AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

Cory V. Gerlach for the degree of Honors Baccalaureate of Science in Bioresource Research presented on April 25, 2014. Title: Mono-substituted isopropylated triaryl phosphate, a major component of Firemaster 550, is an AHR agonist that exhibits AHR-independent cardiotoxicity in zebrafish.

Abstract approved: _____

Robert L. Tanguay

Firemaster 550 (FM550) is an additive flame retardant mixture used within polyurethane foam and is increasingly found in house dust and the environment due to leaching. In this study, we sought to investigate mono-substituted isopropylated triaryl phosphate (mITP), a major component of FM550, which has been shown to cause cardiotoxicity during zebrafish embryogenesis. Previous research showed that developmental defects are rescued using an aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AHR) antagonist (CH223191). As zebrafish have three known AHR isoforms, we used a functional AHR2 knockout line along with AHR1A- and AHR1B-specific morpholinos to determine which AHR isoform, if any, mediates mITP-induced cardiotoxicity. As *in silico* structural homology modeling predicted that mITP may bind favorably to both AHR2 and AHR1B isoforms, we evaluated AHR involvement *in vivo* by measuring CYP1A expression following exposure to mITP in the presence or absence of CH223191 or AHR-specific morpholinos. Based on these studies, we found that mITP interacts with both AHR2 and AHR1B isoforms to induce CYP1A expression. However, knockdown of all three AHR isoforms failed to block mITP-induced cardiotoxicity in the absence of detectable CYP1A induction. Overall, these results suggest that, while mITP is an AHR agonist, mITP causes AHR-independent cardiotoxicity through a pathway that is also antagonized by CH223191.

Keywords: aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AHR), Firemaster 550, flame retardant, CH223191

Corresponding email address: coryvgerlach@gmail.com

Mono-substituted isopropylated triaryl phosphate, a major component of Firemaster 550, is an AHR agonist that exhibits AHR-independent cardiotoxicity in zebrafish

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Cory V. Gerlach

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APPROVED:

Mentor, representing Environmental and Molecular Toxicology

Committee Member, representing Environmental and Molecular Toxicology

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Committee Member, representing Bioresource Research

Dean, University Honors College

I understand that my project will become part of the permanent collection of Oregon State University, University Honors College. My signature below authorizes release of my project to any reader upon request.

Cory V. Gerlach, Author

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CONTRIBUTION OF CO-AUTHORS

1. Siba R. Das* helped to design and carry out most of the experiments. He taught me all of the methods, including morpholino injections, mRNA isolation, real-time qPCR, immunohistochemistry, and gel electrophoresis.

2. Dave C. Volz† designed the original experiment that led to this project, provided the mITP compound itself, and provided extensive feedback and edits throughout this project and during the preparation of the manuscript.

3. William H. Bisson* developed the AHR homology model and generated the docking data for mITP.

4. Siva K. Kolluri* helped develop the AHR homology model.

5. Robert L. Tanguay* conceived this study, designed the parameters of the investigation, edited the manuscript, and provided extensive guidance and expertise throughout.

*Department of Environmental and Molecular Toxicology, Oregon State University, Corvallis, Oregon USA

†Department of Environmental Health Sciences, Arnold School of Public Health, University of South Carolina, Columbia, South Carolina USA

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INTRODUCTION

In 2004, the commercial polybrominated diphenyl ether (PBDE) mixture known as PentaBDE – a widely used brominated flame retardant (FR) – was voluntarily phased out in the United States due to concerns about persistence, bioaccumulation, and toxicity (Rahman *et al.,* 2001; Tullo, 2003). As a result of strict fire safety standards set for low-density polyurethane foam in residential furniture and baby products, brominated and aryl phosphate ester (APE) components of the replacement FR mixture formulation known as Firemaster 550 (FM550) have been detected at concentrations comparable to and, in some cases, higher than total PBDE concentrations in household dust (Meeker and Stapleton, 2010; Springer *et al.*, 2012; Stapleton *et al.*, 2008; Stapleton *et al.* 2009). Moreover, brominated components of FM550 have been found in municipal sewage (Davis *et al.*, 2012), urban and rural air samples (Ma *et al.*, 2012), and marine mammal tissue (Lam *et al.*, 2009). The high detection of FM550 components suggests that chronic human exposure following migration from treated end-use products is common within the US. Therefore, similar to concerns about PBDEs (Costa and Giordano, 2007; Herbstman *et al.*, 2010), a better understanding of the potential effects of prenatal FM550 exposure resulting from maternal ingestion of contaminated house dust is needed since these stages may be more susceptible relative to later periods of development.

Using zebrafish (*Danio rerio)* as a model, Volz and colleagues recently evaluated the potential developmental toxicity of brominated and APE components present within FM550 (McGee *et al.*, 2013). The brominated component of FM550 consists of 2-ethylhexyl-2,3,4,5-tetrabromobenzoate (TBB, ~30%) and bis (2-ethylhexyl) tetrabromophthalate (TBPH, ~8%), whereas the APE component (~62%) consists of triphenyl phosphate (TPP, ~17%) and

isopropylated triaryl phosphates (ITPs, ~45%) (McGee *et al*., 2013). The ITP component is a complex mixture of ortho-, meta-, and para-substituted isomers of mono-, di-, tri-, and tetra-ITPs comprising approximately 32%, 10%, 2.4%, and 0.4% of FM550, respectively (McGee *et al*., 2013). Within this study, McGee et al. (2013) demonstrated that exposure to TPP and mono-ITP (mITP) – but not TBB, TBPH, di-ITP, nor tri-ITP – resulted in severe pericardial edema and blocked normal looping of the atrium and ventricle, resulting in a "tube heart" phenotype.

Using an aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AHR) antagonist (CH223191), McGee *et al.* (2013) reported that mITP-induced – but not TPP-induced – cardiac abnormalities and cytochrome P450 1A (CYP1A) expression within zebrafish embryos were aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AHR)-dependent. While mammals have only one AHR, zebrafish have three AHR isoforms: AHR1A, AHR1B, and AHR2 (Andreasen *et al.*, 2002; Karchner *et al.*, 2005; Tanguay *et al.*, 1999). AHR2 is the functional AHR paralog in zebrafish that mediates toxicity for 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-*p*-dioxin (TCDD) (Prasch *et al.*, 2003), 3,3',4,4',5-pentachlorobiphenyl (PCB126) (Jönsson *et al.*, 2012), and many polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) (Incardona *et al.*, 2006). Although the functionalities of AHR1B and AHR1A are not well characterized, emerging evidence suggests that some PAH mixtures, PCB126, and the non-classical AHR agonist leflunomide can activate AHR1A and/or AHR1B, induce CYP1A expression, and mediate developmental toxicity (Garner *et al.*, 2013; Goodale *et al.*, 2012; Incardona *et al.*, 2006; Incardona *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, McGee *et al.* (2013) began investigating the AHR-isoform dependence of mITP in zebrafish using an AHR2-specific translation-blocking morpholino (MO). However, AHR2 knockdown failed to block mITP-induced cardiac abnormalities, suggesting that this phenotype was mediated through an AHR2-independent pathway.

