

**Phthalates modulate steroid 5-reductase transcripts in the Western clawed frog embryo**

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## Abstract

Phthalates are used worldwide in the manufacturing of plastics, added to cosmetic products, personal care products, pharmaceuticals, medical devices, and paints; and are widely detected in soil, surface water, and organism tissues. Phthalate esters have been previously shown to interfere with the endocrine system in vertebrates. However, few studies have investigated the effects of phthalates on testosterone-converting enzymes that affect hormone levels and reproduction. In the present study, we exposed the Western clawed frog (*Silurana tropicalis*) to 0.1, 1, and 10  $\mu$ M diethylhexyl phthalate (DEHP), dibutyl phthalate (DBP), and diethyl phthalate (DEP) during early amphibian embryonic development. Additional DBP exposures were conducted *ex vivo* using mature frog testes. Malformations and mRNA levels of genes associated to reproduction and oxidative stress were evaluated. 0.1  $\mu$ M DEHP, DBP, and DEP induced an array of malformations, including incomplete gut coiling, edemas, and eye malformations. Moreover, all three phthalates increased the expression of androgen-related genes, such as steroid-5 $\alpha$ -reductase 1, 2, 3, steroid-5 $\beta$ -reductase, and androgen receptor at concentrations ranging from 0.1 to 10  $\mu$ M depending on the phthalate and gene. Data suggest that the phthalate esters tested are teratogens to the amphibian embryo and that these phthalates exhibit an androgenic activity in amphibians.

**Keywords:** Androgen disruption; DEHP; DBP; DEP; Srd5 $\alpha$ 1; Srd5 $\alpha$ 2; Srd5 $\alpha$ 3; Srd5 $\beta$ .

## 1. Introduction

Phthalates are used worldwide in the manufacturing of plastics (Daniels, 2009). Leaching due to the non-covalent bonding of phthalates to polymers leads to the introduction of phthalates into our ecosystems. Phthalates are also used as additives in various cosmetic products, medical devices, personal care products, pharmaceuticals, and paints (reviewed in Magdouli et al., 2013). Due to their wide use, phthalates are commonly detected in soil, surface water, and organism tissues (Bauer and Herrmann, 1997; Blair et al., 2009). Diethylhexyl phthalate (DEHP) is one of the most used plasticizers, and was detected in various environmental compartments (reviewed in Magdouli et al., 2013). For example, DEHP was detected at concentrations ranging between 0.01 and 25  $\mu\text{g/L}$  in rivers in Japan (Suzuki et al., 2001; Yuwatini et al., 2006) and reported in the influent of a wastewater treatment plant in France at concentrations up to 44  $\mu\text{g/L}$  (Dargnat et al., 2009). Dibutyl phthalate (DBP) and diethyl phthalate (DEP) are two other plasticizers that have been widely detected in waters. These phthalate esters were detected in the Tama River in Japan at concentrations ranging from 0.088 to 0.54  $\mu\text{g/L}$  DBP and 0.004 to 0.31  $\mu\text{g/L}$  DEP (Suzuki et al., 2001). The False Creek in Vancouver, BC, Canada also showed concentrations in seawater of  $\sim 0.1$   $\mu\text{g/L}$  DEP (Blair et al., 2009).

Phthalate esters have been shown to interfere with vertebrate development on different levels. The main mechanism of action behind phthalate induced transcriptional changes has been reported to be the peroxisome proliferation-activated receptors (PPARs, Gazouli et al., 2002). In addition, heat shock proteins have been shown to be modulated after phthalate exposure in different species and are attributed to early warning signs of cellular stress (reviewed in Gupta et al., 2010). Cellular oxidative stress is caused by the presence of reactive oxygen species, which can lead to DNA damage in cells and result in abnormalities. For example, proteins such as

glutathione transferase, glutathione peroxidase, and heat shock protein 70 have been previously reported to be altered when exposed to the phthalate DEHP (reviewed in Mathieu-Denoncourt et al., 2015a).

In addition, research has shown that phthalates can have androgenic and/or anti-androgenic properties and can adversely affect development and reproduction of male vertebrates (Latini et al., 2006; Kay et al., 2014). For example, feminization of gonads by exposure to DBP was found in juvenile Murray rainbowfish (Bhatia et al., 2015). In addition, disrupted spermatogenesis was observed in the African clawed frog after DBP exposure (Lee and Veeramachaneni, 2005). The mechanism of action by which phthalates mediate their action is still not completely understood (Mathieu-Denoncourt et al., 2015a). Previous research suggested that phthalates interfere with hormone synthesis by modulating the expression of sex steroid-related genes (Wong and Gill, 2002; Lehmann et al., 2004; Thompson et al., 2004). For example, decreased mRNA and protein levels of StAR have been observed in rat testis after DEHP exposure (Borch et al., 2006). StAR is responsible to transport cholesterol to the inner mitochondria in order to synthesize steroids, including androgens. Decreased expression levels of *star* have also been correlated with reduced levels of the androgen testosterone (T) (Borch et al., 2006), suggesting that T metabolism could be directly affected by phthalate exposure.

Testosterone is converted to the potent androgen 5 $\alpha$ -dihydrotestosterone (5 $\alpha$ -DHT) by steroid-5 $\alpha$ -reductase (Srd5 $\alpha$ ) and to 5 $\beta$ -dihydrotestosterone (5 $\beta$ -DHT) by steroid-5 $\beta$ -reductase (Srd5 $\beta$ ). Few mammalian studies have investigated if phthalates are capable of modulating Srd5 $\alpha$  and Srd5 $\beta$ . Exposure to mono-ethylhexyl phthalate (MEHP) decreased Srd5 $\alpha$  protein levels in a primary cell culture of immature rat Leydig cells (Svechnikov et al., 2008). Similarly, exposure to DBP in rats significantly decreased Srd5 $\alpha$ 2 protein in the proximal penis (Kim et al., 2010). In

contrast, a concentration dependent increase of Srd5 $\alpha$  activity was detected in testis after DEHP exposure of pubertal rat (Kim et al., 2003). These studies show that phthalates can modulate Srd5 $\alpha$ . However, no studies have addressed the effects of phthalates on Srd5 $\beta$  expression.

