

Tritiated thymidine induces developmental delay, oxidative stress and gene overexpression in developing zebrafish (Danio rerio)

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1	Title: Tritiated thymidine induces developmental delay, oxidative stress and gene		
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21			

22 Abstract

23 Tritium is a betta emitter radionuclide. Being an isotope of hydrogen, it is easily transferred to different environmental compartments, and to human and non-human biota. 24 25 Considering that tritium levels are expected to rise in the upcoming decades with the development of nuclear facilities producing tritium using fission processes, investigating 26 27 the potential toxicity of tritium to human and non-human biota is necessary. Tritiated 28 thymidine, an organic form of tritium, has been used in this study to assess its toxicity on 29 fish embryo development. Zebrafish embryos (3.5 hpf; hours post fertilization) have been exposed to tritiated thymidine at three different activity concentrations (7.5; 40; 110 30 31 kBq/mL) for four days. These experiments highlighted that zebrafish development was affected by the exposure to organic tritium, with smaller larvae at 3 dpf after exposure to 32 33 the two lowest dose rates (22 and 170 μ Gy/h), a delayed hatching after exposure to the two 34 highest dose rates (170 and 470 µGy/h), an increase in the spontaneous tail movement (1 35 dpf) and a decrease in the heartbeat (3 dpf) after exposure to the highest dose rate. The 36 results also highlighted an increase in ROS production in larvae exposed to the intermediate 37 dose rate. A dysregulation of many genes, involved in apoptosis, DNA repair or oxidative 38 stress, was also found after 1 day of exposure to the lowest tritium dose rate. Our results 39 thus suggest that exposure to tritiated thymidine from a dose rate as low as $22 \mu Gy/h$ can 40 lead to sublethal effects, with an effect on the development, dysregulation of many genes and increase of the ROS production. This paper provides valuable information on toxic 41 42 effects arising from the exposure of fish to an organic form of tritium, which was the main 43 objective of this study.

1. Introduction

Tritium is a radioactive isotope of hydrogen¹. In the environment, it comes from 46 different sources: the interaction between the cosmic rays and atmospheric oxygen and 47 48 nitrogen atoms is the only natural source of tritium, while there are more types of anthropogenic releases, including nuclear power plants, nuclear reactors, but also nuclear 49 incidents or weapon testing^{1,2}. Despite those numerous anthropogenic sources of tritium, 50 51 those releases are still being closely monitored, those monitoring mostly focusing on the 52 activity concentrations in the different environmental compartments. In France, for example, in non-nuclearized aquatic ecosystems, tritium levels range from 3 to 4 Bq/L, 53 54 while in nuclearized areas, those levels rise and reach 2.5 to 12.85 Bq/L, with a mean value of 6.31 Bq/ L^3 . In the environment, tritium can be found in three different forms: free in the 55 56 water (HTO), atmospheric tritium (HT) or organically bound tritium (OBT)¹. This last form 57 can be separated into two different ones: the exchangeable OBT (eOBT), where tritium is 58 weakly bound to oxygen, sulphur or nitrogen atoms, and the non-exchangeable OBT (neOBT), where tritium is strongly bound to a carbon atom³. Numerous studies have shown 59 60 that tritium can be transferred to biota, accumulate in living tissues and, depending on its chemical form (free or organic), can be incorporated in the DNA during its synthesis^{4–10}. 61 62 This ability made the study of its possible toxic effects even more relevant. Considering 63 that radiations emitted by tritium have a low penetrating power, the only exposure source considered in this study is the internal exposure (*i.e.*, the exposure to the tritium that has 64 65 been translocated in the embryos and larvae).

66 As for many other contaminants, tritium effects on early development stages have been 67 studied on numerous species. For example, it was shown that tritium induced a delay in 68 hatching of zebrafish embryos (*Danio rerio*), no matter what chemical form was used^{11,12}. 69 Literature also reports that tritium can induce a delay in development in species like 70zebrafish, blue mussel (*Mytilus edulis*) and grass puffer (*Fugu niphobles*), while it seems71to have the opposite effect on the prussian carp (*Carrasius gibelis*) 3,10,13 . While affecting72the macroscopic development, it seems that it can also affect microscopic and molecular73processes. For example, a study showed that the spontaneous tail movement in 24 hpf74zebrafish embryos decreased after an exposure to HTO at 3.7 kBq/mL, while the same75exposure increased the heartbeat of the individuals at 60 and 120 hpf¹².

76 Other studies also highlighted that exposure to tritium leads to an increase in the 77 reactive oxygen species (ROS) in bacterial cells, fathead minnow (*Pimephales promelas*) 78 and zebrafish, while the GPx activity also increased with the tritium dose rate in fathead minnows^{7,10,14}. Finally, it was shown that genes involved in detoxication and neuro-79 transmission in zebrafish were affected after exposure to tritium, but only in a transient 80 81 way, while a RNA sequencing study carried out on zebrafish embryos and larvae showed that many genes were either over- or under-expressed after exposure^{11,15}. Genes involved 82 83 in somite differentiation, oxidative reduction processes and peripheral nervous system 84 axonogenesis were down-regulated. In contrast, genes involved in the response to oxidative 85 stress, circadian rhythm, response to light stimulus, and regulation of DNA methylation were up-regulated¹⁵. Genes involved in processes linked to the muscle contraction or the 86 87 sarcomere assembly were up- and down-regulated depending on both the developmental 88 stage and the dose rate used for the exposure. Thus, when studying the toxic effects of 89 various compounds on living organisms, multiple biological scales should be used, as it 90 could give more information on the possible modes of action of the contaminant to induce toxicity^{3,16,17}. 91

