



Cholinesterase activities as potential biomarkers: characterization in two freshwater snails, *Potamopyrgus antipodarum* (Mollusca, Hydrobiidae, Smith 1889) and *Valvata piscinalis* (Mollusca, Valvatidae, Müller 1774)

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1 **Cholinesterase activities as potential biomarkers : characterization in two freshwater**
2 **snails, *Potamopyrgus antipodarum* (Mollusca, Hydrobiidae, Smith 1889) and *Valvata***
3 ***piscinalis* (Mollusca, Valvatidae, Müller 1774)**

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6
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20 **Abstract**

21 Anticholinesterase insecticides constitute a major portion of modern synthetic pesticides and
22 the assessment of cholinesterase (ChE) inhibition is widely used as a specific biomarker for
23 evaluating the exposure of non-target organisms to these pollutants. However, most studies on
24 this biomarker were developed on vertebrates and among invertebrates, gastropod mollusks
25 are rarely used. However, gastropods are important members of aquatic habitats and therefore
26 present a high ecological relevance for freshwater ecosystems. In this context, ChE activities
27 were characterized in two freshwater gastropod mollusks, *Potamopyrgus antipodarum* and
28 *Valvata piscinalis*, in order to ascertain their value as sentinel species. Firstly, characterization
29 of ChE activities was performed using different substrates (acetylcholine iodide,
30 butyrylcholine iodide and propionylcholine iodide) and specific inhibitors (eserine, *iso-*
31 OMPA and BW284c51). Secondly, *in vivo* effect of a widely used organophosphate
32 insecticide, chlorpyrifos, was tested on ChE activity in both species. Results suggested that *P.*
33 *antipodarum* possesses two isoforms of cholinesterases, one isoform which properties are
34 intermediate between an acetyl and a propionyl ChE, and one minor isoform which
35 correspond to a butyryl ChE, while *V. piscinalis* seems to possess only one isoform which
36 displays typical properties of an acetyl ChE. Chlorpyrifos induced no effect on *V. piscinalis*
37 ChE. In contrast, *P. antipodarum* activity was significantly decreased by environmental
38 realistic chlorpyrifos concentrations (2.86 and 14.2 nM) after seven days of contact. The
39 present study suggests that *P. antipodarum* may be employed as a biological indicator for
40 assessing pesticide contamination.

41

42 **Keywords**

43 Cholinesterase activity; substrates; *Potamopyrgus antipodarum*; *Valvata piscinalis*;
44 chlorpyrifos; biomarker.

45

45 **Introduction**

46 The measurement of the exposure to pollution and of the biological effects of toxicants
47 has become of major importance for the assessment of the quality of the environment (van der
48 Oost et al., 2003). The use of biological markers at the molecular or cellular level have been
49 proposed as sensitive ‘early warning’ tools for biological effect measurement (van der Oost et
50 al., 2003). This approach has been widely used both *in vivo* and *in vitro* for the evaluation of
51 xenobiotic effects on animals (Binelli et al., 2006).

52 Among anthropogenic contaminants, pesticides are widely detected in freshwater and
53 estuarine ecosystems. These molecules are spread on terrestrial cultures and enter waterways
54 from agricultural and urban run-off. Pesticides may have major ecological consequences
55 (Ozretic and Krajnovic-Ozretic, 1992). The organophosphates (OPs) and carbamates (Cs) are
56 modern synthetic insecticides and are potent neurotoxic molecules (Ashauer et al., 2006).
57 They exert acute toxicity by blocking the breakdown of acetylcholine by the enzyme
58 acetylcholinesterase (AChE: E.C.3.1.1.7) in vertebrate and invertebrate organisms (Fulton and
59 Key., 2001). Acetylcholine is the primary neurotransmitter in the sensory and neuromuscular
60 systems in most species. The activity of this system is vital to muscular function and
61 represents a prime target on which OPs and Cs can exert a detrimental effect (Sarkar et al.,
62 2006).

