

Mugil liza (Valenciennes, 1836) biomarker responses in a hypersaline lagoon in southeastern Brazil before and after a microalgal bloom

Manildo M Oliveira  . Ana MF Ventura . Aline S Fraga . Maria Helena C Baeta Neves . Rafael F Dantas . Rachel A Hauser-Davis  . Renato M Lopes . João B Salles . Frederico F Bastos . Vera Lúcia F Cunha Bastos . Jayme Cunha Bastos

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Abstract Araruama lagoon is one of the largest permanent hypersaline lagoons in the world and has been impacted for twenty years by sewage dumping. In early 2005, a Prasinophyceae (*Pseudoscourfieldia* sp.) phytoplankton bloom occurred, leading to fish mortality during subsequent summers (2006 and 2007). In this context, the aim of the present study was to accompany this historical period through the use of biochemical biomarkers in mullet (*Mugil liza*) during and after the algal bloom. Mullet were collected from Araruama Lagoon in June and July 2005 and August 2007, as well as from a reference lagoon with no algal blooms, Saquarema Lagoon. Several enzymatic activities in liver were analyzed, namely glutathione peroxidase (GPX), catalase (CAT), total glutathione S-transferase (GSTt), specific GST π (π) and GST μ (μ) classes and ethoxyresorufin-O-deethylase (EROD), as well as muscle acetylcholinesterase activity (AChE). In 2005, only EROD activity was significantly increased at Araruama Lagoon, indicating induction of the biotransformation enzyme system (CYP 1A1). GST π , on the other hand, was lower in the Araruama Lagoon, especially in 2005, when compared to mullet from Saquarema lagoon (reference area). These results highlight the importance of developing actions that go beyond the physical-chemical monitoring of these environments, since the study of ecological relationships and the physiology of organisms affected by algal blooms also include biochemical parameters to evaluate new approaches to ichthyotoxicity.

Keywords Harmful Algae Bloom . Erod . Lagoa de Araruama . Mullet

Introduction

Araruama Lagoon, located in the state of Rio de Janeiro, southeastern Brazil is a hypersaline lagoon which,

Manildo M Oliveira 
Laboratório de Ecotoxicologia e Microbiologia Ambiental – Instituto Federal de Educação, Ciência e Tecnologia Fluminense - IFF - Cabo Frio - Brazil
e-mail: mmoliveira@iff.edu.br

MF Ventura
Colégio Estadual Professora Sonia Regina Scudese/Colégio Estadual Olga Benário Prestes - Rio de Janeiro - Brazil

Aline S Fraga
Colégio Pedro II - Rio de Janeiro - Brazil

Maria Helena C Baeta Neves
Departamento de Oceanografia Biológica - Instituto de Estudos do Mar Almirante Paulo Moreira - Arraial do Cabo - Brazil

Rafael F Dantas
Laboratório de Bioquímica Experimental e Computacional de Fármacos Instituto Oswaldo Cruz - FIOCRUZ - Rio de Janeiro - Brazil

Rachel A Hauser-Davis
Laboratório de Avaliação e Promoção da Saúde Ambiental, Instituto Oswaldo Cruz, FIOCRUZ - Rio de Janeiro - Brazil

Renato M Lopes
Laboratório de Comunicação Celular, Instituto Oswaldo Cruz, FIOCRUZ - Rio de Janeiro - Brazil

João B Salles
Centro Universitário Estadual da Zona Oeste (UEZO) - Campo Grande - Brazil

Frederico F Bastos, Vera Lúcia F Cunha Bastos, Jayme Cunha Bastos
Departamento de Bioquímica – IBRAG - Universidade do Estado do Rio de Janeiro - Rio de Janeiro - Brazil



until the 80's, was considered oligotrophic, with its crystal-clear blue waters attracting many tourists to the region. However, significant disordered population growth occurred on the shores of the lagoon in subsequent decades, unaccompanied by basic sanitation programs, increasing local anthropogenic pressures (Bertucci et al. 2016). During the next 20 years, high sewage inputs significantly altered the area, shifting the lagoon from oligotrophic (low ammonia, nitrogen and phosphorus levels) to eutrophic (high ammonia, nitrogen and phosphorus levels) (Rosa et al. 2016).

Eutrophic conditions include increased primary phytoplankton production at the expense of background macroalgae, resulting in reduced light incidence at the bottom of lagoon, increasing local biochemical oxygen demands (BOD) and leading to lower dissolved oxygen levels in the water (Coutinho et al. 1999, Souza et al. 2003). Current nutrient concentrations at Araruama Lagoon are about ten-fold higher than those found previously (Mello 2007), and high nitrate and phosphate levels may have been the cause for a 2005 algae bloom at the lagoon, as observed in other aquatic environments (Souza et al. 2003).

