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Sodium perchlorate disrupts development and affects metamorphosis and growth-related gene expression in tadpoles of the wood frog (Lithobates sylvaticus)

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ABSTRACT

Numerous endocrine disrupting chemicals can affect the growth and development of amphibians. We investigated the effects of a targeted disruption of the endocrine axes modulating development and somatic growth. Wood frog (Lithobates sylvaticus) tadpoles were exposed for 2 weeks (from developmental Gosner stage (Gs) 25 to Gs30) to sodium perchlorate (SP, thyroid inhibitor, 14 mg/L), estradiol (E_2 , known to alter growth and development, 200 nM) and a reduced feeding regime (RF, to affect growth and development in a chemically-independent manner). All treatments experienced developmental delay, and animals exposed to SP or subjected to RF respectively reached metamorphic climax (Gs42) approximately $11(\pm 3)$ and $17(\pm 3)$ days later than controls. At Gs42, only SP-treated animals showed increased weight and snout-vent length (P < 0.05) relative to controls. Tadpoles treated with SP had 10-times higher levels of liver igf1 mRNA after 4 days of exposure (Gs28) compared to controls. Tadpoles in the RF treatment expressed 6-times lower levels of liver igf1 mRNA and 2-times higher liver igf1r mRNA (P < 0.05) at Gs30. Tadpoles treated with E₂ exhibited similar developmental and growth patterns as controls, but had increased liver igf1 mRNA levels at Gs28, and tail igf1r at Gs42. Effects on tail $tr\beta$ mRNA levels were detected in SP-treated tadpoles at Gs42, 40 days post-exposure, suggesting that the chemical inhibition of thyroid hormone production early in development can have long-lasting effects. The growth effects observed in the SP-exposed animals suggest a relationship between TH-dependent development and somatic growth in L. sylvaticus tadpoles.

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52 1. Introduction

Anurans have complex lifecycles characterized by the remodeling of their body during metamorphosis. Their development is driven by numerous hormones (Kikuyama et al., 1993; Shi et al., 1996), and punctuated by morphological milestones or stages

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http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ygcen.2015.01.012 0016-6480/© 2015 Published by Elsevier Inc. (Gosner, 1960). The relationship between amphibian somatic growth and development is complex. A popular model by Wilbur and Collins (1973) postulates that the two are intricately linked and that a minimal size must be achieved by the tadpole to be able to undergo metamorphosis. At the same time, the observation that Xenopus laevis tadpoles unable to metamorphose can reach giant sizes suggests that the development and growth of amphibians can be uncoupled (Rot-Nikcevic and Wassersug, 2004). Body size at metamorphosis and developmental rates has also been shown to be affected by food restriction (Audo et al., 1995) and exposure to various pollutants (Brodeur et al., 2013; Stepanyan et al., 2011), further demonstrating the complexity of this interaction. While the development of amphibians has been studied in depth, the relationship between development (e.g., progress through metamorphic stages) and somatic growth (e.g., body size) has been comparatively less well explored, especially at a molecular level.

Amphibian metamorphosis, which transforms the larval tadpole into an adult frog, is controlled by the thyroid hormone (TH)

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Abbreviations: dio2, deiodinase2; E₂, 17 β -estradiol; EE₂, 17 α -ethinylestradiol; GH, growth hormone; HPT, hypothalamus-pituitary-thyroid; *igf1*, insulin-like growth factor 1; *igf1-r*, insulin-like growth factor 1 receptor; RF, reduced feeding; SP, sodium perchlorate; SVL, snout-vent length; TH, thyroid hormone; T₃, triiodothyronine; T₄, thyroxine; *tr\beta*, thyroid receptor β ; TL, tail length.

