# $\beta$ -Naphthoflavone Induces Oxidative Stress in the Intertidal Copepod, *Tigriopus japonicus*

Jae-Sung Rhee,<sup>1\*</sup> Young-Mi Lee,<sup>2\*</sup> Bo-Mi Kim,<sup>3</sup> Kenneth Mei Yee Leung,<sup>4</sup> II-Chan Kim,<sup>5</sup> Joung Han Yim,<sup>5</sup> Jae-Seong Lee<sup>1,3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Research Institute for Natural Sciences, Hanyang University, Seoul 133-791, South Korea

<sup>2</sup>Department of Life Science, College of Convergence, Sangmyung University, Seoul 110-743, South Korea

<sup>3</sup>Department of Chemistry, College of Natural Sciences, Hanyang University, Seoul 133-791, South Korea

<sup>4</sup>The Swire Institute of Marine Science and School of Biological Sciences, The University of Hong Kong, Pokfulam Road, Hong Kong, China

<sup>5</sup>Division of Life Sciences, Korea Polar Research Institute, Incheon 406-840, South Korea

Received 3 April 2013; revised 30 August 2013; accepted 20 September 2013

**ABSTRACT:**  $\beta$ -Naphtoflavone ( $\beta$ -NF) is a flavonoid and enhances oxidative stress in vertebrates with little information from aquatic invertebrates as yet. In this study, we investigated the effects of β-NF on the antioxidant defense systems of the intertidal copepod Tigriopus japonicus. To measure the B-NFtriggered changes in oxidative stress markers, such as intracellular reactive oxygen species (ROS), glutathione (GSH) concentration, residual glutathione S-transferase (GST), glutathione peroxidase (GPx), glutathione reductase (GR), and superoxide dismutase (SOD) activity, T. japonicus were exposed to  $\beta$ -NF (0.5 and 1 mg/L) for 72 h. Significant (P < 0.05) induction of the intracellular ROS content (%) was observed in 1 mg/L of  $\beta$ -NF exposed *T. japonicus*, compared to the negative control and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-exposed group. The GSH levels were significantly increased in the 0.5 mg/L of β-NF-exposed group for 12 h and 1 mg/L of β-NF-exposed groups for 12–24 h. GPx, GST, and GR activities showed a significant increase in the 1 mg/L  $\beta$ -NF-exposed group, indicating that  $\beta$ -NF induces oxidative stress in *T. japonicus*. To understand the effects of β-NF at the level of transcript expression, a 6K microarray analysis was employed. Transcript profiles of selected antioxidant-related genes were modulated after 72 h exposure to 1 mg/L of β-NF. From microarray data, 10 GST isoforms, GR, GPx, PH-GPx, and Se-GPx were chosen for a time-course test by real-time RT-PCR. T. japonicus GST-S, GST-O, GST-M, and GST-D1 were significantly increased in a 1 mg/L  $\beta$ -NF-exposed group. T. japonicus GPx, GR, and Se-GPx mRNA levels were also significantly increased at both concentrations. Our results revealed that oxidative stress was induced by β-NF exposure in T. japonicus. © 2013 Wiley Periodicals, Inc. Environ Toxicol 30: 332-342, 2015.

**Keywords:** *Tigriopus japonicus*; oxidative stress; biomarkers;  $\beta$ -naphthoflavone;  $\beta$ -NF

\*These authors contributed equally to this work.

Correspondence to: J.-S. Lee; e-mail: jslee2@hanyang.ac.kr

Contract grant sponsor: Ministry of Oceans and Fisheries, Korea. Contract grant number: PM12030 (to J.-S.L.).

Published online 18 October 2013 in Wiley Online Library (wileyonlinelibrary.com). DOI: 10.1002/tox.21911

### INTRODUCTION

 $\beta$ -Naphthoflavone ( $\beta$ -NF) is a synthetic derivative of a naturally occurring flavonoid and is known as an aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR) agonist which can strongly induce the cytochrome P4501A enzyme system (Ahmad et al., 2006;

Aboutabl and El-Kadi, 2007; Zordoky and El-Kadi, 2007).  $\beta$ -NF has also the potential for a promutagen that can cause damage to DNA in fish (Johnson, 1992; Maria et al., 2002). Previously, Rushmore et al. (1991) suggested the bifunctional induction of intracellular oxidative stress by  $\beta$ -NF treatment in human hepatoma cells, HepG2. To date, many researchers demonstrated that PAHs including  $\beta$ -NF enhance the oxidative stress response via the generation of ROS in mammals (Elbekai et al., 2004; Dewa et al., 2009), fishes (Bacanskas et al., 2004; Bauder et al., 2005; Oliveira et al., 2008; Timme-Laragy et al., 2009), and a water flea *Daphnia magna* (Feldmannova et al., 2006). However, there is little information regarding the oxidative stress potential elicited by  $\beta$ -NF in marine invertebrates.

Oxidative stress causes a variety of diseases such as cancer, inflammatory and neurodegenerative disease as well as aging (Finkel and Holbrook, 2000). ROS provide reactive molecules and a source of oxidative stress, and has important roles in the redox cycling mediated by metabolites induced by xenobiotics. Overproduction of ROS can damage cellular macromolecules such as proteins, DNA, and lipids (Marnett, 2000). PAHs activate the expression of cytochrome P450 which is involved in the detoxification of xenobiotic compounds by transferring an oxygen radical to a substrate. One of the toxic mechanisms of PAHs is supposed to be the result of ROS generated by CYP1A-produced PAH metabolites, although PAHs have been known to elicit much of their toxicities through AhR pathways (Livingstone, 2001; Schlezinger and Stegeman, 2001; Meyer et al., 2002). The equilibrium between the amounts of free radicals and the antioxidant scavenging capacity could be disturbed by ROStriggered oxidative stress (Lesser, 2006). Thus, involvement of several antioxidant enzymes and/or antioxidant molecules (e.g., GSH) against ROS and oxidative stress are the key protection mechanisms of aquatic organisms that are exposed to a wide range of environmental chemicals.

Tigriopus japonicus (Copepoda, Harpactidae) is an intertidal benthic copepod and has been used as a laboratory model animal because it is small in size, sexually dimorphic, showing high fecundity, short reproduction time ( $\sim 14$  days), being quite hardy (can survive broad ranges of temperature, salinity, pH), and easy culture under laboratory condition (Raisuddin et al., 2007). In addition, Tigriopus is easy to be collected from splash pools, and no specialized sampling strategy or device is needed. These characteristics make it a potential sentinel species for aquatic ecotoxicological studies (Raisuddin et al., 2007). The use of T. japonicus in acute ecotoxicity studies, transgenerational toxicity, and gene expression studies have demonstrated its potentials as a model organism (Lee et al., 2008; Ki et al., 2009; Rhee et al., 2009; Guo et al., 2012; Kim et al., 2013). However, there is a paucity of information regarding the toxic effect of  $\beta$ -NF in T. japonicus and other copepods with reference to oxidative stress, although extensive ecotoxicological studies using T. japonicus have been performed with several environmental pollutants (Marcial et al., 2003; Kwok and Leung, 2005; Lee et al., 2007; Raisuddin et al., 2007). In this paper, we analyzed antioxidant defense systems with transcript profiling to better understand the oxidative stress response patterns in *T. japonicus* upon  $\beta$ -NF exposure.

