

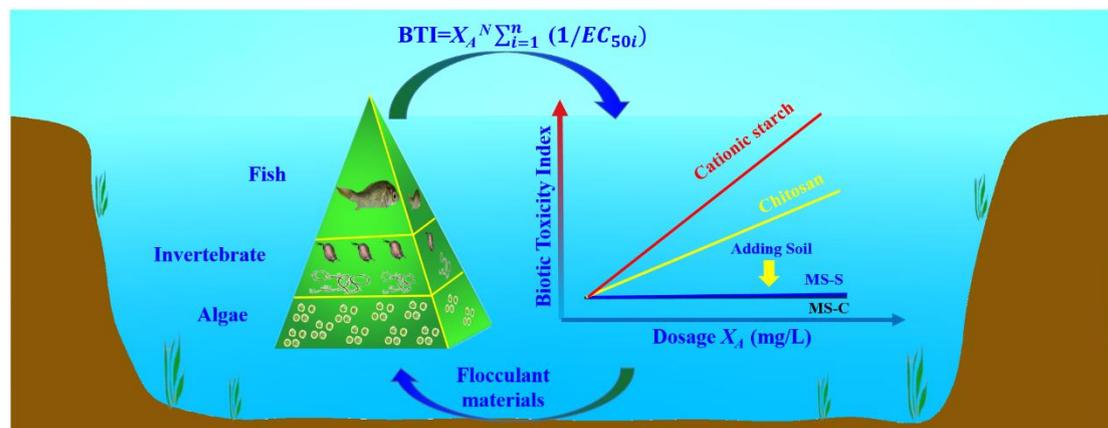
# Ecotoxicological assessment of flocculantmodified soil for lake restoration using an integrated biotic toxicity index

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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 (EC<sub>50</sub>) 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<sup>®</sup>) 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 (Lürling and  
51 Tolman, 2010). Clearwater et al. (2014) demonstrate that fingernail clam survival is  
52 adversely affected by high dosage (344 g alum/m<sup>2</sup>) 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 Al<sup>3+</sup> 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 *Pseudokirchneriellasubcapitata*is 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  $5 \times 10^5$  g/mol and  $1 \times 10^8$  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 CaCO<sub>3</sub> /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* (10<sup>6</sup> 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  $1\times 10^4$  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 5<sup>th</sup> 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:

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

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 <sup>a</sup>	Concentration of metal elements			<i>D. magna</i> 48-h $EC_{50}$
	A leachate <sup>b</sup>	B leachate <sup>c</sup>	C leachate <sup>d</sup>	
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 <sup>a</sup> The following elements were below the detection limit (<0.01mg/L): Ag, Be, Bi, Cd, Ce,

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

247 <sup>b</sup> Deionized water, pH=7.85. <sup>c</sup> Acetic acid solution, pH=4.93. <sup>d</sup>Acetic 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.

