

1 **BIOINDICATOR SPECIES FOR EROD ACTIVITY MEASUREMENTS: A REVIEW WITH**

2 **AUSTRALIAN FISH AS A CASE STUDY**

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21 Running head: Bioindicator species for EROD activity measurements

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## 23 1 Abstract

24 The conversion of ethoxyresorufin to the fluorescent product resorufin by the enzyme  
25 ethoxyresorufin-*O*-deethylase (EROD) enables researchers to rapidly measure the  
26 upregulation of this protein in response to exposure to a range of organic contaminants  
27 e.g. PAH, PCBs. The EROD activity assay has been widely used to examine the effects of  
28 such pollutants on fish taxa in both laboratory and field studies. This review is intended to  
29 provide fundamental information for researchers using this EROD activity as an endpoint,  
30 including methods used in the assay, the species studied to date, the background EROD  
31 levels which would be expected for these species and when available, the EROD activity  
32 induction potential for these species. While the focus is on Australian studies, many  
33 species listed in this review have a worldwide distribution and the information presented  
34 may be extended to other bioindicator fish species. Common shortfalls in the published  
35 literature leads to recommendations: it is recommended to have multiple laboratory  
36 control or field reference groups as basal EROD activity might vary with biotic and/or  
37 abiotic factors. The use of native species over introduced species offers no advantages,  
38 with EROD activity induction potential ( $\times$ -fold) being similar for native or introduced fish  
39 species. Similarly, in laboratory studies, EROD activity induction potential is comparable  
40 for lab/hatchery-reared fish to the activity observed in field-caught animals. Because  
41 EROD activity is often reported to reduce at high concentrations of toxicants, laboratory  
42 studies should use a carefully considered range of contaminant concentrations rather  
43 than a single exposure concentration, as a single exposure concentration may be on the  
44 decreasing side of the response curve. The measurement of serum sorbitol  
45 dehydrogenase (SDH) activity in conjunction with EROD activity is recommended to insure

46 liver functions are not jeopardized by high contaminant levels. In field studies, and  
47 depending on the variability observed in EROD activity within a given fish species, a  
48 number of 8 to 13 non-reproductively active fish, preferably of similar age and sex, per  
49 site is recommended to improve the chances of detecting a significant difference in EROD  
50 activity, if one does exist. Finally, an inter-continental comparison of EROD activity  
51 induction potential (expressed as x-fold relative to a control or reference group) suggests  
52 that highly inducible species can be found on all continents, with reported EROD activity  
53 induction as high as 135-fold in exposed groups but more commonly less than 5-fold  
54 relative to laboratory control or field reference groups.

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59 Keywords: EROD activity; fish; native; introduced; induction potential; bioindicator;  
60 biomarker; Australia

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## 62 2 Introduction

63 Aquatic ecosystems are a sink for many organic chemicals such as polycyclic aromatic  
64 hydrocarbons (PAHs), organochlorine pesticides (OCs), polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs)  
65 and polychlorinated dibenzo-dioxin/furan (PCDDs/PCDFs) (Perelo 2010). The impacts of  
66 such contaminants are often only identified once organism or population level effects are  
67 evident (Adams 2001). Biochemical markers (biomarkers) representing the initial, sub-  
68 organism, biological response to contaminants have been developed to aid in the  
69 detection of early indications of environmental impact (van der Oost et al. 2003). One of  
70 the most widely used biomarkers of exposure to organic pollution is the measurement of  
71 hepatic ethoxyresorufin-*O*-deethylase (EROD) activity in fishes (Whyte et al. 2000).  
72 Increased levels of EROD are indicative of elevated detoxification activity induced upon  
73 exposure to organic pollution (van der Oost et al. 2003). Induction of EROD activity above  
74 basal levels is not equivalent across fishes (Whyte et al. 2000) and, the selection of  
75 species with an appropriate potential for induced EROD activity in response to  
76 contamination is crucial to the early assessment of environmental impacts (Adams 2001).

77 This paper reviews the literature describing studies on EROD activities in marine,  
78 freshwater, and estuarine fish species under laboratory and field settings in an Australian  
79 context. It focuses on providing guidance for species selection in future studies through  
80 an evaluation of differences in basal EROD activity and induction potential across species  
81 from different provenances (geographic, wild vs lab/hatchery reared, native vs  
82 introduced). The review uses Australia as a case study as the fish fauna from that country  
83 could provide insights on the role that endemism and evolutionary isolation might play in  
84 explaining EROD induction potentials. The information provided may, however, be

85 extended to other bioindicator fish species occurring worldwide. Whyte *et al.* (2000)  
86 extensively reviewed literature on EROD induction and described many of the factors that  
87 influence the induction, conduct of the assay, and interpretation of results. Here we build  
88 on that review using recent research and describe a different set of species and  
89 population characteristics to specifically answer the following questions:

90 1) In laboratory studies, is there a difference in the EROD activity induction potential  
91 between lab/hatchery-reared and wild-caught fish?

92 2) In field studies, is there a difference in the EROD activity induction potential  
93 between Australian native and introduced species?

94 3) Is there a geographic difference in EROD activity induction potential at the  
95 continental scale?

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## 97 **2.1 Mechanism of CYP1A induction**

98 The bioactivity of many xenobiotics and endogenous ligands is mediated via high affinity  
99 binding to the aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR). While the AhR promiscuously binds many  
100 xenobiotic compounds (Denison and Heath-Pagliuso 1998), high affinity ligands are  
101 generally planar, aromatic and hydrophobic (Denison 1991) and include amongst others  
102 tetrachlorinated dibenzo-*p*-dioxins (TCDDs), some polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs),  
103 polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and some organochlorine pesticides (OCPs)  
104 (Fent 2001; Oropeza-Hernandez *et al.* 2003; Sierra-Santoyo *et al.* 2000). Limited numbers  
105 of endogenous AhR ligands have been identified (Andreola *et al.* 1997; Rannug *et al.*  
106 1987). The AhR/ARNT (aryl hydrocarbon nuclear translocator) dimer activates members

107 of the Ah-gene battery, resulting in a pleiotropic response including the production of  
108 cytochrome P450-1A (CYP1A), immuno-toxicity, hepatic damage, carcinogenesis,  
109 reproductive toxicity, and neurotoxicity (see Mandal 2005 for review).

110 The adverse effects generated by AhR ligands can occur via Phase I metabolism of the  
111 ligand to toxic intermediates (Huff *et al.* 1994; Machala *et al.* 2001). The best-studied of  
112 these is the CYP1A and epoxide hydrolase catalysed metabolism of benzo(a)pyrene to  
113 DNA adduct forming BaP-7,8-dihydrodiol-9,10-epoxide (BPDE) (Hecht 2003; Varanasi *et*  
114 *al.* 1986). AhR binding by other ligands, may result amongst other effects in the activation  
115 of genes associated with the formation of tumours (oncogenes, Puga *et al.* 2000) or  
116 suppression of immune responses (Camacho *et al.* 2001).

## 117 **2.2 CYP1A induction as a biomarker of exposure**

118 The environmental concentration of some contaminants can correlate with measured  
119 body burdens in animals in intimate contact with the environmental matrix but, in cases  
120 where animals rapidly metabolise rather than accumulate certain contaminants, the  
121 measurement of body burden concentrations becomes irrelevant. Further, the mere  
122 presence of a contaminant in the body of an organism does not necessarily translate to  
123 toxicity (van der Oost *et al.*, 2003) and the concentration at which this occurs is  
124 dependent on a range of variables. Hence simply measuring environmental  
125 concentrations and/or body burdens is insufficient to infer toxicity (van der Oost *et al.*  
126 2003). Inherent spatial and temporal variability in contaminant concentrations merely  
127 suggests that toxicity might be under- or over-estimated.

128 In ecotoxicological studies, such chemical analyses are used as supporting tools to the  
129 measurements of biomarkers of *exposure* and *effect*. The induction of CYP1A is a  
130 biomarker of *exposure* of (primarily) vertebrates to organic contaminants, allowing an  
131 assessment of the contaminant-driven activation of the AhR gene battery (Whyte *et al.*  
132 2000). Joined with contaminant burden in the organism or its organs, EROD activity  
133 induction can suggest the onset of chemically induced metabolic alterations at the  
134 subcellular level.

### 135 **2.3 EROD activity as a measure of CYP1A induction**

136 CYP1A and CYP1A mRNA can both be measured directly but this is time-consuming and  
137 expensive where large numbers of samples are to be analysed (e.g., field populations)  
138 (Miller *et al.* 2004). Measurement of the CYP1A-catalysed deethylation of ethoxyresorufin  
139 to a fluorescent product, resorufin, (via the activity of ethoxyresorufin-*O*-deethylase;  
140 EROD) has allowed more cost-effective and timely quantification of AhR ligand binding  
141 and aryl hydrocarbon – (Ah-) gene activation. The correlation between EROD activity and  
142 CYP1A content has been established in both laboratory and field studies (DeVito 1996;  
143 Miller *et al.* 2004).

144 EROD activity varies between species and contaminants (Whyte *et al.* 2000). Ring-tests  
145 have also shown that measured EROD activity varies greatly between laboratories (Banni  
146 *et al.* 2008; Baršienė *et al.* 2006). In these tests the most repeatable results were achieved  
147 by describing the influence of exposure on EROD activity not as the absolute enzymatic  
148 activity but as the *pattern* of responses among the exposed and non-exposed fish.

149 Commonly, the EROD activity in contaminant-exposed fish is compared to the activity in  
150 control or reference fish on an x-fold basis (Smith and Gagnon 2000; Webb et al 2005a).