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### Copepods

The intertidal copepod, *T. japonicus* was maintained and reared in 0.2-µm filtered artificial sea water (TetraMarine Salt Pro, Tetra<sup>TM</sup>, OH) adjusted to 25°C, a photoperiod of 12 h:12 h light/dark, and a salinity of 30 practical salinity unit (psu). The copepods were fed with the algae *Tetraselmis suecica* (~0.4 × 10<sup>9</sup>/L/day). Identification of the species was made by morphological characteristics and the sequence identity of the universal barcode marker, mitochondrial DNA COI.

#### $\beta$ -NF Exposure

A large number ( $\approx 300$  in each group) of adult *T. japonicus* (mixed gender) were exposed to  $\beta$ -NF (0.5 and 1 mg/L; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO). Two control groups of T. japonicus were prepared with control and solvent (DMSO, >0.001%) control. The exposure concentration of  $\beta$ -NF was selected based on acute toxicity values reported earlier in several aquatic invertebrates (Snyder, 1998; Reichert and Menzel, 2005; Watanabe et al., 2008). Copepods were exposed for up to 72 h. At the interval of 0, 6, 12, and 24 h, T. japonicus was sampled from each group and used for total RNA isolation and for further biomarker analysis. During exposure, the copepods were cultured in natural seawater at a density of four copepods per milliliter in a glass vessel (32 practical salinity unit (psu), dissolved oxygen (DO)  $3.9 \pm 0.15$  mg/L) at  $25 \pm 1^{\circ}$ C under 12 h light: 12 h dark cycle. The copepods were not fed during the exposure period.

#### **Total RNA Isolation**

Copepods ( $\approx$ 300 in each group) were gently sampled from the experimental chambers and immediately grounded in liquid nitrogen using glass mortar and pestle in three volumes of TRIZOL<sup>®</sup> (MRC, USA) reagent with a tissue grinder. Total RNA was extracted according to the manufacturers' protocol and stored at  $-80^{\circ}$ C until use. DNA digestion was performed using DNase I (Sigma, St. Louis, Mo). Total RNA was quantified by absorption of light at 230, 260, and 280 nm (A230/260, A260/280) using spectrophotometer (Ultrospec 2100 pro, Amersham Bioscience). To check the genomic DNA contamination, we loaded the total RNA in a 1% agarose gel that contained ethidium bromide (EtBr) and was visualized on a UV transilluminator (Wealtec Corp.). Also, to verify the total RNA quality, we loaded the total RNA in a 1% formaldehyde/agarose gel with EtBr staining and checked the *18/28S* ribosomal RNAs integrity. After determining the RNA quality, a single-strand cDNA was synthesized from 2  $\mu$ g of total RNA from each sample using an oligo(dT)<sub>20</sub> primer for reverse transcription in 20  $\mu$ l reactions (SuperScript<sup>TM</sup> III RT kit, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA).

### Gene Expression Analysis Using a *T. japonicus* 6K Oligomicroarray

T. japonicus 6K oligomicroarray was developed according to the procedures described by Ki et al. (2009). A total of 6K oligonucleotide probes (each of 35 nucleotides in length) were designed by comparison of all available EST sequences in a web-based tool (CombiMatrix Corp., Mukilteo, WA). Subsequently, the 6K oligonucleotide probes were synthesized onto a plate provided by CombiMatrix following the manufacturers' protocol. We used MessageAmpTM II-Biotin Enhanced Single Round aRNA Amplification Kit (Ambion, Austin, TX) which is based on the RNA amplification protocol. Ambion's MEGAscript<sup>®</sup> IVT technology was used to generate hundreds to thousands of antisense RNA copies of each mRNA in the sample. RNA labeling and hybridization were carried out following a protocol for hybridization and imaging of CustomArray<sup>TM</sup> 12K Microarrays provided by CombiMatrix. Hybridized microarrays were scanned at PMT 500-700 (pixel size 5, focus position 130) using a GenePix 4000B microarray scanner (Axon Instruments, Union City, CA). After scanning was completed the resulting images were visualized and processed for data extraction as per the standard procedure (https:// webapps.combimatrix.com). Microarray data for individual samples were normalized by a global normalization using the probes with a signal value greater than zero, lesser than 60,000 (saturation value) and cumulatively greater than the lowest 5% of each sample's signal value. Finally, a total of 5463 spots remained for the subsequent analysis. Foldchange was applied to determine differentially expressed sets of genes across three experimental samples. The significance level of fold-change was tested by a local pooled-error (LPE) test of significance analysis in R package (version 2.6.1). In addition, the complete linkage hierarchical clustering was performed based on Euclidean distance measure of samples using the normalized significant genes. Avadis Prophetic version 3.3 (Strand Genomics, Bangalore, India) and Arrayassit 5.5.1 (Agilent Technologies) were used for data analysis and statistics.

# Real-Time RT-PCR Analysis After $\beta$ -NF Exposure

The mRNA expression of antioxidant genes was measured using real-time RT-PCR. The primer sequences were the same as being used in our previous study (Lee et al., 2008). Each reaction included 1 µl of cDNA which was reversely transcribed from 2 µg of total RNA and a 0.2 µM primer (real-time RT-F/R for each antioxidant gene and 18S rRNA RT-F/R). The optimized conditions were transferred according to the following CFX96<sup>TM</sup> real-time PCR system protocol (Bio-Rad). The reaction conditions were as follows: 95°C/3 min; 40 cycles of 95°C/30 s, 55°C/30 s, and 72°C/ 30 s. To confirm the amplification of specific products, the cycles were continued to check the melting curve under the following conditions: 95°C/1 min, 55°C/1 min, and 80 cycles of 55°C/10 s with a 0.5°C increase per cycle. SYBR<sup>®</sup> Green (Molecular Probes, Invitrogen) was used to detect the specific amplified products. Amplification and detection of the SYBR® Green-labeled products were performed using a CFX96<sup>TM</sup> real-time PCR system (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA). The data from each experiment were expressed relative to expression levels of the 18S rRNA gene to normalize the expression levels between samples. All experiments were done in triplicate. Data were collected as threshold cycle  $(C_{\rm T})$  values (PCR cycle number where fluorescence was detected above a threshold and decreased linearly with increasing input target quantity), and used to calculate the  $\Delta C_{\rm T}$  values of each sample. The fold change in the relative gene expression was calculated by the  $2^{-\Delta\Delta c}$ T method.