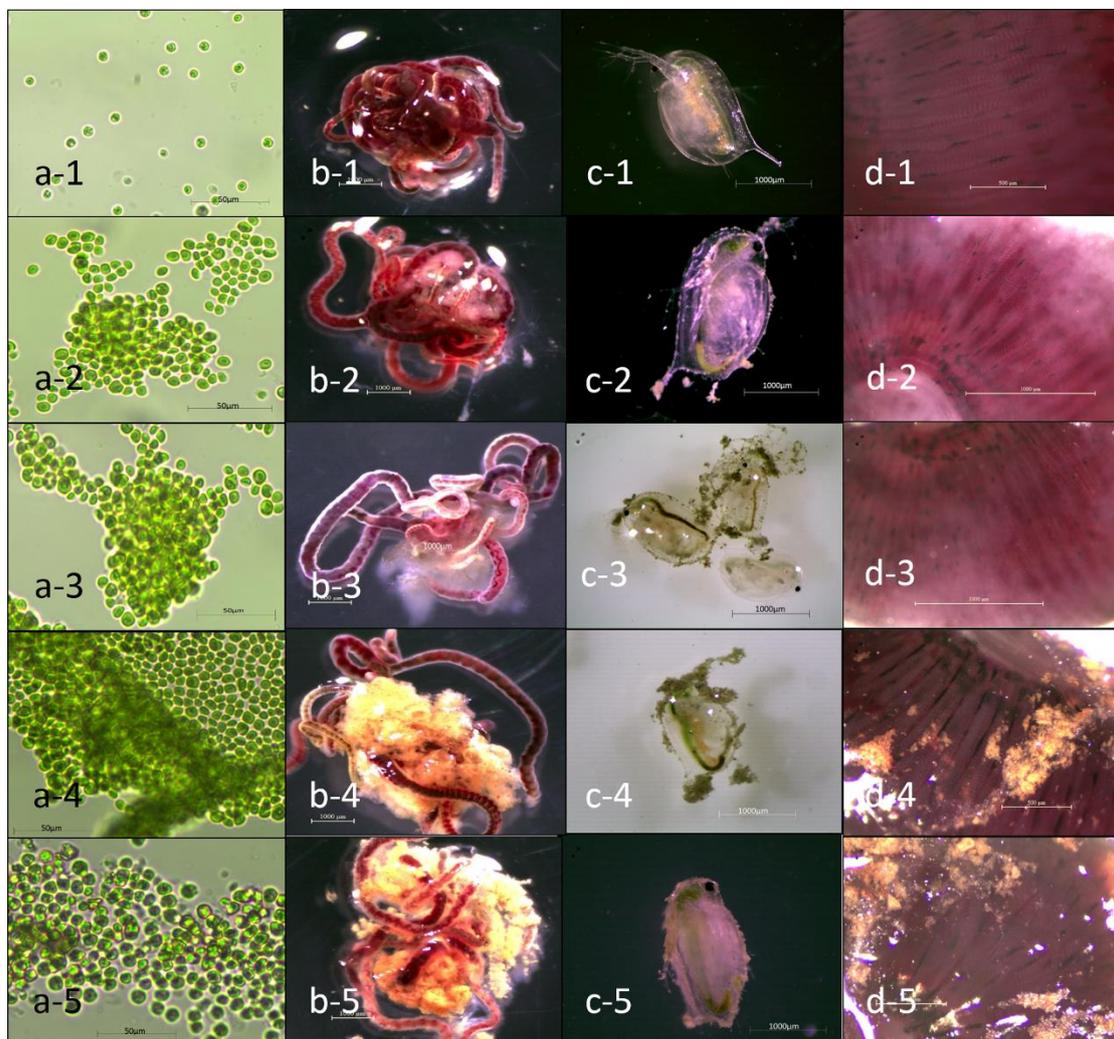
259 **Table 2-  $EC_{50}$  for flocculant materials to the four species.**

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

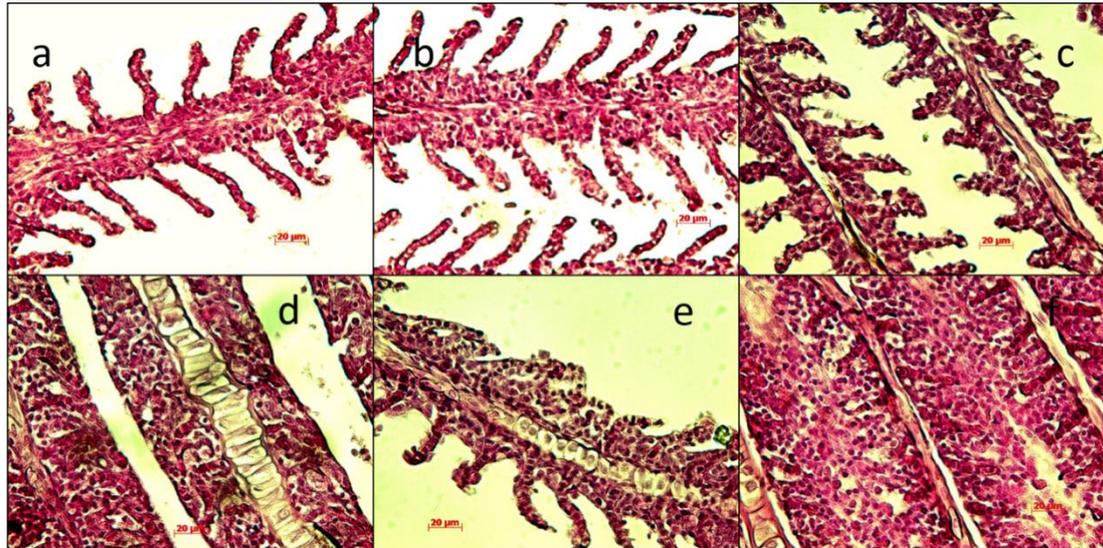
263 between the flocculants and biological surfaces. Algal flocsmicrographs showed that  
 264 the four kinds of flocculants could wrap and hold *C. vulgaris* cells and aggregated  
 265 them into large and complex flocs. Although the *C. vulgaris* cells were thoroughly  
 266 mixed by shaken to prevent 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.

