

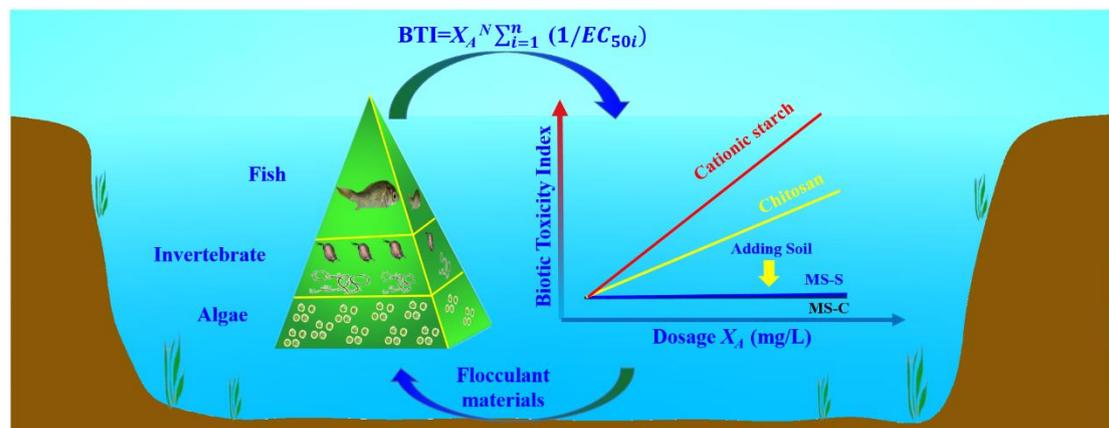
Ecotoxicological assessment of flocculantmodified soil for lake restoration using an integrated biotic toxicity index

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Abstract

Flocculantmodified soils/clays are being increasingly studied as geo-engineering materials for lake restoration and harmful algal bloom control. However, the potential impacts of adding these materials in aquatic ecological systems remain unclear. This study investigated the potential effects of chitosan, cationic starch, chitosan modified soils (MS-C) and cationic starch modified soils (MS-S) on the aquatic organisms by using a bioassay battery. The toxicity potential of these four flocculants was quantitatively assessed using an integrated biotic toxicity index (BTI). The test

17 system includes four aquatic species, namely *Chlorella vulgaris*, *Daphnia*
18 *magna*, *Cyprinus carpio* and *Limnodrilus hoffmeisteri*, which represent four trophic
19 levels in the freshwater ecosystem. Results showed that median effect concentrations
20 (EC₅₀) of the MS-C and MS-S were 31 to 124 times higher than chitosan and cationic
21 starch, respectively. *D. magna* was the most sensitive species to the four
22 flocculants. Histological examination of *C. carpio* showed that significant
23 pathological changes were found in gills. Different from chitosan and cationic starch,
24 MS-C and MS-S did not apparently alter the solution viscosity but significantly
25 alleviated the acute toxicities of chitosan and cationic starch. The toxicity order of the
26 four flocculants based on BTI were cationic starch > chitosan > MS-S > MS-C. The
27 results suggested that BTI can be used as a quantitative and comparable indicator to
28 assess biotic toxicity for aquatic geo-engineering materials. Chitosan or cationic
29 starch modified soil/clay materials can be used at their optimal dosage without
30 causing substantial adverse effects to the bioassay battery in aquatic ecosystem.

31 **Keywords**

32 Chitosan, Cationic starch, Modified soil, Ecotoxicity, Aquatic organisms

33 **1. Introduction**

34 Over the past several decades, harmful algae blooms (HABs) have frequently
35 occurred worldwide, causing serious ecological and economic impacts to aquatic
36 ecosystems and human health (Akyuz et al., 2014; Paerl and Huisman, 2008). Several

37 chemical (Burson et al., 2014; Fan et al., 2013), mechanical (Li et al., 2014) and
38 biological techniques (Kim et al., 2007; Nan et al., 2008) have been developed to
39 reduce these impacts. Recently, lake geo-engineering techniques are discussed in
40 solving this problem. The term “geo-engineering”, defined as achieving a desired
41 chemical or ecological response by adding materials such as a modified clay or metal
42 compound to a lake (Mackay et al., 2014). The range of materials used is growing
43 and includes engineered materials, commercially available salts, flocculants,
44 clay/soils and industrial by-products (Spears et al., 2014).

45 Although these materials may be useful in controlling nutrient level, there is a need
46 to evaluate the impacts of adding exogenous materials to the aquatic ecosystem.
47 Reports indicate that some chemical materials exhibit toxicity to aquatic biota. The
48 lanthanum-modified clay (Phoslock[®]) is promising in holding phosphorus in the
49 sediment (Meis et al., 2013), but the population growth rates of daphnia are 6% and
50 20% lower than the control at 100 and 1000 µg La/L, respectively (Lürding and
51 Tolman, 2010). Clearwater et al. (2014) demonstrate that fingernail clam survival is
52 adversely affected by high dosage (344 g alum/m²) of alum application and some
53 aluminium accumulation occurred in the crayfish and mussels (Clearwater et al.,
54 2014). The aqueous Al can increase the risk of infection in the crayfish by impairing
55 the ability of haemocytes to recognise and/or remove bacteria from the circulation
56 (Ward et al., 2006). Recent studies indicate that toxic Al³⁺ could be released after
57 alum application at low pH (<6.0), and sediment-capping with alum could inhibit
58 microbial nitrification and denitrification under aerobic conditions (Gibbs and

59 Oezkundakci, 2011).

60 Recently, natural flocculant materials, such as chitosan and cationic starch, were
61 developed as environmental friendly materials to control harmful algal blooms
62 because of their high flocculation efficiency (Anthony and Sims, 2013; Hansel et al.,
63 2014; Letelier-Gordo et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2013). To improve the HABs removal
64 using clays, chitosan is used to modify the local soils and applied to small natural
65 waters to control both cyanobacteria blooms and sediment nutrient release, leading to
66 recovery in submerged macrophytes(Li and Pan, 2015; Li and Pan, 2013; Pan et al.,
67 2012). Anthony and Sims (2013) find that cationic starch can effectively flocculate
68 algae cells and remove total phosphorus in wastewater with an upward trend of TP
69 removal with increasing dosage. Cationic starches serve as substrates in anaerobic
70 digestion or fermentation processes using the harvested biomass as feedstock and
71 such biomass can be safely used as animal feed or fertilizer (Anthony and Sims,
72 2013). Cationic starch modified soil has been reported by Shi et al. (2015) as the
73 effective algae flocculant with the loading of 0.11 g/L for a removal efficiency of
74 86%. Although chitosan and cationic starch have been used in wastewater treatment
75 and the removal of HABs in aquatic system, there are little studies on their toxicity
76 effects on aquatic ecological system when they are applied in field (Li and Pan, 2013).
77 It is necessary to evaluate the biotic toxicity of chitosan and cationic starch by using
78 appropriate test methods.

