

Toxic effects of sodium dodecyl sulfate on planarian *Dugesia japonica*

Minmin Feng^{Equal first author, 1}, Zhenbiao Xu^{Equal first author, 1}, Dandan Yin¹, Zelong Zhao¹, Xiuyuan Zhou¹, Linxia Song^{Corresp. 1}

¹ School of Life Sciences and Medicine, Shandong University of Technology, Zibo, China

Corresponding Author: Linxia Song
Email address: slxch@163.com

Sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) is an anionic surfactant, which is widely used in various fields in human life. However, SDS discharged into the water environment has a certain impact on aquatic organisms. In this study, planarian *Dugesia japonica* (*D. japonica*) was used to identify the toxic effects of SDS. A series of SDS solutions with different concentrations were used to treat planarians for the acute toxicity test, and the results showed that the semi-lethal concentration (LC_{50}) of SDS to *D. japonica* at 24 h, 48 h, 72 h, and 96 h were 4.29 mg/L, 3.76 mg/L, 3.45 mg/L, and 3.20 mg/L respectively. After the planarians were exposed to 0.5 mg/L and 1.0 mg/L SDS solutions for 1, 3, and 5 days, the activities of superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase (CAT), and malondialdehyde (MDA) content were measured to detect the oxidative stress and lipid peroxidation in planarians. Random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) analysis was performed to detect the genotoxicity caused by SDS to planarians. The results showed that the activities of SOD, CAT, and MDA content increased after the treatment, indicating that SDS induced oxidative stress in planarians. RAPD analysis showed that the genomic template stability (GTS) values of planarians treated by 0.5 mg/L and 1.0 mg/L SDS for 1, 3, and 5 days were 67.86%, 64.29%, 58.93%, and 64.29%, 60.71%, 48.21%, respectively. GTS values decreased with the increasing of SDS concentration and exposure time, indicating that SDS had genotoxicity to planarians in a time and dose-related manner. Fluorescent quantitative PCR (qPCR) was used to investigate the effects of SDS on gene expression of planarians. After the planarians were exposed to 1.0 mg/L SDS solution for 1, 3, and 5 days, the expression of *caspase3* was upregulated, and that of *piwiA*, *piwiB*, *PCNA*, *cyclinB*, and *RAD51* were downregulated. These results suggested that SDS might induce apoptosis, affect cell proliferation, differentiation, and DNA repair ability of planarian cells and cause toxic effects on planarian *D. japonica*.

1 Toxic effects of sodium dodecyl sulfate on planarian *Dugesia japonica*

2 Minmin Feng^{Equal first author, 1}, Zhenbiao Xu^{Equal first author, 1}, Dandan Yin¹, Zelong Zhao¹, Xiuyuan Zhou¹, Linxia

3 Song^{Corresp. 1}

4 ¹School of Life Sciences and Medicine, Shandong University of Technology, Zibo 255049, China.

5 Corresponding Author: Corresp. 1

6 Linxia Song¹

7 School of Life Sciences and Medicine, Shandong University of Technology, Zibo 255049, China.

8 Email address: slxch@163.com

9 Abstract

10 Sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) is an anionic surfactant, which is widely used in various
 11 fields in human life. However, SDS discharged into the water environment has a certain impact
 12 on aquatic organisms. In this study, planarian *Dugesia japonica* (*D. japonica*) was used to
 13 identify the toxic effects of SDS. A series of SDS solutions with different concentrations were
 14 used to treat planarians for the acute toxicity test, and the results showed that the semi-lethal
 15 concentration (LC₅₀) of SDS to *D. japonica* at 24 h, 48 h, 72 h, and 96 h were 4.29 mg/L, 3.76
 16 mg/L, 3.45 mg/L, and 3.20 mg/L respectively. After the planarians were exposed to 0.5 mg/L
 17 and 1.0 mg/L SDS solutions for 1, 3, and 5 days, the activities of superoxide dismutase (SOD),
 18 catalase (CAT), and malondialdehyde (MDA) content were measured to detect the oxidative
 19 stress and lipid peroxidation in planarians. Random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD)
 20 analysis was performed to detect the genotoxicity caused by SDS to planarians. The results
 21 showed that the activities of SOD, CAT, and MDA content increased after the treatment,
 22 indicating that SDS induced oxidative stress in planarians. RAPD analysis showed that the
 23 genomic template stability (GTS) values of planarians treated by 0.5 mg/L and 1.0 mg/L SDS for
 24 1, 3, and 5 days were 67.86%, 64.29%, 58.93%, and 64.29%, 60.71%, 48.21%, respectively.
 25 GTS values decreased with the increasing of SDS concentration and exposure time, indicating
 26 that SDS had genotoxicity to planarians in a time and dose-related manner. Fluorescent
 27 quantitative PCR (qPCR) was used to investigate the effects of SDS on gene expression of
 28 planarians. After the planarians were exposed to 1.0 mg/L SDS solution for 1, 3, and 5 days, the
 29 expression of *caspase3* was upregulated, and that of *piwiA*, *piwiB*, *PCNA*, *cyclinB*, and *RAD51*
 30 were downregulated. These results suggested that SDS might induce apoptosis, affect cell
 31 proliferation, differentiation, and DNA repair ability of planarian cells and cause toxic effects on
 32 planarian *D. japonica*.

33 Introduction

Surfactants are a kind of amphipathic compounds, which are widely used in our everyday life. Their global use is increasing every year, with consumption expected to reach \$28.8 billion by 2023 (Brycki et al. 2017; Kaczerewska et al. 2020). Sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) is a common anionic surfactant with the chemical formula $\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_{11}\text{OSO}_3\text{Na}$, which is easily soluble in water and has the ability of decontamination, emulsification, and foaming (Cao et al. 2020). SDS is widely used in the production of cosmetics and cleaning products such as soaps, shampoos, shower gels and toothpastes (Bondi et al. 2015; Cao et al. 2020). The content of SDS varies depending on the product type and manufacturer, typically ranges from 0.01% to 50% in cosmetic products and 1% to 30% in cleaning products (Bondi et al. 2015). Consumers expose to SDS through the use of products containing this ingredient, and abuse of products may cause skin inhalation contact and skin inflammation (Bondi et al. 2015; Cao et al. 2020). SDS is also used in pharmaceutical and food products, it can be used as a food or drug additive to solubilize hydrophobic aromas or some types of preservatives (Cid et al. 2019). In addition, as a tissue lysate and protein denaturant, SDS can form complex with protein through hydrophobic interaction, so it is often used in Western blot, Chromatin Immunoprecipitation, SDS-PAGE, and other experiments in the field of biological research (Al-Tubuly 2000; Brunelle & Green 2014; Lai et al. 2017).

Although most surfactants are degradable, their continuous use and excessive emissions have caused pollution to the water environment (Bhattacharya et al. 2022; Lechuga et al. 2016; Mustapha & Bawa-Allah 2020; Rosety-Rodríguez et al. 2002). The discharge of cleaning products containing SDS into the water environment through domestic wastewater had toxic effects on aquatic organisms (Bondi et al. 2015; Cruz de Carvalho et al. 2022; Jönander et al. 2022; Messina et al. 2014). SDS in the water entered the fish body through gills, skin, or intestinal epithelial cells, circulated to various parts of the body, interrupted the normal steroidogenesis process, and reduced the production of sex hormone (Moniruzzaman & Saha 2021; Rosety-Rodríguez et al. 2002). SDS was toxic to fish and sea urchin, the 96 hours LC_{50} of

SDS to *Tigriopus fulvus*, *Dicentrarchus labrax*, *Dunaliella tertiolecta*, and *Paracentrotus lividus* were 7.42 mg/L, 7.34 mg/L, 4.80 mg/L, and 3.20 mg/L, respectively (Bondi et al. 2015; Mariani et al. 2006).

The antioxidant defense system can protect organisms from oxidative damage caused by external pollutants. Superoxide dismutase (SOD) and catalase (CAT) are important components of the antioxidant defense system of organisms, and their activities can reflect the antioxidant level of organisms (Liu et al. 2021; Zhang et al. 2022). Malondialdehyde (MDA) is one of the degradation products of lipid peroxidation, it can be used as a biomarker of oxidative stress to detect the degree of oxidative stress of organisms (Tsikas 2017). SDS could significantly increase the activities of SOD, CAT, and MDA content in *Cirrhinus cirrhosus*, *Heteropneustes fossilis*, and *Tubifex tubifex*, causing lipid peroxidation and oxidative stress in the organisms (Bhattacharya et al. 2021; Moniruzzaman & Saha 2021). The toxic effects of SDS might be related to the alteration of cellular ionic balance caused by the changes of cellular membrane permeability and the induction of oxidative stress (Messina et al. 2014).