Algal blooms are harmful to aquatic ecosystems due to high biomass production, leading to decreased oxygen levels and, consequently, alterations in trophic ecosystem balances (Glibert 2017), resulting in mortality events due to damage to invertebrate filtration/circulation systems and fish gills (Hallegraeff 2004; Viana et al. 2019) and ecological damage, affecting both fishing activities and tourist attractions (Sanseverino et al. 2016). In addition, certain algal species able to produce toxic metabolites may result in the bioaccumulation of these compounds in certain organisms, such as shellfish and fish (Busch et al. 2016; Magalhães et al. 2003; Moroño et al. 2003; Turki et al. 2014). When algae blooms present some or all of the aforementioned characteristics mentioned above, they are termed harmful algal blooms (HABs) (Zohdi and Abbaspour 2019).

In this regard, a wide variety of toxic metabolites are produced by distinct algal taxonomic groups, including okadaic acid and dinophysistoxin, which may lead to diarrhetic shellfish poisoning (DSP); gonyautoxin and saxitoxin, which may cause paralytic shellfish poisoning (PSP); domoic acid, which can lead to amnesic shellfish poisoning (ASP); azaspiracid, a known cause of azaspiracid shellfish poisoning (AZP); ciguatoxins, which causes ciguatera fish poisoning (CFP); and cyanobacterial toxins, such as microcystins, nodularin, saxitoxin, anatoxin-a, anatoxin-a(s) and cylindrospermopsins (Backer et al. 2015; Berdalet et al. 2016; Valdiglesias et al. 2013; Zabaglo et al. 2016). The frequency of these harmful events has recently prompted several international strategies for the management, monitoring, ecological and genetic studies of these blooms, in order to protect both natural resources and human health (Eurohab 2002; Geohab 2001; Harnness 2005).

The use of biochemical biomarkers facilitates the ecotoxicological understanding of harmful algal bloom effects in aquatic organisms, (de Moraes Calado et al. 2020; Dalzochio et al. 2016; Prego-Faraldo et al. 2016). For example, phase I (Cytochromes P-450 enzymes - CYPs) and phase 2 (Glutathione S-transferases - GSTs) biotransformation enzymes are important in assessments concerning xenobiotic toxicokinetic mechanism activation (Bonansea et al. 2017), while antioxidant enzymes (GPx and Catalase) act against the increased pro-oxidant state produced by xenobiotics (Nunes et al. 2015). In turn, acetylcholinesterase, responsible for promoting cholinergic synapses in brain and muscle, is significantly affected by the presence of several neurotoxins, leading to loss of homeostasis (Araújo et al. 2018).

In this context, the aim of the present study was to evaluate biochemical biomarkers, namely Glutathione peroxidase (GPX), catalase (CAT), Acetylcholinesterase (AChE), glutathione-S-transferase (GST, as Total, GST μ and GST π) and ethoxyresorufin-O-deethylase (EROD), in mullet (*Mugil liza*) liver and muscle samples obtained during and after a Prasinophyceae (*Pseudoscurfieldia* sp) algal bloom in the hypersaline Araruama Lagoon, located in Southeastern Brazil.

Materials and methods

Study area

Araruama Lagoon (Figure 1) is located in the state of Rio de Janeiro, between latitudes 22°50'S and 22°57'S and longitudes 42°00'W and 42°44'W. It covers 210 km² and extends to six cities, Saquarema, Araruama, São Pedro da Aldeia, Cabo Frio, Arraial do Cabo and Iguaba Grande. It is the largest permanent hypersaline lagoon in the world and is used for fishing, salt extraction and tourism. The Saquarema lagoonal system,



extending from 23°53'S, 42°39'W to 23°56'S, 42°28'W, forms five smaller lagoons: Fora (7.4 km²), Jardim (2.0 km²), Urussanga (12.6 km²), Jaconé (4 km²) and Boqueirão (0.6 km²). Fish and algae samples were obtained from Boqueirão, within Araruama Lagoon, while the Fora lagoon, hereafter termed Saquarema, was used as a reference area, due to the absence of algal blooms. Both display similar salinity values.

Algae sampling and identification

Approximately 200 mL of water samples were collected in 2005 and 2007, using a 20 µm plankton net at Araruama Lagoon, transferred to 250 mL polyethylene bottles, and fixed with 4% formaldehyde buffered with sodium tetraborate.

Phytoplankton composition and abundance were assessed by the method described by Utermöhl (1958). Briefly, the samples were gently homogenized and placed in 50 mL cylinders, and organism quantification and identification were conducted using an inverted Olympus microscope with a 40 X objective lens after 48 hours of slow sedimentation. Algae genera were identified according to Tomas (1997).