Srd5 are involved in vital biological functions (reviewed in Langlois et al., 2010a) and their dysregulation leads to a variety of diseases in humans, in particular in the male reproductive system and liver (reviewed in Azzouni et al., 2012). Thus, there is a need to determine how phthalates with androgenic and/or anti-androgenic properties affect Srd5 $\alpha$  and Srd5 $\beta$  in lower vertebrates, such as amphibians.

The overall objective of the present study was to understand the effect of the three phthalates DEHP, DBP, and DEP in the Western clawed frog (*Silurana tropicalis*). Specifically, we exposed the Western clawed frog to DEHP, DBP, and DEP during early embryonic development and investigated malformations and mRNA levels of genes involved in oxidative stress and reproduction. As the frog embryos responded to DBP, we further chemically-challenged mature frog testes *ex vivo* in order to analyze if DBP could interfere with normal testis regulation in males. Thus, this study presents novel insights in regards to interactions between phthalates and *srd5* during two critical periods of *S. tropicalis*.

## 2. Materials and Methods

### 2.1 Experimental design

Maintenance of male and female *S. tropicalis* occurred in dechlorinated and aerated water at the Queen's University Animal Care facilities (Kingston, ON, Canada) in accordance with guidelines of the Institution's animal care protocols and the Canadian Council on Animal Care. Animals were kept in a 12:12 h light:dark cycle with a water temperature of  $26 \pm 1$  °C.

*In vivo* exposure was executed by exposing eggs of *S. tropicalis* to phthalates. Breeding procedure was performed as described in Langlois et al. (2010b). Briefly, eggs were collected and kept in Frog Embryo Teratogenesis Assay-Xenopus (FETAX) solution consisting of 625 mg NaCl, 96 mg NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, 75 mg MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 60 mg CaSO<sub>4</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O, 30 mg KCl, 15 mg CaCl<sub>2</sub>/L, and 0.04 ppm gentamycin sulphate. The fertilized eggs were dejellied using 2% (w/v) L-cysteine. 200 embryos (divided in 5 jars) were exposed to 0.1, 1, and 10 µM DEHP (Sigma, Oakville, ON, Canada), DBP (Sigma, Oakville, ON, Canada), or DEP (Sigma, Oakville, ON, Canada) once the eggs reached Nieuwkoop and Faber (NF) stage 11 (Nieuwkoop, 1994). NF 11 embryos were also exposed to two negative controls: a water only control and a solvent control (0.05% Ethanol) and to a positive control to test alteration of *srd5* mRNA levels; finasteride (100 µM; a known Srd5 inhibitor; Langlois et al., 2010c). The FETAX solution was kept at 26 °C and changed every 24 h. Daily water change also ensured a steady source of phthalate exposure, as phthalates are known to degrade over time. Dead embryos were discarded once a day and recorded. Embryos were sampled in pools (n = 10) at stage NF 46 (after an exposure time of 72 h) and flash frozen on dry ice until RNA isolation.

The *ex vivo* assay used has been previously optimized for frogs and described in Bissegger et al. (2014). Briefly, six male adult frogs were anesthetized in 0.1% MS-222 (ethyl 3-aminobenzoate methanesulfonate, Sigma, Oakville, ON, Canada). Testes were carefully dissected from each animal. Each testis (n = 6 per treatment group, one testis per frog was used as a control sample and the other testis was exposed to DBP) was weighed (to correct for steroid production) and placed in a separate 1.5 mL centrifuge tube filled with 500 µL ice cold Lebovitz (L-15 media, Sigma, Oakville, ON, Canada) containing 10 mM HEPES, 50 µg/mL gentamicin (Fisher Scientific, Ottawa, ON, Canada) and 2% synthetic serum replacement (Sigma, Oakville, ON, Canada) at pH 7.4. Once all animals were dissected, the testes were transferred into designated wells in a 24-well plate containing 500 µL ice cold L-15 media. Prior to the start of the incubation, the media in each well of the 24-well plate was replaced by 500 µL of L-15 media containing 0.05% ethanol (control samples) or L-15 media containing 10 µM of DBP. The 24-well plates were incubated for 6 h at 26 °C using an orbital shaker at 100 rpm. After 6 h, the organs were snap-frozen on dry ice and stored at -80 °C for subsequent RNA isolation. The media of each sample was also collected and stored at -80 °C for steroid analysis.

## 2.2 Malformation analysis

After the embryonic exposure, a subset ( $n = 46 - 103$ ) of randomly collected animals at NF 46 was fixed in 10% formalin for each treatment in order to conduct morphological analysis. Malformation analysis was performed based on the Atlas of Abnormalities (Bantle et al., 1998). A Nikon SMZ18 microscope (Nikon, Mississauga, ON, Canada) was used to observe malformations in eyes (reduction in size, asymmetric formation, incomplete separation from the brain and cyclops), tails (shortening and flexure), hearts (failure to coil in an 'S' shape), guts

(failure to coil), gills (shredded appearance), and head and face (reduction in size and unusual shape).

### **2.3 Analysis of phthalate concentration**

Phthalate concentrations present in the water during the embryo exposure were measured using liquid chromatography coupled to high resolution mass spectrometry (LC-HRMS) optimized for DEHP, DBP, and DEP. Chromatographic separation was performed using an Accela 600 LC system (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) with a Zorbax HDHR Eclipse plus C18 column combined with C18 Eclipse plus (12.5 X 2.1 mm ID., 1.8 µm) guard column (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) and using a gradient of two mobile phases. Initial mobile phase conditions consisted of 2 mM ammonium formate in 0.1% formic acid buffer and 0.1% formic acid in methanol ran at a ratio of 60:40, respectively. From 1 to 6 min, the gradient was changed gradually to 1:99 followed by a hold at 1:99 for 4.75 min. The initial buffer composition was then held for 4.25 min until the next sample was started. The flow rate was 0.3 mL/min. Ten µL of the sample or its dilution were injected using an autosampler kept at 4 °C. As an internal standard in each sample, dimethyl-d6 phthalate (CDN Isotopes, Pointe-Claire, QC, Canada) was used at a concentration of 1 mg/L. MS detection was performed using a high resolution Orbitrap detector with a pneumatic assisted heated electrospray ion (HESI) source set to 3500V. Capillary and vaporization temperatures were 250 °C and 350 °C, respectively. Helium was used as a collision gas at a pressure of 2.5 mTor. Data was analyzed using the Thermo Xcalibur software (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). The limits of detection were 0.95 µg/L for DEHP, 1.93 µg/L for DBP, and 1.12 µg/L for DEP.



