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1	Susceptibility of polar cod (Boreogadus saida) to a model carcinogen
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### 26 Abstract

27 Studies that aim to characterise the susceptibility of the ecologically relevant and non-model 28 fish polar cod (Boreogadus saida) to model carcinogens are required. Polar cod were exposed 29 under laboratory conditions for six months to control, 0.03 µg BaP/ g fish/ week and 0.3 µg BaP/ g fish/ week dietary benzo(a)pyrene (BaP), a reference carcinogen. The concentrations 30 31 of the 3-OH-BaP bile metabolite and transcriptional responses of genes involved in DNA adduct recognition (xpc), helicase activity (xpd), DNA repair (xpf, rad51) and tumour 32 33 suppression (tp53) were assessed after 0, 1, 3 and 6 months of exposure, alongside body 34 condition indexes (gonadosomatic index, hepatosomatic index and condition factor). Micronuclei and nuclear abnormalities in blood and spleen, and liver histopathological 35 36 endpoints were assessed at the end of the experiment.

37 Fish grew steadily over the whole experiment and no mortality was recorded. The concentrations of 3-OH-BaP increased significantly after 1 month of exposure to the highest 38 39 BaP concentration and after 6 months of exposure to all BaP concentrations showing the 40 biotransformation of the mother compound. Nevertheless, no significant induction of gene transcripts involved in DNA damage repair or tumour suppression were observed at the 41 selected sampling times. These results together with the absence of chromosomal damage in 42 43 blood and spleen cells, the subtle increase in nuclear abnormalities observed in spleen cells and the low occurrence of foci of cellular alteration suggested that the exposure was below 44 45 the threshold of observable effects. Taken together, the results showed that polar cod was not susceptible to carcinogenesis using the BaP exposure regime employed herein. 46

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# 51 Introduction

52 Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) are a very large group of ubiquitous organic 53 compounds that can originate from petrogenic, pyrogenic, biogenic and diagenic sources. A 54 number of PAHs are identified as having carcinogenic properties and have been associated to an increased incidence of liver tumours in flatfish in highly polluted environments (Malins et 55 56 al., 1985; Myers et al., 1991; Harshbarger and Clark, 1990; Vogelbein et al., 1990; Baumann and Harshbarger, 1998). This pathology has been used to monitor the effects of exposure to 57 PAHs and the health of marine ecosystem since the 1980s (Malins et al., 1985; Veethaak and 58 59 Ap Rheinallt, 1992) and its assessment recommended by the International Council for Exploration of the Sea (ICES) and the Oslo and Paris Convention (OSPAR) Joint 60 61 Assessments and Monitoring Programme (JAMP) (Lyons et al., 2010).

62 Benzo(a)pyrene (BaP) is a well-known pyrogenic carcinogen in a plethora of animals such as marine mammals (Acevedo-Whitehouse et al., 2018; Poirier et al., 2019), fish (Wang 63 et al., 2010; Wills et al., 2010) and mice (Kasala et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2019). The 64 reference oral dose below which no effect is expected is  $3.10^{-4} \mu g \text{ BaP /g per day, based on}$ 65 animal and human studies (reviewed in EPA/635/R-17/003). The metabolites generated by 66 endogenous metabolism (biotransformation) are highly genotoxic. Phase I biotransformation 67 68 of BaP is mediated by cytochrome P450 (CYP) enzymes and produces highly reactive metabolic intermediates such as diol-epoxide, dihydrodiol and 3-hydroxybenzo(a)pyrene (3-69 70 OH-BaP) (Karle et al., 2004; Zhu et al., 2008; Rey-Salgueiro et al., 2011). Those metabolites 71 form DNA adducts that interfere with DNA repair and replication (Phillips and Arlt, 2007). 72 This represents a critical event in the initiation of tumorigenesis, potentially leading to 73 mutations within specific regions of DNA, such as proto-oncogenes and tumour suppressor 74 genes (Rotchell et al., 2001, Du Corbier et al., 2005, Lerebours et al., 2014, 2016). The carcinogenicity of BaP has been well studied in several temperate fish species where specific 75

76 DNA adducts are used as markers for exposure and potential genotoxic effects. Exposure to 77 BaP specifically caused DNA adducts in fish such as pale chub (Zacco platypus) (Lee et al., 78 2014) and killifish species (Fundulus grandis and F. similis) (Willett et al., 1995; Rose et al., 79 2000, 2001). Moreover, BaP exposure was associated with neoplastic lesions in brown bullhead (Ameiurus nebulosus) (Ploch et al., 1998), English sole (Parophrys vetulus) 80 81 (Reichert et al., 1998) and rainbow trout (Hendricks et al., 1985). PAH-induced lesions have also recently been suggested in marine mammals such as harbour porpoises (Phocoena 82 83 phocoena) (Acevedo-Whitehouse et al., 2018) and beluga whales (Poirier et al., 2019). 84 Pollution induced cancer affects many aquatic species and represents a growing concern for aquatic wildlife (for a review see Baines et al., 2021). 85

86 Tumourigenesis is a progressive process characterised by different stages for which 87 the underlying molecular steps and the role of environmental exposure are not always wellknown. Nonetheless, liver tumourigenesis has been well studied in flatfish (Stentiford et al., 88 89 2010; Lerebours et al., 2013; 2014; 2017) and in the model fish Japanese medaka (Oryzias 90 latipes) (Rotchell et al., 2001) and zebrafish (Danio rerio) (Li et al., 2017; 2019). DNA 91 repair mechanisms have been associated with tumour formation perturbing several steps of the nucleotide excision repair (NER) pathway, which recognises and repairs DNA adducts 92 93 induced by numerous environmental mutagens, including PAHs (Gillet and Scharer, 2006; Rastogi et al., 2010). While such mechanisms involved in the development of tumours in 94 95 certain fish species are well characterised, a substantial knowledge gap exists for non-model 96 and ecologically important species inhabiting remote regions in particular. The Arctic is 97 currently experiencing a rapid decline in sea ice (Kumar et al., 2021) that may lead to a significant increase in marine shipping (Ho et al., 2010), oil and gas exploration and 98 99 operation (Elias, 2018), and tourism (Meier et al., 2014) and associated release of potential carcinogenic contaminants (Elias, 2018). The polar cod (Boreogadus saida) is a keystone fish 100