79 Conventional methods of assessing toxicity effect of flocculants are to expose a
80 single species to the flocculent solutions over a range of concentrations for a certain

81 period of time, but the results may be not sufficient because a single organism cannot
82 represent an aquatic ecosystem. Therefore, the application of a battery of bioassay
83 tests with organisms belonging to different trophic levels is recommended and
84 developed (Hartwell, 1997; Nowell et al., 2014; Wei et al., 2011).Antunes et al. (2007)
85 use a battery of bioassays (algae, crustaceans and dipterans) to screen the acute
86 toxicity of water column and sediment from an abandoned uranium mine, and find
87 that *Daphnia longispina* is the most sensitive organisms (Antunes et al., 2007). In
88 order to evaluate the effects of human activities on the biosafety of water quality, Wei
89 et al. (2008) develop an evaluation method using algae, daphnia and larval
90 medaka(Wei et al., 2008). Tigini et al. (2011) study the toxicity of simulated textile
91 and tannery wastewaters by using a battery of seven organism bioassays and find that
92 the algae *Pseudokirchneriellasubcapitatais* the most sensitive organism (Tigini et al.,
93 2011). While bioassay battery tests can provide more information than single species
94 test to assess the toxicity of chemicals, it is still hard to quantitatively evaluate the
95 biotic toxicity of biodegradable and/or non-degradable chemicals to the aquatic
96 ecosystem and to the food chain.

97 Several integrated assessment toxicity models have been developed to evaluate the
98 biotic toxicity in the field of pesticide and wastewater treatment. Potential ecotoxic
99 effects probe (PEEP) index was developed to assess and compare the toxic potential
100 of industrial effluents (Costan et al., 1993). Nowell et al. (2014) used Pesticide Toxic
101 Index (PTI) to evaluate relationships between pesticide exposure and biological
102 condition (Nowell et al., 2014). However, the information about the biotic toxicity of

103 flocculants to the aquatic organisms is very limited. There is an urgent need to
104 develop an integrated biotic toxicity index to assess toxicological effects of chemicals
105 on the aquatic organisms.

106 This paper aims to investigate the biotic toxicity of chitosan, cationic starch,
107 chitosan modified soil (MS-C) and cationic starch modified soil (MS-S) to the
108 aquatic organisms and elucidate the mechanism of the toxic effect by means of a
109 battery of four bioassays that belong to different trophic levels. An integrated biotic
110 toxicity index (BTI) was developed to make a comprehensive and comparable
111 assessment on the biotic toxicity of the added flocculants on the aquatic organisms.

112 **2. Materials and methods**

113 **2.1. Soil and Flocculants**

114 The soils and chitosan used in this study were described in a previous study (Li and
115 Pan 2013). Cationic starch was obtained from Minsheng Environmental Technology
116 Co. Ltd, Dalian, China. The cationic starch was dissolved by adding 250 mg cationic
117 starch to 100 mL deionized water. The molecular weights (MW) of chitosan and
118 cationic starch are 5×10^5 g/mol and 1×10^8 g/mol, respectively. The chitosan modified
119 soils (MS-C) and cationic starch modified soils (MS-S) were obtained by adding 100
120 mL chitosan solution (5 mg/mL) or 100 mL cationic starch solution (2.5 mg/mL) to
121 100 mL soil suspension (50 mg/mL), respectively. The mixture was well stirred and
122 then ready for use in the toxicity experiment.

123 **2.2. Test solution**

124 BG11 medium was used for algae growth inhibition test only. The solution was
125 adjusted to pH 8.2 by adding either 0.5 mol/L NaOH or 0.5 mol/L HCl solutions after
126 autoclaving (Li and Pan, 2013). The artificial water with a pH of 7.8, a total hardness
127 of 250 mg CaCO₃ /L was used for the other tests. The dissolved oxygen values were
128 maintained at 8.0 mg/L.

129 **2.3. Aquatic organisms**

130 *Chlorella vulgaris*

131 The green algae *C. vulgaris* (FACHB-1227) were obtained from the FACHB,
132 Institute of Hydrobiology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, and cultured in BG11
133 medium, at 25±1 °C and with a 12L: 12D h photoperiod in an illuminating incubator.
134 At the start of new cultures, algae were harvested during the exponential growth
135 phase and inoculated in fresh medium.

136 *Daphnia magna* and *Limnodrilus hoffmeisteri*

137 The *D. magna* and *L. hoffmeisteri* were isolated from Lake Taihu, China and were
138 maintained in artificial water at 25 ± 1 °C, on a 16 h light and 8h darkness regimen.
139 The average weight of the *L. hoffmeisteri* was 40 ± 10 mg, and the average body
140 length was 10 ± 2 mm. *D. magna* were fed with *Scenedesmus obliquus* (10⁶ cells/mL)
141 and *L. hoffmeisteri* were fed with approximately 100 mg powder fish food every day.

142 *Cyprinus carpio*

143 *C. carpio*, were obtained from a fish farm and acclimated for a month to lab

144 conditions in 100 L tank filled with artificial water prior to the tests. The average
145 mass/size of *C. carpio* used in the test was $0.5\pm 0.1\text{g}/3.0\pm 0.2\text{cm}$. The fish were fed
146 with commercial carp food at a rate of 1.5% of body weight. The tank water was
147 changed weekly. Ammonia, nitrate and nitrite levels were kept below toxic
148 concentrations ($<0.1\text{ mg/L}$) (Eyckmans et al., 2012).