151 In a review of the use of the EROD biomarker, Whyte *et al.* (2000) discussed many of the  
152 factors which may affect the measurement of EROD activity under field conditions; (i)  
153 some environmental contaminants alter the structure of AhR and/or CYP1A (e.g.,  
154 organotins react with amino acids on the CYP1A protein; Boffetta *et al.* 1997); (ii) an  
155 increase in EROD activity with age has been reported (Burgeot *et al.* 1996) but while  
156 Collier *et al.* (1993) recommend the use of juvenile fish to minimise the effects of  
157 reproduction and migration, factors such as ease of capture and adequate size of hepatic  
158 tissue often lead to the analysis of larger (usually older) fish; (iii) interactions between  
159 estrogens and AhR binding and activation and CYP1A production mean that  
160 reproductively active female fish have consistently lower EROD activities than other  
161 exposed fish of that species (Arukwe and Goksoyr 1997; Goksoyr and Forlin 1992; Navas  
162 and Segner 2000; Sanchez *et al.* 2007; Waxman 1988; Webb *et al.* 2005a) – this  
163 interaction has been widely studied but the mechanisms responsible remain unclear  
164 (reviewed by Biró *et al.* 2002).

165 Thus, while the biomonitoring of organic contaminants using EROD activity in fish is a  
166 cost-effective assessment tool allowing the prioritisation of sites for further investigation  
167 using more expensive techniques such as chemical analysis of sediments, water, and flesh  
168 (Clancy 2008; Whyte *et al.* 2000), care must be taken in its use and in the selection of  
169 target species and individuals.



## 170 2.4 Assay methods for EROD activity measurements

171 While the selection of a bioindicator species with a high EROD activity induction potential  
172 is desirable, the method used for measuring EROD enzymatic activity might also influence  
173 results and interpretation. A number of the papers reviewed here refer to the original  
174 source for the measurement of CYP1A content by EROD activity (i.e., Burke and Mayer,  
175 1974). This original method used microsomes isolated from the livers of 3-  
176 methylcholanthrene (3-MC) treated hamsters and rats. It elegantly demonstrated the  
177 temporal increase in fluorescence due to the *O*-deethylation of ethoxyresorufin to  
178 resorufin mediated by a NADPH-cytochrome P450 reductase. It described the  
179 consequence of the exposure of the animals to 3-MC in terms of changes to the apparent  
180  $K_m$  (nM) and  $V_{max}$  standardised to the amount of protein in the sample (nmol/min/mg  
181 protein).

182 Where this original method is not cited, the papers discussed in this document refer  
183 (explicitly or otherwise) to adaptations to this method and to standardised methods  
184 published by government, academic or industry groups. The majority of these are based  
185 on the method developed by Pohl and Fouts (1980), who described a rapid method of  
186 EROD activity measurement in rat liver microsomes using a defined reaction time that  
187 allowed a number of assays to be run in parallel. Proteins in the reaction mixture were  
188 precipitated by methanol, stopping the reaction at the desired point. The addition of  
189 bovine serum albumin (BSA) and/or EDTA to the incubation mixture provided a  
190 homogenous reaction medium and increased fluorimetric measurements (Pohl and Fouts  
191 1980). Both compounds increased the enzymatic activity and corrected variations in plots

192 of the resorufin produced against the concentration of microsomal protein. They also  
193 showed that including  $Mg^{2+}$  (in this case as  $MgSO_4$ ) in the incubation mixture markedly  
194 increased the fluorescence signal.

195 In the 1990s, the method of Pohl and Fouts (1980) was adapted for the use in other  
196 vertebrates (including fish). The most cited method for measurement of EROD activity in  
197 Australian fish is the seminal technical report by Hodson *et al.* (1991). That report gave  
198 recommendations for study design, sample collection and storage, data handling and  
199 QA/QC, and detailed methods for measuring EROD activity in fish liver (based on the  
200 method of Pohl and Fouts 1980). A strong correlation between results gained using the  
201 isolated microsomes and those using the S9 (post-mitochondrial suspension) fraction was  
202 reported leading to the increasing use of the S9 fraction in EROD activity measurements  
203 (presumably for ease of preparation and time-saving issues).

204 With the emergence of microplate technologies, methods were adapted to allow rapid  
205 assessment of EROD activity using a 96 well fluorescence plate reader with reduced assay  
206 volumes (Eggens and Galgani, 1992). Four publications concerned with Australian fish  
207 species cite the work of Gunther *et al.* (1997) or van den Heuvel *et al.* (1999) who  
208 combined previous methods using a fluorescence plate reader and the S9 fraction to  
209 produce perhaps the most rapid method for the measurement of large numbers of  
210 samples. An additional advantage of the microplate measurement is that it offered the  
211 possibility of measuring hepatic EROD activity when very little biological tissue was  
212 available.

213 No standard method is currently employed in studies on EROD activities. Rather,  
214 researchers tend to optimise methods to their capacities (e.g., available laboratory  
215 equipment) and in some cases, large differences exist. The excitation and emission  
216 wavelengths used range from 510-574 and 584-596 nm respectively (excitation and  
217 emission maxima were reported by Burke and Mayer (1974) as 560nm and 586nm  
218 respectively) but the majority used the recommendation of Hodson *et al.* (1991) (Ex 530,  
219 Em 585). Amongst those methods using a fixed reaction time, this time varied from 2-10  
220 minutes. There was also variation in the source of the reducing agent NADPH. Most of the  
221 methods called for the addition of low concentrations of NADPH to the incubation  
222 mixture (while ensuring that it is not limiting in the reaction), while others, particularly  
223 those based on the work of Holdway *et al.* (1994), use an NADPH regenerating system  
224 (NADP, MgCl<sub>2</sub>, KCl, glucose-6-phosphate, glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase) which  
225 significantly reduces the cost of performing the assay.

226 Each of these variations in methods has the potential to affect the measured activity and  
227 the results gathered in different laboratories (even on the same species at similar life-  
228 stages) are likely to vary. Given the results of inter-laboratory studies elsewhere (Banni *et*  
229 *al.* 2008; Baršienė *et al.* 2006), the relative x-fold induction (exposed relative to control or  
230 reference fish) should remain comparable.

231 Along with the selection of an assay method, the experimental design needs to include  
232 several test concentrations in order to evaluate a maximum EROD activity in any given  
233 fish species. Notably, in a number of laboratory studies (e.g., Mercurio *et al.* 2004;

234 Tugiyono and Gagnon 2001; van Dam *et al.* 1999) the maximum induction of EROD  
235 activity was not at the highest exposure concentration. In the original methods of Burke  
236 and Mayer (1974) the increase in resorufin concentration in the presence of CYP1A was  
237 only linear up to a certain point. In fact, the product of the reaction was an inhibitor of  
238 the reaction. The result is that where the production is very high the reaction will be  
239 slowed. A lack of linearity may also be due to incorrect methodologies where the  
240 substrate, rather than the CYP1A in the sample (S9 or microsomal preparation) is in  
241 excess (Mercurio *et al.* 2004). These two explanations, however, do not account for the  
242 decrease in EROD induction above a certain exposure concentration. A more likely  
243 explanation is that above a certain exposure concentration other chronic pathologies may  
244 affect the production of CYP1A (e.g., liver damage: Webb and Gagnon 2007). This  
245 demonstrates the importance of characterizing the CYP1A induction fully. A single test  
246 concentration is insufficient to describe the induction potential as a researcher has no  
247 way of knowing if this response is on the increasing or decreasing arm of the response  
248 curve.

249 Some Australian laboratory studies (e.g., Webb *et al.* 2008) present the results of both  
250 EROD activity and serum concentration of sorbitol dehydrogenase (SDH) as a biomarker  
251 of hepatocellular damage. This is in response to a study by Holdway *et al.* (1994) which  
252 reported that as SDH increased, EROD activity decreased. The authors suggested that  
253 hepatocellular damage reduced the ability of the liver to synthesise CYP1A and that such  
254 damage could cause the underestimation of exposure where EROD activity is measured  
255 alone. Such assumption is supported by another study where it was demonstrated that

256 elevated serum SDH activity in fish preceded the onset of histopathology by several days  
257 (Webb and Gagnon 2007). Thus coupling of EROD activity and serum SDH activity can be  
258 useful to ensure the validity of the measurement of the EROD activity.

259

### 260 **3 Review Methodology**

261 In order to assist researchers in the selection of the most appropriate bioindicator species  
262 for a given research question, we have conducted a review of the available literature. We  
263 searched the published literature using the initial search terms “EROD” and “fish” in  
264 Scopus with no time of publication constraints. The test species used in each of the 1219  
265 articles retrieved from the initial search was cross-matched against occurrence records in  
266 FishBase (Froese and Pauly 2016). Articles were retained for the review if there was an  
267 occurrence in either Australia or New Zealand. For *Onchorynchus mykiss* and *Carassius*  
268 *auratus* there were a very large numbers of studies reporting EROD activity in these  
269 species. For these species articles with the highest reported fold induction were retained.

270 From retained articles, information on the provenance (hatchery or wild-caught), life-  
271 stage, and sex were entered into a database. Separate searches determined the natural  
272 habitat of the fish (marine, estuarine, freshwater) and whether they were native to  
273 Australia. Details of test protocols (exposure route, toxicant, concentration range and  
274 replication) and results (basal EROD or EROD activity in control/reference animals,  
275 maximum induction (x-fold induction) were extracted from each article and added to the  
276 database. Calculation of maximum x-fold induction was calculated as “maximum x-fold =

277 maximum EROD in exposed fish / basal EROD in control or reference fish". Not all articles  
278 reported EROD activity separately for sexes (e.g. some studies use juvenile fish) so the  
279 calculated maximum x-fold induction was based on the group having the highest EROD  
280 activity over the EROD activity in control or reference group.

281 A total of 85 entries were made to the database for (51 for laboratory based studies and  
282 34 for field based studies). In some cases there were multiple entries from single studies  
283 in which multiple species were tested.

#### 284 **4 Australian fish: a special case**

285 The Australian continent has been essentially geologically isolated since the mid-  
286 Cretaceous, resulting in a highly endemic fish fauna. Despite the introduction of a number  
287 of exotic species over the past 220 years, endemism is highly localised with few species  
288 occurring throughout the continent. Moreover, Australia has a large and ecologically  
289 diverse coastline including tropical reef, warm and cool temperate waters, and estuarine  
290 mangrove systems. Freshwater systems are similarly ecologically diverse with latitudinal  
291 differences in climate (particularly the seasonality of rainfall) producing permanent  
292 streams with large seasonal changes in flow and discharge, ephemeral streams and lakes,  
293 and/or permanent inland wetlands. The extreme environment and the highly localised  
294 endemism has often forced ecotoxicological investigations to use fish species with poorly  
295 known biology and often with unknown EROD activity induction potential.

