

Toxicological effects of crude oil and oil-dispersant: biomarkers in the heart of the juvenile golden grey mullet (Liza aurata).

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1	Toxicological effects of crude oil and oil-dispersant:
2	biomarkers in the heart of the juvenile golden grey
3	mullet (<i>Liza aurata</i>).
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28 Abstract

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Dispersant use is a controversial oil spill response technique in coastal areas. Using an 30 31 experimental approach, this study evaluated the toxicity of dispersant use upon juveniles of golden grey mullet (Liza aurata). Fish were exposed for 48 hours to either dispersant only, 32 chemically dispersed oil, mechanically dispersed oil, the water-soluble fraction of oil or to 33 control conditions. Following exposure and a depuration period, biomarkers were assessed in 34 fish hearts, namely the total glutathione content and the activity of four enzymes (glutathione 35 S-transferase, superoxide dismutase, catalase and glutathione peroxides). Comparing 36 biomarker responses between the different treatments, this study revealed that 48 hours 37 exposure to dispersed oil (whether mechanically or chemically dispersed) resulted in a 38 toxicity that was still detectable after a 14 days depuration period. Comparing biomarkers 39 40 responses after an exposure to chemically and mechanically dispersed oil, this study suggests that chemical dispersion of the oil slick would not be more toxic than its natural dispersion 41 42 under certain turbulent meteorological conditions (e.g. waves). Furthermore, the results indicated that the heart could be a target organ of interest in further studies investigating the 43 toxicity of hydrocarbons. This study, which has been integrated into the DISCOBIOL project 44 (Dispersant et techniques de lutte en milieu côtier: effets biologiques et apport à la 45 réglementation), presents information of interest when attempting to provide a framework for 46 dispersant applications in coastal areas. 47

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49 Key words: petroleum, dispersant, antioxidant enzyme, glutathione, heart, *Liza aurata*

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52 **1. Introduction**

54 Oil spill response techniques have been developed to remediate the ecological consequences of petroleum released into the environment. Dispersant spreading, by boat and/or by plane, is 55 a commonly employed method. According to Chapman et al. (2007), chemical dispersants 56 were used on 18% of oil spills between 1995 and 2005. This was mainly due to the 57 environmental benefits provided by dispersant application (such as shown in Baca et al., 58 59 2005). Indeed, by inducing the transformation of an oil slick on the sea surface into oil droplets in the water column, dispersants: (i) enhance the bacterial degradation of petroleum 60 (Thiem, 1994; Churchill et al., 1995; Swannell and Daniel, 1999); (ii) rapidly dilute the 61 62 petroleum in the water column, preventing drifting of the oil slick into ecologically relevant shoreline habitats (Merlin, 2005); and (iii) reduce the risk of contamination of organisms 63 dwelling on the sea surface (e.g. seabirds and marine mammals). 64

65 In spite of these advantages, certain restrictions are placed on the application of dispersants in European coastal areas. These precautions are based on the low dilution potential of shallow 66 waters in such areas, where the dispersant use could induce high concentrations of 67 hydrocarbons in the water column and, consequently, toxic conditions for aquatic organisms 68 in those areas. This increase in toxicity has been highlighted in many experimental studies. 69 70 For instance, biomarker approaches demonstrated toxicity in *Platichthys flesus* (Baklien et al., 1986), Salmo salar (Gagnon and Holdway, 2000), Macquaria novemaculeata (Cohen et al., 71 2001) and Sebastes schlegeli (Jung et al., 2009) following dispersant use. However, these 72 experimental studies considered the toxicity of chemically enhanced water-accommodated 73 fractions (CEWAF; described in Singer et al., 2000), which did not contain the vast quantities 74 of oil droplets formed in situ during the dispersion of an oil slick. Moreover, recent 75 advancements in chemistry have enabled the creation of new dispersant formulations. These 76

so-called 'third generation' dispersants are, in contrast to previous generations, considered
intrinsically non-toxic and biodegradable (Merlin, 2005).

In this new context, a study investigating the toxicity of dispersed oil, considering both the 79 recent 'third generation' dispersant formulations and also the presence of oil droplets in the 80 water column, would be of interest. As a consequence, the DISCOBIOL project (Dispersant et 81 techniques de lutte en milieu côtier: effets biologiques et apport à la réglementation) was 82 83 created to provide information concerning the environmental impact of dispersed oil in coastal areas. The aim of this project was to investigate the potential toxicity and advantages 84 of dispersant use in coastal waters in order to develop a framework for policies on dispersant 85 86 use. This study evaluates the toxicity of dispersant use in coastal areas by means of an experimental approach. Using a turbulent experimental system, the toxicity of dispersant 87 application was evaluated, taking into account the presence in coastal areas of mixing 88 89 processes (e.g. waves) which are required for dispersant use (Merlin, 2005). Moreover, to simulate current oil dispersant application, our study used a third generation dispersant, which 90 91 is the most recent and commonly used of formulations (Merlin, 2005) and is considered as less toxic and more concentrated in tensio-active components than earlier ones. The oil used 92 was a Brut Arabian crude oil considering the important importation of Arabian oils in the 93 94 European Union in 2011 (European commission directorate-general for energy, http://ec.europa.eu/energy /observatory/oil/import_export_en.htm) and thus its transport along 95 the European coast. 96

