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Effects of triclosan on early development of *Solea senegalensis*: From biochemical to individual level

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PII: S0045-6535(19)31424-9

DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2019.06.183

Reference: CHEM 24213

To appear in: ECSN

Received Date: 27 February 2019

Revised Date: 4 June 2019

Accepted Date: 24 June 2019

Please cite this article as: Araújo, M.J., Quintaneiro, C., Soares, A.M.V.M., Monteiro, M.S., Effects of triclosan on early development of *Solea senegalensis*: From biochemical to individual level, *Chemosphere* (2019), doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2019.06.183.

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30 Abstract

Harmful effects of triclosan (TCS) have been reported on several organisms; however, effects on early life stages of marine vertebrates are limited. Therefore, the objective of this work was to assess the effects of TCS during early development of the flatfish *Solea senegalensis* after initial characterization of cholinesterases (ChEs) and determination of selected biochemical markers baseline levels.

Characterization of ChEs and determination of biochemical markers baseline levels of cholinergic activity, energy metabolism and oxidative stress were analysed in sole at 3 days after hatching (dah) and along metamorphosis. Fish were exposed during 96h to 30-500 μ g L⁻¹ TCS until 3 dah. Fish at 13 dah were exposed during 48h to 200-1,500 μ g L⁻¹ TCS and maintained until complete metamorphosis. Effects on survival, malformations, length, metamorphosis progression and biochemical markers were evaluated.

The main cholinesterase active form present in sole early life stages is AChE and baseline levels of oxidative stress and energy metabolism biomarkers changed according to fish developmental stage. Triclosan induced malformations (EC₅₀=180 μ g L⁻¹ at 3 dah; LOEC=391 μ g L⁻¹ at 17 dah), decreased growth (95 μ g L⁻¹ at 3 dah; 548 μ g L⁻¹ at 24 dah) and affected metamorphosis progression (391 μ g L⁻¹ at 17 dah).

48	Impairment of antioxidant system was observed, with TCS causing long-term effects on
49	catalase at the metamorphosis test, however, no oxidative damage was detected.
50	Glutathione S-transferase was the most sensitive endpoint during early larval test
51	$(LOEC=30 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}).$
52	Exposure to TCS affected the development of S. senegalensis at individual and sub-
53	individual levels, both at early larval stage and during the critical period of
54	metamorphosis.
55	

56 Keywords: cholinesterases; flatfish; growth; metamorphosis; oxidative stress; personal
57 care products.

58

59 1. Introduction

The use of personal care products (PCP) has been rising and some of their 60 61 compounds are not effectively eliminated through conventional water treatment 62 reaching aquatic ecosystems. Triclosan processes, (5-chloro-2(2,4dichlorophenoxy)phenol, TCS) is one of the most commonly used ingredients in soaps, 63 64 toothpastes and deodorants and it is also found in clothing, kitchenware, furniture, and 65 toys (Orvos et al., 2002; Fang et al., 2010).

The increase of TCS in environment due to the widely use of PCPs is of growing concern, in fact TCS is one of the most frequently detected organic micropollutants in the aquatic environment (Luo *et al.*, 2014; Dhillon *et al.*, 2015). Triclosan is widely present in wastewater influents, although the most efficient wastewater treatment plants achieve removal rates of 92-99 % (Kumar *et al.*, 2010; Buth *et al.*, 2011; Dhillon *et al.*, 2015), in conventional water treatment processes the TCS clearance rate is 24-95% (Dhillon *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, TCS end up in effluents reaching concentrations of

about 0.08-5.37 μ g L⁻¹ (SCCS, 2010; Dann and Hontela, 2011; Kookana *et al.*, 2011; Díaz-Garduño *et al.*, 2018). This highly lipophilic compound (log octanol–water partition coefficient, K_{ow} of 4.8) has an estimated half-life of 60 days and environmental concentrations reach up to 40 μ g L⁻¹ in freshwater ecosystems, 0.3 μ g L⁻¹ in estuaries and 0.1 μ g L⁻¹ in saltwater environments (SCCS, 2010; Dann and Hontela, 2011; Pintado-Herrera *et al.*, 2014; Gasperi *et al.*, 2014; Lehutso *et al.*, 2017; Nag *et al.*, 2018).

80 As an anti-bacterial, TCS inhibits the enzyme Fab1 (enoyl-acyl-carrier-protein 81 reductase) which is responsible for catalyzing the terminal reaction in the fatty acid elongation of cell wall in bacteria (Lund et al., 2005; Massengo-Tiassé and Cronan, 82 83 2009; Fang et al., 2010). Triclosan can be bioaccumulated in non-target species, including in marine organisms, potentially causing adverse effects (Álvarez-Muñoz et 84 85 al., 2015). It is known that TCS and other phenolic xenobiotics are metabolized through biotransformation phase I (pathway mediated by cytochrome P450 enzymes) and phase 86 87 II generating more water-soluble glucuronide and sulfate conjugates (Liang et al., 2013; 88 Ashrap et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2017). Oxidative stress induction has been reported after 89 TCS exposure in amphibians (Martins et al., 2017) and freshwater fish (Oliveira et al., 90 2009; Liang et al., 2013; Falisse et al., 2017). For instance, TCS is reported to induce 91 catalase (CAT) in different freshwater fish species (Li et al. 2018; Ku et al 2014; 92 Banerjee et al. 2016), to enhance glutathione levels and decrease the total antioxidant capacity in the fish Carassius auratus leading to oxidative damage of lipids (Li et al. 93 94 2018; Wang et al., 2018). In addition induction of the neurotransmission enzyme AChE 95 and of LDH, an enzyme of the anaerobic metabolism was reported to occur in early life 96 stages of Danio rerio exposed to TCS (Oliveira et al. 2009). In addition, endocrine disruption has also been described in different life stages of aquatic vertebrates after 97

98 TCS exposure (Ishibashi *et al.*, 2004; Pinto *et al.*, 2013; Marlatt *et al.*, 2013). However,
99 knowledge on its effects and modes of action on early life stages of marine vertebrates
100 are still scarce.

101 The determination of a priori biochemical markers baseline levels is an 102 important initial step to understand normal physiological conditions in model species 103 used in ecotoxicology (Quintaneiro et al., 2008; Antunes et al., 2010; Ferreira et al., 104 2010). Key life events and physiological status are known to influence responses at 105 biochemical level (Monteiro et al., 2005; Nunes, 2011; Nunes et al., 2015). In addition, 106 biochemical responses of organisms may be altered by the exposure to stressors and can provide relevant information on their mode of action and toxicity (Oost et al., 2003; 107 Fernández-Díaz et al., 2006; Pimentel et al., 2015). For instance, stressors can elicit 108 109 increased production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and/or impairment of 110 antioxidant system through enzymatic inactivation, which might lead to oxidative 111 damage in DNA, proteins and lipids, and increase cellular degenerative processes which 112 might lead to death (Storey, 1996; Oost et al., 2003; Park et al., 2017; Wang et al., 113 2018). Assessment of effects on neurotransmission can be performed through the 114 determination of cholinesterases (ChEs) activity. There are two main forms of ChEs that 115 break down esters of choline in fish species: acetylcholinesterase (AChE) and 116 butyrylcholinesterase (BChE), with a high affinity for the substrates acetylcholine or 117 butyrylcholine, respectively (Rodríguez-Fuentes and Gold-Bouchot, 2004; Monteiro et 118 al., 2005; Lionetto et al., 2013; Hampel et al., 2016). The levels and proportions of 119 these key enzymes of the nervous system depend on the species, organ/tissue, 120 physiology and stages of life, with AChE generally being the most common type in fish 121 brain (Monteiro et al., 2005; Wilson, 2010; Nunes, 2011; Fisher and Wonnacott, 2012; 122 Solé et al., 2012). Therefore, characterization of ChEs should be performed before using

these enzymes for neurotoxicity assessment. The inhibition of ChEs was primarily used
as biochemical marker of effect and/or exposure to neurotoxic agents such as
organophosphates and carbamate pesticides (e.g. Bocquené and Galgani, 1998);
however, they can also respond to different classes of stressors (Guilhermino *et al.*,
1996; Nunes, 2011; Quintaneiro *et al.*, 2014).