Even though all those studies give multiple information on HTO toxic effects on various aquatic species, very few studies focused on the toxic effects that could arise from an exposure to organic tritium, which is the main objective of our study^{8,18}. Another

95 objective was to determine and confirm toxic mechanisms specific to tritium and, more 96 generally, radiations, by comparing the toxicity induced by tritiated thymidine to the toxicity induced by HTO or gamma irradiation. To do so, three tritiated thymidine dose 97 98 rates were used (22, 170 and 470 μ Gy/h). Zebrafish is used as a biological model because 99 it is a convenient species, with adults being able to lay hundreds of eggs, but also because these eggs are transparent, easy to handle, and because its genome is fully sequenced^{19,20}. 100 101 Early development stages were also chosen as it is well known that those are usually 102 considered as being more sensitive to most contaminants, but also because is it a commonly used model in toxicological studies^{3,10,11,15,21-26}. Zebrafish embryos were exposed three 103 104 activity concentrations (7.5; 40; 110 kBq/mL) to study toxicological effects than can be 105 classified in three different categories depending on the biological scale concerned. First, 106 the macroscopic part of the study will focus on the development of the larvae, while a 107 second part of the study will focus on toxicity markers as the spontaneous tail movement 108 and the heartbeat. Finally, molecular studies will focus on the ROS production index and 109 the expression of 30 different genes. The selected genes are involved in multiple biological 110 processes such as DNA repair, apoptosis, oxidative stress regulation and eye development. 111 As multiple effects have already been observed after the exposure of fish to different 112 radionuclides, with for example the deregulation of various genes involved in the response 113 to oxidative stress and DNA damage, but also with disruption of the development, the main 114 hypothesis behind this study is the induction of disruptions by tritiated thymidine on the 115 same biological targets, but with different severities.

- 116
- 117 **2. Material and methods**
- 118 **2.1. Fish**

119 All experimentations presented in this paper were previously approved by IRSN 120 Animal Care Committee and followed French regulations for animal experimentation 121 (protocol P2019-19; registration number of IRSN laboratory: C13-013-07). Three to four 122 months old wild-type zebrafish (AB genetic background) were supplied by Paris Sorbonne 123 University (France) and were kept in a zebrafish housing system (Zebtec Techniplast® 124 Stand Alone). The light:dark photoperiod chosen was 12h:12h and fishes were fed three 125 times a day with Gemma Wean 0.3 (Sketting). All water parameters were monitored daily 126 (pH 7.5 \pm 0.2; conductivity 450 \pm 50 μ S.cm-1, temperature 27.5 \pm 0.5 °C). As males and 127 females were kept in separated tanks to increase the effectiveness of the mating process, 128 the mating was also done once every three weeks during the periods during which no 129 experimental procedures were planned. All matings were done in the husbandry using the 130 water from the housing system and using fishes that were between 4 and 13 months old.

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2.2. Embryo exposure and tritium contamination

133 Embryo medium (pH 7.5, conductivity 500 µS/cm in Milli-Q water) was prepared 134 using InstantOcean® sea salt at a concentration of 60 mg/L and was used to dilute the 135 tritiated thymidine solution and as a negative control²⁷. Tritiated thymidine solutions (97 136 % purity, 185 MBq, PerkinElmer, Courtaboeuf, France) were prepared in three different 137 activity concentrations (7.5; 40 and 110 kBq/mL), chosen according to a previous study in 138 order to obtain 3 different internal dose rates: 22; 170; 470 μ Gy/h⁵. As multiple 139 experiments were necessary to study the effects of tritiated thymidine at one dose rate, a 140 10 % variability was accepted in the initial measured activity concentration between each 141 experiment.

All animals were exposed to tritiated thymidine as presented elsewhere⁵. Briefly, at
3.5 hpf, zebrafish embryos were placed in two to three glass crystallizers covered with

Parafilm at a density of two eggs per mL of working solution for four days. Each crystallizer was considered as an exposure replicate. The embryos were kept in the dark in thermo-regulated incubators (Heraterm, ThermoScientific) at 27 ± 1 °C and 80 % of the working solution was replaced after 48 hours of exposure. Temperature (°C) and relative humidity (%) were monitored every 30 minutes during the exposure (HOBO data logger U12, Onset), and beakers were filled with tritium-free water (Abatilles water, France, 40 mL) to monitor tritium exchanges in the incubator.

For both development and hatching studies, two 25-well plastic plates were added in the incubators. In the development plate, 4 wells were filled with 5 embryos each in 2.5 mL of working solution, while the wells that did not contain any embryos were kept empty. In the hatching plate, 8 wells were also filled with the same amount of embryos and working solution. Both plates were covered with Parafilm® to avoid any significant evaporation of the medium.

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158 **2.3. Tritium activity concentration measurements**

159 In order to monitor the evaporation of the medium from both the crystallizers and the 160 plates, tritium activity concentration was measured in the beakers (1 replicate/crystallizer, 161 once a day) and in the crystallizers (3 replicates/crystallizer, after 0; 24; 48 and 96 hours 162 of exposure). The sampling and the measurement was adapted from Schiano Di Lombo et 163 al.⁵. The water sampling, differing depending on the activity concentration used in the 164 experiment, is presented in Table 1. All 1 mL samples were diluted in 19 mL of the liquid 165 scintillation cocktail (Ultima Gold LLT, PerkinElmer). The liquid scintillation 166 measurements were done using a Quantulus (Quantulus 1220, Perkin Elmer) monitored by 167 WinQ (1220-307 WinQ, Perkin Elmer). Each measurement was done five times and lasted 168 75 minutes.

