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Q4 **Assessment of the cytotoxic and mutagenic potential of the**
 2 **Jialu River and adjacent groundwater using human-hamster**
 3 **hybrid cells**

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ABSTRACT

The Jialu River in China has been seriously polluted by the direct discharge of industrial and 21
 domestic wastewater. The predominant contaminants of the Jialu River and its adjacent 22
 groundwater were recently investigated. However, the potential genotoxic impact of 23
 polluted water on human health remains to be clarified. Here, we used human-hamster 24
 hybrid (A₁) cells, which are sensitive for detecting environmental mutagens. We found 25
 that the cytotoxicity and mutagenicity of the groundwater in the Jialu River basin were 26
 influenced by the infiltration of the Jialu River. Hydrological periods significantly affected 27
 the cytotoxicity, but not the mutagenic potential, of surface and groundwater. Further, the 28
 mutagenic potential of groundwater samples located <1 km from the Jialu River (S_{M-2} water 29
 samples) was detected earlier than that of groundwater samples located approximately 30
 20 km from the Jialu River (S_N water samples). Because of high cytotoxicity, the mutagenic 31
 potential of water samples from the Jialu River (S_{M-1} water samples) was not significantly 32
 enhanced compared with that of untreated controls. To further assess the mutagenic 33
 dispersion potential, an artificial neural network model was adopted. The results showed 34
 that the highest mutagenic potential of groundwater was observed approximately 10 km 35
 from the Jialu River. Although further investigation of mutagenic spatial dispersion is 36
 required, our data are significant for advancing our understanding of the origin, dispersion, 37
 and biological effects of water samples from polluted areas. 38

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Introduction

54 Accidental pollution of surface water occurs frequently
 55 worldwide, and rivers act as the most important medium for

the transportation of environmental pollutants and transfor- 56
 mation (White and Rasmussen, 1998; Ohe et al., 2003, 2004). 57
 The United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA)'s 58
 Toxic Release Inventory reported that approximately 0.1 billion 59

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60 kilograms of chemical pollutants were directly released
61 into surface water in 2014 (USEPA, 2016). Moreover, airborne
62 emission and surface runoff are largely responsible for the
63 transport of chemical pollutants to aquatic systems
64 (Motelay-Massei et al., 2006). In contrast, chemical pollutants
65 in surface water are readily soluble and move slowly through
66 layers of soil, sand, and rocks and may be subject to transport
67 into other media such as groundwater (Mehler et al., 2010; Chen
68 et al., 2012; Ma et al., 2013). The latter is important for
69 agricultural, recreational, and domestic activities, particularly
70 as a source of drinking water in most parts of the world (Wang
71 et al., 2011). Numerous studies assessed the potential risk of the
72 adverse effects of polluted surface and groundwater on human
73 health (Fries and Puttmann, 2004; Nakada et al., 2008; Ma et al.,
74 2012b). In addition, disinfection by-products (DBPs), formed by
75 the reaction of disinfectants with natural organic matter in
76 surface and groundwater, were also considered to be cytotoxic
77 and genotoxic (Richardson and Postigo, 2015; Wagner and
78 Plewa, 2017). Evidence indicates that the pollution of drinking
79 water is closely related to the mortality rate of patients with
80 esophageal (Zhang et al., 2003), liver (Li et al., 1994), and
81 urothelial cancers (Markovic, 1993). Moreover, the risk to health
82 of polluted drinking water is not solely the sum of the effects of
83 individual compounds. Therefore, there is growing concern for
84 the additive, synergistic, and antagonistic effects of such
85 complex mixtures of pollutants (Wilkinson et al., 2000), particu-
86 larly the genotoxicity of organic residues in polluted
87 groundwater.

88 The Jialu River, which is located in Fugou County, Zhoukou
89 City, Henan Province, is 256 km long, and its basin is 5896 km².
90 The Jialu River is an important tributary of the Huaihe River,
91 which is seriously polluted by the direct discharge of contam-
92 inants associated with economic growth and urbanization,
93 such as industrial and domestic wastewater (Ma et al., 2012a),
94 industrial wastes, and untreated or lightly treated sewage
95 (Zhang et al., 2009). Large numbers of treated and untreated
96 sewage from alongshore cities and villages were estimated to
97 be $25,124 \times 10^4$ tons per year from 1996 to 1999, 81% of which
98 were discharged from Zhengzhou city (Xiao et al., 1999). As one
99 of the six most important industrial cities by “the development
100 of central zones” stratagem of the Chinese Government,
101 Zhengzhou City has a long history of textile and metallurgy
102 industries and is therefore regarded to exert a strong impact
103 on surface water quality of the Jialu River basin. In rural areas,
104 the main source of drinking water for many residents living
105 along the river is shallow, untreated groundwater. In this
106 area, the incidence of cancers of the digestive system, such
107 as carcinoma of the esophagus, stomach, and liver during
108 2004–2006, was 6.1×10^{-4} , which is 1.71-fold higher than that
109 during 1973–1975 (Yang, 2010). Epidemiological studies of
110 verbal accounts of autopsies have shown that mortality rates
111 of patients with digestive cancers are three to four times
112 higher along the Huai River basin compared with those in the
113 control areas (Wan et al., 2011). Nitrosamines and secondary
114 amines, which are mutagenic and carcinogenic (Bogovski
115 and Bogovski, 1981; Eichholzer and Gutzwiller, 1998), are
116 the predominant toxic compounds in the Jialu River and
117 its adjacent groundwater (Ma et al., 2012a). Comparative
118 genotoxicity of nitrosamine in drinking water DBPs showed
119 that genotoxic potencies of five nitrosamine DBPs in *Salmonella*