149 **2.4. Experiment design**

150 **Soil leachate and toxicity tests**

151 Soil materials may potentially release heavy metals into water phase under a
152 variety of conditions. The toxicity characteristic leaching procedure (TCLP) was
153 carried out to determine the mobility of metal elements in soil (USEPA, 1992). The
154 metal elements leached from the soil by three different extraction fluids were
155 analyzed using Inductively Coupled Plasma Emission Spectrometry (ICP-OES,
156 Optima 8300, PerkinElmer, USA). As a complementary test, the effects of soil on four
157 species were determined. Following a static design, the organisms were exposed to
158 five concentrations soil (62.5, 125, 250, 500 and 1000 mg/L) in BG11 medium or
159 artificial water.

160 ***C. vulgaris* growth inhibition test**

161 The tests were conducted using a 72 h growth inhibition bioassay. The algae were
162 exposed to 9 dilutions of four flocculant materials. Each treatment had three
163 replicates and was kept in 125mL erlenmeyer flask which contained 50 mL test
164 solution. The initial algae cell density of each treatment was 1×10^4 cells/mL. The cell

165 density was determined using a Neubauerhemocytometer. The flasks were incubated
166 under cool white fluorescent light of 2000 lx on a 12 h light and 12 h darkness
167 regimen. The *C. vulgaris* suspension in each flask was thoroughly mixed by shaken
168 every 8 h to prevent cell aggregating. The yield in each individual treatment was
169 calculated as the difference between the cell densities at the end and at the beginning
170 of the test. The inhibition in yield (I_y) was expressed as (Costa et al. 2014):

171
$$I_y = 100 (Y_C - Y_T) / Y_C \text{-----} (1)$$

172 where Y_C and Y_T represent the yield for the controls and each replicated treatment,
173 respectively.

174 ***D. magna* immobilization test**

175 Acute toxicity to *D. magna* was examined with the 48h *Daphnia magna*
176 immobilization test. The acute immobilization tests were conducted in accordance
177 with the USEPA guidelines. Neonates aged less than 24 h and born within the 3rd to
178 5th culture broods were used in the test. For each treatment, 10 offsprings were used
179 by 100mL flask which contained 50mL solution, test in triplicate. The details of
180 concentration setting were provided in (Table S1 in supplementary information).
181 Immobilized organisms were counted after a 48 h exposure period and the daphnias
182 were not fed during the test.

183 ***L. hoffmeisteri* acute toxicity test**

184 *L. hoffmeisteri* were exposed to 50 mL test solutions in 10cm Petri dishes for 96h.
185 The test solution was renewed every 24 h. Each dish contained 5 worms, tested in
186 triplicate. Immobilized organisms were counted after a 96 h exposure period and the

187 worms were not fed during the test. The details of concentration setting are provided
188 in (Table S1).

189 ***C. carpio* acute toxicity test**

190 The acute toxicity of the four flocculants to *C. carpio* was evaluated in 96h static
191 tests where fish were placed in 1.5 L of exposure solution in 2 L glass beakers. The
192 test protocol followed Chemicals-Fish acute toxicity test (GBT/27861-2011). There
193 were six treatment concentrations with three replicates (Table S1). Each beaker
194 contained 5 fish. Survival was assessed daily and dead organisms removed when
195 found. Survival and changes in gill histology at 96 h were the primary endpoints.

196 **Histopathology**

197 The morphological changes of *D. magna*, *L. hoffmeisteri* and *C. carpio* were
198 observed using a dissecting microscope and imaging software (Image Analysis System
199 13.0). The algae were observed by Axio Scope A1 microscope (Zeiss, Germany) at
200 400× magnification.

201 In the fish acute toxicity test, the live fish were anaesthetized with MS-222, fixed
202 in Bouin's fluid for 24h, and then processed for histology where 6µm sections per
203 fish per slide were stained with hematoxylin/eosin (H&E). Gill, liver, kidney, gut,
204 skin and heart histopathology were evaluated using an Axio Scope A1 microscope
205 (Zeiss, Germany) at 400× magnification.

206 **Biotic toxicity index (BTI)**

207 In order to comprehensively and quantitatively assess the toxicological effect on
208 the aquatic organisms after adding the geo-engineering materials, a biotic toxicity

209 index (BTI) was established by means of a battery of four bioassays, using organisms
 210 that belong to different trophic levels. The BTI was determined according to the
 211 equation:

$$212 \quad BTI = X_A^N \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{1}{EC_{50i}} \right) \quad (2)$$

213 Where X_A is the practical dosage of material A (mg/L). n is the number of species in
 214 the bioassay battery. EC_{50i} is the median effect concentrations of the material for the
 215 separate species (mg/L). X_A and EC_{50i} are expressed in the same units. The value of
 216 N is calculated according to the following three scenarios:

217 **Scenario 1:** when the material A is biodegradable, then $N=1$;

218 **Scenario 2:** when the material A is non-biodegradable, and the selected test organisms

219 do not have a food chain relationship, then $N = \sum_{i=1}^n (BCF_i) / n$, and $BCF_i = \frac{C_{si}}{C_w}$,

220 where BCF_i is bioconcentration factor (McGeer. et al., 2003), C_{si} is the material

221 concentration in each kind of test organism at steady state ($\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ dry weight), and C_w

222 is the material concentration in water ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$). If $X_A=0$ mg/L, then $BTI=0$;

223 **Scenario 3:** when the material is non-biodegradable, and the test organisms in the

224 bioassay battery are from the same aquatic ecosystem, then $N = BMF = \left(\frac{F_n/F}{TL_n/TL_1} \right)$,

225 where BMF is the biomagnification factor (Hoekstra et al., 2003). F_n and F_1 are

226 material concentrations of the highest and lowest trophic level species,

227 respectively. TL_n and TL_1 is the trophic level of the highest and trophic

228 level species which can be determined by stable isotope ratios of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. If $X_A=0$

229 mg/L, then $BTI=0$.

230 A higher BTI implies that the material has higher risk to the aquatic organisms or

231 aquatic food chain.

232 2.5. Data analysis

233 EC_{50} and general statistical analysis of the data are estimated using PASW statistics

234 18.0 (SPSS software, IBM, <http://www-01.ibm.com/software/analytics/spss/>). A

235 significance level of 0.05 is used in all statistical analyses.

