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1 High-content analysis of larval phenotypes for the screening of xenobiotic toxicity using

- 2 Phallusia mammillata embryos
- 3
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- 14

15 Abstract

In recent years, pollution of surface waters with xenobiotic compounds became an issue of concern 16 in society and has been the object of numerous studies. Most of these xenobiotic compounds are 17 man-made molecules and some of them are qualified as endocrine disrupting chemicals (EDCs) 18 19 when they interfere with hormones actions. Several studies have investigated the teratogenic impacts of EDCs in vertebrates (including marine vertebrates). However, the impact of such EDCs 20 on marine invertebrates is much debated and still largely obscure. In addition, DNA-altering 21 genotoxicants can induce embryonic malformations. The goal of this study is to develop a reliable 22 and effective test for assessing toxicity of chemicals using embryos of the ascidian (Phallusia 23 24 *mammillata*) in order to find phenotypic signatures associated with xenobiotics. We evaluated 25 embryonic malformations with high-content analysis of larval phenotypes by scoring several quantitative and qualitative morphometric endpoints on a single image of *Phallusia* tadpole larvae 26 with semi-automated image analysis. Using this approach we screened different classes of 27 28 toxicants including genotoxicants, known or suspected EDCs and nuclear receptors (NRs) ligands.

29	The screen presented here reveals a specific phenotypic signature for ligands of retinoic acid
30	receptor/retinoid X receptor. Analysis of larval morphology combined with DNA staining revealed
31	that embryos with DNA aberrations displayed severe malformations affecting multiple aspects of
32	embryonic development. In contrast EDCs exposure induced no or little DNA aberrations and
33	affected mainly neural development. Therefore the ascidian embryo/larval assay presented here
34	can allow to distinguish the type of teratogenicity induced by different classes of toxicants.
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38	Keywords: ascidian; embryo; toxicity; morphological analysis; endocrine disrupting chemical

- 39 (EDC); genotoxicity
- 40

41 **1. INTRODUCTION**

42 Anthropogenic activities have a large impact on aquatic ecosystems from the discharge of chemical substances, many of which are supposed to be present in trace amounts (i.e. heavy metals) or even 43 44 absent in natural conditions (i.e. pharmaceuticals, pesticides) (Mnif et al., 2011; Desbiolles et al., 2018). Endocrine disrupting chemicals (EDCs) are xenobiotic substances that can interfere with 45 46 the endocrine system through two main pathways: the genomic pathway, via binding to nuclear receptors (NRs); or the non-genomic pathway, via binding to cell membrane receptors or affecting 47 hormone metabolism. Thus endocrine disruption can be induced by xenobiotics that bind nuclear 48 49 receptors such as AR, ER, TR, PPAR, RXR, PXR, CAR or ERR (termed NR-binding EDCs) (Mnif et al., 2011). Upon NR binding, EDCs can either activate a receptor (agonist action) or block it for 50 51 normal hormone (antagonistic action).

Many phenotypes of EDCs exposure have been described in invertebrate species (Urushitani et al., 2018; Castro et al., 2007; le Maire et al., 2009; Nishikawa et al., 2004; Matsushima et al., 2013), but the mode-of-action of these EDCs remains mainly unclear. One approach to predict whether a xenobiotic might target a NR is to compare its phenotype against the phenotypes produced by a specific NR agonist/antagonist (Tohmé et al., 2014, Gomes et al., 2019b). If a phenotypic signature can be associated with a specific NR agonist/antagonist, then it can be potentially used as a biomarker of NR-signaling disruption.

In the past years, ascidian species have been used as toxicological models (reviewed in Dumollard et al., 2017; Zega et al., 2009; Gallo and Tosti, 2015; Battistoni et al., 2018). Ascidians are marine filter-feeding chordates belonging to the Subphylum Urochordata, recognized as the sister group of vertebrates (Delsuc et al., 2006). Their zygotes divide 13 to 15 times in 18 hours to give rise to

a transparent vertebrate-like tadpole larvae (Yamada and Nishida, 2014). The ascidian larva 63 possesses both central and peripheral nervous system (CNS and PNS) (reviewed in Hudson, 2016; 64 Dumollard et al., 2017; Gomes et al., 2019a). The CNS of ascidian larvae is composed of a sensory 65 vesicle and a motor ganglion homologous, respectively, to the vertebrate diencephalon and 66 hindbrain (Holland and Holland, 1999). The sensory vesicle within the CNS contains two easily 67 68 identifiable dark pigmented sensory organs (PSO), the otolith (Ot) and the ocellus (Oc). The PNS consists of the papillary neurons in palps, the epidermal sensory neurons, and the bipolar tail 69 neurons (Hudson, 2016). A prominent feature of ascidian larva are the adhesive organs, or palps, 70 71 which are part of the PNS (Takamura, 1998). Hence, a number of morphological features can be assessed in the transparent ascidian larva to discriminate between non specific teratogenicity (i.e. 72 problems in general morphogenesis of the larva) and specific neurodevelopmental toxicity (i.e. 73 problems in the development of PNS and CNS structures). Ascidian neurodevelopment might be 74 especially sensitive to NR-targeting EDCs as several NRs are expressed in neurogenic domains of 75 the ascidian embryo (reviewed in Gomes et al., 2019a). 76

High-content analysis is a technique that involves scoring of multiple endpoints on a single image 77 which can be achieved by automated or semi-automated image analysis and is now commonly 78 79 applied to drug discovery screening using biological systems (Esner et al., 2018). The aim of this study was to analyse the teratogenic effects of different classes of compounds (EDCs, NR ligands, 80 genotoxic and cytotoxic compounds) by quantifying larval malformations of the ascidian Phallusia 81 82 *mammillata*. We have hypothesized that by performing high-content analysis of morphological malformations in *Phallusia* tadpole larvae, we will determine phenotypic signatures of different 83 types of compounds, such as a toxicant (sodium azide), genotoxicants (TBT, etoposide, mitomycin 84 85 C), known/susptected EDCs (lindane, atrazine, chlordane, chlorpyrifos, BPA, estradiol benzoate)

86 and nuclear receptors (NRs) ligands. Etoposide, TBT, and mitomycin were used as reference genotoxic compounds (Kirkland et al., 2016). The pesticides analyzed in the current study (lindane, 87 atrazine, chlordane, chlorpyrifos), as well as BPA, are often referred to as EDCs (Mnif et al., 2011); 88 however, their mechanism of action in marine invertebrates is unknown. Our previous work 89 showed that several NRs (RAR, PXR/VDRα, PPAR, ROR, and ERR) are expressed in neurogenic 90 regions of Phallusia mammillata embryos (Gomes et al., 2019a, Gomes et al., 2019b). We 91 analyzed known agonists/antagonists of these NRs, such as UVI3003 (RXR antagonist), all-trans 92 retinoic acid (RAR agonist), rifampicin and SR12813 (PXR agonists), SR1078 (ROR agonist), 93 94 BADGE (PPAR agonist), diethylstilbestrol, and 4-hydrotamoxifen (ERR antagonists).

95 To complement our morphometric analysis of embryonic development we also performed a genotoxicity assay. Genotoxicity is the loss of DNA structural or functional integrity. There are 96 several protocols for analysing DNA damage induced by genotoxic compounds (OECD test N. 97 487; OECD test N. 473; OECD test N. 489) and some of them have been successfully applied to 98 marine invertebrates (Dixon et al., 2002; Saotome et al., 1999;). However, it is not clear which 99 100 phenotypic signature is associated with DNA damage and genotoxicity in the embryo. The ascidian embryo is an interesting model for scoring genotoxicity, since the spindle assembly checkpoint is 101 102 not active at early stages of development (Chenevert et al., 2020). Thus, even upon DNA damage the embryo will continue dividing without pausing to repair DNA damage, resulting in overt DNA 103 aberrations such as micronuclei, multinucleated cells or DNA bridges. 104

We describe here methods for ascidian embryonic cultures and provide different morphological endpoints of the ascidan larva that can be scored to discriminate larval phenotypes. Such high content analysis of ascidian larval phenotypes can be coupled with DNA staining to correlate embryonic phenotypes with the level of genotoxicity. We show a first screen of 19 molecules using

- these protocols and found that genotoxicants affect all morphological endpoints whereas EDCs
- and NR ligands affect mostly neural endpoints.