Planarian is a representative animal of the phylum Platyhelminthes, it is widely distributed in clean waters around the world (Zhang et al. 2016a). Due to its high chemical sensitivity, many chemical pollutants could cause toxic effects on planarians, resulting in the changes of locomotion, regeneration, neurotransmission, and even chromosome (Lau et al. 2007; Ofoegbu et al. 2016; Prá et al. 2005; Rink 2013; Simão et al. 2020; Yuan et al. 2018; Zhang et al. 2016a). Planarian has become one of the indicator organisms for assessing the toxicity of environmental pollutants in the field of neuropharmacology and ecotoxicology (Buttarelli et al. 2008; Hagstrom et al. 2015; Prá et al. 2005; Wu & Li 2018). Therefore, we used planarian as the test animal to study the toxic effects of SDS on aquatic organisms.

Randomly amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) is a technique for polymorphism analysis of genomic DNA, which is often used for the detection of genetic diversity and genotoxicity

analysis (Pandey et al. 2018; Zare et al. 2019; Zhou et al. 2011). It is an important method for detecting the genotoxicity of drugs and pollutants to planarians (Yin et al. 2022; Zhang et al. 2016b). However, the application of RAPD technology for detecting the genotoxicity of SDS to planarians has not been reported. In this study, we analyzed the acute toxicity, oxidative stress reaction and genotoxicity of SDS to planarians. The effects of SDS on the expression of genes related to cell apoptosis, proliferation, differentiation, and DNA repair ability were further detected by fluorescent quantitative PCR (qPCR). Our results will provide theoretical basis for the research of the ecotoxicity of SDS to aquatic organisms, and provide theoretical reference for the management and protection of freshwater ecosystems.

Materials & Methods

Materials.

SDS was purchased from Biosharp Company of China, and the purity was 99%. Total protein quantitation kit, SOD, CAT, and MDA test kits were purchased from Nanjing Jiancheng Company of China for determination of the activities of SOD, CAT and MDA content. The E.Z.N.A.® Mollusc DNA kit was the product of Omega Bio-Tek Company for extraction of genomic DNA, and 2×Taq PCR StarMix was purchased from GenStar Company. Trizol reagent was purchased from Thermo Fisher Technology Co., Ltd. for extraction of RNA. Reverse Transcription kit and TB Green premix Ex Taq II (2×) were purchased from TaKaRa Company. The sequences of 13 random primers and qPCR primers used in this study are shown in supplementary Table S1 and Table S2.

Test animals.

Planarians used in this experiment were the asexual strain *Dugesia ZB-1*, which were cultured in the laboratory in *Montjuïc* water (1.6 mmol/L NaCl, 1.0 mmol/L CaCl₂, 1.0 mmol/L MgSO₄, 0.1 mmol/L MgCl₂, 0.1 mmol/L KCl, and 1.2 mmol/L NaHCO₃) in a biochemical

incubator (SPX-2508SH, Shanghai CIMO Medical Instrument Manufacturing Co., Ltd, China) at 20°C. Animals were fed with beef liver twice a week and starved for a week before the experiment.

Acute toxicity test.

Based on reference (Li 2008) and pre-experimental results, planarians with body length of about 1 cm were exposed to SDS solutions of 6 different concentrations (3.0 mg/L, 3.5 mg/L, 4.0 mg/L, 4.5 mg/L, 5.0 mg/L, and 6.0 mg/L), and the control group were cultured in *Montjuïc* water. 10 planarians in each group were treated in Petri dishes with a volume of 10 mL solution. SDS solutions were renewed and the mortality of planarians were calculated at an interval of 24 h. The experiment was repeated three times to prevent accidental error. In order to obtain the relationship between the concentration of SDS and the mortality of planarians, regression equation was obtained by plotting the logarithm of concentration and odds unit. Each time point corresponded to a regression equation. Odds unit with mortality rate of 50% was taken into the regression equation and the LC₅₀ of 24 h, 48 h, 72 h, and 96 h were calculated (Hagstrom et al. 2015).

Detection of antioxidant enzyme activity.

In order to reflect the oxidative stress response and the oxidative damage to planarians under SDS stress, the activities of antioxidant enzymes and MDA content were detected (Gao et al. 2022; Wang et al. 2020). 10 planarians exposed to 0.5 mg/L and 1.0 mg/L SDS solutions for 1, 3, and 5 days were used to detect antioxidant enzyme activities. The planarians cultured in *Montjuïc* water were as control. After the exposure, 10 planarians were put in a precooled mortar and 2 mL PBS buffer was added to grind them to paste. The paste was centrifugated at 4°C, 10000 rpm for 10 minutes and the supernatant was used to detect the protein concentration, the activities of SOD, CAT, and MDA content according to the instructions of the corresponding test kits. After adding the corresponding reaction reagents provided by the kits, the absorbance

values were measured at the wavelength of 550 nm, 405 nm, and 532 nm, respectively. Finally, the activities of SOD, CAT, and MDA content were calculated based on the absorbance values.

Genomic DNA extraction.

Genomic DNAs of planarians exposed to SDS at concentrations of 0.5 mg/L and 1.0 mg/L for 1, 3, and 5 days were extracted according to the instructions of DNA kit. The integrity of DNA was detected by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis, and the purity and concentration were measured by detecting OD_{260}/OD_{280} with a micro-spectrophotometer (K5600, Beijing Kaiao Technology Development Co., Ltd, China).

RAPD amplification.

RAPD can be applied to detect the changes in genomic DNA at the molecular level (Zhang et al. 2016b), so the method was used for the genotoxicity assay in this study. Each polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was conducted in a mixture of 25 μ L containing 20 ng genomic DNA, 0.2 μ mol/L primer, and 12.5 μ L 2 \times Taq PCR StarMix. Amplifications were carried out in a DNA thermocycler (TC-XP, Hangzhou Bioer Technology Co., Ltd, China). The PCR program was 94°C for 5 min, 40 consecutive cycles including 94°C for 1 min, 37°C for 1 min, and 72°C for 2 min, then followed by 72°C for 10 min as the final extension (Zhang et al. 2016b). After amplification, the PCR products were analyzed by electrophoresis on 1% agarose gel at a voltage of 100 V and a current of 200 mA for 60 min. Then the electropherograms were photographed under an AlphaImager HP system (Alpha2200-5, Alpha Innotech, USA).

Estimate of GTS.

Genomic template stability (GTS) is an indicator of genotoxicity, and its value can reflect the degree of genotoxicity. GTS is calculated according to the formula: $GTS(\%) = \left(1 - \frac{a}{n}\right) \times 100$, where “a” represents the number of polymorphic bands detected in each treatment sample; “n” represents the number of total bands in the control (Atienzar et al. 1999; Zhang et al. 2016b). The

158 GTS of the control group is set to 100%, and the GTS of each treatment group is expressed as a
159 percentage of the control group.

160 RNA extraction and qPCR.

161 After exposure to 1.0 mg/L SDS for 1, 3, and 5 days, the RNAs of planarians of the
162 treatment groups and the control group were extracted. Reverse transcription and qPCR were
163 conducted to study the expression level of genes (Liang et al. 2022). Total RNA was extracted by
164 Trizol reagent and was reverse transcribed into cDNA with the reverse transcription mixtures of
165 20 μ L containing 2 μ g RNA and 2.5 μ mol/L oligo(dT)₁₅ as primer. The qPCR was performed in
166 a Light Cycler 480 System (Roche Diagnostics, Switzerland) with the PCR program was 95°C
167 for 30 s followed by 40 consecutive cycles consisting of 95°C for 5 s, 58°C for 10 s, and 72°C
168 for 15 s. Each group was performed in triplicate. The relative expression levels were calculated
169 using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta C_t}$ method with *Dj-Actin* gene as the endogenous standardization.

170 Statistical analysis.

171 Statistical analysis and regression analysis were performed using SPSS 26.0 software. The
172 odds unit with the mortality rate of 50% was taken into the regression equation to calculate the
173 LC₅₀ and 95% confidence interval (95% CI) of SDS to *D. japonica*. R² represents the coefficient
174 of determination. The activities of SOD and CAT, MDA content, and the levels of gene
175 expression were presented as mean \pm SD. One-way ANOVA was used to compare the
176 differences between each treatment group and the control group. The value of $p < 0.05$ was
177 considered statistically significant, and $p < 0.01$ represents highly significant (Gao et al. 2022;
178 Liang et al. 2022).