236 3. Results

237 3.1. Toxicity of metals in the soil

238 The metal concentrations leached from the soil at pH 2.88 were higher than those

239 at pH 4.93 and pH 7.85. Acidic condition was used to test the maximum potential of

240 heavy metal risk from the soil. Table 1 showed that the metal concentration leached

241 under simulated environmental conditions from the tested soil materials did not

242 exceed the acute 48 h EC_{50} values to *D. magna* (Biesinger and Christen., 1972).

243 **Table 1- The concentration of metal elements leached from the soil by three**
244 **different extraction fluids (mg/L)**

Elements ^a	Concentration of metal elements			<i>D. magna</i> 48-h EC_{50}
	A leachate ^b	B leachate ^c	C leachate ^d	
Aluminum	--	0.06	1.27	3.90
Arsenic	0.10	0.08	0.08	7.40
Barium	--	0.31	0.55	14.50
Copper	--	0.02	0.04	0.06
Iron	--	0.07	0.29	9.60
Magnesium	2.30	4.99	8.11	140.00
Manganese	0.14	1.57	3.35	9.80
Plumbum	--	0.04	0.36	0.45
Stannum	0.20	0.19	0.19	55.00
Zinc	--	0.18	0.21	0.28

245 ^a The following elements were below the detection limit (<0.01mg/L): Ag, Be, Bi, Cd, Ce,

246 Co, Cr, Se, Sb, Sn, U.

247 ^b Deionized water, pH=7.85. ^c Acetic acid solution, pH=4.93. ^dAcetic acid solution, pH=2.88.

248 3.2. Toxic effects of flocculant materials

249 Table 2 indicated that the chitosan appeared to be less acutely toxic than cationic
250 starch, with the EC_{50} for the four organisms being around two times higher than the
251 cationic starch. EC_{50} of the MS-C and MS-S were 31 to 124 times higher than
252 chitosan and cationic starch. *D. magna* was the most sensitive species to the four
253 flocculants. The order of sensitivity (from highest to lowest based on EC_{50} values) of
254 the four species assessed to the four flocculants was *D. magna*>*C. vulgaris*>*C.*
255 *carpio*>*L. hoffmeisteri*. EC_{50} was not obtained for the soil because only 1.5% growth
256 inhibition of algae and no immobilization or mortality of daphnia, tubificidae and fish
257 were found at the highest soil concentration (1000 mg/L) tested. The soil did not
258 show the acute toxicity to the four aquatic organisms.

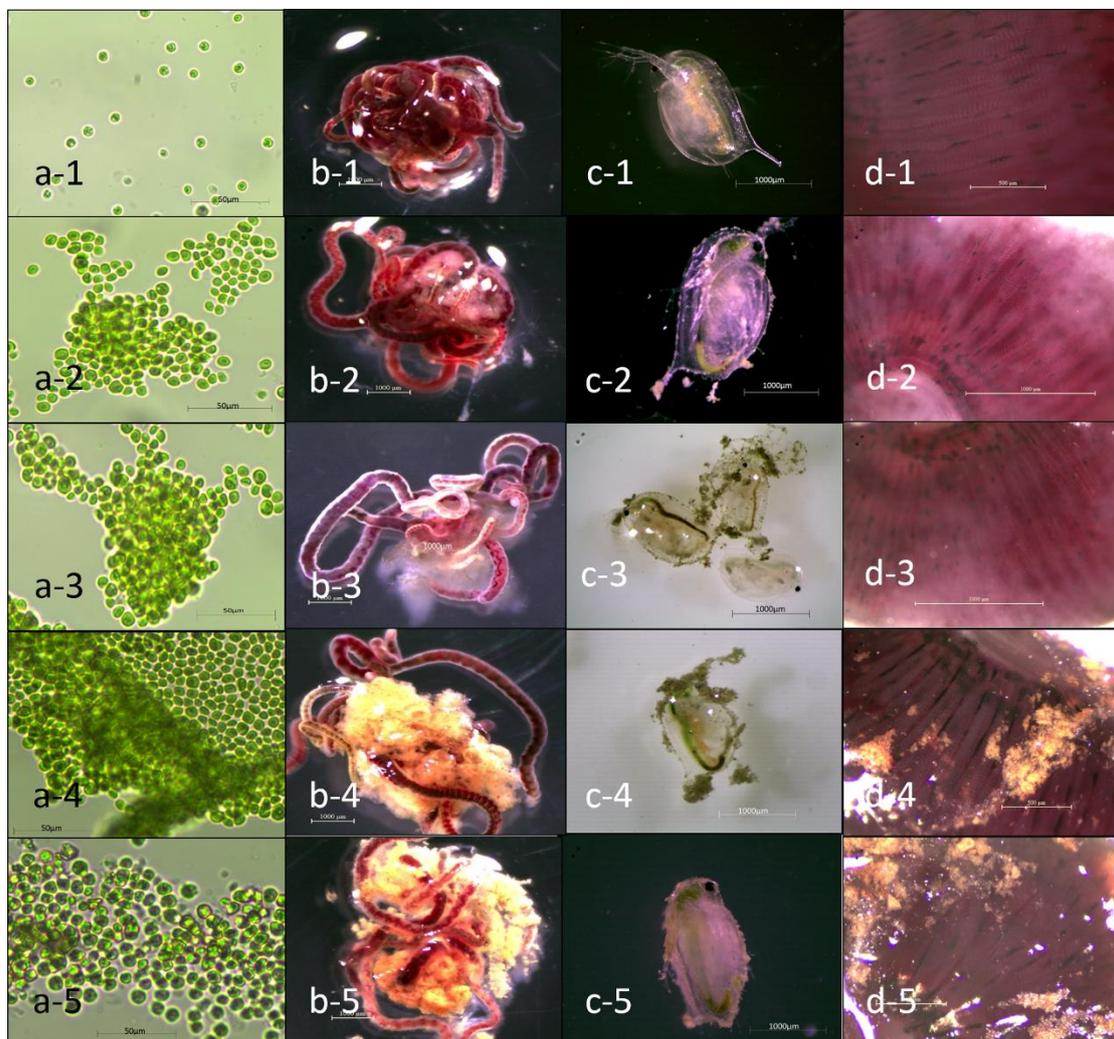
259 **Table 2- EC_{50} for flocculant materials to the four species.**