97 The present study is a part of the DISCOBIOL project. Employing a biomarker approach, it 98 investigated the toxicity of dispersed oil upon juveniles of a pelagic fish species, the golden 99 grey mullet (*Liza aurata*). This species was chosen because of its significant role in coastal 100 ecosystems, facilitating the transportation of important particulate organic matter from salt 101 marshes to marine coastal waters (Laffaille *et al.*, 1998). Gautier and Hussenot (2005) showed

the presence of this species in coastal areas during the early part of its life, thus juvenileorganisms were chosen.

This ecotoxicological study was conducted at the organ level, on the hearts of fish, since: (i) 104 105 the toxicological effects of contaminants upon this organ are likely to alter fish survival, a consequence of the heart being a central organ involved in many physiological, 106 immunological and metabolic functions, moving substances such as gases, nutrients, wastes, 107 hormones, antibodies and heat; and (ii) several studies have previously investigated the 108 109 toxicological effect of hydrocarbons upon this organ, which could, therefore, be considered as a target organ of interest. For instance, Incardona et al. (2004, 2009) showed cardiac function 110 111 defects in fish embryos exposed to hydrocarbons and recently Hicken et al. (2011) showed that sublethal exposure to crude oil during embryonic development alters cardiac morphology. 112 In order to illustrate the toxicological effects of dispersed oil upon the heart, a biomarker 113 114 approach was used, focussing on the detoxification processes, but also on responses to oxidative stress induced by petroleum hydrocarbons. After exposure to contaminants, 115 116 oxidative stress is provoked by the formation of reactive oxygen species (ROS; Van der Oost 117 et al., 2003). This phenomenon is likely to induce a loss of structural and/or functional integrity in proteins, lipids and DNA (Winston and Di Giulio, 1991). Consequently, the 118 biomarkers examined during this study were: total glutathione, which is involved in the 119 contaminant detoxification processes (Maracine and Segner, 1998); glutathione S-transferase, 120 which is involved in the detoxification processes and also in antioxidant responses (Van der 121 Oost et al., 2003); and superoxide dismutase, catalase and glutathione peroxidase, which 122 indicate antioxidant responses in hydrocarbon-contaminated fish (Pan et al., 2005; Oliveira et 123 al., 2008; Nahrgang et al., 2009; Hannam et al., 2010). These biomarkers were considered 124 125 suitable for this investigation as many previous studies have shown them to respond to petroleum contamination and especially to the PAHs (polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons) 126

127 contained in petroleum (Avci *et al.*, 2005; Almroth *et al.*, 2008; Oliveira *et al.*, 2008; Jung *et al.*, 2009; Kopecka-Pilarczyk and Correia, 2009; Nahrgang *et al.*, 2009)

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130 **2. Materials and methods**

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- 132 2.1. Chemicals
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A Brut Arabian crude oil, containing 54% saturated hydrocarbons, 34% aromatic hydrocarbons and 12% polar compounds, was used for this study. This composition was evaluated by CEDRE (Centre of Documentation, Research and Experimentation on accidental water pollution, Brest, France), a laboratory certified according to ISO 9001 and ISO 14001. The API (American Petroleum Institute) gravity of the oil was 33.

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The dispersant, manufactured by Total Fluides and designed for marine environment, was 140 141 evaluated by CEDRE and was deemed effective enough to be used during oil spills 142 (preliminarily determined using the NF.T.90-345 method, see Bocard, 1986 for a more detailed description of this method), non-toxic at the concentration recommended by the 143 manufacturer (preliminarily determined using the standard toxicity test NF.T.90-349) and 144 biodegradable. This dispersant is composed of surfactants (surface active agents) and 145 solvents. As it is a 'third generation' dispersant, the surfactants are blends of anionic and non-146 ionic types. The manufacturer states that the chemical compounds representing a human and 147 aquatic ecosystems health risk are non-ionic surfactants (24%) and anionic surfactants 148 (between 12 and 24%). 149

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151 2.2. Experimental animals

One hundred Liza aurata juveniles were used for the experiment. They were provided by 153 Commercio Pesca Novellame Srl (Chioggia, Italy). The fish were acclimatized for 3 weeks in 154 155 300 L through-flow tanks containing seawater provided by Oceanopolis (Brest, France) (dissolved oxygen: $91 \pm 2\%$; salinity: $35 \pm 1\%$; temperature: 15 ± 0.1 °C; pH: 8.01 ± 0.04 ; a 156 photoperiod of 12 hours light/12 hours dark; in seawater free of nitrates and nitrite). During 157 acclimatization they were fed daily with fish food (Neosupra AL3 from Le Gouessant 158 159 Aquaculture), but were starved for 48 hours prior to the bioassays, and throughout the exposure period, in order to avoid bile evacuation from the gallbladder. At the end of the 160 acclimatization period, just before exposure, their average length was 140.3 ± 0.11 mm (mean 161 \pm standard error of the mean, s.e.m.) and their average weight was 38.18 \pm 1.28 g. 162