Fish taxonomy, sampling and tissue processing

Sampled fish were classified according to Menezes (1983). The fish were caught by local fishers and immediately euthanized by spinal cord severing. No sexing was carried out. Livers and axial muscle portions were removed, immediately transferred to cryotubes and placed in liquid nitrogen. After thawing, the liver samples were dried on filter paper and individually weighed and homogenized in potassium phosphate 0.1 mol L⁻¹ pH 7.0 containing 0.25 mol L⁻¹ sucrose at 5°C (1 g liver + 4 mL buffer) using a Potter-Elvehjem apparatus (Potter 1955) in order to prepare soluble liver fractions. The homogenates were centrifuged (12,000xg/30 min/5°C), and the supernatants subsequently re-centrifuged (105,000xg/90 min/5°C). The final supernatants (soluble fraction, SF) and sediments (microsome, MS) were collected and stored at -20°C. Glutathione peroxidase (GPX), catalase (CAT), and glutathione-S-transferase (GST)

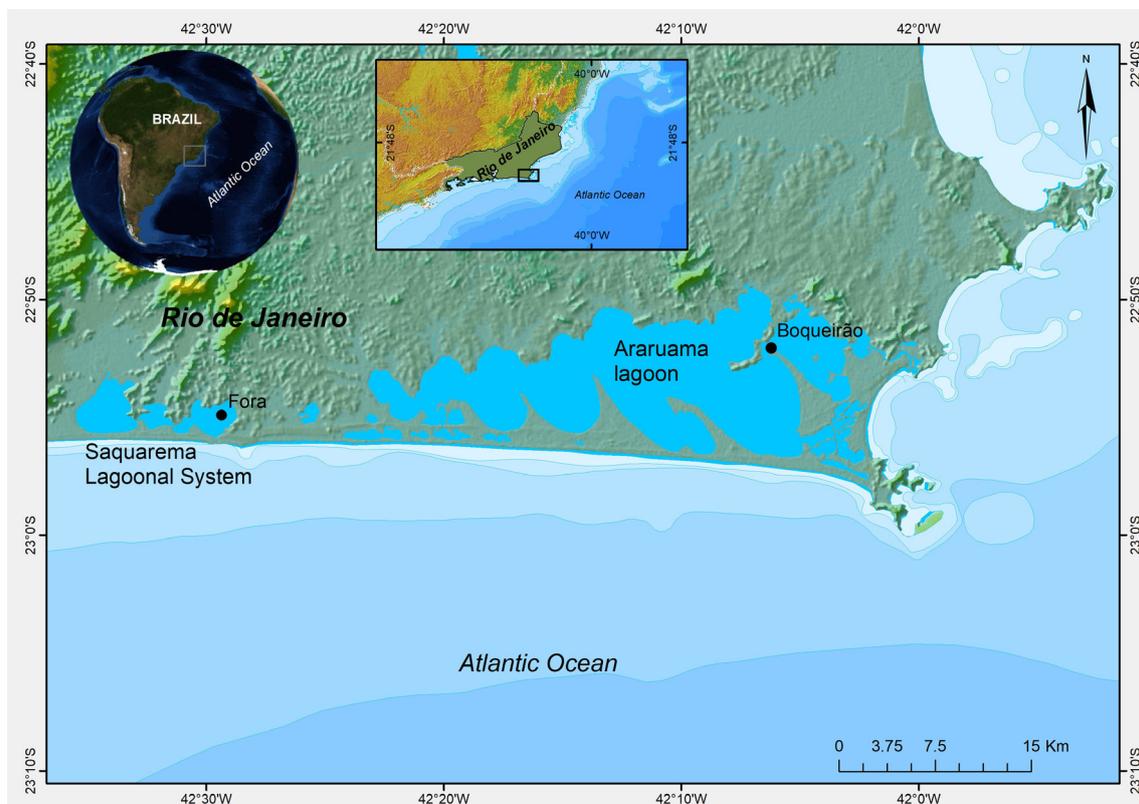


Fig. 1 Map of the study area, indicating the Boqueirão and Fora lagoons used as sampling sites in the present study

activities (Total, GST μ and GST π) were assayed in the SF. The MS was used to assay ethoxyresorufin-O-deethylase (EROD), an enzyme related to the cytochrome P-450 1A family. Muscle samples were thawed, dried on filter paper, weighed individually, homogenized in Tris-HCl 10 mmol L⁻¹ pH 7.0 containing 1% Triton X-100 and NaCl 1.0 mol L⁻¹ (1 g muscle + 19 mL buffer), and stored at -20°C and submitted to the same process as livers and used to determine acetylcholinesterase (AChE) activities.

Total protein content

Total protein content was quantified by the method described by Peterson (1977) using bovine serum albumin as the external standard.

Enzymatic assays

GPX activity: The reaction medium contained potassium phosphate 0.1 mol L⁻¹ pH 7.5, EDTA 1 mmol.L⁻¹, sodium azide 1 mmol.L⁻¹, dithiothreitol 1 mmol.L⁻¹, 8 mmol.L⁻¹ GSH, 1 U.mL⁻¹ glutathione reductase, 0.35 mmol L⁻¹H₂O₂, and up to 0.5 mL 0.48 mmol L⁻¹ of NADPH (Regoli and Principato 1995). NADPH consumption ($\epsilon = 6,220 \text{ M}^{-1}.\text{cm}^{-1}$ at 340 nm) was continuously recorded for 2 minutes at 25 °C.

