Development of an exposure protocol for toxicity test (FEET) for a marine species: the European sea bass (Dicentrarchus labrax)

Soloperto Sofia ^{1, *}, Aroua Salima ¹, Jozet-Alves Christelle ^{2, 3}, Minier Christophe ¹, Halm-Lemeille Marie-Pierre ⁴

¹ UMR-I 02 SEBIO - Stress Environnementaux et BIOsurveillance des milieux aquatiques, Université du Havre, 25, Rue Philippe Lebon, 76600, Le Havre, France

² Unicaen, CNRS, Normandie Univ, 14000, Caen, France

³ EthoS (Éthologie animale et humaine) - UMR 6552, Univ Rennes, CNRS, F-35000, Rennes, France

⁴ Unité Littoral Ifremer, LITTORAL, F-14520, Port-en-Bessin, France

* Corresponding author : Sofia Soloperto, email address : sofia.soloperto@univ-lehavre.fr

Abstract :

Regulatory assessment of the effects of chemicals requires the availability of validated tests representing different environments and organisms. In this context, developing new tests is particularly needed for marine species from temperate environments. It is also important to evaluate effects that are generally poorly characterized and seldom included in regulatory tests. In this study, we designed an exposure protocol using European sea bass (Dicentrarchus labrax) larvae. We examined classical toxicological values (LCx) as well as behavioral responses. By comparing different hatching and breeding strategies, we defined the optimal conditions of exposure as non-agitated conditions in 24- or 48-well microplates. Our exposure protocol was then tested with 3,4-dichloroaniline (3,4-DCA), a recommended reference molecule. Based on our results, the 96 h LC50 for 3,4-DCA corresponded to 2.04 mg/L while the 168 h LC50 to 0.79 mg/L. Behavioral analyses showed no effect of 3,4-DCA at low concentration (0.25 mg/L). In conclusion, the present work established the basis for a new test which includes behavioral analysis and shows that the use of sea bass is suitable to early-life stage toxicity tests.

Keywords : Early-life stage toxicity test, Temperate conditions, Sea bass larvae, 3,4-Dichloroaniline, Behavioral test, 96 h LC50

45 Introduction

46

In the last decade, the global production of chemicals has almost doubled and projections 47 48 indicate a continual growth in the coming years (SEI et al. 2019). As a consequence, 49 concern about the environmental and health effects of these substances are strongly 50 expressed (Nellemann et al. 2008; Magulova and Priceputu 2016; Van den Berg et al. 2017; 51 SEI et al. 2019; Fiedler et al. 2020). At each step of a chemical's life cycle (synthesis, 52 incorporation in products, use and end of life of the products), wastes are produced. If 53 released into the environment, they are distributed based on their chemo-physical properties 54 in different environmental compartments including air, soil, water, or biota (Koumanova 55 2006; Mackay et al. 2006; Bonmatin et al. 2015) and may exert detrimental effects. Chemicals release may also arise from various sources once produced, including domestic, 56 industrial (via wastewater disposals) and agricultural (discharge from the field to surface 57 waters or percolate to groundwaters) uses (Olsson et al. 2013; Keller et al. 2014; SEI et al. 58 2019). Many substances may then contaminate surface or groundwater, eventually reaching 59 oceans (Roose et al. 2011). Moreover, during their transport, chemicals can undergo 60 physical (e.g., volatilization) or chemical transformations (e.g. photodegradation, microbial 61 degradation, hydrolysis) generating new by-products (Koumanova 2006; Olsson et al. 62 2013). The complex mixture thus occurring in aquatic ecosystems gives rise to considerable 63 concern due to the potential adverse effects it may induce on ecosystems (Roose et al. 2011; 64 Potter 2013; Bashir et al. 2020). 65

In 2006, the EU adopted a regulation named REACH (Registration, Evaluation, 66 Authorisation and Restriction of Chemicals) to collect information on the properties and 67 hazards of all chemicals produced and traded in the continent (REACH 2006). The aim is to 68 request industries/producers to assess and manage environmental and health risks posed by 69 70 produced chemicals (REACH 2006). To reach this scope, animal experimentation remains 71 essential. For instance, the assessment of toxic effects and thresholds of most chemicals 72 requires a step of testing on model fish species (Balzano et al. 2015). To help the users, test 73 guidelines have been published by the OECD (OECD 2019).

Nevertheless, driven by the 3 Rs approach (*Reduce, Reuse, Recycle*), EU authorities encourage the development and the use of alternative tests as (Q)SAR (Quantitative Structure-Activity Relationship), tests on algae, on invertebrates, or embryo-larval test 77 (ECHA 2014). Among them, the fish embryo toxicity test (FET) and the fish 78 eleutheroembryo toxicity test (FEET) are two examples of alternative methods encouraged 79 (Embry et al. 2010). The FET is a short-term test (96 h) designed to determine the acute 80 toxicity of chemicals on embryonic stages of fish (OECD 2013; Embry et al. 2010). The 81 FEET instead involved the use of larvae during the eleutheroembryonic stage which extends 82 from hatching until resorption of the yolk-sack (Balon 1975; Embry et al. 2010). In most 83 species, the eleutheroembryonic stage is more sensitive to chemical exposure than the 84 embryonic stage, most likely due to the absence of a protective chorion (Woltering 1984; 85 Léonard et al. 2005). Developing tests on early-life stages is hence advisable as they are 86 simultaneously precious alternatives to animal testing (as intended by the 3 R's rule) and 87 sensitive tools to analyze toxicity and sub-lethal endpoints such as growth and behavior.

88

89 For toxicological studies, the most commonly used model organisms are zebrafish (Danio 90 rerio), fathead minnow (*Pimephales promelas*) and Japanese medaka (Oryzias latipes) 91 (OECD 2013). Despite the advantages provided by these species for laboratory testing (easy 92 to maintain and breed, very short generation time etc.), they are not representative of the 93 various ecosystems encountered in Europe (OECD 2013, 2014). The European chemical 94 agency (ECHA) has already underlined the need to include European native species into routine toxicology tests (Balzano et al. 2015). The European sea bass (Dicentrarchus 95 *labrax*) is a pelagic teleost native to European and North Africa coastlines (Kaushik 2009; 96 Sánchez Vázquez and Muñoz-Cueto 2014). Due to its high commercial value, it has been 97 98 largely studied and is intensively produced in Mediterranean aquaculture industries (Pickett 99 and Pawson 1994; Bagni 2020). In addition, the sea bass has already been successfully used 100 in several short- and long-term toxicological studies evaluating the effects of exposure to 101 heavy metals, surfactants, insecticides or oil dispersants (Athanassopoulou et al. 2002; ICRAM Taxa 2005; Spaggiari et al. 2005; Almeida et al. 2012; Balzano et al. 2015; Della 102 Torre et al. 2015) and it has been added to the list of recommended species for test on 103 104 juveniles and adult (OECD 1992, 2014). It appears therefore as a good candidate for a 105 model species representing European pelagic and temperate environments.

106

107 The aim of the present study was to develop an exposure protocol using a native European 108 pelagic species, the European sea bass. More specifically, the objectives were 1) to design 109 an optimized procedure for incubation/rearing, 2) to assess the repeatability and define the 110 toxicological parameters (LC₅₀, LC₁₀) after exposure to a reference molecule, 3,4-111 dichloroaniline (3,4-DCA), and 3) to evaluate the effects of sub-lethal concentrations of 3,4-112 DCA exposure on behavioral endpoints (Annex I). 3,4-DCA is an intermediate in the 113 chemical industry for the synthesis of the herbicide propanil and a biodegradation product 114 of several phenylcarbamates and acylanilide herbicides. It is classified as "very toxic to 115 aquatic organisms" by the ECHA (Munn et al. 2006). Its use as a reference molecule in 116 toxicology has been suggested due to its high acute and chronic toxicity to aquatic 117 organisms (Crossland 1990; Munn et al. 2006; Schäfers and Nagel 1993). Standard 118 toxicological values for 3,4-DCA, as the LCx, have been already determined using different 119 model fish species, allowing assessment of the sensitivity of our test (Adema and Vink 120 1981; Hodson 1985; Call et al. 1987; Becker et al. 1990; Schäfers and Nagel 1993; Busquet 121 et al. 2014).