## 2.4 RNA isolation and cDNA synthesis

Total RNA from embryo (NF 46) samples was isolated with the E.Z.N.A Total RNA kit II (VWR, Mississauga, ON, Canada). Sample homogenization and disruption was carried out by a Mixer Mill MM400 (Retsch, Newtown, PA, USA) at 20 MHz for 1 min. In contrast, total RNA from testes was isolated using the Trizol reagent (Life Technologies Inc., Burlington, ON, Canada) because of higher tissue weight. Sample homogenization and disruption was done using a sonicator (Fisher Scientific, Toronto, ON, Canada). RNA was resuspended or eluted in 20 µL nuclease free water for both embryo and testes samples and the concentration and quality was assessed using the NanoDrop-2000 spectrophotometer (Fisher Scientific, Toronto, ON, Canada). Residual genomic DNA was eliminated by the TURBO DNA-free kit (Life Technologies Inc., Burlington, ON, Canada). Total cDNA from embryo samples was obtained from 1 µg RNA and 0.5 µg random primers utilizing the GoScript reverse transcriptase (Fisher Scientific, Toronto, ON, Canada). In contrast, cDNA from testes samples was obtained from 0.5 µg RNA using the QuantiTect Reverse Transcription Kit (Qiagen, Toronto, ON, Canada).

## 2.5 Real-time RT-PCR

The expression levels of genes associated with reproduction (*srd5α1*, *srd5α2*, *srd5α3*, *srd5β*, *star*, aromatase (*cyp19*), estrogen receptor (*era*), androgen receptor (*ar*)); oxidative stress (glutathione transferase (*gst*), glutathione peroxidase (*gpx*), heat shock protein 70 (*hsp70*)); and a nuclear receptor protein regulating DNA transcription (peroxisome proliferator activated receptor  $\gamma$  (*ppary*)) were determined relative to the reference gene ornithine decarboxylase (*odc*) by real-time RT-PCR using the SYBR Green detection system. All primers except *gst* and *gpx* were previously designed and optimized (Langlois et al. 2010c; Soriano et al., 2013; Mathieu-

Denoncourt et al., 2015b). Primers for *gst* and *gpx* were designed and optimized in the present study and gene products have been confirmed by sequencing. Assay conditions are presented in Table 1. Each sample was diluted 1:80 (embryo samples) or 1:40 (testes samples) and analyzed in duplicate using the GoTaq qPCR Master Mix (Fisher Scientific, Toronto, ON, Canada) with the optimized concentration of forward and reverse primer (0.1 to 0.65  $\mu$ M) on a CFX96 Touch™ real-time RT-PCR machine (Bio Rad, Mississauga, ON, Canada). The program used to run all samples included an enzyme activation step at 95 °C for 2 min followed by 40 cycles with 95 °C for 15 sec and 58 or 62 °C (depending on target gene) for 1 min. After the amplification phase, a dissociation curve was established in order to ensure the presence of a single amplicon. Reaction efficiencies were  $100 \pm 10 \%$  with an  $R^2 > 0.990$  and calculated by the CFX Manager Software (Bio Rad, Mississauga, ON, Canada).

In each assay, a standard curve (0.048 to 50 ng), a no template control, and a no reverse transcription control (to ensure the absence of genomic DNA in the samples) were run with the samples. The standard curve was generated by pooling equal amounts of the treated and control samples and was then serially diluted 1:4 to obtain concentrations from 50 to 0.048 ng. The standard curve was then used to interpolate and calculate the mRNA level of target and reference gene in each sample. The mRNA level of each target gene was calculated relative to the reference gene *odc*.

## **2.6 Sex steroid measurement**

For the *ex vivo* exposure, concentrations of T and 5 $\alpha$ -DHT excreted from the testes into the media were measured using commercially available enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays (T: Cedarlane, Burlington, ON, Canada; 5 $\alpha$ -DHT: Diagnostics Biochem Canada, Dorchester,

ON, Canada). Media samples were thawed on ice and diluted in the immunoassay buffer. The immunoassay protocol was followed as described by the manufacturer. All samples were measured in duplicate. The absorbance of samples after the designated incubation time of 1 h for 5 $\alpha$ -DHT and 2 h for T were measured using a TECAN Infini M1000 PRO microplate absorbance reader (TECAN, Männedorf, Switzerland) at 415 nm for T and at 450 nm for 5 $\alpha$ -DHT. The limit of detection according to the manufacturer was 6 pg/mL for T and 5 $\alpha$ -DHT. Hormone concentrations were normalized to tissue weight.

## 2.7 Statistical analysis

All statistical analysis except malformation analysis was performed using the software GraphPad Prism 5.0 (GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA, USA). Differences of phthalate concentrations between 0 and 24 h, and differences between phthalate treatment concentrations were analyzed using an unpaired t-test. Gene expression results of the embryo samples were analyzed after removing outliers using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with a subsequent post-hoc test (Dunnett's) to determine significant differences between treatments. Gene expression results of the testes exposed to DBP *ex vivo* were analyzed using an unpaired t-test. The effect of DBP exposure on hormone concentration in *ex vivo* exposed testis was also analyzed using an unpaired t-test. Analysis of malformation data was performed using the software XLSTAT (2014.4.06, Addinsoft<sup>TM</sup>). Differences in malformation frequencies were determined using chi-square tests on contingency tables followed by a post-hoc test based on adjusted residuals for each malformation type and phthalate compound. Significant differences were reported when  $p < 0.05$ .

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### 249       **3. Results**

#### 250       **3.1 Water analysis**

251       LC-HRMS analysis showed that all water and solvent control samples were below the  
252       detection limit for DEHP, DBP, and DEP. Average measured concentrations (before exposure)  
253       were as follows: 138.6 µg/L, 618.9 µg/L, and 2932.3 µg/L for DEHP; <LOD, 60.6 µg/L, and  
254       2064.6 µg/L for DBP; and 11.3 µg/L, 85.4 µg/L, and 1278.0 µg/L for DEP (Table 2). DBP  
255       significantly degraded over the 24 h exposure time (85.4 µg/L:  $p = 0.042$ ; 1278.0 µg/L:  $p =$   
256       0.017). The measured concentrations are lower than the nominal concentrations, which may be  
257       due to losses associated with adsorption to glassware and material used during sampling and  
258       sample preparation.