128 Early life stages of fish, namely before beginning of independent feeding, stand 129 as a good alternative to animal testing (EU, 2010; Scholz, 2013; Lillicrap et al., 2016); 130 however, the use of estuarine and marine fish species early life stages as alternative 131 models has been very limited. In this context, early life stages of Senegalese sole (Solea senegalensis Kaup, 1858) arise as a potential model organism. This species occurs 132 133 naturally on Southwestern Europe and Northern African Atlantic waters and has an high 134 ecological relevance, belonging to medium-top trophic level. In response to economical 135 interest and aquaculture potential of S. senegalensis, commercial exploitation has been increasing since the early 90's (Imsland et al., 2003; Morais et al., 2014), which had 136 137 supported further advances on the scientific knowledge of the species. While adult S. 138 senegalensis have been widely used as sentinel species for environmental pollution 139 monitoring and assessment (e.g. Riba et al., 2004; Costa et al., 2008; Oliva et al., 2012; 140 Solé et al., 2012; and others), there is also an high potential to use early life stages of 141 this species for laboratory toxicity testing (Pimentel et al., 2015; Pavlaki et al., 2016; 142 Araújo et al., 2018). Contributing to this potential is the fact of Senegalese sole early 143 development stages have been already described by several authors (e.g. Dinis, 1986; 144 Fernández-Díaz et al., 2001; Klaren et al., 2008). Besides, the fast growth of larvae with 145 an early thyroid regulated metamorphosis ending in the first month of life (Yúfera *et al.*, 146 1999) are interesting features for studying compounds acting as endocrine disruptors.

147 The main aim of this study was to assess the effects of TCS on early 148 development of S. senegalensis at individual and biochemical level. In order to achieve 149 this, firstly, characterization of the main ChE form(s) present in S. senegalensis was 150 performed through the use of different substrates and specific inhibitors. This was 151 evaluated in different early development stages (immediately after yolk sac depletion, at 152 the beginning and at the end of metamorphosis). Secondly, baseline levels of selected 153 biochemical markers were determined at the same stages. Thirdly, survival, growth, 154 malformations, metamorphosis progression and biochemical markers on S. senegalensis 155 were evaluated after 96h exposure to TCS at the early larval phase and after 48h at the 156 onset of sole metamorphosis.

157

158 2. Material and Methods

159 **2.1. Chemicals**

160 Triclosan (Irgasan 97 %) and all chemicals used for characterization of 161 cholinesterases and biochemical analysis were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Co. LLC 162 (St Louis, USA), except Bradford reagent, which was purchased from Bio-Rad 163 (Germany). Acetone, acetonitrile, methanol and dichloromethane were supplied by 164 Merck. All chemicals used on chemical analysis of TCS were of analytical or HPLC 165 grade quality.

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167 **2.2. Biological material**

Eggs of *S. senegalensis* were obtained from a commercial hatchery (Sea8, Portugal) and were transported to the lab (2 hours maximum) within 12 hours post fertilization. Transportation was performed in a thermal box, within plastic bags (5L recirculatory system saltwater). Floating lipid-rich eggs in gastrula stage were washed

and kept in glass jars in previously matured synthetic saltwater (19°C, salinity 35, Coral
Pro Salt, Red Sea, Saudi Arabia, pH=8.15) until further use. Observation of egg stage
and viability was performed using a stereosmicroscope (Nikon SMZ 1270, Nikon,
Japan).

176 For the present work, three development stages were considered (fig. S1). The 177 first stage referred to 3 days after hatching (dah). At this stage, full depletion of yolk sac 178 has occurred (Dinis, 1986; Yúfera et al., 1999; Klaren et al., 2008). The second stage 179 studied refers to the onset of metamorphosis, which highly depends on maintenance and 180 feeding conditions. According to Fernández-Díaz et al. (2001), 50% of fish starts the 181 metamorphosis between 9 and 16 days after hatching depending on the typical feeding 182 regimes. The larvae remain pelagic and with bilateral symmetry. The third stage refers 183 to post-metamorphosis organisms. Complete metamorphosed fish are benthic, laterally 184 flattened and asymmetric, the left eye has reached its final position in the right (and dorsally) positioned side of the body and orbital arches are clearly visible. This stage is 185 achieved between 16 and 24 days (Fernández-Díaz et al., 2001). The different sole 186 stages used in the present study were within these time frames. Pre-metamorphic fish 187 188 with 13 dah and post-metamorphic fish with 22 dah were used in ChE characterization 189 and biochemical basal levels determinations. In the TCS test during metamorphosis the 190 48h exposure began at 13 dah and fish were maintained until completion of 191 metamorphosis, at 24 dah. All experimental procedures were carried out following the 192 European and Portuguese legislation concerning animal experimentation (authorized by 193 the Portuguese competent authority, Direcção Geral de Alimentação e Veterinária).

195 2.3. Maintenance conditions of fish used for ChE characterization and 196 biochemical markers baseline levels

197 Solea senegalensis eggs were placed in conical culture tanks (approx. 30L, 50 eggs L^{-1}) with aeration, external biological filter, protein skimmer and refrigeration 198 199 (19°C, HC series chiller, Hailea, China), photoperiod 16:8 h (light:dark) and salinity 35 200 (Coral Pro), which was adjusted daily. The larvae feeding regime included increasing 201 densities of rotifers (Brachionus plicatilis) from 1 to 6 dah (between 5 and 10 rotifers mL⁻¹), artemia nauplii from 5 to 10 dah (between 2 and 9 nauplii mL⁻¹) and from 10 dah 202 with artemia metanauplii (between 9 up to 35 metanauplii mL⁻¹) until the end of 203 204 metamorphosis (Fernández-Díaz et al., 2001). Green algae (Nannochloropsis sp.) was 205 also added since 1 dah. Randomly chosen fish from the three development stages previously described (larvae, 3 dah, 3.3±0.04 mm length; pre-metamorphosis, 13 dah, 206 207 4.5±0.04 mm length; and post-metamorphosis, 22 dah, 8.2±0.09 mm; 30 fish measured 208 for length in each life stage) were snap frozen with liquid nitrogen and kept at -80°C 209 until further procedures for ChE characterization and determination of biochemical 210 markers baseline levels.

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2.4. Characterization of ChEs

213 Previously frozen samples of fish in the following life stages were used: 3 dah 214 (n=3, 25 organisms per replicate), 13 dah (n=3, 9 organisms per replicate) and 22 dah (n=3, 9 organisms per replicate). After homogenization (Sonifier S-250A, Branson 215 216 Ultrasonics, USA) in potassium buffer solution (pH= 7.2, 0.1 M), samples were 217 centrifuged (6,000 rpm; 5 min; 4°C) and supernatants were used for ChE 218 characterization as described below.

219 **Substrates**

220 To determine the substrate preference of the enzyme present along early 221 development of S. senegalensis, three different substrates (acetylthiocholine iodide, 222 AcSCh; S-butyrylthiocholine iodide, BuSCh and propionylthiocholine, PrSCh) were 223 used in increasing concentrations in the enzymatic reactions, from 0.08 to 20.48 mM in 224 the early larval stage and between 0.005 and 20.480 mM in the two metamorphosing 225 stages.

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Inhibitors

227 To understand which esterase enzymes are present in the three development stages considered, the action of selective ChE inhibitors was studied in in vitro 228 229 enzymatic assays using the two substrates AcSCh and BuSCh. To this end, initial 230 incubation of samples was performed with eserine hemisulfate (selective inhibitor of 231 ChEs), 1,5-bis(4-allyldimethylammonimphenyl) pentan-3-one dibromide (BW284C51, 232 selective inhibitor of AChE) or tetraisopropyl pyrophosphoramide (iso-OMPA, 233 selective inhibitor of BChE). Samples (495 µl of supernatant) were incubated with each 234 inhibitor (5 µl) for 30 min at 25±1°C. Eserine was used with concentrations ranging 235 from 6.25 to 200 µM, BW284C51 from 6.25 to 200 µM and iso-OMPA from 250 to 236 8000 µM. In the different in vitro experiments, ultrapure water was used as negative 237 control with the three inhibitors and ethanol was also used as solvent control for iso-238 OMPA, as it is not soluble in water.

239

2.5. Determination of biochemical markers baseline levels

240 Previously frozen samples of fish in the following life stages were used: 3 dah 241 (n=9, 25 organisms per replicate), 13 dah (n=9, 9 organisms per replicate) and 22 dah 242 (n=9, 9 organisms per replicate). After homogenization in potassium buffer solution 243 (pH= 7.4, 0.1 M) by sonication, the homogenate was centrifuged for 20 min at 10,000 g

244 (4°C) and the supernatant was used for the enzymatic analyses. AChE activity was 245 measured by Ellman's method (Ellman et al., 1961) adapted to microplate (Guilhermino 246 et al., 1996) using acetylthiocholine as substrate and following the increase of absorbance at 412 nm. GST activity was measured following the conjugation of GSH 247 248 with 1-chloro-2,4-dinitrobenzene at 340 nm as described by Habig and Jakoby (1981) adapted to microplate reader (Frasco and Guilhermino, 2002). CAT activity was 249 250 determined by measuring decomposition of the substrate hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) at 251 240 nm (Clairborne, 1985). LDH activity was determined by measuring the conversion 252 of pyruvate to L-lactate with the concomitant conversion of NADH to NAD+ during glycolysis which is measured at 340 nm as described by Vassault (1983) with the 253 254 modifications introduced by Diamantino et al. (2001). The protein concentration was 255 determined in triplicate according to the Bradford method (Bradford, 1976) adapted to 256 microplate using bovine γ -globuline as a standard and measurements at 595 nm.