122

123 Material and Methods

124

125 *1. Test species*

Fertilized eggs of European sea bass were purchased from a local hatchery (Ecloserie 126 Marine de Gravelines Ichtus, Gravelines, France). After their arrival to the laboratory, 127 fertilized eggs (~ 2 dpf, stage 10-18S as described by Cucchi et al. (2012)) were gradually 128 acclimate to filtered and aerated natural seawater with a salinity corresponding to 33 psu 129 and transferred into a cylindroconical aquarium ($d \sim 10-20 \text{ L}^{-1}$). Eggs were kept at a 130 constant temperature of 15 °C in darkness. All procedures were performed in accordance 131 with the French and European legislation concerning the protection of animals used in 132 experimentation. Procedures undertaken were approved (#10263-2017061911009684v3) by 133 the regional ethical committee (Comité d'Ethique Normandie en Matière d'Expérimentation 134 Animale, CENOMEXA; agreement number 54). 135

136 137

2. *Preliminary experiment 1*: Definition of the experimental conditions

138 The experiment was performed at the CREC (Centre de Recherche en Environnement139 Côtier, University of Caen). Different incubations and rearing conditions were evaluated by

140 comparing in parallel: 1) incubation volume; 2) agitation conditions; 3) frequencies of141 medium change (Annex II).

Incubation volume Eggs (stage18-22 S) were individually transferred in either 48- or 24-well
culture plates (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Denmark) containing 1 and 2 mL of natural
seawater respectively. A single egg was placed in each well.

145 Agitation conditions Culture plates were submitted to three different conditions: non-146 agitated, agitation before hatching, and agitation during the whole experiment. For the 147 agitated conditions, plates were disposed on a moving benchmark (BenchRocker[™] 2D, 148 Benchmark Scientific) with an average speed of 90 rotations per minute.

Frequency of medium changes Culture plates were submitted to three different conditions: no change, daily change, changes every 3.5 days. One third of each plate (24-wells and 48wells) was dedicated to one of the medium change conditions leading to a different number of replicates per kind of plate (n=16 or 32 according to microplate type). For changing medium, half of the well volume was slowly pipet out and replaced by the same volume of new medium. Plates were incubated in the dark at 15°C in an incubator (R Biopharm) for 10 days.

156

157 Hatching rate, calculated as cumulative percentage of hatched eggs per total eggs, and 158 subsequent larval survival rate, percentage of alive larvae per total larvae, were recorded 159 daily. Embryonic and larval death were determined by coagulation and absence of 160 movement/response to stimuli, respectively.

161 Concentrations of oxygen (HANNA, HI 9828) and nitrites (visocolorECO, Macherey-162 Nagel, France) were measured every 48h. At the end of the experiment, larvae were 163 sacrificed with an overdose (250 mg/L) of buffered tricaine methanesulfonate (MS-222; 164 Sigma-Aldricht, France).

- 165
- 166

3. Preliminary experiment 2: 3,4-DCA range-finding

167 The experiment was performed at the CREC (Centre de Recherche en Environnement 168 Côtier, University of Caen). To identify a relevant window of exposure for LC*x* 169 determination, the first assay was performed using wide-range of 3,4-dichloroaniline (3,4-170 DCA, purity: \geq 98 %, Sigma-Aldricht, France) concentrations. In 24-well plates, eggs were 171 individually allocated in wells filled with 2 ml of natural seawater (33 psu). Plates were then 172 placed in an incubator at 15°C, in the dark. The experiment included one control group in 173 seawater, plus four groups exposed to increasing concentrations of 3,4-DCA. Three replicates were performed for each group (number of eggs per group = 72). A stock solution 174 of 3,4-DCA (100 mg/L) was prepared in distilled water. Then, test solutions were obtained 175 176 by serial dilutions of the stock solution in natural and filtered seawater at concentrations of: 177 10, 1, 0.1 and 0.01 mg/L. For each test solution, aliquots were prepared and stored at -20°C 178 until the day of exposure (i.e. day of medium change). 3,4-DCA is readily soluble in water 179 (water solubility = 580 mg/L at 20 °C) and is characterized by a low Kow (log Pow = 2.7) 180 which ensure a complete dissolution in water. As no significant degradation of 3,4-DCA 181 occurs in surface waters (estimated half-lives of 18 days) (Munn et al. 2006), no degradation 182 is assumed during the test duration.

183

At 15 °C, sea bass eggs hatching occurs at ca. 92-93 hpf (Cucchi et al., 2012). The 184 185 experiment started (t0) when hatching rate reached 80 %; non-hatched eggs were replaced with newly hatched larvae from a stock population. At t0, half of each well content was 186 replaced by 1 ml of the corresponding test solution to reach the final desired concentrations 187 (1X), namely 5, 0.5, 0.05 and 0.005 mg/L 3,4-DCA. Control group underwent the same 188 189 procedure using seawater. Test solutions were renewed every 48h to allow water 190 oxygenation and avoid 3,4-DCA degradation. Sea bass larvae were not fed as exogenous 191 feeding start at ca. 8 dph, age corresponding to mouth opening (Sánchez Vázquez & 192 Muñoz-Cueto, 2014). The duration of the exposure was 10 days and survival rate was 193 recorded daily. At the end of the experiment, larvae were sacrificed with an overdose of MS-194 222.

- 195
- 196 *4. Main Experiments*
- 197
- 198

4.1 LCx determination

A first experiment for LC*x* determination was performed at the CREC (experiment 1, May 200 2018) and repeated twice at IFREMER in Port-en-Bessin (experiment 2, July 2018; 201 experiment 3, November 2018). Seawater used by both laboratories was pumped at the 202 same location (Luc-Sur-Mer, France; Platform: 6200310). Characteristics of natural sea 203 water at the sampling location is described in details in Annex III. 204 Fertilized eggs were individually placed in 24-well plates filled with 2 ml of oxygenated sea 205 water (33 psu) at 15°C, in a dark incubator. The experiment included one control group in 206 seawater, plus five exposed groups to 3,4-DCA at the following concentrations 0.25, 0.50, 1, 207 2 and 4 mg/L. The experiment (start and renewal of test solutions) was performed following 208 the protocol described above (see: Preliminary experiment 2). The number of replicates was 209 five in experiment 1 (n=120 per experimental group) and three in experiment 2 and 3 (n=72 210 per experimental group). Survival rate was daily recorded over 8 days and at the end of the 211 experiment, larvae were sacrificed with an overdose of MS-222.

212

213

4.2 Behavioral test

At the end of the exposure period of experiment 3, a behavioral test was performed with alive individuals from control (n=28) and 0.25 mg/L 3,4-DCA conditions (n=14). Plates were placed in a light-controlled chamber with infrared backlight, with a camera (Sony FDR-AX53) placed on the top. After 5 minutes of acclimation, larvae were recorded directly in their wells for 10 minutes.

219

Recordings were analyzed using a video tracking software (Ethovision XT 10, Noldus). Each well was virtually divided into a central ($\frac{1}{2}$ well diameter) and a peripheral zone. An increased time spent in the inner or outer zone (*i.e.* thigmotaxis) would indicate an increased exploratory behavior or anxiety-like behavior, respectively. Behavioral endpoints included distance traveled and time spent in each well-zone.

- 225
- *226 5. Statistics*

227 Data were computed using R software (version 3.5.1).

228

229 Preliminary experiment 1: To determine the best rearing conditions the effects incubation 230 volume, agitation condition, and frequency of medium change were analyzed using 231 generalized linear models fitted with a binomial distribution (GLM: glm function). Removal 232 of non-significant effects and model selection for the GLM analyses were based on Akaike 233 information criterion.

Preliminary experiment 2: Effects of time (i.e. number of exposure days) and 3,4-DCA concentration on larvae survival were analyzed using generalized linear models fitted with a binomial distribution (GLM: glm function). Removal of non-significant effects and model selection for the GLM analyses were based on Akaike information criterion. Survival rates were compared daily using the Fisher's exact test for count data with Bonferroni correction for multiple pairwise comparisons.

241

Main experiments: Effects of time and 3,4-DCA exposure on survival rate were evaluated as described above (see: Preliminary experiment 2). LC_{50} and LC_{10} values at 96 h and 168 h were calculated using MOSAIC survivalguts-fit (Modeling and Statistical tools for ecotoxicology; <u>https://mosaic.univ-lyon1.fr/guts</u>).

246

247 *Behavioral analysis*: Comparison of the distance traveled and the time spent in each well-248 zone between exposed and control groups were performed using non-parametric analyses 249 (exact permutation tests; wilcox_test function in coin package).

- 250
- 251 **Results**

252

253

1. Preliminary experiment 1: Definition of the experimental conditions

For each experimental conditions, the hatching rate was analyzed at day 1 and day 2. 254 Hatching rate was dependent on agitation condition (p < 0.001) and day (p < 0.001) (Fig. 255 1), with a significant interaction between these factors (p < 0.001). The hatching rate was 256 higher at day 1 in agitated condition (86 %) in comparison with non-agitated condition (44 257 %), but this difference was no longer observed at day 2 (93 % and 94 % in agitated and non-258 agitated conditions, respectively) revealing no differences in the overall hatching success 259 (Fig.1). Concerning the other conditions, incubation volume or frequency of medium 260 261 change, no significant effect was observed on hatching rate.

