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Development of an in vivo acute bioassay using the marine medaka Oryzias melastigma

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1	Development of an <i>in vivo</i> acute bioassay using the marine medaka Oryzias			
2	melastigma			
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18	Abstract			
19	To determine whether the marine medaka Oryzias melastigma is a suitable model			
20	organism for in vivo acute toxicity bioassay in seawater, we first determined whether			
21	there were differences in the concentrations of chemicals that were toxic to marine			
22	medaka (O. melastigma) and freshwater medaka (O. latipes). We performed in vivo			
23	acute toxicity bioassay with 3-chloroaniline, triclosan, 3,4-dichloroaniline, fenitrothion,			
24	and pyriproxyfen on larvae of both species. Although the concentrations of 3-			
25	chloroaniline and fenitrothion that were lethal to the larvae were identical for both			
26	species, the toxic concentrations of triclosan, 3,4-dichloroaniline, and pyriproxyfen			
27	were lower for O. melastigma than for O. latipes. We then used an in vivo acute toxicity			
28	bioassay to monitor the quality of coastal seawater in Akita, Japan. No lethal effects			
29	were observed in the harbor and canal in 2019. O. melastigma could be used to monitor			
30	the quality of seawater with salinities in the range 2–25. Our findings suggest that O.			
31	melastigma can be used as the test fish for in vivo acute toxicity bioassay intended for			
32	water quality monitoring.			
33				
34				
35	Keywords Aquatic organisms · Coastal water · Ecotoxicity · Marine pollution · Water			
36	toxicity			

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44					
45	Competing Interests				
46	The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.				
47					
48	Availability of data and materials				
49	The authors confirm that all data underlying the findings are fully available without				
50	restriction.				
51					
52	Authors contributions				
53	All authors listed on the current study contributed to the experimental design or data				
54	analysis. (Yoshifumi Horie; All experiment except sampling for in vivo acute bioassays:				
55	Chiho Takahashi; sampling for in vivo acute bioassays).				
56					
57	Ethical approval				
58	The fish which was used in the present study were handled according to guidelines of				
59	Akita Prefectural University.				
60					
61	Consent to participate				
62	This research did not involve human subjects, so clinical trial registration is not				
63	applicable.				
64					
65	Consent for publish				
66	The authors certify that this manuscript is our original unpublished work, has not been				
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68	approved the manuscript and agree with its submission.				
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73 Introduction

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75 In recent years, marine pollution has become a serious environmental problem.

- 76 Examples include the plastic waste problem (reviewed by Campos da Rocha et al. 2021;
- Fauziah et al. 2021; Issac and Kandasubramanian 2021) and pollution by chemical
- substances used in the aquaculture industry (reviewed by Thuy et al. 2011; Zheng et al.
- 79 2021). To protect marine ecosystems, it is necessary to evaluate the effects of various
- 80 marine pollutants on aquatic organisms.
- 81 *Oryzias melastigma* is a small fish native to India. Adult *O. melastigma* are about 5 cm
- 82 in length, and their short generation time, which can be as brief as \sim 3 months, makes *O*.
- 83 *melastigma* easy to breed. *O. melastigma* have therefore been popular models for the
- study of biological effects of various marine pollutants. For example, Wang et al.
- 85 (2021) have reported that polystyrene microplastics depress hatching success, suppress
- 86 body size and gonadosomatic index, and accelerate sexual maturity of *O. melastigma*. In
- 87 addition, various chemicals, including acrylamide (Yue et al. 2021), nickel (Wang et al.
- 88 2020a), phenanthrene (Zheng et al. 2020), copper (Wang et al. 2020b), and
- 89 difenoconazole (Dong et al. 2018) have been reported to have adverse effects on *O*.
- 90 *melastigma*. We have recently conducted a comparative study of the toxicity of
- 91 organotin compounds to freshwater Japanese medaka (O. latipes), which is a species
- 92 closely related to *O. melastigma*. The study has revealed that the negative effects of
- 93 exposure of *O. melastigma* and *O. latipes* to TPT or TBT follow identical trends; the
- 94 lowest observed effect concentrations for survival and embryo development were the
- similar in both species (Horie et al. 2018; 2019). Although these previous studies have
- 96 suggested that *Oryzias* congeners are useful small fish for assessment of the ecological
- 97 risks of chemicals in freshwater and marine ecosystems, only the studies of Horie et al.
- 98 (2018, 2019) have used the same chemicals and experimental methods to determine
- 99 whether there are differences between the toxicities of chemicals to different *Oryzias*100 congeners.
- Monitoring of water quality is an important step in assessing the risk of chemical
 pollution. Effect-based assessment using *in vivo* bioassays is one of the tools that has
- 103 been applied in water quality monitoring (Escher et al. 2018). Effect-based methods
- 104 have been applied to screen for adverse effects on fish in surface waters (Chen et al.
- 105 2015; Cristiano et al. 2020; Tamura et al. 2017; Zhang et al. 2015) or in wastewater
- 106 (Leris et al. 2019; Maier et al. 2015; Wittlerová et al. 2020). To our knowledge,
- 107 however, no previous study has adapted *in vivo* bioassays using *O. melastigma* to
- 108 monitor seawater quality, although Yamagishi et al. (2018) have used *in vivo* bioassays