As mITP-induced cardiotoxicity and CYP1A induction was blocked by CH223191 but not AHR2 knockdown, one of the key questions arising from this study was whether cardiotoxicity is mediated by an AHR1A and/or AHR1B-dependent pathway. Therefore, we first used *in silico* structural modeling – an approach previously used to predict AHR ligand binding

(Bisson *et al.*, 2009; Goodale *et al.*, 2012) – to determine whether mITP would dock favorably with the AHR2, AHR1A, and AHR1B ligand-binding domains (LBDs). *In vivo* studies using zebrafish were then conducted to determine whether AHR1A and/or AHR1B contribute to mITP-induced cardiotoxicity during early embryonic development. In order to eliminate the potential for incomplete AHR2 knockdown with transient MOs, and to better investigate the individual roles of AHR1A and AHR1B isoforms, a functional zebrafish AHR2 knockout line was utilized.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Chemicals. mITP (≥ 90%) (Figure 1) was originally provided as FM550 (Chemtura) via Dr. Susan Klosterhaus (Cradle to Cradle Products Innovation Institute, San Francisco, CA) and was purified by Wellington Laboratories (Guelph, Ontario, Canada) as previously described (McGee *et al.*, 2013). Due to the lack of commercially available analytical standards for mITPs, exact ratios of mITP congeners (*ortho, meta, para*) within our mITP fraction are unknown. The AHR antagonist, 2-methyl-2H-pyrazole-3-carboxylic acid (2-methyl-4-o-tolylazo-phenyl)-amide (CH223191, >99%) (Figure 1), was purchased from Tocris Bioscience (Ellisville, MO). All stock solutions were dissolved in ACS-grade dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO).

Zebrafish lines and embryos. All adult zebrafish (5D) were housed in accordance to approved Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) protocols at Oregon State University on a recirculating water system at 28±1˚C with a 14-h light/10-h dark schedule. All 5D zebrafish embryos were obtained from group spawns as previously described (Reimers *et al.,* 2006). All *ahr2*^{hu3335} embryos were obtained from gated crosses with ~1:1 ratio of male to female. All embryos were collected within one-hour post fertilization (hpf), rinsed, and kept in petri dishes with E2 embryo medium at 28±1˚C until treatment. The *ahr2*^{hu3335} line were mutagenized via Targeting Induced Local Lesions IN Genomes as previously described (Goodale *et al.*, 2012).

Molecular modelling and docking. Homology models of human AHR (hAHR), and zebrafish AHR2, AHR1A, and AHR1B LBDs in the *apo* conformation were initially built as previously reported (Bisson *et al.*, 2009; Goodale *et al.*, 2012). TCDD, CH223191, and *ortho*, *meta*, and *para* mITP congeners were docked into hAHR, zebrafish AHR2, AHR1A, and AHR1B. *In vivo* studies have shown TCDD is a strong agonist for only AHR2 and AHR1B (Andreasen *et al.*, 2002; Goodale *et al.*, 2012; Karchner *et al.*, 2005). The co-bound models were then submitted to

10^5 steps ligand-protein side chain optimization through Monte Carlo (MC) simulations in the internal coordinate space with Molsoft ICM (Katritch *et al.*, 2012). The highest rank energy complex obtained from each simulation was used for molecular docking. Both tautomerization states (HisD and HisE) of human residue His 291 and zebrafish AHR2 and AHR1B His 296 homologues were considered.

Each receptor was represented by five types of interaction potentials: (i) van der Waals potential for a hydrogen atom probe; (ii) van der Waals potential for a heavy-atom probe (generic carbon of 1.7 Å radius); (iii) optimized electrostatic term; (iv) hydrophobic terms; and (v) lone-pair-based potential, which reflects directional preferences in hydrogen bonding. The energy terms were based on the Merck Molecular Force Field (MMRF) to account for solvation free energy and entropic contribution (Totrov and Abagyan, 2001). Modified intermolecular terms such as soft van der Waals, hydrogen bonding, and hydrophobicity were added. Conformational sampling was based on the biased probability Monte Carlo (BPMC) procedure, which randomly selects a conformation in the internal coordinate space and then initiates a step to a new random position independent of the previous one – but according to a predefined continuous probability distribution – since, after each random step, full local minimization greatly improves the efficiency of the procedure. In the ICM-VLS (Molsoft ICM) screening procedure, the ligand scoring was optimized to obtain maximal separation between binders and non-binders. Based on fit within the receptor, each compound was assigned an ICM score that accounts for continuum and discreet electrostatics as well as hydrophobicity and entropy parameters (Totrov and Abagyan, 2001; Abagyan *et al.*, 1994).

mITP exposures and developmental toxicity assessments. mITP exposures were conducted using a static exposure protocol. Embryos were batch-exposed with chorions intact in 20-mL glass vials. Vials were prewashed with Liquinox® and hot water, and then RO-rinsed. Vials were loaded with 10 viable embryos (6-to-8 hpf) using polished glass pipettes, and 7 mL of mITP or

vehicle control (0.1% DMSO) in E2 embryo medium was added. Each treatment group consisted of three replicate vials that were incubated at 28±1˚C with a 14-h light/10-h dark schedule until 72 or 120 hpf.

Preliminary range-finding studies were conducted at intervals between 0.1 and 1.6 μM mITP, monitored daily, and screened closely for malformations at 72 and 120 hpf. Necrotic embryos were removed daily. Based on these range-finding studies, the 0.2 μM mITP concentration was selected for the remaining experiments because it was the lowest concentration where pericardial edema was easily discernable, CYP1A induction was strong, and CYP1A induction was rescued with AHR knockdown. At 120 hpf, fish were evaluated for absence or presence of pericardial edema and euthanized via prolonged immersion within an overdose of tricaine methanesulfonate (MS-222).

CH223191 co-exposures. We first used CH223191 – an AHR antagonist (Kim *et al.* 2006) – to replicate findings reported within McGee *et al.* (2013). Based on initial range-finding studies, as well as studies in McGee *et al.* (2013), 0.5 μM CH223191 was used for all mITP co-exposure experiments. For mITP co-exposures experiments, groups of 50 5D embryos were pre-exposed to either 20 mL of 0.5 μM CH223191 or 0.1% DMSO in glass petri dishes from 0.75 to 6 hpf. At 6 hpf, 10 embryos per replicate (three replicate vials per treatment) were moved to 20 mL glass vials and treated with 7 mL of 0.1% DMSO or 0.2 μM mITP in the absence or presence of 0.5 μM CH223191 using a static exposure protocol. Vials were incubated at 28±1˚C with a 14-h light/10-h dark schedule until 72 or 120 hpf. Necrotic embryos were removed daily. At 120 hpf, fish were evaluated for the absence or presence of pericardial edema and then euthanized with MS-222.

Morpholino injections. Fluorescein-tagged MO anti-sense oligonucleotides were designed against AHR1A and AHR1B zebrafish isoforms and purchased from Gene Tools (Philomath,

OR). An AHR1A splice-blocking MO (AHR1A MO, 5'-CTTTTGAAGTGACTTTTGGCCCGCA-3') (Incardona *et al.*, 2006) and an AHR1B splice-blocking MO (AHR1B MO, 5'- ACACAGTCGTCCATGATTACTTTGC-3') (Goodale *et al.,* 2012) were used for all experiments. A standard control MO from Gene Tools (CoMO, 5'-CCTCTTACCTCAGTTACAATTTATA-9) was utilized as a negative control. All embryos were injected at the one-cell stage with approximately 2 nL of 0.75 mM MO dissolved in ultrapure water and 0.5% phenol red. All embryos were allowed to develop in E2 embryo medium post-injection until 5 hpf and then selected based on intensity and even distribution of fluorescence in blastomeres using an epifluorescent stereoscope.