101 species in the arctic marine ecosystem due to its abundance, distribution and central role in 102 the food web (Welch et al., 1992). Polar cod has been considered a model fish for arctic 103 ecotoxicology studies (Jonsson et al., 2010; Nahrgang et al., 2009, 2010a,b,c). The toxicity of 104 petroleum compounds on the physiology of polar cod has been well studied (Geraudie et al., 2014; Bender et al., 2016; Nahrgang et al., 2016; Vieweg et al., 2018; Nahrgang et al., 2019) 105 106 but the tumourigenic potential of a potent carcinogen remains unknown in that species. A few 107 studies however have reported a potential susceptibility to carcinogenic contaminants 108 including BaP. The hepatic metabolism of BaP is particularly efficient in polar cod and a 109 significant increase of covalently bound reactive intermediates of BaP in the bile of fish has been found after dietary exposure to BaP (Ingebrigtsen et al., 2000; Bakke et al., 2016). 110 111 These reactive intermediates were found to induce the formation of DNA adducts in the liver 112 of that species (Aas et al., 2003). This genotoxic effect can in turn result in cellular abnormalities and cancer initiation. Finally, a recent study showed that expression of genes 113 114 involved in DNA repair and cell cycle regulation processes was modified in liver of polar cod 115 dietary exposed to BaP (Song et al., 2019).

116 In order to evaluate the susceptibility of polar cod to a carcinogenic compound, adult 117 specimens were exposed under laboratory conditions for six months to control, 0.03 µg BaP/ 118 g fish/ week and 0.3 µg BaP/ g fish/ week dietary BaP. Selected body condition indexes, bile metabolite concentrations and transcriptional responses of genes involved in DNA adduct 119 120 recognition (xpc), helicase activity (xpd), DNA repair (xpf, rad51) and tumour suppression 121 (tp53) were assessed after 0, 1, 3 and 6 months of exposure. Blood and spleen micronuclei, nuclear abnormalities and liver histopathological endpoints were assessed at the end of the 122 123 experiment.

124 The sampling times were selected because carcinogenesis is a long-term process.125 They were comparable to the exposure durations used in several studies interested in

126 carcinogenesis in European eel (Nogueira et al., 2006), brown bullhead and channel catfish (Ploch et al., 1985) rainbow trout (Hendricks et al., 1985, Black et al., 1985) and coho 127 salmon (Black et al., 1985) exposed to BaP. The BaP doses selected were lower than the 128 129 concentrations frequently used in previous studies. They were 10 and 100 times lower than the concentration of 3 µg BaP/g of fish /week (Colli-Dula et al., 2018) that induced a 130 131 decrease of body indexes in Nile tilapia after one month of exposure. In addition, our highest concentration was 4 times lower than the lowest concentration used in the study of Song et 132 133 al., (2019) that found gene expression changes in polar cod after two weeks of exposure, a 134 twelve times shorter exposure duration.

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# 136 Methods

# 137 Fish collection and exposure

Adult polar cod (4 years old) were collected along the west coast of the Svalbard archipelago 138 (Norway) onboard RV Helmer Hanssen in January 2014 using a Campelen bottom trawl (at 139 140 200m depth) and a fish-lift (Holst and McDonald, 2000). At the Tromsø aquaculture research 141 station (Havbrukstasjon i Tromsø), fish were kept in 3000 L acclimation tank under a natural light and temperature (1.5 - 3 °C) regime of 79°N (based on mooring data in Wallace et al., 142 2010). During this period, fish were fed until satiation with thawed Calanus sp. copepods 143 (Calanus AS, Tromsø). Ninety fish were selected based on similar length ( $15 \pm 1$  cm) and 144 145 weight  $(25 \pm 7 \text{ g})$  for the experiment (June 2014).

Polar cod were dietarily exposed to 0, 0.03 and 0.3  $\mu$ g BaP per gram fish per week, for 6 months (2<sup>nd</sup> of July 2014 to 31<sup>st</sup> January 2015). The experiment was conducted in compliance with the policies of the Norwegian animal welfare authorities (application ID 6571). Briefly, a BaP (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, USA) solution in acetone was mixed with *Calanus* spp (Calanus AS) to yield 0.5 or 5  $\mu$ g BaP per g feed or acetone alone (acetone 151 control). The acetone was volatilized by constant stirring on a magnetic stirrer for 2.5 hours 152 at 30 °C. Small pellets were then created with the addition of 0.5 mL gelatin per g feed. Fish 153 were fed pellets corresponding to 4% of their body wet weight (bw) 5 days a week. On the 154 first, third and fifth day of a week, fish were exposed to dietary BaP or a solvent control by 155 receiving the 2% bw exposed feed (or solvent control) and 2% bw of unexposed feed (no 156 BaP, no acetone). Feeding was done by distributing the pellets to the surface of the tank. Thus, feeding hierarchies may have occurred resulting in some intra-tank individual exposure 157 variations. On the remaining 2 days of a week, all fish were fed 4% bw of unexposed feed. 158 159 The amount of food given to each tank was adjusted at each sampling point to account for 160 both growth and sampling of specimens. With this feeding regime, the fish nominally received an average of 0, 0.03 and 0.3 µg BaP per gram of fish per week. After 1 (2<sup>nd</sup> 161 August), 3 (3<sup>rd</sup> October) and 6 (31<sup>th</sup> of January) months, 10 fish per condition were 162 anaesthetized and killed by a sharp blow to the head. Total body weight (g) and fork length 163 164 (cm) were measured and the presence of parasites recorded. Liver and gonads were removed 165 and weighed. Bile was snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until 3-OH BaP 166 metabolite determination. A liver section was snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C for molecular analyses. During the final sampling (6 months of exposure), a 167 168 standardized liver cross-section was fixed for 24 hrs in neutral buffered formaldehyde (4%) before being transferred to 70% ethanol for subsequent histological assessment. Blood and 169 170 spleen samples were preserved in Carnoy solution (3 methanol: 1 acetic acid) and stored at 171 +4°C for subsequent identification of nuclear abnormalities and micronuclei. Finally, somatic weight (g) was determined as weight of eviscerated fish. Gonadosomatic index (GSI) and 172 173 hepatosomatic index (HSI) were calculated as follows:

