1 Implementation of a functional endpoint to the zebrafish

2 embryotoxicity test to evaluate craniofacial abnormalities.

3 Marta Barenys^{1*}, Anna Molins¹, Lola Amorós-Galicia¹, Burkhard Flick², Jesús Gómez-

4 Catalán¹

5 ¹ GRET, INSA-UB and Toxicology Unit, Department of Pharmacology, Toxicology and Therapeutical

6 Chemistry, Faculty of Pharmacy, University of Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain.

- ² Experimental Toxicology and Ecology, BASF SE, 67056, Ludwigshafen, Germany.
- 8 * Correspondence: mbarenys@ub.edu; Tel.: +34-93-402-0277

9 Abstract: The inclusion of a read-out to detect functional consequences of craniofacial alterations 10 in the zebrafish embryotoxicity test will allow to evaluate these alterations which are difficult to 11 assess morphologically, and to detect alterations in cranial nerves functions leading to impairment 12 of jaw movements. In this study we have established an ingestion test in zebrafish larvae younger 13 than 120 hpf. To overcome the challenge of evaluating larvae which still do not present independent 14 feeding behaviour, we have tested the ability of 72, 96 or 102 hpf larvae to ingest food mixed with 15 fluorescent microspheres under several conditions (dark/light, with/without shaking) to find the best 16 experimental set-up for the test. We have included the investigation of two substances as potential 17 positive controls: ketoconazole and tricaine. Ketoconazole 10 µM exposure during development 18 produced significant embryotoxic effects including a characteristic craniofacial alteration pattern 19 consisting in impaired development of brain, nasal cavity, mouth opening and jaw, as well as a 20 significant decrease in food intake. Tricaine exposure at 380 µM during the food availability period 21 significantly decreased the food intake. The method proposed will be a useful alternative tool to 22 animal testing to detect compounds inducing adverse effects on craniofacial development.

23

Keywords: alternative methods; feeding; swallowing; jaw; cleft-palate; ingestion;

24

hpf: hours post fertilization; EW: OECD water; SC: solvent control; SEM: standard error of the mean.

26 **1. Introduction**

27 Craniofacial malformations are one of the most common congenital defects, being orofacial clefts 28 the most frequent (Lowry, 1985; Martínez-Frías et al., 2010; Parker et al., 2010). The causes of these 29 malformations, either isolated or syndromic, are mostly unknown (Martínez-Frías et al., 2010), 30 therefore more research is needed to be able to prevent them. An alternative method to animal 31 experimentation to easily screen for craniofacial malformations would be a valuable tool to reduce the 32 costs, time and number of animals compared to the current in vivo testing strategies. However, the 33 formation of the craniofacial area is such a complex process that most in vitro tests cannot represent 34 it completely.

35 To this moment, the best alternative methods to reproduce craniofacial adverse effects observed 36 in vivo were those based on whole organism models: the whole rodent embryo culture and the 37 zebrafish embryo test (de Jong et al., 2011). In these tests the evaluation was mainly morphological 38 based on different scoring systems (Beekhuijzen et al., 2015; Brown and Fabro, 1981; Piersma et al., 39 2004; Stephan, 1991; Van Maele-Fabry et al., 1990) and when more precision was needed a double 40 staining of cartilage and bone was added to the zebrafish assay (Kimmel and Trammell, 1981; Walker 41 and Kimmel, 2007). However, with these techniques it is difficult to assess how morphological 42 alterations in early development relate to functional impairment. The assessment of functional 43 impairment could aid in the interpretation of the results of these techniques, specially by clarifying the 44 classification into variations or developmental toxicity, as in in vivo testing according to the OECD 45 guideline 414 (OECD/OCDE, 2018, 2001). In the guideline, variations are defined as "structural 46 changes considered to have little or no detrimental effect on the animal, may be transient and may 47 occur relatively frequently in the control population" (OECD/OCDE, 2018, 2001), while developmental 48 toxicity includes major manifestations as "death of the organism, structural abnormality, altered 49 growth, and functional deficiency" (OECD/OCDE, 2018, 2001). Based on these definitions, if a 50 functional deficiency could be observed in zebrafish embryos/larvae it would be clearly classified as 51 a developmental toxicity effect and could not be misplaced as a variation. As mentioned, craniofacial 52 alterations found in zebrafish do not allow yet to distinguish functional deficiencies as those findings 53 on toxicity testing of rats and rabbit do after decades of discussion (Solecki et al., 2003, 2001). 54 However, the use of zebrafish embryos opens the door to evaluate the inability to ingest food and 55 therefore add a functional endpoint to evaluate craniofacial alterations.