109 with the marine cyanobacterium *Cyanobium* sp. NIES-981 to evaluate the toxicity of110 leaches from hydrothermal sulfide deposits.

111 In this study, we first compared the toxicities of various chemical substances

112 including 3-chloroaniline, triclosan, 3,4-dichloroaniline, Fenitrothion, and pyriproxyfen

113 between *O. melastigma* and *O. latipes*. We then used *in vivo* acute toxicity bioassay

114 with O. melastigma to monitor coastal water quality in Akita Prefecture, Japan.

- 115
- 116 Materials and methods
- 117

118 Test fish

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120 The National Institute for Environmental Studies, Tsukuba, Japan, supplied the NIES-R 121 strain of *O. latipes*, which has been maintained since 2017 under an artificial 122 photoperiod of 16-h/8-h light/dark at 25 ± 2 °C at Akita Prefectural University.

123 The O. melastigma, which is derived from individuals originally purchased from a 124 local pet shop, has been maintained since 2017 under an artificial photoperiod of 16-125 h/8-h light/dark at 25 ± 2 °C and a salinity of 17 ± 2 at Akita Prefectural University. The 126 identification of the species was confirmed by using 12S and 16S ribosomal RNA genes 127 (Takehana et al. 2005). Artificial seawater was prepared from seawater salts (Marine 128 ART Hi, Osaka Yakken Co. Ltd, Osaka, Japan). In all experiments, the medaka were 129 handled in a humane manner in accordance with the guidelines of Akita Prefectural 130 University, Japan.

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Test chemicals and exposure concentration

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The chemicals 3-chloroaniline (CAS no. 108-42-9; purity, >99%), triclosan (3380-34-5;
>98%), and 3,4-dichloroaniline (95-76-1; >98%) were obtained from Tokyo Chemical

136 Industry Co., Ltd. (Tokyo, Japan). Fenitrothion (122-14-5; >98%) and pyriproxyfen

137 (95737-68-1; >99%) were obtained from FUJIFILM Wako Pure Chemical Corporation

138 (Osaka, Japan). We selected these test chemicals because we already reported the lethal

toxicity of these chemical substances using zebrafish *Danio rerio* in previous reports(Horie et al., 2017).

141 We used exposure concentrations of 0 (control), 6, 12, 25, or 50 mg/L 3-

142 chloroaniline, 0 (control), 150, 300, 600, or 1200 μg/L triclosan, 0 (control), 31, 62,

143 125, or 250 μ g/L 3,4-dichloroaniline, 0 (control), 1.75, 3.5, 7, or 14 mg/L fenitrothion,

144 and 0 (control), 0.3, 0.6, 1.2, or 2.5 mg/L pyriproxyfen.