262

The larval survival rate was measured for the different experimental conditions between day 264 2 and day 9. The survival rate was statically dependent on incubation volume (p = 0.011), 265 and day (p < 0.001) and decreased from 100 % (at day 2) to 88 % and 84 % (at day 9) in the 266 48- and 24-well plates, respectively. A significant interaction between incubation volume and frequency of medium change was also found (p < 0.001). In 48-well plates the best frequency of medium change was 3.5 days while for the 24-well plates it corresponded to 24h. No effect of agitation or medium change conditions was observed on survival rates. Overall, the survival rates were thus very similar at the end of the experiments, with a mean mortality rate of 1.5-2% per day (Fig. 2). A follow-up of larvae morphology during the 8 days test is shown in Annex IV.

273 Dissolved oxygen and nitrite levels were measured every 48 h. Average concentrations 274 corresponded to 7.38 mg/L for O_2 and 0.03 mg/L for NO_2^- and no evidence of any 275 detrimental condition was observed.

These results led to the following exposure conditions for the experiments: larvae were exposed in 24-well plates under non-agitated conditions. Regarding the frequency of medium change, the choice was made in order to keep the balance between water quality, handling stress and chemical degradation.

- 280
- 281

2. *Preliminary experiment 2*: 3,4-DCA range-finding

In order to define a relevant range of exposure for determining lethal concentrations (LC*x*), sea bass larvae were exposed to a wide range of nominal 3,4-DCA concentrations (0.005, 0.05, 0.5 and 5 mg/L) (Fig 3). Survival rate was dependent on treatment (p < 0.001) and day (p < 0.001) with a significant interaction between these factors (p < 0.001). Comparison of the daily survival rates showed a significant decrease of larval survival in the 5 mg/L group (p < 0.001; survival= 74 %) as compared to control (survival= 98 %) from day 3. In this 5 mg/L group, all the larvae were dead at day 4.

In the 0.5 mg/L group, a significant decrease in survival rate was observed from day 6 (p < 0.001; survival= 34 %) as compared to control group (survival= 96 %). From day 9, no larvae from 0.5 mg/L group was still alive.

Regarding the groups exposed to the lowest concentrations of 3,4-DCA (0.005 mg/L and 0.05 mg/L groups), no significant differences in survival rates were detected when compared to the control group (at day 10: control survival= 95 %; 0.005 mg/L survival= 92 %; and 0.05 mg/L DCA survival= 92 %; p = 1).

Based on these results, the following experiments were performed using a narrowconcentration range.

3. Main Experiments

To determine LCx values for 3,4-DCA in sea bass larvae, three independent experiments were performed using the following concentrations: 0, 0.25, 0.50, 1, 2 and 4 mg/L.

302

303 3.1 Experiment 1

304 Survival was found to be dependent on both time (p < 0.001) and treatment (p < 0.001) 305 (Fig. 4). In this experiment, from day 4, a significant decrease in survival was observed in 306 the groups 1 mg/L (survival= 80 %, p = 0.03) and 4 mg/L (survival= 77 %, p = 0.005) as compared to controls (survival= 95 %). In addition, in the group 4 mg/L the survival rate 307 308 continued to decline until day 8, thereafter all the larvae were dead. In the 2 mg/L group, a 309 significant difference in survival rate was detected from day 6 (survival = 60 %; p = 0.02 as compared to control survival= 91 %) and from day 8 for the 0.5 mg/L group (survival= 76 310 311 %; p < 0.001 as compared to control survival= 90 %).

312

In this experiment, at 96 h, the LC₅₀ and the LC₁₀ values obtained for 3,4-DCA were 3.87 mg/L and 3.09 mg/L, respectively (Table 1). At 168 h, the values obtained for LC were: LC₅₀=2.08 mg/L and LC₁₀ =1.61 mg/L.

316

317 3.2 Experiment 2

Survival was dependent on both time (p < 0.001) and treatment (p < 0.001), with a 318 319 significant interaction between the two factors (p < 0.001). From day 2, a significant 320 decreased in survival rate was detected in the 4 mg/L (survival = 83 %; p < 0.001) and 2 321 mg/L (survival= 90 %; p = 0.02) groups in comparison to control group (survival= 100 %). 322 Mortality reached 100 % for the 4 mg/L group at day 5 and for the 2 mg/L group at day 6 323 (Fig. 4). Regarding the 1 mg/L group, a significant effect in survival rate was observed from day 5 (survival= 60 %; p < 0.001 as compared to control group survival= 93 %). Then, it 324 continued to decline until day 7 where the mortality reached 100 %. Concerning the 0.25 325 326 mg/L and 0.5 mg/L groups, no significant differences in survival rates were observed in 327 comparison to the control group (survival 0.25 mg/L = 81%, survival 0.5 mg/L = 76 %, 328 survival control = 79 %; p = 1).

330 In this experiment, LC*x* values obtained for 3,4-DCA were: $LC_{50} = 1.57 \text{ mg/L}$ and $LC_{10} = 331 0.65 \text{ mg/L}$ at 96 h; $LC_{50} = 0.73 \text{ mg/L}$ and $LC_{10} = 0.46 \text{ mg/L}$ at 168 h (Table 1).

332

333 3.3 Experiment 3

Survival was dependent on both time (p < 0.001) and treatment (p < 0.001) with a 334 significant interaction between the two factors (p < 0.001). From day 4, a significant effect 335 336 of treatment was detected on survival in the 1 mg/L (survival = 56 %), 2 mg/L (survival = $\frac{1}{2}$ 65 %) and 4 mg/L (survival = 78 %; p < 0.001) groups in comparison to control condition 337 (survival = 97 %). On day 5, all the larvae were dead in the 4 mg/L and 2 mg/L groups, 338 339 while in the 1 mg/L group, the survival declined to 3 % (Fig.4). Regarding the 0.5 mg/L 340 group, a significant effect was detected at day 5 (survival = 81 %; p = 0.006 as compared to control survival = 96 %); and at day 6 for the 0.25 mg/L group (survival = 81 %; p = 0.006341 342 as compared to control survival = 92 %).

343

344 LCx values obtained for 3,4-DCA were LC₅₀ = 1.35 mg/L and LC₁₀ = 0.39mg/L at 96 h; 345 LC₅₀ =0.41mg/L and LC₁₀ = 0.15mg/L at 168 h (Table 1).

346

347

3.4 Behavioral test

In the experiment 3, behavioral measurements were undertaken on larvae at day 8 (control 348 n=28 and 0.25 mg/L n=14). The results obtained indicated no significant difference (p =349 350 0.99) in the total distance traveled between the larvae from the control (median \pm IQR: 76 \pm 351 66 cm) and 0.25 mg/L groups (median \pm IQR: 107 \pm 71 cm) (Table 2). A comparison of the distance traveled in the central or the peripheral part between the two groups was also 352 performed and no significant differences were observed (central part: p = 0.27; peripheral 353 part p = 0.86). Finally, the zone preference of larvae was analyzed. In both groups, the time 354 spent in the periphery was similar (p=0.21) and constituted more than 90 % of total time 355 356 (Table 2).

357

358 Discussion

- 359
- 360 1. Development of an exposure protocol

361 The set of preliminary experiments aimed at determining optimal conditions of exposure for 362 early life stage sea bass. They revealed that the use of both cell-culture plates (48- and 24well) is a convenient method providing good results in terms of hatching and survival rates. 363 364 The OECD guidelines on chemical testing give specific instruction regarding hatching (from 70 to 80 %) and post-hatching success (from 60 to 80 %) for model organisms 365 366 (OECD 2013). In our condition, the results obtained were largely above the accepted 367 survival and hatching rates, which is in accordance with a previous study performed by Panini et al. (2001), where sea bass hatching success reached 95 % and mean larval survival 368 369 90 %.

370

Culture medium agitation, was shown to be essential for hatching in several organisms as mosquitoes, crabs or fish (Diamond et al. 1995; Griem and Martin 2000; Roberts 2001; Ehlinger and Tankersley 2003; Ebrahimi et al. 2014). In the present study, the effects of agitation did not change the final results with hatching rates >80% under both agitated and non-agitated conditions after 2 days. Agitation was therefore not considered as an essential parameter for the protocol.

377

378 Finally, the frequencies of medium change tested (none, every 24h, every 3.5 days) had no effect on larvae survival. Medium renewal is needed to maintain good environmental 379 380 conditions, i.e. low concentrations of NO2⁻ and an optimal concentration of dissolved 381 oxygen. High levels of NO_2^- can compromise blood oxygen transport and cause hyperplasia, 382 vacuolisation or influence the potassium balance (Kroupova et al. 2005; Yildiz et al. 2006). NO₂⁻ concentrations as low as 0.5 mg/L were shown to impair fish fitness (Kroupova et al. 383 2005). Regarding oxygen, its depletion can have detrimental effects on growth, behavior, 384 385 physiological and immune responses (Pichavant et al. 2001; Abdel-Tawwab et al. 2019). For 386 optimal breeding conditions, dissolved O₂ should be maintain near the saturation level 387 (Abdel-Tawwab et al. 2019), which in our conditions (15 °C, 33 psu) corresponds to 7.5 388 mg/L. In our study, O_2 and NO_2^- concentrations were measured each 48 h and average 389 values correspond to 7.38 mg/L and 0.03 mg/L, respectively. These results confirm that 48 h 390 is a suitable time range for renewal of test solutions.