56 Although it has been described that zebrafish do not present independent feeding until 120 hours 57 post fertilization (hpf) and that they still relay on the given yolk, their digestive system is completely 58 formed 24 h before (Strähle et al., 2012). Because 120 hpf is the time when protected life stages in 59 animal welfare regulations start, our aim was to establish an ingestion test in zebrafish larvae younger than 120 hpf to be used as an alternative model in developmental toxicity. For that purpose, we 60 61 adapted a method previously applied to 7-9 days post fertilization (dpf) larvae which uses food mixed 62 with fluorescent microspheres (Field et al., 2009). The intention of establishing such an endpoint was 63 to have a functional read-out of a complex behavior which includes identification of the food (visually 64 or using chemosensation), capturing the food (opening and closing the mouth), and ingesting 65 (swallowing) (Kalueff et al., 2013). This evaluation would be very useful to i) check if craniofacial 66 morphological alterations have functional consequences, ii) evaluate in a more objective way 67 craniofacial alterations which are difficult to score morphologically, iii) detect alterations in cranial 68 nerves, which lead to impairment of jaw movements but with no musculoskeletal morphological effect. 69 To overcome the challenge of using larvae which still do not present independent feeding 70 behaviour, we have tested several conditions (dark/light, with/without shaking) in larvae of 72, 96 or 71 102 hpf to find the best experimental set-up to evaluate ingestion ability during these developmental 72 stages. Besides, we have investigated two chemicals which are likely to affect ingestion of the 73 zebrafish larvae by different mechanisms; ketoconazole most likely to interfere through craniofacial 74 morphological alterations (Amaral and Nunes, 2008; Menegola et al., 2006; Nishikawa et al., 1984) 75 and tricaine by suppressing movements needed for intake by blocking neuromuscular transmission 76 (Attili and Hughes, 2014; Hedrick and Winmill, 2003; Zahl et al., 2012).

77 2. Materials and Methods

The determination of the concentration-effect relationship of ketoconazole on morphological endpoints and the implementation of functional endpoints in the zebrafish embryo assay were performed in two different facilities. The differences in the protocols were confirmed to have no impact on the comparability of results in both laboratories.

82 2.1. Adult zebrafish maintenance and egg production

In the laboratory at the University of Barcelona (laboratory A), maintenance of the adult colony
 of zebrafish was approved by the Ethics Committee for Animal Experimentation of the University of

4 of 20

85 Barcelona (CEEA), accepted by the Department of Environment and Housing of the Generalitat de 86 Catalunya with the license number 334/18, and according to the Generalitat de Catalunya Decree 87 214/1997 of 30th of July, which regulates the use of animals for experimental and other scientific 88 purposes. Adult zebrafish (Danio rerio) from BCN Piscicultra Iberica; Terrassa, Spain, were kept in 89 tanks with a closed flow-through system in OECD water as specified in ISO 7346-1 and 7346-2 (ISO, 90 1996; 2 mM CaCl2·2H2O; 0.5 mM MgSO4 ·7H2O; 0.75 mM NaHCO3; 0.07 mM KCl). Animals were 91 maintained at 26 ± 1 °C on a 14 hours light and 10 hours dark cycle and were fed two times a day, 92 once with brine shrimp and once with dry flake food. The day before the test, adult male and female 93 were transferred to breeding tanks. Spawning was triggered once the light was turned on. Eggs 94 harvested between 1 and 2 hours after spawning were collected, cleaned with OECD water diluted 95 1:5 and selected under a dissection stereomicroscope.

96 In the laboratories at the BASF SE (laboratory B) maintenance of the adult colony was approved 97 by an AAALAC (Association for Assessment and Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care 98 International) certified laboratory. In-house bred wild type fish were kept in tanks with a single pass 99 flow-through system in OECD water. Animals were maintained at 26 ± 1 °C on a 16 hours light and 8 100 hours dark cycle and were fed two times a day, once with brine shrimp and once with dry flake food. 101 The day before the test, adult male and female were transferred to breeding tanks in pairs. Eggs 102 harvested between 1 and 2 hours after spawning were collected, cleaned with undiluted OECD water 103 and selected under a dissection microscope.

104 2.2. Zebrafish embryo assay conditions

105 Only fertilized eggs demonstrating homogenous synchronous development (between 16- and
106 256-cell stage) were selected.

107 In the laboratory at the University of Barcelona (laboratory A) they were randomly distributed 108 into 6-well plates (10 embryos/well), water was replaced by 5 mL of Danieau's solution 0.3X (17.4 109 mM NaCl; 0.23 mM KCl; 0.12 mM MgSO4 ·7H₂O; 0.18 mM Ca(NO₃)₂; 1.5 mM HEPES; pH 7,4) and 110 plates were incubated at 26 ± 1 °C. Danieau's solution was replaced (10 mL) after 24 h. In 111 experiments with ketoconazole (Santa Cruz Biotechnology; ≥99% purity; CAS-No. 65277-42-1), wells 112 were saturated with test solutions for 24 h prior to the start of the experiment, and test solutions were 113 freshly prepared and replaced at 0 hpf and 24 hpf. 6-well plates were filled with 5, 5, and 10 ml 114 solutions at -24, 0, and 24 hours, respectively.

In the laboratories at the BASF SE (laboratory B) eggs were randomly distributed in 24-well plates (1 embryo/well), water was replaced by 1 ml of OECD water, and replaced (1 ml) after 24 h. In experiments with ketoconazole (Sigma-Aldrich; \geq 99% purity; CAS-No. 65277-42-1), wells were saturated with test solutions for 24 h prior to the start of the experiment, and test solutions were freshly prepared and replaced at 0 hpf and 24 hpf. 24-well plates were filled with 1 ml at the same time points of culture.

121 For the determination of concentration-effect relationship of ketoconazole in the concentration 122 range from 0.1 to 33 µM in laboratory B three independent experiments aiming to use 12 embryos 123 per test group (finally resulting in sample size of 9 to 12 embryos per test group depending on 124 availability of suitable eggs) were performed. Two control groups were included each time 1) OECD 125 water (embryonic water - EW) and 2) vehicle control (0.5% DMSO, solvent control - SC). 126 Morphological evaluation of the embryos was performed at 120 hpf under a dissection microscope 127 using a morphological score with 39 parameters (Supplementary Table 1) including two criteria for 128 mortality (coagulation and/or heartbeat arrest), 13 parameters for general embryotoxicity and 24 129 parameters for specific embryotoxicity (Flick et al., 2017). For the evaluation the zebrafish were in 130 tricaine narcosis.