145					
146	In vivo acute toxicity bioassay using O. melastigma and O. latipes				
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148	A 500-mL glass beaker (exposure volume of 400 mL) and larvae within 5 days after				
149	hatching were used for the acute toxicity tests. Ten larvae were distributed in each glass				
150	beaker, and four replicate 500-mL glass beakers were used for each concentration. A				
151	total of 40 larvae were therefore used for each treatment. The test period was 96 hours,				
152	and observations for dead larvae were performed every 24 hours. Dead larvae were				
153	removed and the exposure test water was changed every day. Acute toxicity tests with				
154	O. melastigma and O. latipes were conducted at 25 ± 2 °C and a photoperiod of 16 h				
155	light:8 h dark. The salinity was 17 ± 2 in the experiments with O. melastigma. The				
156	survival rate was calculated after each test had been completed.				
157					
158	Study area and sampling for <i>in vivo</i> acute bioassays				
159					
160	The targets of this study were the harbor and canal of the port of Akita. This port, the				
161	largest in the Pan-Japan Sea area, is located in the western part of Akita City, in the				
162	northeastern part of Akita Prefecture (Fig. 1). Site A was in a coastal area where				
163	wastewater from a thermal power plant is discharged. Site B was located near a paper				
164	mill factory.				
165	Seawater samples were collected from each site in May, August, and October of				
166	2019 and February of 2020. Surface seawater samples were taken from a depth of 0.3 m				
167	below the surface. Twenty liters of seawater were sampled from each site for <i>in vivo</i>				
168	acute bioassays using O. melastigma. Seawater samples were transported to the				
169	laboratory and maintained at 4 °C until the in vivo acute bioassays. Characteristics of the				
170	seawater were determined with a combination pH and electrical conductivity meter				
171	(WQ-310; Horiba, Kyoto, Japan), dissolved oxygen meter (OM-71; Horiba, Kyoto,				
172	Japan), salinity meter (YK-31SA; Mother tool, Nagano, Japan), and a thermometer				
173	(AD-5624; AND, Tokyo, Japan).				
174					
175	In vivo acute toxicity bioassay using O. melastigma				
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177	The seawater sample, which had been stored at 4 $^{\circ}$ C, was heated to 25 $^{\circ}$ C using a water				
178	bath. Next, one treatment consisting of the seawater sample and four additional				
179	treatments consisting of a control treatment (artificial seawater) and treatments				
180	corresponding to 12.5%, 25%, and 50% of the sampled seawater were prepared using				

artificial seawater. The salinity of the artificial seawater was identical to the salinity of 182 the seawater sample. The experiments were then carried out in the same way as the

183 acute toxicity tests using O. melastigma.

184

185 **Statistical analyses**

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187 All data were analyzed using Excel software (Microsoft, Redmond, WA, USA), R software ver 3.5.1, and the R package "Rcmdr " (Fox and Bouchet-Valat, 2018). 188 189 Statistical analyses were conducted as follows: (1) Bartlett's test was used to test for the 190 equality of k variances (significance level, 5%). (2) If the null hypothesis that the 191 variances of the k sampled populations were equal was confirmed (i.e., the data were 192 homoscedastic) (p > 0.05 based on Bartlett's test), Dunnett's multiple comparison test 193 was performed to test for differences in mean values. (3) If the null hypothesis that the 194 variances of the k sampled populations were equal was rejected (i.e., the data were 195 heteroscedastic) (p < 0.05 based on Bartlett's test), Steel's test was used. We calculated 196 the lowest-observed-effect concentration (LOEC) for each endpoint according to the 197 Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development Test Guideline 210 (OECD, 2013). The LOEC is the lowest test concentration at which the substance is observed to 198 199 have a statistically significant effect.