Nevertheless, this should be adapted to the chemo-physical properties of the molecule testedin order to prevent fluctuation of test concentrations. Regarding 3,4-DCA, the dominant loss

393 process is photo-transformation, while evaporation, hydrolysis and biodegradation are of 394 minor importance (Wolff and Crossland 1985). Its estimated half-life in surface water under photolysis is of 18 days (Munn et al. 2006). More recently, Philippe et al (2019) measured 395 396 the degradation of 3,4-DCA throughout a week in freshwater tanks hosting killifish. Results 397 showed a slow degradation, with 3,4-DCA concentrations at day 7 corresponding to half of 398 their initial values (Philippe et al. 2019). In our protocol, a frequency of medium change of 399 48h was chosen to ensure high water quality, limit handling stress and prevent fluctuation of 400 test concentrations.

401

To conclude, our results endorse a semi-static experimental design, allowing the use of both 24- or 48-well plates. In our protocol, 24-well plates were preferred to increase the number of group replicates and simultaneously reduce the total number of individuals devoted to the tests in accordance with 3R advices.

406

407

1.1 3,4-DCA exposure and LC₅₀

408 Once the conditions designed, experiments with the reference molecule 3,4-DCA were 409 performed to define LC*x* values. When pooling all three experiments together, the average 410 96 h LC₅₀ obtained corresponds to 2.04 mg/L (95 % interval of confidence: 1.89 - 2.22).

411

412 LC₅₀ experiments were carried out respectively in May, July and November. Even if the 413 management of the reproductive cycle by hormonal induction or manipulation of 414 environmental factors is well established in sea bass (Mylonas and Zohar 2000), offspring 415 fitness may vary between spontaneous and induced spawns. For example, Mañanós et al. (1997) showed a significant reduction in hatching rate and larval survival between spawns 416 from fish maintained under natural conditions and fish maintained under manipulated 417 418 temperature and photoperiods. In sea bass, the natural spawning season starts in January and 419 ends up in June for the coldest climates (Haffray et al. 2006). In our FEET assays, 420 experiment 1 (i.e. performed in May) showed a higher survival rate if compared to experiments 2 and 3 (performed outside the natural breeding season). Differences in egg's 421 fitness might also arise from genitors' choice in hatcheries. Nevertheless, the confidence 422 interval of the overall 96h LC₅₀ (2.04 mg/L) remains narrow (1.89-2.22), showing good 423 repeatability of our assay despite possible seasonal or genetic influence on larvae fitness. 424

96h LC₅₀ in sea bass larvae for 3,4-DCA, appears similar to values obtained in other fish 426 species such as rainbow trout larvae (96 h LC₅₀: 1.94 mg/L; Hodson 1985), perch larvae (96 427 h LC₅₀: 3.1 mg/L; Schäfers and Nagel 1991) and zebrafish larvae (96 h LC₅₀: 2.7 mg/L; 428 Busquet et al. 2014). In a developmental study on rare minnow, 72 h LC₅₀ corresponded to 429 4.1 mg/L for embryos and 1.1 mg/L for larvae (Zhu et al. 2013). These values suggest that 430 431 larvae are more sensitive to 3,4-DCA exposure than older fishes. Indeed, in juvenile and 432 adult organisms, the reported 96 h LC₅₀ ranged from 6.99 mg/L in juvenile fathead minnow (Call et al. 1987) or 8.5 mg/L in adult zebrafish (Becker et al. 1990) and 2.7 mg/L in adult 433 rainbow trout (Crossland 1988). Adema and Vink (1981) reported 96 h LC₅₀ values for 434 several species including to freshwater young guppy (8.5 to 9 mg/L), seawater young guppy 435 (5 mg/L), adult seawater guppy (3.5 mg/L), adult gobi (2.4 mg/L) and adult European plaice 436 437 (4.6 mg/L).

438

439 At 168 h (7 days), the average LC_{50} measured in sea bass larvae dropped down to 0.79 440 mg/L. This is in accordance with the description of 3,4-DCA made by Schäfers and Nagel 441 (1993), who defined it as a molecule of great interest due to its toxicity at low concentration 442 in extended exposures. In perch larvae (96 h LC₅₀: 3.1 mg/L, 6 days LC₅₀: 1.5 mg/L; Schäfers and Nagel 1993), European plaice (96 h LC₅₀: 4.6 mg/L, 7 days LC₅₀: 1.7 mg/L; 443 444 Adema and Vink 1981), as well as in juvenile guppy (96h LC₅₀: 8.5 mg/L, 14 days LC₅₀: 6.8 mg/L; Adema and Vink 1981), a decrease in LC_{50} was measured after extended exposure. 445 446 On the other hand, guppy (adult: 96 h LC₅₀: 4.6 mg/L, 7 days LC₅₀: 1.7 mg/L; freshwater 447 young: 96 h LC₅₀: 8.7-9.0 mg/L, 7 days LC₅₀: 8.5-8.2 mg/L; seawater young: 96 h LC₅₀: 5.0 mg/L, 7 days LC₅₀: 4.6 mg/L; Adema and Vink 1981), and gobi (96 h LC₅₀: 2.4 mg/L, 7 448 449 days LC₅₀: 2.2 mg/L; Adema and Vink 1981) showed quite similar LC₅₀ after 96h or 7 days 450 of exposure. Considering the LC_{50} at day 7, sea bass appears more sensitive to 3,4-DCA 451 exposure than the organisms reported above.

452

453 LC_x values are precious toxicological parameters. Values reported here (96h LC₅₀: 2.04 454 mg/L; 168h LC₅₀: 0.79 mg/L) can be used to assess the success and repeatability of our test 455 protocol.

457 *1.2 Behavior*

458 Quantitative structure-activity analysis by Arnold et al. (1990) suggested that 3,4-DCA might follow a polar narcosis mode of action. Indeed, reduction in locomotor activity was 459 460 detected in zebrafish exposed at concentrations as low as 0.50 mg/L (Scheil et al. 2009). Nevertheless, our results in sea bass larvae showed that 3,4-DCA exposure did not 461 462 significantly modulated the behavioral endpoints investigated, such as distance traveled (index of locomotor activity) or zone preference (index of thigmotaxis). This could be a 463 464 consequence of i) the high individual variation in terms of behavioral responses (Table 2) or 465 ii) the low exposure concentration (0.25 mg/L).

466

467 Only limited literature is available describing the effects of 3,4-DCA on animal behavior. In 468 the freshwater rotifer Brachionus culyctikrus, a dramatic decrease in locomotion (as movement cumulative duration) is observed after exposure to high concentrations of 3,4-469 DCA (80 mg/L) while no effect was detected at lower concentrations (Charoy et al. 1995). 470 In fish, Scheil et al. (2009) observed a decrease in locomotor activity in zebrafish larvae 471 after exposure to 3,4-DCA (0.5 mg/L). The authors concluded that the decrease might be the 472 consequence of the heavy body deformations registered. In another study, using an infrared 473 474 fast behavioral assay, Bichara et al. (2014) also detected a reduction in swimming activity in zebrafish larvae but in this case, the effect was observed in larvae exposed to high 475 concentrations (8 mg/L) while no effect was detected in fishes exposed at 5 mg/L. Finally, a 476 recent study performed in adult Nile tilapia showed a significant decrease of aggressive 477 behavior in fishes exposed to 80 ng/L of 3,4-DCA (Boscolo et al. 2018). In this study, 478 479 exposed tilapias also showed variations in testosterone and cortisol plasma levels leading 480 the authors to suggest potential endocrine disrupting actions of the 3,4-DCA (Boscolo et al. 481 2018).

482

Regardless the specific results obtained in our study, behavioral tests remain precious tools to investigate sub-lethal effects after chronic exposures (Clotfelter et al. 2004; Murphy et al. 2008; Sobanska et al. 2018). The protocol described is rather feasible and easy to run and may elucidate subtle mechanisms of toxicity. In fact, behavioral analyses are suggested by the ECHA as valuable additional endpoints in FET or FEET tests to screen for neurotoxicity or endocrine disruption (Clotfelter et al. 2004; Sobanska et al. 2018). The locomotor 489 activities recorded in this study could serve as a basis for future explorations and490 identification of specific effects of chemical compounds.