179 Results

180 Acute toxicity of SDS to planarians.

181 After acute toxicity experiment, the regression equation, R², LC₅₀ and 95% confidence

interval (95% CI) of SDS to *D. japonica* were calculated. As shown in Table 1, the LC₅₀ of SDS to *D. japonica* at 24 h, 48 h, 72 h, and 96 h were 4.29 mg/L, 3.76 mg/L, 3.45 mg/L, and 3.20 mg/L respectively. Results showed that the acute toxicity of SDS to planarians increased with the extension of exposure time.

Effects of SDS on oxidative stress.

After treatment with 0.5 mg/L and 1.0 mg/L SDS solutions for 1, 3, and 5 days, the activities of SOD, CAT, and MDA content in planarians were detected. Results showed that the activities of SOD, CAT, and MDA content in the treatment groups were higher than that of the control group. With the extension of SDS exposure time, SOD activity in 0.5 mg/L SDS treatment groups increased significantly, reached the highest on the fifth day. In the 1.0 mg/L SDS treatment groups, SOD activity highly significantly increased on the first day, continued to increase on the third day, and returned to the same level as the control group on the fifth day (Figure 1A). The CAT activities of the 0.5 mg/L and 1.0 mg/L SDS treatment groups significantly increased firstly from the first to the third day, and then decreased from the third to the fifth day (Figure 1B). The MDA content in the 0.5 mg/L SDS treatment groups showed an increasing trend from the first to the fifth day, while in the 1.0 mg/L SDS treatment groups, it was highest on the first day, and then decreased, reaching the lowest level on the fifth day (Figure 1C). These results suggested that the treatment of SDS might cause oxidative stress and lipid peroxidation in planarians.

Effects of SDS on RAPD profiles.

The OD₂₆₀/OD₂₈₀ value of each group of the planarians genomic DNA was between 1.7 and 2.2, and a single band was obtained by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis (Figure 2A), indicating that the purity and integrity of DNA was good and no degradation. The bands of PCR products amplified with the same template and the same primer were consistent (Figure 2B), indicating that this technique is repeatable.

The amplified products of RAPD were subjected to agarose gel electrophoresis, and obvious bands were obtained. A total of 56 bands were amplified from the genomic DNAs of the control group with 13 random primers, and 1~9 bands were amplified with each primer (Table 2, Figure 2C-F). The number of polymorphic bands in 0.5 mg/L and 1.0 mg/L SDS treatment groups were 18, 20, 23, and 20, 22, 29 after 1, 3, and 5 days of exposure (Table 2), indicating that the RAPD patterns of SDS treated groups were different from that of the control group, and changed with the SDS concentrations and the exposure time.

GTS is the percentage of the number of polymorphic bands in the RAPD maps to the total number of bands in the control group. The polymorphic bands amplified with each primer varied with concentration of SDS (0.5 mg/L, 1.0 mg/L) and exposure time (1, 3, and 5 days). The RAPD maps were analyzed and the GTS values were calculated. Results showed that the GTS values of planarians exposed to 0.5 mg/L and 1.0 mg/L SDS for 1, 3, and 5 days were 67.86%, 64.29%, 58.93%, and 64.29%, 60.71%, 48.21%, respectively (Figure 3). GTS decreased with the increase of SDS concentration and the extension of exposure time, indicating that SDS has genotoxicity to planarians in a dose and time-related manner.

Effects of SDS on gene expression.

The changes of gene expression in planarians were detected by qPCR after treatment with 1.0 mg/L SDS solution for 1, 3, and 5 days. Results showed that the expression level of apoptosis marker gene *Dj-caspase3* was highly significantly upregulated, reaching the highest on the fifth day (Figure 4A). The expression levels of cell proliferation related gene *Dj-piwiA* and neoblast differentiation related gene *Dj-piwiB* had no significant difference with the control on the first day, but decreased significantly on the third and the fifth days (Figure 4B-C). The cell proliferation marker gene *Dj-PCNA* and cell cycle related gene *Dj-cyclinB* significantly decreased from the first day, and reached the lowest on the fifth day (Figure 4D-E). The expression level of DNA damage related gene *Dj-RAD51* significantly downregulated, and

reached the lowest on the third day (Figure 4F). The qPCR results showed that SDS might induce apoptosis, affect cell proliferation, differentiation, normal progression of cell cycle, and DNA repair ability in planarians.

Discussion

In this study, LC₅₀ of SDS to planarian *D. japonica* was determined by acute toxicity test. Previous study showed that LC₅₀ of SDS to planarian *D. japonica* was 0.36 mg/L, the same value from 24 h to 96 h (Li 2008). In order to accurately measure the LC₅₀ of SDS to *D. japonica* at different times, we conducted this acute toxicity experiment and obtained the corresponding values at different time points. Our results showed that LC₅₀ was 3.20 ~ 4.29 mg/L from 24 h to 96 h, and it was getting lower with the extension of SDS exposure time. Li (2008) determined LC₅₀ of many surfactants to *D. japonica*, and the toxicity rank of 96 h LC₅₀ was as follows: SDS > CTAB > NP > LAS > Hyamine 1622 > Triton X-100 > PFOS > PFOA. SDS had different toxicity to different aquatic organisms. Nunes et al. (2005) determined LC₅₀ of SDS to three aquatic species including the euryhaline fish *Gambusia holbrooki*, the hypersaline crustacean *Artemia parthenogenetica*, and the marine algae *Tetraselmis chuii*. LC₅₀ of SDS to *A. parthenogenetica* at 48 h was 12.2 mg/L, and that to *T. chuii* and *G. Holbrooki* at 96 h were 30.2 mg/L and 15.1 mg/L (Nunes et al. 2005). In our study, LC₅₀ of SDS to planarian *D. japonica* at 48 h and 96 h were 3.76 mg/L and 3.20 mg/L, indicating that the toxicity of SDS to planarian *D. japonica* was higher than that to the above three organisms.

When organisms are subjected to environmental stress, oxidative stress reactions usually occur and reactive oxygen species (ROS) is produced (Lushchak 2016; Yang et al. 2020). ROS is a substance with active properties and strong oxidizing power, its excessive accumulation can destroy the spatial structure of biological macromolecules such as DNA, proteins, and lipids, causing DNA damage or cell death (Finkel 2011; Sachdev et al. 2021; Tang et al. 2019; Tsikas 2017). The disequilibrium between the ROS formation and the neutralization by antioxidant

enzymes can lead to the reactions of oxidative stress (Bhattacharya et al. 2022; Kurutas 2016). SOD is the key enzyme that catalyzes the conversion of superoxide anion free radicals into hydrogen peroxide, while CAT converts hydrogen peroxide into water and molecular oxygen (Ding et al. 2009; Li et al. 2021). Therefore, SOD and CAT are the first line of defense for the organisms against oxygen toxicity, and the increase of their activities indicates that the antioxidant defense ability of organisms is enhanced (Wang et al. 2020; Zagal & Mazmanci 2011). MDA is one of the degradation products of lipid peroxidation, its content can be measured by the reaction with thiobarbituric acid. An increase in free radicals could cause overproduction of MDA (Gawel et al. 2004). Therefore, MDA can be assessed as an oxidative stress marker to detect the degree of oxidative stress of organisms (Amin et al. 2018; Tsikas 2017). Previous studies have shown that the changes of antioxidant enzyme activities and MDA content are closely related to the reactions of oxidative stress. Some pollutants, such as microplastics, imidazolyl, and copper, could induce significant changes of antioxidant enzyme activities and MDA content in planarians (Gao et al. 2022; Wang et al. 2020; Zhang et al. 2016a). In this study, the activities of SOD, CAT, and MDA content increased after SDS treatment, indicating that SDS might cause the production of ROS, which in turn activated the corresponding antioxidant enzymes and led to an increase in their activities. Due to the inability of ROS to be completely cleared, it caused oxidative damage to cells, leading to lipid peroxidation in planarians.

In addition to the changes of antioxidant enzyme activities, many compounds can cause damages to the DNA of organisms. These damages include DNA strand breaks, base modifications, and substitutions (Pandey et al. 2018). RAPD is a sensitive method for detecting DNA damage at the molecular level, and the degree of DNA damages can be reflected by the GTS values (Aksakal & Esim 2015). In this study, SDS led to the changes of GTS values of planarians, which might be related to DNA damages caused by the changes of oligonucleotide sites, and the breakage, insertion, or deletion of DNA fragment (Tofalo & Corsetti 2017; Zhang

et al. 2017; Zhang et al. 2016b). The GTS values of the treatment groups decreased with the increasing of SDS concentrations and the extension of exposure time, indicating that SDS had genotoxicity to planarians in a time and dose-related manner. Some similar studies regarding genotoxicity of 8-hydroxyquinoline to *Misgurnus anguillicaudatus*, furacilin to *Euplotes vannus*, and 1,3-methylimidazole to *D. japonica* also showed that the genotoxicity caused by drugs to organisms also had certain correlation with time and dose (Nan et al. 2013; Zhang et al. 2016b; Zhou et al. 2011).