CAT activity: The reaction medium contained 1 mmol.L⁻¹ EDTA, 20 mmol.L⁻¹ H₂O₂, and up to 0.5 mL of potassium phosphate 0.1 mmol.L⁻¹, pH 7.5. The reaction was started with H₂O₂ (Lushchak et al. 2005). H₂O₂ consumption ($\epsilon = 43.6 \text{ M}^{-1}.\text{cm}^{-1}$ at 240 nm) was continuously recorded for 2 minutes.

Total GST activity: The reaction medium contained potassium phosphate 0.1 mol L⁻¹ pH 7.5, 1-chloro-2,4-dinitrobenzene (CDNB) and 400 mmol.L⁻¹GSH. Conjugate formation ($\epsilon = 9.6 \text{ M}^{-1}.\text{cm}^{-1}$ at 340 nm) was continuously recorded for 3 min (Habig et al. 1974).

GST μ activity: The reaction medium contained potassium phosphate buffer 0.1 mol L⁻¹, pH 7.0, 1,2-dichloro-4-nitrobenzene (DCNB) 400 mmol L⁻¹ and 50 mmol L⁻¹ GSH. Conjugate formation ($\epsilon = 8.5 \text{ M}^{-1}.\text{cm}^{-1}$ at 345 nm) was continuously recorded for 3 min (Habig et al. 1974).

GST π activity: The reaction medium contained potassium phosphate buffer 0.022 M pH 7.0, ethacrynic acid 6.25 mmol L⁻¹ and 50 mmol L⁻¹ GSH. Conjugate formation ($\epsilon = 5 \text{ M}^{-1}.\text{cm}^{-1}$ at 270 nm) was continuously recorded for 3 min (Habig et al. 1974).

AChE activity: The reaction medium contained sodium phosphate 0.1 mol L⁻¹ pH 7.5, dithionitrobenzoic acid 0.32 mmol L⁻¹, and 1.875 mmol L⁻¹ acetylthiocholine. Thionitrobenzoic acid (TNB) formation ($\epsilon = 14,150 \text{ M}^{-1}.\text{cm}^{-1}$ at 412 nm) was continuously recorded for 3 min (Ellman et al. 1961).

The activity of these enzymes was evaluated using a Shimadzu UV-160 spectrophotometer at 25-28 °C and expressed as International Units (U - μmol per minute) per wet tissue weight.

EROD activity: The reaction medium contained potassium phosphate 0.1 mol L⁻¹ pH 7.8, magnesium chloride 5 mmol L⁻¹, 7ethoxyresorufin 2.5 mmol L⁻¹, and NADPH 0.25 mol L⁻¹. Resorufin formation was continuously recorded at 25-28 °C using a Hitachi F-3010 spectrofluorometer (excitation 550 nm; emission 582 nm; 5 nm bandpass) for 3 min. EROD activity was calculated using resorufin standards added to the reaction medium after the enzyme assay, and the results are expressed as Units (μmol per minute) per weight of MS proteins.

Statistical analyses

All assays were performed in duplicate and the coefficient of variation was always less than 10%. Student's T test ($P < 0.05$) was carried out using the GraphPad Prism® software.

Results and discussion

Araruama Lagoon presented a microalgae bloom from 2005 to 2007, with the prevalence of potentially harmful Prasinophyceae algae, majority among the phytoplankton species identified. Dinoflagellates (*Protoperidinium* sp. and *Prorocentrum* sp. as the prevailing genera) were the second most abundant group. In 2007, the Prasinophyceae bloom disappeared, and diatoms (*Pleurosigma* sp.) were the most prevalent and the dinoflagellates (*Protoperidinium* sp. and *Prorocentrum* sp.) were again verified as the the second



most abundant group (Table 1).

This bloom was well characterized in this lagoon in 2005, with chlorophyll-a values ranging between 109 and 159.23 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ (Mello 2007), leading to concerns regarding the local aquatic environment health and that of the surrounding population. Fish and crustacean mortality events were also observed at Araruama Lagoon in 2005 during intense rainfall months, leading to increased freshwater supply and *in natura* sewage, and higher radiation levels associated with drops in dissolved oxygen levels (Oliveira et al. 2011). Other Prasinophyceae blooms occurring worldwide have also been reported as causing extreme mortality events. For example, Jones et al. (1994) followed a prasinophyte bloom caused by organisms belonging to the *Tetraselmis* genus in December 1993 in a small lake in Wellington Harbor in southern New Zealand, and reported the death of approximately half a ton of *Sardinops sagax* specimens. The dissolved oxygen levels measured at different points in this lake ranged between 1.2 and 7.4 ppm, and histological fish gill analyses indicated that phytoplankton adhering to the gills most likely reduced oxygen absorption on the gill surface, probably causing fish death.

