# Effects of prolonged application of peracetic acid based disinfectant on a recirculating aquaculture system stocked with Atlantic salmon parr

- 4
- 5 Junjie Zhang<sup>a</sup>, Maia Eggen<sup>b</sup>, Stefano Peruzzi<sup>b</sup>, Rolf Klokkerengen<sup>a</sup>, Eivind Sundfør<sup>a</sup>, Derrick
- 6 Kwame Odei<sup>b</sup>, Gerrit Timmerhaus<sup>c</sup>, Alexandros G. Asimakopoulos<sup>a</sup>, Trond Peder Flaten<sup>a</sup>, Carlo C.
- 7 Lazado<sup>c</sup>, Vasco C. Mota<sup>d,c,\*</sup>
- 8 <sup>a</sup> Department of Chemistry, NTNU Norwegian University of Science and Technology, NO-7491
- 9 Trondheim, Norway
- 10 <sup>b</sup> Faculty of Biosciences, Fisheries and Economics, UiT The Arctic University of Norway, 9037,
- 11 Tromsø, Norway
- 12 ° Nofima AS, Norwegian Institute of Food, Fisheries and Aquaculture Research, 1433 Ås, Norway
- 13 <sup>d</sup> Faculty of Science and Technology (REALTEK), Norwegian University of Life Sciences (NMBU),
- 14 1432 Ås, Norway
- 15
- 16 \* Corresponding author: <u>vasco.mota@nmbu.no</u>

## 18 Abstract

19	The use of recirculating aquaculture systems (RAS) for land-based Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar)
20	production has become increasingly common in Norway. An essential aspect of RAS is water
21	disinfection, which plays a crucial role in ensuring water quality and biosecurity. Peracetic acid
22	(PAA) has emerged as a promising disinfectant due to its powerful oxidative properties, broad
23	antimicrobial spectrum, and rapid degradation into no harmful compounds. This study focused on
24	assessing the consequences of prolonged application of a PAA-based disinfectant in a RAS stocked
25	with salmon parr. The experiment included three treatment groups in triplicate: 0 mg/L PAA
26	(control), 0.1 mg/L PAA, and 1 mg/L PAA, using nine-replicated RAS units with a total of 360 fish
27	$(14.8 \pm 2.3 \text{ g}; \text{N}=40/\text{RAS})$ . The study spanned 28 days, with samples collected on days 0, 14, and
28	28. The analyzed parameters were water quality, and several fish parameters, including external
29	welfare indicators, gill histology, total antioxidant capacity (TAC), reactive oxygen species/reactive
30	nitrogen species (ROC/RNC), oxidative stress biomarkers related to DNA and protein, cellular DNA
31	damage, and global gene expression. While water quality remained relatively stable, there was an
32	increase in bacterial populations in the groups exposed to PAA, particularly the high PAA
33	concentration group. Fish weight did not significantly differ between the control and PAA-exposed
34	groups. TAC, ROC/RNC, and oxidative stress biomarkers exhibited similar trends. Intriguingly, the
35	study identified more than 400 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in the skin, gill, and olfactory
36	organ, with many of these DEGs associated with immune responses. Comparing the transcriptomic
37	profiles of the three tissue organs revealed that the olfactory organ was the most reactive to PAA
38	treatment. This study shows that calculated PAA concentrations of 0.1 mg/L and 1 mg/L in the
39	pump-sump, contributed to an increase of bacteria whereas no detectable differences in health and

- 40 welfare of salmon parr were found. These findings are promising for the implementation of PAA-
- 41 based disinfectants in RAS to stoked with Atlantic salmon parr.