111 **2.** Materials & Methods

112 *2.1. Animals*

Phallusia mammillata were collected at Sète (Etang de Tau, Mediterranean coast, France) and kept 113 in the aquaria of the "Centre de Ressources Biologiques" (CRB) of the Institut de la Mer à 114 Villefranche (IMEV) which is an EMBRC-France certified service (see https://www.embrc-115 france.fr/fr/nos-services/fourniture-de-ressources-biologiques/organismes-modeles/ascidie-116 117 phallusia-mammillata). Animals were maintained in the aquaria on open system with running seawater (pH 8.2 \pm 0.05, salinity 40 \pm 0.5 ppt) at 16°C for at least two weeks before use. Animals 118 were fed 3 to 5 times per week with commercial microalgae concentrates (2-3 mL per aquarium 119 120 of 60 L), Shellfish diet 1800® and Isochrysis 1800® (Instant Algae®, Reed Mariculture Inc., Campbell, CA, USA, 95008) purchased from a french distributor. Ascidian eggs were collected 121 by oviduct dissection. In order to ensure proper penetration of the studied compounds into eggs, 122 123 they were dechorionated with 0.1% Trypsin (Sigma-Aldrich, T9201) in filtered sea water (FSW) for 60 min at 20°C, then transferred to fresh sea water and stored at 18°C until required. Sperm 124 was collected by syringe aspiration from a sperm duct and was activated with high pH 9.2 sea 125 water for 10-20 min, then used to fertilize dechorionated eggs (Gomes et al., 2019b; see full 126 protocols http://lbdv.obs-vlfr.fr/en/research/research_groups/ascidian-biocell-127 on group/projets/fertilization-and-meiosis/protocols.html). The embryos were reared in dark 128 conditions to avoid photodegradation of chemicals. 129

130 2.2. Tested Chemicals

Sodium azide (CAS Number: 26628-22-8; purity: ≥ 99%), tributyltin (CAS Number 1461-22-9; ≥
96%), etoposide (CAS Number 33419-42-0; reference standard), atrazine (CAS Number 1912-24-

133 9: analytical standard), lindane (CAS Number 58-89-9; analytical standard), chlordane (CAS 134 Number 5103-71-9; analytical standard), chlorpyrifos (CAS Number 2921-88-2; analytical standard), SR12813 (CAS Number 126411-39-0; \geq 98%), diethylstilbestrol (CAS Number 56-53-135 $1 \ge 99\%$), 4-hydroxytamoxifen (CAS Number 68392-35-8; analytical standard), rifampicin (CAS 136 Number 13292-46-1; ≥97% (HPLC)), mitomycin C (CAS Number 50-07-7; reference standard), 137 bisphenol A (CAS Number 80-05-7; \geq 99%), estradiol benzoate (CAS Number 50-50-0; \geq 97%) 138 (HPLC)), ATRA (CAS Number 302-79-4; $\geq 98\%$), BMS493 (CAS Number 215030-90-3; $\geq 98\%$), 139 and UVI3003 (CAS Number $847239-17-2 \ge 98\%$) were purchased from the Sigma-Aldrich Co. 140 (St Louis, MO, USA). BADGE (CAS Number 1675-54-3; \geq 95%) and SR1078 (CAS Number 141 1246525-60-9; ≥98% (HPLC)) were purchased from Tocris Bioscience (Bristol, UK). Table 1 142 shows tested compounds and concentrations used in the current study. We have performed toxicity 143 testing to determine the dose that will produce serious toxicological effects, therefore the 144 concentrations used in the current study were mostly higher than environmentally relevant. 145

146 2.3. Experimental design

All compounds were resuspended in DMSO for a stock concentration. Immediately before the 147 treatment, stock solutions were diluted with DMSO to a 10 000x working concentration. Finally, 148 149 prediluted stocks were added to the embryo culture medium (FSW, 5 mM TAPS, 0.5 mM EDTA, pH 8, salinity 40 ± 0.5 ppt) at 1:10 000 ratio giving the required concentration of a compound in 150 the medium and 0.01% DMSO (v/v). The same amount of DMSO (0.01% in embryo culture 151 medium) was used as a vehicle control. All solutions were controlled to be at pH 8 and prechilled 152 to 18°C prior to embryo exposure. Concentrations of compounds were selected based on 153 154 preliminary experiments. We have chosen the concentrations which induced malformations, but were not lethal (i.e. which did not induce 100% undevelopped embryos) or the highest solubleconcentration.

Dechorionated eggs (approximately 1000 eggs) were mixed with activated sperm (10⁶/ml diluted 157 158 in FSW) in the embryo culture medium for fertilization (Sardet et al., 2011; Gomes et al., 2019b). 159 After fertilization, embryos were washed twice with FSW to remove excess of sperm and to avoid 160 polyspermy. Washed embryos at 1-cell stage were then transferred to 12-well plates, each well is coated with GF (gelatin/formaldehyde, see Sardet et al., 2011), at a concentration of 100 161 embryos/well. Each well contained either vehicle control or a tested concentration of compound 162 163 in a total of 3 mL of FSW. Plates with embryos were kept in dark humid chambers to avoid 164 photodegradation of xenobiotics at 18°C. Embryos were left to develop to gastrula or neurula stage (7 – 9 hpf at 18°C) and ~30 embryos were collected for genotoxicity analysis (Supplementary Fig. 165 166 1). The rest of embryos was left to develop to swimming larval stage (stage 26, 22 hpf at 18°C; see Gomes et al., 2019b). Embryos were exposed to tested compounds from 1-cell stage till 167 fixation. 168

When embryos in the control reached swimming larval stage, all cultures were fixed with 0.4% formaldehyde to stop motility. Fixed embryos were transferred to a chamber slide and imaged with a Zeiss Axiovert200 inverted microscope at 10X magnification. For each culture, a minimum of minimum of embryos were analyzed per treatment (N = 30 technical replicates). Each experimental condition was repeated at least 3 times (n = 3 biological replicates).

174 2.4. Morphological analysis of phenotypes

Analysis of the phenotypes at larval stage was performed with Toxicosis, a software developed inour laboratory with a proprietary code and filed by the CNRS at the APP (Agency for the

Programs) 177 Protection of July 13th 2018 under the reference on IDDN.FR.001.330013.000.S.P.2018.000.10000. The analyzed endpoints are summarized in 178 Supplementary Figure 2 (B - H). We analyzed the total area of PSO (Oc+Ot area) and the distance 179 between Oc and Ot (Oc/Ot distance) in order to describe development of the central nervous 180 system. The presence/absence of palps was used as a marker of peripheral nervous system 181 182 development. The trunk length to width ratio (trunk L/W) and tail length reflect general morphogenesis of the embryo. 183

The experiments were performed during years 2015 - 2019 in different seasons using wild animals 184 185 from Sète (Etang de Tau, Mediterranean coast, France). Thus variations in natural animal 186 population in addition to seasonal rearing conditions contributed to variations in morphological parameters of control embryos (Table 2). In order to eliminate the effect of external factors we 187 188 have compared and normalized each endpoint with the corresponding value in the control group (0.01% DMSO) done on the same day. Statistical analysis was performed on the raw (not-189 normalized) data using the Kruskal–Wallis test. Analyses were performed at a significance level 190 of 0.01 (for Oc/Ot area, Oc/Ot distance, trunk L/W ratio and tail length) or 0.05 (for % embryos 191 with palps) using STATISTICA v. 13.0 software for Windows. Raw measurements and 192 normalized values are presented in Tables 2-5. 193

In addition, normal, malformed or undevelopped embryos were scored manually. An embryo was considered malformed if the embryo presented signs of antero-posterior elongation (indicating it had undergone gastrulation) or if tadpoles had a crooked tail, an absence of tail, an absence of PSO, or a brain protrusion were observed. Embryos were considered undeveloped if they failed to reach neurula stage (no sign of anteroposterior elongation or gastrulation). We calculated the percentage of: 1) normal embryos [number of normal embryos *100 / (number of normal + malformed + undeveloped)]; 2) malformed [number of malformed embryos *100 / (number of normal + malformed + undeveloped)]; 3) undeveloped [number of undeveloped embryos *100 / (number of normal + malformed + undeveloped)].

203 2.5. Genotoxicity assay

Embryos from gastrula to neurula stage were fixed with a fixation solution (4% paraformaldehyde, 204 205 0.5 M NaCl in PBS) for 1h at 20°C on a shaker. Then the fixative was removed and embryos were washed twice with PBS. After washing, the samples were incubated in PBS containing 0.1% Triton 206 X-100 and 3% bovine serum albumin (PBSB) for 1h at 20°C on a shaker. The embryos were 207 stained with 1 µg/ml Hoechst in PBSB for 1-2h at 20°C on a shaker. The embryos were either 208 stained with Hoecsht only or double stained with Hoecsht and 4 ng/ml phalloidin in PBSB to 209 observe both DNA and membrane. Double staining was done to ascertain the presence of DNA 210 211 bridges between two cells and/or multiple nuclei within the same cell. Finally, the embryos were washed twice with PBSB and transferred on a glass slide. The DNA aberrations (multinucleated 212 213 cells, micronuclei or DNA bridges) were imaged using a confocal Leica SP8 fitted with 40×1.1 NA water objective lens and scored manually. The number of embryos scored in each treatment is 214 shown in Table 6. Embryos were exposed to etoposide 10 µM as a positive control for DNA 215 216 damage. The relationships between % embryos with DNA aberrations, normal, malformed and undeveloped embryos were quantified according to the Spearman's correlation tests. The t-test 217 was used to establish significance of the correlation between pairs of parameters at a significance 218 level of 0.05. 219

220

3. RESULTS

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3.1.Morphometric analysis of larval development in untreated embryos