- 491
- 492 2. *General consideration for the adoption of a new test*

In this paper, we provide a successful example of the use of *Dicentrarchus labrax* in a simple and reliable toxicological test. Future studies including additional molecules should be carried out in order to validate and standardize our test protocol. It is important to consider that the proposed test has many advantages over its inclusion in a battery of tests to assess environmental risks.

Firstly, it is obvious that some environments are ignored by the tests currently available. 498 499 OECD approved species for standardized early life stages tests are rainbow trout, fathead minnow, zebrafish, and medaka for freshwater fish, and sheephead minnow and silverside 500 501 for estuary and marine fish (OECD 2013). Zebrafish and medaka are both native to warm 502 waters in South Asia, while fathead minnow is native to shallow, weedy lakes in North 503 America (OECD 2013; Parichy 2015). Sheephead minnow and silverside are also warm 504 water fishes native to Central and North America, more representatives of warm swamps and lagoons than open oceans. The only European species endorsed in standardized test is a 505 506 fresh water fish, the rainbow trout (OECD 2013). None of these species can be an accurate 507 representative of European marine environments.

508

509 Furthermore, it is advisable to include species tolerating different conditions of salinity and temperature, since these two parameters are known to affect pollutants fate in the 510 511 environment. Salinity is known to potentially modulate the bioavailability of several 512 contaminants such as methylmercury, copper and PAH (Barkay et al. 1997; Ramachandran 513 et al. 2006), while temperature alters degradation rates of pollutants (e.g. PCBs, PCDDs and 514 other POPs) as well as biological responses to contamination (Sinkkonen and Paasivirta 515 2000; Nardi et al. 2017). The European sea bass is a cold-water fish moving from the open 516 sea to estuaries and it is representative of European Atlantic and Mediterranean areas.

517

518 Another advantage of the sea bass lies in the egg type and embryos characteristics. Indeed, 519 when considering early life stage tests, it is obvious that the characteristics of the eggs and 520 larvae highly influence responses to chemical exposure. In a comparative study on fish 521 eggs, large differences in morphology and structure were found between pelagic and 522 demersal eggs (Lønning et al. 1988). Free-floating pelagic eggs, as in sea bass, are characterized by a thin chorion and a rather fast cleavage (Lønning et al. 1988; Siddique et 523 al. 2017). Demersal eggs instead have a thicker complex chorion, while the yolk is 524 characterized by a high lipid content, which allows eggs to hatch at a more advanced stage 525 than pelagic eggs (Lønning et al. 1988). All model fish species recommended by the OECD 526 guidelines lay adhesive, demersal eggs (Marrable 1965; Benoit and Carlson 1977; 527 Middaugh 1981; Raimondo et al. 2009; Naruse et al. 2011; OECD 2013), which give birth 528 529 to more developed larvae in comparison to pelagic species. Such differences in 530 eleutheroembryo morphology can impact the responses to chemical exposure, supporting 531 the need to consider different species in routine toxicology tests.

532

Finally, it is important to mentioned that, in contrast to model organisms, where individuals generally come from selected strains, in the present study eggs were produced in aquaculture facilities. Laboratory strains are specifically selected, and that has an impact on genetic diversity (Allendorf and Phelps 1980; Aho et al. 2006; Suurväli et al. 2020). Instead, eggs provided by aquaculture facilities, in addition to be of easy access, present the advantage to show higher genetic diversity. Therefore, they might be more representative of wild populations.

540

541 Conclusion

542

Creating new protocols and procedures for introducing native species into routine 543 toxicology tests is a challenge. This study shows the suitability of the European sea bass in 544 an early-life toxicity test. An easy and affordable exposure protocol was developed and 545 tested using 3,4-DCA as reference molecule. Sea bass appears to be as sensitive to 3,4-DCA 546 (96 h LC50) as other common model organisms such as zebrafish, fathead minnow or 547 guppy. A successful behavioral test was performed while no significant behavioral 548 disruption was detected in larvae exposed to a low concentration of 3,4-DCA. Future studies 549 investigating additional molecules would reinforce the use of the European sea bass larvae 550 551 in standardized toxicity testing.

553 **References**

- 554
- Abdel-Tawwab, M., Monier, M. N., Hoseinifar, S. H., & Faggio, C. (2019). Fish response to
 hypoxia stress: growth, physiological, and immunological biomarkers. *Fish Physiology and Biochemistry*, 45, 997–1013. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10695-019-00614-9

558 Adema, D. M. M., & Vink, I. G. J. (1981). A comparative study of the toxicity of 1,1,2-

- trichloroethane, dieldrin, pentachlorophenol and 3,4 dichloroaniline for marine and
 fresh water organisms. *Chemosphere*, *10*(6), 533–554. https://doi.org/10.1016/00456535(81)90255-1
- Aho, T., Rönn, J., Piironen, J., & Björklund, M. (2006). Impacts of effective population size
 on genetic diversity in hatchery reared Brown trout (Salmo trutta L.) populations.

564 *Aquaculture*, 253(1–4), 244–248. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquaculture.2005.09.013

Allendorf, F. W., & Phelps, S. R. (1980). Loss of Genetic Variation in a Hatchery Stock of
Cutthroat Trout. *Transactions of the American Fisheries Society*, *109*(5).

567 https://doi.org/10.1577/1548-8659(1980)109<537:logvia>2.0.co;2

Almeida, J. R., Gravato, C., & Guilhermino, L. (2012). Challenges in assessing the toxic
effects of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons to marine organisms: A case study on the
acute toxicity of pyrene to the European seabass (Dicentrarchus labrax L.).

571 *Chemosphere*, 86(9), 926–937. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2011.10.059

572 Arnold, L., Lin, D., & Schultz, T. (1990). QSAR for methyl- and/or chloro-substituted

anilines and the polar narcosis mechanism of toxicity. *Chemosphere*, 21(1–2), 183–191.

574 Athanassopoulou, F., Ragias, V., Roth, M., Liberis, N., & Hatzinikolaou, S. (2002). Toxicity

and pathological effects of orally and intraperitoneally administered ivermectin on sea

- bass Dicentrarchus labrax. *Diseases of Aquatic Organisms*, 52, 69–76.
- 577 https://doi.org/10.3354/dao052069

578 Bagni, M. (2020). Cultured Aquatic Species Information Programme. Dicentrarchus labrax.

- 579 *Cultured Aquatic Species Information Programme*. In: FAO Fisheries Division580 [Online]. 2005.
- Balon, E. K. (1975). Terminology of Intervals in Fish Development. *Journal of the*
- 582 Fisheries Research Board of Canada, 32(9), 1663–1670. https://doi.org/10.1139/f75583 196
- 584 Balzano, S., Bellaria, V., Buchetti, M., Cadoni, F., Contri, D., Croppo, M., Faraponova, O.,

- 585 Gaudino, S., Martone, C., Palazzi, D., Paina, A., Pati, A., Raso, E., Savorelli, F.,
- 586 Simeone, M., Trentini, P., & Ubaldi, V. (2015). Progetto REACH: impiego della spigola
- 587 (D.labrax L.) nei saggi di tossicità con pesci. Annual Research & Review in Biology,
- 588 8(4), www.sciencedomain.org. https://doi.org/10.9734/ARRB/2015/20527
- Barkay, T., Gillman, M., & Turner, R. R. (1997). Effects of dissolved organic carbon and
 salinity on bioavailability of mercury. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*,
- 591 63(11), 4267–4271. https://doi.org/10.1128/aem.63.11.4267-4271.1997
- 592 Bashir, I., Lone, F. A., Bhat, R. A., Mir, S. A., Dar, Z. A., & Dar, S. A. (2020). Concerns and
- 593 threats of contamination on aquatic ecosystems. In *Bioremediation and Biotechnology:*
- 594 *Sustainable Approaches to Pollution Degradation* (pp. 1–26).
- 595 https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-35691-0_1
- 596 Becker, B., Görge, G., Kalsch, W., & Zock, A. (1990). Aufnahme, Metabolismus,
- 597 Elimination und Toxizität von aromatischen Aminen bei Zebrabärblingen. UBA598 Forschungsvorhaben, 106 03 053/02.
- Benoit, D. A., & Carlson, R. W. (1977). Spawning success of fathead minnows on selected
 artificial substrates. *Progressive Fish-Culturist*, *39*(2), 67–69.
- 601 https://doi.org/10.1577/1548-8659(1977)39[67:SSOFMO]2.0.CO;2
- Bichara, D., Calcaterra, N. B., Arranz, S., Armas, P., & Simonetta, S. H. (2014). Set-up of
 an infrared fast behavioral assay using zebrafish (Danio rerio) larvae, and its
- application in compound biotoxicity screening. *Journal of Applied Toxicology*, *34*(2).
 https://doi.org/10.1002/jat.2856
- Bonmatin, J. M., Giorio, C., Girolami, V., Goulson, D., Kreutzweiser, D. P., Krupke, C.,
- 607 Liess, M., Long, E., Marzaro, M., Mitchell, E. A., Noome, D. A., Simon-Delso, N., &
- Tapparo, A. (2015). Environmental fate and exposure; neonicotinoids and fipronil.
- 609 Environmental Science and Pollution Research, 22, 35–67.
- 610 https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-014-3332-7
- Boscolo, C. N. P., Pereira, T. S. B., Batalhão, I. G., Dourado, P. L. R., Schlenk, D., & de
- 612 Almeida, E. A. (2018). Diuron metabolites act as endocrine disruptors and alter
- aggressive behavior in Nile tilapia (Oreochromis niloticus). *Chemosphere*, 191, 832–
- 614 838. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2017.10.009
- 615 Busquet, F., Strecker, R., Rawlings, J. M., Belanger, S. E., Braunbeck, T., Carr, G. J., Cenijn,
- 616 P., Fochtman, P., Gourmelon, A., Hübler, N., Kleensang, A., Knöbel, M., Kussatz, C.,

- 617 Legler, J., Lillicrap, A., Martínez-Jerónimo, F., Polleichtner, C., Rzodeczko, H., Salinas,
- E., ... Halder, M. (2014). OECD validation study to assess intra- and inter-laboratory
- 619 reproducibility of the zebrafish embryo toxicity test for acute aquatic toxicity testing.