170 **2.4. Monitoring of the embryo-larval development**

171

2.4.1. Hatching and morphometric measurements

After 24, 48, 50, 52.5, 69, 71, 73, 75, 77, 93 and 96 hours of exposure, embryos and larvae were counted in each well of the plate. Hatching time 50 % (HT50, time at which 50 % of the individuals have hatched for a same replicate) has been calculated using REGTOX® (n = 500 simulations, <u>http://www.normalesup.org/~vindimian/fr.index.html</u>) and was used in the statistical analyses.

177 Morphometric measurements were made by following the procedure already 178 presented²⁸. Briefly, 1 to 4 dpf individuals were pictured every day at the same hour using 179 a camera (Nikon D5000) connected to a binocular microscope (ZEISS SteREO Discovery 180 V20, magnification 93x). Pictures were first analysed to qualify if the individual was 181 normal or malformed, and the egg and yolk sac diameters (1 to 2 dpf) were measured using 182 ImageJ, as well as the total length of the larvae, the yolk sac and the eye diameters (3-4 183 dpf).

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2.4.2. Spontaneous tail movements of 1 dpf embryos

186 The spontaneous tail movement was measured in 1 dpf embryos using a protocol 187 adapted from the one presented by Murat et al. in 2019²⁹. Six pools of 10 embryos per 188 condition were used and, in a room set at 28 °C, 10 embryos were immobilized in 2 % w/v 189 methylcellulose in PBS and set under the light on a stereomicroscope (Nikon SMZ800) 190 connected to a high-resolution camera (acA1300-60gm, Basler, Germany). After two min 191 of acclimatation, a 5 min-video was recorded using EthoVision XT16 (Noldus, 192 Netherlands). The burst activity, the burst duration, and the burst count (%) was determined 193 using DanioScope (Noldus, Germany).

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2.4.3. Heart rate of 3 dpf larva

196 Measurement of the heart rate was measured in 3 dpf larvae using a protocol adapted from Murat et al.²⁹. Six pools of 5 larvae per condition were used. In a room set at 28 °C. 197 198 5 larvae were immobilized in 2 % w/v methylcellulose with 0.02 % MS-222 (Sigma-199 Aldrich, France) in a 55 mm petri dish. After an acclimatation period of 2 min under the 200 light on the stereomicroscope (Nikon SMZ800) connected to the high-resolution camera 201 (acA1300-60gm, Basler, Germany), a 25 seconds video was recorded using EthoVision 202 XT16 (Noldus, Germany). Heart rate (BPM) was measured using DanioScope (Noldus, 203 Germany).

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- 205 **2.5. Gene expression analysis**
- 206 **2.5.1. RNA extraction and quantification**

RNAs from the samples were extracted following the protocol published previously²⁹. 207 208 Briefly, 3 pools of 25 to 30 embryos (1 dpf) and 3 pools of 15 larvae (4 dpf) were grinded 209 using 300 µL of Trizol in ceramic beads tubes (CK14 tubes, Bertin Instruments, France) 210 with the Precellys 24 grinding machine (Bertin Instruments, France). After 211 homogenisation, all samples were stored at -80 °C. For RNA extraction, samples were 212 thawed, and all sample handling and centrifugations were done at 4 °C. Chloroform (60 213 µL) was added to the homogenized samples in Trizol, followed by vortexing and 214 centrifugation at 13000g for 15 min at 4 °C. The upper aqueous phase was collected in a 215 new tube and 60 µL of chloroform was added before centrifuging in the same conditions 216 as before. The upper aqueous phase was collected in a new tube and 150 µL of isopropyl 217 alcohol was added before the samples were vortexed and stored at -80 °C for 30 min. The 218 samples were then centrifuged during 30 min at 13000 g. The supernatant was removed,

and the RNA sample was washed using 150 μ L of ethanol 80 % (v/v) by centrifuging the sample for 5 min at 13000 g. The supernatant was then removed and once the RNA sample had been air-dried, it was diluted in 15 μ L of RNAse and DNAse free water. All RNA concentrations (ng/ μ L) and quality (RNA Integrity Number, RIN) were assessed using RNA Nano Chips (BioAnalyzer 2011, Agilent Technologies). All samples were used as all RINs were above 9.

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2.5.2. cDNA synthesis and preamplification and TaqMan assay

227 Reverse transcription was done on 1 µg of extracted RNA using the High Capacity 228 cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems), following the manufacturer's 229 instructions. After the reverse transcription was completed, 100 of cDNA were used for the 230 rest of the experiment. The cDNA samples were preamplified using Custom TaqMan 231 PreAmp Pool and TaqMan PreAmp Master Mix (2X; Applied Biosystems) while following 232 the manufacturer's instructions. Gene expression was quantified using the preamplified 233 cDNA samples in a 384-well microfluidic TaqMan Array Card in which the expression of 234 31 genes was measured for 4 samples with 3 analytical replicates (32 format). The array 235 cards were processed in the QuantStudio 7 Flex Real-Time PCR System (Applied 236 Biosystems). All Ct results were combined on the ExpressionSuite Software for 237 QuantStudio 6 & 7 Flex Real Time PCR System and exported to DataAssist v3.01 (Applied 238 Biosystems) for analysis while using the 18S RNA gene expression as an endogenous 239 control. Ct values were used to obtain Δ Ct values, each value corresponding to the gene 240 expression of each biological replicate, normalized using the reference gene. ΔCt were then used to calculate $2^{(-\Delta Ct)}$, which was in turn used to determine the fold change. All genes 241 242 studied in this experiment are presented in Supplementary Information (Table S1).