#### 259       **3.2 Mortality and malformation of embryos**

260       Survival rates of both, the water and solvent controls were above 90%, as recommended by  
261       the American Society for Testing and Materials (2004; Table 3). Embryos exposed to DEHP,  
262       DBP, and DEP did not result in a significantly higher mortality rate than control embryos.  
263       However, phthalate exposure increased malformation rates. Exposure to DEHP, DBP, and DEP  
264       increased both, incomplete gut coiling (21.2%, 25.5%, and 31%; respectively) and eye  
265       malformations (17.3%, 19.1%, and 51.7%; respectively). Moreover, DEHP and DEP increased  
266       tail abnormalities (21.2% and 44.8%; respectively), and DEP increased the occurrence of edemas  
267       (13.8%).

### 3.3 Gene expression of larvae exposed to phthalates

Exposure to phthalate esters modulated androgen-related mRNA levels. Exposure to 685  $\mu\text{g/L}$  DEHP increased the expression of *srd5 $\beta$*  and *ar* (ANOVA: *srd5 $\beta$* : 1.4-fold increase,  $p = 0.0057$ ; *ar*: 1.4-fold increase,  $p = 0.0228$ , Figures 1 and 2). Frogs exposed to DEHP at a concentration 10X higher (i.e., 2,932  $\mu\text{g/L}$ ) responded with increased mRNA levels of all four *srd5* genes (ANOVA: *srd5 $\alpha$ 1*: 1.4-fold increase,  $p = 0.0001$ ; *srd5 $\alpha$ 2*: 1.7-fold increase,  $p = 0.0003$ ; *srd5 $\alpha$ 3*: 1.5-fold increase,  $p = 0.0010$ ; *srd5 $\beta$* : 1.8-fold increase,  $p = 0.0001$ ). Interestingly, DBP resulted in significant changes at the lowest (below the detection limit of 2  $\mu\text{g/L}$ ) and highest (2,065  $\mu\text{g/L}$ ) concentrations only. Low DBP stimulated *srd5 $\beta$*  transcription (ANOVA: 1.4-fold increase,  $p = 0.0302$ ) and high DBP increased the mRNA level of *srd5 $\alpha$ 1*, *srd5 $\alpha$ 2*, *srd5 $\alpha$ 3*, *srd5 $\beta$* , and *ar* (ANOVA: *srd5 $\alpha$ 1*: 1.3-fold increase,  $p = 0.0046$ ; *srd5 $\alpha$ 2*: 1.6-fold increase,  $p = 0.0029$ ; *srd5 $\alpha$ 3*: 1.4-fold increase,  $p = 0.0178$ ; *srd5 $\beta$* : 1.6-fold increase,  $p = 0.0001$ ; *ar*: 1.4-fold increase,  $p = 0.0287$ ). Exposure to DEP resulted in a change of expression of *srd5 $\alpha$ 1* (ANOVA: 1278  $\mu\text{g/L}$ : 1.3-fold increase,  $p = 0.0094$ ) and *srd5 $\beta$*  (ANOVA: 85  $\mu\text{g/L}$ : 1.5-fold increase,  $p = 0.0042$ ). The three phthalates did not affect the transcript levels for *cyp19*, *era*, *star*, *gst*, *gpx*, or *ppary*. As expected, finasteride exposure significantly decreased the mRNA level of *srd5 $\alpha$ 2* (ANOVA: 2-fold decrease,  $p = 0.01$ ). In addition to androgen related gene expression changes, *hsp70* resulted in significantly changed mRNA levels for <2  $\mu\text{g/L}$  DBP (ANOVA: 1.5-fold decrease,  $p = 0.01$ ) and 11  $\mu\text{g/L}$  DEP (ANOVA: 1.6-fold decrease,  $p = 0.014$ , Figure 3).

### 3.4 Frog testes exposed to DBP *ex vivo*

The total amount of T and 5 $\alpha$ -DHT was measured in the media of control and DBP-exposed testes tissues. Interestingly, neither the secreted concentration of T or 5 $\alpha$ -DHT into the media was significantly altered after DBP exposure ( $p > 0.05$ ; Figure 4). In addition, the mRNA levels of *srd5 $\alpha$ 1*, *srd5 $\alpha$ 2*, *srd5 $\alpha$ 3*, and *srd5 $\beta$*  were also not significantly modified after DBP exposure (Figure 5).

## 4. Discussion

Both, phthalate esters and their metabolites have been linked to endocrine disruption in wildlife (Mathieu-Denoncourt et al., 2015b). Amphibians, in particular, are at a high risk due to their external egg development and permeable skin, which allows chemical penetration. One of the phthalates, DBP, used in the present study showed significant degradation after 24 h, suggesting that embryos have been also exposed to its major metabolite mono-n-butyl phthalate (MBP; Silva et al., 2007). The contribution of DBP and its metabolites are thus confounded when investigating the interference with the amphibian development and reproductive system in the current study. As we were interested in sub-lethal effects, such as endocrine disruption, we first established that the phthalate concentrations chosen did not affect the survival rate. Similarly, previous studies have shown that exposure up to 1,000  $\mu\text{g/L}$  DBP did not result in decreased mortality of fathead minnow embryos (Mankidy et al., 2013), while exposure to 5,000, 10,000, and 15,000  $\mu\text{g/L}$  DBP significantly decreased the survivability of *Xenopus laevis* larvae (Lee et al., 2005). Likewise, higher DEP concentrations as the ones used in the present study (e.g., 10,000  $\mu\text{g/L}$  and above), decreased survival rate of fathead minnow and zebrafish embryos

(Kim et al., 2015; Mankidy et al., 2013). Similar to the findings in our study, 10 µg/L DEHP did not result in significantly decreased mortality in Japanese medaka (Chikae et al., 2004).