174  $GSI = (gonad weight/somatic weight) \times 100$ 

175 HSI = (liver weight/ somatic weight) x 100.

### 176 *3-OH-benzo[a]pyrene measurement*

177 Biliary 3-OH-benzo[a]pyrene metabolite concentration was determined after 1, 3 and 6 months of exposure following the procedure detailed in Song et al., (2018). Preparation of 178 179 hydrolysed bile samples was performed as described in Krahn et al., (1992). Briefly, bile (1-20  $\mu$  L) was mixed with an internal standard (triphenylamine) and diluted with demineralised 180 water (10-50  $\mu$  L) and hydrolysed with  $\beta$ -glucuronidasearylsulphatase (20  $\mu$  L, 1 h at 37 181  $^{\circ}$  C). Methanol (75-200  $\mu$  L) was added and the sample was mixed thoroughly before 182 183 centrifugation. The supernatant was then transferred to vials and analysed. High pressure liquid chromatography (Waters 2695 Separations Module) was used to separate 3-OH-BaP in 184 a Waters PAH C18 column (4.6  $\times$  250 mm, 5  $\mu$  m particle size). The mobile phase consisted 185 of a gradient from 40:60 acetonitrile: ammonium acetate (0.05 M, pH 4.1) to 100% 186 acetonitrile at a flow rate of 1 mL/min, and the column was heated to 35  $^{\circ}$  C. A 2475 187 188 fluorescence detector measured fluorescence at the optimum for each analyte 189 (excitation/emissions: 380/430). A total of 25  $\mu$  L extract was injected for each analysis. The results were calculated by use of the internal standard method (Grung et al., 2009). The 190 calibration standards utilized were obtained from Chiron AS, Trondheim, Norway, and were 191 in the range 0.2-200 ng/g. Values below the limit of detection were considered as equal to 0 192 ng/g in the analyses. 193

194 Histopathological analyses

Livers were processed in a vacuum infiltration processor (Shandon Citadel 1000) using standard histological protocols (Feist *et al.*, 2004). The tissues were embedded in paraffin using an STP-120 spin tissue processor (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). Sections of 4  $\mu$ m thickness were cut using a microtome HM 450 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) and subsequently stained with haematoxylin and eosin (H&E). The liver sections were examined for microscopic pre-tumour and tumour lesions according to BEQUALM and ICES criteria (Feist *et al.*, 2004). The pre-tumour lesions sought were the vacuolated, basophilic and eosinophilic foci of cellular alteration (FCA). Tumour lesions were the benign hepatocellular adenoma and the malignant hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). Lesions associated to nuclear and cellular polymorphism, cell death, inflammation and regeneration were also examined. A total of 5, 6 and 4 fish were assessed from control, low and high exposure condition, respectively.

## 207 Micronucleus test and nuclear abnormalities

208 The micronuclei and nuclear abnormalities frequencies were measured in blood and spleen of polar cod tissues fixed in Carnoy's solution; subsequently separated cells were dispersed on 209 210 glass slides, and stained with the fluorescent dye 4',6-diamidino- 2-phenylindole at 100 ng/ 211 mL. For each experimental condition, a range of 6 to 8 fish were investigated, and for each specimen 2000 cells with preserved cytoplasm were scored to assess the presence of 212 213 micronuclei and nuclear abnormalities. Micronuclei are defined as round structures, smaller 214 than 1/3 of the main nucleus diameter, on the same optical plan and clearly separated from 215 nucleus; Nuclear abnormalities include (i) binucleated: cell with two nuclei, (ii) notch nuclei: looks like nucleus but do not have nuclear materials, (iii) nuclear bud: evagination of bud-like 216 217 structure from the nucleus, and (iv) blebbed nuclei: small euchromatin evagination of the 218 nuclear membrane (Gorbi et al., 2009; Islam et al., 2021).

219 *Gene expression analyses* 

Following 1, 3 and 6 months of exposure, a cross section of each liver, next to the one dedicated to histological analyses at 6 months was used for gene transcriptional response analyses. Total RNAs were extracted using the High Pure RNA Tissue kit (Roche Diagnostics Ltd, West Sussex, U.K.) according to the supplier's instructions which included a DNase treatment. RNA quality (integrity of 18S and 28S ribosomal bands) was evaluated by electrophoresis on a 1% agarose-formaldehyde gel. RNA purity was assessed by measuring the ratios of absorbance:  $A_{260}/A_{280}$  and  $A_{260}/A_{230}$  using a spectrophotometer (NanoDrop, ThermoFisher). All samples were of high purity (ratios' values > 2.1).