131 2.3. Fluorescent tracer

132 The fluorescent tracer was prepared as described in Field et al., (2009). Briefly, 100 mg of 133 powdered larval feed (Zebrafeed by Sparos <100 µm) were mixed on a watch glass with 150 µL of 134 yellow-green 2 µm fluorescent polystyrene microspheres (Invitrogen by Termo Fisher Scientific, 135 FluoSpheres TM carboxylate, 2.0 µm, yellow-green (505/515), Ref. F8827) and 50 µL of deionized 136 water. Ingredients were stirred until a paste was formed and it was spread as a thin layer. The mixture 137 was left overnight in the dark at room temperature to dry, and then was scraped from the glass and 138 grinded between two pieces of weighing paper to powder. The fluorescent tracer was stored in a 139 glass recipient at room temperature protected from the light.

140 2.4. Food administration

141 At 72 hpf, 96 hpf or 102 hpf, approximately 2 mg of tracer was added to each well of a 6-well 142 plate. The larvae were left at 26 ± 1 °C in the constant-temperature room with the tracer for 3 h. 143 Depending on the testing conditions (A to F) plates were stirred every 30 minutes (160-170 rpm, 10 144 s). After these 3 h, medium with tracer was removed and replaced with 5 ml of Danieau's solution 145 0.3X. Afterwards, larvae were transferred to a new well of another 6-well plate with new Danieau's 146 0.3X (5 mL). Larvae were placed individually on wells of 24-well plates and anesthetized by adding 147 650 µL tricaine 0.1% (ethyl 3-aminobenzoate methanesulfonate salt, by Sigma Aldrich, ≥98 % purity, 148 CAS-No. 886-86-2) per well. Larvae were analyzed using an inverted fluorescent microscope (Nikon 149 eclipse TS100) for presence/absence of fluorescence in the gastrointestinal tract (no quantification of 150 the amount ingested was intended). It was easily distinguishable the background fluorescence of the 151 yolk (see picture of condition A in Figure 1) from the food fluorescence in the gastrointestinal track 152 (see picture of conditions C and E in Figure 1). Pictures of representative larvae were taken from 153 different body parts using the same conditions for fluorescent channel exposure (200 ms) and 154 subsequently joining together the fragments with Adobe Photoshop CC®.

Tricaine (also known as 3-aminobenzoic acid ethyl ester or MS-222), the general anaesthetic used in fishes to suppress movement (Attili and Hughes, 2014; Hedrick and Winmill, 2003; Zahl et al., 2012), was selected as a compound to affect the 'food ingestion' endpoint. The conditions for this experimental group were established as follows: zebrafish embryos were grown under control conditions until 102 hpf. Fifteen minutes before adding the fluorescent food, medium was replaced by tricaine 380 µM in Danieau's solution 0.3X. Fluorescent food was then added to the wells for 3 h under light and shaking conditions.

162 2.5. Statistics

163 Statistical analysis was performed with GraphPad Prism software v7. Statistical comparisons 164 were made with two-tailed t-test, Fisher's exact test or one-way ANOVA as indicated in each graph 165 or table. Significance threshold was established at $p \le 0.05$.

166 **3. Results**

167 3.1. Establishment of experimental conditions

To establish the feeding test in larvae under 120 hpf, several conditions were tested. Starting conditions were based on a previous publication of Field et al., (2009), where 7 dpf larvae were fed food mixed with fluorescent microspheres, but some adaptations were made: only larvae between 3 and 4.5 dpf were used, food availability period was extended from 2 to 3 hours, larvae were visualized immediately after removing the food instead of waiting 3, 6, 12 or 24 h, and light/dark and/or shakingconditions were applied during the feeding time.

174 Zebrafish larvae open the mouth first at 72 hpf (Kimmel et al., 1995), so this was the point chosen 175 for the initial test condition (A). However, at this early developmental stage almost no larvae ingested 176 food (Figure 1, condition A; mean \pm SEM= 3% \pm 3). As liver, pancreas and gut are formed at 76 hpf 177 and anus opens at 96 hpf (Field et al., 2003a, 2003b; Strähle et al., 2012), we waited until the whole 178 digestive system was formed (96 hpf) for condition B. At this point, approximately 50% of larvae were 179 ingesting fluorescent food (mean \pm SEM= 48% \pm 11) which represented a significant increase from 180 condition A. Considering that larvae at these stages are mainly inactive and they only start to actively 181 swim freely after 120 hpf (Strähle et al., 2012), and also that in locomotion tests, darkness is described 182 to increase locomotion (MacPhail et al., 2009; McDougall et al., 2016), we introduced two 183 modifications to the protocol: shaking of plates every 30 minutes (C and D) and/or feeding under dark 184 conditions (D). Besides, the number of larvae tested per group was increased from 10 to 20. The 185 inclusion of shaking every 30 minutes significantly increased the percentage of larvae ingesting 186 compared to condition B, but only under light conditions (Figure 1, condition C; mean ± SEM= 76% ± 187 5). To finally check if the conditions could still be improved without exceeding the 120 hpf, we tested 188 the ingestion of 102 hpf larvae, again under light and dark conditions, and including shaking in both 189 cases. At 102 hpf under light and shaking conditions the highest percentage with the lowest SEM was 190 obtained (mean \pm SEM= 89% \pm 0.3). At this time-point, again, the percentage of larvae ingesting was 191 lower under dark conditions. In view of these results, condition E was selected for further experiments.