63 Monitoring AChE activity in wildlife populations has been proposed as a general
64 method for detecting environmental contamination from OPs and Cs, particularly since many
65 of these chemicals have relatively short half-lives in the aquatic environment and are not
66 water soluble. The World Health Organization (Paris) recognizes AChE biomonitoring as a
67 preventive measure against OP overexposure in nontarget species (Romani et al., 2005). Its
68 use as a specific biomarker to assess the exposure of aquatic organisms to these compounds is

69 widely applied in laboratory and field studies (Bocquené et al., 1997; Scaps et al., 1997;
70 Galloway et al., 2002; Binelli et al., 2006).

71 In vertebrates two isoforms occur, acetylcholinesterase (AChE) which preferentially
72 hydrolyses acetyl esters such as acetylcholine, and butyrylcholinesterases (BChE) which
73 preferentially acts on butyrylcholine. The main function of AChE is the rapid hydrolysis of
74 the neurotransmitter, whereas BChE has no known specific natural substrate, although it is
75 able to hydrolyse acetylcholine (Fulton and Key, 2001; Valbonesi et al., 2003). Another
76 isoform, propionylcholinesterase (PChE), has been characterized (Mora et al., 1999). Since
77 the properties of ChE may differ between species, it is important to characterize the type of
78 enzyme present in the species studied before its use as a biomarker (Kristoff et al., 2006).

79 Whilst ChEs have been extensively studied in vertebrates and insects, few data are
80 available in molluscs (Mora et al., 1999). Molluscs, in particular bivalves, are often used as
81 sentinel organisms: their world-wide distribution, their sedentary mode of life and their filter-
82 feeding behaviour susceptible to induce pollutant bioaccumulation make them ideal species
83 for the assessment of environmental pollution (Rittschof and McClellan-Green, 2005).
84 Prosobranch snails including *Potamopyrgus antipodarum* (Hydrobiidae) and *Valvata*
85 *piscinalis* (Valvatidae) are important members of aquatic habitats and possess a high
86 ecological relevance for freshwater ecosystems (Mouthon and Charvet, 1999). They have
87 proved to be sensitive test organisms in several studies (Oetken et al., 2005) and *P.*
88 *antipodarum* has been recommended for toxicity tests by the Invertebrate testing group of
89 OECD (Duft et al., 2007). Using these animals might facilitate the linking of laboratory data
90 to field studies and field experiments could be undertaken on autochthonous or caged animals.

91 The aim of this study was to characterize the ChE of mudsnails and to investigate the
92 relevance of ChE activities as early warning tools of neurotoxic stress in two freshwater
93 mudsnails. Activities in *P. antipodarum* and *V. piscinalis* were firstly characterized *in vitro* by

94 using different substrates (acetylthiocholine (ASCh), propionylthiocholine (PSCh) and
95 butyrylthiocholine (BSCh)) and specific inhibitors (eserine for ChE, BW284c51 for AChE,
96 *iso*-OMPA for BChE). Secondly, *in vivo* effects of a model insecticide, chlorpyrifos, on ChE
97 activities were then studied in order to assess the value of *P. antipodarum* and *V. piscinalis* as
98 sentinel species of freshwater insecticide contamination.

99

99 **Material and Methods**

100 *Chemicals*

101 Acetylthiocholine iodide (ASCh), butyrylthiocholine iodide (BSCh), propionylthiocholine
102 iodide (PSCh), 5,5-dithio-bis-2-nitrobenzoate (DTNB), eserine, BW284c51 (1,5-bis(4-
103 allydimethylammoniumphenyl)-pentan-3-one dibromide), *iso*-OMPA (tetra-
104 (monoisopropyl)pyrophosphor-tetra-mide) and chlorpyrifos were obtained from Sigma-
105 Aldrich (Villefranche, France).

106

107 *Organisms*

108 *P. antipodarum* and *V. piscinalis* were obtained from the laboratory culture established in the
109 laboratory (CEMAGREF, Lyon, France). Animals were reared under standard conditions in
110 aerated glass aquariums (17-20 L), at a temperature of 22 ± 1 °C, and under a 16-8 h artificial
111 light-dark photoperiod regime. For the cultures, animals were fed using Tetramin®. For all
112 experiments, adult snails of similar size (4 mm) were used.