Apoptosis is a strictly controlled cell suicide characterized by nuclear condensation, cell shrinkage, membrane blebbing, and DNA fragmentation (Bertheloot et al. 2021; Majtnerová & Roušar 2018). Caspase3 is a member of the cysteine family and plays a vital role in the progress of apoptosis (Gong et al. 2022; Lei et al. 2022). Studies have shown that aspirin could reduce the level of caspase3 protein and inhibit cell apoptosis, microplastic could induce the expression of *caspase3* gene and promote cell apoptosis in planarians (Gao et al. 2022; Liang et al. 2022). In the present study, the expression level of *Dj-caspase3* was upregulated in the treatment groups, and gradually increased with the extension of treatment time, suggesting that SDS could induce apoptosis in planarians. PIWI proteins have broader functions in many vital biological processes including cell proliferation, differentiation, and survival. PiwiA and piwiB are members of the PIWI protein family (Kashima et al. 2020; Ponnusamy et al. 2017). It has been reported that *piwiA* and *piwiB* are specifically expressed in neoblasts and encode PIWI proteins in cytoplasm and nucleus respectively (Kashima et al. 2020). The main function of *PiwiA* is to maintain cell proliferation, and *piwiB* is involved in the regulation of neoblasts differentiation (Reddien et al. 2005; Shibata et al. 2016; Tharp & Bortvin 2016). PCNA is a key factor in the process of DNA replication, and the expression of *PCNA* in all organisms is related to cell proliferation and DNA synthesis during genome replication in S phase of cell cycle (Orii et al. 2005; Strzalka & Ziemienowicz 2011). Therefore, *Dj-piwiA*, *Dj-piwiB* and *Dj-PCNA* can be used as marker genes to detect the effects of pollutants on the proliferation or differentiation of planarian cells. Here,

our results showed that the expression levels of *Dj-piwiA*, *Dj-piwiB* and *Dj-PCNA* were downregulated in the treatment groups, especially on the third and the fifth day. We speculated that with the extension of exposure time, SDS might decrease the proportion of mitotic stem cells and consequently restrain the proliferation or differentiation of planarian cells. CyclinB is an important regulator of cell cycle, which is responsible for the transition from G2 phase to M phase in the cell cycle (van Wolfswinkel et al. 2014; Zhong et al. 2019). The inhibition of proliferation in the regenerating planarians treated by aspirin might be related to the abnormal cell cycle caused by the reduced expression of cyclinB (Liang et al. 2022). A similar study showed that downregulation of G2/mitotic-specific cyclinB could constrain proliferation, induce apoptosis, and trigger autophagy in nasopharyngeal carcinoma cells (Xie et al. 2019). In this study, the expression level of *Dj-cyclinB* significantly decreased in the treatment groups, indicating that SDS might interfere with cell cycle progression via downregulation of *cyclinB*, and then lead to the inhibition of cell proliferation. DNA integrity is crucial for maintaining the homeostasis of planarian tissues. RAD51 is an essential component in maintaining the genomic stability and repairing DNA double strand break, so its encoding gene can be used as a marker gene for detecting the degree of DNA damages (Barghouth et al. 2019; Bonilla et al. 2020; Prado 2021). In this experiment, the expression level of *Dj-RAD51* was significantly downregulated in the treatment groups, suggesting that SDS could reduce the ability of DNA repair, leading to gene mutation and genomic instability in planarians.

Conclusions

Taken together, SDS has acute toxicity and genotoxicity to planarian *D. japonica*. SDS of 0.5 mg/L and 1.0 mg/L could induce oxidative stress and genetic toxicity in planarians. 1.0 mg/L SDS upregulated the expression of apoptosis-related gene, downregulated the expression of genes related to cell cycle, cell proliferation and DNA repair ability. These results indicate that SDS has toxic effects on freshwater planarians and potential hazards to the aquatic environment. Our study provides a theoretical basis for the risk assessment and management of SDS, as well

as for the protection of aquatic organisms.

Abbreviation index

SDS: Sodium dodecyl sulfate; LC₅₀: Semi-lethal concentration; SOD: Superoxide dismutase; CAT: Catalase; MDA: Malondialdehyde; RAPD: Random amplified polymorphic DNA; PCR: Polymerase chain reaction; GTS: Genomic template stability; ROS: Reactive oxygen species; qPCR: Fluorescent quantitative PCR; *Dugesia japonica*: *D. japonica*.

References

- Aksakal O, and Esim N. 2015.** Evaluation of arsenic trioxide genotoxicity in wheat seedlings using oxidative system and RAPD assays. *Environ Sci Pollut Res Int* **22(9)**:7120-7128 DOI 10.1007/s11356-014-3932-2.
- Al-Tubuly AA. 2000.** SDS-PAGE and Western Blotting. *Methods Mol Med* **40**:391-405 DOI 10.1385/1-59259-076-4:391.
- Atienzar FA, Conradi M, Evenden AJ, Jha AN, and Depledge MH. 1999.** Qualitative assessment of genotoxicity using random amplified polymorphic DNA: Comparison of genomic template stability with key fitness parameters in *Daphnia magna* exposed to benzo[a]pyrene. *Environ Toxicol Chem* **18(10)**:2275-2282 DOI 10.1002/etc.5620181023.
- Barghouth PG, Thiruvalluvan M, LeGro M, and Oviedo NJ. 2019.** DNA damage and tissue repair: What we can learn from planaria. *Semin Cell Dev Biol* **87**:145-159 DOI 10.1016/j.semcdb.2018.04.013.
- Bertheloot D, Latz E, and Franklin BS. 2021.** Necroptosis, pyroptosis and apoptosis: an intricate game of cell death. *Cell Mol Immunol* **18(5)**:1106-1121 DOI 10.1038/s41423-020-00630-3.
- Bhattacharya R, Chatterjee A, Chatterjee S, and Saha NC. 2021.** Oxidative stress in benthic oligochaete worm, *Tubifex tubifex* induced by sublethal exposure to a cationic surfactant cetylpyridinium chloride and an anionic surfactant sodium dodecyl sulfate. *Comp Biochem Physiol C Toxicol Pharmacol* **240**:108906 DOI 10.1016/j.cbpc.2020.108906.
- Bhattacharya R, Chatterjee A, Chatterjee S, and Saha NC. 2022.** Commonly used surfactants sodium dodecyl sulphate, cetylpyridinium chloride and sodium laureth sulphate and their effects on antioxidant defence system and oxidative stress indices in *Cyprinus carpio* L.: an integrated in silico and in vivo approach. *Environ Sci Pollut Res Int* **29(20)**:30622-30637 DOI 10.1007/s11356-021-17864-x.