296 Until recently, Australian researchers relied on ecotoxicological data on non-native fish  
297 species in deriving trigger values and assessing risk to native ecosystems. Since Australian

298 native fish species are adapted to a very different set of extreme environmental  
299 conditions, responses to chemical and environmental stressors are likely to be different,  
300 relative those fish in other continents (research question no. 3). Consequently, standard  
301 testing techniques have been developed for a variety of Australian native fish species  
302 leading to the derivation of more reliable and relevant guideline values for the protection  
303 of the Australian environment (ANZECC and ARMCANZ 2000).

304 While the review by Whyte *et al.* (2000) (and other similar reviews) remains a valuable  
305 resource for all researchers using the EROD activity bioassay, only one Australian study  
306 (i.e., Holdway *et al.*, 1994) was covered. Thus to date there has been no review of the  
307 EROD activity measured in Australian fish species, and how the potential for EROD activity  
308 in these species compares to the potential induction in fish found on other continents.

## 309 **5 Laboratory Studies**

310 Laboratory studies often use extreme exposure concentrations or doses in order to  
311 trigger a response. Nevertheless, laboratory trials can inform on the relative EROD activity  
312 induction potential of various fish species exposed to single toxicants or to mixtures of  
313 contaminants.

### 314 **5.1 Study Species**

315 EROD measurements on fish exposed under laboratory conditions to contaminants with  
316 known or unknown CYP1A induction potential have been performed on 25 species that  
317 occur within Australia. Of these 16 are considered native and 9 are introduced species  
318 (Table 1). Given the well-documented inter-species difference in EROD induction, the

319 ratio of native to introduced Australian species studied under laboratory conditions is  
320 very low. While many introduced species present convenient model organisms as their  
321 biology is well understood, efforts are required to investigate native species, particularly  
322 with a view of establishing baselines against which future impacts can be assessed.

323 The fishes studied in the published literature included in this review were a combination  
324 of native and introduced marine (7), estuarine (7) and freshwater (11) species. Hoese *et al.*  
325 *al.* (2006) describe over 4000 species of marine fishes in Australia compared to 443  
326 estuarine and 258 freshwater fish species. Given this relatively high marine fish diversity  
327 in Australia, the study of EROD induction in marine fishes is grossly under-represented.  
328 Whyte *et al.* (2000) reviewed the estimated basal EROD activity in 98 species of which  
329 58% were marine and 35% freshwater species (with the remainder catadromous,  
330 anadromous or estuarine). The relatively high proportion of freshwater species in which  
331 EROD activity is reported most likely reflects the greater impacts of human settlements  
332 around freshwater environments.

333 This bias toward freshwater and estuarine species is likely a reflection of social and  
334 scientific concerns regarding contamination by organic compounds in freshwater and  
335 estuarine environments which are often immediately subject to contamination by  
336 adjacent industrial and urban developments. However, with increasing coastal  
337 development and resource extraction in Australia, it is important that future efforts  
338 include a range of marine fish species from a wide variety of taxonomic groups. Particular



339 attention is required on marine species with wide geographic distributions yet small  
340 home ranges.

341 While selecting a bioindicator species for laboratory studies, one might consider using  
342 field-caught animals or laboratory/hatchery-reared fish stocks. Examination of the EROD  
343 activity potential of field-caught fish and lab/hatchery-reared fish under laboratory  
344 conditions presents no obvious advantage regarding EROD induction potential, as similar  
345 EROD activity induction potential can be achieved with animals sourced from the field or  
346 farmed (Webb and Gagnon 2013) (Figure 1, data from Table 1, T-test,  $t_{48} = 1.443$ ,  $p =$   
347  $0.155$ ). The use of lab/hatchery-reared fish can however present experimental  
348 advantages such as a uniform genetic background, an homogenous fish size and disease-  
349 free animals that feed on the food provided. The use of native versus introduced species  
350 is discussed later in this review.

## 351 **5.2 Single Toxicant Studies**

352 The model contaminants most often used in laboratory studies were PCB isomers (PCB  
353 126), PCB mixtures (Aroclor 1254), PAHs, and known EROD inducers ( $\beta$ -naphthoflavone,  
354 DTPA). Across most laboratory studies, intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection with  $\beta$ -  
355 naphthoflavone ( $\beta$ NF) consistently resulted in the highest EROD fold induction (often >  
356 than 20-fold relative to control fish) and is therefore a reliable positive control for EROD  
357 activity investigations. However, i.p. injection of yellowtail trumpeter (*Amniataba*  
358 *caudavittata*) with neither B(a)P (5  $\mu$ g/kg) or  $\beta$ NF (10  $\mu$ g/kg) resulted in the significant  
359 induction of EROD activity (Webb *et al.* 2008; Table 1). Similarly, some laboratory trials

360 suggested that the common blowfish *Torquigener pleurogramma* is not responsive to  
361 injections by PCB126 or  $\beta$ -naphthoflavone (Gagnon, unpublished data). Similarly, the Perth  
362 hearing is too sensitive to the stress of capture and handling to be collected from the wild  
363 and used in laboratory experiments where handling of the fish is required (Webb and  
364 Gagnon 2002b). The measurement of EROD induction by specific compounds on  
365 individual species under laboratory conditions can confirm (or otherwise) their suitability  
366 for the detection of AhR ligands in pre-release or caging studies. It is clear from the range  
367 of fold-induction in different species exposed to the same compound that the value of  
368 this bioindicator to detect exposure to, and uptake of, specific classes of contaminants  
369 under field conditions is difficult to predict. Hence, EROD induction is a biomarker of  
370 exposure to be used in conjunction with other measures of exposure and effects.

371 Only two studies cited EROD activity in Australian native fish exposed to individual PAHs.  
372 EROD activity was not significantly induced in crimson spotted rainbowfish by immersion  
373 in 400  $\mu\text{g/L}$  naphthalene (Pollino *et al.* 2009) but was significantly induced (8.9 fold) in  
374 aereolated grouper exposed to B(a)P (12.5  $\mu\text{g/kg/day}$ ) in diet (Au *et al.* 2004). PAH  
375 mediated EROD activity induction is stronger in high molecular weight (4 – 5 ring) PAHs  
376 (e.g., chrysene, B(a)P) than in lower molecular weight PAHs (e.g., naphthalene,  
377 phenanthrene) (reviewed by Whyte *et al.* 2000). Future work needs to focus on these  
378 higher molecular weight compounds including benzo(b)fluoranthene,  
379 benzo(k)fluoranthene, benzo(g,h,i)perylene and indeno(1,2,3-cd)pyrene – those high  
380 molecular weight PAHs defined as European Commission priority substances (European  
381 Union 2008).

### 382 **5.3 Mixtures**

383 A number of laboratory studies have expanded on single toxicant exposures and  
384 demonstrated EROD activity induction in Australian species exposed to complex mixtures  
385 (e.g. van Dam et al. 1999; Moose et al. 1996; Gagnon et al. 1998). Common industrial  
386 effluents from kraft mills, wastewater treatment plants and oil refineries have all  
387 demonstrated increased EROD activity induction in fish species found in Australian  
388 waters, however there is an overall lack of such studies on native species. Only one  
389 laboratory study (Woodworth *et al.* 1998) has demonstrated significant EROD activity  
390 induction in Australian native species (*Parablennius tasmanianus* and *Galaxius maculatus*)  
391 exposed to mixtures of contaminants. There is a need to continue efforts to demonstrate  
392 the utility of this endpoint to indicate exposure to AhR ligands in complex mixtures in  
393 order to guide field-based studies in the selection of suitable bioindicator species relevant  
394 to the study location.

### 395 **5.4 Laboratory Study Outcomes**

396 Variation in the basal EROD activity induction measured for the same species in different  
397 studies was quite high in some cases. The crimson spotted rainbowfish (*Melanotaenia*  
398 *fluviatilis*) was used as a test species in three separate published studies (Pollino *et al.*  
399 2009; Pollino and Holdway 2003; van Dam *et al.* 1999) and the basal EROD activity  
400 reading varied between 8.3 and 264 pmol/min/mg protein for male fish and 12.3 and 185  
401 pmol/min/mg protein for female fish. In two laboratory studies (Codi *et al.* 2004;  
402 Mercurio *et al.* 2004) using immature barramundi (*Lates calcarifer*) basal EROD activity  
403 levels varied between 3.4 and 54 pmol/min/mg protein. EROD activity in adult fish

404 (particularly female fish) varies annually with the reproductive cycle and other  
405 environmental parameters such as temperature (Whyte *et al.*, 2000). This can be  
406 overcome by the use of male fish and only comparing across fish of similar age and with a  
407 known life history. There are also methodological sources of variation. Since measured  
408 EROD activity is based on reaction rate, slight differences in reagent concentration,  
409 reaction temperature, incubation times, and S9 preparation methods may result in  
410 differences in measured activity. With the aim of producing comparable results for  
411 widespread freshwater and marine species it is important that common methods be  
412 defined and followed. While the expression of EROD induction as a fold induction is  
413 preferable the definition and reporting of basal EROD activity is required and should form  
414 part of reporting of EROD activity.

## 415 **6 Field Studies**

416 Field studies typically exhibit higher variability and lower levels of EROD activity  
417 compared to laboratory studies however, the measurement of EROD activity in field-  
418 caught specimens provides insights into the bioavailability of contaminants under real-life  
419 conditions. In field studies, the EROD induction potential of the selected bioindicator  
420 species and the confounding factors (such as reproductive activity, Wunderlich *et al.*  
421 2015) are additional aspects that need to be carefully considered in the study design.