The enzymatic activity is expressed in Units (U) per mg of protein. One U is a nmol of substrate hydrolysed per minute using a molar extinction coefficient of 13.6x10³ M⁻¹cm⁻¹ for AChE and 9.6x10³ M⁻¹cm⁻¹ for GST, one μ mol of substrate hydrolysed per minute per mg protein, using a molar extinction coefficient of 40 M⁻¹cm⁻¹ for CAT and 6.3x10³ M⁻¹cm⁻¹ for LDH. All spectrophotometric measurements were performed in 96 well microplates (3-4 technical replicates per each sample) using a Labsystem Multiskan EX microplate reader.

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2.6. Fish exposure to TCS

Saltwater (salinity 35) and TCS solutions were prepared with synthetic salt (Coral Pro). Stock solutions of 9 or 18 mg L^{-1} TCS (for early larval or metamorphosis assays, respectively) were previously prepared in acetone and diluted in saltwater to

achieve the selected concentrations. Exposure to TCS was performed in threeindependent trials according to fish life stage.

271 In the first trial, the early larval test, eggs were exposed during 96h until 3 dah (n=4, 10 organisms per replicate in 10 ml of test solution) to six concentrations of TCS 272 (30, 53, 95, 169, 300 and 500 μ g L⁻¹) and to the respective negative (saltwater) and 273 solvent control solutions (33.3 μ l L⁻¹ of acetone in saltwater). Exposure to TCS was 274 275 performed on 6-well plastic plates (10 ml each well) previously incubated during 24h 276 with TCS solutions at the same respective concentrations to avoid TCS depletion during 277 the test. The exposure was performed in semi-static conditions (solution renewal at 48h), without feeding under the same temperature and photoperiod regimes as described 278 279 above for fish maintenance. At 3 dah, S. senegalensis larvae (whole-body) previously 280 exposed during 96h to TCS near or below the medium lethal concentration of 20% of organisms (LC₂₀: 164 \pm 10 µg L⁻¹ TCS) and controls were snap frozen in liquid nitrogen 281 282 and kept at -80°C for biochemical markers quantification.

283 Senegalese sole were maintained in culture conditions as described previously 284 until the onset of metamorphosis (13 dah), then fish were divided in two trials, one for 285 biochemical markers determination after 48h of TCS exposure and another to evaluate metamorphosis progression and biomarkers, at 24 dah. One group of randomly selected 286 287 fish (n=6, 10 fish per replicate in 10 mL test solution) was exposed to seven concentrations of TCS (200, 280, 391, 548, 766, 1072 and 1500 TCS μ g L⁻¹) and to 288 negative (saltwater) and solvent control solutions (83.3 μ l L⁻¹ of acetone in saltwater). 289 290 Exposure to TCS was performed in 6-well plastic plates (10 ml each well) previously incubated during 24h with TCS solutions. After 48h of fish exposure, the organisms 291 292 were snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and kept at -80°C for biochemical markers 293 quantification. Another group of fish (n=6, 6 fish per replicate in 10 mL test solution)

294 was also exposed to the same concentrations of the previous trial plus negative and 295 solvent controls and after 48h of exposure, fish were transferred to new 6-well plastic 296 plates with clean media (saltwater) and daily fed with live food (artemia). Maintenance 297 was performed until more than 80% of negative control of fish completed 298 metamorphosis (24 dah). At the end of metamorphosis, fish from treatments presenting 299 mortality below 10% (five lowest concentrations of TCS) were snap frozen with liquid 300 nitrogen and kept at -80°C for biochemical markers quantification. The physical-301 chemical parameters were controlled in both tests (pH=8±0.5, oxygen saturation over 302 80%, salinity 35 ± 0.5 and temperature $19\pm1^{\circ}$ C).

303 In all experiments, survival and malformations were recorded on a daily basis with a stereomicroscope. Hatching was checked at 24h and 48h in early larval test. 304 305 Length of fish (from snout to tip of caudal fin) was determined at the end of the early 306 larval test (3 dah, n=12-16 for each treatment or control group) and at the end of metamorphosis test (24 dah, n=6-9 for each treatment or control group). All 307 measurements were performed using a Nikon stereomicroscope coupled with a Nikon 308 309 camera and with a millimetric ocular. While randomly selected fish were measured at 3 310 dah, at the end of metamorphosis only fish with complete metamorphosis were 311 considered for length determination. Teratogenic index of TCS was estimated using the 312 ratio between LC_{50} and EC_{50} at 3 dah; a xenobiotic is considered teratogenic when the 313 index is above 1 (Selderslaghs et al., 2012).

Evaluation of metamorphosis progression was performed according to literature (Dinis, 1986; Fernández-Díaz *et al.*, 2001; Klaren *et al.*, 2008) and seven stages of development based on external morphology were considered: A - beginning of enlargement of dorsal and ventral fins, occasional sinking; B - beginning of migration of left eye to the right side, initial sinking; C - further migration of left eye and

pigmentation, alteration of mouth shape; D - further migration of left eye and
pigmentation (eye on the anterior edge), fully enlargement of dorsal and ventral fins,
further alteration of mouth shape; E - fully flattened body, left eye on the dorsal side; F
– further migration of left eye on the dorsal side, further pigmentation, anterior profile
becomes more curved; G - orbital eye membrane becomes thicker, growth of anal fin,
shrink of pectoral fin (complete metamorphosis).

325 In addition to the determination of AChE, CAT, GST and LDH activity levels as 326 previously described, LPO was also measured in samples of TCS tests, by applying the 327 method of thiobarbituric acid-reactive substances at a wavelength of 535 nm (Bird and 328 Draper, 1984).). An aliquot (150 µl) of the initial sample homogenates were placed in a 329 microtube with 4 µL of 4% butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT) in methanol to avoid 330 posterior oxidation of lipids. These samples were maintained at -80°C until and further processed according to Bird and Draper (1984). LPO is expressed in U per mg of 331 332 protein which represents one nmol of TBARs hydrolysed per mg protein using a molar extinction coefficient of 1.56x10⁵ M⁻¹cm⁻¹. 333

334

335 **2.7. Chemical analysis of TCS**

336 Chemical analysis of TCS was performed in initial test solutions and also in337 solutions after 48h of exposure (metamorphosis tests).

Solid-phase extraction (SPE) of TCS from testing solutions was adapted from Kookana *et al.* (2013). The SPE cartridges (C18/17%, 100 mg 1 mL⁻¹, Finisterre, Teknokroma, Spain) were initially conditioned with 4 ml of methanol followed by 4 ml of ultra-pure water. A volume of 20 ml from each sample were loaded at an approximate velocity of 1 ml min⁻¹ followed by the same volume of ultra-pure water for desalting. After that, the columns were vacuum dried during 5 min. TCS was then

344 eluted with 4 ml of methanol and 4 ml of dichloromethane into a glass jar and samples 345 were then dried with a gentle stream of nitrogen. Triclosan was reconstituted in 2 ml of 346 methanol and sodium sulphate was added to remove any water content. Eluted samples were filtered with a mixed cellulose ester membrane filter (0.22 µm, 25 mm) and 347 diluted to 0.5 mg L^{-1} of TCS in methanol. The analyses were performed in triplicate 348 349 using HPLC with PDA detector (SPD-M20A, Shimadzu Co.) and a 15x0.46 cm column (Brisa "LC²", Teknokroma), particle size 5 μ m. The volume of injection was 10 μ L, the 350 flow rate was set at 1 mL min⁻¹, the mobile phase was 70% acetonitrile and 30% ultra-351 352 pure water and oven temperature was 25°C. The TCS peak was detected at 7.0 min at a wavelength of 280 nm. Area calculation was performed using Labsolutions Series 353 354 Workstation software (Shimadzu Co). For TCS quantification, three standards of TCS in artificial salt water (10 mg L^{-1}) were prepared after dilution of an initial stock 355 solution in acetone (5 mg mL⁻¹). Standard solutions followed the same SPE procedure 356 as samples and were diluted for concentrations between 0.025 and 1.200 mg L^{-1} of TCS 357 in methanol. Standards were measured in triplicate and used to calculate a calibration 358 line. The determination coefficient (\mathbb{R}^2) of the calibration line and the limit of detection 359 (LOD) were 0.9959 and 7.8 μ g L⁻¹, respectively. The LOD was calculated as $(3S_{\nu/x})/m$, 360 where m is the slope of the regression line and $S_{\nu/x}$ is the sum of residuals that estimates 361 362 the random errors in the vy axis (Leal et al., 2017).