200

201 Results

202

203 Comparison of the toxicity of chemical substances between O. melastigma and O. 204 latipes

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206 Figure 2 shows the survival rates following exposure to each chemical. We observed no 207 mortality in the control group of either species, and survival rates decreased in a

- 208 concentration-dependent manner in all exposures. In the 3-chloroaniline exposure, a
- 209 significant decrease in survival rate compared to the control group was observed in the
- 210 25 and 50 mg/L concentration groups of both species (Fig. 2a, b). In the triclosan
- 211 exposure, all larvae of both species died at exposures of 600 and 1200 µg/L (Fig. 2c, d).
- 212 In the 3,4-dichloroaniline treatments, all exposures caused a significant decrease of the
- 213 survival of O. melastigma (Fig. 2e). All O. latipes larvae exposed to 125 or 250 µg/L of
- 214 3,4-dichloroaniline died, and there was a significant decrease of their survival when
- 215 larvae were exposed to 62 μ g/L of 3,4-dichloroaniline (Fig. 2f). All larvae of O.
- 216 melastigma died when exposed to 3.5, 7, or 14 mg/L of fenitrothion (Fig. 2g). All larvae

of *O. latipes* died when exposed to 7 or 14 mg/L of fenitrothion, and the survival rate

- 218 decreased significantly when larvae were exposed to 3.5 mg/L of fenitrothion (Fig. 2h).
- All larvae of both species died when exposed to 1.2 or 2.5 mg/L of pyriproxyfen (Fig.
- **220** 2i, j).

Table 1 compares the lethal LOECs of *O. melastigma* and *O. latipes*. The LOECs of
3-chloroaniline and fenitrothion were similar in the two species. However, the LOECs
of triclosan, 3,4-dichloroaniline, and pyriproxyfen were lower in *O. melastigma* than in *O. latipes*.

- 225
- 226 Monitoring water quality in Akita harbor and canal
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228 Table 2 shows the values of the physiochemical variables monitored in water samples 229 from Akita harbor and canal. The water temperatures at both sites were lowest in 230 February (Site A, 9.7 °C; Site B, 8.7 °C) and highest in August (Site A, 27.6 °C; Site B, 231 25.8 °C). The pH values were stable throughout the monitoring period and fell in the 232 range 7.1–8.21. Salinity differed between site A and site B. The salinity at site A was 233 stable throughout the year at 24–25. The salinity at site B was lower and varied between 234 2 and 8. The conductivity of the water was highest at site A in October (39.8 μ S/cm). 235 The lowest conductivities were recorded in August, and the minimum conductivity was 236 6.6 µS/cm at Site B. The dissolved oxygen concentrations were stable throughout the 237 monitoring period at both sites and fell in the range 4.51-6.23 mg/L.

Figures 3 and 4 show the larval survival rates following exposure to water from Site A and Site B, respectively. Bioassays were performed a total of four times at each site, in spring (May), summer (August), autumn (October), and winter (February). The survival rates were high (80% or more) at all exposure concentration in Site A and Site B throughout the year; no significant adverse effect on survival was observed compared to the control (artificial seawater).

244

245 **Discussion**

246

In the present study, we determined the concentrations of 3-chloroaniline, triclosan, 3,4dichloroaniline, fenitrothion, and pyriproxyfen that were acutely toxic to *O. melastigma*

- and O. latipes. Although there have been no reports of 3-chloroaniline and 3,4-
- 250 dichloroaniline in samples of water from natural systems, the other chemicals have been
- 251 detected in both freshwater and seawater. Triclosan has been detected at 10 ng/L from
- the Ruhr River in Germany (Bester 2005), at 90.2–478 ng/L in the Shijing River, China