113

114 *Cholinesterase activity*

115 The whole animals with shell were weighed and homogenized with an Ultra-Turrax T25
116 basic® at 24 000 rpm for 40 seconds in 1:10 (W:V) for *V. piscinalis* and 1:20 for *P.*
117 *antipodarum* 0.1 M phosphate buffer, pH 7.8, plus 0.1% Triton X-100. Homogenates were
118 centrifuged at $9,000 \times g$ for 15 min at 4 °C. Supernatants were used as the enzyme source.

119 The enzyme activity was measured following the Ellman method (1961). In a typical assay,
120 330 µL of 0.1 M phosphate buffer pH 7.8, 20 µL of 0.0076 M the chromogenic agent DTNB
121 and 20 µL of sample were successively added in a 96 wells microtitre plate. Measurement of
122 enzyme activity was initiated by the addition of ten µL of freshly prepared acetylthiocholine
123 iodide solution in distilled water. Absorption of the 2-nitro-5-thiobenzoate anion, formed

124 from the reaction, was then recorded at 405 nm every 60 s for 9 min at room temperature
125 using a TECAN® *Safire*® spectrofluorimeter. Spontaneous substrate hydrolysis was assessed
126 using a blank without sample. Kinetic was calculated in the linear range. Each sample was
127 analyzed in triplicates. Total protein was determined according to the Lowry method (1951),
128 using bovine serum albumin as standard. Enzyme activity was expressed as nmol ASCh
129 hydrolysed min⁻¹ mg⁻¹ of protein.

130

131 Substrate affinity

132 Substrate preference in supernatants obtained from control organisms was assessed using
133 ASCh, BSCh and PSCh as substrates. Fifteen animals sampled in our laboratory culture were
134 individually homogenized and supernatants were pooled and used as samples. The effects of
135 increased substrate concentration on supernatant ChE activity were determined with
136 concentrations of ASCh, BSCh and PSCh ranging from 0.0625 to 8 mM. Three replicates of
137 each substrate were performed.

138

139 Specific inhibitors

140 Eserine, *iso*-OMPA and BW284c51 were used as specific inhibitors of ChEs, BChEs and
141 AChEs, respectively. Eserine and *iso*-OMPA were dissolved in ethanol and BW284c51 was
142 dissolved in distilled water. Ten animals were individually homogenized and supernatants
143 were pooled. Supernatants were then incubated 30 minutes at 20 °C with inhibitor or water or
144 ethanol for eserine and *iso*-OMPA (1%). Final inhibitor concentrations ranged from 0.01 to
145 100 µM for eserine and from 0.1 to 1000 µM for *iso*-OMPA and BW284c51. Effects of
146 inhibitors on ChE activities were assessed using ASCh, BSCh and PSCh as substrates.

147

148 *Chlorpyrifos exposure*

149 A seven days semi-static bioassay was performed, and the survival and the ChE activity of the
150 snails were followed in the course of the experiment. Snails were placed in glass beakers
151 filled with 300 mL of drilled ground water. Snails of both species were placed in the same
152 beakers, one day before the beginning of the contamination experiment for acclimatization.
153 Stock solutions of chlorpyrifos were prepared daily by dissolving chlorpyrifos in acetone used
154 as solvent, and diluted in an appropriate amount of drilled ground water, using serial dilution.
155 The concentration of acetone was kept at 0.05 % in all pesticide solutions used. Solvent
156 (acetone) and solvent-free (drilled ground water) controls were included in the test design.
157 Water in beakers was renewed daily. For each concentration, five replicates with ten animals
158 of each species were carried out. One beaker of each nominal chlorpyrifos concentration was
159 added for chemical analyses. No food was added during the experiment. Tests were
160 performed as in rearing conditions.

161 Snails were exposed to three nominal chlorpyrifos concentrations (0.14, 2.86 and 14.2 nM,
162 which correspond to 0.05, 1 and 5 $\mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$). For each concentration, one individual of each
163 species were sampled on each of the five beaker per condition at 0, 24, 96 and 168 h and
164 immediately frozen at -80 °C until analysis.