244 **2.6.** Oxidative stress measurements

245 Oxidative stress was studied by measuring ROS production. The protocol used was the one presented elsewhere³⁰. Briefly, for each condition, 20 larvae were sampled after 96 246 247 hours of exposure. All larvae were individually placed in 96-well plates. All of them received 100 µL of HBSS buffer (ThermoFisher) and 50 µL H₂DCFDA (2 mg/L in DMSO 248 0.4 %). The first ten larvae received 50 µL DMSO at 0.4 % while the other ten larvae 249 250 received 50 µL Phorbol myristate acetate (PMA, 0.8 mg/L in DMSO 0.4 %). Fluorescence 251 emitted by the reaction between H₂DCFDA and ROS was measured over 300 min (TECAN Infinite M1000). Basal and stimulated levels were calculated on the linear part of the curves 252 for larvae incubated with DMSO and PMA, respectively. ROS production index was 253 254 calculated as the ratio PMA/DMSO.

255

256 **2.7.Statistical analyses**

All statistical analyses and figures were made in R environment using RStudio using
the *PMCMR*, *PMCMRplus*, *car*, *lmtest*, *scales*, *SciViews*, *ggplot2*, *ggpubr*, *ggpmisc*, *plotly*, *plot3D*, *FSA*, *rcompanion*, *multcomp*, *drc* and *lme4* packages. The threshold chosen for
significative results was 0.05.

261 For all development and oxidative stress analyses, linear mixed models 262 (GLMM/LMM) were used. The treatment was set as the fixed variable, while variables as the crystallizer was used as a random variable. In more specific experiments as the 263 264 measurement of the spontaneous tail movement and the heartbeat, the trial was also added 265 as a random variable, which was also the case for the larval position when performing 266 statistical analyses on the larval yolk measurement. For other developmental and hatching 267 analyses, basic GLM were used as there was no variables identified as random. When the 268 normality of the residuals and the homogeneity of the variance were not met (p < 0.05),

269 data was transformed using either Log10, square root or boxcox transformations. The 270 treatment effect was then checked and, when necessary, the Tukey-HSD post-hoc test was 271 used. For the gene expression data, all analyses were made using Data Assist 3.01, where 272 Ct were used to obtain the fold change by calculating Δ Ct and 2^(- Δ Ct). All Δ Ct were 273 compared to the control values with the use of a t-test, and all p-values were adjusted using 274 the Benjamini-Hochberg False Discovery Rate.

275 Except for the gene expression, all results have been represented as boxplots. 276 Regarding the horizontal lines, the lowest one represents the first quartile, while the middle one represents the median value, and the highest one represents the third quartile. When 277 278 data points are outside of the boxplot lines, they are considered as being outliers, but were 279 not removed from the statistical analysis when there was no experimental reason to do so. 280 In the boxplots, the dots correspond the data points obtained during the experiments. When 281 different graphs are presented for the same analysis, it means the results come from 282 different experiments, and different batches of embryos.

283

3. Results

All exposure experimentations led to cumulative mortality rates below 20 % in the control condition. Exposure to tritiated thymidine at all dose rates tested did not induce any significant induction of mortality (data not shown).

288

3.1. Hatching

The hatching results are presented in Figure 1. Even if a complete hatching was observed after 96 hours of exposure, the hatching was delayed when the larvae were exposed to the intermediate and the greater tritiated thymidine activity concentrations $(4x10^4 \text{ and } 1x10^5 \text{ Bq/mL}; 170 \text{ and } 470 \,\mu\text{Gy/h})$ when compared to the control (p = 0.02 and 12 294 p < 0.01, respectively). Even if the larvae exposed to the lowest activity concentration 295 (7.5x10³ Bq/mL; 22 µGy/h) did not show a significantly longer hatching time compared to 296 controls, it also did not show any significant differences with the hatching time of the larvae 297 exposed to the intermediate activity concentration.

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3.2. Developmental defects

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3.2.1. Development measurements

The exposure of the embryos and larvae to tritiated thymidine at all dose rates tested
did not induce any skeletal malformations, nor peri-cardiac or peri-vitelline oedema (data
not shown).

304 The egg and yolk sac diameters measured on controls and embryos exposed to 22 305 μ Gy/h and 170 μ Gy/h for 1 and 2 days are presented in Table 2, alongside the yolk sac and 306 eye diameters and total length of the larvae exposed to those same dose rates for 3 and 4 307 days. First, it is seen that the embryos exposed to the lowest activity concentration for 1 308 day had a larger yolk sac than the control embryos (p = 0.02). This effect was only transient 309 as it is not observed after 4 days of exposure. Most of the morphometric differences were 310 observed for the 3 dpf larvae. Indeed, larvae exposed to both the lowest and the 311 intermediate activity concentrations were shorter than the control larvae (p = 0.03 and p < 0.03312 0.001, respectively). The yolk sac and eye diameters were also smaller for the larvae 313 exposed to the intermediate activity concentration when compared to the control (p = 0.006314 and 0.004, respectively). All those differences were only temporary as no significant 315 differences were observed for the 4 days old larvae. Through the whole experiment, no 316 significant differences were observed between both thymidine activity dose rates (22 and 317 $170 \,\mu Gy/h$).