In 2007, potentially toxic dinoflagellates were detected, including *Protoperdinium* sp and *Prorocentrum* sp, occurred in greater numbers in 2007 (*Protoperdinium* – 290.136 cells L^{-1} and *Prorocentrum* - 23.927 cells L^{-1}). In addition, *Protoperdinium* sp. (192 cells.mL⁻¹) and *Prorocentrum* sp (0.8 cells.mL⁻¹) were also present in 2005. It is known that some *Prorocentrum* species produce okadaic acid, a known carcinogen (Fujiki et al. 2018) and dinophysistoxin (the cause of diarrhetic shellfish poisoning - DSP), a lipophilic polyether that causes diarrhea, nausea, vomiting, and stomach spasms in acute poisoning for mussel consumption (Huang et al. 2015).

Twenty-nine mullet were analyzed, 15 from Araruama Lagoon and 14 from Saquarema Lagoon. Biometric data for each year and lagoon are displayed in Table 2.

Enzymatic assays, both *in situ* and *in vivo*, are routinely applied in environmental and human health risk assessments as biomarkers of response to contaminant exposure, as these responses can reveal exposure, effect or susceptibility to chemicals and other stressors on the organism (Ghisi et al. 2017; Oost et al. 2003), and inform early biochemical changes that manifest before physiological damage occurs in affected aquatic organisms. Therefore, they can be used as an alternative to screen for the presence of phycotoxins and/or harmful effects.

Catalase (CAT) and glutathione peroxidase (GPX)

No significant differences were observed for either CAT or GPx between years and lagoons, although

Table 1 Prevalence (%) of the main phytoplankton groups determined at Araruama Lagoon in 2005 and 2007

Divisions	Class	Order	Family	Genus mains	Sampling years (%)	
					2005	2007
Chlorophyta	Prasinophyceae	Chlorodendrales	Chlorodendraceae	<i>Pseudoscofieldia</i> sp.	94.8	0
Chysophyta (Diatoms)	Bacillariophyceae	Naviculales	Pleurosigmataceae	<i>Pleurosigma</i> sp.	0.73	83
Pyrrophyta (Dinoflagellates)	Dinophyceae	Peridinales	Protoperdiniaceae	<i>Protoperdinium</i> sp.	4.43	17
		Prorocentrales	Prorocentraceae	<i>Prorocentrum</i> sp.		
Cyanobacteria	-	-	-	-	0.026	0
Total counts (cell.mL ⁻¹)					26.45	1.884

Table 2 Biometric data from *Mugil liza* specimens sampled from Araruama and Saquarema Lagoons

Year	Lagoon	Sampling dates (dd/mm/yy)	N	Total length (cm)	Total weight (g)
2005	Saquarema	29/07/05	5	31±11	288±30
	Araruama	21/06/05- 28/07/05	7	44±24	1.008±49
2007	Saquarema	24/07/07	9	27 ± 2	316 ± 38
	Araruama	20/08/07	8	Nd*	372±78

*nd: not determined



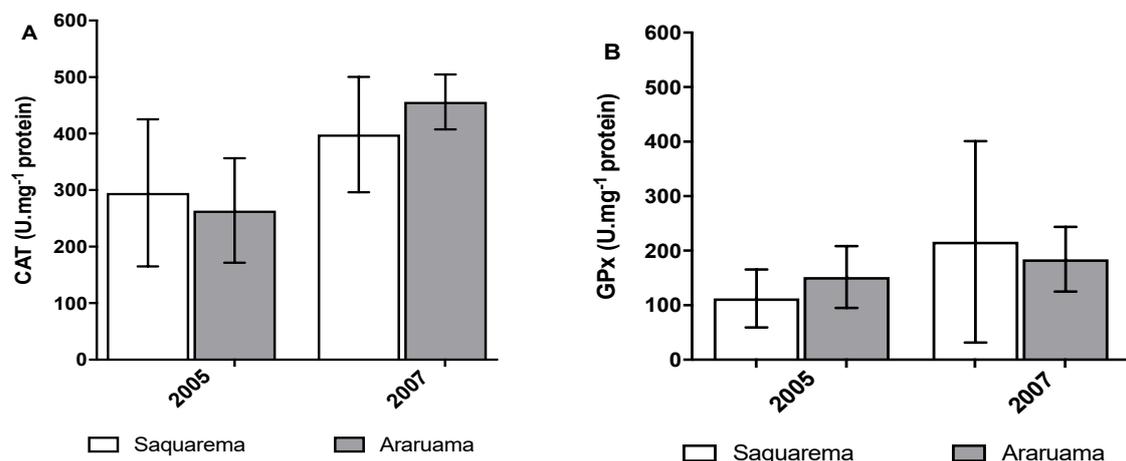


Fig. 2 Catalase (A) and glutathione peroxidase (B) activities in mullet liver sampled from Saquarema Lagoon and Araruama Lagoon. Each column and bar represents the means and standard deviations, respectively