165

166 *Measurement of chlorpyrifos concentration in water*

167 Samples for chlorpyrifos analyses were collected every day, 10 minutes and 24 h after the
168 water renewal in two beakers of each contamination levels (0.14, 2.86 and 14.2 nM).
169 Chlorpyrifos was quantified after direct injection in LC-MS-MS. Chlorpyrifos ethyl standards
170 were purchased from Riedel De Haën (Sigma Aldrich, France). Standard stock solutions were
171 prepared by dissolving 5 mg of accurately weighed reference standard in 50 mL acetone. The
172 stock solutions were diluted with ultrapure water (Milli-Q, Millipore) for LC-MS-MS analysis
173 standards.

174 Water samples were collected in glass bottles and then filtered on 0.20 µm polyester filters
175 (Chromafil PET 20/15 MS, Macherey-Nagel, Hoerdt, France). 990 µL of filtered water was
176 added to 10 µL of deuterated diuron (D6) used as injection standard.
177 Liquid chromatography was performed on an Agilent Series 1100 HPLC system (Agilent
178 Technologies, Les Ulis, France). Chromatographic separation was achieved using a Synergi
179 Fusion-RP 80A analytical column (4 µm particle size, 2 mm x 50 mm) from Phenomenex (Le
180 Pecq, France), at a flow rate of 200 µL min⁻¹ with mobile phase consisting of acetonitrile and
181 water (80/20, v/v), both with 0.1% v/v formic acid. Injection volume was 100 µL. The HPLC
182 system was interfaced to a triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (API 4000, Applied
183 Biosystems, Les Ulis, France). The following transitions 352→200 and 350→198 m/z were
184 used respectively for quantification and confirmation of chlorpyrifos ethyl. Quantification
185 was performed by internal calibration using diuron D6.

186

187 *Data analysis*

188 Results were expressed as means ± standard error. Values were transformed ($\log X$) to
189 achieve normality when necessary. Data were analysed using ANOVA on Statgraphics®
190 Centurion version XV.II software. Significance was set at $p \leq 0.05$. In the case of rejection of
191 H_0 , an *a posteriori* LSD (Least Significant Difference) test was applied. When data showed a
192 concentration-dependant relationship, the median inhibitory concentration (IC_{50}) was
193 calculated by logistic curve-fitting procedure using REGTOX®
194 (<http://eric.vindimian.9online.fr>). The Michaelis-Menten constant (K_m) and the maximum
195 velocity of substrate hydrolysis (V_{max}) were calculated using GOSA® software
196 (<http://www.bio-log.biz>).

197

197 **Results**

198 *In vitro experiments*

199 Substrate affinity

200 For *P. antipodarum*, measured esterase activities depended on the substrate. The reaction rate
201 increased with increasing substrate concentration, with ASCh > PSCh > BsCh ($p<0.05$)
202 (**Figure 1a**). However, for the highest concentrations (>2 mM), no differences were measured
203 between activities with ASCh and PSCh (**Figure 1a**). On the same way, increased ChE
204 activity were measured for *V. piscinalis*, according to the substrate, with ASCh > PSCh >
205 BsCh ($p<0.05$) (**Figure 1b**). No inhibitory effect was observed whatever the substrate used
206 for both species. At the highest substrate concentration (8 mM) enzymatic activities
207 (expressed as $\text{nmol} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{mg}^{-1}$ protein) for *P. antipodarum* were 31.6 ± 0.2 for ASCh (100%),
208 30.2 ± 1.2 for PSCh (95.5%) and 2.7 ± 0.3 for BSCh (8.5%). For *V. piscinalis*, enzymatic
209 activities were 17.3 ± 0.5 for ASCh (100%), 9.1 ± 0.7 for PSCh (52.6%) and 3.9 ± 0.3 for
210 BSCh (22.5%). 4 mM was defined as the optimal concentration for ASCh and PSCh for both
211 species .

212 ChE activities followed the Michaelis-Menten kinetic when ASCh and PSCh were used as
213 substrates for both species (**Figure 1**). Kinetics parameters (K_m , V_{\max} , and V_{\max}/K_m) are
214 reported in **Table 1**. K_m values were ten times higher for *V. piscinalis* than for *P.*
215 *antipodarum*, whatever the substrate used.