Figure 1 and Table 2 show changes in the morphology of ascidian embryos, scored quantitatively 224 225 for PSO development (Oc/Ot area, Oc/Ot distance), trunk and tail morphogenesis (trunk L/W ratio, tail length) and qualitatively for palps development (presence of palps). Such morphological 226 227 changes occur from stage 22 (late tailbud) to stage 26 (hatching larva, see 228 https://www.bpni.bio.keio.ac.jp/chordate/faba/1.4/top.html for staging) (Fig. 1 B-F). At 18 hourpost-fertilization (hpf; stage 22), late tailbud embryos start to pigment their PSO (only one 229 pigmented area = $72 \pm 24 \ \mu m^2$) and no palp is apparent at the anterior tip of the trunk (Fig. 1B). 230 231 At stage 23, two distinct pigment cells are visible, the otolith (Ot) and the ocellus (Oc) (forming the PSO of an area of $253 \pm 64 \ \mu\text{m}^2$; Oc/Ot distance = $18 \pm 8 \ \mu\text{m}$) and palps are first visible (Fig. 232 1C). At stage 24, the pigment cells are separated from each other (the otolith positioned anteriorly 233 and the ocellus posteriorly; Oc/Ot distance = $23 \pm 6 \mu m$), and the trunk starts to elongate (Trunk 234 $L/W = 1.8 \pm 0.3$; Fig. 1D). From this stage and up to stage 26, the ocellus and otolith continue to 235 spread and move apart from each other, while the trunk continues to elongate (Fig. 1E, 1F). The 236 237 tail length only increases until stage 23 and then remains constant (tail length is $\sim 500 \,\mu m$, Table 238 2). The stage 26 was selected for further analysis of phenotypes induced by exposure to xenobiotics as it is the developmental stage of hatching. At this stage PSO area (mentioned Oc+Ot area in 239 Table 2 and radar charts), PSO distance and tail length reach maximum, palps are fully developed. 240 241 Later stages are characterized by further trunk elongation, and tail shortening (data not shown, see https://www.bpni.bio.keio.ac.jp/chordate/faba/1.4/top.html). Therefore in further analysis the 242 cultures were fixed and analysed when controls reached stage 26. 243

3.2. Phenotypes induced by general toxicants

246 When *Phallusia* embryos are exposed to toxic compounds, deviations from normal embryonic 247 development (i.e. malformations) can be observed as alterations in the quantified endpoints (PSO 248 area and distance, trunk L/W ratio, tail length), compared to untreated control larvae. Images of larval phenotypes are presented in Supplementary Fig. 3. We first analysed the phenotypes induced 249 250 by exposure to a cytotoxic compound, sodium azide (SA), and to three genotoxicants, etoposide, mitomycin and tributyltin (TBT) (Kirkland et al., 2016) (Table 3, Supplementary figure 3). All 251 252 four tested chemicals significantly affected all the assessed endpoints, resulting in an embryo 253 resembling a mid tailbud stage embryo (st 22-23, Fig. 1A-D; Supplementary Fig. 3).

Concerning the cytotoxicant, the maximum dose of SA tested (2.5 mM) decreased Oc/Ot distance
by 81%, number of embryos with palps by 95%, tail length by 42% and trunk L/W ratio by 43%
(Table 3). Exposure to 2.5 mM SA induced 86±14% of malformed, 12±12% normal, and 2±2
undevelopped embryos (Fig. 2). The lowest observed effective concentrations (LOEC) in our study
was 1 mM for SA (Tables 1 and 3).

Mitomycin significantly reduced Oc/Ot distance, trunk L/W ratio, and tail length at 10 µM (LOEC) 259 and the percentage of embryos with palps was also reduced at this dose (though P > 0.01) (Table 260 3). At 60 μ M, mitomycin strongly affected all endpoints and induced malformations in 91±5% of 261 embryos (Table 3; Supplementary Fig. 3). Exposure to etoposide at concentrations 50 - 75 nM 262 affected PSO area (by 14% at 75 nM), Oc/Ot distance (by 42% at 75 nM), and trunk L/W ratio (by 263 14% at 75 nM), but had no effect on tail length or on the percentage of embryos with palps (Table 264 3). At a higher dose of 100 nM, etoposide had an effect similar to SA and mitomycin (60 μ M), 265 266 affecting all studied endpoints (malformation rate $79\pm16\%$, Fig. 2). Similarly, TBT at 10-20 nM

induced a significant reduction of PSO area (by 40% at 10 nM TBT), of Oc/Ot distance (by 52%
at 10 nM TBT), and trunk L/W ratio (by 27% at 10 nM TBT) (Table 3). Exposure to a high dose
of TBT (50 nM) also led to severe malformations in general morphology of the larvae, with 82±6%
of malformed embryos (Fig. 2; Supplementary Fig. 3).

271 **3.3.***Phenotypes induced by known/suspected EDCs*

Lindane exposure resulted in significant malformations in developing ascidian embryos at 10 μ M. This pesticide affected primarily the Oc/Ot distance (62% of control value) and trunk L/W ratio (76% of control value) of ascidian larvae (Table 4, Supplementary Fig. 4). When the concentration of compound was increased to 20 μ M, the PSO area decreased to 20% of control value and distance between PSO was 36% of that in control. At 20 μ M lindane 53.3±9% of embryos were malformed (Fig. 3).

Similar malformations were observed in atrazine-exposed embryos (Table 4, Supplementary Fig. 4). Our results show that exposure to $25 - 70 \mu$ M atrazine induce a small but significant decrease in Oc/Ot distance (to 69% of the control value at 70 μ M) and trunk L/W ratio (87% of the control value at 70 μ M) without affecting other parameters. Only 12±7% embryos were malformed and 83±7% were normal at 70 μ M of atrazine (Fig. 3).

Bisphenol A (BPA), a xenoestrogen, had a very specific effect on ascidian embryos. All tested concentrations of BPA (5 – 10 μ M) specifically and significantly reduced PSO pigmentation (PSO area) and Oc/Ot distance (Table 4, Supplementary Fig. 4). The rate of malformed embryos reached 53±8% after exposure to 10 μ M BPA with 39±6% normal embryos (Fig. 3).

287 Chlordane provoked phenotypes similar to lindane, with PSO area (86% of control) and Oc/Ot

distance (73 % of control) affected at concentrations of 10 μ M (Table 4, Supplementary Fig. 4).

The highest tested concentration (50 μ M) also decreased the trunk L/W ratio (92% of control), but tail length and palps formation were not significantly affected. Exposure to 50 μ M chlordane resulted in 38±6% malformed embryos and 59±7% normal embryos (Fig. 3).

A slightly different phenotype was observed after exposure of *Phallusia* embryos to chlorpyrifos (Table 4, Supplementary Fig. 4). Low concentrations $10 - 25 \mu$ M affected only Oc+Ot area (85% of the control value) and trunk L/W ratio (89% of the control value). The highest tested concentration (50 μ M) induced significant reduction of PSO area (69% of control), Oc/Ot distance (52 % of control), trunk L/W ratio (75% of the control value) and tail length (67% of control), thus affecting also the morphogenesis of the tadpole and not only neural development. Chlorpyrifos at 50 μ M also induced malformations in 13±7% of exposed embryos (Fig. 3).

We have also analyzed the effect of β-Estradiol 3-benzoate (E2B), an ER ligand used in veterinary
medicine, on *Phallusia* embryo development. Exposure to E2B did not affect any studied endpoint
(Table 4, Fig. 3, Supplementary Fig. 4).

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3 **3.4.** *Phenotypes induced by NR-agonists/antagonists*

We then analysed the phenotypes induced by compounds known to specifically bind a vertebrate NR. The RAR agonist all-trans retinoic acid (ATRA) and the RAR antagonist BMS493 both had a strong inhibitory effect on palp development (Table 5, Supplementary Fig. 5). Exposure to 0.1 μ M ATRA significantly decreased the number of embryos with palps (36% of the control value) without affecting other endpoints. Higher concentrations of ATRA also led to decreased trunk L/W ratio (85% of the control value at 1 μ M). A similar phenotype was observed with the RAR inverse agonist, BMS493, which primarily affected palp development at 3 μ M (15% of the control value) and slightly reduced PSO area (87% of the control value) and the tail length (93% of the control).

An RXR antagonist, UVI3003, at 1 μ M also significantly affected palps formation (40% of the control value), and reduced PSO area (86% of the control value) (Table 5, Supplementary Fig. 5). Exposure to 2 μ M of UVI3003 also led to tail shortening (63% of the control value) and trunk rounding (92% of the control value).

In our study, 4-OHT affected embryo development at concentrations of 5-10 µM (Table 5, 316 Supplementary Fig. 5). At 5 µM 4-OHT reduced mainly the Oc/Ot distance (51 % of control) and 317 the trunk L/W ratio to a lesser extent (83% of the control). At 10 μ M tail length was slightly but 318 significantly affected (to 88% of the corresponding control value). In contrast, DES affected 319 Phallusia larval development already at 1 µM by reducing PSO area (to 84%), Oc/Ot distance (to 320 64%) and trunk L/W ratio (to 80% of the corresponding control value; Table 5, Supplementary 321 Fig. 5). At 2 µM all studied endpoints were significantly affected, showing high toxicity of DES 322 to developing ascidian embryos. 323

Rifampicin exposure significantly affected only Oc/Ot distance (23% of control at 100 μ M) and trunk L/W ratio (70% of control at 100 μ M; Table 5, Supplementary Fig. 5). Another PXR agonist SR12813 (which was not tested against ascidan PXR) also decreased the distance between PSOs (55% of control at 3 μ M) but affected other endpoints such as PSO area (80% of control at 3 μ M), and trunk elongation (84% of control at 3 μ M) (Table 5, Supplementary Fig. 5). The highest tested concentration (7.5 μ M) significantly reduced all studied parameters, thus showing non-specific toxicity. Embryo exposure to the ROR α/γ agonist, SR1078, reduced PSO area (80% of the control value) and trunk L/W ratio (93% of the control value) at 2 μ M (Table 5, Supplementary Fig. 5). At 5 μ M of SR1078, all studied endpoints except the rate of embryos with palps were significantly reduced, showing nonspecific toxicity of the compound.