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2.8. Statistical analysis

In the *in vitro* assays with ChE inhibitors for ChEs characterization, statistic differences of ChE activity between control and ChE inhibitor treated samples were tested by One-way Analysis Of Variance (ANOVA) followed by pairwise Dunnett's test after testing normality (Kolmogorov-Smirnov) and homoscedasticity (Levene's

369 mean test). Non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis was followed by pairwise multiple 370 comparison procedures (Student-Newman-Keuls) when normality and/or 371 homoscedasticity was not observed. Solvent control was used for comparing inhibition 372 of iso-OMPA concentrations on both substrates, after an initial t-test comparison 373 between solvent and negative control.

374 In order to determine differences on baseline levels of biochemical markers 375 (AChE, CAT, GST or LDH) between each of the three life stages studied, One-way 376 ANOVA was performed after verifying normality and homoscedasticity of data. 377 Pairwise multiple comparison procedures (Tukey Test) were performed as post-hoc test. In the bioassays with TCS, logistic three parameter regression model was used 378 379 to determine lethal and effect concentrations (LC and EC, respectively) of TCS. Student 380 t-tests were performed to test for differences between negative and solvent controls for 381 all appropriate endpoints. Being significantly different or not from negative control, 382 solvent control was always used in further data analysis to determine significant 383 differences with TCS treatment groups. One-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's test 384 was used for comparison between treatments and solvent control for hatching, length 385 and biochemical markers levels. Non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test followed by 386 pairwise Dunn's test was performed when normality and/or homoscedasticity were not

obtained (malformations at the metamorphosis test). Metamorphosis progression was
studied using Chi-Square test. For significant ages, pairwise post-hoc Chi-Square with
Bonferroni Adjustment were used for testing differences between solvent control and
TCS groups individually (Arnholt, 2016).

All the statistical procedures were performed using SigmaPlot version 12.0
(Systat Software, Inc.). Results are expressed as mean ± standard error (SE).

393

394 **3. Results**

395 3.1. Characterization of cholinesterases and baseline levels

396

3.1.1. Cholinesterases characterization

397 Substrates

398 The preference of the ChE(s) present in the three stages of S. senegalensis for 399 each of the substrates used in the enzymatic reactions is depicted in figure 1. The 400 AcSCh was the substrate cleaved at highest rate in all development stages of S. 401 senegalensis followed by PrSCh and BuSCh substrates. The maximum ChE activity was obtained using AcSCh at 1.28 mM for 3 dah fish (with 129.6 ± 3.12 U mg protein⁻¹), 402 403 2.56 mM for fish at the beginning of metamorphosis (with 74.2 \pm 1.30 U mg protein⁻¹) 404 and at 5.12 mM for fish at the end of metamorphosis (with 115.4 ± 1.53 U mg protein⁻¹). 405 Furthermore, a reduction of ChE activity was observed with the highest AcSCh 406 concentrations tested in all development stages studied. Using PrSCh as substrate, 407 maximum ChE activity was measured at 5.12 mM in the three development stages tested, with values ranging between 28.3 ± 1.21 and 42.6 ± 1.08 U mg protein⁻¹ (in pre-408 409 metamorphosing fish and 3 dah larvae, respectively). The BuSCh was the substrate 410 cleaved at a lower rate in the three development stages, with maximum ChE activity 411 measured at the highest substrate concentration tested (20.48 mM). In addition, the 412 highest ChE activity observed using this substrate in sole was at the end of 413 metamorphosis (13.5 \pm 0.23 U mg protein⁻¹).

414

Inhibitors

415 The selective inhibitor of ChEs, eserine sulfate, almost completely inhibited 416 ChE activity in all *S. senegalensis* early life stages even at the lowest concentration 417 tested (6.25μ M, fig. 2A, p<0.05), with percentages of inhibition over 85.5%.

In the BW284C51 assay using AcSCh as substrate, there was a significant
decrease (above 80%) of enzyme activity with all concentrations of the inhibitor
(p<0.05, fig. 2B) for all development stages.

Using AcSCh as substrate, no significant decrease in ChE activity was observed
in 3 dah larvae with iso-OMPA, the selective inhibitor of BChE (fig. 2C, p>0.05).
However, in the other two later life stages, significant inhibition in ChE activity was
observed for all tested concentrations with iso-OMPA (p<0.05) with maximum
percentages of inhibition of about 35.8% in post-metamorphosing *S. senegalensis* at
8000 μM.

Using the preferred substrate of BChE, BuSCh, there was no inhibition with BW284C51 for the concentrations tested, except for the highest concentration used in fish homogenates of pre- and post-metamorphosing *S. senegalensis* with inhibition percentages up to 19.1% at the end of metamorphosis (p<0.05, fig. 2D). On the contrary, using the same substrate, there was significant inhibition of ChE activity with all concentrations of iso-OMPA tested in fish of the three life stages studied (p<0.05, fig. 2E) with a minimum of 70.9% inhibition at the earliest life stage.

434

435

3.1.2. Biochemical markers baseline levels

Biochemical markers baseline levels of *Solea senegalensis* on three development stages are presented in table 1. No significant difference on AChE activity were found between fish development stages (p>0.05) with values ranging between 85.1 ± 4.69 U mg protein⁻¹ at the beginning of metamorphosis and 96.3 ± 2.67 U mg protein⁻¹ at the end of metamorphosis.

441 The activity of CAT was significantly higher in the beginning of metamorphosis 442 $(11.6\pm0.72 \text{ U mg protein}^{-1})$ when comparing to other development stages (p<0.05). The

443 CAT activity levels in earliest life stage and after the metamorphosis were 7.7 ± 0.29 and 444 6.9 ± 0.47 U mg protein⁻¹, respectively.

The levels of GST activity decreased along fish development, with significantly lower activity at the end of metamorphosis (10.8 ± 0.30 U mg protein⁻¹, p<0.05) when compared with the two earlier stages (16.5 ± 0.94 U mg protein⁻¹ at the beginning of metamorphosis and 18.4 ± 0.60 U mg protein⁻¹ at 3 dah).

449 Activity of LDH increased near three-fold between 3 dah and the beginning of 450 metamorphosis (0.046 ± 0.0017 and 0.172 ± 0.0036 U mg protein⁻¹, respectively, p<0.05) 451 and significantly decreased at the end of metamorphosis (0.067 ± 0.0096 , p<0.05).

452

3.2. Effects of TCS

454

3.2.1. Chemical analysis of TCS

Values of nominal and measured concentrations of TCS are presented in table S1. The difference between measured and nominal concentrations was below 20% and therefore, nominal concentrations were used for all data analysis. The depletion of TCS after 48h ranged between 67.5% and 84.7% (for nominal concentrations of 200 and 1500 μ g L⁻¹ TCS, respectively) in the fish metamorphosis assay.

460

461 **3.2.2. Effects of TCS on sole larvae**

462 Hatching after 24h exposure to TCS ranged between $87.5\pm2.50\%$ and 463 96.7±3.33% (for fish exposed to 95 µg L⁻¹ TCS and solvent control, respectively) 464 without the existence of significant differences between exposure groups (p>0.05). 465 Hatching was 100% after 48h of TCS exposure in all test groups.

466 Survival of *S. senegalensis* in negative and solvent control was above 90% at the 467 end of the early larval test. Exposure to the highest concentration (500 μ g L⁻¹) induced

468 100% mortality of *S. senegalensis* eggs and larvae at 1 dah. The 96h LC₅₀ for TCS 469 exposure was $218\pm10.8 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$ (fig. S2).

470 There were no differences on total length of fish between negative control and 471 solvent control (3.6±0.05 mm for both groups, p>0.05). After 96h of exposure, fish 472 exposed to concentrations higher than 53 μ g L⁻¹ TCS were significantly smaller than 473 fish from solvent control group (between 11% and 20% smaller) (p<0.05, fig. S3).