216

217 Specific inhibitors

218 Eserine decreased significantly ChE activities measured with the three substrates for the two
219 species (**Figure 2 a&b**). However, at 100 μM of eserine, inhibition was lower for BSCh than
220 for ASCh and PSCh for both snails. The inhibition profiles of ASCh and PSCh were similar
221 for *P. antipodarum* and *V. piscinalis*. Nevertheless, whatever the substrate used, the IC_{50}

values of eserine were lower for *P. antipodarum* (0.034, 5.29 and 0.024 µM) than for *V. piscinalis* (1.39, 8.68 and 1.40 µM) for ASCh, BSCh and PSCh, respectively.

Iso-OMPA only induced a significant decrease butyrylcholinesterase activity of *P. antipodarum* (**Figure 2 c&d**). However, 50% of inhibition was not reached in our experiment).

BW284c51 significantly decreased the activities obtained for ASCh and PSCh for both gastropod species. For BSCh, the activity was significantly decreased only for *V. piscinalis* (**Figure 2 e&f**). The inhibition profiles of ASCh and PSCh and the IC₅₀ values were similar for *P. antipodarum* (290.4 and 387.1 µM) and *V. piscinalis* (150.2 and 262.2 µM) for ASCh and PSCh, respectively.

232

233 *In vivo experiments*

234 Concentration of chlorpyrifos in water

235 Chlorpyrifos concentrations in water were analyzed after 10 minutes and 24 h in the
236 experimental conditions. Measured concentrations of chlorpyrifos for the three nominal
237 concentrations (0.14, 2.86 and 14.2 nM) were 0.28 ± 0.02 , 2.65 ± 0.2 and 13.12 ± 0.8 nM 10
238 minutes after water renewal, respectively, and 0.22 ± 0.02 , 1.48 ± 0.1 , 5.98 ± 0.4 nM 24 h
239 after water renewal, respectively (data not shown). After 24 h of contamination, a decrease of
240 concentration was observed: chlorpyrifos measured concentrations were 58.1, 39.5 and 27.2%
241 of the concentrations measured at 10 minutes (data not shown).

242

243 *In vivo effects of chlorpyrifos on ChE activity*

244 During the seven days of experiment, no mortality was reported for *P. antipodarum*, neither
245 in controls, nor in contaminated beakers. A slight mortality was registered for *V. piscinalis* (5-

246 6% of cumulative mortality), but this was not significantly different between controls and
247 contaminated animals (data not shown).

248 *In vivo* exposure to chlorpyrifos led to inhibition of ChE activity in *P. antipodarum* (**Figure**
249 **3a**). Decrease of activity was time and dose-dependent. After 24 h and 96 h of exposure,
250 activity was significantly decreased for 14.2 nM compared to control. Values were 11.4 and
251 4.9 nmol ASCh. $\text{min}^{-1}\text{mg}^{-1}$ protein, respectively, which represented an activity of 63.3 and
252 31.5% of the control (100%). At 168 h, activity was significantly decreased for 2.86 and 14.2
253 nM compared to control. Values were 5.9 and 2.9 nmol ASCh. $\text{min}^{-1}\text{mg}^{-1}$ protein,
254 respectively, which represented an activity of 40.5 and 20.2% of the control (100%). IC₅₀
255 values of chlorpyrifos were 16.34, 9.71 and 3.15 nM at 24, 96 and 168 h, respectively.
256 No significant inhibition occurred for *V. piscinalis*, however a slight significant increase
257 occurred for nominal concentration of 0.14 nM after seven days of contamination (p<0.05,
258 **Figure 3b**).

259

259 **Discussion**

260 The level of ChE activity obtained for our species (31.6 for *P. antipodarum* and 17.3
261 nmol.min⁻¹.mg⁻¹ protein for *V. piscinalis*) was quite similar to those reported in literature for
262 several bivalve species (between 3 and 20 nmol.min⁻¹.mg⁻¹ protein) (Bocquené et al., 1997;
263 Najimi et al., 1997; Mora et al., 1999; Valbonesi et al., 2003; Binelli et al., 2006). Literature
264 reports AChE activities values of 20-45 nmol.min⁻¹.mg⁻¹ protein for annelids (*Eisena andrei*
265 (Caselli et al., 2006), *Nereis diversicolor* (Scaps and Borot, 2000)). However, an AChE
266 activity of 320 nmol.min⁻¹.mg⁻¹ protein was reported in *Lumbriculus variegatus* (Kristoff et
267 al., 2006). A few studies reported AChE level for other gastropods. The basal AChE activity
268 of the bloodfluke planorb, *Biomphalaria glabrata* was 45 nmol.min⁻¹.mg⁻¹ protein (Kristoff et
269 al., 2006) and was 60 nmol.min⁻¹.mg⁻¹ protein for the murex, *Hexaplex trunculus* (Romeo et
270 al., 2006).