Immunohistochemistry. Before performing immunohistochemistry (IHC), 72-hpf 5D and *ahr2*^{hu3335} embryos were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde overnight on a rocker at 4°C. Fixed embryos were then washed twice with phosphate-buffered saline with Tween® 20 (PBST) for 30 min, DI water for 1 h, and placed in -20°C in acetone and ice for 20 min. Samples were then treated with collagenase (1 mg/mL within PBST) for 50 min, then washed twice with PBST for 30 min, and treated with 10% normal goat serum (NGS) for 1 h. Samples were then treated with a Biosense mouse α fish CYP1A monoclonal primary antibody (1:500 dilution in 10% NGS) and incubated overnight at 4°C on a rocker. On day two, embryos were rinsed three times in PBST for 30 min and treated with an Alexa Fluor 594 goat α mouse secondary antibody (1:1000 dilution in 10% NGS) for 2 h on a rocker at room temperature. Embryos were rinsed three times with PBST before imaging. At least 8 embryos per replicate group (three replicate groups per treatment) were evaluated and representative images were captured using a Zeiss Axiovert 200 M epifluorescent microscope with 5X objective using a 1-s exposure time.

Total mRNA extraction and PCR. For all exposure scenarios utilizing 5D and *ahr2*^{hu3335} lines, at least nine 72-hpf embryos per replicate group (three replicate groups per treatment) were

homogenized in 500 µL RNAzol and stored at -78°C. To extract total RNA for real-time qPCR studies, samples were thawed at room temperature and 200 µL of ultrapure water was added, shaken vigorously, and centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 15 min. Supernatant was removed and 500 µL isopropanol was added, vortexed, and centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 10 min. The resulting RNA pellet was then washed three times in 75% ethanol and centrifuged at 8,000 rpm for 3 min between washes. The pellet was dissolved in 20 µL water and total RNA concentration was measured using SynergyMx microplate reader (Biotek) with the Gen5 Take3 module. Total RNA was then diluted to 200 ng/µL, and single-strand cDNA was generated using a high-capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription kit (Applied Biosystems) with MultiScribe™ Reverse Transcriptase per manufacturer's instructions. All resulting cDNA was stored at -20°C until use.

Relative abundance of *cyp1a*, *ahr1a*, *ahr1b,* and *β-actin*, mRNA transcripts was measured for each exposure scenario using real-time qPCR. *cyp1a,* a*hr1a, ahr1b,* and *β-actin* cDNA were amplified using the following primers: *cyp1a* forward primer 5'-TGCCGATTTCATCCCTTTCC-3' and reverse primer 5'-AGAGCCGTGCTGATAGTGTC-3'; *ahr1a* forward primer 5'- CGCAAAAGGAGGAAACCTGTC-3' and reverse primer 5'-CCTGTAGCAAAAATTCCCCCT-3'; *ahr1b* forward primer 5'-CTTTGTGTGTCGTTTCCGATGCC-3' and reverse primer 5'-GCACAGTAGAGCATATCAGCTGC-3'; and *β-actin* forward primer 5'-AAGCAGGAGTACGATGAGTC-3' and reverse primer 5'-TGGAGTCCTCAGATGCATTG-3' (Goodale *et al.* 2012). All real-time qPCR samples were performed in 20-µL reaction volumes containing 10 µL Power SYBR® Green PCR master mix (Applied Biosystems), 0.5 µL of each forward and reverse primer (each 5 µM), 4 µL ultrapure water, and 100 ng equivalents of cDNA (5 µL at 20 ng/µL cDNA). Amplification was performed with StepOnePlus™ (Applied Biosystems) using cycling conditions as follows: 50°C for 2 min; 95°C for 15 min; 40 cycles of 95°C for 10 s, 60°C for 20 s, and 72°C for 30 s. Real-time qPCR analysis was completed using StepOne Software v2.1 (Applied Biosystems) with the $\Delta\Delta C_T$ method normalized to *β-actin*. All

samples were analyzed using StatView 5.01 (SAS Institute, Inc.) and one-way ANOVA ($p < 0.05$). For confirmation of *ahr1a* and *ahr1b* knockdown, qualitative PCR was performed in 25-µL reaction volumes using Novagen® KOD Hot Start DNA Polymerase per manufacture's instructions, and PCR products were then separated on a 1.7% agarose gel containing ethidium bromide.

RESULTS

mITP is predicted to bind AHR2 and AHR1B but not AHR1A

TCDD, CH223191 and the *ortho*-, *meta*- and *para*-mITP congeners were docked into hAHR and zebrafish AHR2, AHR1B and AHR1A models (Table 1). In hAHR, TCDD docked with a score of -24.11 (His 291-D) establishing a hydrogen bond (HB) with the side chain of Ser 365. Due to symmetry of the TCDD scaffold and possibility of establishing a second HB with the side chain of His 291 at the opposite side of Ser 365 in the binding pocket, the tautomerization state His-E was also included in the model. Based on His 291-E, TCDD docked with a score of -26.38 and established a HB with both side chains of His 291 and Ser 365 (Table 1, Fig. 1A). CH223191 docked with a score of -13.99 also involving the side chain of Ser 365 (Table 1, Fig. 1B). All three mITP congeners docked to hAHR in the presence of both His 291 tautomerization states with the same HB pattern involving the side chain of Cys 333 and Ser 365. The highest favorable score was obtained for the *meta* and *para* congener (His-E, Table 1, Fig. 1C,D). The *ortho* congener docked but did not bind favorably to hAHR (Table 1).

TCDD and the mITP congeners were also docked within each zebrafish AHR isoform. In AHR2, the human residue Ser 365 is replaced by an alanine (Bisson *et al.*, 2009). TCDD docked similarly in both tautomerization states of His 296 docking with a score of -21.86 (His-E) and established a HB with the side chain of Gln 388 (Table 1, Fig. 1E). CH223191 docked with a score of -12.04 also interacting with the side chain of Gln 388 (Table 1, Fig. 1F). All three mITP congeners docked in the binding pocket of AHR2 in both tautomerization states of His 296. The *meta* congener produced the highest score of -10.67 (His-E), establishing a HB with the side chain of His 296 (Table 1, Fig. 1G). The *para* (Fig. 1H) and *ortho* congeners both docked but did not bind favorably (Table 1).

In AHR1B, the human residue Ser 365 is replaced by an alanine (Bisson *et al.* 2009). TCDD docked similarly in both tautomerization states of His 296 with a score of -17.48 (His-E,

Table 1, Fig. 1I). CH223191 and the *meta*- and *para*-mITP congeners docked in the binding pocket in both tautomerization states of His 296. CH223191 docked with a score of -17.87 (Table 1, Fig. 1J), whereas the *meta*- and *para*-mITP congeners docked with scores of -13.08 and -9.51 in the His-E tautomerization state, respectively, establishing a double HB with the side chain of Asn 341 (Table 1, Fig. 1K,L). The *ortho* congener did not dock. In the AHR1A residue, Tyr 296 replaces His 296, which is conserved in AHR2 and AHR1B, but also in mouse and human AHR (Bisson *et al.* 2009; Goodale *et al.* 2012). This substitution, along with Ala386Thr and Gln388His, decreases the volume and changes the polarity of the AHR1A binding pocket and leads a differential ligand affinity relative to AHR2 and AHR1B (Bisson *et al.* 2009). In AHR1A, TCDD docked with score of -8.24 (Table 1). The *ortho*- and *para*-mITP congeners did not dock. CH223191 and the *meta* congener docked with an unfavorable score (Table 1), establishing an HB interaction with the side chain of Tyr 296. Overall, these data suggest that the *meta*- and *para*-mITP congeners possess favorable binding towards hAHR and zebrafish AHR2 and AHR1B, but not AHR1A.