253 (Zhao et al. 2010), at 11–31 ng/L in the Tone Canal, Japan (Nishi et al. 2008), and at 254 0.55–10.5 ng/L in marine waters near Singapore (Bayen et al. 2013). Fenitrothion has been detected at 680.6 ng/L in the Ebro River, Spain (Kuster et al. 2008), and at 370.0 255 256 ng/L in the Kurose River, Japan (Kaonga et al. 2015). Pyriproxyfen has been detected at 257 82.92–99.59 ng/L in the Júcar River, Spain (Belenguer et al. 2014), at up to 950 ng/L in 258 the Nile River, Egypt (Ghani and Hanafi 2016), and at the detection limit of 10 ng/L in 259 the coastal waters of Japan (Añasco et al. 2010). To determine the biological risk 260 associated with a chemical, it is necessary to know the concentration in the aquatic 261 environment and the LOEC of the chemical. The LOECs determined in the present 262 study (Table 1) were all far higher than their environmental concentrations. 263 We showed that the LOEC for death differed between O. melastigma and O. latipes. To 264 date, few studies have compared the toxicity of chemicals to both freshwater and 265 saltwater species of fish of the same genus. Bosker et al. (2017) have reviewed the 266 effects of endocrine-disrupting chemicals on the reproduction of species of Oryzias. The 267 lowest concentrations of 17α -ethinylestradiol that have been observed to exert an 268 adverse effect on the fecundity of a species of Oryzias differ by a factor of 10 between 269 species: 50 ng/L for O. melastigma (Lee et al. 2014) and 500 ng/L for O. latipes (Seki et 270 al. 2002). In addition, the LOECs of bisphenol A with respect to the fecundity of 271 species of Orvzias differ by a factor of 20: 50 µg/L for O. melastigma (Huang et al. 272 2018) and 1000 µg/L for O. latipes (Horie et al., unpublished data). However, the 273 acutely toxic LC50 values of copper are similar for O. melastigma, 1300 µg/L (Yi et al. 274 2017), and for O. latipes, 1100 µg/L (Tsuji et al. 1986). In addition, our research group 275 has recently reported that the concentrations of tributyl tin as well as triphenyl tin that 276 are lethal to O. melastigma and O. latipes are identical (Horie et al. 2019). In the present 277 study, we found that the LOECs of 3-chloroaniline and fenitrothion were identical for 278 both species. The LOECs of triclosan, 3,4-dichloroaniline, and pyriproxyfen were lower 279 for O. melastigma than for O. latipes, although lethal effects are very consistent. These 280 previous reports may suggest that when assessing the risk that a chemical poses to 281 marine fish, the risk cannot be predicted from the concentration that is toxic to 282 freshwater fish. 283 Bioassays can be used to comprehensively evaluate the toxicity of water by

exposing aquatic organisms to the water and determining the presence or absence of

biological effects. For example, many studies have evaluated the degree of pollution of

- 286 natural waters by *in vivo* bioassays using fish such as zebrafish (Tiber River; Cristiano
- et al. 2020: Panamanian rivers; Wilson et al. 2021), Murray rainbowfish (Murray-

288 Darling River; Vajda et al. 2015), and rainbow trout (Argen River; Maier et al. 2015).

- 289 However, no previous study has adapted *in vivo* bioassays using marine fish to monitor 290 the quality of seawater. The salinity at each sampling point in a coastal area can differ 291 (NASA Salinity, https://salinity.oceansciences.org/). Furthermore, in this study there 292 were temporal changes of the salinity at the same sampling point. The implication is 293 that assessments of coastal water quality via *in vivo* bioassays using marine fish must be 294 done with a euryhaline species of fish. O. melastigma is highly tolerant to changes of 295 salinity and readily acclimates to freshwater and seawater environments (Inoue and 296 Takei 2002; Horie et al. 2019). The work reported here was the first study to monitor 297 the quality of seawater using O. melastigma in Akita harbor and canal, within which the 298 range of salinity is 2–25. In the future, it will be necessary to carry out water quality 299 monitoring using in vivo bioassays in a variety of coastal waters to clarify the 300 effectiveness of bioassays.
- 301