Test endpoint	EC_{50}/LC_{50} (95% confidence interval limits) (mg/L)				
	Chitosan	MS-C	Cationic starch	MS-S	soil
72-h algae yield inhibition	3.5 (2.3-4.5)	110.2 (99.9-122.1)	1.8 (1.2-2.5)	113.2(94.8-137.3)	>500
48-h daphnia immobilization	2.2 (1.6-2.9)	102.0 (84.0-126.9)	0.9 (0.6-1.4)	90.2(72.4-114.4)	>500
96-h tubificidae immobilization	6.9 (5.4-8.1)	323.2(248.7-443.7)	3.7 (2.9-4.6)	248.7(192.9-330.3)	>1000
96-h fish mortality	3.0 (2.3-3.6)	165.7(125.0-232.0)	1.4 (0.8-2.1)	173.1(124.6-268.1)	>1000

260 3.3. Morphology and Histopathology

261 The micrographs of the four species exposed to different concentrations of
262 flocculant materials were used to provide an intuitive interpretation of the interaction

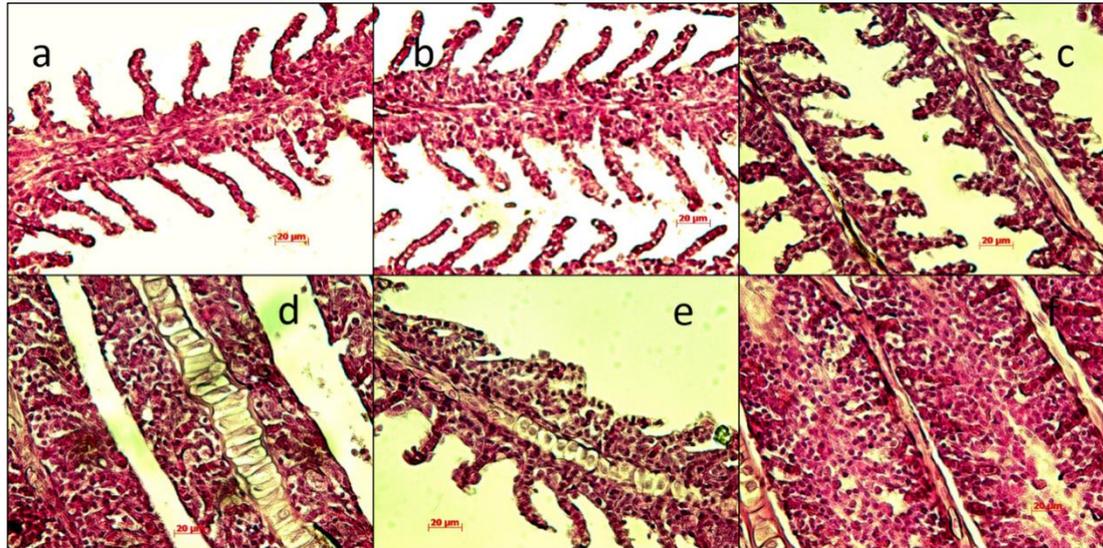
263 between the flocculants and biological surfaces. Algal flocsmicrographs showed that
 264 the four kinds of flocculants could wrap and hold *C. vulgaris* cells and aggregated
 265 them into large and complex flocs. Although the *C. vulgaris* cells were thoroughly
 266 mixed by shaken to prevent cell clumping, most of the algae cells sink to the bottom
 267 compared to the control (Fig. 1 a-2 to a-5). Lots of flocs adhered to the surface of *L.*
 268 *hoffmeisteri*, *D. magna* and the gill tissue of *C. carpio*(Fig. 1 b-2 to b-5, c-2 to c-5
 269 and d-2 to d-5).



270 Fig.1- The morphological changes of *C. vulgaris*, *L. hoffmeisteri*, *D. magna* and *C.*
 271 *carpio*exposed to different concentration of flocculants. (a-1), *C. vulgaris* control. (a-2), *C.*
 272 *vulgaris* exposed to 2.4 mg/L chitosan. (a-3), *C. vulgaris* exposed to 1.2mg/L cationic starch.
 273 (a-4), *C. vulgaris* exposed to 36.0 mg/L chitosan modified soils. (a-5), *C. vulgaris* exposed to

274 25.4 mg/L cationic starch modified soils. (b-1), *L. hoffmeisteri* control. (b-2), *L. hoffmeisteri*
275 exposed to 4.8mg/L chitosan. (b-3), *L. hoffmeisteri* exposed to 2.0 mg/L cationic starch. (b-4),
276 *L. hoffmeisteri* exposed to 131.1 mg/L chitosan modified soils. (b-5), *L. hoffmeisteri* exposed
277 to 87.5 mg/L cationic starch modified soils. (c-1), *D. magna* control. (c-2), *D. magna* exposed
278 to 2.0 mg/L chitosan. (c-3), *D. magna* exposed to 0.8mg/L cationic starch. (c-4), *D. magna*
279 exposed to 74.0 mg/L chitosan modified soils. (c-5), *D. magna* exposed to 39.3mg/L cationic
280 starch modified soils. (d-1), Gill of *C. carpio*control. (d-2), Gill of *C. carpio*exposed to
281 2.0mg/L chitosan. (d-3), Gill of *C. carpio*exposed to 0.8mg/L cationic starch. (d-4), Gill of *C.*
282 *carpio*exposed to 91.9mg/L chitosan modified soils. (d-5), Gill of *C. carpio*exposed to
283 70.0mg/L cationic starch modified soils.