Table 1. Predicted binding scores for human AHR and zebrafish AHR2, AHR1B, and AHR1A isoforms.

	hAHR	AHR2	AHR1B	AHR1A
TCDD	-26.38	-21.86	-17.48	-8.24
CH223191	-13.99	-12.04	-17.87	+
***ortho*-mITP**	+	-0.96	nd	nd
***meta*-mITP**	-16.89	-10.67	-13.08	+
***para*-mITP**	-14.63	+	-9.51	nd

h, human; nd, not docked; +, docked with a positive score

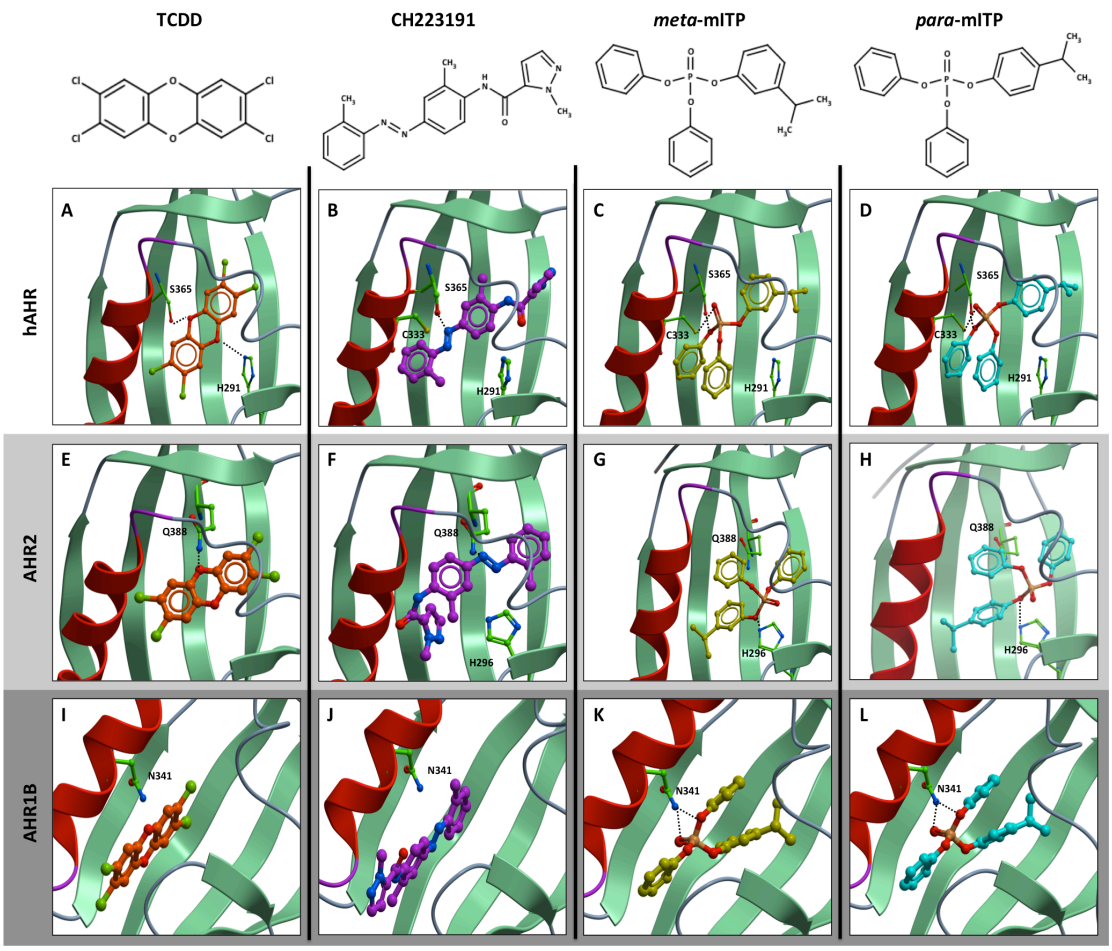

Figure 1. Docking of TCDD, CH223191 and *meta*- and *para*-mITP congeners in human and zebrafish AHR2 and AHR1B LBDs (Molsoft ICM). *ortho*-mITP was predicted to dock in AHR2, but with an unfavorable score (not shown). Docked ligands are displayed as sticks and colored by atom type, with carbon atoms in orange (TCDD), purple (CH223191), yellow (*meta*-mITP) and cyan (*para*-mITP). Protein residues are displayed as stick with the carbon atoms colored in green. Secondary structure is displayed as ribbon. Protein-ligand HB interactions are displayed as dashed black lines.

mITP-induced cardiotoxicity is concentration-dependent

To identify which concentrations of mITP cause cardiotoxicity in the absence of significant effects on survival, we batch-exposed 5D zebrafish embryos to varying concentrations of mITP and documented the prevalence of pericardial edema (PE). Based on initial range-finding studies from 0.1 to 1.6 µM, we found that static exposure from 6 to 120 hpf resulted in a concentration-dependent increase in PE (Fig. 2A). Embryos exposed to vehicle (0.1% DMSO)

exhibited no PE, while the 0.1 µM mITP group exhibited minimal PE (Fig. 2B). Exposure to mITP concentrations at 0.2 µM and higher resulted in a concentration-dependent increase in the severity of PE and yolk sac edema (Fig. 2B). No mortalities were present at concentrations less than 0.4 µM, but a concentration-dependent increase in mortalities was observed at 0.8 µM and greater (data not shown). As PE is a well-established toxic endpoint in zebrafish, for the purposes of this study we utilized percent PE and the 0.2 µM mITP concentration for all subsequent experiments.

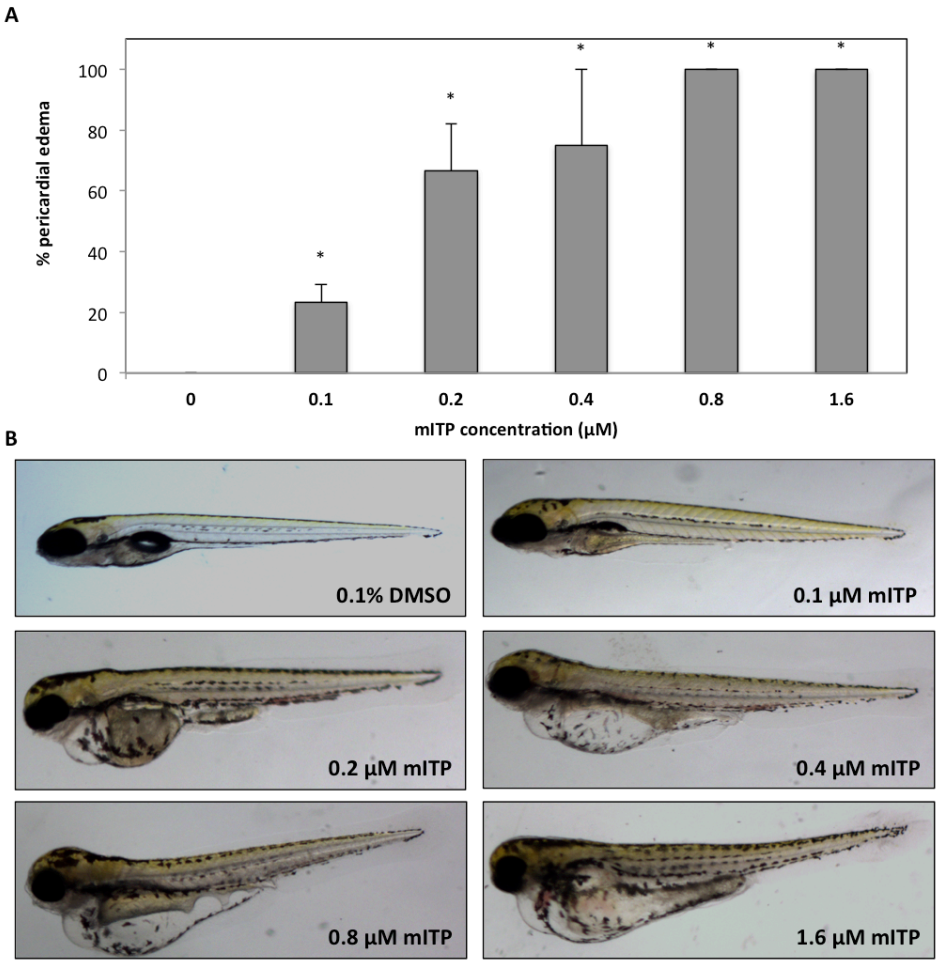

Figure 2. Developmental mITP exposure results in a concentration-dependent increase in PE. (A) Embryos were exposed to vehicle control (0.1% DMSO) or varying concentrations of mITP from 6 to 120 hpf. Percent PE is mean ± SE. Asterisk (*) denotes a statistically significant increase in PE relative to vehicle control ($p < 0.05$). (B) Representative bright-field images at 120 hpf after exposure to increasing concentrations of mITP. N = 3 replicate vials and 10 fish per replicate.