228 First strand cDNAs were synthesized from 1 µg of total RNA using the AffinityScript Multiple Temperature cDNA Synthesis Kit (Agilent Technologies, Stockport, U. K.) using 229 230 random hexamer primers and according to the supplier's instructions. Putative coding sequences (Figure S1) were identified by nucleotide and protein BLAST searches on the 231 232 NCBI database (http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi) and sequence homologies across fish 233 species on the EMBL-EBI platform (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/clustalo/). The contigs 234 produced in the study of Song et al., (2019) were also used. Primer pairs and FAM<sup>TM</sup>-235 TAMRA<sup>TM</sup> dye probes used to amplify the target sequences were designed using the Prime 236 Express software (Applied Biosystem) (Table 1). Ten ng of the reverse transcribed product 237 measured by a qubit fluorometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific) was used as a template for 238 subsequent polymerase chain reaction (PCR) in a 20 µL final volume using 1x of TaqMan® 239 Fast Advanced Master Mix (Life technologies, Paisley, U.K.), 900 nM primers and 250 nM 240 probe (final concentrations) according to the supplier's protocol. PCR reactions were performed in the Applied Biosystems<sup>™</sup> ViiA<sup>™</sup> 7 Real-Time PCR System using the 241 242 following programme: one cycle at 95°C for 20 s and 40 amplification cycles at 95°C for 3 s and 60°C for 30 s. Primer efficiencies were determined by 10 times dilution series of the 243 cDNA template and were about 100%. The optimal normalization gene was selected by 244 245 testing the expressions of 3 reference genes ( $\beta$  tubulin, hprt1 and 28S) on all the samples 246 using the NormFinder algorithm. The expression of the  $\beta$  tubulin gene displayed the highest stability. The melting curves were carefully checked after each qPCR run. The gene 247 248 expression was calculated according to the delta delta Ct method.

250 *Statistical analyses* 

Statistical analyses were performed using R (version 3.1.2). The effect of the BaP exposure concentration and time of exposure were assessed on all the biological parameters measured using 1-way ANOVA. When the normality of the residuals was not verified by the Shapiro-Wilk test, the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis tests were used. Post-hoc comparisons were performed using the least-square mean test for parametric test and the Wilcoxon rank test for non-parametric test. The  $\alpha$  error was adjusted using the Bonferroni correction for each posthoc test.

258 **Results** 

Over the course of the six-month exposure, all specimens grew significantly in weight and underwent gonadal maturation with mean GSI ranging from  $1.5 \pm 0.7$  to  $20.8 \pm 3.9$  % (Table 2). Endoparasites were commonly found across all treatments and sampling times. Nematodes on the liver surface were the most common parasites with a frequency of occurrence of 26%. Parasites of the phylum Platyhelminthes were less common (7%). No mortality was observed.

The dietary BaP exposure of polar cod led to a dose-dependent production of biliary 3-OH BaP metabolites for the low (0.03 µg BaP/g of fish/week) and high (0.3 µg BaP/g of fish/week) BaP exposure conditions after 1 and 6 months of exposure (Figure 1). The concentrations of bile 3-OH BaP ranged from 20 to 40 ng/g of bile for the low exposure condition and were approximately 10 times higher, from 132 to 390 ng/g of bile, for the highest exposure condition.

The transcriptional responses related to DNA adduct recognition (*xpc*), helicase activity (*xpd*), DNA repair (*xpf*, *rad51*) and tumour suppression (*tp53*) were not significantly changed by any BaP dietary exposures as compared to controls (p > 0.05) (Figure 2).

The number of micronuclei recorded in the blood and spleen of polar cod (p > 0.05) exposed to BaP did not significantly vary as compared to control (Figure 3 A, B). Nuclear abnormalities in polar cod spleen were significantly increased in the high dose group (p =0.03), while close to significant in the low dose group (p = 0.057) (Figure 3 C, D). No significant nuclear abnormalities were observed after BaP exposure in blood cells (p > 0.05).

Histopathological analyses revealed one basophilic focus of cellular alteration in liver
of two individuals exposed to the low exposure condition after six months of exposure
(Figure S2). No tumour-related lesions were observed in livers of control and highly exposed
individuals.

283 Discussion

284 The present study showed that polar cod grew steadily through the entire experiments for all 285 exposure conditions (0, 0.03 and 0.3 µg BaP/g of fish/ week). These results were expected under chronic low dose exposure scenarios and are consistent with similar results obtained in 286 287 polar cod exposed to higher dietary BaP concentrations (1.2 and 60.9 µg BaP/ g of fish/ 288 week) but for a shorter period of two weeks (Song et al., 2019). In Nile tilapia exposed to 289 intraperitoneal injections of 3 µg BaP/g of fish/ week for 4 weeks, K, GSI and GSI were 290 slightly decreased (Colli-Dula et al., 2018). This suggests that there is a dose and time 291 dependent threshold above which exposure to BaP induce significant body condition indexes changes. The fish species and the mode of BaP administration (injected intraperitoneally 292 293 versus dietary) may also be important factors to consider.