302 Conclusions

303

304 To develop an *in vivo* acute bioassay using marine medaka, we first examined the 305 differences between the concentrations of several chemicals that were toxic to marine 306 medaka (O. melastigma) versus freshwater medaka (O. latipes). The bioassay must 307 then be performed using natural seawater over a relevant range of salinities. This study 308 was the first to use in vivo acute bioassays with O. melastigma as a tool to monitor the 309 quality of seawater. The discovery that the toxicity of triclosan, 3,4-dichloroaniline, and 310 pyriproxyfen differed between marine and freshwater species of medaka underlines the 311 importance of using marine organisms to evaluate the ecological effects of chemicals in 312 the ocean. The fact that O. melastigma can be used to monitor the quality of seawater in 313 harbors and canals with salinities in the range 2-25 suggests that O. melastigma is a 314 good model marine organism for *in vivo* fish bioassays used to monitor water quality.

315

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505	Figures				
506					
507	Fig. 1 Sampling locations in coastal waters of Akita, Japan. Samples were taken at sites				
508	A and B. Site A was in the harbor, and Site B was in the Akita canal				
509					
510	Fig. 2 Survival rates of O. melastigma (marine fish) and O. latipes (freshwater fish)				
511	larvae after exposure to the 5 test chemicals. Columns and error bars are means \pm				
512	standard errors of the means ($n = 4$ per group). Asterisks indicate statistically significant				
513	differences compared with control (Dunnett's test or Steel's test; $P < 0.05$). (a, b) 3-				
514	chloroaniline, (c, d) triclosan, (e, f) 3,4-dichloroaniline, (g, h) fenitrothion, (i, j)				
515	pyriproxyfen. (a, c, e, g, i) O. melastigma and (b, d, f, h, j) O. latipes				
516					
517	Fig. 3 Results of O. melastigma acute toxicity test using Site A harbor water. Columns				
518	and error bars are means \pm standard errors of the mean ($n = 4$ per group). Errors are zero				
519	for 100% survival. (a) May, (b) August, (c) October, (d) February				
520					
521	Fig. 4 Results of O. melastigma acute toxicity tests using Site B Akita canal water.				
522	Columns and error bars are means \pm standard errors of the mean ($n = 4$ per group).				
523	Errors are zero for 100% survival. (a) May, (b) August, (c) October, (d) February				
524					









Chamical	LOEC value for mortality			
Chemical	Oryzias melastigma	Oryzias latipes		
3-chloroaniline	25 mg/L	25 mg/L		
triclosan	300 µg/L	600 µg/L		
3,4-dichloroaniline	31 µg/L	62 μg/L		
fenitrothion	3.5 mg/L	3.5 mg/L		
pyriproxyfen	0.3 mg/L	0.6 mg/L		

Table 1 Comparisons between O. melastigma (marine fish) and O. latipes (freshwaterfish) of lowest-observed-effect concentrations (LOECs) of 5 test chemicals withmortality as the endpoint

Doromotor	Sita	year 2019			year 2020
Falameter	Sile	May	August	October	February
Tomporatura (°C)	Site A	20.2	27.6	20.1	9.7
Temperature (°C)	Site B	19.8	25.8	19.8	8.7
ъЦ	Site A	8.08	8.21	7.75	7.86
рп	Site B	7.91	7.79	7.12	7.38
Salinity	Site A	24	24	24	25
Samily	Site B	8	4	7	2
Conductivity (uS/cm)	Site A	37.7	38.4	39.8	35
Conductivity (µS/cm)	Site B	14.6	6.6	10.2	11.3
Dissolved	Site A	5.67	4.51	6.23	5.42
Oxygen (mg/L)	Site B	5.80	5.32	5.92	5.63

 Table 2 Water quality at each sampling site in Akita harbor and canal