620 *Regulatory Toxicology and Pharmacology*, 69(3), 496–511.

621 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.yrtph.2014.05.018

- 622 Call, D. J., Poirier, S. H., Knuth, M. L., Harting, S. L., & Lindberg, C. A. (1987). Toxicity of
- 623 3,4-dichloroaniline to fathead minnows, Pimephales promelas, in acute and early life-
- 624 stage exposures. Bulletin of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology, 38(2), 352–

625 358. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01606686

- 626 Charoy, C. P., Janssen, C. R., Persoone, G., & Clément, P. (1995). The swimming behaviour
- 627 of Brachionus calyciflorus (rotifer) under toxic stress. I. The use of automated
- trajectometry for determining sublethal effects of chemicals. *Aquatic Toxicology*, 32(4),

629 271–282. https://doi.org/10.1016/0166-445X(94)00098-B

- Clotfelter, E. D., Bell, A. M., & Levering, K. R. (2004). The role of animal behaviour in the
 study of endocrine-disrupting chemicals. *Animal Behaviour*, 68(4), 665–676.
- 632 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.anbehav.2004.05.004
- Crossland, N. O. (1990). A review of the fate and toxicity of 3,4-dichloroaniline in aquatic
 environments. *Chemosphere*. https://doi.org/10.1016/0045-6535(90)90054-W

Crossland, Norman O. (1988). A method for evaluating effects of toxic chemicals on the
 productivity of freshwater ecosystems. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety*.

637 https://doi.org/10.1016/0147-6513(88)90057-7

- 638 Cucchi, P., Sucré, E., Santos, R., Leclère, J., Charmantier, G., & Castille, R. (2012).
- 639 Embryonic development of the sea bass Dicentrarchus labrax. *Helgoland Marine*

640 *Research*, *66*, 199–209. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10152-011-0262-3

Della Torre, C., Buonocore, F., Frenzilli, G., Corsolini, S., Brunelli, A., Guidi, P., Kocan, A.,

- Mariottini, M., Mottola, F., Nigro, M., Pozo, K., Randelli, E., Vannuccini, M. L.,
- 643 Picchietti, S., Santonastaso, M., Scarcelli, V., Focardi, S., Marcomini, A., Rocco, L., ...
- 644 Corsi, I. (2015). Influence of titanium dioxide nanoparticles on 2,3,7,8-
- 645 tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin bioconcentration and toxicity in the marine fish European
- 646 sea bass (Dicentrarchus labrax). *Environmental Pollution*, 196, 185–193.
- 647 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2014.09.020
- Diamond, S. A., Oris, J. T., & Guttman, S. I. (1995). An inexpensive fathead minnow egg

- 649 incubation and toxicant exposure system. *Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry*,
- 650 *14*(8). https://doi.org/10.1002/etc.5620140814
- Duarte-Davidson, R., & Jones, K. C. (1996). Screening the environmental fate of organic
 contaminants in sewage sludge applied to agricultural soils: II. The potential for
- transfers to plants and grazing animals. *Science of the Total Environment*, 185(1–3),

654 59–70. https://doi.org/10.1016/0048-9697(96)05042-5

- Ebrahimi, B., Shakibi, S., & Foster, W. A. (2014). Delayed Egg Hatching of Anopheles
- gambiae (Diptera: Culicidae) Pending Water Agitation. *Journal of Medical Entomology*, *51*(3), 580–590. https://doi.org/10.1603/me13100
- ECHA. (2014). *The Use of Alternatives to Testing on Animals for the REACH Regulation*.
 https://doi.org/10.2823/22471
- 660 Ehlinger, G. S., & Tankersley, R. A. (2003). Larval hatching in the horseshoe crab, Limulus
- 661 polyphemus: Facilitation by environmental cues. *Journal of Experimental Marine*
- Biology and Ecology, 292(2), 199–212. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-0981(03)001801
- 664 Embry, M. R., Belanger, S. E., Braunbeck, T. A., Galay-Burgos, M., Halder, M., Hinton, D.
- E., Léonard, M. A., Lillicrap, A., Norberg-King, T., & Whale, G. (2010). The fish
- embryo toxicity test as an animal alternative method in hazard and risk assessment and
 scientific research. *Aquatic Toxicology*, 97(2), 79–87.
- 668 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquatox.2009.12.008
- 669 Fiedler, H., van der Veen, I., & de Boer, J. (2020). Global interlaboratory assessments of
- 670 perfluoroalkyl substances under the Stockholm Convention on persistent organic
- 671 pollutants. *TrAC Trends in Analytical Chemistry*, *124*(115459).
- 672 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trac.2019.03.023
- Griem, J. N., & Martin, K. L. M. (2000). Wave action: The environmental trigger for
 hatching in the California grunion Leuresthes tenuis (Teleostei: Atherinopsidae).
- 675 *Marine Biology*, *137*, 177–181. https://doi.org/10.1007/s002270000329
- Hodson, P. V. (1985). A comparison of the acute toxicity of chemicals to fish, rats and mice. *Journal of Applied Toxicology*, 5(4). https://doi.org/10.1002/jat.2550050403
- ICRAM Taxa. (2005). Programma di ricerca TAXA: Sperimentazione di test tossicologici su
 organismi marini, ai fini dell'applicabilità del DD 23.12.2002.
- 680 Kaushik, S. J. (2009). European sea bass, Dicentrarchus labrax. In Nutrient requirements

- 681 *and feeding of finfish for aquaculture* (pp. 28–39).
- 682 https://doi.org/10.1079/9780851995199.0028
- Keller, V. D. J., Williams, R. J., Lofthouse, C., & Johnson, A. C. (2014). Worldwide
- 684 estimation of river concentrations of any chemical originating from sewage-treatment
- 685 plants using dilution factors. *Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry*, 33(2).
- 686 https://doi.org/10.1002/etc.2441
- Koumanova, B. (2006). *Fate of chemicals in the aquatic environment*. Science, Chemicals
 as Intentional and Accidental Global Environmental Threats. NATO Security through
- 689 Springer, Dordrecht. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-5098-5_7
- Kroupova, H., Machova, J., & Svobodova, Z. (2005). Nitrite influence on fish: A review. *Veterinarni Medicina*, 50, 461–471. https://doi.org/10.17221/5650-VETMED
- 692 Léonard, M., Vanpoucke, M., Petit-Poulsen, V., & Porcher, J. M. (2005). Evaluation of
- 693 thefishembryo test as a potential alternative to the standard acutefish toxicity test
- 694 OECD203. International Symposium on Toxicity Assessment, 12.
- 695 https://doi.org/https://hal-ineris.archives-ouvertes.fr/ineris-00969994
- Lønning, S., Kjørsvik, E., & Falk-Petersen, I. B. (1988). A comparative study of pelagic and
 demersal eggs from common marine fishes in Northern Norway. *Sarsia*, 73(1).
- 698 https://doi.org/10.1080/00364827.1988.10420671
- 699 Mackay, D., Shiu, W.-Y., Shiu, W.-Y., & Lee, S. C. (2006). Handbook of Physical-Chemical
- 700 Properties and Environmental Fate for Organic Chemicals. In Handbook of Physical-
- 701 Chemical Properties and Environmental Fate for Organic Chemicals.
- 702 https://doi.org/10.1201/9781420044393
- 703 Magulova, K., & Priceputu, A. (2016). Global monitoring plan for persistent organic
- 704 pollutants (POPs) under the Stockholm Convention: Triggering, streamlining and
- catalyzing global POPs monitoring. *Environmental Pollution*, 217, 82–84.
- 706 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2016.01.022
- 707 Marrable, A. W. (1965). Cell numbers during cleavage of the zebra fish egg. *Journal of*
- *Embryology and Experimental Morphology*, *14*(1), 15–24.
- 709 https://doi.org/https://dev.biologists.org/content/develop/14/1/15.full.pdf
- 710 Middaugh, D. P. (1981). Reproductive Ecology and Spawning Periodicity of the Atlantic
- 711 Silverside, Menidia menidia (Pisces: Atherinidae). *Copeia*, *4*, 766–776.
- 712 https://doi.org/10.2307/1444176