The bile concentration of 3-OH-BaP has been used as an indicator of BaP exposure and biotransformation in many fish species including polar cod (Baake *et al.*, 2016; Baali *et al.*, 2016; Kammann *et al.*, 2017; Song *et al.*, 2019). Indeed, previous studies led on polar cod exposed to either PAHs or crude oil have shown a very high correlation between bile metabolites of PAHs and both cyp1a mRNA expression and EROD activity (Bakke *et al.*,

299 2016, Bender et al., 2016, Vieweg et al., 2018, Nahrgang et al., 2019, Song et al., 2019). The 300 increase in biliary 3-OH-BaP metabolite concentrations after 1 and 6 months exposure 301 supported that of a similar, albeit shorter, exposure study (Song et al., 2019). When exposed 302 to a four times higher exposure dose (1.2  $\mu$ g BaP/ g of fish/ week) than the highest dose used in the present study, a 3-OH-BaP concentration of 800 ng/ g of bile was found, which was 303 304 two to six times higher than the metabolite concentration range identified in our study. The 305 reactive BaP intermediates have been found to accumulate and covalently bind DNA in the 306 biliary system of polar cod one month after exposure to a single dietary concentration (Baake 307 et al., 2016) equivalent to the cumulative dose received in the high BaP exposure condition during the first month of our study. Those reactive BaP metabolites covalently bind to 308 309 biological molecules such nucleic acids and form DNA adducts that can lead to tumour 310 formation. For instance, higher levels of BaP-7,8-diol metabolites and DNA binding activity 311 were found in bile of English sole (Parophrys vetulus) a fish species more sensitive to 312 carcinogenesis than the more resistant starry flounder (*Platichthys stellatus*) (Varanasi et al., 313 1986). In polar cod dietarily exposed to higher BaP concentrations (from 5 µg BaP/ g of fish 314 in a single injection) DNA adducts were found (Aas et al., 2003), revealing an increased risk of liver tumour formation later on. Indeed, 50% of rainbow trout displayed pre-tumour 315 316 (basophilic FCA) and tumour (HCC) liver lesions after six months of exposure to a similar 317 dose injected intraperitoneally (Hendricks et al., 1985). In their study, 25 % of the trouts 318 displayed similar liver lesions after twelve months of dietary exposure to a high dose of BaP 319 (estimated to 1-2 mg BaP/ g fish/ week) (Hendricks et al., 1985). In the present study, the 320 potential genotoxic damage generated by the BaP metabolites produced did not cause significant tumour lesions. This could be the result of several factors potentially in 321 322 combination, including low dose, low exposure duration and effective DNA repair mechanisms. 323

324 The DNA repair system and cell cycle regulators can prevent DNA adducts and the 325 onset of tumorous events. In the present study, the transcriptional response of genes involved 326 in the nucleotide excision repair (NER) process (xpc, xpd, xpf), DNA double strand breaks 327 repair (rad51) and cell division regulation (tp53) did not vary significantly after 1, 3, and 6 months of exposure to both BaP dietary concentrations. The exposure levels of BaP may have 328 329 been too low to cause significant accumulation of cell damage and trigger a significant gene transcriptional response. Interestingly, a dose-specific transcriptional response of some genes 330 331 has been observed in liver of polar cod dietary exposed to BaP (Song et al., 2019). For 332 instance, some genes involved in apoptosis (bax and casp9), a process that eliminates 333 damaged cells and prevent the proliferation of abnormal cells in tumour formation, were 334 upregulated in polar cod exposed to the high exposure level (60.9 µg BaP/ g of fish/ week). 335 The expression levels of those genes were not modified in fish exposed to the low exposure 336 dose (1.2 µg BaP/ g of fish/week) suggesting a threshold above which gene transcription is 337 modified (Song et al., 2019). The basal gene expression level may also be sufficient to repair 338 DNA and/or delay the cell cycle to maintain the genetic integrity. Moreover, the DNA repair 339 gene measured in our study, rad51, may not be involved in the repair of specific DNA 340 damage induced. Similarly to the results herein, this gene was not differentially expressed in 341 liver of polar cod dietary exposed to BaP (Song et al., 2019). Rad51 is involved in the repair of DNA double strand breaks, which belong to a different pathway than the NER. The 342 343 mechanism of DNA damage induced by BaP exposure is more likely to involve DNA 344 adducts than double strand breaks. Other genes involved in DNA repair processes and control 345 of cell cycle have been found induced at higher exposure regimes. For example, the gene 346 encoding for the growth arrest and DNA damage inducible beta gene (gadd45b) was induced 347 in the liver of the tropical fish, Nile Tilapia (Oreochromis niloticus) after one month of exposure to 3 µg BaP/ g of fish/week (Colli-Dula et al., 2018). In polar cod exposed to 1.2 348

349 and 60.9 µg BaP/g of fish/ week, genes involved in the excision DNA repair process (such as 350 hmgb2b and rad23a) were differentially expressed (Song et al., 2019). Shorter timepoints 351 may have also been necessary to observe a gene expression modulation as an early response 352 to stressors. In the liver of polar cod, transcriptional responses of genes involved in DNA damage repair were changed after two weeks of dietary exposure to BaP (Song et al., 2019). 353 354 Some studies using a reference genotoxic compound showed that DNA damage was rapidly repaired with increased transcription of DNA repair genes such as rad51 in zebrafish larvae, 355 356 as early as 6 hours (Reinardy et al. 2013). The addition of early sampling times seems 357 relevant to include in future studies.