In the present study, exposure to the lowest concentrations of DEHP, DBP, and DEP augmented the occurrence of malformations in *S. tropicalis*, in particular the presence of incomplete gut coiling, tail abnormalities, and eye malformations. Previous studies have shown that endocrine disrupting chemicals don't always follow a normal dose response curve where the observable effects increase with increasing dose (reviewed in Vandenberg et al., 2012). Thus, the present finding of a higher effect at low doses is not unexpected for phthalates. Other studies have also observed that phthalate exposures to similar concentrations as used in this study resulted in malformed animals. For example, exposure to DBP and DEP at concentrations exceeding 500 µg/L significantly increased malformations, including abnormal gut coiling, cardiac abnormalities, and malformed faces, eyes, and brains in *X. laevis* (Bantle et al., 1999; Lee et al., 2005; Gardner et al., 2016). Furthermore, *S. tropicalis* exposed to dimethyl phthalate (DMP) and dicyclohexyl phthalate (DCHP) also resulted in malformations, such as edemas, improperly developed hearts, tail abnormalities, improperly coiled guts, and/or absent gills (Mathieu-Denoncourt et al., 2016).

Malformations of the tail and gut are often attributed to cellular stress. Heat shock proteins are known as early warning signs of cellular stress and have been previously shown to be induced after phthalate exposure in different species (reviewed in Gupta et al., 2010). In the present study, the lowest DBP and DEP concentrations significantly decreased mRNA levels of *hsp70*. In contrary, 1000 µg/L butyl benzyl phthalate (BBP) and DEHP induced *hsp70* mRNA levels in *Chironomus riparius* larvae (Planelló et al., 2011) and exposure of *S. tropicalis* larvae to DCHP also increased *hsp70* mRNA levels (Mathieu-Denoncourt et al., 2016). Cellular

oxidative stress is caused by the presence of reactive oxygen species, which can lead to DNA damage in cells. Cells can metabolize reactive oxygen species by producing antioxidant enzymes, including glutathione transferase and glutathione peroxidase that transform reactive oxygen species to less reactive compounds such as oxygen. In the present study, the expression of *gst* and *gpx* did not change suggesting that the developmental abnormalities are not likely the result of oxidative stress. However, in the current study, protein activity was not measured and it is known that mRNA levels and protein activities do not always correlate (Koussounadis et al., 2015). Therefore, it is possible that proteins involved in oxidative stress changed in activity level but no change in mRNA level was detected after phthalate exposure.

In addition to inducing malformations, phthalates are known to alter the endocrine system in mammalian species. Previous studies have suggested that phthalates can interfere with steroidogenesis and affect both the female and male reproductive systems. Multiple regulating pathways involved in the maintenance of steroid homeostasis have been shown to be affected by phthalates (reviewed in Mathieu-Denoncourt et al., 2015a). In order to examine the effects of the studied phthalates in amphibians, a series of endocrine related targets were analyzed. First, the expression of a gene involved in cholesterol transport (e.g., *star*) was analyzed as previous reports that demonstrated that phthalates interfere with this critical step in steroid synthesis (reviewed in Mathieu-Denoncourt et al., 2015a). In the present study, none of the phthalates of interest modulated *star* transcription, reinforcing the point that each phthalate presents unique molecular mechanisms of action. In addition, previous literature has also demonstrated that the synthesis and signaling of the female sex steroids were affected by phthalate treatments. For example, mRNA levels of *cyp19*, the enzyme responsible to aromatize T to estradiol, decreased in rodent cell lines when treated with MEHP and DEHP (Lovekamp and Davis, 2001; Gupta et



al., 2010). In contrast, in amphibians, exposure to DCHP during embryogenesis in the Western Clawed frog increased *cyp19* mRNA level; however, DMP and its metabolite, MMP did not alter *cyp19* expression in the same species (Mathieu-Denoncourt et al., 2016). The later study is similar to the data found in this study as none of DEHP, DBP, or DEP modulated the expression of estrogen-related genes, such as *cyp19*, and *era*.

Androgen synthesis is also known to be altered by phthalate exposure in mammalian species. Generally, it is recognized that phthalates do not exert their action through *ar* (reviewed in Rouiller-Fabre et al., 2015). As an example, juvenile and adult liver tissues exposed to MMP did not alter transcript levels of *ar* (Mathieu-Denoncourt et al., 2015a). Similarly, *ar* expression was not changed following exposure to 10,000 µg/L DEP and 1,000 µg/L DBP in fathead minnow embryos (Mankidy et al., 2013). In contrast, our data revealed that exposure to 10 µM DEHP and DBP increased *ar* transcription. Agonists of AR have been shown to induce transcriptional changes (Li et al., 2017), suggesting that DEHP and DBP can act as agonists of AR. In addition to the measured increase in *ar* mRNA level, *srd5* expression was also augmented in the frog larvae. All three phthalates increased *srd5α1* transcripts. In addition, *srd5α2* and *srd5α3* expression levels were also increased by DEHP and DBP exposures. Similarly in mammalian species, DEHP amplified the activity of SRD5α in the pubertal rat testes (Kim et al., 2003). An increase of *srd5α* could lead to a higher than normal conversion of T to 5α-DHT. However, other studies demonstrated that phthalate exposure decreases SRD5α activity. For example, a decrease in Srd5α2 activity was demonstrated after DBP exposure *in vitro* in gonad microsomal homogenates isolated from the common carp (Thibaut and Porte, 2004). Moreover, prenatal exposure to DBP in rats significantly decreased Srd5α2 protein expression in the proximal penis (Kim et al., 2010). In contrast, MMP, DMP, and DCHP did not alter *srd5α2* mRNA level in *S.*

*tropicalis* (Mathieu-Denoncourt et al., 2016). These results suggest that the chemical nature of the phthalates as well as the developmental stage or tissue are important as to how the specific compound interferes with the level of certain genes/proteins.

Interestingly, not only *srd5 $\alpha$*  isoforms, but also the *srd5 $\beta$*  transcript level increased after DEHP, DBP, and DEP treatments. *Srd5 $\beta$*  is known to be involved in clearing excess steroids in bird brains (Steimer and Hutchison, 1981). The observation that *srd5 $\beta$*  increased after phthalate treatment may suggest a disturbance of the normal balance of sex steroids. However, no previous studies have assessed the effects of phthalates on *srd5 $\beta$*  expression and limited studies have examined this gene. Treatments with methyltrienolone and atrazine have been shown to alter *srd5 $\beta$*  levels in human prostate cells and frog liver, respectively (Bolton et al., 2007; Langlois et al., 2010a). Our results provide evidence that phthalates can interfere with *srd5 $\beta$*  and perhaps result in adverse reproductive effects. Since *srd5 $\beta$*  is involved in many other biological functions, including bile acid synthesis and erythropoiesis, other adverse effects may be observed. To test this hypothesis, exposure of phthalates to animals throughout development and sexual differentiation would be required. Taken together, these findings suggest that phthalates exert their action through different mechanisms depending on species and tissues and affect androgen synthesis in various ways.