Exposure of *Phallusia* embryos to BADGE, a PPAR antagonist, induced a phenotype similar to lindane and atrazine (Table 5, Supplementary Fig. 5). At 1 μ M BADGE only the trunk L/W ratio was significantly affected (87% of control value). Higher concentrations of BADGE (2 – 5 μ M) further reduced the trunk L/W ratio (to 74% at 5 μ M) and affected distance between PSO (to 57% at 5 μ M) without affecting the other endpoints.

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341 3.5. Measurement of the genotoxicity induced in ascidian embryos

High concentrations of SA and reference genotoxicants (mitomycin, etoposide, TBT) affect all endpoints in the tadpole larvae (Table 3, Fig. 2), resulting in arrest of development before stage 26. We assessed genotoxicity of these drugs by staining embryo DNA and scoring DNA aberrations. Table 6 and Supplementary Fig. 6 show the scores of DNA aberrations induced by the toxics, after imaging Hoechst-stained *Phallusia* embryos at gastrula and neurula stages.

In the control cultures, embryos showed well aligned nuclei of constant size and tightly packed
nuclear DNA in all 50 embryos (Supplementary Fig. 6A). Control cultures also showed more than
80% of normally developed larvae at 22 hpf (stage 26), without major malformations (Fig. 2).
Following exposure to 2.5 mM SA we observed appearance of few micronuclei and DNA
aberrations in 70% embryos, thus showing that such a dose of SA is genotoxic to ascidian embryos
(Table 6; Supplementary Fig. 6B).

353 Similarly to SA-exposed embryos, micronuclei and multinucleated cells were observed in TBTexposed embryos at 50 nM (Table 6, Supplementary Fig. 6C). In contrast, the embryos exposed to 354 the reference genotoxic compound etoposide (100 nM) exhibited severe DNA damage with 355 formation of DNA bridges in some cells (Table 6, Supplementary Fig. 6D). Exposed embryos were 356 able to develop to tadpole, but showed high rate of malformations (Fig. 2). The higher dose of 357 etoposide (10 µM) also led to formation of DNA bridges, but in the whole embryo (Table 6, 358 Supplementary Fig. 6E). Such embryos developed normally till gastrula stage and did not show 359 any disorganization of cell pattern, the embryo development was blocked shortly after gastrulation 360 (100% undeveloped embryos at 22hpf; Fig. 2). Another reference genotoxic compound, 361 mitomycin C (60 µM), induced formation of DNA bridges in every embryos (Table 6, 362 Supplementary Fig. 6F), but only in parts of the ectoderm (data not shown). Such embryos were 363 still able to develop to the tadpole with 91±5% of malformed and only 8±7% of undeveloped 364 embryos (Fig. 2). 365

We have also assessed whether high concentrations of EDCs (lindane, atrazine, BPA, chlordane, 366 and chlorpyrifos) were genotoxic to ascidian embryos. Most of the pesticides induced little or no 367 DNA damage in *Phallusia* embryos (Table 6). Exposure to 20 µM lindane led to appearance of 368 369 few micronuclei per gastrula without affecting the pattern of cellular divisions (Supplementary Fig. 6G). This low level of DNA damage is associated with 53.3±9% of malformed embryos (Fig. 370 3). In presence of 70 μ M atrazine no DNA aberrations was observed and only 12±7% embryos 371 372 were malformed (Table 6; Fig. 3). Exposure to 50 µM chlordane resulted in appearance of rare micronuclei (Table 6; Supplementary Fig. 6H) and only 38±6% malformed embryos (Fig. 3). 373 Chlorpyrifos at 50 µM also had low genotoxic effect (Table 6) and induced malformations in 374

 $13\pm7\%$ of exposed embryos (Fig. 3). In the culture treated with 10 µM BPA only 14 out of 119 embryos (11%) were scored as having DNA aberrations (Table 6).

We have also analyzed correlation between the percentage of embryos showing DNA aberrations, with the percentage of normal, malformed and undeveloped embryos (Table 7). According to Spearman's test, the presence of DNA aberrations in *Phallusia* embryos exhibited a strong negative correlation with the percentage of normal embryos in the culture (r = -0.93, p < 0.05) and showed not significant positive correlations with malformed (r = 0.5, p > 0.05) and undeveloped embryos (r = 0.35, p > 0.05).

384 **4. DISCUSSION**

385 We present here a test for developmental toxicity based on larval phenotypes of Phallusia 386 mammillata embryos. Previous toxicological studies using ascidian embryos lacked standardized 387 endpoints and protocols for quantification of larval malformations (Dumollard et al., 2017). The teratogenic potential of the tested xenobiotics was assessed by high content analysis of 388 389 neurodevelopmental endpoints such as pigment sensory organs (PSO) area, distance between 390 ocellus and otolith, rate of embryos with palps, as well as general morphogenesis endpoints such as trunk length/width ratio and tail length. We implemented serial embryonic cultures, imaged and 391 392 analysed them by scoring quantitative and qualitative endpoints. Transparency of *Phallusia* larvae allows assessment of neurodevelopmental disorders without additional staining. This feature 393 distinguish our model from existing tests on marine invertebrate embryos (Sarkar et al., 2006). Our 394 assay also affords to determine the genotoxic potential of tested compounds in the same cohort of 395 embryos, to correlate genotoxicity with teratogenicity. 396

397 Results obtained in the current study show that exposure to toxicants may either induce a phenotype restricted to one or two endpoints or result in malformations resembling a delay in 398 embryonic development (when all endpoints are affected, Supplementary Fig. 3-5). Such delay in 399 400 embryonic development in response to stress or DNA damage is well described in the literature (Häder et al., 2011; Chiarelli et al., 2019). Therefore phenotypes that show 4 or 5 affected 401 endpoints were considered either non-specific or indicative of DNA damage. The distance between 402 Oc and Ot is the most sensitive endpoint as it was affected by most treatments. The reduction of 403 Oc/Ot distance can be used to determine LOEC values of the compounds. In contrast, specific 404 405 phenotypes, such as the embryos without palps but with unaffected PSO or tail length, could be characteristic of some toxicants. For example, the rate of embryos with palps is mostly affected 406 20

upon exposure to RAR/RXR ligands and the absence of palps may thus be a good indicator of
alterations in the RAR/RXR pathway. Conversely, tail length was the least affected parameter
demonstrating that tail extension is prevented only at high level of toxicity or in cases of
genotoxicity.

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- 412

4.1. Phenotypes of general toxicants and genotoxicants

413 Etoposide, mitomycin, and TBT have been shown to induce DNA damage in numerous test 414 systems (reviewed in Kirkland et al., 2016). Our present protocol couples the scoring of DNA 415 aberrations with the morphometric analysis of larval phenotypes, in order to estimate the impact 416 of genotoxicity on teratogenicity. DNA problems can quickly accumulate in ascidian embryos as 417 the early embryo proliferates without an active spindle assembly checkpoint (Chenevert et al., 2020). Therefore, at gastrula and neurula stages DNA aberrations can be easily observed with 418 nuclei staining (in our study with Hoechst). Previous studies on sea urchin (Saotome et al., 1999) 419 420 and zebrafish (Le Bihanic et al., 2016) showed that mitomycin induced micronuclei formation at 421 concentrations 5 µg/mL and 0.03 µg/mL respectively. In our study, we observed genotoxicity of mitomycin only at 60 μ M (20 μ g/mL). The longer exposure time in both sea urchin and zebrafish 422 protocols may explain their higher sensitivity. Nevertheless, our approach allowed us to see several 423 types of DNA damage (micronuclei, multinucleated cells, DNA bridges) and correlate them with 424 425 embryonic phenotypes in a shorter time.

DNA damage was associated with a significant reduction of all studied endpoints. Reduction of all endpoints by SA, TBT, etoposide and mitomycin resulted in phenotypes resembling untreated control embryos at stages 22-23. Interestingly, TBT and SA which are known to have cytotoxic effects (Oyanagi et al., 2015; Weyermann et al., 2005) induced formation of multinucleated cells
and micronuclei, whereas clastogenic genotoxicants (mitomycin C and etoposide) led to formation
of DNA bridges. Formation of DNA bridges in the whole embryo at gastrula stage led to complete
arrest in development (see etoposide 10 µM, Fig. 2).

TBT has been shown to affect embryo development in invertebrates (Alzieu, 2000; Gallo, Tosti, 433 434 2013; Matthiessen, 2019) and to slow down development rate in vertebrates (Bentivegna and Piatkowski, 1998). Bellas et al (2005) found that TBT affects embryo development of the ascidian 435 Ciona intestinalis with EC₅₀ at 7.1 µg/l (22 nM); our study revealed significant changes in PSO 436 437 parameters at a similar range of concentrations (10 - 50 nM TBT). Even though no DNA aberrations were observed at 10 nM TBT (data not shown), the teratogenicity of such a dose of 438 439 TBT was detected as a reduction in PSO area and trunk L/W ratio. Higher concentrations of TBT (50 nM) induced micronuclei and multinucleated cells, demonstrating DNA damage associated 440 with reduction of the ratio of normal embryos in the culture. 441

Previous study have shown that 5 mM SA inhibited myoplasmic reorganization and establishment of anteroposterior axis in embryos of *Ciona intestinalis* (Ishii et al., 2014). In our study, embryos of *Phallusia* were significantly affected by 1 - 2.5 mM SA and DNA damage was observed after exposure to 2.5 mM SA. The phenotypes observed in *Ciona* embryos exposed to 5 mM SA must then be due to the strong genotoxic effect of SA at this dose.