474 Oedema was observed in $19\pm7\%$ of S. senegalensis larvae exposed to the second highest concentration of TCS tested (300 μ g L⁻¹) at 1 dah and was not present on 475 476 following days. Abnormal spinal malformation was detected in organisms exposed to the two highest treatment groups (300 and 500 μ g L⁻¹) at 24 hours post fertilization 477 478 $(5.0\pm5.0\%$ and $90.5\pm9.52\%$, respectively) and also at 95 and 169 µg L⁻¹ treatment 479 groups at 1 dah (8.4±2.85% and 26.8±15.5%, respectively). At 2 dah and at the end of 480 the test (3 dah) all treatment groups presented this malformation (fig. 3) and an overall $EC_{50}=180\pm18.0 \ \mu g \ L^{-1} \ TCS$ was obtained when considering malformations present in 481 482 the organisms at the end of this test (fig. S4). The teratogenic index was estimated as 483 1.1.

Effects of TCS at biochemical level on *S. senegalensis* exposed during 96h from egg stage until 3 dah are presented in figure 4. Significant differences were not observed between solvent control and negative control on AChE, CAT, GST activities and LPO levels (p>0.05). No significant differences were observed on AChE, CAT and LPO when comparing TCS exposed larvae with solvent control at the early larval test (p>0.05). On the contrary, a significantly higher GST activity was observed in larvae after exposure to all tested concentrations of TCS (p<0.05).

492

3.2.3. Effects of TCS during sole metamorphosis

493 Survival of metamorphosing S. senegalensis after 48h of exposure to TCS was above 90% for groups exposed below or equal to 1072 μ g L⁻¹TCS. Fish exposed to 494 1500 µg L^{-1} TCS presented 25±9.4% of survival at 48h of exposure and a LC₅₀ of 495 $1357\pm31.5 \ \mu g \ L^{-1} TCS$ was obtained. Fish exposed to the highest concentration tested 496 497 (1500 μ g L⁻¹ TCS) presented 100% mortality at 18 dah. The test ended at 24 dah, when 498 80% of organisms from control groups completed the metamorphosis. At that time, 499 survival was 91.7±3.73% for negative control and 79.2±5.16% for solvent control, with 500 no significant differences observed between these two controls (p>0.05). The lowest survival percentage (77.8 \pm 8.24%) was observed for fish exposed to 548 µg L⁻¹, however 501 502 no significant differences were observed between exposed groups and solvent control 503 (p>0.05, fig. S5).

At the end of metamorphosis no differences were observed on total length between fish from solvent and negative control groups $(8.9\pm0.22 \text{ and } 9.1\pm0.21 \text{ mm} \text{ for}$ negative and solvent control, respectively p>0.05). Fish exposed to TCS concentrations higher or equal to 548 µg L⁻¹ presented significantly lower length than fish from solvent control $(8.1\pm0.24 \text{ mm}, \text{ p}<0.05, \text{ fig. S6}).$

509 The percentage of malformations along fish metamorphosis (fig. 5) was lower 510 than 10% in fish from control groups and was not significantly different when 511 comparing solvent and negative control groups (p>0.05). The malformations observed 512 in fish exposed to TCS included altered pigmentation, abnormal migration of the eve 513 and underdeveloped structure of head bones. At 17 dah (after 48h in clean media post 514 exposure to TCS), the maximum percentage of development abnormalities was reached, with significant differences between solvent control fish and fish exposed to 515 concentrations higher than 391 µg L^{-1} (p<0.05) reaching up to 42.0±8.27% for fish 516

517 exposed to 766 μ g L⁻¹; however, the frequency of such malformations tended to 518 decrease over time in the clean media and, at the end of metamorphosis, significant 519 differences between TCS exposed fish and fish in solvent control were inexistent for all 520 concentrations of TCS (p>0.05).

521 The frequency of metamorphosis stages at 14, 17, 20 and 24 dah for TCS exposed fish are presented in figure 6. Significant differences on sole metamorphosis 522 523 progression stages between control groups were only found at 20 dah, with fish from 524 solvent control showing a delay in development when comparing to negative control 525 (48% of negative control fish were in stage E while 39% of solvent control fish were in 526 stage D, p<0.05). At 14 dah no differences were observed on metamorphosis stages between solvent control and TCS exposed fish (p>0.05). Metamorphosis of fish exposed 527 to 391, 548, 766, and 1072 μ g L⁻¹ TCS presented a significantly faster progression than 528 in fish from solvent control at 17 dah (p<0.05). At 20 dah fish exposed to 1072 μ g L⁻¹ 529 530 TCS was still more developed than solvent control (p<0.05). However, at the end of the 531 maintenance in clean media (24 dah) no significant differences were observed on sole 532 development stages when comparing solvent control and TCS treatment groups 533 (p>0.05).

534 Effects of TCS at biochemical level during metamorphosis of S. senegalensis are 535 presented in figure 2.7. No significant differences were observed when comparing the 536 AChE, CAT, GST and LDH activities between solvent and negative control fish groups 537 immediately after the 48h exposure test (15 dah, p>0.05). LPO was significantly lower in negative control $(0.60\pm0.035 \text{ nmol TBARS mg protein}^{-1})$ when comparing to solvent 538 control fish (0.72±0.034 nmol TBARS mg protein⁻¹) immediately after the 48h test 539 (p<0.05). At the end of the test (24 dah), differences between solvent and negative 540 541 control were not observed for any of the biochemical markers studied (p>0.05).

There was no significant differences on CAT activity between solvent control and fish exposed to TCS immediately after the 48h of exposure (p>0.05). However, at the end of metamorphosis (24 dah), significantly lower CAT activity was observed in fish exposed to 280 and 766 μ g L⁻¹ TCS, and significantly higher CAT activity was observed in fish exposed to 391 μ g L⁻¹ when comparing to solvent control (p<0.05), while for the other two TCS exposed fish groups no differences were observed on CAT activity when comparing to solvent control (p<0.05).

For the groups of fish exposed to the three highest concentrations of TCS (391, 553 548 and 766 μ g L⁻¹), GST was significantly lower immediately after 48h exposure, 554 when comparing to solvent control (p<0.05). However, no significant differences were 555 observed on GST activity at the end of metamorphosis when comparing TCS exposed 556 fish to solvent control (p>0.05).

557 No significant effects were observed on LPO levels both immediately after 48h 558 TCS exposure and at the end of metamorphosis when comparing TCS exposed fish and 559 solvent control (p>0.05).

Lactate dehydrogenase was significantly lower for fish with ongoing metamorphosis exposed to TCS concentrations above 280 μ g L⁻¹ when comparing to solvent control (p<0.05). However, at the end of metamorphosis LDH activity levels were similar in fish allocated to the different treatments (p>0.05).

565 **4. Discussion**

- 566 In this work, effects of exposure to TCS along early development of *S.* 567 *senegalensis* were evaluated after characterization of ChEs and the study of biochemical 568 markers baseline levels in whole body homogenates.
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- 570

4.1. Characterization of ChEs

571 While measuring ChE activity on S. senegalensis during early development, the 572 high inhibition by eserine along all stages studied indicates that only ChEs are present. 573 There was a higher preference for AcSCh over the other substrates and ChE activity was 574 strongly inhibited by the AChE selective inhibitor BW284C51 when using the AcSCh. Therefore, AChE is the most abundant active ChE form on whole body samples of S. 575 576 senegalensis lavae. Furthermore, the enzymatic activity decreased with increasing 577 concentration of the substrate AcSCh, which is a typical characteristic of vertebrate AChE as described by other authors (Eto, 1974; Sturm et al., 1999; Lionetto et al., 578 579 2013). There was a low but continuously increasing ChE activity with the preferred 580 substrate of BChE (BuSCh) along all S. senegalensis development stages studied. Such 581 increase might be related with organ and tissue differentiation, for instance in blood the 582 BChE is the main predominant form (Santos et al., 2012). Nevertheless, a negligible 583 influence of BChE on total ChE activity measurement is expected.

The ChE activity is resistant to the specific BChE inhibitor, iso-OMPA, at the earliest life stage tested, but a low inhibition percentage was observed at later development stages. Therefore, together with the very low BChE activity detected in later stages, our results suggest that despite the main ChE form present is AChE, since it preferably cleaves ASCh and is almost completely inhibited by BW284C51 (selective inhibitor of AChE), this enzyme also presents an atypical characteristic which is the

sensitivity to iso-OMPA. This atypical characteristic has also been described for AChE
present in other marine fish species (e.g. Monteiro *et al.*, 2005).