As androgen-related genes were altered by DBP during frog early development, further investigations were pursued in DBP-exposed testes of adult males due to a high androgen synthesis in gonads. However, DBP *ex vivo* exposure did not alter the T or 5 $\alpha$ -DHT steroid levels nor did it alter *srd5 $\alpha$*  expression in frog testes. Previous studies had demonstrated that phthalates, including DEHP, DBP, DEP, MEP, monobutyl phthalate, dipentyl phthalate (DPeP), monopentyl phthalate (MPeP), benzylbutyl phthalate (BzBP), mono-n-octyl phthalate (MnOP),

and MEHP decreased T levels in mammalian species (reviewed in Mathieu-Denoncourt et al., 2015a). As an example, DBP exposure of prenatal male rats resulted in significant decreased of T levels, which was accompanied by a decreased expression of *Srd5a2* in testicular tissues (Jiang et al., 2016). Similarly, primary cultures of rat Leydig cells exposed to MEHP decreased *Srd5a* activity in immature, but not in adult Leydig cells (Svechnikov et al., 2008). The lack of any observed effect in our study may be due to the fact that the *ex vivo* exposure was stopped after 6h, which may have been too short of an exposure time to see any changes at the transcriptional level. Nevertheless, our embryonic data suggest that phthalates can induce transcriptional changes of genes associated with reproduction.

This study demonstrated that DEHP, DEP, and DBP interfere with normal frog development by inducing an array of malformations to the developing animals. Exposure to these three phthalates also increased the expression of androgen-related genes, in particular the four *srd5* during amphibian embryogenesis, which suggests that DEHP, DEP, and DBP have an androgenic activity in the amphibian embryo. Thus, this data shows evidence that certain phthalates act via the *srd5* signaling pathway. Furthermore, this finding also supports previous studies suggesting that phthalate esters induce adverse effects in vertebrates by altering important biological functions, including a hormonal imbalance.

#### **Acknowledgements**

This research project was funded by the support of the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada Discovery Grant (NSERC-DG) and the Canada Research Chair (CRC) to VSL.

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578

579 **Table 1** qPCR primers and assay conditions of *gpx* and *gst* genes for *S. tropicalis*.

Target gene	Primer direction	Sequence (5' - 3')	Annealing temperature (°C)	Primer (nM)
<i>gst</i>	Forward	ATTGCGTGGGAGATGAGGTG	60	350
	Reverse	ATTGTGGGATAGGGGGCAAG		
<i>gpx</i>	Forward	CGAACCCAACTTCCCCTTGT	60	350
	Reverse	TAGGATACGGAAGTTGCCCC		

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583 **Table 2** Di(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (DEHP), di-n-butyl phthalate (DBP), and diethyl phthalate (DEP) measured in  
 584 the water of exposed embryos at 0 h and after 24 h. Average concentrations are bold. Legend: Ctr, Control; LOD,  
 585 limit of detection; Stdev, standard deviation.

Nominal Concentration (µg/L)		Measured Concentration (µg/L)	Stdev (µg/L)
Water Ctr	0 h	<LOD	0.0
	24 h	<LOD	0.0
Solvent Ctr	0 h	<LOD	0.0
	24 h	<LOD	0.0
39 DEHP	0 h	247.1	285.1
	24 h	30.0	14.0
	<b>Average</b>	<b>138.6</b>	<b>216.2</b>
390 DEHP	0 h	552.9	453.6
	24 h	684.8	183.3
	<b>Average</b>	<b>618.9<sup>*a</sup></b>	<b>317.8</b>
3900 DEHP	0 h	4304.8	3864.5
	24 h	1559.9	1082.3
	<b>Average</b>	<b>2932.3<sup>*a</sup></b>	<b>2950.0</b>
28 DBP	0 h	<LOD	0.0
	24 h	<LOD	0.0
	<b>Average</b>	<b>&lt;LOD</b>	<b>0.0</b>
280 DBP	0 h	121.2	44.5
	24 h	<LOD <sup>*b</sup>	0.0
	<b>Average</b>	<b>60.6<sup>*a</sup></b>	<b>72.2</b>
2800 DBP	0 h	3033.4	533.1
	24 h	1095.8 <sup>*b</sup>	173.9
	<b>Average</b>	<b>2064.6<sup>*a</sup></b>	<b>1119.0</b>
22 DEP	0 h	13.0	2.3
	24 h	9.7	0.2
	<b>Average</b>	<b>11.3</b>	<b>2.3</b>
220 DEP	0 h	86.4	6.6
	24 h	84.4	1.3
	<b>Average</b>	<b>85.4<sup>*a</sup></b>	<b>4.3</b>
2200 DEP	0 h	1291.3	125.4
	24 h	1264.6	129.6
	<b>Average</b>	<b>1278.0<sup>*a</sup></b>	<b>114.9</b>

586 <sup>\*a</sup> indicates a significant concentration difference to the previous lower concentration

587 <sup>\*b</sup> indicates significant degradation between 0 h and 24 h of exposure

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**Table 3** Effects of di(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (DEHP), di-n-butyl phthalate (DBP), and diethyl phthalate (DEP) spiked water on mortality and malformation of *S. tropicalis* larvae at exposure completion (Nieuwkoop and Faber stage 46). The mortality data are expressed as percent mean  $\pm$  SD (%) and the malformation results are expressed as a percentage (%) of malformed animals to the total number of animals analyzed. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences between treatments (DEHP, DBP, and DEP) and solvent (0.05% ethanol) control.