271 Vertebrate cholinesterases have been classified into two groups, acetyl ChE and
272 butyryl ChE, depending on substrate hydrolysis and sensitivity to inhibitors. AChE
273 hydrolyses ASCh much faster than other choline esters, like PSCh, and is inactive on BSCh,
274 whereas BChE hydrolyses both BSCh and ASCh at an appreciable rate (Valbonesi et al.,
275 2003). Several studies show that situation of invertebrate cholinesterases is more complex.
276 ASCh has been reported as the preferential substrate for most bivalves including oysters
277 (Bocquené et al., 1997; Valbonesi et al., 2003), marine and freshwater mussels (Mora et al.,
278 1999; Romani et al., 2005; Binelli et al., 2006), as well as for *E. andrei* (Caselli et al., 2006),
279 *B. glabrata* (Kristoff et al., 2006), and the common shredder, *Gammarus pulex* (Xuereb et al.,
280 2007).

281 Both species of gastropods studied here showed different affinities toward the three
282 substrates used (ASCh, PSCh and BSCh). At high concentrations of substrates, *P.*
283 *antipodarum* cholinesterase presented the same affinity for ASCh and PSCh. *V. piscinalis*

284 presented a higher affinity for ASCh. However, the enzymatic activity level was lower for *V.*
285 *piscinalis*. In our study, gastropods revealed a low BSCh hydrolysis.

286 Comparative analysis of the *Km* values in *P. antipodarum* indicated that ChE affinity
287 for ASCh and PSCh were in the same range of that reported for *E. andrei* (0.18 and 0.14 mM
288 for ASCh and PSCh, respectively) (Caselli et al., 2006) and the Pacific oyster, *Crassostrea*
289 *gigas* (0.124 mM for PSCh) (Bocquené et al., 1997), while *V. piscinalis* showed higher
290 values, closer to those reported in the blue mussel, *Mytilus edulis* (1.3 mM for ASCh)
291 (Galloway et al., 2002). Moreover, these values appeared one order of magnitude higher than
292 that generally reported for bivalves: 50-93 μ M for *Ostrea edulis*, *Mytilus galloprovincialis*,
293 *Crassostrea gigas* (ASCh), *Corbicula fluminea* (PSCh), *Perna perna* (Bocquené et al., 1997;
294 Najimi et al., 1997; Mora et al., 1999; Valbonesi et al., 2003). High *Km* values represent
295 lower ChE affinity by substrate. Therefore, ChE activities of *V. piscinalis* presented lower
296 affinity to substrates than *P. antipodarum* ones.

297 *Vmax* values were similar for both species. For *P. antipodarum*, the ASCh ratio *Vmax/Km*
298 was in the same range that those reported in *M. galloprovincialis* ($0.24 \text{ mL} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{mg}^{-1}$
299 protein) (Valbonesi et al., 2003) and *E. andrei* ($0.25 \text{ mL} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{mg}^{-1}$ protein) (Caselli et al.,
300 2006). ASCh *Vmax/Km* ratio for *V. piscinalis* was closer to *O. edulis* one ($5.1 \cdot 10^{-2} \text{ mL} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$
301 $\cdot \text{mg}^{-1}$ protein) (Valbonesi et al., 2003). These results indicated that *V. piscinalis* enzyme has a
302 lower efficiency of hydrolysis than *P. antipodarum*, in agreement with the lower activity
303 observed and with the lower substrate affinity, as discussed before.