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75 through the hypothalamus-pituitary-thyroid (HPT) axis (Buchholz 76 et al., 2006; Tata, 2006). The hormone is released from the thyroid 77 gland into the bloodstream mostly in the form of thyroxine (T_4) , 78 which is transformed into its more active form triiodothyronine 79 (T_3) by deiodination through the action of deiodinase enzymes in 80 peripheral tissues (Fort et al., 2007). At the level of target organs 81 and tissues, TH binds to its nuclear thyroid receptors (TR α and 82 TRβ) and acts as a transcription factor activating TH-responsive 83 genes that drive the changes of metamorphosis (Buchholz et al., 84 2006; Damjanovski et al., 2002; Das et al., 2010; Fort et al., 2007; 85 Shi et al., 1996; Tata, 2006). The absence of TH completely blocks 86 metamorphosis (Goleman and Carr, 2006; Rot-Nikcevic and 87 Wassersug, 2004).

The growth hormone (GH)-insulin-like growth factor 1 (IGF1) 88 89 endocrine axis is known to mediate somatic growth in fish, birds 90 and mammals, but has been comparatively less studied in amphib-91 ians. In mammals, the liver is the main source of circulating IGF1. 92 which is produced in response to growth hormone (GH) signaling (Le Roith et al., 2001; Reinecke and Collet, 1998). At the cellular 93 level, the binding of IGF1 to IGF1-R activates signaling cascades 94 95 in the cell that result in downstream cell proliferation and differen-96 tiation (Jones and Clemmons, 1995; Yakar et al., 2000). The GH-IGF 97 system is also conserved in fish (Wood et al., 2005). For example, 98 IGF1-R signaling modulates the accelerated catch-up growth 99 observed in post-hypoxic zebrafish embryos (Kamei et al., 2011). 100 Both IGF1 and its receptor IGF1-R are present in amphibians 101 (Bautista et al., 1990; Kajimoto and Rotwein, 1990; Reinecke and 102 Collet, 1998). Furthermore, the gigantic phenotype of GH-overexpressing transgenic tadpoles generated by Huang and Brown 103 104 (2000) suggests that the function of the GH-IGF1 pathway is con-105 served in amphibians.

106 Amphibian development and growth can be affected by various 107 endocrine disruptors. Perchlorate, a chemical used to make solid 108 propellants and explosives, which can also be an aquatic pollutant, 109 inhibits TH synthesis by blocking the thyroid sodium-iodide sym-110 porter (Wolff, 1998). Treatment of *X. laevis* tadpoles with sodium 111 perchlorate (SP) has been previously shown to inhibit metamor-112 phosis (Goleman and Carr, 2006; Tietge et al., 2005), but also affect 113 growth by reducing the snout-vent length of exposed tadpoles 114 (Goleman et al., 2002a). Long-term natural blockage of metamor-115 phosis in athyroid X. laevis tadpoles results in excessive growth (Rot-Nikcevic and Wassersug, 2004), indicating a relationship 116 between development and somatic growth. 117

118 The effects on amphibian larval growth and/or development have been reported in a growing number of studies as an unintend-119 120 ed and sometimes unexpected effect of endocrine disruptors that 121 have been used primarily to disrupt either the thyroid or the sexual 122 differentiation endocrine axis (Bauer-Dantoin and Meinhardt, 123 2010; Goleman et al., 2002a; Tompsett et al., 2012; Nishimura 124 et al., 1997; Hogan et al., 2006, 2008), however the nature of any 125 interactions are at present unclear. This study aims to specifically examine the effect of endocrine disruptors on the growth and 126 development of wood frog (Lithobates sylvaticus) tadpoles, a native 127 North American species. Specifically, we investigated the effects of 128 a two-week exposure to SP, a known thyroid inhibitor with possi-129 ble growth effects (Goleman et al., 2002a), and E₂, shown to affect 130 growth and development in some studies (Nishimura et al., 1997; 131 Hogan et al., 2006, 2008), on the development and growth of tad-132 poles. A reduced feeding (RF) regime was employed to disrupt 133 134 development in a chemically-independent manner. We studied 135 the expression of selected metamorphosis- and growth-related 136 genes to investigate the underlying molecular effects of these 137 treatments and reveal any interactions between development 138 and somatic growth.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Animals and rearing conditions