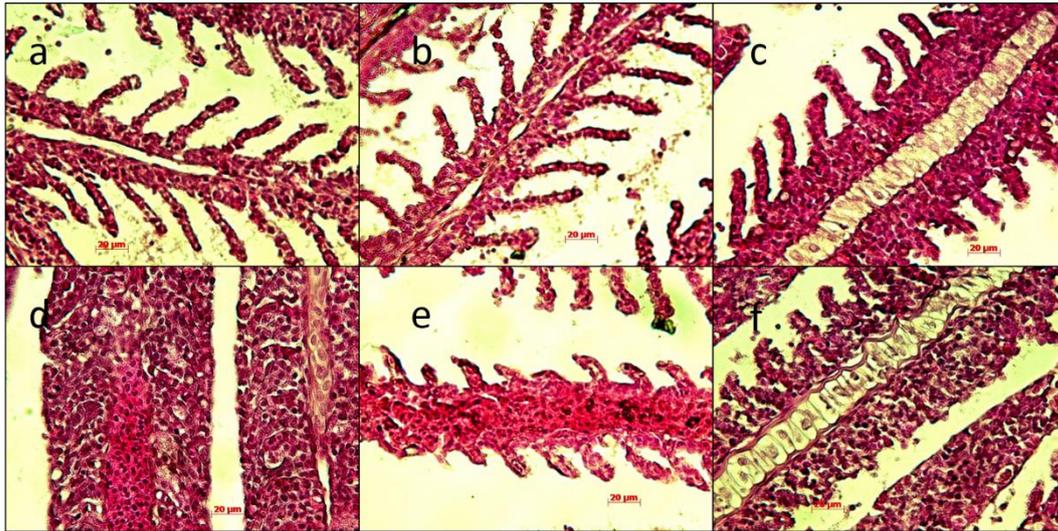
284 Gill, liver, kidney, heart, gut and muscle histopathology were monitored in
285 common carp exposed for 96h to the four flocculant materials. Fish acute toxicity
286 tests indicated the histopathological changes were only happened in gill tissue. Gill
287 tissues of fish sampled from the control (Fig. 2a) and the soil control (Fig. 3a) were
288 normal with blood spaces of the lamellae obvious and uniform in size. The gill of fish
289 showed a significant increase in the number of red blood cells compared to the
290 control when they were exposed to 91.9 mg/L MS-C (chitosan content 8.4 mg/L) or
291 2.0 mg/L chitosan for 96 h (Fig. 2c and e). Exposure to 70.0 mg/L MS-S (cationic
292 starch content 3.3 mg/L) or 0.8 mg/L cationic starch for 96 h also caused a significant
293 increase in the number of gill cells. More seriously, large areas of adjacent lamellas
294 were fused when they were exposed to higher concentrations of modified soil,
295 chitosan and cationic starch (Fig. 2 d and f, Fig. 3 d and f).



296

297 **Fig.2- Histological sections of gill tissues of *C. carpio*. (a) Control gill tissue. (b) *C. carpio***
 298 **exposed to 31.8 mg/L chitosan modified soils. (c) *C. carpio*exposed to 91.9 mg/L chitosan**
 299 **modified soils. (d) *C. carpio* exposed to 265.5 mg/L chitosan modified soils. (e) *C. carpio***
 300 **exposed to 2.0 mg/L chitosan. (f) *C. carpio* exposed to 8.0 mg/L chitosan.**

301 The bottoms of the lamellae engorged with red blood cells and significantly
 302 increased gill lamellar thickness for the carp exposed to 2.0 mg/L chitosan (Fig. 2e)
 303 and 0.8 mg/L cationic starch (Fig. 3e), however, the similar pathological symptoms
 304 were not found in the fish exposure to 31.8 mg/L MS-C (chitosan content 2.9 mg/L,
 305 Fig. 2b) and 21.6 mg/L MS-S (cationic starch content 1.0 mg/L, Fig.3b).The height of
 306 the lamellae decreased while the gill lamellas were thickened. (Fig.2c and e, Fig.3c
 307 and e).

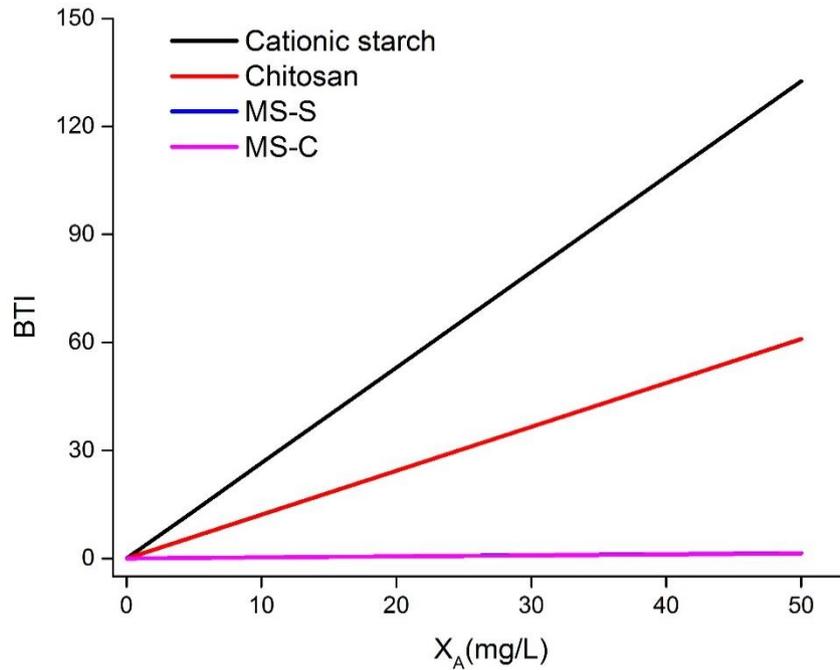


308

309 **Fig. 3-** Histological sections of gill tissues of *C. carpio*. (a) *C. carpio* exposed to 1000 mg/L
 310 soil. (b) *C. carpio* exposed to 21.6 mg/L cationic starch modified soils. (c) *C. carpio* exposed
 311 to 70.0 mg/L cationic starch modified soils. (d) *C. carpio* exposed to 226.7 mg/L cationic
 312 starch modified soils. (e) *C. carpio* exposed to 0.8 mg/L cationic starch. (f) *C. carpio* exposed
 313 to 3.2 mg/L cationic starch.

314 **3.4. Biotic toxicity index (BTI)**

315 Chitosan and cationic starch are easily biodegradable which can hardly accumulate
 316 and transfer through food chain (Bloto et al., 2007). In this scenario, parameter $N=1$.
 317 Based on the EC_{50} of the flocculants to the bioassay battery (Table 2), the functional
 318 relation between *BTI* and dosage (X_A) of the flocculants was calculated by using
 319 formula (2), as shown in Fig.4. The order of biotic toxicity of the four flocculants to
 320 the bioassay battery was cationic starch > chitosan > MS-S > MS-C. The BTI of cationic
 321 starch and chitosan was found to increase as the dosage of the flocculants
 322 increased. However, the BTI for MS-C and MS-S remained very low which did not
 323 have significant change as the dosage increased (Fig.4).