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164 2.3. Experimental system

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The experimental system used, as previously described by Milinkovitch et al. (2011a), was in 166 a temperature controlled room (15°C). Thus the water temperature for the experiment was 15 167 \pm 0.1°C. Other physicochemical parameters were also measured: pH (8.02 \pm 0.07) and 168 dissolved oxygen (95 \pm 1%) levels remained constant throughout the study. Water was not 169 170 renewed throughout the experiment. The system was devised to maintain the oil and dispersant mixture as a homogenous solution. Circulation and homogenization of solution in 171 the 300 L seawater tank was ensured by a funnel linked to a Johnson L450 pump. The 172 solution is sucked up in the funnel, creating a vortex at the surface of the tank, and then 173 expelled at the bottom of the tank after passed through the pump. 174

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176 2.4. Exposure treatments

Five exposure treatments were prepared, respecting a protocol previously described in 178 Milinkovitch et al. (2011a, b, 2012). The control exposure treatment (C) was made using 179 seawater provided by Oceanopolis (Brest, France). The mechanically dispersed (MD) oil 180 exposure treatment was made by pouring 20 g of petroleum in the funnel of the experimental 181 system. The chemically dispersed (CD) oil exposure treatment was made by pouring 20 g of 182 petroleum in the funnel, as for MD exposure, and 1 g of dispersant (respecting the 5 % of 183 dispersant recommended by the manufacturer). The dispersant (D) exposure treatment, 184 representing an internal control for CD, was made by pouring 1 g of dispersant. For the water-185 186 soluble fraction of the oil (WSF), in addition to the funnel and the pump, which were kept to maintain the same level of water agitation and circulation as for the other treatments, a 20 g 187 oil slick was contained using a plastic cylinder (21 cm diameter). This treatment differed from 188 189 the standardized water accommodated fraction (WAF) treatment described by Singer et al. (2000). It was designed to simulate the containment of the oil slick before recovery which is 190 191 an alternative response technique to dispersant use. During the entire exposure period, the oil 192 slick remained at the surface without mixing and consequently no droplets were observed in the water column, suggesting that the fish were only exposed to the soluble fraction of the oil. 193 194 For all treatments, the weight of the chemicals masses delivered to the experimental system 195 were determined precisely by mass difference. Twenty grams of oil and 1 g of dispersant were taken from beakers and delivered (using a glass syringe, VWR international) into the vortex 196 197 of water created by the funnel linked to the pump.

Although the solutions remained homogenous (less than 5% difference between three Total petroleum hydrocarbons concentration measurements sampled at three different depths within the experimental tanks), no fish were exposed within 24 hours of the solutions being made. Thereafter, groups of 10 fish were randomly placed in the five experimental tanks (T₀), which each contained one of the exposure treatments described above. The fish were exposed to the
various treatments for a period of 48 hours and no fish mortality was observed. The protocol
(from the preparation of the exposure treatment to the fish exposure) was replicated, so that a
total of 20 fish were subjected to each exposure treatment.

At the end of the exposure period (**A**), five fish per tank were euthanised using eugenol (4allyl-2-methoxyphenol), while the other five fish were placed in uncontaminated water and fed for 14 days (**B**). This was performed for both sets of replicates, so that 10 fish per exposure treatment (C, CD, MD, WSF or D) were euthanised immediately after exposure and 10 fish per treatment were euthanised following the depuration period.

From fish exposed, the hearts were removed and stored at -80°C prior to analysis. The liver and blood were removed and analysed as part of another study (Milinkovitch *et al.*, 2011a) in which information concerning Total petroleum hydrocarbons (TPHs) and PAH concentrations in seawater is available. Thus, the information concerning the present study water contamination is available and discussed in Milinkovitch *et al.* (2011a) and also summarized in Table 1.

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218 2.5. Measurement of biomarker responses in fish hearts

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The hearts were ground in a phosphate buffer (100 mM, pH 7.8) containing 20% glycerol and 0.2 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride as a serine protease inhibitor. The homogenates were then centrifuged at 10,000 g and 4°C for 15 minutes to obtain the post-mitochondrial fraction (PMF). Total protein concentrations were determined using the method of Bradford (1992), with bovine serum albumin (Sigma-Aldrich Chemicals, France) as the standard. Prior to the biomarker response measurements, all assays were optimised for juvenile *Liza aurata* heart samples and adapted for use on a microplate. Total glutathione (GSHt) concentrations were measured according to the method of
Vandeputte *et al.* (1994). In brief, 10 µl of each TCA-deproteinised sample was mixed with a
phosphate buffer (100 mM, pH 7.5) containing 10 mM EDTA, 0.3 mM NADPH and 1 mM
Ellman reagent. The enzymatic reaction was spectrophotometrically monitored at 405 nm and
the results were expressed in µmol of GSHt/g of protein.