Altogether, our observations show that mild DNA damage is reflected in micronuclei at the
gastrula/neurula stage and such DNA damage is permissive for development up to stage 23 (TBT,
SA). Ascidian embryos can also tolerate appearance of DNA bridges in the epidermis (mitomycin)
or in parts of the embryo (etoposide 100 nM). However, extensive DNA damage caused by

451 accumulation of double strand breaks and formation of DNA bridges throughout the embryo 452 prevents development past stage 10 (gastrula). There was a strong negative correlation between 453 DNA damage and the percentage of normal embryos in the culture. Our study thus allows to 454 speculate that a high percentage of undeveloped embryos is indicative of strong genotoxicity of a 455 tested compound. In contrast observing embryos arrested at stage 22 (and before PSO 456 pigmentation) would indicate medium genotoxicity of the tested compounds. Nevertheless, further 457 studies are needed to confirm this finding.

The highest tested concentrations of xenobiotics (20 µM lindane, 50 µM chlordane, and 50 µM 458 459 chlorpyrifos, 10 µM BPA) induced formation of micronuclei and the percentage of embryos with 460 DNA problems correlated positively with the percentage of embryos with malformations (Tables 6-7, Fig. 3). However, these concentrations of pesticides induced reduction of at least three studied 461 462 morphological parameters, but did not lead to the same phenotypes like genotoxicants. Our previous studies showed severe genotoxicity of BPA at 40 µM (Gomes et al., 2019b); however, a 463 small number of embryos with micronuclei was detected already at 10 µM (Table 6). In contrast, 464 atrazine did not induce any detectable DNA damage, and only two endpoints were affected. 465

466 Taken together these results suggest that high concentrations of EDCs may induce DNA damage, 467 which severely affects embryo development. However, most of these xenobiotics (lindane, 468 atrazine, chlordane, chlorpyrifos, and BPA) induced embryonic phenotypes at lower 469 concentrations than the ones inducing mild DNA damage, indicating that their main mechanism 470 of action is not related to genotoxicity.

471

472 **4.2.** Phenotypes of EDCs and NRs ligands

We compared the phenotypic signature of EDCs with that of known NR ligands because a major
mode of action (MoA) of EDCs is via modification of NR activity. The presence of palps was
sensitive to RXR and RAR inhibition and activation, but because other NR ligands had overlapping
phenotypes it was not possible to find other specific phenotypic signatures.

Previous studies have shown that the retinoic acid (RA) signaling pathway regulates axial 477 478 patterning and neurogenesis in the developing central and peripheral nervous systems of chordates including ascidians (Fujiwara and Kawamura, 2003; Nagatomo et al., 2003; Zieger et al., 2018). 479 480 RA signal is mediated by an RA-binding heterodimeric transcription factor consisting of RAR and 481 RXR (Mangelsdorf and Evans, 1995). Both receptors are expressed in neurogenic domains of ascidian embryos (Nagatomo et al., 2003, Gomes et al., 2019a), thus their ligands can most likely 482 affect ascidian larval brain formation (Nagatomo et al., 2003). In the current study we analyzed 483 484 the effect of the RAR agonist all-trans retinoic acid (ATRA), of the RAR antagonist BMS493 and of the RXR antagonist UVI3003, on Phallusia embryos. All compounds completely blocked 485 formation of the adhesive palps and slightly but consistently increased the distance between PSO. 486 These results are in agreement with previous studies (Dumollard et al., 2017; Nagatomo et al., 487 488 2003) showing similar phenotypes in ascidian embryos treated with ATRA. The similar 489 phenotypes induced by activation and inactivation of RAR can be explained by a downregulation of RA metabolism in ATRA-exposed tailbud embryo (Nagatomo et al., 2003) as found in the 490 mouse (Lee at al., 2012) but this hypothesis should be confirmed in ascidians. 491

The RAR-orphan receptor (ROR) is ubiquitously expressed from the 16-cell to the tailbud stage (Gomes et al., 2019a). In the tadpole, ROR expression is observed in the anterior region adjacent to the brain, suggested to give rise to the future oral siphon in the adult (Gomes et al., 2019a; Tolkin and Christiaen, 2016; Veeman et al., 2010). The ROR agonist SR1078 slightly reduced 496 PSO area and trunk L/W ratio at 2 μ M, whereas higher concentration affected almost all studied 497 endpoints (except tail length), indicating non-specific toxicity. This suggests that ROR might 498 participate in PSO development but this should be confirmed by specific ROR knockdown.

499 It is known that the vertebrate pregnane X receptor (PXR) is a member of the NR super-family which regulates transcription of genes involved in the metabolism and excretion of endogenous 500 501 and exogenous toxic compounds (Fidler et al., 2012). PXR transcriptional targets in mammals include the cytochrome P450 (CYP) 2C and 3A enzymes, and transporters such as multidrug 502 resistant protein (MDR, ABCB1) (Reschly et al., 2007). Those proteins in turn regulate, transport 503 504 and metabolize xenobiotics, steroid hormones, and vitamins. In ascidians, such as Ciona intestinalis and Phallusia mammillata, genome encodes an orthologue of the vertebrate PXR and 505 vitamin D receptor (VDR), denoted VDR/PXR (Yagi et al., 2003). Our previous study indicate 506 that, in *Phallusia*, VDR/PXR is expressed in the brain region of embryos and larvae (Gomes et al., 507 2019a). As predicted, the current study shows significant changes in PSO development and trunk 508 elongation after exposure to lindane and chlordane (PXR ligands according to Lemaire et al., 509 2004), and PXR agonists (rifampicin and SR12813). Functional inactivation of PXR in ascidians 510 is now required to confirm the role of PXR in PSO development and trunk elongation. 511

Ascidians possess a single copy of the PPAR gene (Yagi et al., 2003), which is expressed in few cells within the ascidian brain, in the vicinity of the PSO (Gomes et al., 2019a). Interestingly, a synthetic ligand of PPAR γ , BADGE (Wright et al., 2000), showed significant effect on PSO development at 1 – 5 µM. Similar cocnentrations of BADGE also caused neurodevelopmental toxicity in an amphibian (*Rhinella arenarum*, EC₅₀ = 0.5 µM) (Hutler et al., 2016). 517 The majority of EDCs act primarily via steroid receptors (UNEP/WHO, 2013) but ascidians lack steroid binding nuclear receptors such as ER or AR (Yagi et al., 2003). As expected, estradiol 518 benzoate (which binds only ER) was not toxic to ascidian embryos. The xenoestrogens DES, 519 520 4OHT and BPA all inhibited PSO development potentially via inhibition of the estrogen related receptor (ERR) which is expressed in the PSO of the ascidian larva (Gomes et al., 2019b). Indeed, 521 522 even though ERR is an orphan NR, synthetic molecules such as DES and 4-OHT can directly bind ascidian (Park et al., 2009) and vertebrate ERRs (Coward et al., 2001, Gibert et al., 2011), while 523 BPA binds vertebrate ERRy (Tohmé et al., 2014). Furthermore, ERR plays important roles in the 524 525 development of the vertebrate brain and sensory organs (Hermans-Borgmeyer et al., 2000; Lim et al., 2015; Chen and Nathans, 2007). Together, our observations suggest that ERR is involved in 526 527 ascidian larval brain formation (see also Gomes et al., 2019b). The xenobiotics targeting ERR 528 (such as BPA, DES or 4OHT) are predicted to exert neurodevelopmental toxicity in ascidians. However, since PSO development was affected also by other EDCs and other NR ligands, further 529 studies should clarify the role of ERR in PSO development. 530

531

532 **5.** CONCLUSION

533 Overall we conclude that *Phallusia mammillata* is a suitable and sensitive model for toxicity 534 screening. The ability to easily assess neural development in the transparent *Phallusia* larva also 535 offers to assess the impact on neurodevelopment of sublethal concentrations of toxicants shedding 536 light on potential mechanisms of teratogenicity or mode of actions of toxicants. The proposed 537 embryo/larval assay allows a fast and quantitative evaluation of teratogenic effects of xenobiotics 538 on ascidian embryo and a correlation with the extent of genotoxicity. Analysis of embryo phenotypes induced by different compounds indicate that severe malformations resembling developmental delay are associated with genotoxicity. In contrast, compounds like EDCs and NR ligands are impacting mostly neurodevelopmental endpoints. This study sets the stage for quantitative analysis of embryo phenotypes that could be used to study not only the teratogenicity of NR-targeting EDCs, but also the potential effects of pollutants that can be dissolved in sea water.

Functional studies are needed to characterize *Phallusia* embryonic phenotypes observed after activation or inhibition of NRs, and consequently compare these phenotypes with phenotypes induced by a library of compounds, as a first step for performing predictive toxicology on marine invertebrate organisms.