### **ROS Measurement**

After  $\beta$ -NF exposure (0.5 and 1 mg/L) for 72 h, intracellular reactive oxygen species (ROS) was measured using 2,7dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate (H2DCF-DA, Molecular Probe, Invitrogen<sup>TM</sup>, Eugene, Oregon, USA). The overall experiment was performed with minor modifications by the procedures of LeBel et al. (1992). After exposed to  $\beta$ -NF,  $\sim$ 500 individuals were washed with PBS (pH 7.4) twice, and then homogenized in cold buffer (0.32 mM of sucrose, 20 mM of HEPES, 1 mM of MgCl<sub>2</sub>, and 0.5 mM of PMSF, pH 7.4) using a Teflon homogenizer. The homogenate was centrifuged at 15,000g for 15 min at 4°C. Upper aqueous layer was collected for ROS measurement and incubated at 28°C for 30 min in PBS containing the H<sub>2</sub>DCF-DA at a final concentration of 40 µM. We checked the increased fluorescence intensity of DCF by Varioskan® FLASH (Thermo Electron Corporation) with appropriate wavelengths (excitation at 485 nm, emission at 520 nm). Hydrogen peroxide (1 mM) exposed group was used as a positive control for the induction of ROS. The ROS measurements were normalized by total protein and represented as a percentage of fluorescence of DCF.

## Measurement of Glutathione Content and Glutathione-Related Enzymes' Activities

To check the induction of oxidative stress by exposure to  $\beta$ -NF, the change of oxidized glutathione (GSH) to reduced GSH was determined by an enzymatic method using

Probe No.	Probe Name	Probe Name Gene Name	
5975	T6K5282	Cytochrome P450 13A	2.34
5325	T6K5283	Cytochrome P450 25A	2.02
5398	T6K5356	GST-sigma	73.52
6040	T6K5998	GST-sigma	50.04
5344	T6K5302	GST-mu4	3.92
3522	T6K3480	UDP-glucuronosyl transferase	3.61
5993	T6K5951	GST-mu5	3.03
5345	T6K5303	GST-mu5	2.75
5986	T6K5944	GST-delta-epsilon 1	2.50
5991	T6K5949	GST-mu2	2.45
5336	T6K5294	GST-delta-epsilon 1	2.31
2340	T6K2298	Brain type mu-glutathione S-transferase	2.31
5987	T6K5945	GST-delta-epsilon 2	2.17
5992	T6K5950	GST-mu4	2.17
1028	T6K0986	Glutathione peroxidase 1	2.15
288	T6K0288	Glutathione peroxidase	2.03
2757	T6K2715	Manganese superoxide dismutase	1.99
5333	T6K5291	Glutathione peroxidase 1	1.98
5983	T6K5941	Glutathione peroxidase 1	1.94
2272	T6K2230	Glutathione peroxidase	1.93
5988	T6K5946	GST-theta	1.89
3855	T6K3813	GST-1-1 (GST class-theta)	1.85
5338	T6K5296	GST-theta	1.85
3695	T6K3653	Superoxide dismutase [Cu-Zn]	1.81
5375	T6K5333	Se-dependent glutathione peroxidase	1.78
3595	T6K3553	Selenium dependent salivary glutathione peroxidase	1.74
2017	T6K1975	GST	1.74
5985	T6K5943	Glutathione peroxidase 7	1.72
4579	T6K4537	Glutathione peroxidase	1.72
5335	T6K5293	Glutathione peroxidase 7	1.69
2250	T6K2208	Glutathione peroxidase	1.64
393	T6K0393	GST-like protein	1.64
66	T6K0066	Glutathione peroxidase	1.61
5337	T6K5295	GST-delta-epsilon 2	1.61
5984	T6K5942	Glutathione peroxidase 6	1.59
5272	T6K5230	GST-kappa 1	1.58
5066	T6K5024	Phospholipid hydroperoxide glutathione peroxidase	1.55

TABLE I. List of antioxidant related genes, which were upregulated in  $\beta$ -NF-exposed *T. japonicus* studied by 6K microarray

BIOXYTECH<sup>®</sup> GSH-420<sup>TM</sup> kit (*Oxis*Research<sup>®</sup>, Portland, USA). After  $\beta$ -NF (0.5 and 1 mg/L) treatment for 36 and 72 h, *T. japonicus* was washed in 0.9% NaCl. Rinsed sample was homogenized in trichloroacetic acid at a ratio of 1–20 (w/v) using a Teflon homogenizer. The homogenate was centrifuged at 3000g for 10 min at 4°C. The upper aqueous layer was collected for a GSH content assay according to the manufacturer's protocol. GSH content was measured at an absorbance of 420 nm using spectrophotometer (Ultrospec 2100 pro, Amersham Bioscience), and standard curves were generated using GSH equivalents (0, 150, and 350  $\mu$ M).

Glutathione peroxidase (GPx) and glutathione reductase (GR) activities were measured by an enzymatic method using BIOXYTECH<sup>®</sup> GPx-340<sup>TM</sup> and GR-340<sup>TM</sup> kits, respectively (*Oxis*Research<sup>®</sup>, Portland, USA). After  $\beta$ -NF

(0.5 and 1 mg/L) treatment for 36 and 72 h, *T. japonicus* were homogenized in cold buffer (50 mM Tris-Cl, 5 mM EDTA, and 1 mM 2-mercaptoethanol, pH 7.5) at a ratio of 1-4 (w/v) using a Teflon homogenizer. The homogenate was centrifuged at 10,000g for 10 min at 4°C. The upper aqueous layer containing the enzyme was collected for an enzymatic assay. GPx and GR activities were measured at an absorbance of 340 nm using a spectrophotometer at 25°C.

Glutathione *S*-transferase (GST) activity was measured following our previous report (Rhee et al., 2007). After  $\beta$ -NF (0.5 and 1 mg/L) treatment for 36 and 72 h, *T. japonicus* was homogenized in cold buffer (0.25 M sucrose, 10 mM Tris, 1 mM EDTA, 0.2 mM DTT, and 0.1 mM PMSF, pH 7.4) at a ratio of 1–4 (w/v) using a Teflon homogenizer. The homogenate was centrifuged at 10,000g for 10 min at 4°C.

The cytosolic fraction containing the enzyme was collected for an enzymatic assay using 1-chloro-2, 4-dintitrobenzene (CDNB) as a substrate. An enzymatic assay monitored the conjugation of CDNB and GSH at 340 nm using a spectrophotometer at  $25^{\circ}$ C.