Five clutches of wild wood frog (L. sylvaticus) fertilized eggs 141 were collected from natural wetlands located on Canadian Forces 142 Base Gagetown, New Brunswick, Canada (45°40'N, 66°29'W). The 143 clutches were combined in the laboratory and kept in aerated 144 water in glass tanks until hatching. Upon reaching developmental 145 Gosner stage 25 (Gs; Gosner, 1960), tadpoles (n = 160 per treat-146 ment) were randomly assigned to 10 L aquaria (4 tadpoles/L). Four 147 replicates were assigned per each treatment. Once tadpoles 148 reached Gs30, animals from each replicate were split (n = 20) into 149 two aquaria of 20 L to reduce densities to 1 tadpole/L. Tadpoles 150 housed in the same tank during the treatment period (n = 40) were 151 sampled together and considered as a treatment replicate. Tad-152 poles were kept on a 12 h light/dark photoperiod. Temperature 153 and pH were recorded regularly (approximately 3-5 times per 154 week), and were maintained between 20.7-23.0 °C and 6.14-155 7.80, respectively, throughout the experiment. Tadpoles were fed 156 rabbit pellets (Rolf C. Hagen, Inc.) ad libitum daily (with the excep-157 tion of the reduced feeding treatment, see details below) and 158 boiled kale leaves once weekly. The care, treatment and sampling 159 of animals used in this study followed the guidelines and standards 160 of the Animal Care Committee of the University of New Brunswick 161 and the Canadian Council on Animal Care. 162

2.2. 17β -Estradiol, sodium perchlorate and reduced feeding exposures 163

Tadpoles were exposed to the following treatments: 17β-estra-164 diol (E₂, 200 nM, equivalent to 0.05 mg/L), sodium perchlorate (SP, 165 14 mg/L), reduced feeding (RF) and control. Exposures were carried 166 out in a static-renewal system. SP was first dissolved in 1 L of water 167 and then added to the aquariums. In the case of the E_2 exposure, a 168 stock solution of 10 mM E₂ was prepared in ethanol and 200 µl of 169 the stock solution was added to each aguarium to reach a final 170 exposure concentration of 200 nM, or 0.05 mg/L. Furthermore, 171 200 µl of clean ethanol was added to the other treatment aquaria 172 (Control, SP, and RF) to control for any effect of ethanol addition. 173 In all cases the total amount of ethanol added was 0.002% of the 174 final tank volume. Tadpoles in the RF treatment were fed half the 175 amount of rabbit pellets (Rolf C. Hagen, Inc.) given to the other 176 treatments for the duration of the exposure and then fed normally 177 as described in Section 2.1. 178

Seventy-five percent of the water was renewed every 48 h during exposures to maintain chemical concentrations and once a week thereafter. After exposures were stopped, tadpoles were reared in clean water until they reached metamorphic climax (Gs42). Exposures were carried out from developmental stage Gs25 to Gs30, which occurred at day 10 for controls, E₂, and SPtreated animals, and at day 16 for the RF animals. Treatment duration was chosen to target the same developmental window (Gs25-30) in all treatments, which resulted in a longer chronological exposure of the RF treatment (due to its developmental delay). The Gs25-Gs30 window of exposure was chosen because Lithobates pipiens are most sensitive to EE₂ at this time (Hogan et al., 2008) and because this is the equivalent period of thyroid gland differentiation in X. laevis (NF 35-53) (Denver et al., 2002; Fort et al., 2007). The 14 mg/L SP dosage was chosen as comparable concentrations of perchlorate were used in similar studies as sublethal to tadpoles (Ortiz-Santaliestra and Sparling, 2007; Lithobates sphenocephalus), inhibitory, but not suppressive to metamorphosis during short-term 14-day exposure (Goleman et al., 2002a; X. lae*vis*), as well as environmentally relevant (Goleman et al., 2002a,b). Download English Version:

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