Glutathione S-transferase (GST) activity assays were conducted according to the method of Habig *et al.* (1974). In brief, 20 µg of PMF proteins were mixed with a phosphate buffer (100 mM, pH 6.5) containing 1 mM chloro dinitrobenzene and 1 mM reduced glutathione. The enzymatic reaction was spectrophotometrically monitored at 340 nm and the results were expressed in U of GST/g of protein.

Superoxide dismutase (SOD) activity was measured using the assay developed by Paoletti *et al.* (1986). In brief, the inhibition of NADH (350 μ M) oxidation by 11 μ g of PMF proteins was monitored at 340 nm. For this purpose, PMF proteins were added to a phosphate buffer (100 mM, pH 7.5) with 0.4 mM NADH, 6 mM EDTA and 3 mM MnCl₂. The results were expressed in U of SOD/mg of protein.

Catalase (CAT) activity was monitored using the method previously described by Babo and
Vasseur (1992). In brief, 5 µg of PMF proteins were mixed (v:v) with a phosphate buffer (100
mM, pH 7.5) and 28 mM hydrogen peroxide. The hydrogen peroxide degradation kinetics
were assessed at 280 nm and the results were expressed in U of CAT/mg of protein.

Glutathione peroxidase (GPx) activity was determined using 30 µg of PMF proteins according to the method of Paglia and Valentine (1967). The PMF proteins were added to a phosphate buffer (100 mM, pH 7.6) with 2 mM reduced glutathione, 0.12 mM NADPH and 2 U/ml glutathione reductase. Cumene hydroperoxide (0.55 mM) was used as the substrate and enzymatic activity was assessed at 340 nm. The results were expressed in U of GPx/g of protein.

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Statistical analyses were carried out using Statistica software (version 9). For each variable 255 (GSHt, GST, SOD, CAT and GPx activities) and each treatment (C, CD, MD, WSF and D) 256 separately, no significant difference was found (determined with t-tests) between replicates of 257 experiment (described in 2.4.). Normality and homoscedasticity were verified using the 258 259 Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Cochran tests. For the GSHt concentrations and the GST, SOD, CAT and GPx activities, two-way factorial analyses of variance (ANOVA) were performed, 260 261 in order to assess the effects of the different exposure treatments (C, CD, MD, WSF and D) after exposure and depuration. For each biological parameter, ANOVA was followed by 262 planned comparison tests (Tukey's HSD test) to detect any significant differences between 263 264 contamination after exposure and after the depuration period. The significance of the results was ascertained at α =0.05. The results were expressed as means ± s.e.m. (standard error of the 265 mean) of 10 individual fish (n=10). 266

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268	3.	Results
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270 3.1. Total glutathione (GSHt) concentrations in fish hearts

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The means of the GSHt concentrations, based on 10 individual analyses, showed values of 54.0 \pm 0.2 µmol of GSHt/g of protein (Figure 1) for control *Liza aurata*, (C) at the end of the 48 hour exposure period (**A**). The GSHt concentrations in fish hearts showed a significant decrease when the fish were exposed to any of the contaminants (WSF, MD, CD or D). GSHt levels after WSF, MD or CD exposures were half that of the control. The GSHt level following dispersant (D) exposure was significantly lower than that of the control, but
significantly higher than GSHt levels assessed after WSF, MD or CD exposures.

Following the 14 day depuration period (**B**), GSHt levels were not significantly different from those observed immediately after exposure (**A**). Concentration patterns also remained unchanged: the hearts of fish exposed to either WSF, MD or CD showed lower concentrations of glutathione and the hearts of fish exposed to the dispersant (D) showed significantly lower levels of glutathione when compared to those exposed to the control treatment, but higher levels than those exposed to WSF, MD or CD.



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Figure 1: Concentration of total glutathione (GSHt) in the heart of Liza aurata. Glutathione 286 concentration was measured after 48 h exposure (A) to Control (C), Chemically Dispersed oil (CD), 287 Mechanically Dispersed oil (MD), Water Soluble Fraction (WSF) and Dispersant (D) exposure 288 289 treatments; and after 14 days of depuration (B) following the exposure: Control (C), Chemically 290 Dispersed oil (CD), Mechanically Dispersed oil (MD), Water Soluble Fraction (WSF) and Dispersant 291 (D). Values represent mean \pm standard error of ten individual analyses (n=10 per treatment). For 292 each period (after 48h exposure and after 14 days of depuration), different letters above bars (a, b, c) 293 indicate a significant difference (where P < 0.05). **a** indicates values significantly not different from 294 control (C) values. b indicates values significantly different from control (C) values. c indicates values 295 significantly different from a and b. For each exposure treatment, * indicates a significant difference (P < 0.05) between the values obtained after 48 h exposure and the values obtained after 14 days of 296 297 depuration.