Overall SOD enzyme activities were prepared according to our previous study (Kim et al., 2011). Total SOD activities were measured with an enzymatic method using SOD assay kit (Sigma-Aldrich Chemie, Switzerland). After  $\beta$ -NF (0.5 and 1 mg/L) treatment for 36 and 72 h, the copepods were homogenized in ice-cold buffer (0.25 M sucrose, 0.5% triton X-100, pH 7.5) at a ratio of 1–4 (w/v) using a Teflon homogenizer. The homogenate was centrifuged at 30,000g for 30 min at 4°C. The upper aqueous layer containing the enzyme was collected for the enzymatic assay according to the manufacturer's protocol. Total SOD activities were then measured at an absorbance of 440 nm using a spectrophotometer at 25°C. Enzyme activities were normalized by total protein and represented as % of control.

### **Statistical Analysis**

SPSS version 17.0 (SPSS, Chicago, IL) software package was used for statistical analysis. All data were expressed as mean  $\pm$  SD. Significant differences between the observations of control and exposed groups in  $\beta$ -NF exposure study were analyzed using one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's test. *P* < 0.05 was considered as significant.

### RESULTS

# Analysis of Antioxidant-Related Genes in Microarray

From whole microarray results, oxidative stress-related genes were selected and analyzed in this study as a Minimum Information About a Microarray Experiment (MIAME). *T. japonicus* exposed to  $\beta$ -NF (1 mg/L) showed a significant increase of several antioxidant-related genes in mRNA expression profiles using 6K cDNA oligochip (-Table I). Two cytochrome P450 (*CYP*) genes, *CYP13A* and *CYP25A*, were upregulated 2.34 and 2.02-fold. Real-time RT-PCR analysis confirmed the transcriptional expression of *CYP13A* (4.56-fold) and *CYP25A* (3.89-fold). Among *GSTs* increased, the transcript of *GST-S* showed the highest expression (50.04- and 73.52-fold).

# $\beta$ -NF-Induced Modulation of GSTs in *T. japonicus*

The expression level of 10 *GST* genes (*mGST2*, *mGST1*, *GST-Z1*, *GST-T3*, *GST-S*, *GST-O*, *GST-M5*, *GST-K*, *GST-D2*, and *GST-D1*) was measured by real-time RT-PCR in  $\beta$ -NF (0.5 and 1 mg/L)-exposed *T. japonicus* [Fig. 1(A,B)] for 72 h. Each value and their statistical analysis were



**Fig. 1.** Time-course mRNA expression of *GST* gene family after exposure to (A) 0.5 and (B) 1mg/L  $\beta$ -NF for 72 h. Each value and their statistical analysis were represented in Table II. *T. japonicus 18S rRNA* gene was used as a reference gene to normalize the expression. Each value represents the mean of three replicate samples compared to the control group (0 h). Abbreviation of *GST* isoforms: *mGST*, microsomal; *GST-Z*, zeta; *GST-T*, theta; *GST-S*, sigma; *GST-O*, omega; *GST-M*, mu; *GST-K*, kappa; *GST-D*, delta–epsilon. [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

represented in Table II. The expression pattern of *GSTs* mRNA depended on the type of isoforms. GST sigma (*GST-S*) and omega (*GST-O*) increased 12 h after exposure of 0.5 mg/L of  $\beta$ -NF in a time-dependent manner, and showed the highest expression level after 72 h exposure at both concentrations of  $\beta$ -NF. GST-delta-epsilon 1 (*GST-D1*), GST-mu 5 (*GST-M5*), and GST-theta 3 (*GST-T3*) slightly increased from 24 h after  $\beta$ -NF exposure. Other *GST* isoforms did not change significantly.

# Time Course Expression of Oxidative Stress Biomarkers

As a biomarker of oxidative stress, the transcript expression levels of *GR* and three types of *GPx* were measured after exposure to 0.5 [Fig. 2(A)] and 1 [Fig. 2(B)] mg/L of  $\beta$ -NF for 72 h by real-time RT-PCR. In 0.5 mg/L of the  $\beta$ -NFexposed group, transcripts of *GR*, *GPx*, and *Se-GPx* were

B-NE Concentration			Exposu	re Time (h)		
Genes			Normalized Transcript Value			
β-NF 0.5 mg/L	0	6	12	24	48	72
GST-D1	1.00	1.15	1.13	1.15	1.26	1.90
GST-D2	1.00	1.05	1.37	1.68	1.90	1.44
GST-K	1.00	1.11	0.88	0.89	1.63	1.85
GST-M5	1.00	0.90	0.93	1.63	2.23	2.36 <sup>b</sup>
GST-O	1.00	1.33	1.01	1.52	3.63 <sup>c</sup>	4.24 <sup>d</sup>
GST-S	1.00	0.96	1.33	1.33	3.83 <sup>c</sup>	3.12 <sup>b</sup>
GST-T3	1.01	0.90	1.03	1.33	0.91	0.89
GST-Z1	1.00	1.06	1.33	1.23	1.25	2.11
mGST1	1.00	1.33	1.20	1.56	1.82	1.98
mGST2	1.00	1.25	1.52	1.69	1.85	1.20
β-NF 1 mg/L	0	6	12	24	48	72
GST-D1	1.00	0.95	0.55 <sup>b</sup>	1.99	2.16	1.99
GST-D2	1.00	0.97	1.16	1.17	0.99	1.06
GST-K	1.01	1.06	0.91	0.92	1.23	2.35 <sup>b</sup>
GST-M5	1.01	0.89	0.81	1.83	4.59 <sup>d</sup>	4.05 <sup>d</sup>
GST-O	1.01	0.87	1.08	3.77 <sup>b</sup>	4.04 <sup>b</sup>	8.24 <sup>d</sup>
GST-S	1.01	1.63	3.63 <sup>b</sup>	5.06 <sup>b</sup>	11.52 <sup>d</sup>	7.14 <sup>d</sup>
GST-T3	1.00	0.98	0.90	0.92	1.40	3.33 <sup>b</sup>
GST-Z1	1.00	0.99	1.07	0.87	1.00	0.97
mGST1	1.00	0.96	0.90	1.06	1.03	1.70
mGST2	1.00	0.95	0.76 <sup>b</sup>	0.81 <sup>b</sup>	0.88	0.63

TABLE II. Expression patterns of GST genes in T. japonicus exposed to different concentrations of  $\beta$ -NF<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>All the mRNA expression values were expressed as the fold change.

 $^{\rm c}P < 0.01.$ 

 $^{\rm d}P < 0.001.$ 

induced after 48 h till 72 h. However, after exposure to 1 mg/L of  $\beta$ -NF, transcripts of *GR*, *GPx*, and *PH-GPx* significantly increased relatively earlier, compared to 0.5 mg/L of  $\beta$ -NF exposure.