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- 593

4.2. Biochemical baseline levels

594 Several biochemical changes occur during development processes of a wide 595 range of organisms, namely during early larval stages and metamorphosis (Kashiwagi, 596 1995; Dandapat et al., 2003; Jovanović-Galović et al., 2004). The present work shows 597 several biochemical changes along S. senegalensis development. The activity of AChE 598 was not significantly altered along the development of S. senegalensis which is in accordance with the fact that vertebrate cholinesterases appear early during ontogenesis 599 600 (Layer, 1990; Pezzementi et al., 2010). On the other hand, CAT, GST and LDH 601 changed significantly as discussed below. In our study, CAT baseline activity levels 602 significantly increased in the beginning of S. senegalensis metamorphosis which is in 603 accordance with the work of Fernández-Díaz et al. (2006). These authors also observed 604 an increase of this enzyme at beginning of sole metamorphosis (10 dah) followed by a 605 decrease at 15 and 20 dah. Thes increase of CAT can be associated with the increase of 606 ROS production (such as H_2O_2), which is usually associated to several processes of metamorphosis progression. In one hand, an increase of H_2O_2 can be expected with 607 608 increase in metabolism that might occur during metamorphosis (Yúfera et al., 1999; 609 Fernández-Díaz et al., 2001; Geffen et al., 2007). On the other hand, cell death naturally 610 occurs during flatfish metamorphosis (Sun et al., 2015) and CAT alterations and 611 production of H₂O₂ have been associated with normal mechanisms of cell death, 612 namelyduring amphibian metamorphosis (Kashiwagi 1995; Kashiwagi et al., 1997). In 613 addition to CAT, GST also works on organism defence against ROS. The activity of 614 GST has already been shown to change along sole metamorphosis. For instance,

615 Pimentel et al. (2015) reported increasing GST activity in S. senegalensis from 10 to 30 616 dah grown in similar conditions as in the present study. Such trend was not observed in 617 our study since at 22 dah the activity of GST was lower than at early ages (3 dah and 13 618 dah). These different patterns of GST activity might be due to the different ages 619 considered between both studies. The reduction of GST activity is likely to occur 620 considering the decreasing oxidative stress status that occurs along metamorphosis 621 progression. For instance, in anuran metamorphosis, a reduction of glutathione levels 622 occurs simultaneously with the depletion of catalase activity (Menon and Rozman, 623 2007).

The LDH enzyme has been directly associated with several energetic-related functions and it is expected to increase with growth rate of organisms (Pelletier *et al.*, 1995; Geffen *et al.*, 2007; Wen *et al.*, 2017). In our work, there was a significant increase of LDH at the beginning of metamorphosis followed by a decrease at the end. Since the onset of metamorphosis is an high demanding energetic process on flatfish development (Yúfera *et al.*, 1999), our results suggests the use of anaerobic metabolism by the fish during this development period.

631

Regarding the chemical analysis of TCS in testing solutions, the difference obtained between nominal and measured concentrations were within acceptable range (below 20%). However, high depletion of TCS along the experiments occurred, which can be associated with the photochemical degradation of the compound. During the experiments, adsorption by lipid droplets during egg stage or absorption by the organism tissues after hatching stages may also have occurred along with eventual metabolization of TCS by the fish (Dhillon *et al.* 2015).

⁶³² 4.3. TCS

640 Triclosan has been reported to affect several aquatic organisms at concentrations from 3.4 to 300 μ g L⁻¹ TCS (Tatarazako *et al.*, 2004). In the present study, effects on S. 641 senegalensis below this value were also observed for several endpoints, namely on 642 mortality, growth and prevalence of malformations in larvae and biomarkers at both life 643 644 stages studied (table 2). Exposure to TCS is reported to decrease and delay hatching of medaka Oryzias latipes after exposure to 313 μ g L⁻¹ TCS or above (Ishibashi et al., 645 646 2004) and to significantly decrease zebrafish Danio rerio hatching until 72 h after exposure to 500 µg L⁻¹ TCS (Oliveira et al., 2009). However, the solutions of TCS 647 tested (concentrations up to 500 μ g L⁻¹) did not affect S. senegalensis hatching in the 648 649 present study. In the case of S. senegalensis eggs, their highly lipidic outer layer may adsorb organic compounds during first hours of development not affecting the species 650 hatching. In addition, when comparing to these species (medaka and zebrafish) the 651 652 hatching of S. senegalensis occurs earlier during development.

The LC₅₀ of S. senegalensis exposed to TCS at the early larval test (218 μ g L⁻¹) 653 654 is lower than the observed for other fish species, namely for the freshwater fish species zebrafish (96h LC₅₀=420 μ g L⁻¹, Oliveira *et al.*, 2009) and Lepomis macrochirus (96h 655 $LC_{50}=370 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$, Orvos *et al.*, 2002), revealing an higher sensitivity of the species used 656 657 in the present study during larval stages. Indeed, saltwater fish tend to be more sensitive 658 to chemicals than freshwater fish. For instance, in a study including substances from 659 several classes, in 50% of the cases saltwater fish were more sensitive than freshwater 660 species, while in 25% of the studies they were less sensitive (Hutchinson et al., 1998). 661 Besides this, the six-fold increase of LC₅₀ between 3 dah larvae and after 48h exposure to TCS at the beginning of metamorphosis suggests a decrease of sensitivity with the 662 development progression of the species. This can be related with development of 663

defence and detoxification mechanisms in older life stages, that enable fish to bettercope with TCS exposure.

666 Growth of S. senegalensis was affected by the exposure to TCS, both in the early larval and metamorphosis tests (LOEC=95 and 548 μ g L⁻¹, respectively), which is 667 668 in accordance with previous observations in fish species exposed to TCS (Orvos *et al.*, 669 2002; Ishibashi et al., 2004; Oliveira et al., 2009). In addition, in the marine fish white 670 seabream (Diplodus sargus) significant negative correlations were obtained between 671 morphometric data, including total length, and TCS accumulation in fish liver 672 (Maulvault et al. 2019). The effects observed on growth of fish species might have severe ecological implications, including delayed or unsuccessful metamorphosis, 673 674 effects on reproduction and/or ultimately decreased survival.

Abnormal spinal curvature was previously reported on *S. senegalensis* larvae in response to xenobiotics exposure (Pavlaki *et al.*, 2016; Araújo *et al.*, 2018) and was also observed in present work in response to TCS exposure at the early larval test. This malformation has also been reported in zebrafish exposed to TCS (Orvos *et al.*, 2002). Triclosan is pointed to be a low teratogenic compound to zebrafish (Ducharme *et al.*, 2013) and according to our study, TCS can also be considered relatively low teratogenic to *S. senegalensis*, as the teratogenic indexI is relatively close to the threshold (1).

In our work, the malformations observed at 17 dah in TCS exposed metamorphosing sole, after 2 days in clean medium, suggest delayed morphological effects of TCS. Although, at the end of metamorphosis (24 dah) no significant percentage of malformations was observed, which might indicate a possible recovery from the exposure to TCS when the period of non-exposure is prolonged.

687 Sole metamorphosis was also affected by TCS that induced a faster progression688 at intermediate development stages. During metamorphosis of anurans the exposure of

689 the organisms to TCS have also been associated with acceleration rate and abnormal 690 timing of metamorphic events and proved to interact with receptors of TH, T3 and T4 691 (Veldhoen et al., 2006; Sowers and Klaine, 2008). Progression of metamorphosis is 692 directly dependent on the fluctuation of TH levels (Yamano et al., 1991; Okada et al., 693 2003; Klaren et al., 2008). Furthermore, TCS is pointed to interfere with thyroid axis, 694 acting as thyroid disrupting chemical following its structural similarity with the TH 695 (Crofton, 2007; 2008; Veldhoen et al., 2006; Luthe et al., 2008). Besides, the specific 696 molecular mechanisms through which TCS interfere with metamorphosis progression of 697 S. senegalensis are still unknown; the transient acceleration of metamorphosis observed suggests a possible pro thyroid activity of TCS which needs to be further studied and 698 699 confirmed. As well, other possible mechanisms not directly related with thyroid axis, 700 which might also be responsible for the appearance of malformations phenotype, should 701 also be considered.

In our study, assessment of biochemical effects of TCS on *S. senegalensis* showed alterations on AChE, CAT, GST and LDH biochemical markers in both sole life stages studied, revealing different effects on neurotransmission and antioxidant defence responses. Oliveira *et al.* (2009) reported biochemical effects of TCS on zebrafish depending on life stage. While AChE, GST and LDH were affected in larvae of zebrafish exposed to 250 μ g L⁻¹; adults were not significantly affected at concentrations up to 350 μ g L⁻¹ (Oliveira *et al.*, 2009).

