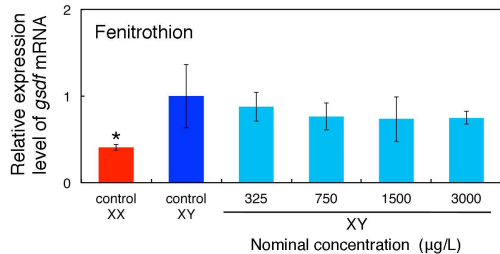
Figure 4. Expression of *gsdf* mRNA in Japanese medaka, as measured by real-time quantitative polymerase chain reaction at stage 38 after exposure to fenitrothion or flutamide. Columns and error bars represent means \pm SEM ($n = 6$ per group). After the expression level of *gsdf* was normalized to that of the *efl α* housekeeping gene, the each data were normalized additionally to a control, in this case to the XY control embryos. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences compared with control XY (Dunnett's test or Steel's test; $P < 0.05$).

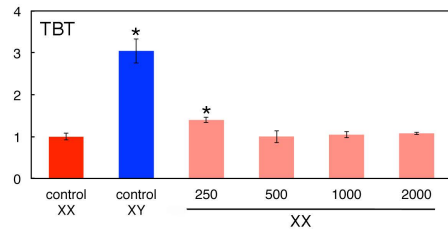
Figure 5. Expression of *gsdf* mRNA in Japanese medaka, as measured by real-time quantitative polymerase chain reaction at stage 38 after exposure to tributyltin chloride (TBT), triphenyltin chloride (TPT), amitrole, or endrin. Columns and error bars represent means \pm SEM ($n = 6$ per group). After the expression level of *gsdf* was normalized to that of the *efl α* housekeeping gene, the each data were normalized additionally to a control, in this case to the XX (left figure) or XY (right figure) control embryos. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences compared with control XX (left figure) or XY (right figure) (Dunnett's test or Steel's test; $P < 0.05$).



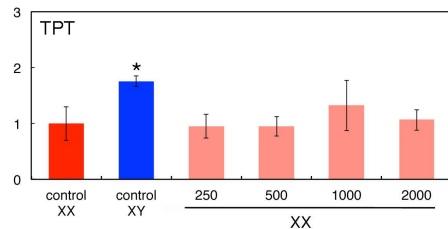
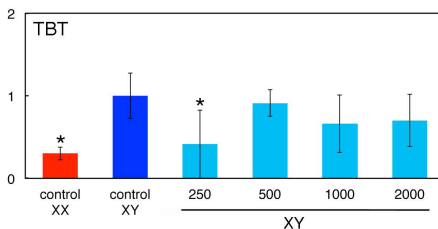




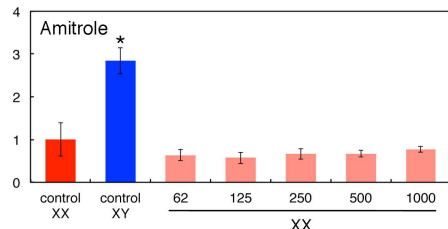
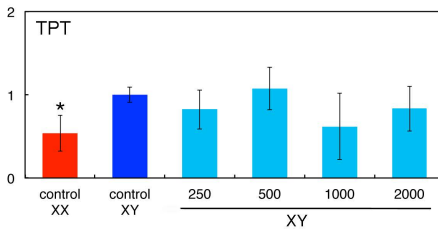




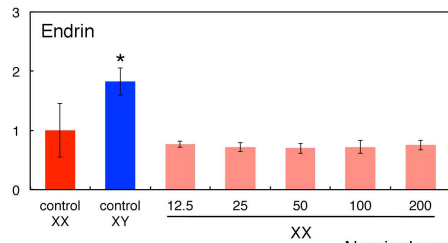
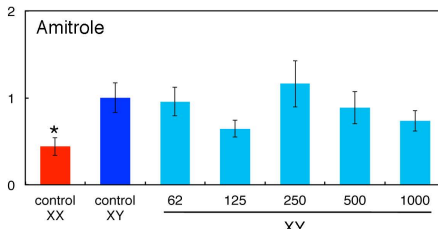
Nominal concentration (µg/L)



Nominal concentration (µg/L)



Nominal concentration (µg/L)



Nominal concentration (ng/L)