- 43 Keywords: differentially expressed genes, oxidative stress, peracetic acid, recirculating aquaculture
- 44 systems, salmon parr, welfare
- 45





## **1 Introduction**

50	Peracetic acid (PAA), an organic compound produced by combining acetic acid and hydrogen
51	peroxide, has gained widespread use in water disinfection for its effectiveness and lack of
52	environmentally harmful by-products (Dominguez Henao et al., 2018; Luukkonen and Pehkonen,
53	2016). Over the past decade, PAA has emerged as a popular disinfectant especially against off-
54	flavor-producing bacteria in aquaculture (Acosta et al., 2022; Carletto et al., 2022; Lazado and Good,
55	2021; Liu et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2017; Pedersen and Lazado, 2020; Pedersen et al., 2009).
56	PAA at low concentrations is efficient in rapidly eradicating the protozoan parasite (Ichthyophthirius
57	multifiliis), the causative agent of white spot disease in fish (Meinelt et al., 2007). Recent research
58	has shown that PAA at concentrations ranging from 2.8 to 9.3 mg/L (mean 24-h $LC_{50}$ ) and 1.9 to
59	5.8 mg/L (no-observed effect concentration) during 24-hour exposure exhibited no lethal effects on
60	twelve different fish species (Straus et al., 2018). In recirculating aquaculture systems (RAS),
61	periodic water disinfection with PAA temporarily reduces suspended bacterial loads, modulates fish
62	stress responses, and provides long-term health benefits (Liu et al., 2018). The degradation of PAA
63	in aquaculture systems varies with water quality (chemical oxygen demand, salinity, temperature),
64	fish densities, and initial PAA concentrations (Pedersen and Lazado, 2020; Pedersen et al., 2013;
65	Pedersen et al., 2009; Wu et al., 2024; Wu et al., 2023).
66	Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar) holds a significant position in global aquaculture production, with a
67	worldwide output of 2.7 million tons, Norway being the largest producer (FAO, 2022). The Atlantic
68	salmon aquaculture cycle typically involves a fresh water land-based smolt production, followed by
69	on-growing in sea cages to reach market size (MOWI, 2023). In Norway, up to 70% of land-based

50 smolt is produced in RAS, owing to the numerous benefits, including reduced environmental impact,

71	flexible location, and high biosecurity (Meriac, 2019; Mota et al., 2022b). Although several studies
72	have examined the effects of PAA on salmon, most have focused on smolt and post-smolt stages,
73	with varied responses observed in different life stages (Lazado et al., 2020a; Lazado et al., 2020b;
74	Lazado et al., 2021b; Lazado et al., 2020c). For example, salmon fry weighing approximately 0.5 g
75	exhibited a 76.6% survival rate in the presence of 0.2 mg/L PAA (DiCocco et al., 2021), while
76	smolts weighing around 100 g survived without any abnormal behavior when exposed to 2 mg/L
77	PAA (Lazado et al., 2020b). For Atlantic salmon fingerlings, i.e., parr, the no-observed-effect
78	concentration for acute PAA exposure was found to be below 1.6 mg/L for Atlantic salmon parr
79	(Mota et al., 2022a).
80	This study extends our prior investigations into the acute dose-response of PAA and the
81	repercussions of both pulse and continuous PAA application (maintained at a concentration of 1
82	mg/L over 4 weeks) on Atlantic salmon parr in RAS (Carletto et al., 2022; Mota et al., 2022a). The
83	current inquiry delves deeper into the consequences of prolonged PAA application, exploring two
84	concentrations (0.1 and 1 mg/L over 28 days), on the welfare, health, and growth performance of
85	Atlantic salmon parr in RAS.
86	

### 87 2 Material and methods

## 88 2.1 Experimental fish and RAS

All experimental protocols and methods involving fish were conducted with the approval of the
Norwegian Food Safety Authority, under FOTS ID 24128. The experiment took place at Tromsø
Aquaculture Research Station (HiT, Kårvik, Norway). Atlantic salmon underwent standard

92 procedures for hatching and rearing, as previously described in (Mota et al., 2022a). In brief, 93 Atlantic salmon eyed eggs were hatched and the parr were raised in a freshwater flow-through 94 system with conditions maintained at 7.5 °C, oxygen saturation levels above 85%, and a continuous 95 photoperiod (LD 24:00) until they were transferred to the experimental RAS units.