Other biological processes such as detoxification mechanisms could have prevented 358 359 polar cod from the genotoxic effects of BaP exposure. Activation of detoxification events 360 could explain the resistance of polar cod to BaP exposure and the absence of liver tumours in 361 the present study. Variation in the expression of genes and proteins belonging to the 362 cytochrome P450 family involved in phase I of BaP detoxification process has been well 363 described in liver of fish (Nahrgang et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2014; Colli-Dula et al., 2018). 364 Interestingly, *cyp1a1* and *cyp1b1* genes were upregulated in liver of polar cod following dietary exposure to 60.9 µg BaP/g of fish/ week but were not differentially expressed after 365 exposure to a lower dose of BaP (1.2 µg BaP/g of fish/ week) (Song et al., 2019). This 366 suggests a dose threshold for activating the detoxification mechanisms during a chronic 367 368 exposure. Activation of genes and proteins involved in phase II detoxification process has 369 been also described in liver of fish exposed to BaP (Nahgang et al., 2009). For instance, 370 gstA1 gene expression was modified in the liver of Nile tilapia exposed to 3 µg BaP/ g of 371 fish/ week (Colli-Dula et al., 2018). Interestingly, GST activity was higher in starry flounder, 372 a tumour resistant species, than in English sole, a tumour sensitive species, after exposure to a BaP dose that induced carcinogenesis (Varanasi et al., 1987). Finally, phase III 373

detoxification process based on active efflux of chemicals by ATP-binding cassette (ABC)
transporters could be involved in BaP elimination. For example, a rainbow trout ABCG2
transporter was found to interact with BaP (Zaja *et al.*, 2016).

377 In accordance with relatively low biliary BaP metabolite concentrations observed throughout the exposure and limited responses of genes involved in DNA damage 378 379 identification and repair, no effect of dietary BaP on the micronuclei and nuclear 380 abnormalities was recorded in the present study except in spleen where nuclear abnormalities 381 increased in the high dose group. Micronuclei are formed during the anaphase stage of the cell division. They are considered as a reliable index of chromosomal breakage, 382 chromosomal loss and cellular spindle malfunction (Bolognesi and Hayashi, 2011). 383 384 Additionally, micronuclei constitute an irreversible form of genotoxic damage compared to 385 DNA strand breaks and their induction are regulated by a large number of experimental 386 carcinogens, including chlorinated hydrocarbons, benzidine, aflatoxins, methylcholanthrene, 387 and common carcinogenic pollutants, such as PAHs, heavy metals, and pesticides (Bolognesi 388 and Hayashi, 2011). Many research studies reported the increased in micronuclei frequency 389 in erythrocytes of different fish species exposed to PAHs (Shirmohammadi et al., 2018).

390 Contrary to micronuclei, nuclear abnormalities origin has not been clearly explained; some 391 suggest that nuclear abnormalities can be a primary response, prior to the micronuclei formation, highlighting their relevance in the evaluation of genotoxic damage (Bolognesi and 392 393 Hayashi, 2011; Seriani et al., 2011). An increase of erythrocytic nuclear abnormalities and 394 strand breaks was observed in eels (Anguilla anguilla L.) and juvenile sea bass 395 (Dicentrarchus labrax) exposed to a range of 0.3 to 2.7 µM of BaP and naphthalene (Maria et al., 2002; Teles et al., 2003; Gravato and Santos, 2002), while on the contrary, lower 396 397 concentrations of BaP (0.1 µM) did not affect DNA integrity (Nogueira et al., 2006). The induction of micronuclei and other nuclear abnormalities were also caused by crude oil 398

399 exposure in turbot (Scophthalmus maximus) and Atlantic cod (Gadus morua) (Baršienė et al., 400 2004; 2006). The exposure duration and levels are extremely important in determining 401 micronuclei and nuclear abnormalities formation; long-term chemical exposures can cause 402 genetic changes and consequently physiological alterations or pathologies including cancer 403 development (Depledge and Hopkin, 1995). In a study led on the European flounder, 404 Platichthy flesus, Köhler and Ellesat, (2008), first suggested that nuclear anomalies inside 405 liver lesions of hepatocellular cancers were correlated with micronuclei frequencies in fish 406 blood and that the histopathological grading of cancers from preneoplastic, benign to 407 malignant types was clearly associated with micronuclei increase.

The present study showed that polar cod were consistently exposed to dietary BaP 408 409 through the entire experiment and biotransformed the mother compound to intermediate 410 metabolites. However, this exposure did not lead to significant changes in the transcription of 411 selected genes, nor in chromosomal alterations and significant tissue lesions. Some early 412 responses to stress may have occurred prior to the first sampling time point at one month of 413 exposure, and basal expression of genes or potentially activated compensatory mechanisms 414 may have been sufficient to control the damage caused by the reactive metabolites. 415 Moreover, protective mechanisms such as detoxification and apoptosis could have prevented 416 the cells from the accumulation of cell damage caused by the reactive metabolites. Therefore, 417 we deduce that the BaP exposure concentrations were below the threshold of observable 418 effects. As a whole, our results showed that polar cod exposed to 0.03 and 0.3 µg BaP/ g fish/ 419 week was not sensitive to the model carcinogen and liver carcinogenesis. The present work 420 encourages the addition of earlier sampling points and indicators of detoxification 421 mechanisms in future studies.

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### 751 Figure and Table Legend.

753 **Figure 1.** Concentrations of biliary 3-OH-benzo[a]pyrene (ng/g bile, n = 4 to 9) in fish 754 exposed to three treatments of BaP (acetone control, low and high) during 0, 1, 3 and 6 755 months. Plots represent the median (line), 25-75% percentiles (box), non-outlier range 756 (whisker), outliers (circle) and extreme values (coloured triangle). The effect of the dose and time on the metabolite concentrations were assessed using the Kruskal-Wallis rank test. 757 758 When significant, a Wilcoxon test and a Bonferroni correction were applied. Asterisks (\*) 759 show significant difference from the control treatment (p < 0.05). Numbers above boxes 760 represent the *n*.

Figure 2. Relative expression of genes (mean  $\pm$  SD, arbitrary units) in liver of polar cods (n = 10 per treatment and time) exposed to acetone control, low and high BaP treatments after 1, 3

and 6 months. Plots represent the median (line), 25–75% percentiles (box), non-outlier range

(whisker), outliers (circle) and extreme values (coloured triangle). The effect of the dose on the gene expression levels was assessed using the Kruskal-Wallis rank test. No significant differences (p > 0.05) among treatments were found. Numbers above boxes represent the *n*.