- 713 Munn, S. J., Aschberger, K., Cosgrove, O., Pakalin, S., Paya-Perez, A., Schwarz-Schulz, B.,
- % Vergo, S. (2006). *3,4-Dichloroaniline (3,4-DCA) Summary Risk Assessment Report.*17. https://echa.europa.eu/documents/10162/29d15fce-5e74-4f9f-9c4b-befbf3ec5428
- 716 Murphy, C. A., Rose, K. A., Alvarez, M. del C., & Fuiman, L. A. (2008). Modeling larval
- 717 fish behavior: Scaling the sublethal effects of methylmercury to population-relevant
- endpoints. *Aquatic Toxicology*, 86(4), 470–484.
- 719 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquatox.2007.12.009
- 720 Mylonas, C. C., & Zohar, Y. (2000). Use of GnRHa-delivery systems for the control of
- reproduction in fish. *Reviews in Fish Biology and Fisheries*, *10*, 463–491.
- 722 https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1012279814708
- Nardi, A., Mincarelli, L. F., Benedetti, M., Fattorini, D., D'Errico, G., & Regoli, F. (2017).
- 724 Indirect effects of climate changes on cadmium bioavailability and biological effects in
- the Mediterranean mussel Mytilus galloprovincialis. *Chemosphere*, *169*, 493–502.
- 726 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2016.11.093
- 727 Naruse, K., Tanaka, M., & Takeda, H. (2011). Medaka A Model for Organogenesis,
- Human Disease, and Evolution. In *Science*. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-4-431-92691-7
- Nellemann, C., Hain, S., & Alder, J. (2008). *In dead water climate change, pollution, over- harvest, and invasive species in the world's fishing grounds.*
- 731 https://doi.org/https://www.grida.no/resources/7217
- OECD. (1992). Test No. 203: Fish, Acute Toxicity Test. In OECD Guidelines for the Testing
 of Chemicals, Section 2. https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264069961-en
- 734 OECD. (2013). Test No. 236: Fish Embryo Acute Toxicity (FET) Test. OECD Guidelines

for the Testing of Chemicals, Section 2, OECD Publishing.

- 736 https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264203709-en
- 737 OECD. (2014). Fish Toxicity Testing Framework. In OECD Series on Testing and
- Assessment. Éditions OECD. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264221437-en.
- 739 OECD. (2019). OECD series on principles of good laboratory practive and compliance
- 740 monitoring. Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development.
- 741 https://www.oecd.org/chemicalsafety/testing/oecdseriesonprinciplesofgoodlaboratorypr
- acticeglpandcompliancemonitoring.htm
- 743 Olsson, O., Khodorkovsky, M., Gassmann, M., Friedler, E., Schneider, M., & Dubowski, Y.
- 744 (2013). Fate of Pesticides and Their Transformation Products: First Flush Effects in a

- 745 Semi-Arid Catchment. *Clean Soil, Air, Water, 41*(2).
- 746 https://doi.org/10.1002/clen.201100545
- 747 Panini, E. B., Mylonas, C. C., Zanuy, S., Carrillo, M., Ramos, J., & Bruce, M. P. (2001).
- Incubation of embryos and larvae of marine fish using microtiter plates. *Aquaculture International*, 9, 189–196. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1014261830098
- Parichy, D. M. (2015). The natural history of model organisms: Advancing biology through
- a deeper understanding of zebrafish ecology and evolution. *ELife*.
- 752 https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.05635.001
- 753 Philippe, C., Hautekiet, P., Grégoir, A. F., Thoré, E. S. J., Brendonck, L., De Boeck, G., &
- Pinceel, T. (2019). Interactive effects of 3,4-DCA and temperature on the annual
- 755 killifish Nothobranchius furzeri. *Aquatic Toxicology*.
- 756 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquatox.2019.05.009
- 757 Pichavant, K., Person-Le-Ruyet, J., Le Bayon, N., Severe, A., Le Roux, A., & Boeuf, G.
- 758 (2001). Comparative effects of long-term hypoxia on growth, feeding and oxygen
- consumption in juvenile turbot and European sea bass. *Journal of Fish Biology*, *59*(4).
 https://doi.org/10.1006/jfbi.2001.1702
- 761 Potter, G. (2013). *Marine Pollution* (Bookboon.com (ed.); online edi). Bookboon.
- 762 http://bookboon.com/en/marine-pollution-ebook
- Raimondo, S., Hemmer, B. L., Goodman, L. R., & Cripe, G. M. (2010). Multigenerational
- response of the estuarine sheepshead minnow (Cyprinodon variegatus) to 17β -estradiol.
- 765II. population-level effects through two life cycles. Environmental Toxicology and
- 766 *Chemistry*, 28(11). https://doi.org/10.1897/08-540.1
- 767 Ramachandran, S. D., Sweezey, M. J., Hodson, P. V., Boudreau, M., Courtenay, S. C., Lee,
- K., King, T., & Dixon, J. A. (2006). Influence of salinity and fish species on PAH
- ⁷⁶⁹ uptake from dispersed crude oil. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, *52*(10), 1182–1189.
- 770 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2006.02.009
- 771 REACH. (2006). Regulation (EC) No 1907/2006 of the EU parliament and of the council of
- 18 December 2006 concerning the Registration, Evaluation, Authorisation and
- 773 *Restriction of Chemicals (REACH), establishing a European Chemicals Agency,*
- *amending Directive 1999/4*. Official Journal of the European Union, L 396/1-849.
- Roberts, D. M. (2001). Egg hatching of mosquitoes Aedes caspius and Ae. vittatus
- simulated by water vibrations. *Medical and Veterinary Entomology*, 15(2).

- 777 https://doi.org/10.1046/j.0269-283X.2001.00303.x
- Roose, P., Albaigés, J., Bebianno, M. J., Camphuysen, C., Cronin, M., de Leeuw, J.,
- Gabrielsen, G., Hutchinson, T., Hylland, K., Jansson, B., Jenssen, B. M., Schulz-Bull,
- D., Szefer, P., Webster, L., Bakke, T., & Janssen, C. (2011). Monitoring Chemical
- 781 Pollution in Europe's Seas: Programmes, practices and priorties for Research. In
- *Marine Board Position*. https://www.marineboard.eu/publication/monitoring-chemical pollution-europes-seas-programmes-practices-and-priorities-research
- Sánchez Vázquez, F. J., & Muñoz-Cueto, J. A. (2014). Biology of European sea bass. In C.
 Press (Ed.), *Biology of European Sea Bass*. https://doi.org/10.1201/b16043
- 786 Schäfers, C., & Nagel, R. (1991). Effects of 3,4-dichloroaniline on fish populations.
- 787 Comparison between r- and K-strategists: A complete life cycle test with the guppy
- 788 (Poecilia reticulata). Archives of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology, 27,
- 789 297–302. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01055349
- Schäfers, C., & Nagel, R. (1993). Toxicity of 3,4-dichloroaniline to perch (Perca fluviatilis)
 in acute and early life stage exposures. *Chemosphere*. https://doi.org/10.1016/00456535(93)90109-I
- 793 Scheil, V., Kienle, C., Osterauer, R., Gerhardt, A., & Köhler, H. R. (2009). Effects of 3,4-
- dichloroaniline and diazinon on different biological organisation levels of zebrafish
- (Danio rerio) embryos and larvae. *Ecotoxicology*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10646-008-
- 796 0291-0
- 797 SEI, IISD, ODI, Climate-Analytics, CICERO, & UNEP. (2019). The Production Gap: The
- discrepancy between countries' planned fossil fuel production and global production
 levels consistent with limiting warming to 1.5°C or 2°C.
- 800 https://www.unep.org/resources/report/production-gap-2020
- 801 Siddique, M. A. M., Butts, I. A. E., Linhart, O., Macias, A. D., & Fauvel, C. (2017).
- 802 Fertilization strategies for Sea Bass Dicentrarchus labrax (Linnaeus, 1758): effects of
- pre-incubation and duration of egg receptivity in seawater. Aquaculture Research,
- 804 *48*(2). https://doi.org/10.1111/are.12887
- 805 Sinkkonen, S., & Paasivirta, J. (2000). Degradation half-life times of PCDDs, PCDFs and
- PCBs for environmental fate modeling. *Chemosphere*, 40(9–11), 943–949.
- 807 https://doi.org/10.1016/S0045-6535(99)00337-9
- 808 Sobanska, M., Scholz, S., Nyman, A. M., Cesnaitis, R., Gutierrez Alonso, S., Klüver, N.,