549

550 **Declaration of interest**

551 We declare that we have no financial or non-financial competing interests.

552

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Table 1. List of chemicals used for toxicity screening and concentrations analyzed in the current study, listed in the order presented on figures 2 - 4. The LOEC is the lowest tested concentration (experimental) that is significantly different from the control as determined by one or several endpoints (Kruskal-Wallis test, P < 0.05). Last column mention the affected endpoint at LOEC.

Chemical name	Doses assessed in	LOEC ¹	Affected endpoints at LOEC
	the current study		
Sodium azide	0.1 – 2.5mM	1 mM	PSO ² area, PSO distance, Trunk
			L/W ratio ³ , Tail length
Tributyltin	10 – 50 nM	10 nM	PSO area, PSO distance, Trunk
			L/W ratio
Etoposide	50 nM – 10 μM	50 nM	PSO area, PSO distance, Trunk
			L/W ratio
Mitomycin C	10 – 60 µM	10 µM	PSO distance, Trunk L/W ratio,
			Tail length
γ-BHC (Lindane)	2.5 – 20 μM	10 μ M	PSO distance, Trunk L/W ratio
Atrazine	$1-70 \ \mu M$	50 µM	PSO distance, Trunk L/W ratio
Bisphenol A (BPA)	$1-50 \ \mu M$	1 μM	PSO area, PSO distance
		(Gomes et al.,	
		2019b)	
cis/trans-Chlordane	10 - 50 μM	10 μM	PSO area, PSO distance
Chlorpyrifos	10 – 100 μM	10 µM	PSO area
Estradiol benzoate (E2B)	5 – 10 µM	ND ⁴	ND ⁴

ATRA	$0.01-5 \ \mu M$	0.1 μΜ	% embryos with palps, Trunk L/W
(all trans retinoic			ratio
acid)			
BMS493	1-5 μM	3 μΜ	PSO area, % embryos with palps,
			Tail length
UVI3003	0.1 – 2 µM	1 μΜ	PSO area, % embryos with palps
4-Hydroxytamoxifen	1 – 50 μM	5 μΜ	PSO distance
(4HT)			
Diethylstilbestrol	0.1 – 25 μM	1 μΜ	PSO area, PSO distance, Trunk
(DES)			L/W ratio
Rifampicin	10 – 100 μM	50 µM	PSO distance, Trunk L/W ratio
SR 1078	0.1 – 5 μM	2 µM	PSO area
BADGE	1 – 100 μM	1 μΜ	Trunk L/W ratio
SR 12813	1.5 – 10 μM	3 μΜ	PSO area, PSO distance, Trunk
			L/W ratio

¹ LOEC - the lowest tested concentration (experimental) that is significantly different from the

control as determined by one or several endpoints (Kruskal-Wallis test, P < 0.05).

² PSO – pigmented sensory organs

³ Trunk L/W ratio – trunk length / width ratio

⁴ND – not determined

Figure 1. Changes of morphological parameters during embryonic development (between stage 22 and stage 26). **A.** The measured endpoints are summarized in the radar chart depicting normalized values (normalized to stage 26 values): ocellus (Oc) + otolith (Ot) area (μ m²); Oc/Ot distance (μ m); percentage of embryos with palps (%); trunk L/W (length/width) ratio; tail length (μ m). Measurement of all parameters was performed for min N=50 embryos. Asterisks indicate significant difference compared to the control (Kruskal-Wallis test, P < 0.05). **B.** Trunk region at 18 hpf (stage 22). Black arrow shows formation of ocellus (Oc), **C.** Trunk region at 19 hpf (stage 23). Black arrow shows formation of ocellus (Oc), dark grey arrow shows formation of otolith (Ot) and separation of two pigmented sensory organs (PSO) at stage 23. White arrow indicates formation of palps at stage 23 **D.** Trunk region at 20 hpf (stage 24). **E.** Trunk region at 21 hpf (stage 25). **F.** Trunk region at 22 hpf (stage 26). Scale bars correspond to 20 µm

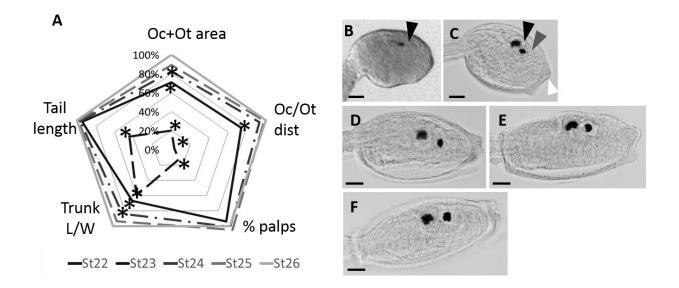


Table 2. Changes of morphological parameters during embryonic development. (between stage 22 and stage 26). The mean values \pm SD are presented. N is the number of embryos assessed at each stage. The line "St26 controls-2015-209" shows average values of morphological parameters from all cultures performed in this study.

Stage of embryo development	N	PSO area, μm^2	PSO distance, μm	Palps, % ¹	Trunk L/W ratio ²	Tail length, μm
Stage 22	49	72 ± 24	0,8 ± 3	12	$1,3 \pm 0,1$	237 ± 24
Stage 23	47	253 ± 64	18 ± 8	89	$1,4 \pm 0,1$	506 ± 37
Stage 24	49	294 ± 47	23 ± 6	96	1,8 ± 0,3	516 ± 173
Stage 25	46	317 ± 41	24 ± 4	100	1,9 ± 0,2	527 ± 146
Stage 26	75	320 ± 47	24 ± 7	100	2 ± 0,2	535 ± 116
Stage 26, controls 2015- 2019	4903	292 ±142	20 ± 11	92 ± 3.2	2.6 ± 1.5	483 ± 162

¹Palps, % – the percentage embryos with palps;

²Trunk L/W ratio – trunk length / width ratio

Table 3. Morphometric analysis of phenotypes observed in *Phallusia mammillata* larvae exposed to toxicants. N shows the number of embryos analyzed. The table summarize the following endpoints: ocellus (Oc) + otolith (Ot) area (μ m2); Oc/Ot distance (μ m); percentage of embryos with palps (%); trunk L/W (length/width) ratio; tail length (μ m). All measurements are performed at 22 hpf. Data presented as means ± S.E and as % to the control. Asterisks indicate significant difference compared to the control (Kruskal-Wallis test, P < 0.05). SA indicate sodium azide ; TBT – tributyltin.

Treatment	N	Oc/Ot area, μm ² , mean ± S.E.	Oc/Ot area, % to the control	Oc/Ot distance, μm, mean ± S.E.	Oc/Ot distance % to the control	% palps, means ± S.E.	Palps% to the control	Trunk L/W ratio, means l ± S.E.	Trunk _/W % to the control	Tail length, μm, means ± S.E.	Tail length % to the control
control	322	362.9 ± 8.1 -	i i	19.7 ± 0.6	-	91.7 ± 3.2	-	2.3 ± 0.03-	•	550.1 ± 4.6	-
SA 100uM	317	355.3 ± 8.6	93%	19.4 ± 0.6	95%	90.1 ± 2.9	100%	2.3 ± 0.03	94%	531.1 ± 4.7	97%
SA 1mM	151	268 ± 16.6 *	58%	10.1 ± 0.9 *	37%	35.6 ± 31.5	37%	1.7 ± 0.03 *	67%	425.3 ± 18.6 *	66%
SA 2.5mM	115	300.2 ± 19.2 *	56%	4.1 ± 0.9 *	19%	3.8 ± 3.8 *	6%	1.2 ± 0.01 *	57%	339.2 ± 11.2 *	58%
control	120	314.1 ± 12.4 -		21.7 ± 1.1	-	93.7 ± 3.7	-	2.2 ± 0.04-		510.9 ± 12.2	-
TBT 10nM	106	186.8 ± 13.5 *	60%	10.5 ± 1.2 *	48%	66.1 ± 14.5	72%	1.6 ± 0.05 *	73%	477.7 ± 14.1	99%
TBT 20nM	133	164.3 ± 12.1 *	47%	9.4 ± 1 *	38%	46.4 ± 17.3	50%	1.6 ± 0.05 *	70%	443.6 ± 13.3	79%
TBT 50nM	122	40.8 ± 7.5 *	10%	1.2 ± 0.5 *	4%	13.3 ± 12.3 *	14%	1.3 ± 0.03 *	54%	302.3 ± 13.3 *	49%
control	211	298.1 ± 6.5 -		25.6 ± 0.6	i-	98.8 ± 1.2	-	2.2 ± 0.02-	•	433.8 ± 18.8	-
Etoposide 50nM	168	252.4 ± 6.3 *	95%	21.3 ± 0.8 *	80%	98.8 ± 0.6	100%	2 ± 0.02 *	92%	428.9 ± 20.3	97%
Etoposide 75nM	116	221.3 ± 7.4 *	86%	14.6 ± 1.1 *	58%	70.9 ± 16.9	73%	1.7 ± 0.03 *	86%	463.7 ± 19.2	92%
Etoposide 100nM	139	120.8 ± 7.7 *	44%	4.2 ± 0.7 *	18%	20.1 ± 18.7 *	21%	1.3 ± 0.02 *	63%	253.2 ± 16.1 *	56%
control	410	366.3 ± 5.4 -		20.6 ± 0.5	-	93.6 ± 1.5	-	2.4 ± 0.01-	•	443.9 ± 1.5	-
Mitomycin C 10µM	361	340.8 ± 6.7	95%	15.7 ± 0.7 *	81%	56.5 ± 11.7	41%	1.5 ± 0.01 *	56%	317.4 ± 4.7 *	93%
Mitomycin C 40µM	284	285.6 ± 10.3	96%	10.3 ± 1 *	44%	12.4 ± 6.2 *	15%	1.3 ± 0.01 *	46%	234.4 ± 5.8 *	71%
Mitomycin C 60µM	165	226 ± 13.4 *	62%	4.4 ± 0.9 *	32%	0.3 ± 0.3 *	0%	1.2 ± 0.01 *	44%	421.5 ± 2.6 *	59%

Figure 2. The percentage of normal (light grey), malformed (dark grey) and undeveloped (black) embryos in the sodium azide (SA) 2.5 mM, etoposide (Et) 100 nM and 10 μ M, mitomycin 60 μ M, tributyltin (TBT) 50 nM. Data are presented as means ± SEM.