193 Figure 1. Summary of timelines of the six different experimental conditions assayed to establish the 194 ingestion test. Shaking of 6-well plates every 30 minutes is indicated with circular arrows. Graph 195 represents the percentage of larvae with fluorescence in the gastrointestinal tract for all conditions 196 tested. Results presented as mean ± SEM of at least three independent experiments with 10 (A and 197 B) or 20 (C to F) larvae per group and experiment. *: p ≤ 0.05 versus the group indicated in letters 198 underneath by ANOVA and Holm-Sidak test. Representative pictures of a larvae from each age 199 tested: A (72 hpf) showing no fluorescence; C (96 hpf) showing fluorescence in the oesophagus and 200 the stomach; and E (102 hpf) with fluorescence in the stomach, intestine and outside the cloaca.

201 3.2. Establishment of positive controls

Following the recommendations for developing alternative methods for the screening and prioritization of chemicals (Crofton and Mundy, 2011), two substances considered as potential positive controls of the test. Two positive controls reliably and consistently altering the end-point by two different known mechanisms were established.

206 3.2.1. Induction of craniofacial malformations with ketoconazole.

Ketoconazole was selected as potential endpoint-specific control for the induction of craniofacial alterations because this azole-derivative is known to induce craniofacial malformations in rats *in vivo*, including induction of cleft palate (Amaral and Nunes, 2008; Nishikawa et al., 1984) and in rat embryos *in vitro*, including abnormalities in branchial arches (Menegola et al., 2006). 211 A broad concentration range study was conducted in the laboratories at the BASF SE (laboratory 212 B) to evaluate developmental toxicity of ketoconazole in zebrafish embryos. At 120 hpf there was no 213 mortality or alterations higher than 10% in any parameter of the morphological score in any control 214 group (control and solvent control) demonstrating the validity of the three performed experiments. 215 After exposure to increasing concentrations of ketoconazole between 0.1 and 3 µM the results were 216 comparable to the solvent control in mortality and general as well as specific embryotoxicity. At 10 217 µM the incidence of mortality was still comparable to controls, but the percentages of general and 218 specific embryotoxicity were significantly increased (mean \pm SEM= 97.3% \pm 2.7 and 58.3% \pm 29.3, 219 respectively; Figure 2). As ketoconazole exposure at 33 µM was lethal to all embryos in all 220 experiments, no further assessment of morphological alterations at this concentration is given. 221 Summarizing these results of laboratory B, 10 µM exposure represents the lowest observed adverse 222 effect concentration (LOAEC) of ketoconazole based on the findings in the morphological score for 223 general and specific embryotoxicity (Figure 2).

224

225





227 Figure 2. Graph summarizing the percentages of larvae presenting: specific embryotoxicity (green), 228 general embryotoxicity (gray) and mortality (black) as mean ± SEM of three independent experiments 229 performed in laboratory B for increasing concentrations of ketoconazole. Statistical analysis 230 performed with one-way ANOVA and statistical significance (*) defined as p ≤0.05 versus solvent 231 control. EW: embryo water; SC: solvent control (0.5% DMSO). Representative pictures of 120 hpf 232 larvae from solvent control, 1, 3 and 10 µM groups, with magnification of the craniofacial area of the 233 same larvae, and black arrows indicating the specific embryotoxic effects detected in the craniofacial 234 area.

235 Looking in detail at the individual parameters of the morphological score (Table 1) representing 236 general embryotoxicity, a significant increase in pericard oedema was found at 3.3 µM. However, this 237 finding was not observed at 10 µM and there was no concentration-dependency, so it was considered 238 to be spontaneous and not related to the treatment. The 10 µM concentration, significantly increased 239 parameters related with general embryotoxicity like yolk sac still present and overall degeneration. 240 For those parameters related with specific embryotoxicity, at 3.3 µM four out of 24 parameters were 241 slightly increased, but since the incidences were below or only slightly above 10%, and were not 242 significant, these findings were considered spontaneous and comparable to the controls. At 10 μ M, 243 however, the same four parameters: brain impairment, nasal cavity impairment, mouth opening 244 impairment and jaw impairment were all significantly increased. The combination of these 245 manifestations represents a pattern of craniofacial alteration in the zebrafish. Since the increase in 246 the other 20 of 24 parameters for specific embryotoxicity was not significant (very low percentages), 247 it was concluded that this craniofacial altered pattern is characteristic for ketoconazole in the zebrafish 248 embryo assay.

249

Classification	Parameter of								
of findings	morphological				Ke	etocon	azole [µ	IM]	
	score	EW	SC	0.1	0.3	1	3.3	10	33
Mortality	coagulated	0%	0%	0%	6%	6%	3%	8%	100%*
General									
embryotoxicity	yolk still present	3%	3%	0%	0%	0%	0%	58%*	
	overall	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	33%*	
	degenerated	0 /0	0 /0	0 /0	0 /0	0 /0	0 /0	3370	
	unhatched	3%	0%	0%	6%	6%	0%	13%	
	pericard	0%	0%	3%	0%	0%	18%*	0%	
	oedema	0%	0%	3%	0%	0%	1070	0%	
Specific									
craniofacial	brain	00/	20/	0%	0%	0%	12%	58%*	
embryotoxicity	impairment	0%	3%	0%	0%	0%	12%	20%	
	nasal cavity	00/	20/	00/	00/	00/	00/	200/*	
	impairment	0%	3%	0%	0%	0%	9%	39%*	

mouth opening	0%	3%	0%	0%	0%	6%	39%*
impairment							
jaw impairment	0%	3%	0%	0%	0%	9%	58%*

251	Table 1. Summary of the percentages of larvae per test group with alterations (expressed as
252	frequencies) corresponding to each parameter evaluated in the morphological score and classified as
253	mortality, general embryotoxicity or specific craniofacial toxicity. Results obtained in laboratory B.
254	Statistical analysis performed with Fisher's exact test and statistical significance (*) defined as p≤0.05
255	versus solvent control. EW: embryo water; SC: solvent control (0.5% DMSO).