CH223191 mitigates mITP-induced cardiotoxicity and CYP1A expression

McGee et al. (2013) reported the AHR is potentially involved in mediating mITP-induced cardiotoxicity by using the AHR antagonist CH223191. Therefore, we wanted to replicate these results within 5D embryos before utilizing ahr2^{hu3335} embryos. First, we conducted range-finding studies with CH223191 in the absence of mITP and found that 0.5 μM CH223191 alone did not result in developmental toxicity (Fig. 3A,B). Consequently, similar to McGee et al. (2013), 0.5 μM CH223191 was used for all mITP co-exposures.

To confirm whether CH223191 rescues mITP-induced cardiotoxicity and antagonizes the AHR, we documented PE and quantified relative CYP1A mRNA induction in embryos treated with either vehicle (0.1% DMSO) or 0.5 μM CH223191 in the absence or presence of 0.2 μM mITP. In embryos exposed to mITP alone, 67% exhibited PE, on average, while embryos co-exposed with mITP and CH223191 exhibited PE in 11% of embryos (Fig. 3B). In addition, at 72 hpf, there was a 12-fold increase in CYP1A mRNA in mITP-exposed embryos relative to vehicle controls and an 8-fold increase in CYP1A mRNA relative to mITP and CH223191 co-exposed embryos (Fig. 3C). In embryos exposed to CH223191 alone, there was a 7-fold decrease CYP1A mRNA relative to vehicle controls (Fig. 3C). However, there was no significant increase in CYP1A induction in mITP and CH223191 co-exposed embryos relative to vehicle controls (Fig. 3C). Therefore, these data suggest that CH223191 co-exposure rescues mITP-induced cardiotoxicity and reduces CYP1A induction during early development.

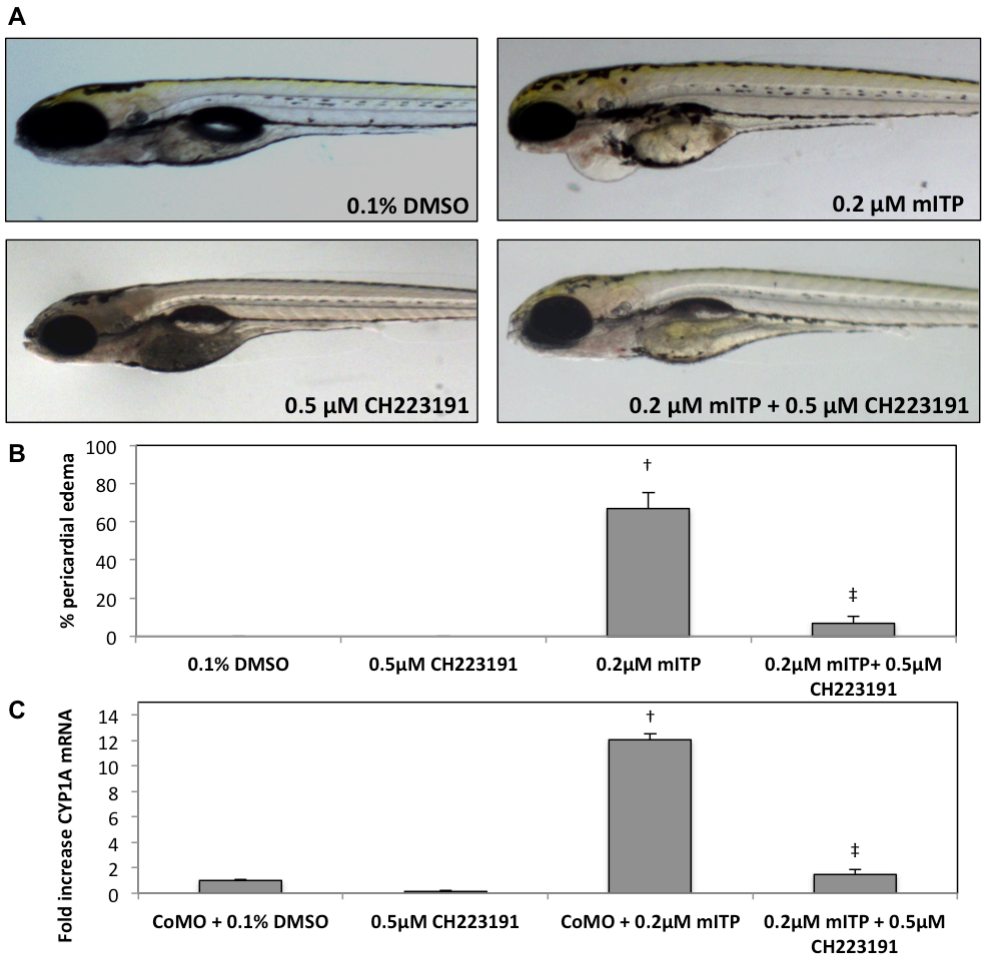

Figure 3. Co-exposure with CH223191 mitigates mITP-induced cardiotoxicity. (A) Representative bright-field images and (B) percent PE of 120-hpf zebrafish exposed to vehicle (0.1% DMSO) and 0.2 µM mITP in the absence or presence of 0.5 µM CH223191. Percent PE is mean ± SE. (C) CYP1A mRNA induction normalized to β-*actin* (internal control) at 72 hpf. Fold increase is mean ± SE. Dagger (†) denotes a statistically significant increase in treatment groups relative to vehicle controls ($p < 0.05$), whereas double-dagger (‡) denotes a statistically significant decrease relative to mITP alone ($p < 0.05$). N = 3 replicate vials and 9 to 10 fish per replicate.

AHR knockdown does not prevent mITP-induced cardiotoxicity

To confirm whether mITP-induced PE is AHR-dependent, we utilized a functional AHR2 knockout line (*ahr2*^{hu3335}). In Goodale *et al.* (2012), TCDD-exposed *ahr2*^{hu3335} mutants were resistant to the classic zebrafish phenotype of TCDD toxicity, such as PE, yolk sac edema, and eye, jaw, trunk and axis malformations. Also, in Goodale *et al.* (2012) the *ahr2*^{hu3335} mutants co-

injected with splice-blocking AHR1A and AHR1B MOs allowed for an effective knockdown of all three AHR isoforms in zebrafish.