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GST activity (Figure 2) in the hearts of the control fish (C) was 366.9 ± 12.1 U/g of protein at 301 302 the end of the 48 hour exposure period (A). No significant increase was observed in fish exposed to the dispersant (D). A significant increase in the activity of this enzyme was 303 observed in fish that were exposed to hydrocarbons: a 70, 72, and 78 % increase for WSF, 304 MD and CD, respectively. Indeed, compared to the control treatment (C), heart GST activity 305 increased after the fish were exposed to either WSF, MD or CD. Following the 14 day 306 depuration period (B), GST activity levels were still higher in those fish that had been 307 exposed to WSF, MD or CD. 308

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Figure 2: Glutathione-S-Transferase (GST) activity in the heart of Liza aurata. Activity was measured 311 after 48 h exposure (A) to Control (C), Chemically Dispersed oil (CD), Mechanically Dispersed oil 312 (MD), Water Soluble Fraction (WSF) and Dispersant (D) exposure treatments; and after 14 days of 313 depuration (B) following the exposure: Control (C), Chemically Dispersed oil (CD), Mechanically 314 315 Dispersed oil (MD), Water Soluble Fraction (WSF) and Dispersant (D). Values represent mean ± standard error of ten individual analyses (n=10 per treatment). For each period (after 48h exposure 316 and after 14 days of depuration), different letters above bars (a, b, c) indicate a significant difference 317 (where P < 0.05). a indicates values significantly not different from control (C) values. b indicates 318 319 values significantly different from control (C) values. c indicates values significantly different from a and **b**. For each exposure treatment, * indicates a significant difference (P < 0.05) between the values 320 obtained after 48 h exposure and the values obtained after 14 days of depuration 321

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SOD activity in the hearts of the control (C) *Liza aurata* was 6.2 ± 0.2 U/mg of protein at the 325 end of the 48 hour exposure period (A). SOD activity exhibited a significant increase when 326 fish were exposed to any of the contaminants (WSF, MD, CD or D). For WSF, MD and CD, a 327 significant 82, 52, 70% increase in SOD activity, was observed (Figure 3), respectively. For 328 the dispersant (D), a 28% increase in SOD activity was observed, compared to control values. 329 This activity was significantly lower than that measured after WSF, MD or CD exposure. 330 331 Following the 14 day depuration period (**B**), a significant decrease in the activity of this enzyme was observed and activity levels of SOD returned to the control values for all 332 exposure treatments. 333



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Figure 3: SuperOxide Dismutase (SOD) activity in the heart of Liza aurata. Activity was measured 335 after 48 h exposure (A) to Control (C), Chemically Dispersed oil (CD), Mechanically Dispersed oil 336 (MD), Water Soluble Fraction (WSF) and Dispersant (D) exposure treatments; and after 14 days of 337 338 depuration (B) following the exposure: Control (C), Chemically Dispersed oil (CD), Mechanically 339 Dispersed oil (MD), Water Soluble Fraction (WSF) and Dispersant (D). Values represent mean ± 340 standard error of ten individual analyses (n=10 per treatment). For each period (after 48h exposure 341 and after 14 days of depuration), different letters above bars (a, b, c) indicate a significant difference 342 (where P < 0.05). **a** indicates values significantly not different from control (C) values. **b** indicates values significantly different from control (C) values. c indicates values significantly different from a 343 and **b**. For each exposure treatment, * indicates a significant difference (P < 0.05) between the values 344 obtained after 48 h exposure and the values obtained after 14 days of depuration. 345

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CAT activity (Figure 4) in the hearts of the control (C) *Liza aurata* was 253.3 ± 13.3 U/mg of protein at the end of the 48 hour exposure period (**A**). Our results showed that the activity of this enzyme was significantly increased by WSF, MD and CD exposures. The increase was significantly higher (p<0.05) for fish exposed to CD or MD (112% and 132% increase compared to control values, respectively) than for fish exposed to WSF or D (74% and 29% increase compared to control values, respectively). Furthermore, the increase in activity was significantly higher for WSF than for D.

After the 14 day depuration period (**B**), CAT activity remained unchanged for all exposure treatments (when compared to the levels observed immediately after exposure). The patterns of CAT activity also remained unchanged: CD and MD exposure induced significantly higher CAT activity, and CAT activity was significantly greater in fish exposed to WSF than in fish exposed to D.



Figure 4: Catalase (CAT) activity in the heart of *Liza aurata*. Activity was measured after 48 h exposure (A) to Control (C), Chemically Dispersed oil (CD), Mechanically Dispersed oil (MD), Water Soluble Fraction (WSF) and Dispersant (D) exposure treatments; and after 14 days of depuration (B)

following the exposure: Control (C), Chemically Dispersed oil (CD), Mechanically Dispersed oil (MD), 368 Water Soluble Fraction (WSF) and Dispersant (D). Values represent mean ± standard error of ten 369 370 individual analyses (n=10 per treatment). For each period (after 48h exposure and after 14 days of 371 depuration), different letters above bars (\mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} , \mathbf{c}) indicate a significant difference (where P < 0.05). \mathbf{a} 372 indicates values significantly not different from control (C) values. b indicates values significantly different from control (C) values. c indicates values significantly different from a and b. For each 373 374 exposure treatment, * indicates a significant difference (P < 0.05) between the values obtained after 375 48 h exposure and the values obtained after 14 days of depuration.