304 Enzymatic activity observed with BSCh was inhibited for both species by eserine, a
305 cholinesterase inhibitor. Enzymatic activities measured using ASCh and PSCh were almost
306 totally inhibited by eserine in both species. Iso-OMPA, a specific inhibitor of BChE in
307 vertebrates (Bocquené et al., 1997), did not modified this activity in *V. piscinalis*. However, a

308 significant inhibition occurred in *P. antipodarum*. An important decrease was observed in
309 both species with BW284c51, specific inhibitor of AChEs in vertebrates (Caselli et al., 2006).
310 The whole results suggest that *V. piscinalis* possesses a single ChE isoform, which presents
311 all the properties of a vertebrate AChE: high preference for ASCh and low for BSCh; high
312 sensitivity to eserine and BW284c51, but not to *iso*-OMPA. On the contrary, more complex
313 isoforms of ChE seem to coexist in *P. antipodarum*, one major isoform presenting properties
314 intermediate between an AChE and a PChE, and another minor isoform presenting properties
315 of a BChE.

316

317 IC₅₀ reported for eserine in *P. antipodarum* were in the same range than the values
318 reported for other invertebrates (0.01, 0.01, 0.14, 0.020 and 0.014 µM for *B. glabrata*, *L.*
319 *variegatus*, *O. edulis*, *M. galloprovincialis* and *E. andrei*, respectively) (Valbonesi et al.,
320 2003; Caselli et al., 2006; Kristoff et al., 2006). However, values for *V. piscinalis* were
321 higher. These results suggest that *V. piscinalis* ChEs are less sensitive than in *P. antipodarum*.

322 In our experiments, we measured effects of chlorpyrifos on *P. antipodarum* and *V.*
323 *piscinalis*. Chlorpyrifos is a widely used organophosphate insecticide and is the active
324 ingredient in a number of commonly used household and agricultural insecticide formulations
325 (Fulton and Key, 2001). It is volatile and concentration decreases rapidly in water in constant
326 exposure conditions. For these reasons, we performed the laboratory experiment using semi-
327 static conditions. Nevertheless, an important decrease of chlorpyrifos level was measured
328 after 24h. A similar 50% loss was reported in a contamination experiment of *G. pulex* to 0.3
329 nM of chlorpyrifos: concentration reached 0.17 nM after 24 h of exposition (Ashauer et al.,
330 2006).

331 Chlorpyrifos was tested in this study at concentrations ranging from 0.14 to 14.2 nM (0.05-5
332 µg.L⁻¹). Measured concentrations of chlorpyrifos in surface waters often fall at concentrations

333 below the nM level (USEPA, 2002). However, studies showed that chlorpyrifos
334 concentrations in small streams and wetlands adjacent to agricultural fields could range from
335 0.2 to 2 µM (Mazanti et al., 2003). Moreover, the relatively short-half life of chlorpyrifos in
336 water may result in underestimate levels of exposure (Mazanti et al., 2003).

337 We demonstrated the dose-response and time-dependant effects of chlorpyrifos on *P.*
338 *antipodarum*: for 14.2 nM, inhibition was 40% of the control after 24 h of contact and
339 increased to 80% of the control after 168 h of contact, without significant mortality. However,
340 an increase was shown on *V. piscinalis*. Chlorpyrifos have already been shown as a powerful
341 AChE inhibitor in invertebrates. Chlorpyrifos decreased AChE activity after 96 h of contact in
342 *D. polymorpha* (0.03 nM) (Binelli et al., 2006) and in *C. fluminea* (80% inhibition at 1.4 and
343 2.8 µM) (Cooper and Bidwell, 2006). Chlorpyrifos also decreased *in vitro* AChE activity in
344 *M. edulis* (Galloway et al., 2002) and in *in vivo* exposures in the midge, *Chironomus riparius*
345 (Callaghan et al., 2001) and in rat brain (Hancock et al., 2007), which agrees with our results.
346 On the contrary, this OP increased AChE activity in *S. inaequivalvis* after 15 days of exposure
347 to 0.3 nM (Romani et al., 2005), which comforts our results on *V. piscinalis*; however, the
348 biological explanation remains unknown. IC₅₀ of chlorpyrifos for AChE was 9.71 nM in *P.*
349 *antipodarum* at 96 h, which was ten times higher than for *G. pulex* in the same experimental
350 conditions (Xuereb et al., 2007).