### 422 **6.1 Choice of species**

423 Northern hemisphere studies using EROD activity as a biomarker have focused on  
424 widespread local species (e.g., rainbow trout, Atlantic salmon, fathead minnow, white  
425 sucker) and the induction of EROD activity in these fish has been well characterized. It is

426 clear from the studies cited here that none of the Australian species examined for EROD  
427 activity are as well studied as their northern counterparts. Twenty-four separate field-  
428 based studies in Australian and New Zealand were found citing EROD activity in native  
429 and introduced fish species (Table 2). Here again, there was a tendency toward studying  
430 freshwater species with the studies covering 20 individual species in total, of which 7  
431 were marine species, 3 were estuarine species and the remaining were either freshwater  
432 (8) or anadromous (2) species. Four studies used fish native to Australian waters that are  
433 also native to Chilean (Fossi *et al.* 1995; Gavilán *et al.* 2001) and Portuguese estuaries  
434 (Ferreira *et al.* 2004), and Taiwanese waters (Chen *et al.* 1998). Each of these studies  
435 focused on the potential impacts of a range of stressors (e.g., known organic  
436 contamination, oil production activities, human recreational activities, or agricultural  
437 runoff).

438 Of the 10 native Australian species studied in field studies only 3 (*Platycephalus bassensis*,  
439 *Acanthopagrus butcheri* and *Lates calcarifer*) had been previously or concurrently studied  
440 in the laboratory to assess basal EROD activity and the induction potential of the species.  
441 Without this assessment it is difficult to truly estimate the EROD activity induction  
442 potential of a given fish species following exposure of the animal to environmental  
443 xenobiotics.

444 In most field studies there is a community of fish species from which (a) study species can  
445 be selected and it is considered important to indicate the reasons for this choice. In the  
446 literature reviewed here the reasons given for choice include ease of capture (Rawson *et*

447 *al.* 2009) to a species of high commercial and recreational importance (Codi King *et al.*  
448 2005; Klumpp *et al.* 2007; van den Heuvel *et al.* 2006); relevant justification where  
449 protection of these species is also of primary importance. However where overall  
450 protection of fish communities is desired, it may be more appropriate to consider other  
451 factors such as whether the species is sedentary and/or has a small home range (Holdway  
452 *et al.* 1994; Shaw *et al.* 2004). A limited number of field studies have investigated multiple  
453 species collected from field sites in an attempt to identify the most appropriate species as  
454 a suitable bioindicator (Chaplin *et al.* 1997; Codi King *et al.* 2005). When selecting more  
455 than one bioindicator species from the field, the use of native bioindicator species over  
456 introduced ones provides no clear advantage to field studies as native and introduced  
457 species have comparable EROD activity induction potential, with inter-species variability  
458 within natives or within introduced also being similar (Figure 2, data extracted from Table  
459 2). In field studies conducted in Australia, there is no difference between the maximum  
460 EROD activity induction potential of native fish relative to the one form introduced  
461 species (Figure 2, T-test,  $t_{20} = 0.751$ ,  $p = 0.941$ ).

462 From the limited data available, EROD activity induction in barramundi (a tropical  
463 euryhaline species) (Codi *et al.* 2004; Humphrey *et al.* 2007) and sand flathead (a  
464 temperate marine to estuarine species) (Gagnon and Holdway 2002; Holdway *et al.* 1994)  
465 has been repeatedly demonstrated to reflect expected contamination gradients in field  
466 studies. This is not to say that these are the most sensitive Australian species available or  
467 that they will be appropriate under all conditions. While it would be instructive to  
468 comment on the relative sensitivity of species under field conditions (i.e., the ability of a

469 researcher to correctly assume bioavailability of environmental contaminants using the  
470 EROD activity), the sheer lack of repeated use of a range of species makes this impossible.  
471 To date, the demonstration of a correlation between EROD activity and known  
472 contamination remains to be confirmed in an Australian native freshwater fish. However,  
473 a number of freshwater fish species non-native to Australia have been shown in other  
474 countries (and in the case of *Gambusia holbrooki* – [Rawson *et al.* 2009]) to be suitable in  
475 such studies. These include common carp (Solé *et al.* 2003), redbfin perch (Kantoniemi *et*  
476 *al.* 1996), rainbow trout (Orrego *et al.* 2006) and tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*, native to  
477 Africa but now has a worldwide distribution, Chen *et al.* 2001). Amongst the continents,  
478 the most commonly used species in studies using EROD activity as biomarker include  
479 tilapia, silver croaker (*Plagioscion squamosissimus*) in South America, Atlantic salmon  
480 (*Salmo salar*), rainbow trout (*Onchorhynchus mykiss*) and white sucker (*Catostomus*  
481 *commersoni*) in North America, while in Europe the sea bass (*Dicentrachus labrax*), the  
482 mullet (*Mugil cephalus*) and the flounder (*Platichthys flesus*) have shown to be highly  
483 inducible species. Table 3 lists recent studies where high EROD activity induction has been  
484 reported in the above fish species.

485 It is noteworthy that while many studies have reported low or non-significant EROD  
486 induction in some fish species, highly inducible species are found worldwide, and no  
487 continent has more or less highly inducible species than another. While less studies using  
488 EROD activity as a biomarker of exposure have to date been conducted in developing  
489 countries, the potential for using EROD induction as a biomarker of exposure to AhR  
490 ligand inducer is ubiquitous.

491 The use of these exotic species in Australian field studies may be highly appropriate as a  
492 screening tool. The question of how well the measured metabolic exposure of these  
493 exotics matches the metabolic exposure in co-occurring native fish is an open question  
494 that requires investigation. There are instances where field collected fish have not  
495 showed any induction of EROD above estimated basal levels (e.g., coral trout: Klumpp *et*  
496 *al.* 2007). Future field studies intending to collect these species from the field should first  
497 attempt to induce EROD activity above basal level by the contaminant(s) of interest under  
498 laboratory conditions.

## 499 **6.2 Degree of EROD activity induction in field conditions**

500 Expectedly, the fold-induction in field studies conducted in Australia was generally lower  
501 than that reported in laboratory studies where exposure can be guaranteed by an i.p.  
502 injection of known concentrations (generally at higher than environmental  
503 concentrations). The maximum fold induction (22-fold) in a fish native to Australia in a  
504 field study was in the mullet (*Mugil cephalus*) which were exposed to PAHs (Bozcaarmutlu  
505 *et al.* 2015). The second highest induction reported was a 20- fold in the same species  
506 *Mugil cephalus* exposed to untreated domestic sewage and industrial effluent (Ferreira *et*  
507 *al.* 2000), while a 10.8-fold induction was measured in the estuarine barramundi in  
508 Queensland where exposure to agricultural herbicide runoff was suspected (Humphrey *et*  
509 *al.* 2007). It was common, however, for the majority of field studies to report significant  
510 induction of EROD activity above basal levels (where these are estimated) in the range of  
511 1.5 – 4.5 fold induction.



512 In many cases, a basal EROD activity was not estimated from a “non-impacted” set of  
513 animals negating the chance to calculate any fold-induction (Table 3). Instead the  
514 researchers focused on establishing the presence of, or lack of, a gradient of response, or  
515 identifying temporal and/or spatial variations (Holdway *et al.* 1994; Klumpp *et al.* 2007;  
516 Webb and Gagnon 2002a; Webb *et al.* 2005a; Webb *et al.* 2005b). It is common that no  
517 pristine reference sites where the targeted species is present can be identified; in which  
518 case the use of laboratory depurated fish can represent a surrogate to reference fish  
519 (Webb and Gagnon 2013).

### 520 **6.3 Confounding Factors**

521 Given that the presence of endogenous 17 $\beta$ -estradiol can impact the measurement of  
522 EROD activity by inhibiting CYP1A activity (Burkina *et al.*, 2015; Biró *et al.* 2002) most of  
523 the studies on Australian fish have attempted to account for fish sex and developmental  
524 stage. Most have collected and measured EROD activity in both male and female fish and  
525 either included these in a 2-factor analysis to look for significant interaction (sex x site)  
526 terms (Holdway *et al.* 1994) or tested for differences between the sexes and, where these  
527 do not exist, pooled the data prior to analysis between groups (Webb *et al.* 2005a; Webb  
528 *et al.* 2005b). Other studies have excluded all female fish from the analysis (Rawson *et al.*  
529 2009) or targeted juvenile fish (and included male and female fish) with the assumption  
530 that 17 $\beta$ -estradiol should be equal between males and females at this life-stage (van den  
531 Heuvel *et al.* 2006). Where sample sizes are limited, ethical and statistical considerations  
532 dictate that the former of these approaches is more appropriate. But where sample size is  
533 no problem, and particularly where invasive species are used, removing all females or

534 adults from EROD activity analyses may reduce variation and enhance accuracy in the  
535 interpretation of the data. Based on field data where black bream (*Acanthopagrus*  
536 *butcheri*) was collected, Gagnon and Hodson (2012) have suggested that in field studies a  
537 minimum of 8 non-reproductive adult fish per species per site (or 8 fish per sex if  
538 reproductively active) have to be collected in order to have 80% chance to identify an  
539 inter-site difference of 3-fold EROD activity induction at  $\alpha = 0.05$  (although the number of  
540 fish per sex per species increases to 12 for a statistical power of 0.95 at  $\alpha = 0.05$ , Gagnon  
541 and Hodson, 2012). In a similar exercise, Flammarion and Garric (1999) estimated, using  
542 EROD activity data from field-collected chub (*Leuciscus caphalus*) and gudgeon (*Gobio*  
543 *gobio*), that a 2-fold induction required a minimum of 13 fish at  $\alpha = 0.05$  and a power of  
544 0.80 (80% chances of detecting a difference). According to the inter-individual variability  
545 observed in a given species, it appears that a minimum fish number between 8 and 13  
546 need to be collected in order to detect an inter-site difference of 2- to 3-fold EROD  
547 activity induction.