typhimurium and CHO cells showed identical descending rank Q8
order for genotoxicity and were highly correlated (Wagner 121
et al., 2012). In addition, Wagner et al. (2014) also found that the 122
genotoxicity of analogous N-nitrosamines and N-nitramines 123
relevant to CO₂ capture present a potential risk for contami- 124
nating airsheds and drinking water supplies. Flumequine 125
and nitroarenes are the main contributors to the genotoxicity 126
of adjacent groundwater around the Jialu River because of 127
their high soil permeability and lateral seepage (Ma et al., 128
2012b). We reasoned therefore that assessing the overall 129
effects of these compounds will be facilitated by investigating 130
the cytotoxicity and genotoxicity of the river water and its 131
adjacent groundwater. 132

Numerous *in vivo* tests on the genotoxicity of water samples 133
were conducted, particularly using indigenous aquatic organ- 134
isms such as fish (Bahari et al., 1994; Alsabti and Metcalfe, 1995; 135
Minissi et al., 1996), sea urchins (Hose et al., 1983), mussels 136
(Ericson et al., 2002; Klobucar et al., 2003), oysters (Burgeot et al., 137
1995), newts (Jaylet et al., 1986; Fernandez et al., 1993), and 138
marine worms (Jha et al., 1995). Nevertheless, because of the 139
insensitivity of aquatic organisms to genotoxic compounds 140
and complexities involved in manipulating these organisms 141
in the laboratory, the application of *in vitro* genotoxic tests of 142
water samples is more helpful for investigating the presence 143
and distribution of genotoxins (Ohe et al., 1993; Eckl, 1995; 144
Schnurstein and Braunbeck, 2001). For example, the Ames 145
test was used to demonstrate a dose-dependent increase of 146
five orders of magnitude in the number of TA98 revertants 147
associated with industrial effluent extracts, as well as a 148
lower but significant increase of three orders of magnitude 149
associated with river water extracts 6 km downstream (Cerna 150
et al., 1996). Blue rayon extracts collected downstream of 151
wastewater treatment plants from the Katsura, Nishitakase, 152
and Kamo rivers induce a higher frequency of sister chromatid 153
exchange in cultured Chinese hamster lung cells than those 154
collected upstream, with and without metabolic activation 155
(Ohe et al., 1993). 156

Although numerous *in vitro* studies demonstrate the 157
genotoxicity of polluted waters, mutations that play impor- 158
tant roles in tumor development are not well documented. 159
Human–hamster hybrid (A_L) cells stably express a single 160
copy of the human chromosome 11, which encodes the CD59 161
cell surface antigen, rendering A_L cells sensitive to killing 162
by specific monoclonal antibodies in the presence of rabbit 163
serum complement (Hei et al., 1998). These hybrids were used 164
to detect the mutagenic effects of ionizing radiation (Wu et al., 165
1999; Hong et al., 2010) and chemicals (Bao et al., 2009; Zhao 166
et al., 2011). For example, a 50-fold increase in mutations 167
at the CD59 locus occurs compared with the HPRT locus in 168
crocidolite-treated A_L cells (Hei et al., 1992). Other studies 169
using this system demonstrated that arsenic, which was 170
considered a serious contaminant of drinking water and 171
a nongenotoxic carcinogen for decades, is actually a strong 172
mutagen (Jacobson-Kram and Montalbano, 1985; Lee et al., 173
1985; Hei et al., 1998; Kessel et al., 2002). Similarly, the 174
mutagenicity of cadmium (Filipic and Hei, 2004) and asbestos 175
fibers (Xu et al., 1999, 2002) in contaminated environmental 176
compartments (sediment, water, and air) was demonstrated 177
using the A_L mutagen detection system. Meanwhile, using 178
the Ames test, raw water and drinking water samples from 179

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