The egg and yolk sac diameters measured on embryos exposed to 0 and 470 μ Gy/h for 1 and 2 days are presented in Table 3, alongside the yolk sac and eye diameter and lengths of the larvae exposed to those same dose rates for 3 and 4 days. When larvae were exposed to tritiated thymidine at this high dose rate, no significant morphometric changes were observed (p > 0.05).

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3.2.2. Spontaneous tail movement

After exposure to the two lowest activity concentrations (22 μ Gy/h and 170 μ Gy/h), no significant changes in the spontaneous tail movement were observed compared to the control individuals (data not shown). After exposure to the highest activity concentration (470 μ Gy/h, Figure 2), a significant increase was observed in the burst activity, the total burst duration, the burst count, and the burst count per minute. The mean burst duration was the only spontaneous tail movement measurement that was not affected by the exposure to tritiated thymidine (data not shown).

332

333 3.2.3. Heart rate

Heart rate was measured in 3 dpf larvae exposed to 0, 170 μ Gy/h and 470 μ Gy/h of tritiated thymidine (Figure 3). After exposure to tritiated thymidine at the lowest dose rate (22 μ Gy/h, data not shown), no significant change was observed in the heart rate compared to the control. After exposure to the intermediate dose rate (170 μ Gy/h), there were no significant changes in the heart rate, but a marginal increase was still observed (p = 0.07). Finally, after exposure to the highest dose rate (470 μ Gy/h), a significant decrease in the heart rate was observed (p < 0.01).

341

342 **3.3. Gene expression analysis**

343 The gene expression analysis results are presented in Figure 4. The number of 344 dysregulated genes decreased when the tritiated thymidine dose rate increased. When 345 embryos were exposed to the highest dose rate of tritiated thymidine (470 µGy/h), the 346 changes in gene expression were not significant. At 170 µGy/h, a marginal of over-347 expression was observed for *casp9*, *cyp1a* and *sod2* (p < 0.1, 1.5 to 2.5-fold increase). 348 Finally, embryos exposed to the lowest dose rate $(22 \mu Gy/h)$ showed genes that were 349 dysregulated, with all genes being overexpressed. Genes as aanat2, baxa, bbc3, bcl2, 350 *cryba*, *ddb2*, *h2ax*, *mmp13*, *mpx* and *xpc* showed a marginal overexpression (p < 0.1, fold 351 changes varying between 1.4 and 4.4), while genes as ache, casp9, crx, cry5, cyp1a, efl1a, 352 gstp1, hspb9, lyz, saga, sod2, tbpl1 and xrcc1 were all significantly overexpressed (p < 0.05, fold changes between 1.4 and 4.4). Other genes as atp1all, eef1a2, gadd45bb, oxt, 353 354 *per2* and *tnni2b.2* were also studied, but no significant variations were observed (p > 0.1, 355 data not shown).

The same genes were also studied after 4 days of exposure, but no significant dysregulation was observed in the gene expression, for all three dose rates (p > 0.1, data not shown).

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3.4. Oxidative stress measurements

The ROS production index measured in larvae after exposure to tritiated thymidine is presented in Figure 5, as well as the fluorescence levels measured after exposure of the larvae to PMA. The ROS production index only significantly rose after the exposure to the intermediate dose rate (170 μ Gy/h, p = 0.001). The basal fluorescence level (larvae only exposed to DMSO) and the stimulated fluorescence level (larvae exposed to PMA) were also analysed to obtain more information. The basal fluorescence level did not change with any of the tritiated thymidine dose rates (p > 0.05, data not shown), while the stimulated

- 368 fluorescence level increased significantly after exposure to all three dose rates (p < 0.01). 369 The stimulated level found in larvae exposed to 170 μ Gy/h was also greater to the one 370 measured in larvae exposed to 22 μ Gy/h (p < 0.01).
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4. Discussion

To assess tritiated thymidine effects on zebrafish development, hatching success, embryo and larva morphometry, as well as their spontaneous tail movements and heartbeat were studied. ROS production and expression of different genes of interest were also monitored.