- 366 **Bondi CA, Marks JL, Wroblewski LB, Raatikainen HS, Lenox SR, and Gebhardt KE. 2015.**
367 Human and Environmental Toxicity of Sodium Lauryl Sulfate (SLS): Evidence for Safe
368 Use in Household Cleaning Products. *Environ Health Insights* **9**:27-32 DOI
369 10.4137/ehi.S31765.
- 370 **Bonilla B, Hengel SR, Grundy MK, and Bernstein KA. 2020.** RAD51 Gene Family Structure
371 and Function. *Annu Rev Genet* **54**:25-46 DOI 10.1146/annurev-genet-021920-092410.
- 372 **Brunelle JL, and Green R. 2014.** One-dimensional SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis
373 (1D SDS-PAGE). *Methods Enzymol* **541**:151-159 DOI 10.1016/b978-0-12-420119-
374 4.00012-4.
- 375 **Brycki B, Kowalczyk I, Szulc A, Kaczerewska O, and Pakiet M. 2017.** Multifunctional
376 Gemini Surfactants: Structure, Synthesis, Properties and Applications. *Application and*
377 *Characterization of Surfactants* Ch.4 DOI: 10.5772/intechopen.68755.
- 378 **Buttarelli FR, Pellicano C, and Pontieri FE. 2008.** Neuropharmacology and behavior in
379 planarians: translations to mammals. *Comp Biochem Physiol C Toxicol Pharmacol*
380 **147(4)**:399-408 DOI 10.1016/j.cbpc.2008.01.009.
- 381 **Cao C, Cao Z, Yu P, and Zhao Y. 2020.** Genome-wide identification for genes involved in
382 sodium dodecyl sulfate toxicity in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *BMC Microbiol* **20(1)**:34
383 DOI 10.1186/s12866-020-1721-2.
- 384 **Cid A, Moldes OA, Mejuto JC, and Simal-Gandara J. 2019.** Interaction of Caffeic Acid with
385 SDS Micellar Aggregates. *Molecules* **24(7)**:1204 DOI 10.3390/molecules24071204.
- 386 **Cruz de Carvalho R, Feijão E, Matos AR, Cabrita MT, Utkin AB, Novais SC, Lemos MFL,**
387 **Caçador I, Marques JC, Reis-Santos P, Fonseca VF, and Duarte B. 2022.**
388 Ecotoxicological Effects of the Anionic Surfactant Sodium Dodecyl Sulfate (SDS) in
389 Two Marine Primary Producers: *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* and *Ulva lactuca*. *Toxics*
390 **10(12)**:780DOI10.3390/toxics10120780.
- 391 **Del Rio D, Stewart AJ, and Pellegrini N. 2005.** A review of recent studies on malondialdehyde
392 as toxic molecule and biological marker of oxidative stress. *Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis*
393 **15(4)**:316-328 DOI 10.1016/j.numecd.2005.05.003.
- 394 **Ding F, Song WH, Guo J, Gao ML, and Hu WX. 2009.** Oxidative stress and structure-activity
395 relationship in the zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) under exposure to paclobutrazol. *J Environ Sci*
396 *Health B* **44(1)**:44-50 DOI 10.1080/03601230802519652.
- 397 **Finkel T. 2011.** Signal transduction by reactive oxygen species. *J Cell Biol* **194(1)**:7-15 DOI
398 10.1083/jcb.201102095.
- 399 **Gao T, Sun B, Xu Z, Chen Q, Yang M, Wan Q, Song L, Chen G, Jing C, Zeng EY, and**

- 400 **Yang G. 2022.** Exposure to polystyrene microplastics reduces regeneration and growth in
401 planarians. *J Hazard Mater* **432**:128673 DOI 10.1016/j.jhazmat.2022.128673.
- 402 **Gong R, Wang D, Abbas G, Li S, Liu Q, Cui M, and Zhang XE. 2022.** A switch-on
403 molecular biosensor for detection of caspase-3 and imaging of apoptosis of cells. *Sci*
404 *China Life Sci* **65(3)**:540-549 DOI 10.1007/s11427-021-1986-7.
- 405 **Hagstrom D, Cochet-Escartin O, Zhang S, Khuu C, and Collins EM. 2015.** Freshwater
406 Planarians as an Alternative Animal Model for Neurotoxicology. *Toxicol Sci* **147(1)**:270-
407 285 DOI 10.1093/toxsci/kfv129.
- 408 **Jönander C, Backhaus T, and Dahllöf I. 2022.** Single substance and mixture toxicity of
409 dibutyl-phthalate and sodium dodecyl sulphate to marine zooplankton. *Ecotoxicol*
410 *Environ Saf* **234**:113406 DOI 10.1016/j.ecoenv.2022.113406.
- 411 **Kaczerewska O, Martins R, Figueiredo J, Loureiro S, and Tedim J. 2020.** Environmental
412 behaviour and ecotoxicity of cationic surfactants towards marine organisms. *J Hazard*
413 *Mater* **392**:122299 DOI 10.1016/j.jhazmat.2020.122299.
- 414 **Kashima M, Agata K, and Shibata N. 2020.** What is the role of PIWI family proteins in adult
415 pluripotent stem cells? Insights from asexually reproducing animals, planarians. *Dev*
416 *Growth Differ* **62(6)**:407-422 DOI 10.1111/dgd.12688.
- 417 **Kurutas EB. 2016.** The importance of antioxidants which play the role in cellular response
418 against oxidative/nitrosative stress: current state. *Nutr J* **15(1)**:71 DOI 10.1186/s12937-
419 016-0186-5.
- 420 **Lai M, Li X, Li J, Hu Y, Czajkowsky DM, and Shao Z. 2017.** Improved clearing of lipid
421 droplet-rich tissues for three-dimensional structural elucidation. *Acta Biochim Biophys*
422 *Sin (Shanghai)* **49(5)**:465-467 DOI 10.1093/abbs/gmx018.
- 423 **Lau AH, Knakievicz T, Prá D, and Erdtmann B. 2007.** Freshwater planarians as novel
424 organisms for genotoxicity testing: Analysis of chromosome aberrations. *Environ Mol*
425 *Mutagen* **48(6)**:475-482 DOI 10.1002/em.20307.
- 426 **Lechuga M, Fernández-Serrano M, Jurado E, Núñez-Olea J, and Ríos F. 2016.** Acute
427 toxicity of anionic and non-ionic surfactants to aquatic organisms. *Ecotoxicol Environ Saf*
428 **125**:1-8 DOI 10.1016/j.ecoenv.2015.11.027.
- 429 **Lei Q, Huang X, Zheng L, Zheng F, Dong J, Chen F, and Zeng W. 2022.** Biosensors for
430 Caspase-3: From chemical methodologies to biomedical applications. *Talanta*
431 **240**:123198 DOI 10.1016/j.talanta.2021.123198.
- 432 **Li L, Gu H, Chang X, Huang W, Sokolova IM, Wei S, Sun L, Li S, Wang X, Hu M, Zeng J,**
433 **and Wang Y. 2021.** Oxidative stress induced by nanoplastics in the liver of juvenile

- 434 large yellow croaker *Larimichthys crocea*. *Mar Pollut Bull* **170**:112661 DOI
435 10.1016/j.marpolbul.2021.112661.
- 436 **Li MH. 2008.** Effects of nonionic and ionic surfactants on survival, oxidative stress, and
437 cholinesterase activity of planarian. *Chemosphere* **70(10)**:1796-1803 DOI
438 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2007.08.032.
- 439 **Liang A, Wu F, Li C, Yu Y, Dong Z, Chen G, Yu F, Yuwen Y, and Liu D. 2022.** Aspirin
440 inhibits stem cell proliferation during freshwater *Dugesia japonica* regeneration by
441 STAT3/SOX2/OCT4 signaling pathway. *Aquat Toxicol* **247**:106158 DOI
442 10.1016/j.aquatox.2022.106158.
- 443 **Liu Y, Chen J, Dong Z, Chen G, and Liu D. 2021.** Antioxidant responses and lipid
444 peroxidation can be used as sensitive indicators for the heavy metals risk assessment of
445 the Wei River: a case study of planarian *Dugesia Japonica*. *Biomarkers* **26(1)**:55-64 DOI
446 10.1080/1354750x.2020.1854347.
- 447 **Lushchak VI. 2016.** Contaminant-induced oxidative stress in fish: a mechanistic approach. *Fish*
448 *Physiol Biochem* **42(2)**:711-747 DOI 10.1007/s10695-015-0171-5.
- 449 **Majtnerová P, and Roušar T. 2018.** An overview of apoptosis assays detecting DNA
450 fragmentation. *Mol Biol Rep* **45(5)**:1469-1478 DOI 10.1007/s11033-018-4258-9.
- 451 **Mariani L, De Pascale D, Faraponova O, Tornambè A, Sarni A, Giuliani S, Ruggiero G,**
452 **Onorati F, and Magaletti E. 2006.** The use of a test battery in marine ecotoxicology: the
453 acute toxicity of sodium dodecyl sulfate. *Environ Toxicol* **21(4)**:373-379 DOI
454 10.1002/tox.20204.
- 455 **Messina CM, Faggio C, Laudicella VA, Sanfilippo M, Trischitta F, and Santulli A. 2014.**
456 Effect of sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) on stress response in the Mediterranean mussel
457 (*Mytilus Galloprovincialis*): regulatory volume decrease (Rvd) and modulation of
458 biochemical markers related to oxidative stress. *Aquat Toxicol* **157**:94-100 DOI
459 10.1016/j.aquatox.2014.10.001.
- 460 **Moniruzzaman M, and Saha NC. 2021.** Consequences of sodium dodecyl sulfate exposure on
461 the antioxidant status and steroidogenesis in fish gonad. *Environ Sci Pollut Res Int*
462 **28(15)**:19247-19259 DOI 10.1007/s11356-020-12151-7.
- 463 **Mustapha DS, and Bawa-Allah KA. 2020.** Differential toxicities of anionic and nonionic
464 surfactants in fish. *Environ Sci Pollut Res Int* **27(14)**:16754-16762 DOI 10.1007/s11356-
465 020-08212-6.
- 466 **Nan P, Xia XH, Du QY, Chen JJ, Wu XH, and Chang ZJ. 2013.** Genotoxic effects of 8-
467 hydroxylquinoline in loach (*Misgurnus anguillicaudatus*) assessed by the micronucleus