324

325 **Fig. 4-Thefunctional relation between *BTI* and dosage (X_A) of the four**
 326 **flocculants.**

327 Based on the practical dosage (X_A) of flocculants in the published literatures, we
 328 calculated the BTI of Modified soil (MS) and corresponding modifiers, respectively.
 329 Table 3 showed that the BTI of chitosan or cationic starch was higher than modified
 330 soil which contained the same amount of modifier. Soil could reduce the biotic
 331 toxicity of chitosan and cationic starch.

332 **Table 3- BTI for MS-C , MS-S according to the practical dosage (X_A) of**
 333 **flocculants in the published literatures.**

Modified soil/clay flocculant		BTI	Chitosan in MS (mg/L)	BTI	Cationic starch in MS (mg/L)	BTI	Reference
Type	(X_A) mg/L						
MS-C	11	0.3	1	1.2	--	--	Zou et al., 2006
	25	0.7	2.5	3.1	--	--	Pan et al., 2006
	77 ^a	<0.6	2	2.4	--	--	Pan.et al., 2012
	102 ^b	<0.6	2	2.4	--	--	Li and Pan et al., 2013
MS-S	110	3.3	--	--	10	26.5	Shi et al., 2015

334

a, chitosan: soil(w/w)=1:17.5; b, chitosan: soil(w/w)=1:50

335 **4. Discussion**

336 **4.1. Toxic effects of chitosan and cationic starch on aquatic organisms**

337 Natural flocculant materials are widely studied as geo-engineering materials for
338 controlling harmful algal blooms or nutrient levels (Li and Pan 2013; Wang et al.,
339 2013). Among these flocculants materials such as chitosan and cationic starch are the
340 most promising ones for application due to abundant source, easy availability and
341 biodegradation with less secondary pollution (Hansel et al., 2014; Letelier-Gordo et
342 al., 2014). However, cationic polymers are often toxic to the aquatic organisms (Lee
343 et al., 2014) and direct application of these materials in aquatic environment may
344 pose adverse effects (Bullock et al., 2000; Rizzo et al., 2008).

345 Cationic flocculants maybe toxic to zooplankton and fish because the surfaces of
346 aquatic organisms often carry with net negative charge (Lee et al., 2014). Dissolved
347 chitosan is cationic polymer with high charge density (Rinaudo, 2006). Hence, the
348 chitosan and cationic starch can readily bind to the surface of aquatic
349 organisms. This ultimately can result in toxicity to the aquatic organism due to the
350 reduction of oxygen transfer through damaged cell surfaces or by effects on the ionic
351 balance.

352 *C. vulgaris* cells were agglomerated and sedimented to the bottom at different
353 concentrations of chitosan and cationic starch. Compared to the control, the chitosan
354 and cationic starch do not exhibit a detrimental impact on *C. vulgaris* cell integrity in
355 72h (Fig. 1 a-1 to a-3). However, *C. vulgaris* growth inhibition occurred (Table 2).

356 Costa et al. (2014) found that cationic polymers could cause physiological damage to
357 the green microalgae due to the especially strong affinity of the flocculants to the
358 algal cellular surface and further inhibit the proliferation of the cells (Costa et al.,
359 2014). We found lots of white flocs adhere to the surface of *D.magna* (Fig. 1 b) and *L.*
360 *hoffmeisteri*, even some cladoceraswerestuck together by the cationic starch (Fig. 1
361 c-2). The toxicity effects of the chitosan and cationic starch to the zooplankton may
362 result from mechanical impairment, including locomotion inhibition and disturbance
363 of predation mechanisms (Costa et al., 2014).

364 Fig. 1d indicated that the flocs of chitosan and cationic starch could adhere to the
365 surface of the gill of the carp and cause thickening and shortening of common carp
366 gill filaments leadingto destruction of the filament structure. Large areas of adjacent
367 lamellae are fused when the carp exposure to high concentrations of chitosan and
368 cationic starch (Fig. 2 f and Fig. 3 f), which is similar to that observed previously
369 with cationic polymer exposure in lake trout fry (Liber et al., 2005). Since the
370 chitosan and cationic starch with long-chain structure are difficult to pass through the
371 cell membranes (Goodrich et al., 1991), the most likely mechanism of pathological
372 changes of gill tissue is flocculants adsorption onto the organ surfaces.Hence the
373 microenvironment surrounding the gill cells will be altered and transport mechanisms
374 between the cells and the water are disrupted, with further impacts on respiratory and
375 ion regulation processes (Rowland et al., 2000).

376 4.2. Toxic effects of chitosan and cationic starch modified soil

377 The biotic toxicity of MS-C and MS-S to the bioassay battery was much less
378 than chitosan and cationic starch (Table 2). The adding of soil could reduce toxicities
379 of chitosan and cationic starch by one to two orders of magnitude. Some reports
380 indicated that clays could effectively reduce the acute toxicities of cationic polymers
381 to aquatic organisms (de Rosemond and Liber, 2004). Goodrich et al. (1991) also
382 found that the biotic toxicity of cationic polymer was reduced 33- to 75-fold at higher
383 humic acid concentrations (Goodrich et al., 1991). The adsorption and neutralization
384 of the positive charge of cationic polymers to the surface of clays is well documented
385 (Cary et al., 1987). Soil particles could reduce the toxicity of chitosan and cationic
386 starch to the aquatic organism by adsorbing much of the flocculants onto soil surfaces.
387 The flocculant modified/adsorbed soil particles are not only less toxic but also more
388 effective in flocculating algae cells especially at high particle concentration where
389 collision between the modified soil particles and the algae cells can be effectively
390 increased (Li and Pan, 2013).