In order to begin determining whether mITP interacts with one or more AHR isoforms, we injected 5D and *ahr2*^{hu3335} embryos with control MO (CoMO), and *ahr2*^{hu3335} embryos with either AHR1B MO or both AHR1A and AHR1B MOs. All groups were then treated with either vehicle or 0.2 μM mITP. In 5D embryos injected with CoMO, 100% exhibited PE (Fig. 4B). Surprisingly, all mITP-exposed *ahr2*^{hu3335} morphants also showed severe PE in the majority of embryos (Fig. 4A,B). In *ahr2*^{hu3335} mutant larvae injected with either CoMO, AHR1B MO, or co-injected with both AHR1A and AHR1B MO, there was 100%, 76%, and 80% PE, respectively (Fig. 4A,B). In the AHR1B/*ahr2*^{hu3335} morphants, there was a statistically significant decrease in PE relative to 5D or *ahr2*^{hu3335} embryos injected with CoMO but no decrease relative to *ahr2*^{hu3335} co-injected with both AHR1A and AHR1B MOs. Therefore, these data suggest that neither AHR2, AHR1A, nor AHR1B play a role in mediating mITP-induced cardiotoxicity.

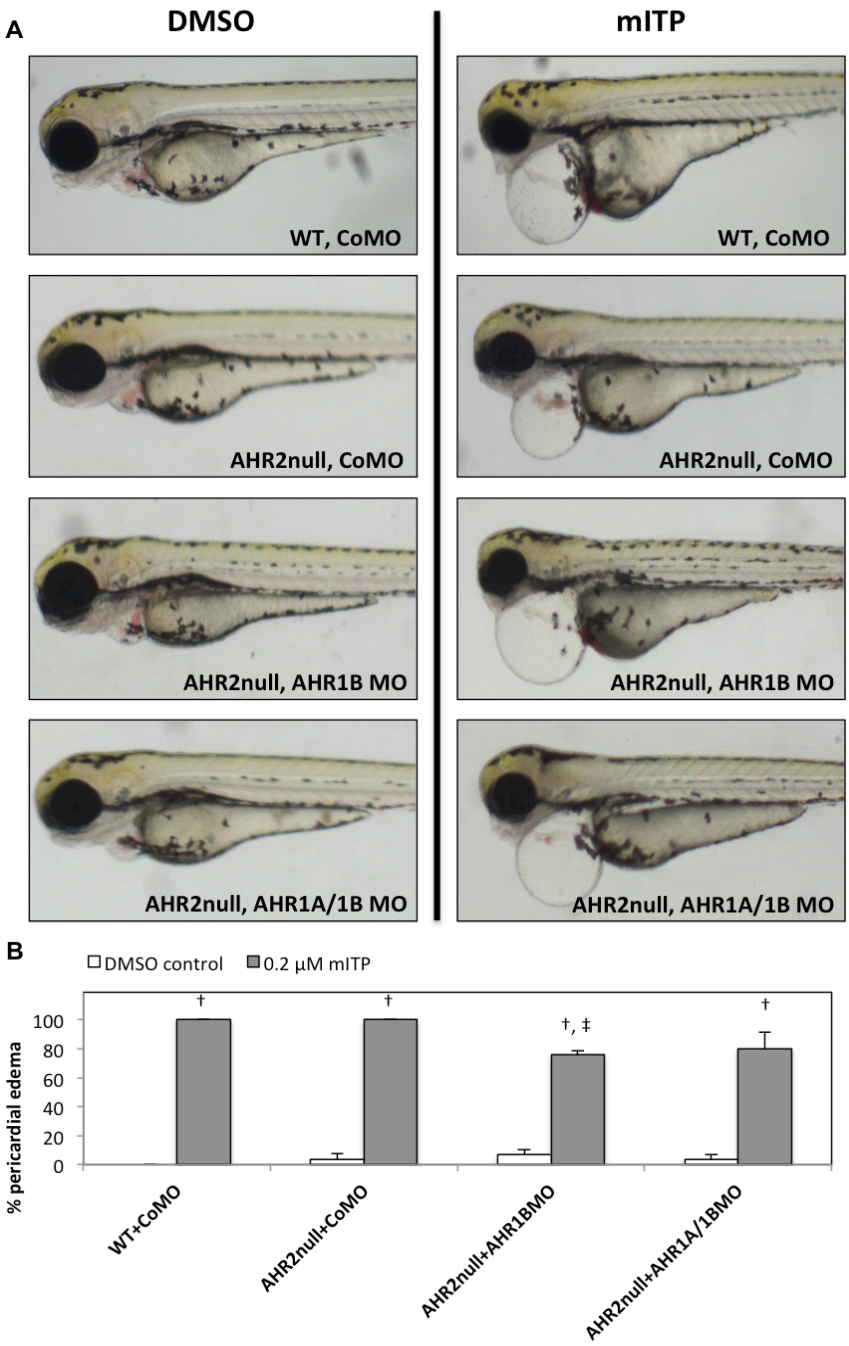

Figure 4. mITP-induced cardiotoxicity is AHR-independent. 5D embryos (WT) were injected with CoMO and *ahr2*^{hu3335} mutant embryos (AHR2null) were injected with either CoMO, AHR1B MO, or co-injected with AHR1A and AHR1B MOs. (A) Representative bright-field images of WT and AHR2null morphants exposed to either vehicle control (0.1% DMSO) or 0.2 µM mITP. (B) Percent PE is mean ± SE. All groups were allowed to develop until 72 hpf. Dagger (†) denotes a statistically significant increase in PE in mITP-exposed embryos relative to vehicle controls within the same group ($p < 0.05$), whereas double dagger (‡) denotes a statistically significant decrease in PE relative to mITP-exposed CoMO-injected WT fish ($p < 0.05$). N = 3 replicate vials and 9 to 10 fish per replicate.

mITP-induced CYP1A expression is AHR2- and AHR1B-dependent

Although AHR knockdown failed to block mITP-induced cardiotoxicity, we tested the reliability of our *in silico* docking findings by evaluating CYP1A expression *in vivo*. Though we were unable to separate the mITP mixture into individual congeners for this study (due to a lack of commercially available analytical standards), we used the mITP mixture to determine AHR isoform dependence. To do this, we utilized IHC and real-time qPCR to measure CYP1A induction at 72 hpf in all AHR knockdown scenarios. First, IHC indicated that 5D embryos injected with CoMO and exposed to vehicle exhibited no detectable CYP1A protein induction, while mITP-exposed embryos showed strong CYP1A protein induction in the vasculature, heart, and liver (Fig. 5A). On the other hand, mITP-exposed *ahr2*^{hu3335} mutants injected with CoMO, AHR1B MO, and co-injected with both AHR1A and AHR1B MOs exhibited no detectable CYP1A protein induction using IHC, suggesting that AHR2 is activated by mITP (Fig. 5A). Using real-time qPCR to measure CYP1A mRNA, however, we found that *ahr2*^{hu3335} CoMO-injected mutants had a 18-fold increase in CYP1A expression in mITP-exposed embryos relative to vehicle controls (Fig. 5B). In the presence of AHR1B knockdown, CYP1A induction returned to AHR1B/*ahr2*^{hu3335} morphant vehicle control levels (Fig. 5B). In addition, triple knockdown of AHR2, AHR1A, and AHR1B isoforms showed no further reduction in CYP1A induction relative to vehicle control levels in the same group (Fig. 5B), and this suggests that AHR1A does not play a role in mITP-induced CYP1A expression. Lastly, using qualitative PCR to measure *ahr1a* and *ahr1b* mRNA, we found that MO-injected embryos had an exon deleted or intron inserted, respectively, which suggests each isoform was successfully knocked down (Fig. 6). Overall, these data suggest that AHR2 and AHR1B isoforms both contribute to mITP-induced CYP1A expression.