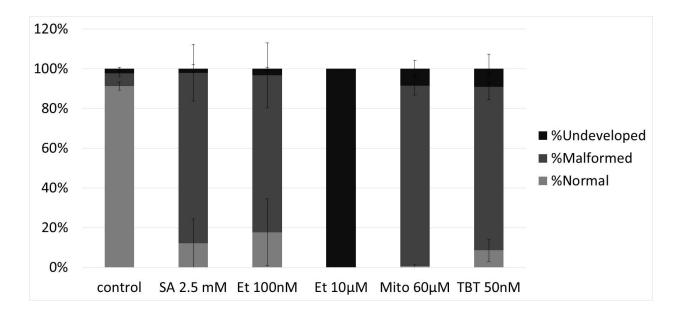


Table 4. Morphometric analysis of phenotypes observed in *Phallusia mammillata* larvae exposed to EDCs. N shows the number of embryos analyzed. The table summarize the following endpoints: ocellus (Oc) + otolith (Ot) area (μ m2); Oc/Ot distance (μ m); percentage of embryos with palps (%); trunk L/W (length/width) ratio; tail length (μ m). All measurements are performed at 22 hpf. Data presented as means ± S.E and as % to the control. Asterisks indicate significant difference compared to the control (Kruskal-Wallis test, P < 0.05). BPA indicate bisphenol A ; E2B – estradiol benzoate.

Treatment	Ν	Oc/Ot area, µm ² , mean ± S.E.	Oc/Ot area % to the control	Oc/Ot distance, μm, mean ± S.E.	Oc/Ot distance % to the control	% palps, means ± S.E.	- 10 NO 10 - 10	Trunk L/W ratio, means ± S.E.		Tail length, µm, means ± S.E.	Tail length % to the control
control	112	321.1 ± 14.8	-	20.3 ± 1.2	-	80.1 ± 1.6	-	2.2 ± 0.04	-	499.5 ± 12.5	-
Lindane 10µM	136	286.7 ± 12.2	92%	12.4 ± 1.1 *	62%	68 ± 4.5	85%	1.7 ± 0.02 *	77%	489 ± 8	95%
Lindane 15µM	139	224.4 ± 12.2 *	71%	8.8 ± 1 *	44%	60.6 ± 11.1	75%	1.5 ± 0.02 *	70%	476.2 ± 5.4	92%
Lindane 20µM	56	245.2 ± 16.7 *	83%	8.2 ± 1.3 *	36%	52.2 ± 17.2	66%	1.6 ± 0.04 *	75%	443.9 ± 19.4	85%
control	193	293.5 ± 11.2	-	17.1 ± 0.9	-	77.1 ± 7.4	-	1.9 ± 0.03	-	520.1 ± 11	-
Atrazine 25µM	172	262.4 ± 10.8	87%	15.2 ± 1	96%	78.9 ± 8.5	101%	1.8 ± 0.03	94%	525 ± 9.5	101%
Atrazine 50µM	160	274.1 ± 9.8	95%	14.1 ± 1 *	83%	75.1 ± 6.4	102%	1.7 ± 0.03 *	92%	500.4 ± 10.1	99%
Atrazine 70µM	112	277.5 ± 11.7	87%	13.2 ± 1.2 *	69%	85.7 ± 10.7	108%	1.8 ± 0.03 *	87%	554.5 ± 7.2	101%
control	387	294.4 ± 6.8	-	20.4	-	84.1 ± 5.3	-	2.1 ± 0.02	-	535.7 ± 5.9	-
ΒΡΑ 5μΜ	165	124.8 ± 5.7 *	50%	7.6 ± 0.8 *	38%	95.9 ± 1.4	98%	2.3 ± 0.03	96%	574.1 ± 6.1	101%
BPA 10µM	343	91.6 ± 5.3 *	35%	4.4 ± 0.5 *	26%	63.7 ± 10	75%	1.8 ± 0.02 *	83%	486.1 ± 6.1	90%
control	195	285.6 ± 10.5	-	17.0	-	78 ± 5.3	-	1.7 ± 0.03	-	521.9 ± 8.3	-
Chlordane 10µM	131	208.9 ± 11.9 *	86%	11.7 ± 1.1 *	73%	52.2 ± 7.9	72%	1.6 ± 0.03 *	94%	476.6 ± 10.6	93%
Chlordane 25µM	101	199.9 ± 11.9 *	84%	10.5 ± 1.2 *	64%	69.9 ± 10.1	95%	1.6 ± 0.03 *	96%	490.7 ± 10.6	93%
Chlordane 50µM	105	175 ± 11.5 *	65%	6.6 ± 1.1 *	25%	65 ± 12.3	85%	1.5 ± 0.02 *	92%	450.6 ± 13.1	86%
control	281	336 ± 6.2	-	21.2 ± 0.6	-	91.1 ± 3.1	-	2.4 ± 0.03	-	562.3 ± 4	-
Chlorpyrifos 10µM	274	285.6 ± 6.3 *	85%	18.1 ± 0.7	76%	77.9 ± 8	85%	2.2 ± 0.04 *	89%	523.8 ± 7.2	90%
Chlorpyrifos 25µM	152	292.3 ± 6.6 *	83%	21.7 ± 0.9	84%	85.9 ± 8.3	90%	2.4 ± 0.04	94%	544.8 ± 8.5	91%
Chlorpyrifos 50µM	216	245.1 ± 7.2 *	70%	13.8 ± 0.8 *	52%	69 ± 133	80%	2.1 ± 0.03 *	76%	464 ± 8.5 *	66%
control	193	379.5 ± 9.5	-	24.9 ± 0.7	-	92.8 ± 4.5	-	2.6 ± 0.03	-	461.1 ± 22.5	-
E2B 5µM	159	427.6 ± 4.4	96%	20.7 ± 0.7	85%	98.5 ± 1.5	101%	2.3 ± 0.01	95%	416.1 ± 22.1	94%
E2B 10µM	165	353.8 ± 8.6	95%	20.8 ± 0.9	94%	93.7 ± 5.6	101%	2.4 ± 0.03	96%	482.6 ± 22.8	104%

Figure 3. The percentage of normal (light grey), malformed (dark grey) and undeveloped (black) embryos in the lindane (Lind) 20 μ M, atrazine (Atr) 70 μ M, bisphenol A (BPA) 10 μ M, chlordane (Chl) 50 μ M, chlorpyrifos (CP) 50 μ M, estradiol benzoate (E2B) 10 μ M. Data are presented as means \pm SEM.

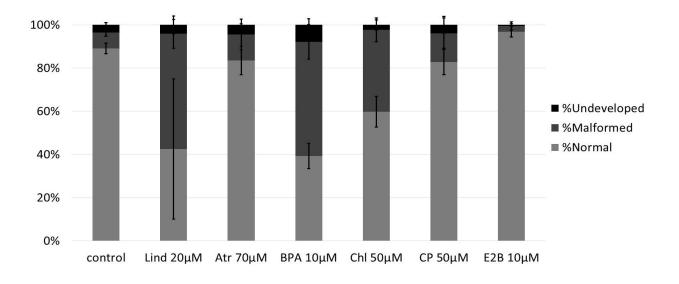


Table 5. Morphometric analysis of phenotypes observed in *Phallusia mammillata* larvae exposed to agonists/antagonists of nuclear receptors (NR). N shows the number of embryos analyzed. The table summarize the following endpoints: ocellus (Oc) + otolith (Ot) area (μ m2); Oc/Ot distance (μ m); percentage of embryos with palps (%); trunk L/W (length/width) ratio; tail length (μ m). All measurements are performed at 22 hpf. Data presented as means ± S.E and as % to the control. Asterisks indicate significant difference compared to the control (Kruskal-Wallis test, P < 0.05). ATRA indicate all trans retinoic acid ; 4-OHT – 4-Hydroxytamoxifen ; DES – diethylstilbestrol ; BADGE – Bisphenol A diglycidyl ether.