377 This work showed that tritiated thymidine, while not causing significant increase of 378 the embryo-larval mortality, does affect the development of zebrafish. Indeed, the 379 embryonic development seemed to be slowed down, even if this effect was only transient, 380 with larvae being smaller after 3 days of exposure at the two lowest dose rates. These 381 observations were expected, as radiations are known to have early effects on development, 382 with zebrafish larvae being small after being irradiated for 24 h at a dose rate of 41.6 µGy/h 383 of Cs-137²³. The only difference is that in the case of that study²¹, the effect increased with the dose rate, while in the present study, effects only increased up to the intermediate dose 384 385 rate and no differences were found after exposure to the highest dose rate. More 386 specifically, these observations have already been reported in the case of tritium, where zebrafish larvae exposed for 3 days to HTO presented smaller yolk sacs and shorter lengths 387 388 after exposure to a dose rate of around 150 µGy/h. These results show that tritiated 389 thymidine might have a higher toxicity than HTO, considering this effect appeared at lower dose rate for organic form of tritium¹⁰. However, the fact that the yolk sac was smaller in 390 391 contaminated larvae compared to control ones does not match with a slower development. 392 Indeed, if the embryo development was reduced, the yolk sac in irradiated embryos would 393 be bigger than in the control, which is not the case here. Our results indicated that more 394 yolk has been consumed by embryos after exposure while the development was not 395 accelerated, leading to the hypothesis that the energy allowance is different after exposure, 396 with more energy being allowed to possible metabolic processes induced by the exposure, 397 as the repair or renewing of damaged cells, as those processes have already been observed in individuals exposed to radiations^{6,11,24,29}. Though, this change in the energy allowance 398 399 seems to be reverted when the dose rate used in the exposure reached a high value: the 400 individuals exposed to the highest dose rates seemed to develop at the same rate than the 401 control ones, while still showing a delay in hatching. Considering that there is a strong 402 relationship between ATP production and energy use, quantifying this production could help identify if this hypothesis is correct³¹. This could, for example, be done my measuring 403 404 the NADH₂ in zebrafish embryos and larvae, considering that this compound is strongly linked to the ATP production³². This could mean that, the contamination becoming too 405 406 strong, the individuals stopped trying to fight its possible deleterious effects, their energy 407 allowance thus returning to a control level.

408 The delay of the hatching is also in accordance with the development being slowed, 409 and this effect has also already been observed after exposure to gamma radiations and tritium^{3,12,23}. In teleost fish, hatching is the result of the combination of two processes: the 410 411 chorion digestion by two enzymes, the high- and low choriolytic enzymes (HCE and LCE), 412 and the tearing of the egg membrane by the twisting of the embryo once the membrane has 413 been digested¹⁶. The analysis of the spontaneous tail movements showed an increase of the 414 burst activity, the burst duration and the burst count in the embryos exposed to the highest 415 dose rate, while the exposure to the two lowest dose rates did not induce any changes. This 416 result means that the hatching delay could result from a defect of the synthesis or efficiency 417 of chorionases as the embryos either twisted in a similar way than the control ones, or even 418 more than those. An analysis of the choriolytic enzymes synthesis or activity would thus 419 help understand more about the mechanisms leading to the effect that was observed on the 420 hatching kinetic. Regarding the increase in the burst activity, such effect has already been 421 observed after exposure to gamma radiation at a dose rate of 5000 μ Gy/h but not at lower 422 or higher dose rates, while this effect was not observed after exposure to HTO, which 423 means that in the case of this effect, tritiated thymidine seems to behave like gamma 424 radiation, but at a lower dose rate^{24,29}.

425 Exposure to the highest dose rate of tritiated thymidine led to a significant decrease of 426 the heart rate. Even though the larvae were not smaller at this time point, this effect could 427 indicate a delay in the development as it is known that in the case of zebrafish, the heart rate gradually increases with time^{24,33}. The decrease of the heartbeat after exposure to a 428 429 contaminant has already been observed after exposure to gamma radiations at a dose rate 430 equivalent to the one used in this study (*i.e.* 500 μ Gy/h), but also after exposure to some 431 organic contaminants butyl benzyl phthalate, propranolol, thifluzamide, as penconazole^{16,26,33,34}. No other markers studied in this work can help understand the 432 433 mechanisms lying under the appearance of such an effect, but as the cardiac development 434 in zebrafish is quite a complex system, we could for example hypothesize that there was 435 an issue during the development, or that the thyroid gland was affected by tritium, as it has 436 an important role on the regulation of the heartbeat and is also one of the targets already identified in the case of radiations^{3,12,35,36}. 437

438

While this work highlighted different macroscopic effects that tritiated thymidine had
on zebrafish in its early life stages, it also showed the presence of an increase in the ROS
production and of a dysregulation of many genes. Such an increase of the ROS production
has already been observed after exposure to radiation dose rates as low as 134 µGy/h (Cs-

443 137), but also after exposure of fathead minnows to HTO and organic tritium (25 and 180 kBq/L)^{7,11}. In a more general way, several studies reported that low-dose radiations had 444 effects that have been associated with ROS production^{37,38}. ROS are considered as being 445 446 unstable and highly reactive compounds, including O_2^{-1} or H_2O_2 , and these compounds are 447 also considered as being able to induce oxidative stress and oxidative damage, which is 448 thus in accordance with the hypothesis that organic tritium could lead to the induction of 449 oxidative stress in zebrafish³⁹. Though, considering that using H_2DCFDA as a probe only 450 gives an indirect information on the H_2O_2 production, that means that our results only 451 showed a part of the response to oxidative stress.