# Effect of $\beta$ -NF on the Generation of ROS of *T. japonicus*

ROS level was measured in  $\beta$ -NF (0.5 and 1 mg/L)-exposed *T. japonicus* for 72 h. As a result, intracellular ROS levels were elevated in 1 mg/L of  $\beta$ -NF-exposed *T. japonicus* for 72 h. Particularly, an induction (173%) of ROS was observed at high dose (1 mg/L) when compared to control group (100%) with a significance (P < 0.05) (Fig. 3). As a positive control, 1 mM of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-exposed *T. japonicus* showed a highly significant induction of ROS (354%) compared to the control (P < 0.001).

# GSH Content, GST, GPx, GR, and SOD Activity After Exposure to $\beta$ -NF

Antioxidant enzyme activities were measured at 0.5 and 1 mg/L of  $\beta$ -NF-exposed groups for 36 and 72 h, respectively, and compared to negative control and solvent (DMSO) control. As a result, significant changes in GSH level were observed for 12–24 h (Fig. 4). All the residual GST, GPx,

GR, and SOD activities were significantly induced at 1 mg/L of  $\beta$ -NF-exposed group for 72 h (Fig. 5). GST and GPx activity were significantly induced at 1 mg/L of  $\beta$ -NF-exposed group at 36 h. Group exposed to 0.5 mg/L of  $\beta$ -NF had no effect to antioxidant enzyme activities except for GPx activity at 72 h.

### DISCUSSION

β-NF is known as a strong inducer of cytochrome P450 (CYP) gene in vertebrates. Particularly, β-NF promoted cytochrome P4501A-dependent ethoxyresorufin O-deethylase (EROD) activities in aquatic animals (Pacheco and Santos, 1998). In T. japonicus, two CYP genes (CYP13A and CYP25A) were upregulated as shown in Table I, although invertebrates have no CYP1A as vertebrates have in their genome. Using T. japonicus 6K gene chip, we successfully discovered several upregulated antioxidant-related genes as shown in Table I, supporting our previous findings (Figs. 1 and 2). Thus, a microarray approach provides a sensitive, fast, and useful methodology to detect molecular biomarkers and to better understand the molecular mode of action of defense mechanisms upon environmental pollution. In general, an organism's genome responds to toxicity induced by environmental contaminants by the expression of responsive

 $<sup>^{\</sup>rm b}P < 0.05.$ 



**Fig. 2.** Time-course mRNA expression of antioxidant enzymes (*GR*, GPx, *PH-GPx*, and *Se-GPx*) after exposure to (A) 0.5 and (B) 1mg/L  $\beta$ -NF for 72 h. *T. japonicus 18S rRNA* gene was used as a reference gene to normalize the expression. Each value is the mean of three replicate samples compared to the control (0 h). Data are shown as means  $\pm$  SD. Significant differences between the means of mRNA level were analyzed by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's test. Asterisks (\*, \*\*, and \*\*\*) indicate significant change with *P* < 0.05, *P* < 0.01 and *P* < 0.001, respectively.

genes that can be used as molecular biomarkers (Snape et al., 2004). Therefore, ecotoxicogenomic tools provide a mechanistic understanding of the mode of action in aquatic ecotoxicology. In fact, the application of microarray techniques to the copepod *T. japonicus* after exposure to Cu, Mn, and UV-B represented that microarrays may also be helpful in delineating the mechanism of adaptation and resistance in copepods exposed to recurrent pollutants or environmental changes in the marine environment (Ki et al., 2009; Rhee et al., 2012; Kim et al., 2013). Thus, application of ecotoxicogenomic tools will provide useful insights for a better understanding on the fate and mechanism of the mode of action of defense induced by environmental pollutants.

The mRNA expression of *GSTs* in *T. japonicus* showed different expression patterns during a time-course upon  $\beta$ -NF exposure. Among 10 *GST* genes, five *GSTs* (*GST-S*, *GST-O*, *GST-M5*, *GST-T3*, and *GST-D1*) showed a significant correlation with  $\beta$ -NF exposure, whereas expression of other *GSTs* did not change significantly over an exposure period of 72 h. We can assume that several reasons can be



**Fig. 3.** Change of reactive oxygen species (ROS) level after exposure to β-NF (0.5 or 1 mg/L) and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (1 mM) for 72 h relative to control (100%). Each value is the mean of three replicate samples and data are shown as means ± SD. Significant differences between the means of ROS levels were analyzed by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's test. Asterisks (\* and \*\*\*) indicate a significant change with P < 0.05 and P < 0.001, respectively.

proposed to these kinds of up- or downregulation of different *GST* genes in *T. japonicus*. Firstly, in case of upregulation,  $\beta$ -NF exposure influenced the transcription-regulating factors of some *GST* promoter regions, mediating the transcription of specific *GST* isoenzymes. Secondly, in case of downregulation, *GST* expression was selectively associated with the accumulation of GSH conjugates under  $\beta$ -NF exposure. Several reports from different aquatic animals exposed to PAHs supported these controversial findings (Henson et al., 2001, Teles et al., 2003; Lu et al., 2009). Thus, since GST catalyzes the conjugation of certain xenobiotics to reduced GSH, its expression is likely induced as a result of



Fig. 4. GSH content measured after exposure to  $\beta$ -NF (0.5 or 1 mg/L) for 36 and 72 h. Each value is the mean of three replicate samples and data are shown as means  $\pm$  SD.



**Fig. 5.** GSH-related enzyme activities measured after exposure to  $\beta$ -NF (0.5 or 1 mg/L) for 36 and 72 h. GST (A), GPx (B), GR (C), and SOD (D). Each value is the mean of three replicate samples and data are shown as means  $\pm$  SD. Significant differences between the means of activities were analyzed by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's test. Asterisks (\*) indicate a significant change with P < 0.05.

cytosolic GSH depletion following PAH-induced GST-catalyzed conjugation. In T. japonicus, five specific GST genes showed significant sensitivity and upregulation after 24 h β-NF exposure. Particularly, T. japonicus GST-S and GST-O were expressed highest among the upregulated GSTs. Lee et al. (2007) reported that the sigma-class of GST, nonmammalian GST, had a possible antioxidant function in in vitro recombinant proteins in T. japonicus. Also, Lee et al. (2008) demonstrated that the expression of GST-S mRNA was highly upregulated in a dose- and/or time-dependent manner in T. japonicus exposed to  $H_2O_2$  and heavy metals such as Cd, As, and Cu which are known as oxidative stress inducers, and also showed that the expression level of T. *japonicus GST-D1* and *GST-O* mRNA was also significantly increased in H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, suggesting that these GST isoforms played a main role in the antioxidant defense in T. japonicus. Taken together, these results indicate that GST genes, particularly GST-S and GST-O isotype, would provide suitable biomarkers for the monitoring of environmental oxidative stressors in *T. japonicus*.