548 In field studies it is (by definition) more difficult to control for variation in biological and  
549 physico-chemical parameters which may influence the measurement of the endpoint  
550 (Whyte *et al.* 2000). Most of the field studies on Australian fish to date have focussed on  
551 a single sampling period (Codi *et al.* 2004; Klumpp *et al.* 2007; Rawson *et al.* 2009).  
552 Others, however, have used multiple collection times and describe variation between  
553 seasons and across years (Webb *et al.* 2005a; Webb *et al.* 2005b). By sampling fish in  
554 more than one season the impact of environmental factors (e.g. water temperature)  
555 thought to impact EROD activity (Whyte *et al.* 2000) can be teased out, though it is

556 difficult to suggest whether this may be due to variation in these factors or the  
557 contamination source causing the increase in the activity.

#### 558 **6.4 Outcomes of field studies**

559 Measurement of the EROD biomarker in Australian studies has, in most cases provided  
560 useful information as the authors of these studies interpret wider data within individual  
561 studies. In Australian field studies the biomarker has been used in two different scenarios;  
562 where a specific contamination source (or sources) is suspected (Codi King *et al.* 2005)  
563 and where a comparison of field sites is desired to guide management priorities (Gagnon  
564 and Holdway 2002; Holdway *et al.* 1994; Webb and Gagnon 2002a). In the first of these  
565 cases the results of some studies reported that EROD activity has confirmed the exposure  
566 of fish to the contamination source as well as confirming the bioavailability of the  
567 contaminants (Codi *et al.* 2004; Humphrey *et al.* 2007) but other studies failed to find  
568 EROD activity in fish which were expected to be exposed to CYP1A inducers in the  
569 environment (Codi King *et al.* 2005). Even where patterns of EROD activity differ from  
570 those expected *a priori* this can indicate that contamination sources are not readily  
571 bioavailable for uptake by organisms, or that the contaminant mixture has less potency  
572 than expected to induce EROD activity in fish. Almost all the studies which focus on inter-  
573 site comparisons are able to explain the apparent spatial trends in EROD activity using  
574 site-specific factors such as industrial site usage (e.g., presence of a passenger jetty:  
575 Webb and Gagnon 2002) or remediation history (Rawson *et al.* 2009). The primary value  
576 in studies describing inter-site differences without prior knowledge of point source

577 contamination is in providing an indication of where management work on further  
578 characterising contamination and the associated environmental risks should focus.

## 579 **7 Field vs. Laboratory Data**

580 Laboratory studies have often been conducted with the intent of determining the  
581 suitability of a species for use in pollution monitoring. Whereas field studies usually aim  
582 at detecting exposure to a pollutant, and inform managers of potential impacts on  
583 aquatic ecosystems.

584 EROD activity induction responses measured in laboratory studies are often difficult to  
585 relate to effects that may occur in the environment (Clancy 2008). Laboratory results can  
586 either overestimate or underestimate induction in field populations as, in most cases,  
587 laboratory fish are exposed to a single chemical at concentrations intended to induce a  
588 response. These concentrations may not relate to levels actually found in the 'real world'  
589 and laboratory observations validated with field research will be considered the most  
590 reliable (Clancy 2008).

591 Only three Australian native species (all estuarine) could be found for which both  
592 laboratory and local field data was available. In each of these cases EROD activity  
593 induction was demonstrated in the laboratory by i.p. injection with either PCB126 or  
594  $\beta$ -naphthoflavone. For barramundi (50 mg/kg  $\beta$ -NF) and sand flathead (0.1 mg/kg  
595 PCB126) a 20-fold induction of EROD above basal levels was achieved in the laboratory  
596 with the maximum field based induction of about 10-fold for barramundi and about 2-  
597 fold for sand flathead. In each of these cases the laboratory and field estimated basal

598 EROD activities were very similar (Table 1 and Table 2). For black bream injection with  
599 0.01 mg/kg PCB126 caused a 9-fold induction of EROD activity and the fish with the  
600 highest EROD activities were about 5-fold higher than those with the lowest (results  
601 across 3 studies). These comparisons indicate that laboratory based estimates of basal  
602 EROD activity are likely to be appropriate for field studies. This will be of use where a  
603 suitable reference site cannot be found although it would be advisable to use the data  
604 gathered by this method as comparative within an individual species rather than  
605 attempting to compare fold-induction between studies. Further, for these species, where  
606 EROD activity induction was measured in the laboratory researchers have subsequently  
607 been able to measure EROD activity induction in field situations where contamination is  
608 expected, demonstrating the value of such laboratory testing prior to the use of a  
609 particular species for field studies.

610 Only one Australian publication (Codi *et al.* 2004) could be found which reported both  
611 laboratory and field data on EROD activity induction in the same species of fish. By  
612 presenting both sets of data together these authors were able to indicate approximate  
613 toxic equivalencies. While other research groups have published such data separately,  
614 concurrent publication allows direct comparison and evaluation of the degree of  
615 exposure as opposed to presence or absence of exposure.

616 The various methods of EROD analysis generate comparable results especially when the  
617 enzymatic activities are expressed as a relative induction over a laboratory control group

618 or field reference site (Whyte *et al.* 2000) and it is therefore relevant to seek a species  
619 known to demonstrate a highly inducible EROD activity.

620 EROD activity induction potential does vary between species, and the detection of  
621 exposure to inducing compounds is facilitated by the use of a bioindicator species which  
622 is highly inducible but has low basal EROD activity. Considered on a x-fold induction  
623 potential, native Australian species appear to have a comparable EROD activity induction  
624 potential when tested under laboratory conditions to that of introduced species (Figure  
625 1), potentially offering the researcher a wider range of bioindicator species to choose  
626 from. The selection of a highly inducible species can provide a better discrimination  
627 between treatment/sites groups as well as reduce the number of organisms required to  
628 identify a difference between treatments/sites. It might be strategic to use an Australian  
629 native fish species over an introduced one, when available, to conduct laboratory studies  
630 when EROD activity induction is an endpoint as EROD activity can later be compared  
631 between laboratory and field results.

632

633 In summary, the examination of published EROD activity data reveals that:

- 634 1) in laboratory studies, there is no significant difference in the EROD activity  
635 induction potential between lab/hatchery-reared and wild-caught fish (Figure 1);
- 636 2) in field studies, is there no difference in the EROD activity induction potential  
637 between Australian native and introduced species (Figure 2); and

638 3) there is no difference in EROD activity induction potential between Australian  
639 native fish and fish from other continents (Table 3).

640

## 641 **8 Recommendations**

642 1) It is advisable that every field study using the EROD activity preferably utilizes multiple  
643 reference sites (as close as possible to zero impact) and that these sites be used to  
644 provide an estimate for the basal EROD activity level and its variability. In  
645 environments where at least one reference site is not available a baseline/reference  
646 condition can be determined by utilising fish captured from the same locality and  
647 depurated under clean laboratory conditions (Antunes *et al.* 2007; Ferreira *et al.*  
648 2004). Since background EROD activity levels appear to vary within species as well as  
649 with site and method (see paragraphs 5.4 and 6.1) it is usually insufficient to rely on  
650 previously published basal levels (although these will provide a valuable guide as to  
651 the expected value). Without an estimate of basal EROD activity level no inference  
652 can be made as to potential exposure to EROD activity inducers.

653 2) As with all ecotoxicological studies, it is important to use ecologically relevant species  
654 in laboratory studies. This review shows that a number of Australian species across  
655 the breadth of the continent have now been demonstrated to have increased EROD  
656 activity induction potential in response to organic pollution. The maximum EROD  
657 activity induction potential appears to be similar for native species as for introduced  
658 species. The use of native fish captured from the wild or sourced from lab/hatchery  
659 stocks has no influence on the EROD activity induction potential tested under

660 laboratory conditions (see section Choice of species). When possible, it is therefore  
661 preferable to select a native species for laboratory studies using EROD activity  
662 endpoints.

663 3) Given the consistently reported lack of monotonic increase in EROD activity with  
664 contaminant concentration, laboratory studies should use a carefully considered  
665 range of contaminant concentrations. A single concentration test may not give an  
666 accurate EROD activity value if the concentration is on the decreasing side of the  
667 response curve (see section Assay methods).

668 4) Measurement of serum SDH activity in conjunction with EROD activity is  
669 recommended (see section Assay methods). This ensures that the liver has not  
670 sustained damage which may reduce the ability to produce CYP1A and therefore  
671 underestimate the exposure to organic contamination made by measuring EROD  
672 activity alone.

673 5) Consistency in selection of sex, age and size class will improve the confidence in the  
674 validity of measured EROD activities. In field studies, and depending on the variability  
675 observed in EROD activity within a given fish species, a number of 8 to 13 non-  
676 reproductively active fish per species per treatment or site is recommended to  
677 improve the chances of detecting a significant difference in EROD activity, if one does  
678 exist (see section on confounding factors).

679

680

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684

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- 1002



1003 Table 1. Summary of Australian laboratory studies using an EROD activity endpoint.

Family	Species	Native *	Habitat **	Sex ^	Life-Stage ^^	Source #	Contaminant	Exp. Route †	Trmnts	Fish per Trmnt	Max Conc	EROD Method	Basal EROD (pmol/min/mg pr)	MAX EROD (pmol/min/mg pr)	Fold induction††	Reference
Bleniidae	<i>Parablennius tasmanianus</i>	N	M	A	U	W	KME	Imm/ Diet	4	10	1.00%	Holdway <i>et al.</i> 1993	0.32	1.67	5.22	Woodworth <i>et al.</i> , 1998
Centropomidae	<i>Lates calcarifer</i>	N	E	M	J	H	β-NP	I.P.	3	9	50 mg/kg	Holdway <i>et al.</i> 1994	54	1256 @10mg/kg	23.6	Mercurio <i>et al.</i> , 2004
		N	E	M	J	H	β-NP	I.P.	4	40	50 mg/ kg	Kruner & von Westerhagen 1999	3.4	145	43	Codi <i>et al.</i> , 2004
		N	E	M	J	H	B(a)P	I.P.	1	8	1.0 µg/kg	Hodson <i>et al.</i> 1991	9	15	1.7	Bakhtyar and Gagnon 2011
Cichlidae	<i>Oreochromis mossambicus</i>	I	F	A	A	W	β-NP	I.P.	1	5	50 µg/g	Prince 1993	5.51	26.0	4.7	Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2001
		I	F	A	J	W	KME	Imm	1	5	100%	Prince 1993	5.33	19.64	19.6	Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2001
		I	F	U	J	H	Phenanthrene	I.P.	2	6	6-32 µg/g	Gunther <i>et al.</i> 1997	720	17310	24.0	Shailaja <i>et al.</i> , 2003
		I	F	U	J	H	Oil refinery effluent	Imm	1	6	25%	Gunther <i>et al.</i> 1997	1000	5100	5.1	Shailaja <i>et al.</i> , 2003
Clupeidae	<i>Nematalosa</i>	N	E	U	J	W	PCB 126	I.P.	1	5	10 µg/kg	Hodson <i>et al.</i> 1991	100%	100% Mort	-	Webb <i>et al.</i> , 2002b