Treatments ( $\mu\text{g/L}$ )	Mortality (%)	Average malformation (%)	Malformations observed (%)				
			Tail	Edema	Eye	Heart	Gut
Water Ctrl	4.5 $\pm$ 2.1	9.5 $\pm$ 5.1	12.8	2.3	12.8	0.0	11.6
Solvent Ctrl	5.0 $\pm$ 4.0	7.0 $\pm$ 2.2	8.7	6.8	4.9	0.0	9.7
39 DEHP	4.4 $\pm$ 3.1	16.5 $\pm$ 6.4*	21.2*	7.7	17.3	0.0	21.2*
390 DEHP	3.8 $\pm$ 3.2	8.2 $\pm$ 4.5	14.3*	4.1	6.1	0.0	10.2
3,900 DEHP	5.6 $\pm$ 2.4	12.3 $\pm$ 9.6	21.3*	2.1	21.3*	0.0	8.5
28 DBP	3.8 $\pm$ 3.2	14.5 $\pm$ 4.0*	14.9	2.1	19.1*	0.0	25.5*
280 DBP	8.8 $\pm$ 6.0	5.2 $\pm$ 4.4	10.0	0.0	8.0	0.0	8.0
2,800 DBP	5 $\pm$ 2.0	6.1 $\pm$ 3.2	4.3	0.0	8.7	0.0	15.2
22 DEP	8.1 $\pm$ 4.3	33.8 $\pm$ 8.1*	44.8*	13.8	51.7*	0.0	31.0*
220 DEP	4.4 $\pm$ 2.4	18.6 $\pm$ 5.5*	30.5*	8.5	28.8*	1.7	10.2
2,200 DEP	8.1 $\pm$ 3.8	12.3 $\pm$ 8.2	21.2*	1.9	13.5*	0.0	7.7

## Figure Captions

**Figure 1** mRNA levels of A) *srd5 $\alpha$ 1*, B) *srd5 $\alpha$ 2*, C) *srd5 $\alpha$ 3*, and D) *srd5 $\beta$*  in frog embryos following exposure to FIN, DEHP, DBP, and DEP. Data are expressed relative to the reference gene *odc*. Bars represent the mean + SEM. Data were analyzed using one-way analysis of variance (n = 4-8; p < 0.05). Legend: DBP, dibutyl phthalate; di-2-ethylhexyl phthalate DEHP, diethyl hexyl phthalate; DEP, diethyl phthalate; FIN, finasteride; SC, Solvent Control; WC, Water Control; \*, significant different from control at p < 0.05.

**Figure 2** mRNA levels of A) *ar*, B) *era*, C) *cyp19*, and D) *star* in frog embryos following exposure to FIN, DEHP, DBP, and DEP. Data are expressed relative to the reference gene *odc*. Bars represent the mean + SEM. Data were analyzed using one-way analysis of variance (n = 4-8; p < 0.05). Legend: DBP, dibutyl phthalate; di-2-ethylhexyl phthalate DEHP, diethyl hexyl phthalate; DEP, diethyl phthalate; FIN, finasteride; SC, Solvent Control; WC, Water Control; \*, significant different from control at p < 0.05.

**Figure 3** mRNA levels of A) *hsp70*, B) *gst*, C) *gpx*, and D) *ppary* in frog embryos following exposure to FIN, DEHP, DBP, and DEP. Data are expressed relative to the reference gene *odc*. Bars represent the mean + SEM. Data were analyzed using one-way analysis of variance (n = 4-8; p < 0.05). Legend: DBP, dibutyl phthalate; di-2-ethylhexyl phthalate DEHP, diethyl hexyl phthalate; DEP, diethyl phthalate; FIN, finasteride; SC, Solvent Control; WC, Water Control; \*, significant different from control at p < 0.05.

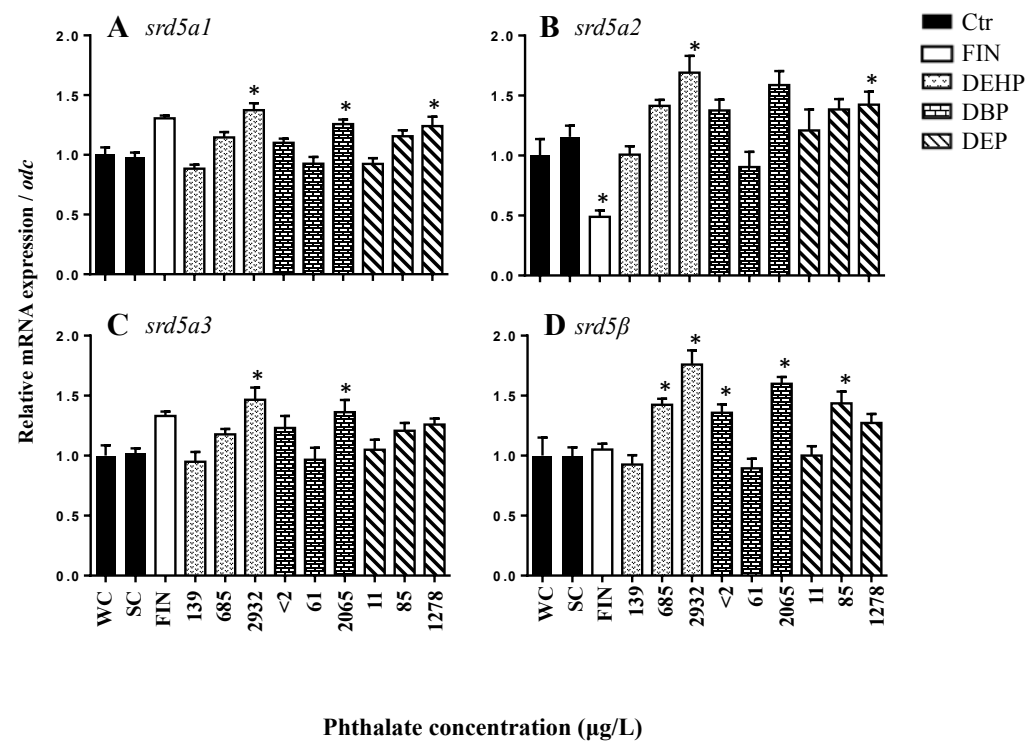
**Figure 4** Concentration of testosterone and 5 $\alpha$ -dihydrotestosterone in the media after *ex vivo* exposure of testes to dibutyl phthalate (DBP). Bars represent the mean + STD. Data were analyzed using a two tailed t-test (n = 6). Legend: DBP, dibutyl phthalate; SC, Solvent Control.