The relative mRNA expression of antioxidative genes was shown as a time-dependent induction. We assumed that the *GR* induction over time was potentially influenced by excessive generation of ROS during the  $\beta$ -NF metabolism. The relative expression of *GPx* in the 1 mg/L of  $\beta$ -NFexposed *T. japonicus* was upregulated over the exposure time. Nahrgang et al. (2009) demonstrated before that the *GPx* mRNA level was upregulated in polar cod exposed to benzo[*a*]pyrene (BaP). In the Pacific oyster, *GPx* mRNA expression was significantly increased with exposure to cadmium (Jo et al., 2008). Thus, induction of *GPx* against oxidative stress provides its strong involvement in the antioxidant defense mechanism of aquatic organisms.

Phospholipid hydroperoxide glutathione peroxidase (PH-GPx) is an important ubiquitous antioxidant enzyme involved in the removal of lipid hydroperoxides (LOOHs)

from cell membranes (Pradhan et al., 1990). The formation of LOOHs within the cellular membrane bilayer disrupts structure and function of the membrane leading to subsequent cellular injury and death (Pradhan et al., 1990). The repair of intracellular LOOHs is generally mediated by cytosolic GPx and PH-GPx. However, PH-GPx directly reduces both phospholipid- and cholesterol-hydroperoxides in cell membranes (Thomas et al., 1990; Hu et al., 2010). In β-NFexposed T. japonicus, the expression of PH-GPx mRNA was upregulated for 72 h (significant at P < 0.01), compared to 0 h. This result supported the findings of other researchers, even though we could not measure the LOOHs in T. japonicus. For example, the increase of PH-GPx mRNA was shown in H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-exposed plants (Li et al., 2000) and insects (Hu et al., 2010), and  $\gamma$ -irradiation- and metal-exposed fish (Olsvik et al., 2010).

Se-GPx utilizes the reduced glutathione for catalyzing the reduction of hydrogen peroxide and organic hydroperoxides to alcohol and water (Birringer et al., 2002). Therefore, Se-GPx protects cellular organelles from oxidative damage by scavenging the potentially harmful peroxides generated by normal cellular metabolism. In  $\beta$ -NF-exposed T. japonicus, significant induction of Se-GPx gene expression was found over OR after/at 72 h. Our finding is consistent with previous studies. For example, an increase of Se-GPx activity by oxidative damage was reported in mammals (El-Bayoumy, 2001; Liu et al., 2004), some fish species (Watanabe et al., 1997), and mussel (Chatziargyriou and Dailianis, 2010). de Zoysa et al. (2009) demonstrated that the disk abalone (Haliotis discus discus) Se-GPx mRNA level was induced significantly under oxidative stress such as different salinity and hypoxia, suggesting that Se-GPx may be a potential indicator gene for oxidative stress.

Under normal physiological conditions, there is a cellular balance between the amount of ROS produced and the cellular antioxidant systems. ROS plays a crucial role in initiating and catalyzing a variety of radical reactions. When ROS production becomes excessive or if the cellular antioxidant defense is impaired, then cellular oxidative stress is generated. In this study, T. japonicus exposed to 1 mg/L of  $\beta$ -NF led to a significant induction of ROS, compared to the control. ROS are harmful byproducts of oxidative metabolism that cause molecular damage in living systems. Dewa et al. (2008) suggested that the administration of  $\beta$ -NF enhances oxidative stress responses which may be involved in the induction of hepatocellular carcinoma in rats. β-NF-exposed rats showed a dose-dependent increase of ROS production. Oxidative stress was elevated by high levels of intracellular ROS after exposure of a kind of PAH, BaP in human skin (Costa et al., 2010). This is in accordance with our finding that this flavonoid  $\beta$ -NF can also induce oxidative stress by generating ROS in T. japonicus.

In this study, significant changes in the GSH level were observed in early time-courses in both concentrations. Oliveira et al. (2008) reported that the GSH content was significantly elevated in the golden grey mullet exposed to the lowest dose of phenanthrene. Feldmannova et al. (2006) demonstrated a significant decline of GSH content in Daphnia magna exposed to N-PAHs. Although our results showed no statistical significance, the increase of the level of GSH in  $\beta$ -NF-exposed T. *japonicus* may likely be an adaptive response to oxidative stress, whereas the reduction of the GSH level seems to be related to its consumption in GPx and GST activities with its insufficient regeneration (Ahmad et al., 2006). Exposure of  $\beta$ -NF (5 mg/kg) to rainbow trout or striped bass was not affected by GST activity (Lemaire et al., 1996), while longer exposure to  $\beta$ -NF (50 mg/kg) induced GST activity in rainbow trout after 7 days (Fenet et al., 1998) and 14 days (Zhang et al., 1990). In D. magna, GST activity was different depending on the kinds of N-PAHs (Feldmannova et al., 2006). Although information between GST activity and  $\beta$ -NF in marine invertebrates is still lacking, GST activity may be closely related to β-NF exposure over time and concentration of exposed xenobiotics. In T. japonicus, induction of GPx and GR activity in the  $\beta$ -NF-exposed group goes along with a reduction of GSSG to GSH. In β-NF-exposed rainbow trout, GR induction was also detected after 5 days, suggesting that GR may be an indicator for oxidative stress (Stephensen et al., 2002).

Responsive genes of a cell or organism exposed to toxic chemicals can be considered as toxicological endpoints. The results of overall gene expression studies with ROS, GSH, and enzyme activity measurements revealed that oxidative stress can be induced by  $\beta$ -NF exposure in *T. japonicus*. From the foregoing account, it can be clearly concluded that the above measured oxidative stress parameters are very well used as a signature tool for assessing early stress in the ecophysiology of *T. japonicus* with reference to  $\beta$ -NF toxicity.

#### REFERENCES

- Aboutabl ME, El-Kadi AO. 2007. Constitutive expression and inducibility of CYP1A1 in the H9c2 rat cardiomyoblast cells. Toxicol In Vitro 21:1686–1691.
- Ahmad I, Maira VL, Oliveira M, Pacheco M, Santos MA. 2006. Oxidative stress and genotoxic effects in gill and kidney of *Anguilla anguilla* L. exposed to chromium with or without preexposure to β-naphthoflavone. Mutat Res 608:16–28.
- Bacanskas LR, Whitaker J, Di Giulio RT. 2004. Oxidative stress in two populations of killifish (*Fundulus heteroclitus*) with differing contaminant exposure histories. Mar Environ Res 58: 597–601.
- Bauder MB, Palace VP, Hodson PV. 2005. Is oxidative stress the mechanism of blue sac disease in retene-exposed trout larvae? Environ Toxicol Chem 24:694–702.