Family	Species	Native *	Habitat **	Sex ^	Life-Stage ^^	Source #	Contaminant	Exp. Route †	Trmnts	Fish per Trmnt	Max Conc	EROD Method	Basal EROD (pmol/min/mg pr)	MAX EROD (pmol/min/mg pr)	Fold induction††	Reference
	<i>vlaminghi</i>												Mort			
Cyprinidae	<i>Carassius</i>	I	F	U	U	H	Fluorene	I.P.	5	U	10 mg/ kg	Chen <i>et al.</i> 1999	6000	16000	2.67	Lu <i>et al.</i> , 2009
	<i>auratus</i>	I	F	U	U	H	Fluoranthene	I.P.	5	U	10 mg/ kg	Chen <i>et al.</i> 1999	5500	12000	2.2	Lu <i>et al.</i> , 2009
		I	F	U	U	H	Benzo(b) fluoranthene	I.P.	5	U	8 mg/ kg	Chen <i>et al.</i> 1999	4800	14000	2.9	Lu <i>et al.</i> , 2009
		I	F	U	U	H	Benzo(g,h,i) perylene	I.P.	5	U	10 mg/ kg	Chen <i>et al.</i> 1999	4800	15000	3.1	Lu <i>et al.</i> , 2009
		I	F	U	U	H	Ideno(1,2,3- cd) pyrene	I.P.	5	U	10 mg/ kg	Chen <i>et al.</i> 1999	5000	26000 @5mg/kg	5.2	Lu <i>et al.</i> , 2009
	<i>Cyprinus carpio</i>	I	F	U	J	H	3-MC	I.P.	1	U	40 mg/ kg	Burke & Mayer, 1974	7.1	306.3	43.1	Taysse <i>et al.</i> , 1998
Galaxiidae	<i>Galaxias</i>	N	F	A	J	W	KME	Imm/ Diet	4	10	0.50%	Holdway <i>et al.</i> , 1993	0.5	2.21	4.42	Woodworth <i>et al.</i> , 1998
	<i>maculatus</i>	N	F	A	A	W	KME	Imm/ Diet	4	10	0.50%	Holdway <i>et al.</i> 1993	2.63	13.79	5.2	Woodworth <i>et al.</i> , 1998

Family	Species	Native *	Habitat **	Sex ^	Life-Stage ^^	Source #	Contaminant	Exp. Route †	Trmnts	Fish per Trmnt	Max Conc	EROD Method	Basal EROD (pmol/min/mg pr)	MAX EROD (pmol/min/mg pr)	Fold induction††	Reference
Labridae	<i>Notolabrus tetricus</i>	N	M	A	U	W	PCB 126	I.P.	3	9	100 µg/kg	Hodson <i>et al.</i> 1991	256	284	NSI	Smith <i>et al.</i> , 2000
Melanitaenidae	<i>Melanotaenia fluviatilis</i>	N	F	A	U	L	Crude oil	Imm	4	5	0.3%	Burke & Mayer 1974	50-100	360	4.6	Pollino & Holdway., 2003
											30% WAF/ DCWAF					
		N	F	M	A	L	DPTA	Imm	4	25	100 mg/ L	Reid 1997	8.35	11.91 @10mg/L	NSI	van Dam <i>et al.</i> , 1999
		N	F	F	A	L	DPTA	Imm	4	25	100 mg/ L	Reid 1997	12.29	12.90 @10mg/L	NSI	van Dam <i>et al.</i> , 1999
		N	F	M	A	L	Naphthalene	Imm	4	20	400 µg/L	Pollino & Holdway 2003	264	434	NSI	Pollino <i>et al.</i> , 2009
		N	F	F	A	L	Naphthalene	Imm	4	20	400 µg/L	Pollino & Holdway 2003	185	226	NSI	Pollino <i>et al.</i> , 2009
Monacanthidae	<i>Meuschenia freycineti</i>	N	E	F	U	W	PCB 126	I.P.	3	4	100 µg/kg	Hodson <i>et al.</i> 1991	118	315	2.7	Smith and Gagnon, 2000
Mugilidae	<i>Mugil cephalus</i>	N	M	U	J	W	PCB 126	I.P.	1	5	10 µg/kg	Hodson <i>et al.</i> 1991	9.2	31.7	3.5	Webb and Gagnon 2002b

Family	Species	Native *	Habitat **	Sex ^	Life-Stage ^^	Source #	Contaminant	Exp. Route †	Trmnts	Fish per Trmnt	Max Conc	EROD Method	Basal EROD (pmol/min/mg pr)	MAX EROD (pmol/min/mg pr)	Fold induction††	Reference
Percichthyidae	<i>Macquaria novemaculeata</i>	N	F	U	J	H	Crude oil	Imm	4	30	49.8%	Holdway <i>et al.</i> 1994	1.95	42.3	21.7	Cohen <i>et al.</i> , 2006
Platycephalidae	<i>Platycephalus bassensis</i>	N	E	A	U	W	PCB 126	I.P.	3	13	100 µg/kg	Hodson <i>et al.</i> 1991	34.4	693	20.2	Smith and Gagnon, 2000
		N	E	U	U	W	Aroclor 1254	I.P.	5	10	400 mg/kg	Holdway <i>et al.</i> 1993	18	68	3.8	Brumley <i>et al.</i> , 1995
		N	E	A	U	W	WWTPE	Imm	3	10	2.5% (v/v)	U	15	23	NSI	Mosse <i>et al.</i> , 1996
Pleuronectidae	<i>Rhombosolea tapirina</i>	N	M	U	J	H	Cont Sed/ Contam Diet	Imm/ Diet	5	20	NA	Holdway <i>et al.</i> 1994	9	170	18.9	Mondon <i>et al.</i> , 2001
Poecillidae	<i>Poecilia Reticulata</i>	I	F	M	A	H	β-NP	Imm	5	9	1.7 mg/L	Hodson <i>et al.</i> 1991	3.5	31	8.9	Frasco <i>et al.</i> , 2002
		I	F	U	U	L	3-MC	I.P.	1	41	9 mg/kg	Pohl & Fouts (1980)	90	U	8	James <i>et al.</i> , 1988
Salmonidae	<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	I	F	U	J	H	β-NP	I.P.	3	U	0.5 mg/kg	Pohl & Fouts 1980	3.5	80.5	23	Flammarion <i>et al.</i> , 1996
		I	F	U	J	H	B(a)P	I.P.	1	3	15 mg/kg	Nakayama <i>et al.</i> 2008	8.5	1150	135	Moller <i>et al.</i> 2014

Family	Species	Native *	Habitat **	Sex ^	Life-Stage ^^	Source #	Contaminant	Exp. Route †	Trmnts	Fish per Trmnt	Max Conc	EROD Method	Basal EROD (pmol/min/mg pr)	MAX EROD (pmol/min/mg pr)	Fold induction††	Reference
		I	F	U	J	H	WWTPE	Imm	4	10	70%	van den Heuvel 1999	4	11.5 @30%	2.9	Hoeger <i>et al.</i> , 2004
		I	F	U	J	L	β-NP	I.P.	1	8	10 ml/kg	Celender & Forlin 1991	800	6000	7.5	Celander <i>et al.</i> , 1993
		I	F	U	J	L	isosafrrole	I.P.	1	8	10 ml/kg	Celender & Forlin 1991	200	3600	18	Celander <i>et al.</i> , 1993
	<i>Oncorhynchus tshawytscha</i>	I	F	U	J	H	KME	Imm	4	20	16%	Hodson <i>et al.</i> 1991	70	200	2.9	Wilson <i>et al.</i> , 2001
		I	F	U	J	H	KME	Imm	1	10	1.5%	Pohl & Fouts 1980	0.004	0.027	6.8	Servizi <i>et al.</i> , 1993
	<i>Salmo salar</i>	I	F	F	J	H	Crude oil	Imm	2	16	250 ppm	Hodson <i>et al.</i> 1991	25	125	5	Gagnon <i>et al.</i> , 1998
	<i>Salvenius fontinalis</i>	I	F	M	A	L	B(a)P	I.P.	1	6	10 mg/kg	Burke & Mayer, 1974	4.5	12	2.7	Padrós <i>et al.</i> , 2000
		I	F	M	A	L	Tributyltin	I.P.	1	6	10 mg/kg	Burke & Mayer, 1974	4.5	4.5	NSI	Padrós <i>et al.</i> , 2000
Sciaenid	<i>Argyrosomus hololepidotus</i>	I	M	J	J	H	B(a)P	I.P.	1	8	1.0 µg/kg	Hodson et al 1991	21	32	1.5	Bakhtyar and Gagnon 2011
Serranidae	<i>Epinephelus areolatus</i>	N	M	J	J	H	B(a)P	Diet	4	6	12.5 µg BaP/g fish/day	Hodson <i>et al.</i> 1996	45	400	8.9	Au <i>et al.</i> , 2004