Treatment	Ν	Oc/Ot area, μm², mean ± S.E.	Oc/Ot area % to the control	Oc/Ot distance, μm, mean ± S.E.	Oc/Ot distance % to the control	% palps, means ± S.E.	Palps % to the control	Trunk L/W ratio, means ± S.E.	Trunk L/W % to the control	Tail length, μm, means ± S.E.	Tail length % to the control
control	468	140.8 ± 3.1	-	14.1 ± 0.4	-	77.1 ± 2.1	-	1.7 ± 0.02	-	416.1 ± 1.7	-
ATRA 0.1µM	385	130.8 ± 4.5	104%	14 ± 0.6	120%	32.7 ± 6.3 *	36%	1.4 ± 0.01 *	84%	404.5 ± 2.4	97%
ATRA 0.5µM	358	114.7 ± 4.1 *	103%	11.7 ± 0.6	122%	15.9 ± 6.3 *	23%	1.4 ± 0.01 *	89%	398.5 ± 2.2	98%
ATRA 1µM	135	162.9 ± 9.9	114%	15.5 ± 1.2	113%	4.3 ± 2.5 *	6%	1.4 ± 0.02 *	85%	410.2 ± 4.9	98%
control	276	137.9 ± 3.6		13.8 ± 0.5	-	73.5 ± 3.8	<u>-</u>	1.5 ± 0.02	-	400 ± 2.3	-
BMS493 1µM	241	127.9 ± 4.3	103%	12.3 ± 0.6	101%	54 ± 5	74%	1.6 ± 0.02	99%	395.1 ± 2.6	97%
BMS493 3µM	100	108.6 ± 5.9 *	87%	11.3 ± 1.1	110%	19.8 ± 7.7 *	16%	1.4 ± 0.02	100%	366.8 ± 8.2 *	94%
BMS493 5µM	60	105.7 ± 6.2 *	70%	11.1 ± 1.2	94%	10.6 ± 6.6 *	6%	1.4 ± 0.02 *	90%	359.9 ± 6.6 *	87%
control	139	129.5 ± 4.9	-	13.6 ± 0.7	-	80.4 ± 5.1	-	1.4 ± 0.02	-	356.8 ± 10.7	-
UVI3003 0,1µM	94	130.2 ± 6.1	94%	15 ± 1.1	125%	48 ± 3.2	53%	1.5 ± 0.03	95%	330.2 ± 14.3	96%
UVI3003 1µM	141	108 ± 4.9 *	86%	10.3 ± 0.8	88%	22.7 ± 8.5 *	40%	1.5 ± 0.02	97%	318.2 ± 12.7	100%
UVI3003 2µM	158	102.3 ± 4.5 *	75%	10.3 ± 1.1	82%	8.3 ± 3.3 *	23%	1.4 ± 0.02 *	92%	237.3 ± 11.5 *	63%
control	375	322 ± 6	-	22.9 ± 0.5	-	95.4 ± 3.6	-	2.6 ± 0.03	-	478 ± 14	-
A-OHT 2.5µM	128	391.1 ± 7.2 *	103%	20.6 ± 1.1	96%	95.6 ± 4.4	108%	2.2 ± 0.03	93%	471.5 ± 23.4	100%
4-OHT 5µM	269	290.7 ± 9.7	88%	12.8 ± 0.9 *	51%	72.8 ± 4.9 *	79%	2.2 ± 0.04 *	83%	416.8 ± 17 *	88%
4-OHT 10µM	112	365.7 ± 12.6	100%	13.5 ± 1.3 *	60%	78.4 ± 10.5	87%	1.9 ± 0.03 *	77%	413.9 ± 25.1 *	88%
control	550	326.2 ± 5.4	-	19.7 ± 0.5	-	90.4 ± 4.3	-	2.3 ± 0.02	-	483.7 ± 10.5	-
DES 1µM	464	285.4 ± 7.1 *	84%	12.9 ± 0.6 *	64%	76.9 ± 7.8	85%	1.9 ± 0.02 *	80%	408.4 ± 10	87%
DES 2µM	125	155.5 ± 11.7 *	48%	8.9 ± 1 *	44%	49.7 ± 11.6	52%	1.6 ± 0.03 *	69%	377.6 ± 17.3 *	73%
control	81	280.8 ± 18.9	-	15.1 ± 1.5	-	74.1 ± 5.4	-	1.8 ± 0.07	-	396.7 ± 31.3	-
Rifampicin 50µM	97	308.6 ± 18.9	100%	9.9 ± 1.2 *	53%	55.4 ± 19.9	94%	1.6 ± 0.05 *	73%	328.2 ± 20.6	73%
Rifampicin 100µM	72	236 ± 18.8	94%	3.1 ± 1 *	23%	42.3 ± 18.7	72%	1.3 ± 0.04 *	70%	266.3 ± 27.5	75%
control	306	274.5 ± 7.2		21.8 ± 0.7	-	81.1 ± 8.5		2.1 ± 0.02	-	434.1 ± 17	-
SR1078 1µM	320	262.5 ± 5.6	99%	19.7 ± 0.7	81%	85.8 ± 5	109%	2.1 ± 0.02	99%	467.4 ± 13.4	104%
SR1078 2µM	223	255.7 ± 5.4 *	90%	22.4 ± 0.7	89%	92.8 ± 2.3	98%	2.1 ± 0.02 *	93%	447 ± 15.8	94%
SR1078 5µM	248	159.1 ± 7.1 *	63%	7.8 ± 0.7 *	34%	51.2 ± 9.9	65%	1.6 ± 0.02 *	76%	374.8 ± 14 *	83%
control	131	322.3 ± 12.7	-	21.3 ± 1.1	-	82.8 ± 5.9	-	2.2 ± 0.03	•))	447.5 ± 22.8	<u> </u>
SR12813 3µM	137	251.7 ± 10.3 *	80%	13.9 ± 1.1 *	55%	77.4 ± 8.9	91%	2 ± 0.02 *	84%	451.4 ± 18.5	101%
SR12813 5µM	225	185.4 ± 8.2 *	63%	7.5 ± 0.8 *	32%	54.1 ± 14.4	63%	1.7 ± 0.02 *	72%	415.7 ± 14.2	93%
SR12813 7.5µM	115	168.6 ± 12.2 *	39%	13.3 ± 1.3 *	33%	17.8 ± 11.2 *	41%	1.8 ± 0.03 *	70%	376.9 ± 24	84%
control	223	340.4 ± 10.2	<u>-</u> 1	20.4 ± 0.8	-	85.6 ± 9.5	<u></u>	2.3 ± 0.03	20	419 ± 28.1	-
BADGE 1µM	113	375 ± 9.2	104%	18.8 ± 1.1	94%	85.2 ± 7.6	104%	2 ± 0.03 *	87%	325.7 ± 26.5	86%
BADGE 2µM	215	338.5 ± 7.6	101%	13.1 ± 0.8 *	62%	84.9 ± 4.8	102%	1.8 ± 0.02 *	81%	378.2 ± 17	102%
BADGE 5µM	198	342.1 ± 6.6	92%	13.5 ± 0.8 *	57%	87 ± 0.8	92%	1.9 ± 0.02 *	75%	354.5 ± 17.6	92%

Table 6. Genotoxicity of toxicants and EDCs in developing embryos of *Phallusia mammillata* (7 – 9 hpf). The number of embryos with DNA aberrations was estimated from images of embryos either at gastrula or early neurula stage, where DNA was stained with Hoechst (Supplementary Fig. 4). The percentage of embryos with DNA aberrations in each culture is shown in the last column.

Tested compound	Number of embryos with DNA aberrations / total number of embryos imaged	The percentage of embryos with DNA aberrations (%)
0.01% DMSO	0/50	0
Sodium azide 2.5mM	21/30	70
Mitomycin 60µM	32/32	100
Etoposide 100nM	40/59	68
Etoposide 10µM	30/30	100
TBT ¹ 50nM	18/25	72
Lindane 20µM	10/20	50
Atrazine 70µM	0/17	0
Chlordane 50µM	5/15	33
Cholrpyrifos 50µM	5/18	27
ΒΡΑ² 10μΜ	14/119	11

¹TBT – tributyltin

²BPA – bisphenol A

Table 7. Correlation coefficients between % embryos with DNA aberrations, normal, malformed and undeveloped. The t-test is used to establish significance of the correlation between pairs of parameters. Asterisks indicate p < 0.05 according to the Spearman's test.

	DNA aberrations (%)	Normal (%)	Malformed (%)	Undeveloped (%)
DNA aberrations (%)	1.00	-0.93*	0.50	0.35
Normal (%)	-0.93*	1.00	-0.48	-0.48
Malformed (%)	0.50	-0.48	1.00	-0.12
Undeveloped (%)	0.35	-0.48	-0.12	1.00

Declaration of interests

 \boxtimes The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

□The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

Authors contributions:

levgeniia Gazo: performed experiments; participated in data analysis; prepared a draft manuscript. **Isa D. L. Gomes**: performed cultures with BPA; participated in draft preparation. **Thierry Savy**: developed Toxicosis software. **Nadine Peyrieras**: participated in conceptualization of Toxicosis software. **Lydia Besnardeau**: assisted with experiments. **Celine Hebras**: assisted with experiments. **Sameh Benaicha**: data analysis. **Manon Brunet**: performed cultures with ATRA, BMS, UVI. **Olena Shaliutina**: performed cultures with mitomycin. **Alex McDougalI**: coordinated the study. **Rémi Dumollard**: coordinated the study, participated in data analysis, edited and rewrote draft

Supplementary Material

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