256

257 From these results, the 10 µM concentration was preliminarily selected to be tested in laboratory 258 A (University of Barcelona) as a potential positive control for the ingestion test. A first range finding 259 experiment with four concentrations of ketoconazole (1, 5, 10 and 20 µM) was performed to test the 260 inter-laboratory reproducibility of the effective concentrations (Supplementary Table 2). After 72h of 261 exposure, at 20 µM of ketoconazole 100% of mortality was found while at 5 µM no craniofacial 262 adverse effects were observed (n=1). Therefore, the 10 µM concentration was finally selected and 263 zebrafish embryos were grown under exposure to this concentration of ketoconazole until 102 hpf, 264 when fluorescent food was added to the wells for 3 h under light and shaking conditions. As expected, 265 10 µM ketoconazole exposure induced a significant increase in craniofacial alterations (mean ± SEM= 266 $40.7\% \pm 5.4$) without significantly increasing mortality (mean \pm SEM= 8.3% \pm 3.3). Moreover, a 267 significantly lower percentage of larvae with fluorescence presence in the gastrointestinal tract was 268 observed at this concentration (Figure 3; mean \pm SEM= 52.1% \pm 13.5).

269 3.2.2. Inhibition of neuromuscular transmission with tricaine.

Tricaine exposure during the food availability time, completely reduced the number of larvae with fluorescence presence in the gastrointestinal tract (mean \pm SEM= 1.7% \pm 1.7; Figure 3).





274 Figure 3. Graph representing the percentage of larvae with fluorescence in the gastrointestinal tract 275 for the solvent control and two tested substances: ketoconazole 10 µM and tricaine 380 µM. Results 276 presented as mean ± SEM of three independent experiments with 20 larvae per group and 277 experiment. *: $p \le 0.05$ versus control by two-tailed t-test. Representative pictures of a larvae from 278 each condition tested: Solvent Control (0.1% DMSO) showing fluorescence in the stomach and 279 intestine; ketoconazole 10 µM with craniofacial alterations (black arrow) and no fluorescence; tricaine 280 380 µM without food fluorescence in the gastrointestinal tract and showing the variability in natural 281 fluorescence of the yolk sac area.

- 282
- 283

284

285

286 4. Discussion

This study presents the methodology to implement the functional endpoint 'food ingestion' to the zebrafish embryotoxicity test to add the final adverse outcome 'food ingestion impairment' to the evaluation of craniofacial abnormalities. It is important to remark that the endpoint is evaluated before 120 hpf and can therefore be included as part of a battery of alternative tests to animal experimentation according to the animal welfare law in most regions.

Previous evaluations on food intake behavior of zebrafish larvae already determined that they are not able to feed independently until 120 hpf. Belanger et al., (2010) evaluated their intake abilities at 96 hpf and observed that 0% of larvae ingested food, while at 120 hpf 75 to 85% did. These findings could seem contradictory with our results at 96 hpf, but this is not strictly true, as several conditions were changed in order to increase the chances of food intake observation. While the study of Belanger et al., (2010) aimed at recreating conditions similar to the natural environment of zebrafish to assess the development of their feeding skills, our aim was to create an artificial situation favoring the 299 maximum food intake. In their study, food was available for only 1 h while in our protocol it was 300 available for 3 h. Their food were fluorescent protozoa or protozoa mixed with fluorescent 301 microspheres while ours was processed food with fluorescent microspheres. Maybe ingestion of alive 302 and moving food requires more coordination of movements for pray tracking and capturing than non-303 moving food. Besides, their embryos were grown at 25 ± 1 °C and ours at 26 ± 1°C which could 304 explain a slightly faster development under our conditions. But the critical difference was the addition 305 of shaking every 30 minutes during the 3 h of availability of food. The inclusion of this step in the 306 methodology forced the larvae to swim and significantly increased the chances of food intake 307 observation, while in other studies, larvae probably remained immobile during the short time of food 308 exposure (Strähle et al., 2012). Our work shows that parameters like developmental stage, duration 309 of food availability, kind of food, light intensity and forced swimming conditions have a clear influence 310 on food intake behavior before 120 hpf. It is important to remark that none of the conditions tested 311 achieved a 100% of larvae ingesting food in any of the experiments, indicating that at the tested time-312 points, even under the most favorable conditions, not all larvae have developed the ability to ingest 313 food. Although the yolk of the zebrafish embryos was significantly decreased during the culture, it 314 was still present at 102 hpf ensuring the nutrition supply.

315 From all the conditions tested in this study, 102 hpf was selected as the best time-point to perform 316 the test because it had the highest percentage of larvae ingesting food and the lowest variability 317 among experiments. However, depending on the desired dynamic range of the test, e.g. to detect an 318 increase in the % of larvae ingesting food after developmental exposure to a compound, 96 hpf could 319 also be a valid time-point. The disadvantage of the 96 hpf time-point is a high variability among 320 different experiments that could fail to detect small increases/decreases in the percentage of larvae 321 ingesting food or to identify the effects of compounds which induce alterations with high variability in 322 results too.