Family	Species	Native *	Habitat **	Sex ^	Life-Stage ^^	Source #	Contaminant	Exp. Route †	Trmnts	Fish per Trmnt	Max Conc	EROD Method	Basal EROD (pmol/min/mg pr)	MAX EROD (pmol/min/mg pr)	Fold induction††	Reference
Sparidae	<i>Acanthopagrus butcheri</i>	N	E	U	J	W	PCB 126	I.P.	1	5	10 µg/kg	Hodson <i>et al.</i> 1991	8.1	72.2	8.9	Webb and Gagnon 2002b
	<i>Acanthopagrus latus</i>	N	E	U	A	L	B(a)P	Diet	9	U	25 mg/kg	Beyer & Goksoyer, 1993	18.25	1080.3	59.2	Beg <i>et al.</i> , 2001
	<i>Pagrus auratus</i>	N	M	U	J	H	PCB 126	I.P.	5	16	1000 µg/kg	Hodson <i>et al.</i> 1991	45	170 @10µg/kg	3.8	Tugiyono and Gagnon 2001
	<i>Pagrus auratus</i>	N	M	J	J	H	B(a)P	I.P.	1	8	1.0 µg/kg	Hodson <i>et al.</i> 1991	17	56	3.3	Bakthyar and Gagnon 2011
Terapontidae	<i>Amniataba caudavittata</i>	N	E	U	J	W	PCB 126	I.P.	1	5	10 µg/kg	Hodson <i>et al.</i> 1991	7.0	15.9	2.3	Webb and Gagnon 2002b
		N	E	U	A	W	β-NP	I.P.	1	6	40 µM/kg	Hodson <i>et al.</i> , 1991	12.4	22.3	NSI	Webb <i>et al.</i> , 2008
		N	E	U	A	W	B(a)P	I.P.	1	6	40 µM/kg	Hodson <i>et al.</i> 1991	16.1	27.5	NSI	Webb <i>et al.</i> , 2008

1004 \*N= native; I= introduced; \*\*F= freshwater, M= marine, E= estuarine, Eu = euryhaline; ^M=male, F=female, U=unspecified; ^^ A=adult, J=juvenile, U=unspecified;

1005 #W=wild-caught; H=hatchery; L= laboratory bred; †Imm= immersion, I.P.=intra-peritoneal; ††U=unknown; NSI=non-significant; NI= not induced Contaminants are

1006 abbreviated as in text.

1007

1008 Table 2. Summary of findings in Australian and overseas field studies on fish species native to Australia.

Family	Species	Native*	Habitat**	Age <sup>^</sup>	Sex <sup>^^</sup>	Country	Location	Sites	Contaminant	EROD Method	Basal EROD (pmol/min/mg pr)	MAX EROD (pmol/min/mg pr)	Fold Induction <sup>††</sup>	Reference
Anguillidae	<i>Anguilla australis</i>	N	F	U	U	NZ	Nth Is.	3	KME	U	0.13	0.33	2.6	van den Heuvel <i>et al.</i> , 2006
Carangidae	<i>Carangoides fulvoguttatus</i>	N	M	1-6 yr	A	Aust	CW	3	PFW	Holdway <i>et al.</i> 1994	20.5	34.3	1.68	Codi King <i>et al.</i> , 2005
Centropomidae	<i>Lates calcarifer</i>	N	A	U	M	Aust	QLD	2	U	Kruner & von Westerhagen, 1999	4.3	11.8	2.26	Codi King <i>et al.</i> , 2004
		N	A	U	A	Aust	QLD	5	Agric.	Kruner & von Westerhagen, 1999	3.2	34.6	10.8	Humphrey <i>et al.</i> , 2007
Chanidae	<i>Chanos chanos</i>	N	A	J	U	Taiwan	Er-Jen R.	4	Indust. WWTPE	Pohl & Fouts, 1980	46.8	196	4.2	Chen <i>et al.</i> , 1998
Cichlidae	<i>Oreochromis mossambicus</i>	I	F	J	A	Taiwan	Shin-Yin	1	BKME	Prince, 1993	20	125	6.3	Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2001
Cyprinidae	<i>Cyprinus carpio</i>	I	F	A	A	Spain	Anoia R.	1	WWTPE	Burke & Mayer, 1974	U	156	U	Solé <i>et al.</i> , 2003



Family	Species	Native*	Habitat**	Age^	Sex^^	Country	Location	Sites	Contaminant	EROD Method	Basal EROD (pmol/min/mg pr)	MAX EROD (pmol/min/mg pr)	Fold Induction††	Reference
	<i>Rutilus rutilus</i>	I	F	A	U	Finland	Lake Vatjanjarvi	3	KME	Vehniainen <i>et al.</i> 2012	1.6	1.9	1.2	Ratia <i>et al.</i> 2014
		I	F	A	U	Finland	L. Saimaa	4	KME	Burke & Mayer 1974	2.3	4.4	NSI	Kantoniemi <i>et al.</i> , 1996
Lutjanidae	<i>Lutjanus</i>	N	M	U	U	China	Pearl River	2	PAHs,	Pohl & Fouts, 1980	2.5	5	2	He <i>et al.</i> 2012
	<i>argentimaculatus</i>						Delta		OCs, metals					
	<i>Lutjanus</i>	I	M	U	U	China	Pearl River	2	PAHs,	Pohl & Fouts, 1980	4.4	7.8	1.8	He <i>et al.</i> 2012
	<i>erythropterus</i>						Delta		OCs, metals					
Mugilidae	<i>Mugil cephalus</i>	I	M	J	M	Chile		3		U	7	17	2.4	Gavilán <i>et al.</i> , 2001
		I	M	U	A	Portugal	Duoro Est,	1	WWTPE	Pacheco & Sanchez, 1998	75	1500	20	Ferreira <i>et al.</i> , 2004
		N	M	U	M	Turkey	West Black Sea	5	PAHs	Burke & Mayer 1997 Arnic & Sen 1994	220	4750	22	Bozcaarmutlu <i>et al.</i> 2015

Family	Species	Native*	Habitat**	Age^	Sex^^	Country	Location	Sites	Contaminant	EROD Method	Basal EROD (pmol/min/mg pr)	MAX EROD (pmol/min/mg pr)	Fold Induction††	Reference
Percidae	<i>Perca fluviatilis</i>	I	F	U	U	Finland	L. Saimma	4	KME	Burke & Mayer 1974	98	116	NSI	Kantoniemi <i>et al.</i> , 1996
		I	F	A	U	Finland	Lake Vatjanjarvi	3	KME	Vehniainen <i>et al.</i> 2012	10	1.5	-	Ratia <i>et al.</i> 2014
Platycephalidae	<i>Platycephalus bassensis</i>	N	M	U	M	Aust	Vic	6	Urban. Indust. Ship. Hg,	Hodson <i>et al.</i> , 1991	21	44	2.1	Gagnon and Holdway 2002
		N	M	U	F	Aust	Vic	7	PAH, OCP, PCB Hg,	Holdway <i>et al.</i> , 1993	U	80.8	U	Holdway <i>et al.</i> , 1994
		N	M	U	M	Aust	Vic	7	PAH, OCP, PCB	Holdway <i>et al.</i> , 1993	U	198	U	Holdway <i>et al.</i> , 1994

Family	Species	Native*	Habitat**	Age^	Sex^^	Country	Location	Sites	Contaminant	EROD Method	Basal EROD (pmol/min/mg pr)	MAX EROD (pmol/min/mg pr)	Fold Induction††	Reference
									Urban.					
		N	M	U	F	Aust	Vic	6	Indust. Ship.	Hodson <i>et al.</i> , 1991	19.2	30.1	1.57	Gagnon and Holdway 2002
Poeciliidae	<i>Gambusia holbrooki</i>	I	F	U	M	Aust	NSW	15	PAH, PCB, TCDD, DDT	Eggens & Galgani, 1992	1339	6002	4.5	Rawson <i>et al.</i> , 2009
Salmonidae	<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	I	F	J	U	Chile	Biobio R.	3	KME	U	0.3	2.5	9.8	Rodrigo <i>et al.</i> , 2006
	<i>Oncorhynchus tshawytscha</i>	I	F	J		Canada	Fraser R.	6	Indust. WWTPE	Hodson <i>et al.</i> , 1991	21	69	3.3	Wilson <i>et al.</i> , 2000
Serranidae	<i>Plectropomus leopardus</i>	N	M	U	A	Aust	QLD	6	Rec. Boat.	Kruner & von Westerhagen, 1999	U	10.5	U	Klumpp <i>et al.</i> , 2007
	<i>Plectropomus maculatus</i>	N	M	2-9 yr	A	Aust	CW	2	PFW	Holdway <i>et al.</i> 1994	25.4	20.4	U	King <i>et al.</i> , 2005

Family	Species	Native*	Habitat**	Age^	Sex^^	Country	Location	Sites	Contaminant	EROD Method	Basal EROD (pmol/min/mg pr)	MAX EROD (pmol/min/mg pr)	Fold Induction††	Reference	
Sparidae	<i>Acanthopagrus australis</i>	N	E	U	A	Aust	QLD	5	Urban	Burke & Mayer 1974	16	22	1.4	Shaw <i>et al.</i> , 2004	
		N	E	U	F	Aust	QLD	5	Urban	Burke & Mayer 1974	12	30	2.5	Shaw <i>et al.</i> , 2004	
	<i>Acanthopagrus berda</i>									rec.					
		N	E	U	M	Aust	QLD	7	urban. Agric.	Burke & Mayer 1974	67	564	8.4	Cavanagh <i>et al.</i> , 2000	
	<i>Acanthopagrus butcheri</i>	N	E	U	M	Aust	WA	8	rec. urban	Hodson <i>et al.</i> 1991	U	21.8	U	Gagnon and Holdway 2000	
		N	E	U	F	Aust	WA	8	rec. urban	Hodson <i>et al.</i> 1991	U	12.5	U	Gagnon and Holdway 2000	
		N	E	U	M	Aust	WA	7	rec. urban	Hodson <i>et al.</i> 1991	U	21.8	U	Webb and Gagnon 2002b	
		N	E	U	F	Aust	WA	7	rec. urban	Hodson <i>et al.</i> 1991	U	8.0	U	Webb and Gagnon 2002b	

Family	Species	Native*	Habitat**	Age^	Sex^^	Country	Location	Sites	Contaminant	EROD Method	Basal EROD (pmol/min/mg pr)	MAX EROD (pmol/min/mg pr)	Fold Induction††	Reference
		N	E	U	F	Aust	WA	5	rec. urban	Hodson <i>et al.</i> , 1991	U	17.9	U	Webb <i>et al.</i> , 2005
		N	E	U	M	Aust	WA	5	rec. urban	Hodson <i>et al.</i> , 1991	U	37.4	U	Webb <i>et al.</i> , 2005