351 High resistance of *V. piscinalis* to eserine *in vitro* and to chlorpyrifos *in vivo* may be
352 related to the lower ChE affinity to the substrate. On the contrary, high substrate specificity
353 and high sensitivity to eserine *in vitro* and chlorpyrifos *in vivo* would suggest that *P.*
354 *antipodarum* ChEs could be very sensitive to anticholinesterase agents.

355

356 In our study, we showed that inhibition of AChE happened for *P. antipodarum*
357 without any mortality. The relationship between AChE inhibition and mortality in

358 invertebrates is generally less well established than in vertebrates. No mortality was observed
359 after an environmental contamination with azinphos-methyl in *B. glabrata* et *L. variegatus*
360 (Kristoff et al., 2006), even though inhibition of AChE reached between 35 and 99% of
361 control. However, a high mortality was observed in *N. diversicolor* contaminated with
362 parathion and malathion when 55% of AChE inhibition occurred (Scaps et al., 1997). A high
363 mortality and 70% of AChE inhibition also occurred in *G. pulex* exposed to chlorpyrifos
364 (Xuereb et al., 2007). More research is needed to clarify the relationships between OP
365 exposure, AChE inhibition and mortality.

366 *P. antipodarum* AChE could be an useful biomarker of pesticide contamination as its
367 inhibition occurred at low concentration without mortality. Therefore, *P. antipodarum* could
368 be used in field contamination assessment. However, ChE activities may be differentially
369 modulated depending on the pollutant tested (Ozretic and Krajnovic-Ozretic, 1992). To better
370 assess the interest of *P. antipodarum* as field sentinel species, we need to confirm its
371 sensitivity to several anti-cholinesterase compounds and in different exposure conditions.
372 Moreover, as pesticide contamination in the field is a discontinuous phenomenon, it will be
373 necessary to test recovery of AChE activity after a contamination and to assess the effects of
374 successive contamination exposure.

375

376 Conclusion

377 The aim of our work was to characterize *P. antipodarum* and *V. piscinalis* ChEs. Our results
378 show that *P. antipodarum* possesses several isoforms of ChEs, one undifferentiated between
379 an AChE and a PChE, and another one which could be assimilated as a BChE. *V. piscinalis*
380 seems to possess only one isoform close to the vertebrate AChE. Our results also illustrate the
381 relative insensitivity of ChE activity following *V. piscinalis* exposure to environmental

382 concentrations of chlorpyrifos. On the contrary, the present study gives valuable indications
383 for selecting *P. antipodarum* in biomonitoring programs.

384 Laboratory studies generally do not take into account natural stressors, including fluctuations
385 in biotic and abiotic factors, which could have effects on AChE activity (Bocquené et al.,
386 1997). Some complementary experiments are needed in order to identify the factors inducing
387 ChE variability (age, season) in order to make the difference between effects due to chemical
388 exposure and the natural variability.

389

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393

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476 **Figure captions**

477 Figure 1: substrate affinity of *P. antipodarum* (a) and *V. piscinalis* (b) ChEs measured at
478 increasing concentrations of ASCh, PSCh and BSCh. Values are means of three replicates.
479 Standard error is presented. a, b, and c represent significant differences between substrates at
480 p<0.05 (a>b>c).

481

482 Figure 2: effects of eserine (a & b), *iso*-OMPA (c & d) and BW284c51 (e & f) on ChE
483 activity in *P. antipodarum* (a, c & e) and *V. piscinalis* (b, d & f). Standard error is presented.
484 *: p<0.05; ***: p<0.001.

485

486 Figure 3: inhibition percentages of ChE activities for *P. antipodarum* (a) and *V. piscinalis* (b)
487 during *in vivo* contamination with chlorpyrifos. Values are means of five replicates. Standard
488 error is presented. ***: p<0.001.

489

490

491 Table 1. Michaelis-Menten constant (K_m) and maximum rate of substrate hydrolysis (V_{max}) of
492 ChEs of *P. antipodarum* and *V. piscinalis*. Results are expressed as the mean \pm SE of three
493 replicates.