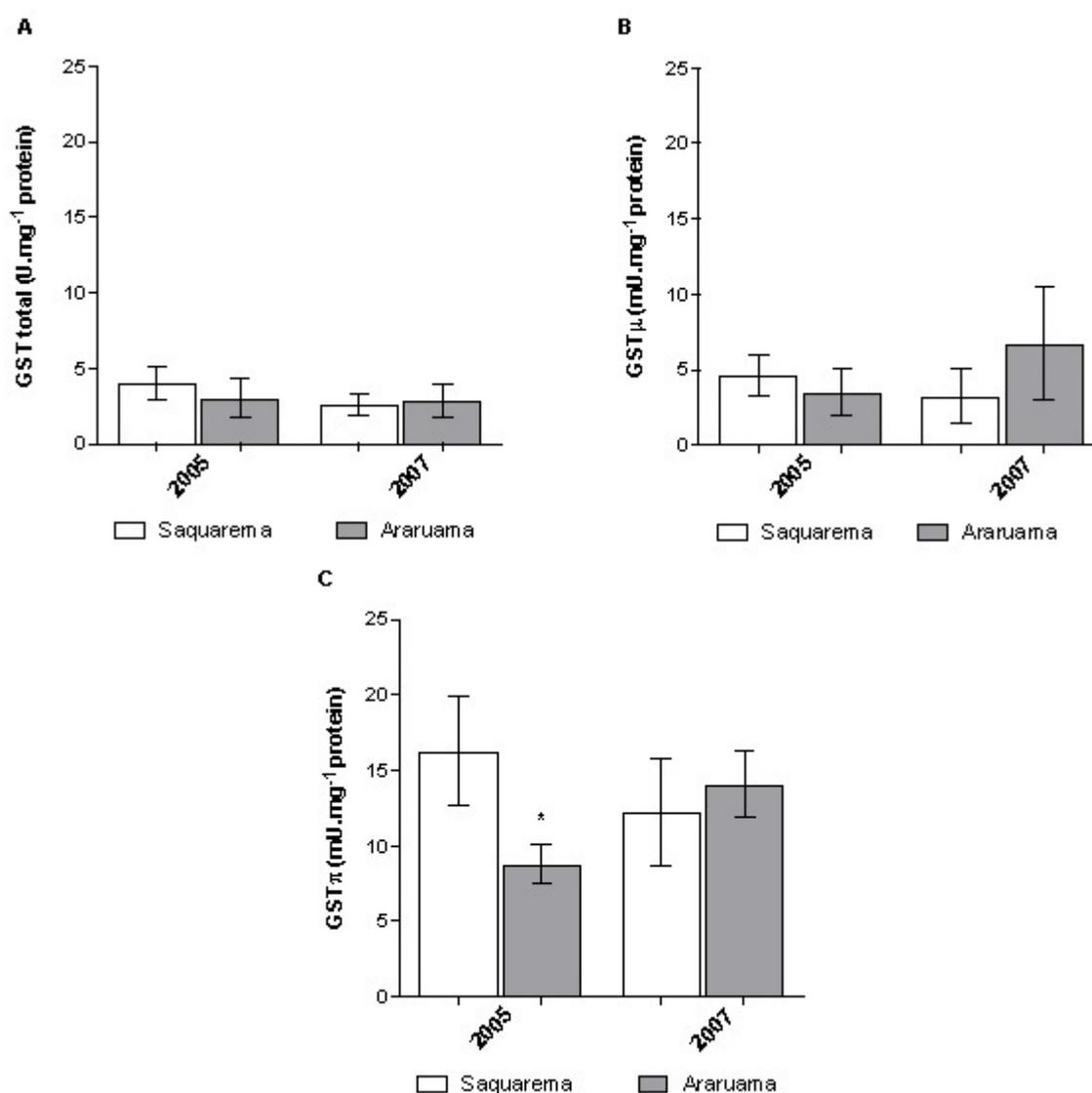


Fig. 3 Total glutathione S-transferase (GST)(A), mi (GST μ)(B) and pi (GST π)(C) classes in mullet liver sampled from Saquarema Lagoon and Araruama Lagoon. Each column and bar represents the means and standard deviation, respectively.

*Significant difference between the lagoons during the same year (Student's T test, $P < 0.05$)



Araruama Lagoon CAT activities were slightly higher when compared to Saquarema Lagoon after the bloom (Figure 2). GPx and CAT are responsible for the control of hydrogen peroxide production in cells due to increased production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Ighodaro and Akinloye 2018). ROS modify important cellular macromolecules, primarily proteins, lipids and DNA, by carbonylation, lipid peroxidation and mutations (“adduct” formation), respectively (Lushchak 2016). These enzymes have been routinely applied in environmental studies in polluted environments as oxidative stress biomarkers (Lushchak 2016; Mazmanci and Çavas 2010; Ribalta et al. 2015). For example, Mazmanci and Cavas (2010) injected Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*) with domoic acid (1, 5 and 10 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ body weight), a phycotoxin produced by some *Pseudonitzschia* species, and observed increased superoxide dismutase (SOD), CAT, GPx and glutathione reductase (GRD) activities in liver and gills, in addition to increased lipid peroxidation. However, no significant differences in GPx activity were noted when comparing specimens from both lagoons in 2007. On the other hand, CAT activities in liver seem to indicate of pro-oxidant status in *Mugil liza* sampled from Araruama Lagoon during the same year. Although Saquarema lagoon in this