452 Regarding the gene expression measured after 24 hours of exposure, the results 453 indicated that there is a significant over-expression of the genes only after exposure to the 454 lowest dose rate, while the exposure to the intermediate dose rate only led to a tendency 455 towards the over-expression of a few genes, and the exposure to the highest dose rate led 456 to no gene dysregulation. This result, alongside the absence of a significant increase in the 457 ROS production index could, for example, highlight a decrease in the metabolic activity of 458 the individuals. This discussion will only focus on the results observed after exposure to 459 the lowest dose rate. The analysis of the genes being over-expressed (p < 0.05) or nearly overexpressed (p < 0.1) showed that many of those genes are involved in the same 460 461 processes. For example, the apoptotic process (baxa, bbc3, casp9, bcl2), DNA binding 462 (cry5, crx, efl1, h2ax, tbpl1) and repair (cry5, ddb2, h2ax, xpc, xrcc1) seem to be affected, 463 as most of the genes involved in these processes and studied here are overexpressed (either 464 significantly or only as a tendency). These observations are in accordance with results 465 obtained in various studies that showed that processes linked to DNA synthesis or repair 466 are easily affected by the exposure to tritium or other radionuclides, even if in most studies, the gene expression is also dysregulated in later development stages $(e.g. 96 \text{ hpf})^{15,17}$. This 467

468 seems to indicate that DNA might be damaged as a result from the exposure, which was 469 expected considering the fact that it has been shown that a significant portion of the tritium 470 ends up bound to the DNA⁵. However, no conclusions can be drawn concerning DNA 471 integrity since DNA damage was not experimentally measured in the present study. 472 Besides, two genes mpx and sod2 involved in the regulation of oxidative stress were also 473 upregulated, confirming that there might be ROS overproduction in zebrafish embryos 474 following tritiated thymidine exposure. This would also be in accordance with different 475 studies where genes involved in the oxidative stress regulation were overexpressed after exposure to $HTO^{10,15}$. In contrast, it differs with the downregulation of the *mpx* gene that 476 477 was observed in zebrafish embryos and larvae after being irradiated at a dose rate of 1240 μ Gy/h (Cs-137), thus showing that tritiated thymidine might behave more like HTO, even 478 479 though all genes showed dysregulation at low dose rates only, which was not the case after exposure to HTO.^{11,15}. 480

481

482 **5.** Conclusion

483 The toxicity of tritiated thymidine on early life stages at different biological levels was 484 investigated herein. While this study reported that tritiated thymidine did not induce any 485 significant mortality, it was also shown that it can affect zebrafish embryo-larval 486 development in different ways. Indeed, organic tritium affected hatching kinetic, with 487 hatching being delayed and a transient decrease in the development kinetics. Those 488 developmental effects were observed at all dose rates tested, even though the nature of the 489 effect depended on the tritiated thymidine activity concentration. This work also showed 490 an increase in the ROS production levels after four days of exposure. This study also 491 highlighted a dysregulation of many genes after one day of exposure, even if the latter was 492 only transient, as no effect were observed after four days of exposure and after exposure to 20 493 greater dose rates. The dysregulated genes are involved in different cellular processes, *i.e.*, 494 development, oxidative stress, DNA repair and apoptosis. It confirms that tritium does have 495 an effect on zebrafish individuals at different molecular scales and, more specifically, on 496 various molecular targets and processes. Linking all the results presented in this paper is 497 not possible, as the investigation of other markers as, for example, the protein levels, would 498 be needed to do so. The study of other biological markers, as the protein expression, is also 499 considered necessary to confirm the gene dysregulation results presented in this paper. This 500 study does not highlight any specific toxic effects arising from the exposure to tritium in 501 its organic phase. As the experimental design of this study limited the exposure length to 502 four days, later development stages could not be studied. Those stages should be the focus 503 of a later study to confirm the results presented in this paper. The study of the same toxicity 504 markers and other ones, as for example carcinogenic effects or reproductive behavior, 505 could also give more information on tritiated thymidine toxicity and possible specific 506 effects.

- 507
- 508 **6.** Acknowledgements

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513

514 **7. References**

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623 Tables

Table 1. Amount of solution sampled in the beakers (1 replicate/beaker) and the crystallizers (3626replicate/crystallizer) depending on the activity concentration (Bq/mL, ± 10 %) used during the627experiment

Nominal activity concentration (x10 ³ Bq/mL)	Beaker sampling	Crystallizer sampling
7.5 ± 0.8	1 mL	10 μL diluted in 990 μL of tritium-free water
40 ± 4.0	1 mL	10 μL diluted in 990 μL of tritium-free water
110 ± 11.0	100 μL diluted in 900 μL of tritium-free water	10 μL of a 1:10 solution in 990 μL of tritium-free water

631 **Table 2.** Developmental characteristics (mm) measured on control and contaminated 632 zebrafish early life stages (0, 22 and 170 μ Gy/h). Measurements were made on embryos (1 633 and 2 dpf) and larvae (3 and 4 dpf), and the number in parenthesis corresponds to the 634 number of individuals used for each measurement. Bold numbers and * indicate a 635 significative difference with the control (GLM and GLMM, p<0.05)

Measurement (mm)	Control	22 μGy/h	170 µGy/h
Egg diameter (1 dpf)	1.25 ± 0.06 (19)	1.26 ± 0.06 (20)	1.25 ± 0.05 (19)
Yolk sac diameter (1 dpf)	0.52 ± 0.03 (19)	0.55 ± 0.04 * (20)	0.52 ± 0.04 (19)
Egg diameter (2 dpf)	1.26 ± 0.07 (11)	1.24 ± 0.03 (12)	1.22 ± 0.05 (11)
Yolk sac diameter (2 dpf)	$0.50 \pm 0.03 \; (11)$	$0.49 \pm 0.04 \; (12)$	$0.50 \pm 0.04 \; (11)$
Larva length (3 dpf)	3.22 ± 0.16 (17)	3.03 ± 0.21* (14)	2.97 ± 0.13* (16)
Yolk sac diameter (3 dpf)	$0.42 \pm 0.06 \ (17)$	$0.39 \pm 0.06 \ (14)$	0.37 ± 0.07* (16)
Eye diameter (3 dpf)	$0.26 \pm 0.02 \; (17)$	0.25 ± 0.04 (14)	0.22 ± 0.04* (16)
Larva length (4 dpf)	3.22 ± 0.16 (15)	3.30 ± 0.18 (16)	3.31 ± 0.20 (17)
Yolk sac diameter (4 dpf)	$0.35 \pm 0.08 \ (15)$	0.37 ± 0.04 (16)	$0.38 \pm 0.05 \; (17)$
Eye diameter (4 dpf)	0.26 ± 0.04 (15)	0.27 ± 0.02 (16)	$0.27 \pm 0.03 \; (17)$