- Kühne, R., Tyle, H., de Knecht, J., Dang, Z., Lundbergh, I., Carlon, C., & De Coen, W.
- 810 (2018). Applicability of the fish embryo acute toxicity (FET) test (OECD 236) in the
- 811 regulatory context of Registration, Evaluation, Authorisation, and Restriction of
- 812 Chemicals (REACH). *Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry*, 37(3).
- 813 https://doi.org/10.1002/etc.4055
- 814 Spaggiari, R., Gelli, F., Palazzi, D., Pregnolato, L., Venturini, F., Savorelli, F., Modugno, S.,
- 815 Floris, B., Roncarati, A., & Conti, D. (2005). Sostanze prioritarie: I pesci
- 816 (Dicentrarchus labrax, Cyprinus carpio) quali organismi bersaglio in test eco
- 817 tossicologici, di bioconcentrazione e in saggi finalizzati a valutazioni di genotossicità.
- 818 Suurväli, J., Whiteley, A. R., Zheng, Y., Gharbi, K., Leptin, M., & Wiehe, T. (2020). The
- 819 Laboratory Domestication of Zebrafish: From Diverse Populations to Inbred
- 820 Substrains. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*, *37*(4), 1056–1069.
- 821 https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msz289
- Van den Berg, M., Kypke, K., Kotz, A., Tritscher, A., Lee, S. Y., Magulova, K., Fiedler, H.,
 & Malisch, R. (2017). WHO/UNEP global surveys of PCDDs, PCDFs, PCBs and
- DDTs in human milk and benefit–risk evaluation of breastfeeding. *Archives of Toxicology*, *91*, 83–96. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00204-016-1802-z
- Waldman, J. (1995). Sea bass: biology, exploitation and conservation. *Sea Bass: Biology, Exploitation and Conservation*, *124*(4), 643–644. https://doi.org/10.1577/1548-8659124.4.643
- 829 Wolfenden, A., & Mones, E. (1990). Handbook of Environmental Fate and Exposure Data
- for Organic Chemicals. *Journal of Testing and Evaluation*, 18(6).
- 831 https://doi.org/10.1520/jte12517j
- Wolff, C. J. M., & Crossland, N. O. (1985). Fate and effects of 3,4-dichloroaniline in the
 laboratory and in outdoor ponds: I. fate. *Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry*.
 https://doi.org/10.1002/etc.5620040408
- 835 Woltering, D. M. (1984). The growth response in fish chronic and early life stage toxicity
- tests: A critical review. *Aquatic Toxicology*, 5(1), 1–21. https://doi.org/10.1016/0166445X(84)90028-6
- 838 Yildiz, H. Y., Köksal, G., Borazan, G., & Benli, Ç. K. (2006). Nitrite-induced
- 839 methemoglobinemia in Nile tilapia, Oreochromis niloticus. *Journal of Applied*
- 840 *Ichthyology*, 22(5). https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1439-0426.2006.00761.x

- 841 Zhu, B., Liu, T., Hu, X., & Wang, G. (2013). Developmental toxicity of 3,4-dichloroaniline
- on rare minnow (Gobiocypris rarus) embryos and larvae. *Chemosphere*, *90*, 1132–1139.
- 843 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2012.09.021
- 844
- 845

846 Tables

847

Table 1: LC_x values at 96 h and 168 h calculated for each experiment separately and combined. Data are given as estimated values (mg/L) [95 % credible interval]. All data were acquired using MOSAIC *GUTS-fit*.

	LC_{10}		LC ₅₀	
Experiment	96 h	168h	96 h	168h
	3.09	1.61	3.87	2.08
1	[2.79; 3.48]	[1.47 ; 1.75]	[3.68; ^a]	[1.97 ; 2.19]
2	0.65	0.46	1.57	0.73
2	[0.53 ; 0.79]	[0.37; 0.52]	[1.4 ; 1.78]	[0.66 ; 0.79]
	0.39	0.15	1.35	0.41
3	[0.31; 0.461]	[^a ; 0.20]	[1.2; 1.54]	[0.36;0.46]
1.2	0.57	0.22	2.04	0.79
1:5	[0.48; 0.68]	[0.18; 0.26]	[1.89; 2.22]	[0.73;0.85]

- 851 ^a not detectable
- 852
- 853

Table 2: Descriptive statistics of behavioral data. Analyses were run after outliers' detection and
elimination. n: group size; IQR: interquartile range

Endpoint	Group	n	Median [IQR]	Coefficient of variation
Total distance (cm)	control	28	76 15 [55 43-122 0]	48 39 %
	0.25 mg/L	14	107.2 [53.48 - 124.0]	48.92 %
	. 1	20	<i>(2,50,646,51, 110,0</i>)	52.00.%
Periphery distance (cm)	0.25 mg/L	28 14	63.30 [46.51 - 110.8] 75.70 [40.95 – 114.3]	53.00 % 50.40 %
Central-zone distance	control	28	8.54 [6.96 – 17.40]	58.66 %
(cm)	0.25 mg/L	14	6.94 [4.45 - 14.66]	81.57 %
Time spent in the	control	28	264.9 [253.2 - 275.9]	17.74 %
peripheral zone (s)	0.25 mg/L	14	274.1 [243 - 286.4]	11.04 %



Fig. 1 Hatching rate under agitated and non-agitated conditions of sea bass eggs (preliminary experiment 1). Values represent the daily percentage of hatched eggs per condition. * = p < 0.001



Fig. 2 Survival rate (%) of sea bass larvae placed in 48- and 24-well plates under different
conditions of agitation and medium change frequencies in preliminary experiment 1. Values
represent the daily % of alive larvae per condition from day 2 to day 9.



Fig. 3 Survival rate (%) of sea bass larvae exposed to different concentrations of 3,4-DCA
concentrations (0.005 - 5 mg/L; preliminary experiment 2). Values are presented as daily
percentage of alive larvae per condition.



Fig. 4 Survival rate (%) of sea bass larvae exposed to increasing concentrations of 3,4-DCA (0.25 4 mg/L). Values are presented as percentage of alive larvae per condition (mean ± SD). E1=
Experiment 1; E2= Experiment 2; E3= Experiment 3.

881 Annexes

882 883

884 **Annex I:** Flow-chart showing all steps implemented in this study to establish an exposure protocol 885 for sea bass eleutheroembryos. At first (preliminary experiment 1) optimal conditions of exposure 886 were identified comparing several factors as different incubation volumes, agitation conditions and 887 frequencies of medium change. Once those factors defined, larvae were exposed to 3,4-DCA as 888 reference molecules. A second experimental step (preliminary experiment 2) was then carried out 889 exposing larvae to a wide range of 3.4-DCA concentrations to detect in which concentration rage 890 the 96h and 168h LC50 would fall. Once the concentration range defined, three independents 891 replicated of the established protocol (main experiment) were carried out in two different 892 laboratories to compare 96h and 168h LC50. In the last experiment, behavioral analyses were added 893 as additional toxicological endpoint.

894

895

896 selected conditions



900 Annex II: Graphical representation of the experimental design for "Preliminary design 1". To 901 define the best test conditions, sea bass larvae were exposed in either 24- or 48-well plates, in 2 and 902 4 mL of sea water respectively. Each plate was subjected to three different agitation conditions 903 (non-agitated, permanent agitation or agitation during incubation only) and within each plate 3 904 different frequencies of medium change were tested (no change, change every 24h or every 3.5 905 days).



Annex III: Description of natural sea water characteristics at the sampling location: Platform
6200310, Luc sur mer, France (49.3438:-0.3074). Values are presented as min-max.

Date	Units	05.2018	07.2018	11.2018
Salinity	psu	28.99 - 32.68	29.97 – 33.35	32.53 - 34.79
Sea temperature	°C	9.68 - 16.82	16.8 – 22.21	10.02 - 13.74
Electrical conductivity	S/m	0.01 - 4.02	4.13 - 4.70	3.65 – 4.05
Dissolved oxygen	ррт	4.68 - 8.99	3.92 – 9.07	5.18 – 5.9
Oxygen saturation	ррт	78.44 - 149.85	74.76 – 150.13	85.61 – 95.58
Potential of hydrogen	pН	7.39 - 7.69	7.19 – 7.92	7.61 – 7.81
Turbidity	NTU	0.01 - 102.95	2.59 – 121.45	0.74 – 24.28

- Annex IV: Follow-up of larval development from egg's delivery day to 8 dph. Pictures were taken
 with Leica MZ 10F microscope coupled with a Leica DFC425 C camera. dph: days post hatching
- 941 942



2 dph





4 dph



8 dph