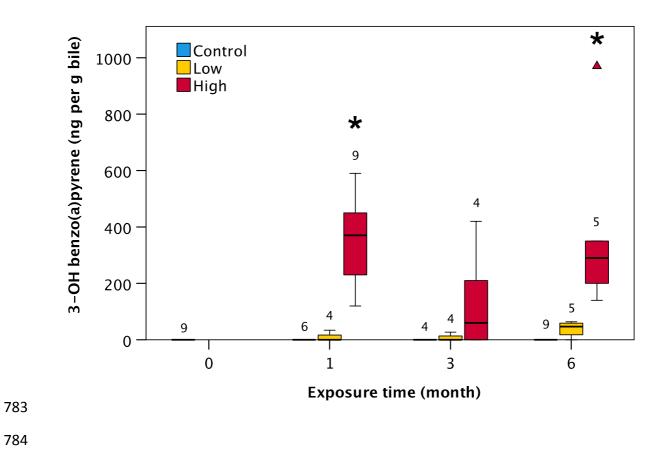
767 Figure 3. DNA damage in the form of micronuclei per thousand in the blood (A) and spleen (B) and nuclear abnormalities in the blood (C) and spleen (D) of polar cod sampled after 6 768 769 month of exposure. Plots represent the median (line), 25–75% percentiles (box), non-outlier range (whisker), outliers (circle) and extreme values (coloured triangle). The effect of the 770 771 dose on the number of micronuclei and nuclear abnormalities was assessed using the 772 Kruskal-Wallis rank test. When significant, a Wilcoxon test and a Bonferroni correction were 773 applied. Asterisks (\*) show significant difference from the control treatment (p < 0.05). 774 Numbers above boxes represent the *n*.

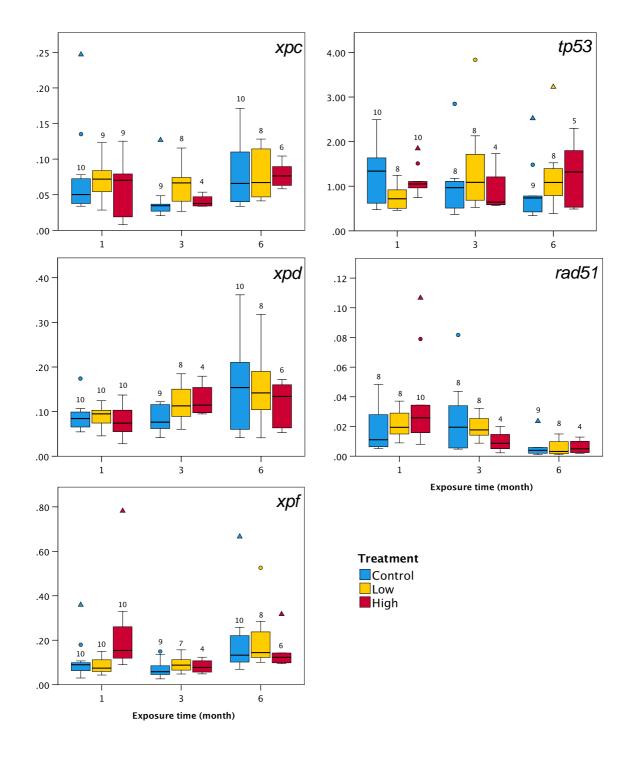
**Table 1.** Sequences of primer pairs and FAM/TAMRA probes used in RT-qPCR reactions for each of the target genes studied.  $\beta$  *tubulin* was used as the reference gene.

**Table 2.** Fulton condition (K), hepatosomatic index (HSI), gonadosomatic index (GSI), liver, gonad and body weight (g), and fork length (cm) (mean  $\pm$  SD, n = 10) and sex ratio determined after 0, 1, 3, and 6 months of exposure to different BaP treatments (acetone control, low and high exposures).

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782 Figure 1



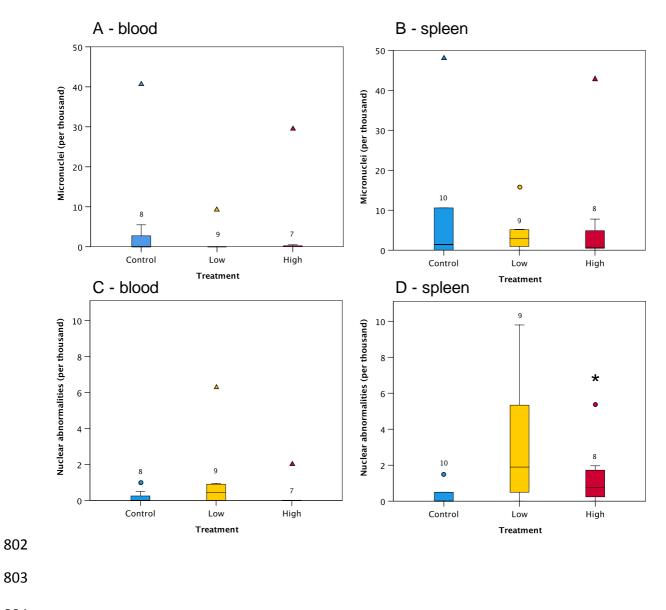




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801 Figure 3



#### Table 1

Gene name	Primers and Probe Sequences 5'-3'
β tubulin	F: GCCCGGCACCATGGA
	R: TGGCCGAAAACGAAGTTGTC
	P: TCCGGTGCTTTCGGTCAGATCTTCA
<i>KPC</i>	F: GCTTCGACTTCCATGGAGGAT
	R: CTTCGTGCTCCTCACACACAA
	P: CGCATGCTGTGACCGACGGCTAC
XPD	F: TCATGTTCGGAGTCCCTTATGTT
	R: GGAACTGGTCCCGGAGGTA
	P: ACACACAGAGCCGCATTCTGAAGGC
XPF	F: ATCTGGACCTGGCGAGGAA
	R: TCCTGCTTTGCGGGTGTT
	P: CTGGAGCCCGCCAACGCTACC
ad51	F: AAGAAGCCGATTGGAGGAAAC
	R: CGCCCCTTCCTCAGGTACA
	P: TCATGGCCCACGCCTCCACC
p53	F: CCTCTGAGGGGGCATGTTCTC
	R: GGGGCTCTTTCTTTTTTTGG
	P: TCCTGGGCGCGACCGCA