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377 3.5. Glutathione peroxidase (GPx) activity in fish hearts

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At the end of the exposure period (A), the GPx activity (Figure 5) was 32.8 ± 2.2 U/g of 379 protein in the hearts of the control fish (C). GPx activity displayed the similar pattern of 380 results as those observed for SOD activity: a significant increase in all exposure groups, 381 although this increase was significantly less intense for the D exposure treatment (65%) than 382 for the other treatments (WSF 206%, CD 240% and MD 253%). After depuration (B), a 383 significant decrease in activity was observed in the hearts of fish exposed to WSF, CD or MD. 384 However, in spite of this decrease, GPx activity was still higher in fish exposed to CD and 385 386 MD than in the control.

387



389 Figure 5: Glutathion peroxidase (GPx) activity in the heart of Liza aurata. Activity was measured after 48 h exposure (A) to Control (C), Chemically Dispersed oil (CD), Mechanically Dispersed oil (MD), 390 391 Water Soluble Fraction (WSF) and Dispersant (D) exposure treatments; and after 14 days of 392 depuration (B) following the exposure: Control (C), Chemically Dispersed oil (CD), Mechanically 393 Dispersed oil (MD), Water Soluble Fraction (WSF) and Dispersant (D). Values represent mean ± standard error of ten individual analyses (n=10 per treatment). For each period (after 48h exposure 394 395 and after 14 days of depuration), different letters above bars (a, b, c) indicate a significant difference 396 (where P < 0.05). **a** indicates values significantly not different from control (C) values. **b** indicates 397 values significantly different from control (C) values. c indicates values significantly different from a and **b**. For each exposure treatment, * indicates a significant difference (P < 0.05) between the values 398 399 obtained after 48 h exposure and the values obtained after 14 days of depuration.

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401 **4. Discussion**

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403 4.1. Total glutathione content and GST activity in fish hearts

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The results of this study indicated a decrease in GSHt concentrations in fish hearts following all exposure treatments. This decrease of glutathione content has also been observed in the livers of teleost fish after exposure to PAHs (Almroth *et al.*, 2008). However, to our knowledge, few studies have investigated the modulation of total glutathione content in the hearts of fish, making comparison between these results and the literature difficult.

Since total glutathione is considered to be an important molecule in cellular defence against 410 contaminants (Maracine and Segner, 1998), the results of this study suggest that the potential 411 412 for fish to cope with contaminants is impaired after exposure to WSF, CD, MD or D. Moreover, the results obtained following the depuration period indicated that, in the case of 413 all contaminations, GSHt concentrations had not increased to reach control levels, suggesting 414 415 repletion had still not occurred after 14 days of depuration. Consequently, even after the depuration period, the potential for the fish to cope with further contaminated environments, 416 such as those present in coastal areas, was still impaired. 417

Comparing GSHt levels for the different exposure treatments, our results showed a more profound depletion for CD, MD and WSF exposures than for D, suggesting that the toxicological effects of the three exposure treatments containing hydrocarbons were more intense. In parallel, no significant differences between CD, MD and WSF exposures were indicated, suggesting, on the basis of this single result, that the dispersion of the oil, whether mechanically or chemically, did not increase the toxicological effects of the petroleum on the concentration of GSHt.

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During contamination, several detoxification processes could involve the use of glutathione. 426 In our study, three hypotheses could explain the decrease in total glutathione: (i) it could be 427 due to an inhibition of the GSH synthesis rate by contaminants, as suggested in Zhang et al. 428 (2004) in goldfish (*Carassius auratus*); (ii) the heavy metals in petroleum (mainly vanadium 429 430 and nickel; Salar Amoli et al., 2006) could be chelated by reduced glutathione, leading to GS-V or GS-Ni-binding complexes (Sies, 1999), which cannot be assessed through biochemical 431 analysis and consequently contribute to the observed decrease in total glutathione content; 432 433 (iii) after a phase 1 biotransformation induced by EROD (ethoxyresorufin-O-deethylase) activity, the GST could induce a conjugation of the oxidized PAHs to reduced glutathione 434 (George, 1994). The conjugate could then be excreted, thus leading to a decrease in total 435 glutathione. For dispersant alone (D) the decrease of total glutathione can only be explained 436 by the first hypothesis since dispersant alone contains neither PAHs nor heavy metals. Thus, 437 the reduction of glutathione could be due to the inhibition of the GSH synthesis rate by the 438 dispersant. For fish exposed to CD, MD and WSF, all hypotheses are conceivable. However, 439 our results suggest an intense role of the PAH conjugation. Indeed, for these exposure 440 treatments, the decrease in total glutathione was associated with an increase in GST activity. 441

442 Moreover, the regression between GST activity and glutathione content was tested (data not443 shown) and found highly significant (P<0.001).