The authors thank Dr. Hans-U. Dahms for his comments on the manuscript and also thank Drs. Jang-Seu Ki and Kyun-Woo Lee for their technical assistance during the 6K chip experiment.

- Birringer M, Pilawa S, Flohe L. 2002. Trends in selenium biochemistry. Nat Prod Rep 19:693–718.
- Chatziargyriou V, Dailianis S. 2010. The role of seleniumdependent gluatathione peroxidase (Se-GPx) against oxidative genotoxic effects of mercury in haemocytes of mussel *Mytilus galloprovincialis* (Lmk.). Toxicol In Vitro 24:1363–1372.
- Costa C, Catania S, de Pasquale R, Stancanelli R, Scribano GM, Melchini A. 2010. Exposure of human skin to benzo[a]pyrene: Role of CYP1A1 and aryl hydrocarbon receptor in oxidative stress generation. Toxicology 271:83–86.
- Dewa Y, Nishimura J, Muguruma M, Jin M, Saegusa Y, Okamura T, Tasaki M, Umemura T, Mitsumori K. 2008. β-naphthoflavone enhances oxidative stress responses and the induction of preneoplastic lesions in a diethylnitrosoamine-initiated hepatocarcinogenesis model in partially hepatectomized rats. Toxicology 244:179–189.
- de Zoysa M, Whang I, Lee Y, Lee S, Lee, J-S, Lee J. 2009. Transcriptional analysis of antioxidant and immune defense genes in disk abalone (*Haliotis discus discus*) during thermal, lowsalinity and hypoxic stress. Comp Biochem Physiol B 154:387– 395.
- El-Bayoumy K. 2001. The protective role of selenium on genetic damage and on cancer. Mutat Res 475:123–139.
- Elbekai RH, Korashy HM, Wills K, Gharavi N, El-Kadi AO. 2004. Benzo[a]pyrene, 3-methylcholanthrene and βnaphthoflavone induce oxidative stress in hepatoma hepa 1c1c7 cells by an AHR-dependent pathway. Free Rad Res 38:1191– 1200.
- Feldmannova M, Hilscherova K, Marsalek B, Blaha L. 2006. Effects of N-heterocyclic polyaromatic hydrocarbons on survival reproduction and biochemical parameters in *Daphnia magna*. Environ Toxicol 21:425–431.
- Fenet H, Casellas C, Bontoux J. 1998. Laboratory and fieldcaging studies on hepatic enzymatic activities in European eel and Rainbow trout. Ecotoxicol Environ Saf 40:137–143.
- Finkel T, Holbrook NJ. 2000. Oxidants, oxidative stress and the biology of ageing. Nature 408:239–247.
- Guo F, Wang L, Wang WX. 2012. Acute and chronic toxicity of polychlorinated biphenyl 126 to *Tigriopus japonicus*: Effects on survival, growth, reproduction, and intrinsic rate of population growth. Environ Toxicol Chem 31:639–645.
- Henson KL, Stauffer G, Gallagher EP. 2001. Induction of glutathione S-transferase activity and protein expression in brown bullhead (*Ameiurus nebulosus*) liver by ethoxyquin. Toxicol Sci 62:54–60.
- Hu Z, Lee KS, Choo YM, Yoon HJ, Kim I, Wei YD, Gui ZZ, Zhang GZ, Sohn HD, Jin BR. 2010. Molecular characterization of a phospholipid-hydroperoxide glutathione peroxidase from the bumblebee *Bombus ignites*. Comp Biochem Physiol B 155: 54–61.
- Jo PG, Choi YK, Cho CY. 2008. Cloning and mRNA expression of antioxidant enzymes in the Pacific oyster, *Crassostrea gigas* in response to cadmium exposure. Comp Biochem Physiol C 147:460–469.
- Johnson BT. 1992. Potential genotoxicity of sediments from the great lakes. Environ Toxicol Water Qual Int J 7:373–390.

- Ki J-S, Raisuddin S, Lee, K-W, Hwang, D-S, Han J, Rhee J-S, Kim C, Park H-G, Ryu J-C, Lee J-S. 2009. Gene expression profiling of copper-induced responses in the intertidal copepod *Tigriopus japonicus* using a 6K oligochip microarray. Aquat Toxicol 93:177–187.
- Kim B-M, Rhee J-S, Lee J, Lee Y-M, Lee J-S. 2011. Cu/Zn- and Mn-Superoxide dismutase (*SOD*) from the copepod *Tigriopus japonicus*: Molecular cloning and expression in response to environmental pollutants. Chemosphere 84:1467–1475.
- Kim B-M, Choi B-S, Lee K-W, Ki J-S, Kim I-C, Choi I-Y, Rhee J-S, Lee J-S. 2013. Expression profile analysis of antioxidative stress and developmental pathway genes in the manganese-exposed intertidal copepod *Tigriopus japonicus* with 6K oligo-chip. Chemosphere 92:1214–1223.
- Kwok KW, Leung KM. 2005. Toxicity of antifouling biocides to the intertidal harpacticoid copepod *Tigriopus japonicus* (Crustacea, Copepoda): Effects of temperature and salinity. Mar Pollut Bull 51:830–837.
- LeBel CP, Ischiropoulos H, Bondy SC. 1992. Evaluation of the probe 2',7'- dichlorofluorescin as an indicator of reactive oxygen species formation and oxidative stress. Chem Res Toxicol 5:227–231.
- Lee Y-M, Lee K-W, Park H-G, Raisuddin S, Ahn I-Y, Lee J-S. 2007. Sequence, biochemical characteristics and expression of a novel Sigma-class of glutathione *S*-transferase from the intertidal copepod, *Tigriopus japonicus* with a possible role in antioxidant defense. Chemosphere 69:893–902.
- Lee K-W, Raisuddin S, Rhee J-S, Hwang D-S, Yu I-T, Lee M-Y, Park H-G, Lee J-S. 2008. Expression of glutathione *S*-transferase (GST) genes in the marine copepod *Tigriopus japonicus* exposed to trace metals. Aquat Toxicol 89:158–166.
- Lemaire P, Forlin L, Livingstone DR. 1996. Responses of hepatic biotransformation and antioxidant enzymes to CYP1A-inducers (3-methylcholanthrene, β-naphthoflavone) in sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*), dab (*Limanda limanda*) and rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*). Aquat Toxicol 36:141–160.
- Lesser MP. 2006. Oxidative stress in marine environments: Biochemistry and physiological ecology. Annu Rev Physiol 68: 253–278.
- Li WJ, Feng H, Fan JH, Zhang RQ, Zhao NM, Liu JY. 2000. Molecular cloning and expression of a phospholipid hydroperoxide glutathione peroxidase homolog in *Oryza sativa*. Biochim Biophys Acta 1493:225–230.
- Liu J, Zhang K, Ren X, Luo G, Shen J. 2004. Bioimprinted protein exhibits glutathione peroxidase activity. Anal Chim Acta 504:185–189.
- Livingstone DR. 2001. Contaminant-stimulated reactive oxygen production and oxidative damage in aquatic organisms. Mar Pollut Bull 42:656–666.
- Lu GH, Wang C, Zhu Z. 2009. The dose-response relationships for EROD and GST induced by polyaromatic hydrocarbons in *Carassius auratus*. Bull Environ Contam Toxicol 82:194–199.
- Marcial HS, Hagiwara A, Snell TW. 2003. Estrogenic compounds affect development of the harpacticoid copepod *Tigriopus japonicus*. Environ Toxicol Chem 22:3025–3030.