- test, comet assay and RAPD analysis. *Environ Toxicol Pharmacol* **35(3)**:434-443 DOI 10.1016/j.etap.2013.02.005.
- Nunes B, Carvalho F, and Guilhermino L. 2005.** Acute toxicity of widely used pharmaceuticals in aquatic species: *Gambusia holbrooki*, *Artemia parthenogenetica* and *Tetraselmis chuii*. *Ecotoxicol Environ Saf* **61(3)**:413-419 DOI 10.1016/j.ecoenv.2004.08.010.
- Ofoegbu PU, Simão FC, Cruz A, Mendo S, Soares AM, and Pestana JL. 2016.** Toxicity of tributyltin (TBT) to the freshwater planarian *Schmidtea mediterranea*. *Chemosphere* **148**:61-67 DOI 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2015.12.131.
- Orii H, Sakurai T, and Watanabe K. 2005.** Distribution of the stem cells (neoblasts) in the planarian *Dugesia japonica*. *Dev Genes Evol* **215(3)**:143-157 DOI 10.1007/s00427-004-0460-y.
- Pandey AK, Nagpure NS, and Trivedi SP. 2018.** Genotoxicity assessment of pesticide profenofos in freshwater fish *Channa punctatus* (Bloch) using comet assay and random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD). *Chemosphere* **211**:316-323 DOI 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2018.07.182.
- Ponnusamy M, Yan KW, Liu CY, Li PF, and Wang K. 2017.** PIWI family emerging as a decisive factor of cell fate: An overview. *Eur J Cell Biol* **96(8)**:746-757 DOI 10.1016/j.ejcb.2017.09.004.
- Prá D, Lau AH, Knakiewicz T, Carneiro FR, and Erdtmann B. 2005.** Environmental genotoxicity assessment of an urban stream using freshwater planarians. *Mutat Res* **585(1-2)**:79-85 DOI 10.1016/j.mrgentox.2005.04.002.
- Prado F. 2021.** Non-Recombinogenic Functions of Rad51, BRCA2, and Rad52 in DNA Damage Tolerance. *Genes (Basel)* **12(10)**:1550 DOI 10.3390/genes12101550.
- Reddien PW, Oviedo NJ, Jennings JR, Jenkin JC, and Sánchez Alvarado A. 2005.** SMEDWI-2 is a PIWI-like protein that regulates planarian stem cells. *Science* **310(5752)**:1327-1330 DOI 10.1126/science.1116110.
- Rink JC. 2013.** Stem cell systems and regeneration in planaria. *Dev Genes Evol* **223(1-2)**:67-84 DOI 10.1007/s00427-012-0426-4.
- Rosety-Rodríguez M, Ordoñez FJ, Rosety M, Rosety JM, Rosety I, Ribelles A, and Carrasco C. 2002.** Morpho-histochemical changes in the gills of turbot, *Scophthalmus maximus* L., induced by sodium dodecyl sulfate. *Ecotoxicol Environ Saf* **51(3)**:223-228 DOI 10.1006/eesa.2001.2148.
- Sachdev S, Ansari SA, Ansari MI, Fujita M, and Hasanuzzaman M. 2021.** Abiotic Stress

- 502 and Reactive Oxygen Species: Generation, Signaling, and Defense Mechanisms.
503 *Antioxidants (Basel)* **10(2)**:277 DOI 10.3390/antiox10020277.
- 504 **Shibata N, Kashima M, Ishiko T, Nishimura O, Rouhana L, Misaki K, Yonemura S, Saito**
505 **K, Siomi H, Siomi MC, and Agata K. 2016.** Inheritance of a Nuclear PIWI from
506 Pluripotent Stem Cells by Somatic Descendants Ensures Differentiation by Silencing
507 Transposons in Planarian. *Dev Cell* **37(3)**:226-237 DOI 10.1016/j.devcel.2016.04.009.
- 508 **Simão FCP, Gravato C, Machado AL, Soares A, and Pestana JLT. 2020.** Toxicity of
509 different polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) to the freshwater planarian *Girardia*
510 *tigrina*. *Environ Pollut* **266(Pt 2)**:115185 DOI 10.1016/j.envpol.2020.115185.
- 511 **Strzalka W, and Ziemienowicz A. 2011.** Proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA): a key
512 factor in DNA replication and cell cycle regulation. *Ann Bot* **107(7)**:1127-1140 DOI
513 10.1093/aob/mcq243.
- 514 **Tang JY, Ou-Yang F, Hou MF, Huang HW, Wang HR, Li KT, Fayyaz S, Shu CW, and**
515 **Chang HW. 2019.** Oxidative stress-modulating drugs have preferential anticancer effects
516 - involving the regulation of apoptosis, DNA damage, endoplasmic reticulum stress,
517 autophagy, metabolism, and migration. *Semin Cancer Biol* **58**:109-117 DOI
518 10.1016/j.semcancer.2018.08.010.
- 519 **Tharp ME, and Bortvin A. 2016.** DjPiwiB: A Rich Nuclear Inheritance for Descendants of
520 Planarian Stem Cells. *Dev Cell* **37(3)**:204-206 DOI 10.1016/j.devcel.2016.04.022.
- 521 **Tofalo R, and Corsetti A. 2017.** RAPD-PCR as a Rapid Approach for the Evaluation of
522 Genotoxin-Induced Damage to Bacterial DNA. *Methods Mol Biol* **1644**:195-201 DOI
523 10.1007/978-1-4939-7187-9_18.
- 524 **Tsikas D. 2017.** Assessment of lipid peroxidation by measuring malondialdehyde (MDA) and
525 relatives in biological samples: Analytical and biological challenges. *Anal Biochem*
526 **524**:13-30 DOI 10.1016/j.ab.2016.10.021.
- 527 **van Wolfswinkel JC, Wagner DE, and Reddien PW. 2014.** Single-cell analysis reveals
528 functionally distinct classes within the planarian stem cell compartment. *Cell Stem Cell*
529 **15(3)**:326-339 DOI 10.1016/j.stem.2014.06.007.
- 530 **Wang B, Li D, Yuan Z, Zhang Y, Ma X, Lv Z, Xiao Y, and Zhang J. 2020.** Evaluation of
531 joint effects of perfluorooctane sulfonate and wood vinegar on planarians, *Dugesia*
532 *japonica*. *Environ Sci Pollut Res Int* **27(15)**:18089-18098 DOI 10.1007/s11356-020-
533 08342-x.
- 534 **Wu JP, and Li MH. 2018.** The use of freshwater planarians in environmental toxicology studies:
535 Advantages and potential. *Ecotoxicol Environ Saf* **161**:45-56 DOI