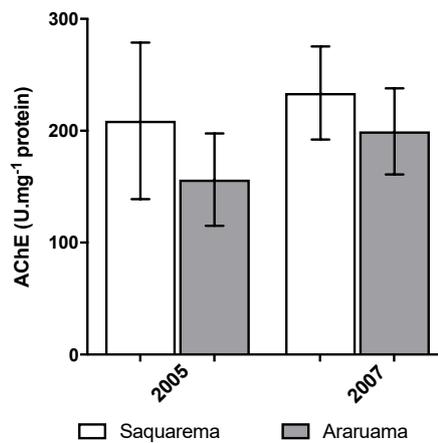


Fig. 4 Acetylcholinesterase (AChE) in mullet muscle of mullet sampled from Saquarema Lagoon and Araruama Lagoon. *Significant difference between lagoons during the same year (Student’s T test, $P < 0.05$).

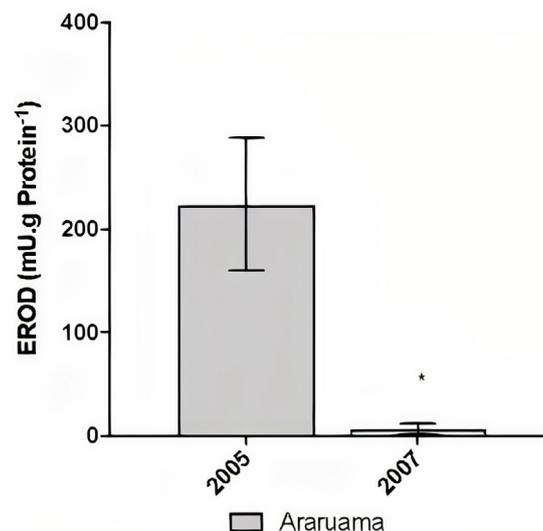


Fig. 5 Ethoxyresorufin O-deethylase (EROD) levels in mullet liver microsome collected at Araruama Lagoon. Each column and bar represents the means and standard deviation, respectively.

*Significant difference between the lagoons during the same year (Student’s T test, $P < 0.05$)



study is considered a reference area due to the non-occurrence of phytoplankton blooms, it is not free of other impacts. For example, biochemical oxygen demand (BOD) and ammonia levels remained high in the lagoon even after opening the bar that connects the lagoon with the sea (Carloni et al. 2010), BOD and ammonia levels remained high in the lagoon, due to the concomitant increase of the sewage supply from the Bacaxá River (main tributary) and the diffuse sewage input from residences located in the surroundings. These variations in dissolved oxygen levels and consequent redox potential alterations in the environment can cause increased oxidative stress (Lushchak 2011).

Glutathione transferase (GST)

This biomarker can indicate alterations in xenobiotic metabolism. In 2005, during the Prasinophytes bloom, total GST and GST μ liver activities were statistically similar compared to specimens sampled from Saquarema Lagoon ($P > 0.05$). Araruama Lagoon displayed an increase in GST π activity over the study years, with a significant difference ($P < 0.05$) in 2005 when compared to Saquarema Lagoon (Figure 3).

Glutathione S-transferases (GST) are involved in xenobiotic biotransformation, phase II detoxification (Glisic et al. 2015), and are recognized as an important tool for ecotoxicological research in several classes of organisms, such as mussels, fish and mammals (Liu et al. 2015; Nóvoas-Valiñas et al. 2002; Satoh 2018). Ventura et al. (2002) found in the soluble fraction of liver *Orthopristis ruber*, low levels of total GST activity in fish of the bays of Guanabara and Sepetiba compared to activities of fishes in the Ilha Grande. These authors assume that this decline may be related to levels of contaminants that cause oxidative stress which, when reduced, increasing the consumption of GSH, reducing the ability of the combination of GST isoenzymes by reduction of its substrate.

Acetylcholinesterase (AChE)

Somewhat lower AChE activities were found for both lagoons in 2005 compared to 2007, but without significant differences (Figure 4).

Acetylcholinesterase (AChE) is a known biomarker of exposure and effect of organophosphates and carbamates (Albendín et al. 2017; Lopes et al. 2018), and a biomarker for anatoxins, for example in *in vitro* studies as a biosensor to the toxic compounds produced by cyanobacteria from the Anabaena genus (Devic et al. 2002; Dos Santos et al. 2019; Yunes 2019). Despite the lower trend in AChE activity in 2005, AChE activities in this study were similar in both lagoons and in the same order of magnitude as observed other studies (Napierska and Podolska 2005), indicating that this enzyme was not affected by the phytoplankton changes at Araruama Lagoon during the study period.