619 **Figure 5** mRNA levels of A) *srd5 $\alpha$ 1*, B) *srd5 $\alpha$ 2*, C) *srd5 $\alpha$ 3*, and D) *srd5 $\beta$*  in frog testes after *ex*  
620 *vivo* exposure to 10  $\mu$ M dibutyl phthalate (DBP). Data are expressed relative to the reference  
621 gene *odc*. Bars represent the mean + SEM. Data were analyzed using a two tailed t-test (n = 4).  
622 Legend: DBP, dibutyl phthalate; SC, Solvent Control.

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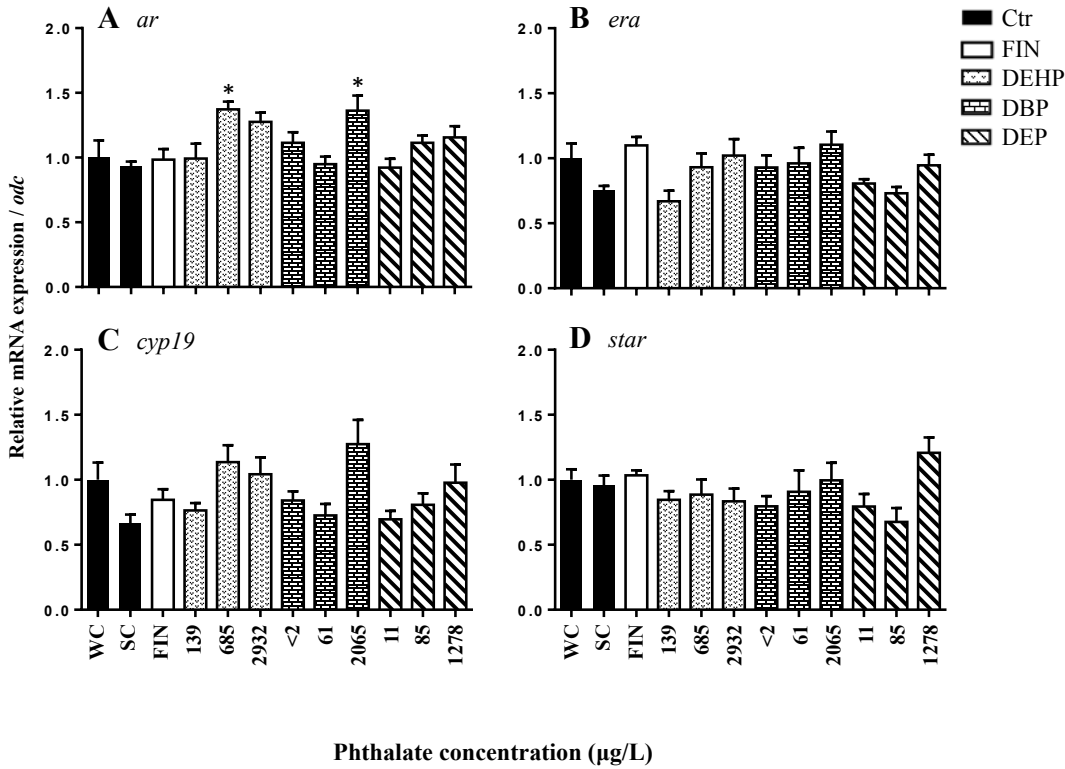
Fig 1



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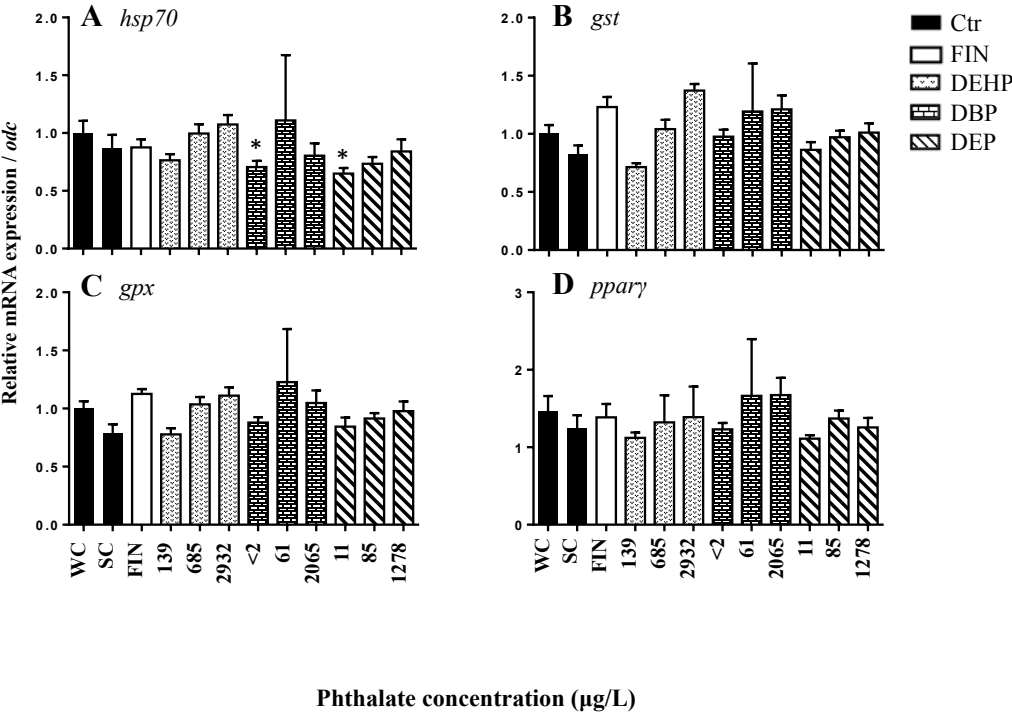
Fig 2



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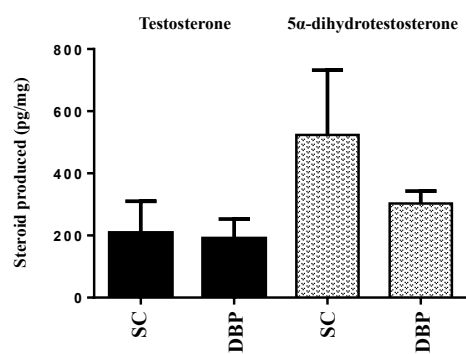
Fig 3



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Fig 4



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Fig 5