To prove that following the proposed methodology it is possible to detect decreases in the evaluated endpoint, we investigated two chemicals acting by different mechanisms. The first substance tested was ketoconazole, an azole-derivative that induces craniofacial malformations in rats *in vivo* (Amaral and Nunes, 2008; Nishikawa et al., 1984) and *in vitro* in the post-implantation whole embryo culture (Menegola et al., 2006). Our evaluation of the adverse effects of ketoconazole detected a characteristic pattern of craniofacial malformations at 10 µM consisting in alterations of brain, nasal cavity, mouth opening and jaw. In previous studies in rat embryos, the NOAEL was 330 established at 5 µM, the first significant increase in the percentage of malformed embryos was 331 detected at 10 µM and approximately 70% of embryos presented branchial arch malformations at 50 332 μM (Menegola et al., 2006). Therefore, it can be concluded that ketoconazole produces craniofacial 333 adverse effects in a similar concentration range in zebrafish and in rat embryos in vitro. To the best 334 of our knowledge, this is the first time that craniofacial adverse effects of ketoconazole have been 335 reproduced in zebrafish embryos. Ketoconazole was previously investigated using zebrafish in the 336 US EPA ToxCast program (Truong et al., 2014). However, in this screening program, which includes 337 more than 1000 compounds, no detailed concentration ranges of effective concentrations could be 338 investigated for all test compounds to identify the specific morphological pattern detectable around 339 the LOAEC for each test substance. The investigated concentration range by ToxCast (0.064 - 64 340 μ M overlaps with our concentration range tested (0.1 – 33 μ M) but our smaller dilution factor of 3 341 instead of 10 offered a more precise detection of the LOAEC.

The characterization of the developmental adverse effects of ketoconazole in zebrafish has been performed in a different lab than the food intake assessment. However, the concentration-effect relationship determined for ketoconazole in both laboratories was comparable demonstrating the robustness of the zebrafish embryo assay. The differences in the protocol, mentioned in material and methods, including different zebrafish strains, culture vessels, light/dark periods, mating procedure, etc., did not bias the comparability of results in case of ketoconazole testing.

348 Food intake in embryos developmentally exposed to ketoconazole 10 µM was significantly 349 decreased compared to solvent control (mean \pm SEM= 52.1% \pm 13.5). Although at 10 μ M exposure 350 general embryotoxicity was also observed in 97% of embryos (Figure 2, gray line), still approximately 351 50% of them were ingesting food which indicates that, in this particular case, this general 352 embryotoxicity was not an impairment for food ingestion. This is important, as the aim of the test is to 353 detect functional consequences of specific craniofacial adverse effects. A limitation of the test is that 354 in case of severe general retardation of development in the embryos, a decrease in the percentage 355 of larvae ingesting food would be expected. It is therefore strongly recommended to register general 356 parameters of development like yolk sac size to detect general embryotoxicity (Supplementary Table 357 1) to improve the selectivity of the endpoint. Nevertheless, small retardations do not suppose an 358 impairment for feeding under the conditions established, as already shown in this study. Accordingly 359 to this evaluation, ketoconazole 10 µM exposure during development was selected as positive control 360 for the test.

361 The second test substance selected was tricaine at concentration 380 µM. In this case, there 362 was no developmental exposure to the compound, but just exposure from 15 minutes before and 363 during the 3 h of food availability. The percentage of larvae ingesting food was significantly decreased. 364 This shows that the endpoint is not only altered when embryos have craniofacial malformations, but 365 also when zebrafishes cannot coordinate craniofacial movements. This condition was therefore 366 selected as a suitable positive control to inhibit the active and coordinated facial movements needed 367 for ingestion, e.g. moving the jaw to open and close the mouth or swallowing. As an active behavior 368 is required for feeding, the test could also be used in the future to evaluate developmental 369 neurotoxicity, as changes in feeding behavior can reflect changes in swimming/lethargy status as well 370 as problems in more refined coordination.

Considering all results presented, we can confirm that the method proposed enables the implementation of the assessment of the adverse outcome "impaired food intake ability" in zebrafish larvae younger than 120 hpf. This new end-point will be a useful alternative tool to animal testing to detect compounds inducing adverse effects on craniofacial development.

Acknowledgments: This research work was supported by funds from Fundació Bosch i Gimpera, project
 number FBG-300155. We thank Martí Ducable, Laura Castro and the staff of the zebrafish facility (CCiTUB) for
 their excellent technical support and Lydia Camps for valuable manuscript revision.