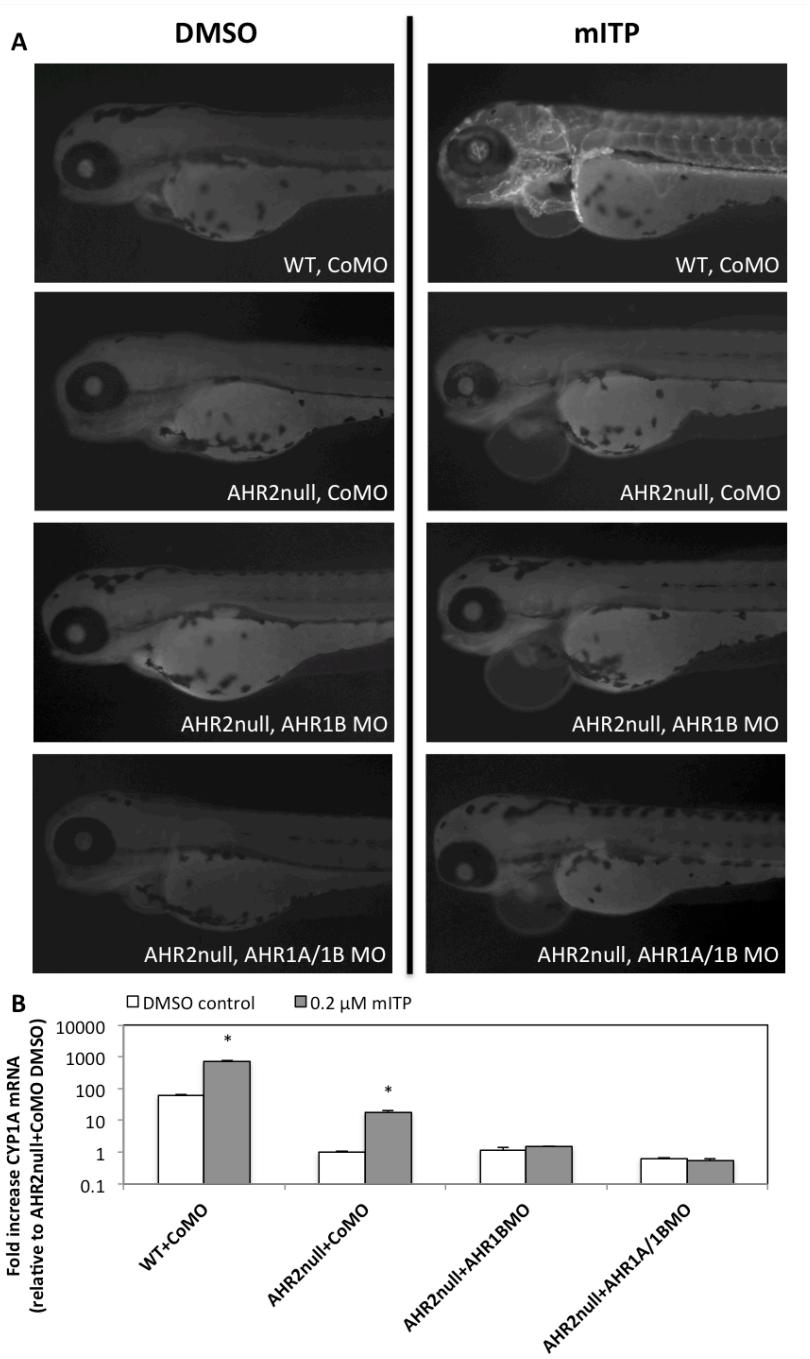

Figure 5. CYP1A induction is AHR2 and AHR1B-dependent. (A) Representative fluorescent images at 72 hpf of CYP1A protein expression of CoMO-injected WT embryos, CoMO-injected AHR2null, AHR1B MO-injected AHR2null, and AHR2null co-injected with AHR1A and AHR1B MOs. All groups were exposed to either vehicle control (0.1% DMSO) or 0.2 µM mITP. (B) CYP1A mRNA induction normalized to β-actin (internal control) at 72 hpf. All groups were exposed to either vehicle control (0.1% DMSO) or 0.2 µM mITP. Fold increase is mean ± SE. N = 3 replicate vials each with 9 to 10 fish per replicate. Asterisk (*) denotes statistically significant increase in treatment groups relative to vehicle controls within the same group ($p < 0.05$).

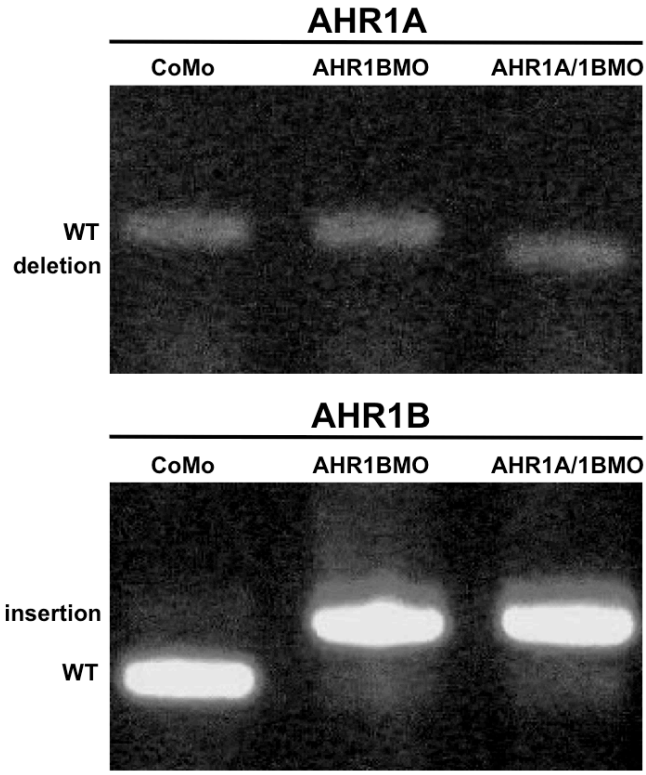

Figure 6. AHR1A and AHR1B MOs caused mis-splice in target mRNA. AHR1A and AHR1B fragments spanning the MO target sites were amplified using PCR. cDNA was from identical 72-hpf embryos that were used for CYP1A qPCR.

DISCUSSION

In light of McGee *et al.* (2013), we initially hypothesized that AHR1A and/or AHR1B mediated mITP-induced cardiotoxicity in developing zebrafish. Because McGee *et al.* (2013) showed that (1) mITP exposure resulted in PE and CYP1A induction, (2) an AHR antagonist (CH223191) rescued PE and CYP1A induction, and (3) AHR2 knockdown did not rescue toxicity, it seemed likely that knocking down AHR1A and/or AHR1B would fully or partially mitigate cardiotoxicity. Therefore, in this study we first utilized *in silico* AHR structural homology modeling and predicted that mITP would dock favorably to both AHR2 and AHR1B LBDs. Then, using the *ahr2*^{hu3335} mutant zebrafish line and AHR1A and AHR1B MOs, we determined, to our surprise, that mITP-induced cardiotoxicity is AHR-independent. Finally, we measured CYP1A induction from all AHR knockdown scenarios and determined that AHR2 and AHR1B are both activated by mITP to induce CYP1A. These results suggest that both mITP and CH223191 target the AHR pathway as well as one or more additional pathways, and that these other pathways likely mediate mITP-induced cardiotoxicity during zebrafish embryogenesis.