- 536 10.1016/j.ecoenv.2018.05.057.
- 537 **Xie X, Lin W, Zheng W, Chen T, Yang H, Sun L, Huang F, Wang Z, Lin H, Chen L, Liu J,**
538 **and Yang L. 2019.** Downregulation of G2/mitotic-specific cyclinB1 triggers autophagy
539 via AMPK-ULK1-dependent signal pathway in nasopharyngeal carcinoma cells. *Cell*
540 *Death Dis* **10(2)**:94 DOI 10.1038/s41419-019-1369-8.
- 541 **Yang C, Lim W, and Song G. 2020.** Mediation of oxidative stress toxicity induced by
542 pyrethroid pesticides in fish. *Comp Biochem Physiol C Toxicol Pharmacol* **234**:108758
543 DOI 10.1016/j.cbpc.2020.108758.
- 544 **Yin D, Xu Z, Feng M, Zhao Z, Chen D, and Song L. 2022.** Genotoxicity Evaluation of
545 Metformin in Freshwater Planarian *Dugesia japonica* by the Comet Assay and RAPD
546 Analysis. *Biomed Res Int* **2022**:2822605 DOI 10.1155/2022/2822605.
- 547 **Yuan Z, Shao X, Miao Z, Zhao B, Zheng Z, and Zhang J. 2018.** Perfluorooctane sulfonate
548 induced neurotoxicity responses associated with neural genes expression,
549 neurotransmitter levels and acetylcholinesterase activity in planarians *Dugesia japonica*.
550 *Chemosphere* **206**:150-156 DOI 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2018.05.011.
- 551 **Zagal A, and Mazmanci B. 2011.** Oxidative stress response in Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis*
552 *niloticus*) exposed to textile mill effluent. *Toxicol Ind Health* **27(1)**:81-85 DOI
553 10.1177/0748233710383887.
- 554 **Zare S, Derakhshandeh A, Haghkhah M, Naziri Z, and Broujeni AM. 2019.** Molecular
555 typing of *Staphylococcus aureus* from different sources by RAPD-PCR analysis. *Heliyon*
556 **5(8)**:e02231 DOI 10.1016/j.heliyon.2019.e02231.
- 557 **Zhang HC, Liu TY, Shi CY, Chen GW, and Liu DZ. 2017.** Genotoxicity Evaluation of an
558 Urban River on Freshwater Planarian by RAPD Assay. *Bull Environ Contam Toxicol*
559 **98(4)**:484-488 DOI 10.1007/s00128-016-2027-9.
- 560 **Zhang HC, Shi CY, Sun LQ, Wang F, and Chen GW. 2016a.** Toxic effects of ionic liquid 1-
561 octyl-3-methylimidazolium bromide on the antioxidant defense system of freshwater
562 planarian, *Dugesia japonica*. *Toxicol Ind Health* **32(9)**:1675-1683 DOI
563 10.1177/0748233715573692.
- 564 **Zhang HC, Shi CY, Yang HH, Chen GW, and Liu DZ. 2016b.** Genotoxicity evaluation of
565 ionic liquid 1-octyl-3-methylimidazolium bromide in freshwater planarian *Dugesia*
566 *japonica* using RAPD assay. *Ecotoxicol Environ Saf* **134p1**:17-22 DOI
567 10.1016/j.ecoenv.2016.08.016.
- 568 **Zhang Y, Gao J, Nie Z, Zhu H, Du J, Cao L, Shao N, Sun Y, Su S, Xu G, and Xu P. 2022.**
569 Microcystin-LR induces apoptosis in Juvenile *Eriocheir sinensis* via the mitochondrial

- 570 pathway. *Ecotoxicol Environ Saf* **238**:113528 DOI 10.1016/j.ecoenv.2022.113528.
- 571 **Zhong A, Zheng H, Zhang H, Sun J, Shen J, Deng M, Chen M, Lu R, and Guo L. 2019.**
- 572 MUS81 Inhibition Increases the Sensitivity to Therapy Effect in Epithelial Ovarian
- 573 Cancer via Regulating CyclinB Pathway. *J Cancer* **10(10)**:2276-2287 DOI
- 574 10.7150/jca.30818.
- 575 **Zhou L, Li J, Lin X, and Al-Rasheid KA. 2011.** Use of RAPD to detect DNA damage induced
- 576 by nitrofurazone in marine ciliate, *Euplotes vannus* (Protozoa, Ciliophora). *Aquat Toxicol*
- 577 **103(3-4)**:225-232 DOI 10.1016/j.aquatox.2011.03.002.

Table 1(on next page)

Semi-lethal concentration (LC_{50}) of SDS to *D. japonica* at different time points.

Notes: x is the logarithm of concentration, y is the odd unit; R^2 is the “coefficient of determination”; 95% CI is 95% confidence interval.

1

Exposure time (h)	Regression equation	R ²	LC ₅₀ (mg/L)	95% CI (mg/L)
24	y=11.6x-2.36	0.961	4.30	4.09 ~ 4.51
48	y=13.5x-2.76	0.941	3.76	3.61 ~ 3.93
72	y=11.5x-1.19	0.998	3.45	3.28 ~ 3.63
96	y=13.3x-1.71	0.955	3.20	3.06 ~ 3.34

2

3

Table 2 (on next page)

Analysis and statistics of different bands in RAPD profiles of control group and treatment groups.

Notes (a) appearance of new bands; (b) disappearance of normal bands; (c) increase in band intensities; (d) decrease in band intensities; (a+b) polymorphic bands; (a+b+c+d) varied bands.

1

Primer	Control	0.5 mg/L												1.0 mg/L											
		1d				3d				5d				1d				3d				5d			
		a	b	c	d	a	b	c	d	a	b	c	d	a	b	c	d	a	b	c	d	a	b	c	d
S5	3	3	0	2	1	3	0	2	1	2	1	2	0	3	0	2	1	3	0	2	1	2	1	2	0
S8	2	3	0	1	0	3	0	1	0	2	0	1	1	3	0	1	0	3	0	1	0	3	0	1	0
S10	5	2	0	2	1	2	0	2	2	2	0	3	1	2	0	3	0	2	0	3	0	0	1	2	2
S15	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
S17	5	2	0	2	0	2	0	1	1	3	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	3	1	3	1
S18	5	0	1	2	0	0	1	2	0	0	1	2	0	0	2	1	0	0	1	3	0	0	1	2	1
S20	5	0	3	0	1	0	1	2	1	0	2	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	4	0	0	0	4	0	0
S64	4	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	1
S75	6	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	2	0	2
S78	4	0	0	1	0	0	0	3	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	2
S80	5	1	0	3	0	1	0	2	0	0	3	1	2	2	0	2	0	3	0	0	2	0	0	2	1
S83	4	0	0	3	0	1	1	2	0	1	0	0	3	0	1	2	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	3
S84	6	0	2	2	0	0	3	1	0	0	3	2	0	0	2	3	0	0	3	3	0	0	4	0	2
Total	56	11	7	19	3	13	7	19	5	10	13	17	10	13	7	21	2	12	10	17	6	8	21	12	15
a+b		18				20				23				20				22				29			
a+b+c+d		40				44				50				43				45				56			

2

Figure 1

The effects of SDS on oxidative stress of *D. japonica*.

(A) SOD, (B) CAT activities and (C) MDA content of the planarians exposed to 0.5 mg/L and 1.0 mg/L SDS for 1, 3, and 5 days. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

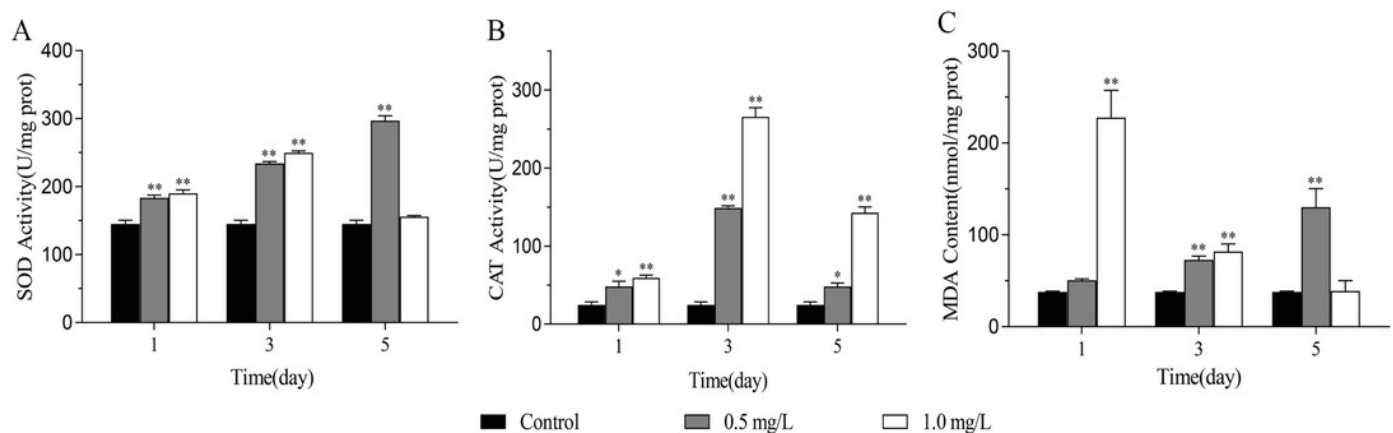


Figure 2

Genomic DNAs and RAPD profiles of planarian *D. japonica*.

(A) Genomic DNAs isolated from *D. japonica* exposed to 0.5 mg/L and 1.0 mg/L SDS for 1, 3, and 5 days. M is 1kb DNA ladder (10 000, 8 000, 6 000, 5 000, 4 000, 3 000, 2 000, 1 500, 1000, 500 bp from top to bottom). 0 is control. (B) Reproducibility of RAPD profiles generated from *D. japonica* of the control group DNAs. M is DL2000 DNA marker (2 000, 1 000, 750, 500, 250, 100 bp from top to bottom). (C)-(F) RAPD profiles of genomic DNAs from *D. japonica* exposed to SDS using primers S5, S8, S10, and S17. M is DL2000 DNA marker.