378

379 References

- 380 Amaral, V.C.D.S., Nunes, G.P., 2008. Ketoconazole- and fluconazole-induced embryotoxicity and skeletal
- anomalies in Wistar rats: A comparative study. Brazilian Arch. Biol. Technol. 51, 1153–1161.
- 382 https://doi.org/10.1590/S1516-89132008000600010
- 383 Attili, S., Hughes, S.M., 2014. Anaesthetic tricaine acts preferentially on neural voltage-gated sodium channels
- and fails to block directly evoked muscle contraction. PLoS One 9.
- 385 https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0103751
- 386 Beekhuijzen, M., de Koning, C., Flores-Guill??n, M.E., de Vries-Buitenweg, S., Tobor-Kaplon, M., van de
- 387 Waart, B., Emmen, H., 2015. From cutting edge to guideline: A first step in harmonization of the

- 388 zebrafish embryotoxicity test (ZET) by describing the most optimal test conditions and morphology
- 389 scoring system. Reprod. Toxicol. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.reprotox.2015.06.050
- 390 Belanger, S.E., Balon, E.K., Rawlings, J.M., 2010. Saltatory ontogeny of fishes and sensitive early life stages
- for ecotoxicology tests. Aquat. Toxicol. 97, 88–95. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquatox.2009.11.020
- 392 Brown, N.A., Fabro, S., 1981. Quantitation of rat embryonic development in vitro: a morphological scoring
- 393 system. Teratology 24, 65–78. https://doi.org/10.1002/tera.1420240108
- 394 Crofton, K., Mundy, W., 2011. Developmental neurotoxicity testing: recommendations for developing
- 395 alternative methods for the screening and prioritization of chemicals. ALTEX 28, 9–15.
- 396 https://doi.org/10.14573/altex.2011.1.009
- de Jong, E., Barenys, M., Hermsen, S.A.B., Verhoef, A., Ossendorp, B.C., Bessems, J.G.M., Piersma, A.H.,
- 398 2011. Comparison of the mouse Embryonic Stem cell Test, the rat Whole Embryo Culture and the
- 399 Zebrafish Embryotoxicity Test as alternative methods for developmental toxicity testing of six 1,2,4-
- 400 triazoles. Toxicol. Appl. Pharmacol. 253, 103–111. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.taap.2011.03.014
- 401 Field, H.A., Kelley, K.A., Martell, L., Goldstein, A.M., Serluca, F.C., 2009. Analysis of gastrointestinal
- 402 physiology using a novel intestinal transit assay in zebrafish. Neurogastroenterol. Motil. 21, 304–312.
- 403 https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2982.2008.01234.x
- 404 Field, H.A., Ober, E.A., Roeser, T., Stainier, D.Y.R., 2003a. Formation of the digestive system in zebrafish. I.
- 405 Liver morphogenesis. Dev. Biol. 253, 279–290. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0012-1606(02)00017-9
- 406 Field, H.A., Si Dong, P.D., Beis, D., Stainier, D.Y.R., 2003b. Formation of the digestive system in zebrafish. II.
- 407 Pancreas morphogenesis. Dev. Biol. 261, 197–208. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0012-1606(03)00308-7
- 408 Flick, B., Salinas, E.R., Birk, B., Otte, J., Ramirez, T., Hidding, B., Landsiedel, R., van Ravenzwaay, B., 2017.
- 409 How to use the endpoints of a zebrafish embryotoxicity assay?, in: German Pharm-Tox Summit 2017.

- 410 Hedrick, M.S.M.S., Winmill, R.E.R.E., 2003. Excitatory and inhibitory effects of tricaine (MS-222) on fictive
- 411 breathing in isolated bullfrog brain stem. Am. J. Physiol. Regul. Integr. Comp. Physiol. 284, R405-12.
- 412 https://doi.org/10.1152/ajpregu.00418.2002
- 413 Kalueff, A. V., Gebhardt, M., Stewart, A.M., Cachat, J.M., Brimmer, M., Chawla, J.S., Craddock, C., Kyzar,
- 414 E.J., Roth, A., Landsman, S., Gaikwad, S., Robinson, K., Baatrup, E., Tierney, K., Shamchuk, A., Norton,
- 415 W., Miller, N., Nicolson, T., Braubach, O., Gilman, C.P., Pittman, J., Rosemberg, D.B., Gerlai, R.,
- 416 Echevarria, D., Lamb, E., Neuhauss, S.C.F., Weng, W., Bally-Cuif, L., Schneider, and the Zebrafish
- 417 Neuros, H., 2013. Towards a Comprehensive Catalog of Zebrafish Behavior 1.0 and Beyond. Zebrafish
- 418 10, 70–86. https://doi.org/10.1089/zeb.2012.0861
- 419 Kimmel, C.A., Trammell, C., 1981. A rapid procedure for routine double staining of cartilage and bone in fetal
- 420 and adult animals. Stain Technol. 56, 271–273.
- 421 Kimmel, C.B., Ballard, W.W., Kimmel, S.R., Ullmann, B., Schilling, T.F., 1995. Stages of embryonic
- 422 development of the zebrafish. Dev. Dyn. https://doi.org/10.1002/aja.1002030302
- 423 Lowry, R.B., 1985. Common Congenital Anomalies. Can. Fam. Physician 31, 1033–1037.
- 424 MacPhail, R.C., Brooks, J., Hunter, D.L., Padnos, B., Irons, T.D., Padilla, S., 2009. Locomotion in larval
- 425 zebrafish: Influence of time of day, lighting and ethanol. Neurotoxicology 30, 52–58.
- 426 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuro.2008.09.011
- 427 Martínez-Frías, M.L., Bermejo, E., Cuevas, L., Periférico Del Ecemc, G., 2010. ANÁLISIS CLÍNICO-
- 428 EPIDEMOLÓGICO DE LOS RECIÉN NACIDOS CON DEFECTOS CONGÉNITOS REGISTRADOS EN
- 429 EL ECEMC: DISTRIBUCIÓN POR ETIOLOGÍA Y POR GRUPOS ÉTNICOS. Boletín del ECEMC 9, 20-
- 430 41.
- 431 McDougall, M.Q., Choi, J., Stevens, J.F., Truong, L., Tanguay, R.L., Traber, M.G., 2016. Lipidomics and