1009 \*N= native; I= introduced; \*\*F= freshwater, M= marine, E= estuarine, Eu = euryhaline; ^^M=male, F=female, U=unspecified; ^ A=adult, J=juvenile, U=unspecified;

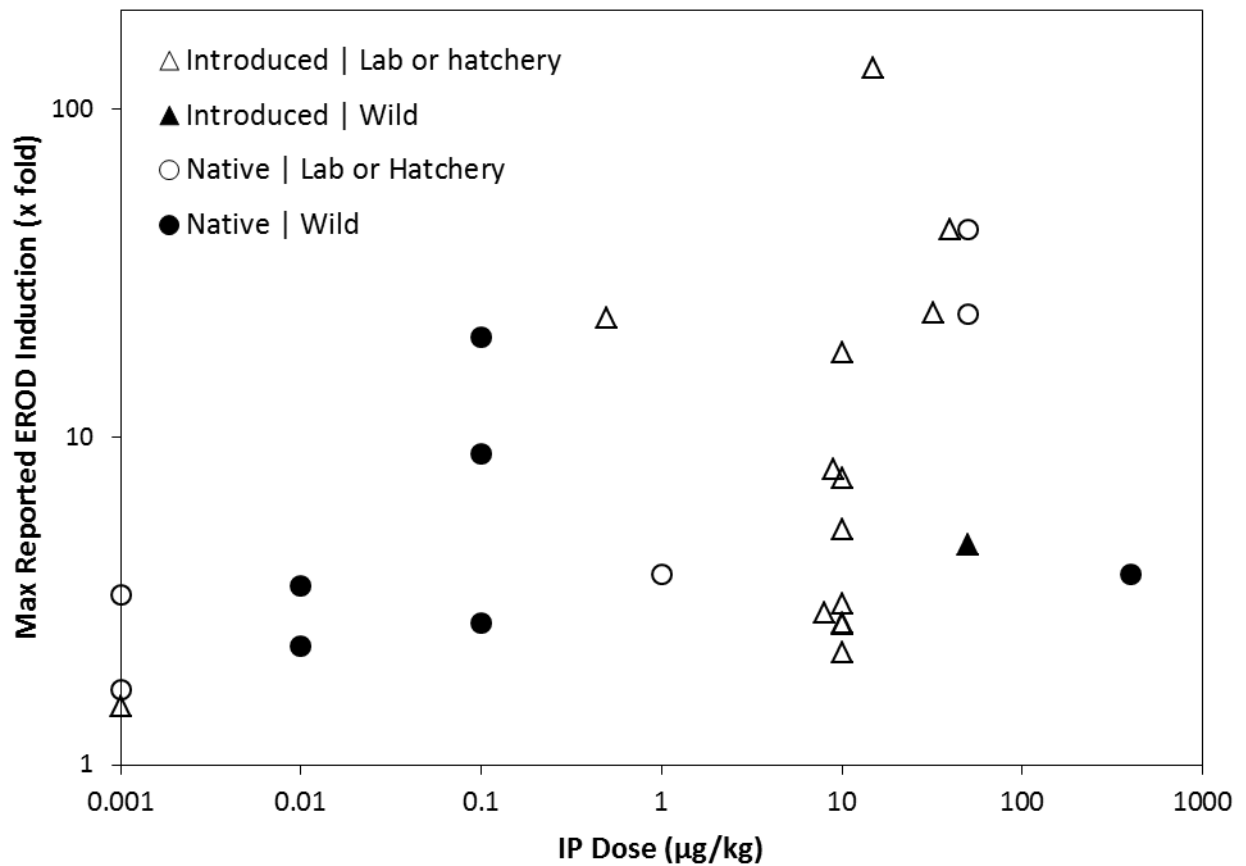
1010 ††U=unknown; NSI=non-significant; NI= not induced Contaminants are abbreviated as in text.

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1012 Table 3. Induction potential of a few highly inducible fish species reported around the world.

Family	Species	Common name	Continent where reported	Induction relative to ctl/ref*	Reference
Cyprinidae	<i>Cyprinus carpio</i>	Carp	Australia	43-fold	Taysse <i>et al.</i> 1998
Centropomidae	<i>Lates calcarifer</i>	Barramundi	Australia	24-fold	Mercurio <i>et al.</i> 2004
Cichlidae	<i>Oreochromis mossambicus</i>	Mozambique tilapia	Australia	24-fold	Shailaja and D'Silva 2003
Platycephalidae	<i>Platycephalus bassensis</i>	Sand flathead	Australia	20-fold	Smith and Gagnon 2000
Moronidae	<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>	European seabass	Europe	26-fold	Della Torre <i>et al.</i> 2014
Mugilidae	<i>Mugil cephalus</i>	Mullet	Europe	20-fold	Ferreira <i>et al.</i> 2004
Pleuronectidae	<i>Platichthys flesus</i>	European flounder	Europe	17-fold	Dabrowska <i>et al.</i> 2014
Anguillidae	<i>Anguilla anguilla</i>	European eel	Europe	5-fold	Kammann <i>et al.</i> 2013
Salmonidae	<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	Rainbow trout	N. America	135-fold	Möller <i>et al.</i> 2014
Salmonidae	<i>Salmo salar</i>	Atlantic salmon	N. America	53-fold	Gagnon and Holdway 1998
Gadidae	<i>Gadus morhua</i>	Atlantic cod	N. America	25-fold	Lyons <i>et al.</i> 2011
Catostomidae	<i>Catostomus commersoni</i>	White sucker	N. America	15-fold	Gagnon <i>et al.</i> 1994
Cichlidae	<i>Oreochromis niloticus</i>	Nile tilapia	S. America	24-fold	Rodrigues <i>et al.</i> 2014
Sciaenidae	<i>Plagioscion squamosissimus</i>	Silver croaker	S. America	7-fold	Wunderlich <i>et al.</i> 2015
Loricariidae	<i>Pterygoplichthys anisitsi</i>	Armored catfish	S. America	6-fold	Arantes Felício <i>et al.</i> 2015

1013 \*Ctl/ref: control or reference groups



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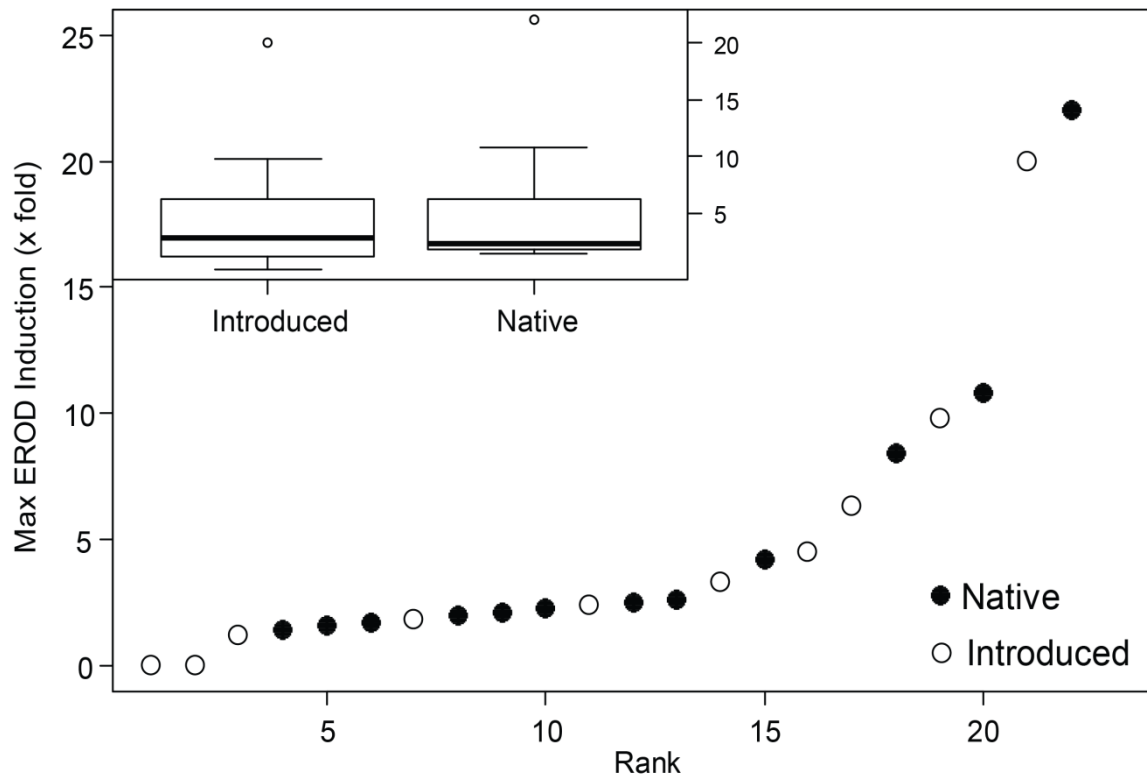
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Figure 1. Maximum EROD activity induction (x-fold, pmol/min/mg pr) reported for intraperitoneal (I.P.) injected native (circles) and introduced (triangles) Australian species from lab/hatchery-reared (open symbols) and wild-caught (closed symbols) sources used in laboratory studies. The data extracted from Table 1 compares the maximum x-fold EROD activity induction potential of various fish species following exposure to a variety of EROD activity inducers. The maximum EROD activity induction from fish sourced from lab/hatchery facilities is statistically similar ( $p = 0.155$ ) to the maximum EROD activity induction of fish sourced from the wild.



1025

1026 Figure 2. Maximum EROD activity induction (x-fold, pmol/min/mg pr) observed in field

1027 studies conducted in Australia. Inter-species variability is comparable ( $p = 0.941$ ) for native

1028 species and for introduced species. Data points are presented as a rank for ease of display

1029 not analysis. Data extracted from relevant references listed in Table 1.

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