Using *in silico* structural homology modeling, TCDD was predicted to dock to AHR2 and AHR1B LBDs, but not AHR1A – which has been shown previously both *in vivo* and *in vitro* (Andreasen *et al.*, 2002; Goodale *et al.*, 2012; Karchner *et al.*, 2005). Comparing only docking scores with TCDD within each AHR isoform model, we predicted that AHR2 and AHR1B – but not AHR1A – would bind both CH223191 and mITP (Table 1). As mITP is a mixture of *meta*-, *para*-, and *ortho*-substituted mITP congeners, we tested whether these three congeners may dock to hAHR and zebrafish AHR1A, AHR1B, and AHR2 *in silico*, and found that *meta*-mITP weakly docked to hAHR and zebrafish AHR2 and AHR1B, while *para*-mITP weakly docked to human AHR and zebrafish AHR1B. Previously, McGee *et al.* (2013) used an *in vitro* human AHR reporter assay and demonstrated that mITP exposure resulted in activation of hAHR-dependent transcription. However, because of the current lack of commercially available analytical

standards for mITP congeners, we were unable to separate mITP into its individual congeners to test the hypothesis that *meta* and *para* – but not *ortho* – activates AHR2 and AHR1B isoforms as was predicted *in silico*. Moreover, it is important to note that the mITP sample used in this study is from one batch of FM550 and, as a result, the ratio of individual congeners may vary from batch to batch.

The AHR is known for its promiscuity and various functional activities, including crosstalk with other receptors and differential expression of AHR response elements with various exogenous ligands (Denison *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, understanding the role of the AHR in developmental toxicity can often be complicated. Utilizing CH223191 as a pharmacologic tool, we confirmed results seen in McGee *et al.* (2013) that suggested mITP-induced cardiotoxicity was AHR-dependent. However, using *ahr2*^{hu3335} zebrafish along with AHR1A and AHR1B MOs, we were able to more clearly determine the role of the AHR in mITP-induced cardiotoxicity. In Goodale *et al.* (2012), *ahr2*^{hu3335} zebrafish were successfully utilized to rescue severe TCDD-induced developmental toxicity normally observed in wild-type zebrafish at the same nominal concentrations. Also, for the first time, Goodale *et al.* (2012) knocked down all three zebrafish AHR isoforms and, as a result, rescued leflunomide-induced CYP1A expression that activated all three AHR isoforms. In a similar way, we were able to knockdown all three AHR isoforms to study the interaction between mITP and AHR and to determine whether this interaction results in cardiotoxicity in zebrafish. As a result, we found that mITP-induced CYP1A expression is certainly mediated through the AHR2 and AHR1B isoforms, but that cardiotoxicity is AHR-independent.

Real-time qPCR results showed that CYP1A mRNA expression returned to AHR1B/*ahr2*^{hu3335} morphant vehicle control levels upon AHR2 and AHR1B knockdown and that knockdown of all three AHR isoforms together did not further affect CYP1A expression. In addition, IHC results showed that 5D zebrafish had strong CYP1A protein induction while *ahr2*^{hu3335} zebrafish did not have any detectable CYP1A protein induction. These data suggest, as

was predicted *in silico*, that mITP does activate AHR2 and AHR1B and does not activate AHR1A. Though PE prevalence decreased upon AHR1B knockdown in *ahr2*^{hu3335} zebrafish, and by itself may suggest that AHR1B has a role in mediating cardiotoxicity, PE prevalence increased upon knockdown of all three AHR isoforms. Furthermore, *ahr2*^{hu3335} control groups exhibited varying background PE that could explain the difference in the AHR1B/*ahr2*^{hu3335} group. It is also conceivable that AHR1A knockdown exacerbates mITP-induced cardiotoxicity, as previously shown with PCB126 and some PAHs (Garner *et al.*, 2013); however, since CYP1A expression was not affected, this scenario is unlikely. Taken together, these data suggest that CH223191 antagonizes another target in addition to AHR that results in the protection from the induction of cardiotoxicity.

CH223191 was first identified through a chemical library screen, where it successfully rescued TCDD-induced toxicity in rodents (Kim *et al.*, 2006). CH223191 has since been utilized in combination with TCDD both *in vitro* and *in vivo* to investigate the role of AHR in mammalian reproduction, human glioma development, and acetylcholinesterase regulation (Brembilla *et al.*, 2011; Petroff *et al.*, 2011; Xie *et al.*, 2013). In addition, CH223191 has been used as a pharmacologic tool to study the toxicity and AHR interactions with androgenic anabolic steroids, certain PAHs, and most recently mITP and TPP (Gramatzki *et al.*, 2009; McGee *et al.*, 2013; Moon *et al.*, 2012). However, some studies have identified possible issues with utilizing CH223191 as an AHR antagonist. First, CH223191 alone causes AHR-independent cell proliferation in both human and murine hepatoma cell lines (Choi *et al.*, 2012). Moreover, CH223191 antagonism is ligand-dependent as it does not antagonize certain PAHs, flavonoids and indirubin, including benzo(a)anthracene, benzo(k)fluoranthene, and β-Naphthoflavone (Zhao *et al.*, 2010). Using *in silico* structural homology modeling we predicted that CH223191 docks in AHR2 and AHR1B LBDs and we showed that CH223191 treatment results in reduced CYP1A expression relative to vehicle controls. It remains a possibility that CH223191 may induce other AHR-dependent genes. Lastly, we suggest that CH223191 may antagonize a pathway other than

AHR. Overall, these discoveries indicate that CH223191 alone is not sufficient to determine AHR-dependent toxicity.

In addition to cardiotoxicity induced by mITP, McGee *et al.* (2013) showed that TPP – another major APE component of FM550 – exhibits a similar cardiotoxic phenotype, resulting in severe PE and abnormal cardiac looping. However, in the same study, TPP did not activate hAHR, did not induce CYP1A expression, and the observed cardiotoxicity was not rescued by CH223191. Nevertheless, due to structural similarities of mITP and TPP (the former only being different from a substitution of an isopropyl group on one of the three benzene rings), these two compounds (or a common metabolite) may cause cardiotoxicity via the same pathway. Although the metabolites of mITP are currently unknown, many Phase-I metabolites of TPP have been identified, including the metabolite diphenyl phosphate (DPP) resulting from O-dealkylation, as well as metabolites resulting from di-hydoxylation and both hydroxylation and O-dealkylation (Sasaki *et al.*, 1984; Van den Eede *et al.*, 2013). It is possible that mITP has similar metabolites as TPP, namely DPP and the metabolite resulting from hydroxylation and O-dealkylation. If this is the case, metabolites of mITP and TPP may cause AHR-independent cardiotoxicity in developing zebrafish. On the other hand, the CH223191 rescue of cardiotoxicity caused by mITP and not TPP may be a function of how CH223191 targets and possibly antagonizes other pathways. For instance, CH223191 may be a selective receptor modulator or allosteric regulator that may result in exclusion of mITP and not TPP from a specific receptor-binding site (Choi *et al.*, 2012). Though the mechanism of TPP-induced developmental toxicity is not understood, previous studies have demonstrated that TPP causes upregulation in certain peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor α- and thyroid hormone receptor α-dependent genes (Liu *et al.* 2013). In human preparations, TPP has also been demonstrated to cause endocrine disrupting effects by acting as an estrogen receptor α and β agonist and androgen receptor antagonist (Kojima *et al.*, 2013). Further studies should be conducted to determine whether mITP and TPP

have common metabolites and receptor targets, and whether these two chemicals induce expression of similar gene networks.

In summary, the findings in the present study show that additional research is needed to elucidate the developmental toxicity of mITP and FM550 more broadly. Previously, because of concerns about brominated FRs, the halogenated components of FM550 were investigated first. Specifically, TBPH has been shown to cause thyroid, liver, and testis toxicity in developing rodents, and TBB and TBPH have both been demonstrated to be endocrine disruptors at environmentally relevant levels (Springer *et al.*, 2012; Patisaul *et al.*, 2013). The present study is only the second to look specifically at the potential health effects from mITP. Though we showed mITP is an AHR agonist that causes AHR-independent cardiotoxicity in zebrafish, little is known regarding the downstream mechanisms. Given the widespread use of mITP and other APEs (particularly TPP), a more thorough evaluation of mITP should be undertaken in order to determine the potential human health and ecological risks.

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