- 432 H2(18)O labeling techniques reveal increased remodeling of DHA-containing membrane phospholipids
- 433 associated with abnormal locomotor responses in α-tocopherol deficient zebrafish (danio rerio) embryos.
- 434 Redox Biol. 8, 165–174. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.redox.2016.01.004
- 435 Menegola, E., Broccia, M.L., Renzo, F.D., Giavini, E., 2006. Dysmorphogenic effects of some fungicides
- 436 derived from the imidazole on rat embryos cultured in vitro. Reprod. Toxicol.
- 437 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.reprotox.2005.07.008
- 438 Nishikawa, S., Hara, T., Miyazaki, H., Ohguro, Y., 1984. Reproduction studies of KW-1414 in rats and rabbits.
- 439 Clin Rep. 18, 1433–88.
- 440 OECD/OCDE, 2018. OECD/OCDE 414: OECD guideline for the testing of chemicals: Prenatal developmental
- toxicity study 1–14.
- 442 OECD/OCDE, 2001. OECD guideline for the testing of chemicals: proposal for updating guideline 414. Guidel.
- 443 Test. Chem. 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264067394-eng
- 444 Parker, S.E., Mai, C.T., Canfield, M.A., Rickard, R., Wang, Y., Meyer, R.E., Anderson, P., Mason, C.A., Collins,
- 445 J.S., Kirby, R.S., Correa, A., 2010. Updated national birth prevalence estimates for selected birth defects
- in the United States, 2004-2006. Birth Defects Res. Part A Clin. Mol. Teratol. 88, 1008–1016.
- 447 https://doi.org/10.1002/bdra.20735
- 448 Piersma, A.H., Genschow, E., Verhoef, A., Spanjersberg, M.Q.I., Brown, N.A., Brady, M., Burns, A., Clemann,
- 449 N., Seiler, A., Spielmann, H., 2004. Validation of the postimplantation rat whole-embryo culture test in the
- 450 international ECVAM validation study on three in vitro embryotoxicity tests. Altern. Lab. Anim. 32, 275–
- 451 307.
- 452 Solecki, R., Bergmann, B., Burgin, H., Buschmann, J., Clark, R., Druga, A., Van Duijnhoven, E.A.J., Duverger,
- 453 M., Edwards, J., Freudenberger, H., Guittin, P., Hakaite, P., Heinrich-Hirsch, B., Hellwig, J., Hofmann, T.,

454	Hubel, U., Khalil, S., Klaus, A. maria, Kudicke, S., Lingk, W., Meredith, T., Moxon, M., Muller, S., Paul,
455	M., Paumgartten, F., Rohrdanz, E., Pfeil, R., Rauch-Ernst, M., Seed, J., Spezia, F., Vickers, C., Woelffel,
456	B., Chahoud, I., 2003. Harmonization of rat fetal external and visceral terminology and classification.
457	Report of the Fourth Workshop on the Terminology in Developmental Toxicology, Berlin, 18-20 April
458	2002. Reprod. Toxicol.
459	Solecki, R., Burgin, H., Buschmann, J., Clark, R., Duverger, M., Fialkowski, O., Guittin, P., Hazelden, K.P.,
460	Hellwig, J., Hoffmann, E., Hofmann, T., Hubel, U., Khalil, S., Lingk, W., Mantovani, A., Moxon, M., Muller
461	S., Parkinson, M., Paul, M., Paumgartten, F., Pfeil, R., Platzek, T., Rauch-Ernst, M., Scheevelenbos, A.,
462	Seed, J., Talsness, C.E., Yasuda, M., Younes, M., Chahoud, I., 2001. Harmonisation of rat fetal skeletal

- 463 terminology and classification. Report of the Third Workshop on the Terminology in Developmental
- 464 Toxicology. Berlin, 14-16 September 2000. Reprod. Toxicol.
- 465 Stephan, K., 1991. Whole embryo culture: Interpretation of abnormal development in vitro. Reprod. Toxicol. 5,

466 237–244.

- 467 Strähle, U., Scholz, S., Geisler, R., Greiner, P., Hollert, H., Rastegar, S., Schumacher, A., Selderslaghs, I.,
- 468 Weiss, C., Witters, H., Braunbeck, T., 2012. Zebrafish embryos as an alternative to animal experiments-
- 469 A commentary on the definition of the onset of protected life stages in animal welfare regulations.
- 470 Reprod. Toxicol. 33, 128–132. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.reprotox.2011.06.121
- 471 Truong, L., Reif, D.M., St Mary, L., Geier, M.C., Truong, H.D., Tanguay, R.L., 2014. Multidimensional In Vivo
- 472 Hazard Assessment Using Zebrafish. Toxicol. Sci. 137, 212–233. https://doi.org/10.1093/toxsci/kft235
- 473 Van Maele-Fabry, G., Delhaise, F., Picard, J.J., 1990. Morphogenesis and quantification of the development of
- 474 post-implantation mouse embryos. Toxicol. Vitr. 4, 149–156.
- 475 Walker, M.B., Kimmel, C.B., 2007. A two-color acid-free cartilage and bone stain for zebrafish larvae. Biotech.

476 Histochem. 82, 23–28. https://doi.org/10.1080/10520290701333558

- 477 Zahl, I.H., Samuelsen, O., Kiessling, A., 2012. Anaesthesia of farmed fish: Implications for welfare. Fish
- 478 Physiol. Biochem. 38, 201–218. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10695-011-9565-1