#### 342 RHEE ET AL.

- Maria VL, Correia AC, Santos MA. 2002. *Anguilla anguilla* L. biochemical and genotoxic responses to benzo(a)pyrene. Ecotoxicol Environ Saf 53:86–92.
- Marnett LJ. 2000. Oxyradicals and DNA damage. Carcinogenesis 21:361–370.
- Meyer JN, Nacci DE, Di Giulio RT. 2002. Cytochrome P4501A (CYP1A) in killifish (*Fundulus heteroclitus*): Heritability of altered expression and relationship to survival in contaminated sediments. Toxicol Sci 68:69–81.
- Nahrgang J, Camus L, Gonzalez P, Goksoyr A, Christiansen JS, Hop H. 2009. PAH biomarker responses in polar cod (*Boreogadus saida*) exposed to benzo(a)pyrene. Aquat Toxicol 94:309– 319.
- Oliveira M, Pacheco M, Santos MA. 2008. Organ specific antioxidant responses in golden grey mullet (*Liza aurata*) following a short-term exposure to phenanthrene. Sci Total Environ 396: 70–78.
- Olsvik PA, Heier LS, Rosseland BO, Teien HC, Salbu B. 2010. Effects of combined gamma-irradiation and metal (AI+Cd) exposures in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.). J Environ Radioact 101:230–236.
- Pacheco M, Santos MA. 1998. Induction of liver EROD and erythrocytic nuclear abnormalities by cyclophosphamide and PAHs in *Anguilla anguilla* L. Ecotoxicol Environ Saf 40:71– 76.
- Pradhan D, Weiser M, Lumley-Sapanski K, Frazier D, Kemper S, Williamson P, Schlegel RA, 1990. Peroxidation-induced perturbations of erythrocyte lipid organization. Biochim Biophys Acta 1023:398–404.
- Raisuddin S, Kwok KW, Leung KM, Schlenk D, Lee J-S. 2007. The copepod *Tigriopus*: A promising marine model organism for ecotoxicology and environmental genomics. Aquat Toxicol 83:161–173.
- Reichert K, Menzel R. 2005. Expression profiling of five different xenobiotics using a *Caenorhabditis elegans* whole genome microarray. Chemosphere 61:229–237.
- Rhee J-S, Lee Y-M, Hwang D-S, Won E-J, Raisuddin S, Shin K-H, Lee J-S. 2007. Molecular cloning, expression, biochemical characteristics, and biomarker potential of theta class glutathione S-transferase (GST-T) from the polychaete *Neanthes succinea*. Aquat Toxicol 83:104–115.
- Rhee J-S, Raisuddin S, Lee K-W, Seo JS, Ki J-S, Kim I-C, Park HG, Lee J-S. 2009. Heat shock protein (Hsp) gene responses of the intertidal copepod *Tigriopus japonicus* to environmental toxicants. Comp Biochem Physiol C 149:104–112.
- Rhee J-S, Kim B-M, Choi B-S, Lee J-S. 2012. Expression pattern analysis of DNA repair-related and DNA damage response

genes revealed by 55K oligomicroarray upon UV-B irradiation in the intertidal copepod, *Tigriopus japonicus*. Comp Biochem Physiol C 155:359–368.

- Rushmore TH, Morton MR, Pickett CB. 1991. The antioxidant responsive element. Activation by oxidative stress and identification of the DNA consensus sequence required for functional activity. J Biol Chem 266:11632–11639.
- Schlezinger JJ, Stegeman JJ. 2001. Induction and suppression of cytochrome P450 1A by 3,3',4,4',5-pentachlorobiphenyl and its relationship to oxidative stress in the marine fish scup (*Stenotomus chrysops*). Aquat Toxicol 52:101–115.
- Snape JR, Maund SJ, Pickford DB, Hutchinson TH. 2004. Ecotoxicogenomics: The challenge of integrating genomics into aquatic and terrestrial ecotoxicology. Aquat Toxicol 67:143– 154.
- Snyder MJ. 1998. Cytochrome P450 enzymes belonging to the CYP4 family from marine invertebrates. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 249:187–190.
- Stephensen E, Sturve J, Forlin L. 2002. Effects of redox cycling compounds on glutathione content and activity of glutathionerelated enzymes in rainbow trout liver. Comp Biochem Physiol C 133:435–442.
- Teles M, Pacheco M, Santos MA. 2003. *Anguilla anguilla* L. liver hoxyresorufin O-deethylation, glutathione S-transferase, erythrocytic nuclear abnormalities, and endocrine responses to naphthalene and β-naphthoflavone. Ecotoxicol Environ Saf 55:198–107.
- Thomas JP, Maiorino M, Ursini F, Girotti AW. 1990. Protective action of phospholipid hydroperoxide glutathione peroxidase against membrane-damaging lipid peroxidation. *In situ* reduction of phospholipid and cholesterol hydroperoxides. J Biol Chem 265:454–461.
- Timme-Laragy AR, van Tiem LA, Linney EA, Di Giulio RT. 2009. Antioxidant responses and NRF2 in synergistic developmental toxicity of PAHs in zebrafish. Toxicol Sci 109:217–227.
- Watanabe T, Kiron V, Satoh S. 1997. Trace minerals in fish nutrition. Aquaculture 151:185–207.
- Watanabe H, Kobayashi K, Kato Y, Oda S, Abe R, Tatarazako N, Iguchi T. 2008. Transcriptome profiling in crustaceans as a tool for ecotoxicogenomics. Cell Biol Toxicol 24:641–647.
- Zhang YS, Andersson T, Forlin L. 1990. Induction of hepatic xenobiotic biotransformation enzymes in rainbow trout by  $\beta$ -naphthoflavone. Time-course studies. Comp Biochem Physiol B 95:247–253.
- Zordoky BN, El-Kadi AO. 2007. H9c2 cell line is a valuable in vitro model to study drug metabolizing enzymes in the heart. J Pharmacol Toxicol Methods 56:317–322.