# 819 Table 2

		1 month			3 months			6 months		
	0 month	Control	Low	High	Control	Low	High	Control	Low	High
Fork l. (cm)	$15.9 \pm 1.6$	$16.4\pm1$	$16.7\pm1.6$	$16.9 \pm 1.7$	$17.8 \pm 1.6$	$16.8 \pm 1.9$	$17.3 \pm 1.5$	$16.4 \pm 1.5$	$17.2\pm0.7$	$17.3 \pm 1.2$
Total w. (g)	$25.6\pm7.1$	$29.3\pm5.6$	$32.4\pm8.8$	$33.2\pm9.1$	$38.3 \pm 11.6$	$32.1\pm8.5$	$35.6\pm10.4$	$32.7\pm10$	$37.3\pm4.5$	$36.7\pm8$
K	$5.2\pm0.5$	$5.2\pm0.4$	$5.5\pm0.5$	$5.4\pm0.3$	$5.3\pm0.7$	$5.4\pm0.5$	$5.3\pm0.4$	$5.2\pm0.7$	$5.3\pm0.4$	$5\pm0.4$
Liver w. (g)	$2\pm0.9$	$2.2\pm0.7$	$2.5\pm0.9$	$2.6\pm0.7$	$2.7\pm1.2$	$2.3\pm0.6$	$2.8 \pm 1$	$2.7\pm0.9$	$2.6\pm0.5$	$3\pm0.9$
HSI	$9.6\pm3.3$	$9.4\pm2.1$	$9.4\pm2.1$	$10.4\pm2.8$	$8.6\pm2.6$	$9.3\pm2.3$	$9.8\pm2.1$	$12\pm3.9$	$9.5\pm2$	$11.3\pm2.3$
Gonad w. (g)	$0.3\pm0.2$	$0.5\pm0.2$	$0.5\pm0.3$	$0.5\pm0.3$	$1.4\pm0.5$	$1.1\pm0.6$	$1.6\pm0.9$	$4.2\pm2.3$	$5.6\pm1.3$	$5\pm1.8$
GSI	$1.5\pm0.7$	$2\pm0.5$	$2.2 \pm 1$	$1.8\pm0.6$	$4.6 \pm 1.2$	$4.1\pm1.8$	$5.6\pm2.3$	$16.9\pm 6.8$	$20.8\pm3.9$	$19.3\pm6.4$
Sex ratio	40	60	30	50	50	40	30	50	22	50

### **Supplementary material**

Figure S1. Putative coding sequences used to design the primers and probe for the 6 genes

studied. The pink marks indicate the location of the introns in the DNA sequence. Primers

were designed to overlap the introns whenever possible to check the specificity of the qPCR

reactions.

 $>\beta$  tubulin

### >XPC

ACGGGC<mark>T</mark>TCGACTTCCATG<mark>C</mark>AGGATACTCGCAT<mark>G</mark>CTGTGACCG<mark>A</mark>CGGCTACATTGTGTGTGAGGAGCACGAAGAGATTCTCAG AGCAGCCTGGGAGGAAGATCAAGCGCTCCAGA<mark>A</mark>ACAGAAG<mark>G</mark>AGATTGAGAAGCGAGAAGCGGGCCACCACCAACTGGAAGC TACTGGTGAAGGGCCTTCTGATCAGGGAGAGGCTCCAGCTACGATACG<mark>G</mark>CAA

### >XPD

### >XPF

### >rad51

>p53
CGACGCTCCTTCTGAACTACATGTGCAACAGCTCCTGCATGGGAGGGA
GAGTCCTCTGA <mark>C</mark> GGGCATGTTCTCGGGCGGCGTGCTTCGAGGTGCGCGTCTGTGCCTGTCCTGGGCGCGACCGCAAGACGGA
GGAGGGCAACGTGGAGAAAAAGACGGAGGGATCCAAGCCCACAAAAAAAGAAGAGCCCCCCCACT <mark>C</mark> CGGCCCCCACGGCT
CCGCCCAAGAGGGTCCTGTCCGCCTCCAGCGCTGAAGAGGAGGATAAGGAGGTGTTTGTGCTACAGGTCGTTGGCCGGAAGAG
ATTCGAGATCCTGAGGCAGATAAACGATGCACTCGCGCTGCAGGAGGATGACAGTCAAGCAGGAGGTCCAAGGAGGGCCGT
CGCGGGGAAAGAGACGGCTGGGGGACCGGACAGACGAGGGGACCGACC
GCCACAGCGAACCCCGTTATTTTCTACACTTTTCTTTTGTCATTCCTATTTTTATTTTTTCATAGCTTTTTTTCAGCATA
TAGTTTTATATACAATGTATTTTTATTTTTCATGTATTTTTTTT
AGGCCATG

Figure S2. Basophilic foci of cellular alteration diagnosed in liver of a polar cod exposed to

the low BaP concentration (magnification x40).