Triclosan exposure has been shown to cause AChE inhibition in some species,
namely in juveniles of the marine fish white seabream *Diplodus sargus* (Maulvault *et al.*, 2019), amphibian larvae (Martins *et al.*, 2017) and in the brain tissue of *Pangasianodon hypophthalmus* fingerlings, a freshwater fish (Sahu *et al.*, 2018).
However, the contrary has also been reported. For instance, AChE activity in zebrafish

larvae was induced with exposure to 250 μ g L⁻¹ TCS (Oliveira *et al.*, 2009) and also in 714 another study, when exposed to 50 and 100 μ g L⁻¹ TCS (Falisse *et al.* 2017). In the 715 present work, induction of AChE by TCS on S. senegalensis seems also to occur. While 716 717 the AChE induction trend was not significant at the early larval stage, a significant 718 induction was observed immediately after 48h exposure in metamorphosing fish for the 719 two highest TCS concentrations tested. At the end of metamorphosis, AChE activity 720 returned to control levels in TCS exposed fish indicating possible recovery of exposed 721 fish. Previous works with compounds suspected of thyroid disruption have been 722 reported to induce AChE, namely, in S. senegalensis larvae exposed to organic UV filter 4MBC (Araújo et al., 2018) and in zebrafish larvae exposed to carbendazim 723 724 (Andrade et al., 2016). The involvement of thyroid hormones in the regulation of AChE 725 activity has also been previously suggested (Puymirat et al., 1995; Andrade et al., 726 2016), therefore, effects of TCS on thyroid function may explain the differences in AChE activity and should be further studied. In addition, TCS have been previously 727 728 reported to induce neurotoxicity through the activation of apoptosis of neuronal cells (Ruszkiewicz et al., 2017) and apoptosis has been associated with increased AChE 729 730 activity(Zhang and Greenberg et al., 2012). Therefore the AChE induction observed in 731 our work on sole larvae might be related with TCS induction of neuronal apoptosis.In 732 our study, the TCS exposure triggered different responses on antioxidant enzymes 733 depending on the fish life stage assessed. While effects on CAT activity were not 734 observed at the early larval test and immediately after the 48h exposure at the beginning 735 of metamorphosis, a bell-shaped response of CAT activity was observed at the end of 736 metamorphosis. Previous works showed an induction of CAT in muscle of the marine 737 fish D. sargus exposed to TCS through diet (Maulvault et al., 2019). Furthermore, induction of CAT were also reported in other studies with different freshwater fish 738

species, namely in the yellow catfish, *Pelteobagrus fulvidraco* (0.5 μ g L⁻¹ TCS; Ku *et* 739 al., 2014), in P. hypophthalmus (above 97 µg L⁻¹; Sahu et al., 2018) and in goldfish 740 Carassius auratus (above 280 µg L⁻¹; Wang et al., 2018). As previously discussed, 741 742 CAT activity levels are already relatively higher during early metamorphosis and TCS 743 seem not to have the ability to induce CAT activity above the naturally expected during 744 normal progression of metamorphosis. However, effects of TCS on CAT levels were 745 observed at the end of fish metamorphosis, after the period of maintenance in clean 746 media, suggesting long-term effects on antioxidant mechanisms of this organism.

747 In our work, GST activity was affected immediately after exposure to TCS: while a clear induction of GST activity occurred at the end of the early larval test 748 (Lowest Observed Effect Concentration, LOEC: 30 μ g L⁻¹), a GST inhibition after 48h 749 TCS exposure at the metamorphosis test was observed (LOEC: 391 μ g L⁻¹). Triclosan 750 751 also caused alterations in GST activity in several fish species, including inhibition in concentrations equal and over 50 μ g L⁻¹ TCS on adult yellow catfish (*Pelteobagrus* 752 753 fulvidraco, Ku et al., 2014) and induction in the liver of swordtail fish (Xiphophorus helleri) above 20 µg L⁻¹, Liang et al., 2013), in P. hypophthalmus fingerlings (above 97 754 μ g L⁻¹, Sahu *et al.*, 2018) and in zebrafish larvae (above 250 μ g L⁻¹, Oliveira *et al.*, 755 756 2009). The GST plays an important role in phase II biotransformation, catalysing the 757 conjugation of the reduced form of glutathione (GSH) with xenobiotics for their 758 increased hydro-solubility (Oost et al. 2003; Rudneva et al., 2010; Haluzová et al., 759 2011). The GST induction in TCS exposed fish at the end of the early larval test are in 760 agreement with the fact that besides effects on antioxidant system, TCS might also be 761 detoxified through phase II biotransformation as has been proven to occur in several 762 species (Ku et al., 2014; Ashrap et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2017; Ding et al., 2018; Peng et al., 2018). At the metamorphosis test, GST inhibition might have compromised phase II 763

biotransformation and the maintenance in clean medium after TCS exposure seems to have allowed the recovery of GST activity. Therefore, the understanding of which mechanisms of recovery are used by *S. senegalensis* during metamorphosis still need to be further studied.

768 Exposure of goldfish to concentrations between 280 and 560 µg L-1 TCS during 769 14 days increased malondialdehyde levels, indicating oxidative damage of TCS in this 770 species (Wang et al., 2018). Mauvault et al. (2019) reported an increase of LPO levels 771 in liver of the marine fish D. sargus fish exposed to the TCS through diet, however in 772 brain and muscle this increase was not observed. In our study, the exposure to TCS did not cause lipid peroxidation during and/or after exposure to TCS at the early larval and 773 774 at the metamorphosis tests, suggesting that despite the alterations observed in the antioxidant enzymes, no oxidative damage occurred in the tested conditions. 775 776 Nevertheless, attention should be given to the fact that effects on antioxidant system of S. senegalensis were observed and decreased defense capacity might increase 777 778 vulnerability to other stressors on the environment.

779 The LDH in zebrafish have been shown to increase in the presence of 250 μ g L⁻¹ 780 TCS (Oliveira et al., 2009). However, in our study, inhibition of LDH activity in sole 781 exposed to almost all concentrations of TCS tested indicates that anaerobic energy 782 metabolism is a less used pathway relatively to control organisms, just after the 783 exposure during early metamorphosis. A direct inhibition of LDH might be occurring 784 leading to an impairment of anaerobic metabolism or the use of aerobic metabolism 785 might be preferred in detriment of the former (Teodorescu et al., 2012). This fact, 786 together with a possible increased energy demand for oxidative stress response, might 787 justify effects on growth of the organisms, which were observed at the end of our test.

789 **5. Conclusions**

790 Biochemical enzymatic markers were the most sensitive endpoint to TCS 791 exposure at both development stages tested in relation to the apical endpoints studied. Exposure to TCS in levels as low as 30 μ g L⁻¹ induced effects at biochemical level on 792 793 the early larval test, which was the overall lowest LOEC obtained. In addition, growth 794 impairment and malformations were also detected at low concentrations (LOEC: 95 µg L^{-1} and EC₁₀: 80 µg L^{-1} TCS, respectively). Despite the effects observed are above the 795 796 reported environmental levels for marine and transitional waters, harmful effects of 797 longer exposure periods to environmental relevant levels of TCS can occur and should be further investigated. Furthermore, higher LOECs (equal or above 280 μ g L⁻¹ TCS) 798 were obtained during metamorphosis when compared to early larval stage, revealing an 799 800 higher degree of tolerance to TCS. Despite this, relevant responses to TCS were also 801 detected. Exposure to TCS during the critical life stage window of metamorphosis onset 802 led to alterations at biochemical (impairment of antioxidant system) and individual level (malformations and alterations on metamorphosis progression). These alterations might 803 be linked to observed effects with higher ecological relevance, namely to on fish 804 805 growth. Furthermore, as sole metamorphosis is a thyroid regulated process, a possible 806 interference of TCS the existence of alterations on thyroid-axis functioning should be 807 further explored and understood.

808

809 Acknowledgements

Thanks are due for the financial support to CESAM (UID/AMB/50017/2019), to FCT/MEC through national funds, and the co-funding by the FEDER, within the PT2020 Partnership Agreement and Compete 2020. This work was also supported by FCT through the scholarships of MJA (SFRH/BD/52572/2014). The work of MSM and

CQ is funded by national funds (OE), through FCT - Fundação para a Ciência e a 814 815 Tecnologia, I.P., in the scope of the framework contract foreseen in the numbers 4, 5 816 and 6 of the article 23, of the Decree-Law 57/2016, of August 29, changed by Law 817 57/2017, of July 19. The authors also acknowledge Sea8 for providing S. senegalensis 818 eggs, MSc Abel Ferreira, Dr. Rui Rocha and Dr. Ricardo Calado for all the technical 819 support concerning fish culture and maintenance and Dr. Joana Barata and Dr. Anabela 820 Pereira for laboratory assistance on chemical analysis of triclosan. The authors also 821 thank the contribution of two anonymous reviewers for the improvement of the 822 manuscript.