391 Suspended particles (SP) are ubiquitous in natural waters. The mean SP
392 concentration can range from 2 - 200 mg/L (Bolto and Gregory, 2007) to as high as
393 65g/L in the Yellow River (Pan et al., 2013). The application dosage of soil is
394 generally comparable to the SP concentration in many nature waters (Li and Pan, 2013;
395 Zou et al., 2006). SP (>500mg/L) itself showed no toxic effect to the four aquatic
396 species (Table 2). The concentrations of metal leached from the soil at pH 7.85 and
397 4.93 are far below the EC₅₀ of these metals to *D.manga* (Table 1). It can be confirmed

398 that chitosan and cationic starch is the main toxic components in the modified soil.
399 Since the toxicity of these modifiers can be reduced after combining them with
400 soil/clay particles, flocculants modified soil or clay provide an approach to improve
401 the ecological safety of the cationic polymers for HABs control.

402 **4.3. Biotic toxicity index**

403 As a toxicity assessment and screening tool for the lake geoengineering materials,
404 BTI could be used to assess the toxicity of flocculants on aquatic organisms in three
405 scenarios. In this work, we calculated the BTI of chitosan and cationic starch in
406 scenario 1 since both chitosan and cationic starch are biodegradable in the aquatic
407 ecosystem. There is a single linear regress relationship between BTI and the dosage
408 of flocculants (X_A) when $N=1$. The contents of modifier in MS were often below 10%
409 in the published literatures and the MS usually shows higher flocculation efficiency
410 (Table 3). Some clays can flocculate algae cells without being modified by flocculants
411 (Lewis et al., 2003; Pan et al., 2006). The flocculation ability of soil/clay was
412 improved by adding chitosan or cationic starch, however, the toxicity of modifier was
413 correspondingly reduced.

414 In lake geo-engineering, mineral-based byproducts and inorganic flocculant have
415 been used widely. The application of non-degradable inorganic salts may increase the
416 metal (e.g. aluminum, iron, lanthanum) concentration in natural waters. The metals
417 may be ingested and accumulated in biological bodies or transport to a higher trophic
418 level through aquatic food chain (Cui et al., 2011) and produce adverse impacts such

419 as deformities and death on aquatic organisms (Bird et al., 2008). We can use formula
420 (2) to calculate the BTI of non-biodegradable flocculant in scenario 2 if there is not
421 food chain relationship among the test organisms. In this situation, the
422 bioconcentration factor (BCF) was introduced into formula (2). So the BTI has
423 exponential relationship to the practical dosage X_A , and the BTI of non-biodegradable
424 flocculant grew more faster than biodegradable flocculants with the increased of X_A .

425 In practical applications, lake managers are more concerned about the impacts of
426 flocculants on actual aquatic ecosystem than standardized laboratory toxicity tests
427 (the latter are more replicable which is important for experiments). If the organisms in
428 the bioassay battery are from the same aquatic ecosystem, they can form an actual
429 food chain relationship. In this scenario, the trophic level and biomagnification action
430 were considered and biomagnification factor (BMF) was introduced. Due to the
431 biomagnification, the higher trophic level may suffer from more damage than the
432 lower one. Under this scenario, the *BTI* also has exponential relationship to the
433 practical dosage X_A . It is possible to obtain the toxicity effects of the
434 non-biodegradable flocculants to the aquatic food chain. With toxicity data of metal
435 salts and with well established methods for obtaining the battery in the same system,
436 scenario 2 and 3 can be measured in separate studies. Nevertheless, the BTI provided
437 here could provide useful information for the lake manager to screen and rank the
438 toxicity of flocculants for the lake geo-engineering.

439 Although the BTI can be used to reveal the biotic toxicity of flocculants it still has
440 several limitations which must be further studied. Firstly, toxicity values are based on

441 short-term laboratory experiments with acute EC_{50} endpoints; the BTI does not reflect
442 long-term/chronic exposure or incorporate sublethal endpoints. Secondly, the BTI
443 does not account for many environmental factors, which can affect the toxicity and
444 bioavailability of the flocculants. More comprehensive studies on ecotoxicological
445 effect of geo-engineering materials are needed before they can be widely applied in
446 natural waters at large scale.

447 **4.4. Implication for lake geo-engineering**

448 Although natural flocculants have the potential to be more biodegradable and
449 environmental friendly than non-degradable chemical salts (Bolto and Gregory, 2007),
450 it does not necessarily imply that they are ecologically safe for the aquatic system
451 especially when they are modified by chemical reactions. Before these materials can
452 be used in field at large scale, their ecological safety and ecotoxicology should be
453 comprehensively studied. Our results demonstrated that using chitosan or cationic
454 starch alone may cause some toxic effects to the aquatic biota (Table 2). The aquatic
455 organisms may suffer from movement inhibition or pathological changes of tissues at
456 low concentration of chitosan or cationic starch (Fig. 2, Fig.3). By modifying with the
457 soil/clay particles, the acute toxicity of chitosan and cationic starch can be largely
458 decreased while the flocculation efficiency is substantially enhanced (Li and Pan
459 2013; Zou et al., 2006). A preliminary toxicity test is necessary to screen the toxicity
460 risk of flocculants before practical application. The BTI method proposed here is a
461 comparable and quantitative method which can reflect the toxicity of flocculant to the

462 aquatic organisms.

463 **5. Conclusion**

464 Biotic toxicity index (BTI) were used to assess the toxicity potential of four
465 representative geo-engineering materials including chitosan, cationic starch, chitosan
466 modified soil, cationic starch modified soil to the aquatic organisms. The fact that
467 EC₅₀ values of chitosan and cationic starch are much lower than that of chitosan or
468 cationic starch modified soil/clay materials indicates that direct use of chitosan or
469 cationic starch alone as flocculants has a much higher toxic risk than the modified
470 soil/clay materials. When MS-C and/or MS-S are used at the optimized dosage of 11-
471 110 mg/L, it may not cause substantial adverse effects to the four representative
472 organisms in aquatic ecosystem. The mainly acute toxic effect of flocculants on the
473 fish is pathological changes of gill tissues caused by the affinity of floc to the
474 biological surface. The results of BTI indicated that the potential impact of
475 flocculants on the aquatic organisms was in order: cationic starch > chitosan > MS-C >
476 MS-S. The BTI can be used to describe the toxic effects of biodegradable or
477 non-biodegradable flocculants on the aquatic organisms or food chain.

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