636

Table 3. Developmental characteristics (mm) measured on control and contaminated640zebrafish early life stage (0 and 470 μ Gy/h). Measurements were made on embryos (1 and6412 dpf) and larvae (3 and 4 dpf), and the number in parenthesis corresponds to the number642of individuals used for each measurement. No significant differences were observed643between both conditions (GLM and GLMM, p<0.05)</td>

Control	470 μGy/h
1.21 ± 0.07 (18)	1.19 ± 0.06 (16)
0.51 ± 0.04 (18)	0.50 ± 0.03 (16)
1.20 ± 0.06 (15)	1.20 ± 0.07 (13)
$0.48 \pm 0.05 \; (15)$	0.45 ± 0.05 (13)
3.46 ± 0.23 (16)	3.32 ± 0.29 (17)
0.47 ± 0.09 (16)	0.44 ± 0.09 (17)
0.30 ± 0.04 (16)	0.28 ± 0.04 (17)
$3.61 \pm 0.26 \ (15)$	3.56 ± 0.17 (17)
$0.37 \pm 0.09 \ (15)$	0.35 ± 0.04 (17)
$0.30 \pm 0.04 \; (15)$	0.31 ± 0.04 (17)
	Control $1.21 \pm 0.07 (18)$ $0.51 \pm 0.04 (18)$ $1.20 \pm 0.06 (15)$ $0.48 \pm 0.05 (15)$ $3.46 \pm 0.23 (16)$ $0.47 \pm 0.09 (16)$ $0.30 \pm 0.04 (16)$ $3.61 \pm 0.26 (15)$ $0.37 \pm 0.09 (15)$ $0.30 \pm 0.04 (15)$

647 Figures



650Figure 1. Average hatching time (HT50, hours, N = 8) measured in control and exposed651zebrafish embryos to tritiated thymidine (panel A: 22 and 170 μ Gy/h; panel B: 470 μ Gy/h).652ANOVA, a<b, p<0.05.</td>



656 **Figure 2.** Burst activity (%, panel A), total burst duration (s, panel B), burst count per 657 minute (panel C) and total burst count (panel D) measured in control and contaminated 658 zebrafish embryos (0 and 470 μ Gy/h) after 24 hours of exposure to tritiated thymidine. 659 GLMM/LMM, N = 60, a
b, p < 0.05.



662Figure 3. Heart rate (BPM, N = 30) measured in control and contaminated 3 dpf zebrafish663larvae (0, 170 μ Gy/h, panel A and 470 μ Gy/h, panel B) after three days of exposure to664tritiated thymidine. GLMM/LMM, a<b, p < 0.05.</td>



667Figure 4. Fold change in gene expression in comparison to controls of 24 different genes668in 1 dpf fish embryos exposed for 24 h to tritiated thymidine (22, 170 and 470 μ Gy/h).669Genes studied are involved in different biological processes such as DNA binding (A),670DNA repair (B), apoptosis (C) and response to the oxidative stress (D). Statistics: t-test and671adjustment of the p-value using the Benjamini-Hochberg False Discovery Rate- (-p < 0.1;</td>672* p < 0.05 when comparing to the control).</td>





- 678 panels: 22 and 170 μ Gy/h, right panels: 470 μ Gy/h) after 4 days of exposure to tritiated 679 thymidine. ANOVA, a<b<c, p < 0.05. Each point represents a data point acquired during
- 680 the experiment.

683 Supplementary Information

Table S1. Genes chosen for the Real Time PCR Analysis and their corresponding Assay685IDs. All genes were chosen by using the gene library provided by ThermoFisher.

Gene Name	Assay_ID
aanat2	Dr03432880_m1
ache	Dr03093481_m1
atp2a11	Dr03085336_m1
baxa	Dr03432977_m1
bbc3	Dr03168831_s1
bcl2l1	Dr03080274_m1
casp9	Dr03121787_m1
crx	Dr03131743_m1
cry5	Dr03138452_m1
cryba2b	Dr03160512-m2
crygm2d13	Dr03426056_gH
cypla	Dr03112444_m1
ddb2	Dr03429621_m1
eef1a2	Dr03076192_m1
elf1	Dr03118707_m1
gadd45bb	Dr03083476_m1
gstp1	Dr03118988_m1
h2ax	Dr03145737_s1
hspb9	Dr03436228_s1
lyz	Dr03099437_m1
mmp13a	Dr03438515_g1

трх	Dr03075659_m1
oxt	Dr03112593_m1
per2	Dr03093697_m1
plekhs I	Dr03093697_m1
saga	Dr03435203_m1
sod2	Dr03100019_m1
tbpl1	Dr03088430_m1
tnni2b.2	Dr03111539_g1
хрс	Dr03148843_m1
xrcc1	Dr03115324_m1