Comparing the biological effects with the seawater PAH concentrations, this study showed 444 445 same magnitude of response in the GST activity levels between WSF and either CD and MD treatments while total concentrations of PAHs in CD and MD treatments are both 446 approximately 8 and 50 times higher than in WSF, at the beginning (T0=0 h) and at the end of 447 the exposure (T1=48 h) respectively. This could be due to the fact that GST activity in heart 448 reached its maximum with WSF treatment and that consequently a higher load of 449 contamination (through CD and MD exposure) did not induce a further increase of GST 450 activity. Since GST activity is involved in the depletion of total glutathione, the same 451 magnitude of response of this enzyme for WSF, CD and MD could explain the identical GSHt 452 depletion observed for these three treatments. 453

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455 4.2. Activity of antioxidant enzymes in fish hearts

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The results of this study showed an increase in the three enzymes assessed after oil exposure, 457 when compared to the control. This response was previously observed in several 458 459 ecotoxicological studies and, more specifically, in studies that investigated the toxicological effects of hydrocarbons in teleost fish (Zhang et al., 2004; Sun et al., 2006; Oliveira et al., 460 2008; Oliva et al., 2010). The enhancement of antioxidant enzyme activities is considered to 461 be a defence mechanism against the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), initiated by 462 the incorporation of PAHs in the internal environment of organisms (Guenguerich, 1993; Van 463 der Oost et al., 2003). 464

The antioxidant enzyme activities in fish hearts revealed that CD and MD exposures induced the highest antioxidant responses for SOD, CAT and GPx. These results are in accordance

with those of Milinkovitch et al. (2011a), since the PAH biliary metabolite concentrations 467 (after 48 hours exposure) indicated that CD and MD also induced the highest levels of PAH 468 incorporation. However, although biliary metabolites did not reveal a significant increase in 469 470 PAH incorporation after WSF exposure in our previous investigation (Milinkovitch et al., 2011 a), the present study showed that the antioxidant response of SOD, GPx and CAT was 471 significantly increased after WSF exposure. This finding suggests that antioxidant activity in 472 473 fish heart could be a more sensitive biomarker than PAH biliary metabolites in the aim to detect the precocious biological effects of oil. 474

As previously described (discussing GST activity in 4.1.), the biological effects did not match 475 with the seawater PAH concentrations measurements. Indeed, regarding to SOD and GPx 476 activities, this study did not highlight significant different responses in the antioxidant 477 activities between WSF and either CD and MD treatments while total concentrations of PAHs 478 479 in CD and MD treatments are both 8 and 50 times higher than in WSF (at the beginning *i.e.* T0=0 h and at the end of the exposure *i.e.* T1=48 h, respectively). On this basis and 480 analogously to GST activity, it is conceivable to hypothesize that antioxidant activities of 481 SOD and GPx in heart reached their maximum with WSF treatment and that consequently a 482 higher load of contamination (through CD and MD exposure) did not induce a further 483 increase of antioxidant activity. 484

Regarding to CAT activity, results exposed the effects of oil dispersion (whatever mechanically or chemically) since, after depuration, CAT activity was higher for MD and CD exposures than for WSF exposure. However, this statement must be interpreted cautiously since it is based on a single biomarker analysis; 4 of the other 5 biomarkers (GSHt, GST, SOD, GPx) did not highlight significant difference between WSF and either CD and MD exposure. After 14 days of depuration, (i) CAT activity was still significant following CD, MD or WSF
exposure and (ii) GPx activity was still significant following CD and MD exposures. Thus, in
addition to the transitory effects of hydrocarbons observed after acute exposure (48 hours),
these results also illustrated the effect of oil after depuration.

Recent studies have suggested a relationship between the impairment of fish survival and the 495 496 modulation of the antioxidant response. Allen and Moore (2004) revealed links between 497 antioxidant response and the health status of organisms. Tsangaris et al. (2007) found a significant correlation between glutathione peroxidase and the scope for growth in Mytilus 498 edulis contaminated with heavy metals. On this basis, the results presented in this study 499 500 suggest that fish survival would be impaired after exposure to MD or CD, but impairment could be described as relatively less important following exposure to WSF, since the CAT 501 502 activity was found to be significantly lower.

503 Exposure to the dispersant also seems to have induced toxicological effects, indicated by increases in SOD and GPx activities, even though the activities of these antioxidant enzymes 504 505 did not reach those levels observed after CD, MD or WSF exposure. This result agreed with a 506 recent study of Luna-Acosta et al. (2011) which revealed a modulation of SOD activity in the plasma of oysters, Crassostrea gigas, following dispersant exposure. This study and the 507 present one exposed a modulation of biomarkers and thus highlighted the intrinsic toxicity of 508 dispersant which disagreed with the statement of the manufacturer who claimed that 509 dispersant is non-toxic at the concentration recommended by the manufacturer. This 510 511 discrepancy could be due to the method used to determine the non-toxicity of the dispersant (NF.T.90-349). Indeed, this standard toxicity test measures the mortality rate of Palaemonetes 512 *varians* exposed to several concentrations of a dispersant and compares them to the mortality 513 514 rate observed for a reference toxic compound (N-alkyl dimethyl benzyl ammonium chloride). However, this toxicity test does not take into account sublethal effects of dispersants. Such 515

studies could be of interest in order to better estimate the toxicity levels of individualdispersants.