Ethoxyresorufin-O-deethylase, EROD

Cytochrome p-450 1A (CYP 1A) activity was significantly higher in 2005 when compared to Saquarema Lagoon, with a significant decrease in 2007 (Figures 5). Enzymes belonging to the cytochrome P-450 1A (CYP 1A) family of microsomal monooxygenases are involved in the biotransformation of nonpolar xenobiotics (phase I detoxification), which include polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), dioxins and polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) (Gagnon and Rawson 2017; Hanno et al. 2010). EROD activity in microsomal *Mugil liza* fractions was, unfortunately, analyzed only at both lagoons in 2005, due to logistic reasons, and was higher at Araruama Lagoon. EROD was significantly higher in 2005 than in 2007, with similar values to other environments polluted by xenobiotics, and probably due to algal bloom effects (Gagnon and Rawson 2017; Parente et al. 2008). Prasinophyte species, such as *Tetraselmis suecica*, produce high concentrations of polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs), with arachidonic acid being one of the most abundant (Sathasivam et al. 2017; Servel et al. 1994). This compound is a proven CYP1A inducer in some fish species (Søfteland et al. 2016; Schlezinger et al. 1998), and may be the cause for the high EROD activities in *Mugil liza* specimens from Araruama Lagoon in 2005. This has been observed in other cases, for example in certain fish species found in Brazilian reservoirs, such as the Pearl Cichlid (*Geophagus brasiliensis*), which presented increased EROD (CYP1A1) activity in an environment with the presence of a saxitoxin-producing cyanobacterium, *Cylindrospermopsis raciborskii* (Clemente et al. 2010). However,



other studies found no induction of hepatic EROD in fish species (*Diplodus sargus*) exposed to saxitoxins for 2 to 6 days (Costa et al. 2012). EROD activity at Araruama lagoon in 2007 was significantly lower than in 2005, following the decrease in the number of *Pseudoscourfieldia* sp. In 2007, prasinophytes no longer appeared in the water samples, and the prevalence of diatoms, followed by dinoflagellate was observed, which is probably the cause of the significantly lower EROD values found during this sampling, close to those found in locations used as controls in other studies (Parente et al. 2008; Morado et al. 2018).

Two biomarkers, enzymes belonging to the detoxification metabolism of xenobiotic phase I (CYP 1A1) and phase II (GST π), exhibited changes that can be correlated to the occurrence of an algal bloom in 2005 at Araruama lagoon. As this historic event is noted in similar situations worldwide, we offer this record so that it can be the subject of discussion concerning future events in this environment.

Conclusions

The current study was an attempt to monitor HABs by applying an ecotoxicological approach to a native fish species (mullet) from an affected environment (Araruama Lagoon). EROD activity in mullet from Araruama Lagoon was high, indicating CYP1A induction during the *Pseudoscourfieldia* sp bloom in 2005, while two years after the bloom period decreased EROD activity was observed. Still in 2005, GST shows low liver activity in mullets collected in the Araruama lagoon compared to collect in Saquarema lagoon. This activity was higher in 2007, just like CAT. GPx, GST total, GST μ and AChE, however, was not affected by the phytoplankton changes at Araruama Lagoon during the study period. The use of biochemical biomarkers seems to be adequate for monitoring organism health during and after algal blooms, and, alongside traditional phycotoxin detection test may indicate specific bloom effects. In addition, the monitoring of the ecological succession of the phytoplankton community at Araruama Lagoon in bloom-free conditions should be implemented, in order to determine which species are normally predominant in this environment and better understand these increasing events in coastal environments.

List of abbreviations AChE: acetylcholinesterase; ASP: amnesic shellfish poisoning; AZP: azaspiracid shellfish poisoning; BOD: biochemical oxygen demands; CAT: catalase; CFP: ciguatera fish poisoning; CDNB: 1-chloro-2,4-dinitrobenzene; CYP 1A1: Cytochrome p-450 1A1; DCNB: 1,2-dichloro-4-nitrobenzene; DSP: diarrhetic shellfish poisoning; EDTA: Ethylenediamine tetraacetic acid; EROD: ethoxresorufin-O-deethylase; GPX- glutathione peroxidase; GSH: Glutathione (γ -L-Glutamyl-L-cysteinylglycine); GRD: glutathione reductase; GSTt: total glutathione S-transferase; GST π : Pi class glutathione S-transferase; GST μ : Mi class glutathione S-transferase; HABs - harmful algal blooms; H₂O₂: Hydrogen peroxide; NADPH: Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate; PAHs: polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons; PCBs: polychlorinated biphenyls; PSP: paralytic shellfish poisoning; PUFAs: polyunsaturated fatty acids; ROS: reactive oxygen species; SOD: superoxide dismutase; TNB: Thionitrobenzoic acid.

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The authors dedicate this work to Dr. Moacelio veranio Silva Filho.

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Authors' contributions MMO, AMFV, RFD, ASF, JBS, FFB - Carried out the experimental assays. MHCBN - performed taxonomic studies. RML, RAHD - Data analysis and curation, validation, statistics, final text revision. VLFCB, JCB - conceived of the study, and participated in its design and coordination and helped to draft the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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