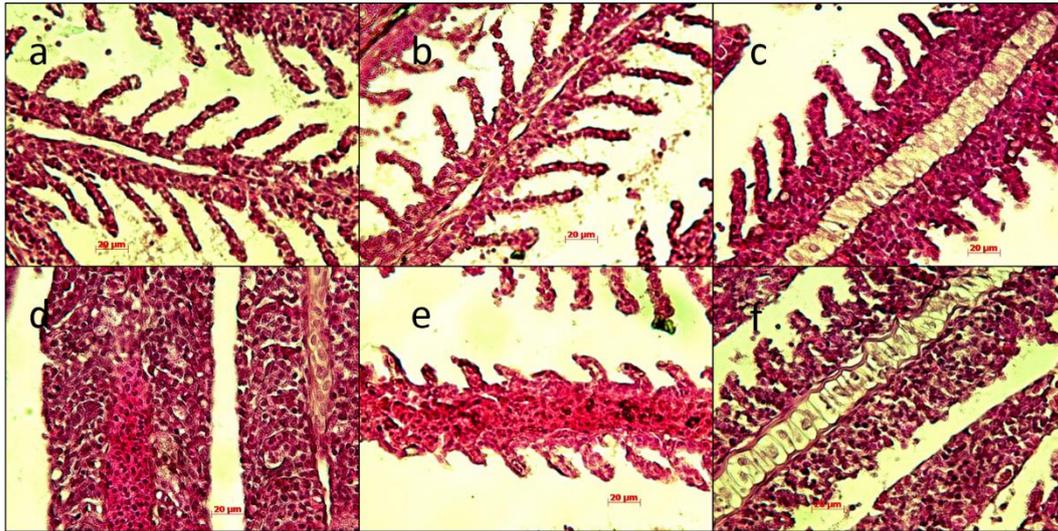
284 Gill, liver, kidney, heart, gut and muscle histopathology were monitored in  
285 common carp exposed for 96h to the four flocculant materials. Fish acute toxicity  
286 tests indicated the histopathological changes were only happened in gill tissue. Gill  
287 tissues of fish sampled from the control (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).

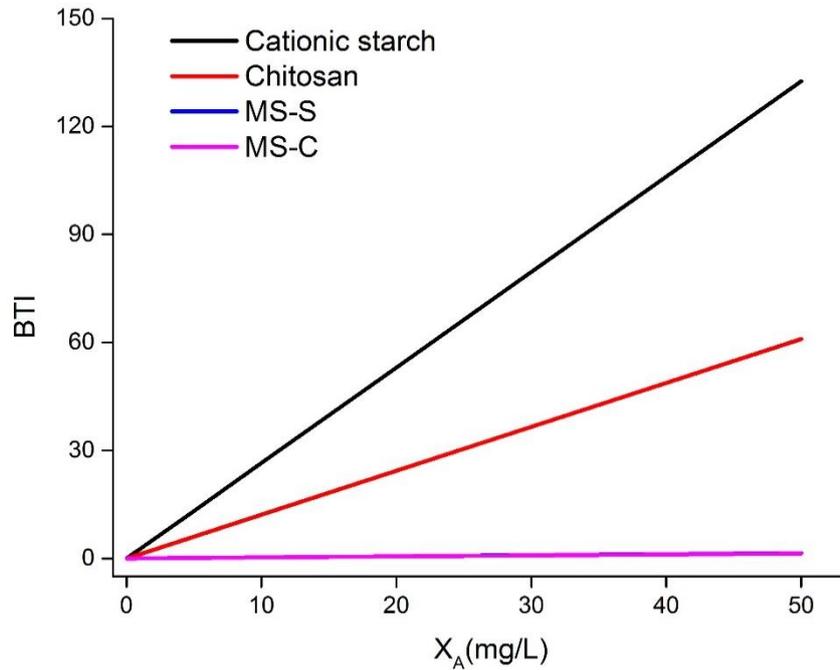


308

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 <sup>a</sup>	<0.6	2	2.4	--	--	Pan.et al., 2012
	102 <sup>b</sup>	<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 EC<sub>50</sub> 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 EC<sub>50</sub> 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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