The antioxidant response suggested the production of ROS, which could potentially result in 518 519 structural and functional impairments of the heart (Van der Oost, 2003). Thus, in order to better estimate the effects of the exposure treatments, it would be of interest to measure 520 changes in integrity at the cellular and organ levels. For instance, at the cellular level, a comet 521 assay to determine DNA integrity or an MDA (malondialdehyde, a product of oxidative lipid 522 degradation) assay to evaluate lipid peroxidation could be conducted. At the organ level, 523 cardiac performance could also be measured, since it has been suggested that this biological 524 525 parameter is altered by oxidative stress (Luo et al., 2006). A recent study of Milinkovitch et al. (2012) already investigated the force and the velocity of contraction in golden grey mullets 526 exposed to similar treatments (WSF, D, MD, CD); results showed an impairment of the 527 528 velocity of contraction for all treatments while no effect on the force of contraction. Similarly, cardiac abnormalities and defects in function could be studied, since Incardona et al. (2004) 529 530 have already demonstrated a modification of heart morphology in PAH contaminated fish 531 embryos (Danio rerio).

When compared to a previous and similar study (Milinkovitch et al., 2011a), the present 532 533 results showed that the biomarker responses were more marked in fish hearts than in other target organs, such as the liver. Indeed, in the previous study, after the same exposure 534 treatments (CD, MD, WSF or D), no increases in antioxidant enzyme activities in fish livers 535 were recorded. This is in accordance with Thomaz et al. (2009), who assessed antioxidant 536 enzyme activities in several organs and who also suggested that the heart was more sensitive 537 to the organophosphate insecticide trichlorfon than the liver or the gills. Taken together, these 538 539 studies suggest that the heart could be considered as a target organ of interest for future

ecotoxicological studies. This finding agree with a recent study of Milinkovitch et al. (2012)
who showed an impairment of cardiac performance in fish exposed to

542

543 5. Conclusions

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The results of this study showed biological responses for all of the biomarkers tested (GSHt, GST, GPx, SOD and CAT) and therefore indicated that the heart could be a target organ of interest when examining antioxidant responses and detoxification processes due to exposure to organic contaminants.

Most of the biomarkers tested (GSHt, GPx, SOD) showed a modulation after exposure to a single dispersant (D), suggested this product has a sublethal toxicity. This disagrees with the acceptance of this 'third generation' dispersant as a non-toxic product. Thus, further studies are required to better estimate its intrinsic toxicity on pelagic organisms.

This study showed significant biomarkers responses after exposure to CD or MD, therefore 553 554 suggesting that dispersed oil has toxicological effects. Such biomarkers responses have also been observed following WSF exposure for the biomarkers GSHt, GST, SOD and GPx. 555 However, results showed a significantly lower increase in CAT activity for WSF exposure 556 557 (compared to MD and CD exposure) which could suggest that an undispersed oil slick would be less toxic to organisms living in the water column than a dispersed one. However, such an 558 interpretation is based on a single biomarker response (on the 5 analysed) which incite us to 559 be cautious. Further studies, for instance at other biological levels, would be recommended in 560 561 the aim of highlighting the difference of toxicity that could exist between WSF and either CD and MD exposure. 562

Most of the biomarkers (GSHt, GST, CAT and GPx) did not return to the control levels after the days of depuration following the exposure of fish to oil (WSF, MD or CD). Thus, in addition to the acute toxicity, oil and dispersed oil induced a toxicity that was still present after the depuration period. The assessment of biomarkers responses on a longer depuration period could provide further information concerning the long-term toxicity of hydrocarbons.

568 No significant differences were observed between exposure to CD or MD. The difference between these two treatments is the addition of dispersant for CD exposure. Thus, 569 extrapolating to the issues involved in oil spill response techniques, these results suggest that 570 571 when environmental conditions (e.g. waves, wind, swell and tide) already provoke the natural 572 dispersion of the oil slick (simulated by MD exposure), the addition of the dispersant (CD exposure) would not increase the environmental effects of oil. On the other hand, the use of 573 574 dispersant would reduce the environmental cost of the oil spill by inhibiting the environmental risks associated with the recoalescence of the oil slick (e.g. contamination of sea surface 575 dwelling organisms, or drifting of the oil slick into ecologically relevant shoreline habitats) 576 577 and by enhancing the bacterial degradation of petroleum.

However, these conclusions should be considered cautiously, since they are based on the study of one species (*Liza aurata*) in a single compartment (water column). Consequently, the DISCOBIOL project (Dispersant et techniques de lutte en milieu côtier : effets biologiques et apport à la réglementation) intends to perform further studies focussing on several species from coastal areas (*Crassostera gigas*, *Mytilus edulis*, *Scophtalmus maximus*, *Dicentrarchus labrax* and *Liza aurata*) and examining the sediment as another compartment of interest.

584

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586

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