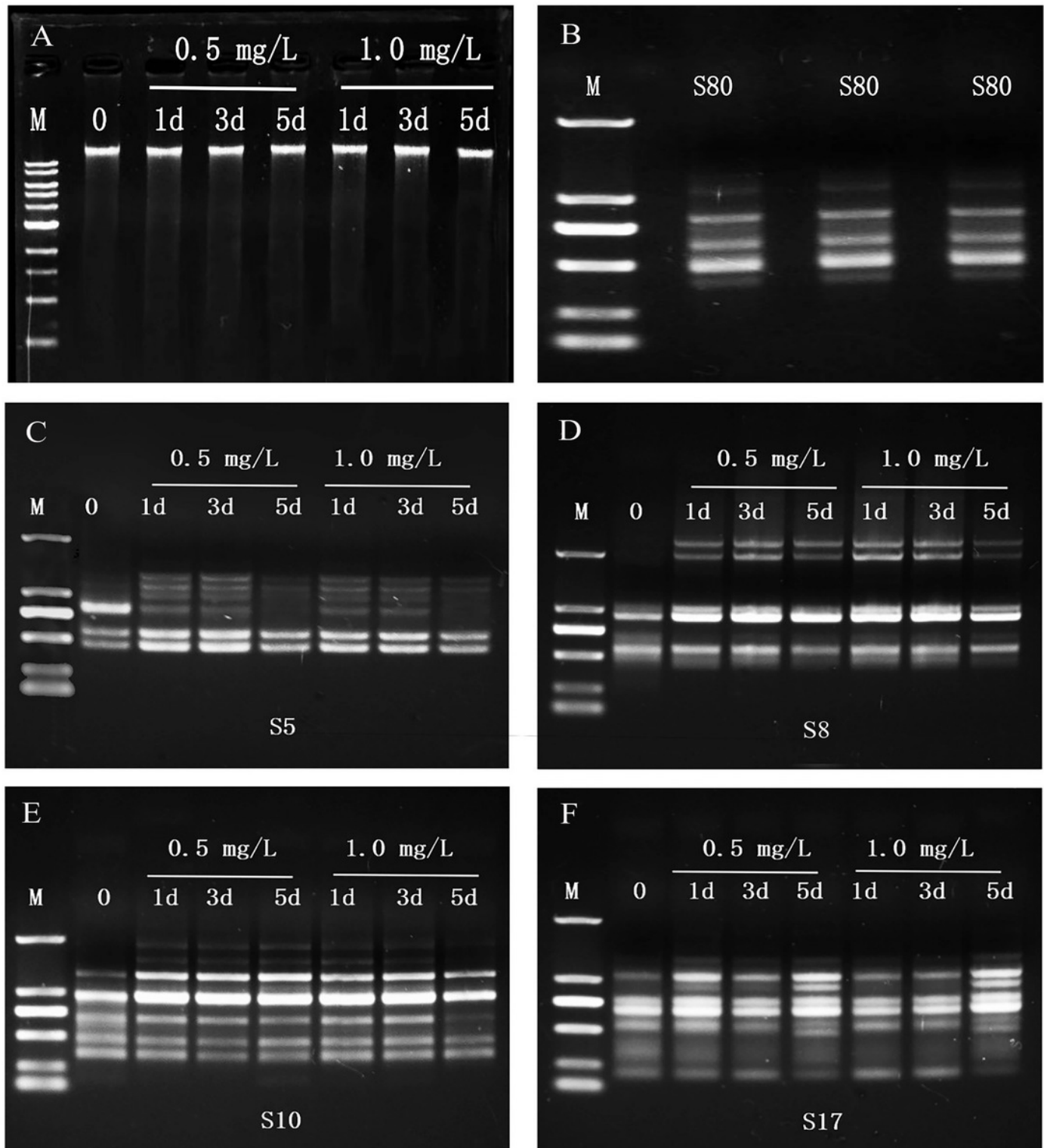


Figure 3

Genomic template stability (GTS) of *D. japonica* exposed to 0.5 mg/L and 1.0 mg/L SDS for 1, 3, and 5 days.

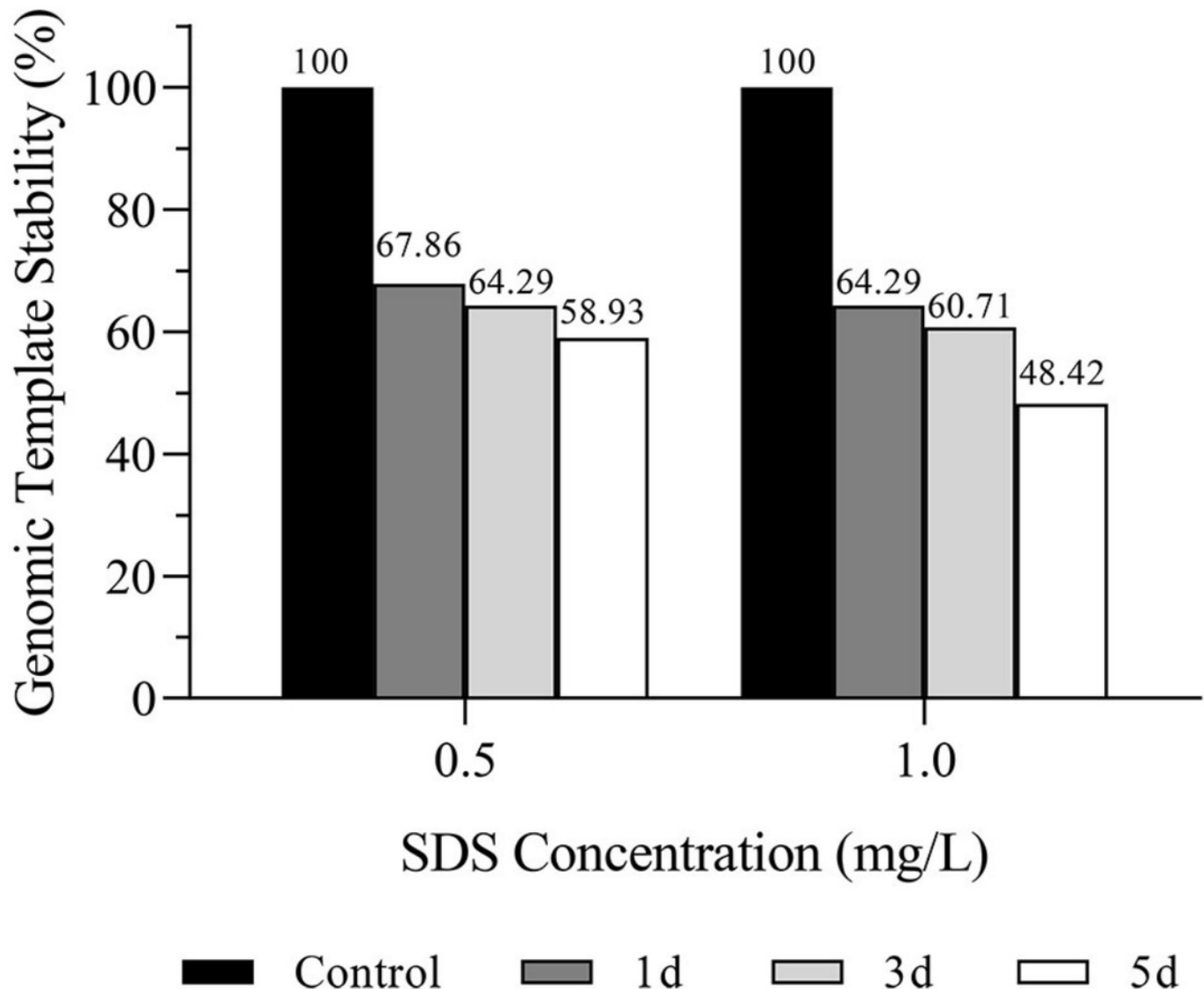


Figure 4

Expression levels of mRNA by qPCR after exposure to 1.0 mg/L SDS for 1, 3, and 5 days in *D.japonica*.

The expression levels of (A) apoptosis related genes *Dj-caspase3*; (B) cell proliferation related gene *Dj-piwiA*, (C) neoblast differentiation related gene *Dj-piwiB*; (D) cell proliferation marker gene *Dj-PCNA*; (E) cell cycle related gene *Dj-cyclinB*; (F) DNA damage related gene *Dj-RAD51*.

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