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 1179 caloric content of *Solea senegalensis* (Pisces: Soleidae) from egg fertilization to
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Fig. 1. Cholinesterase (ChE) activity with increasing concentrations of substrate at three stages of 1 2 development of Solea senegalensis: early larvae (3 days after hatching, n=3, 25 organisms per replicate); pre-metamorphic larvae (n=3, 9 organisms per replicate) and post-metamorphic larvae 3 (n=3, 9 organisms per replicate). Acetylthiocoline iodide (AcSCh), propionylthiocholine iodide 4 (PrSCh) and S-butyrylthiocholine iodide (BuSCh) were used as substrates. 5

6

7 Fig. 2. Cholinesterases (ChE) activity (bars) and percentage of enzymatic inhibition (lines) of ChE activity in whole-body samples of Solea senegalensis in three stages of development: early larvae (3 8 9 days after hatching, n=3, 20 organisms per replicate); pre-metamorphic larvae (n=3, 9 organisms per replicate) and post-metamorphic larvae (n=3; 9 organisms per replicate). Three selective 10 inhibitors (Eserine, BW284C51 and Iso-OMPA) were used and enzymatic assays were performed 11 with two different substrates (acetylthiocholine, AcSCh and butyrylthiocholine, BuSCh). * 12 represent the existence of significant differences of ChE activity between inhibitor-treated fish 13 14 samples and solvent control or negative control fish samples if solvent control was not used (p<0.05). Results are expressed as mean±standard error. 15

16

17 Fig. 3. Solea senegalensis early larvae (3 days after hatching) after 96h exposure to Triclosan (TCS). A) negative control; B) larvae after exposure to 169 µg L⁻¹ TCS presenting spinal curvature 18 19 (s). Black bars represent 1 mm.

20

21 Fig. 4. Biochemical markers of Solea senegalensis early larvae (3 days after hatching) after 96h exposure to Triclosan. AChE, acetilcolinesterase; CAT - catalase; GST - Gluthatione S-transferase. 22 * represent the existence of significant differences with solvent control (p < 0.05). N=4, 10 fish per 23 replicate, results are expressed as mean±standard error. 24

Fig. 5. Metamorphosing *Solea senegalensis* after 48h exposure to Triclosan (TCS) at 13 days after hatching (dah). A) solvent control (18 dah); B) fish exposed to 766 μ g L⁻¹ TCS (18 dah); C) solvent control (24 dah); D) fish exposed to 766 μ g L⁻¹ TCS (24 dah). (m) incorrect migration of the eye and (h) underdeveloped head structure. White bar represents 1 mm. E) Total malformations (%) at 15, 17, 20 and 24 dah. * represent the existence of significant differences with solvent control within each age (p<0.05). Results are expressed as mean±standard error.

32

Fig. 6. Metamorphosis stages of *Solea senegalesins* after 48h of exposure to Triclosan at the beginning of metamorphosis (13 days after hatching, dah). N=6, 10 fish per replicate. A,B – early metamorphosis (enlargement of fins, beginning of migration of left eye); C,D - alteration of mouth shape and pigmentation darkening; E - fully flattened body; F - anterior profile becomes more curved; G – complete metamorphosis: orbital eye membrane becomes thicker. * represent the existence of significant differences with solvent control for each age (p<0.05).

39

Fig. 7. Biochemical markers of *Solea senegalensis* after 48h of exposure to Triclosan at the beginning of metamorphosis (13 days after hatching, dah). Grey columns: 15 dah; white columns: end of metamorphosis (24 dah). AChE, acetilcolinesterase; CAT – catalase; GST – Gluthatione S-transferas; LPO – Lipid peroxidation; LDH – lactate dehydrogenase. * represent the existence of significant differences with solvent control for the same age (p<0.05). N=6, 10 fish per replicate for 15 dah fish and n=6, 6 fish per replicate for 24 dah fish. Results are expressed as mean±standard error.</p>

Fig. S1. Development stages of *Solea senegalensis*. A) egg in gastrula stage, B) early larvae (3 days
 after hatching); C) pre-metamorphic larvae; D) post-metamorphic larvae. Each black bar represents
 1 mm.

4

Fig. S2. Survival of *Solea senegalensis* after 96h of exposure to Triclosan from egg stage until 3
days after hatching. Logistic three parameter regression model, N=4, 10 fish per replicate.

7

8 Fig. S3. Triclosan effects on total length of *Solea senegalensis* early larvae. Exposure was
9 performed between egg stage and 3 days after hatching (dah), length measured at 3 dah (n=12-16).
10 * represent the existence of significant differences with solvent control (p<0.05). Results are
11 expressed as mean±standard error.

12

Fig. S4. Malformations present in *Solea senegalensis* after 96h exposure to Triclosan from egg
stage until 3 days after hatching. Logistic three parameter regression model, N=4, 10 fish per
replicate.

16

Fig. S5. Survival of *Solea senegalensis* after 48h exposure to Triclosan at the beginning of metamorphosis (13 days after hatching, dah). Dark line and triangles represent survival at 15 dah (n=6, 10 fish per replicate) and grey circles represent survival after maintenance in clean medium until complete metamorphosis (24 dah, n=6, 6 fish per replicate). Line based on logistic threeparameter regression model.

22

Fig. S6. Triclosan effects on total length of *Solea senegalensis* at the end of metamorphosis. Exposure was performed at the beginning of metamorphosis (13 dah) during 48h and length measured at 24 dah (n=6-9) after maintenance in clean medium. * represent the existence of significant differences with solvent control (p<0.05). Results are expressed as mean±standard error.

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1 Table 1. Baseline levels of biochemical markers in *Solea senegalensis* along early development: early larvae (3 days after hatching, dah), at

the onset of metamorphosis (13 dah) and at the end of metamorphosis (22 dah).

D' I	3 dah	13 dah	22 dah
Biomarker	(U mg protein ⁻¹)	(U mg protein ⁻¹)	(U mg protein ⁻¹)
AChE	87.5±2.21	85.1±4.69	96.3±2.67
CAT	$7.7{\pm}0.29^{a}$	11.6±0.72 ^b	6.9 ± 0.47^{a}
GST	18.4 ± 0.60^{a}	16.5±0.94 ^a	10.8±0.30 ^b
LDH	0.046 ± 0.0017^{a}	0.172±0.0036 ^b	0.067 ± 0.0096^{a}
letters represent the existence	of significant differences within ea mean±star	ach biochemical marker between lin ndard error.	fe stages. Results expressed
letters represent the existence	of significant differences within ean mean±star	ach biochemical marker between lit	fe stages. Results expressed
letters represent the existence	of significant differences within eametant mean±star	ach biochemical marker between lin ndard error.	fe stages. Results expressed
letters represent the existence	of significant differences within example of significant differences within example of the second se	ach biochemical marker between lin	fe stages. Results expressed
letters represent the existence	of significant differences within each mean±star	ach biochemical marker between lin	fe stages. Results expressed

13 Table 2. Lowest and non-observed effect concentration (LOEC, NOEC) and 10 and 50% effect concentration (EC₁₀ and EC₅₀, respectively) in

14 Solea senegalensis larvae after 96h of exposure to Triclosan (endpoints measured at 3 days after hatching, dah), just after exposure to 48h at

15	the beginning of metamorphosis	(15 dah), and	d after maintenance	in clean medium	and completed a	metamorphosis ((24 dah).
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	T • 0 /	NOEC	LOEC	EC ₁₀	EC ₅₀
Endpoint	Life stage	$(\mu g l^{-1})$	(µg l ⁻¹)	(µg l ⁻¹)	(µg l ⁻¹)
	Farly Jamua (2 dah)		× C	133	218
Montolity	Earry larvae (5 dail)	-	5	(c.i.: 94 - 162)	(c.i.: 196 - 236)
wortanty	M (1 (15 1 1)			1083	1357
	Metamorphosis (15 dah)	-		(c.i.: 1001 - 1207)	(c.i.: 1284 - 1404)
I an ath	Early larvae (3 dah)	53	95	-	-
Length	Metamorphosis (24 dah)	391	548	-	-
	Farly Jarvae (3 dah)			80	180
Malformations	formations	8	-	(c.i.: 56 – 105)	(c.i.: 156 – 210)
	Metamorphosis (17 dah)	280	391	-	-
	Early larvae (3 dah)	<30	30 (GST)	-	-
Biomarkers	Metamorphosis (15 dah)	200	280 (LDH)	-	-
	Metamorphosis (24 dah)	200	280 (CAT)		

c.i. - 95% confidence interval. GST – Glutathione S-transferase, LDH – Lactate dehydrogenase, CAT – Catalase.



















Highlights

Triclosan induced malformations and decreased growth on sole early life stages

Triclosan accelerated sole metamorphosis at transient stages

Biochemical enzymatic markers were the most sensitive endpoints to Triclosan exposure

Triclosan induced alterations on anti-oxidant system without causing oxidative damage

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