96

#### 97 2.2 Experimental design

98 Three experimental groups were established, each in triplicate and with different concentrations of 99 PAA: a control group (0 mg/L), a low concentration group (0.1 mg/L), and a high concentration 100 group (1 mg/L). The experiment spanned 28 days, during which PAA was continuously introduced 101 into the pump sump unit using a high-precision multichannel peristaltic pump (IPC, ISMATEC®, 102 Cole-Parmer, USA) to achieve an applied PAA dose of 0.1 or 1 mg/L in this unit. The PAA-based 103 disinfectant product used (Aqua Des<sup>TM</sup>, Aquatic Chemistry AS, Lillehammer, Norway) was a 104 stabilized PAA solution, consisting of 5% v/v PAA, 23% hydrogen peroxide, and 10% acetic acid. 105 This product is approved for use in aquaculture in Norway only when disinfecting aquaculture 106 facilities, transport units and equipment (https://www.mattilsynet.no/fisk-og-akvakultur/dere-ma-107 bruke-godkjente-midler) but it is approved in the EU and in the USA as an aquaculture water 108 disinfectant too. The precise PAA concentration (6.6%) in the product was verified through 109 empirical testing by an external laboratory (DTU Aqua, through Dr. Lars-Flemming Pedersen) 110 (Mota et al., 2022a).

111 A total of 360 Atlantic salmon parr (average weight  $14.8 \pm 2.3$  g) were selected from the flow-112 through system holding tank and randomly distributed among nine experimental RAS units, with 40 fish per tank. The detailed technical specifications of the experimental units was earlier reported in (Mota et al., 2022b). Briefly, each RAS was composed of a cylindro-conical fish tank (V:  $0.5 \text{ m}^3$ ), a drum filter with a micro-screen mesh size of 40 µm, a moving bed bioreactor (V:  $0.2 \text{ m}^3$ , biomedia area 750 m<sup>2</sup>/m<sup>3</sup>), a pump sum (V =  $0.1 \text{ m}^3$ ), a gas exchange unit (CO<sub>2</sub>-degasser cylinder), a low-pressure oxygen cone (0.6 bar) and a temperature control unit. The total RAS water volume was 0.8 m<sup>3</sup>, with a water flow rate of 1500 L/h, a hydraulic retention time (HRT) of 20 minutes in the fish tank, and a photoperiod of L24:D00.

- 120 The fish were acclimated for 7 days prior to the 28 days experimental period under the following
- 121 conditions: dissolved oxygen levels maintained above 85% saturation, pH levels between 7 and 7.5,
- 122 a temperature range of 11.5-12.5 °C, and a salinity of 0 ppt. The fish were continuously fed
- 123 (approximately 23 hours a day) with a commercial diet (1.5 mm pellet size, Nutra Olympic,
- 124 Skretting, Norway) dispensed through an automatic belt feeder.

- 126 2.3 Water analysis
- 127 All water parameters were measured from the effluent of fish tank.
- 128 2.3.1. General water quality parameters
- 129 Dissolved oxygen, pH and temperature were monitored daily using a portable meter (FDO 925 and
- 130 Sentix 940 sensors, Multi 3630 IDS, WTW, Germany). Ammonium (NH<sub>4</sub>-N), nitrite (NO<sub>2</sub>-N) and
- 131 nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub>-N) levels were measured daily using a spectrophotometer with the detection limit of
- 132 0.5 mg/L for ammonium and 0.02 mg/L for nitrite/nitrate (Test Kit 1.14558.001, 1.14776.0001 and
- 133 1.14942.0001, Spectroquant ®, Merck, Germany). Ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>-N) concentrations were

calculated based on ammonium levels, factoring in pH, temperature, and salinity (Johansson and
Wedborg, 1980). Water turbidity was measured daily using a portable meter (ORION AQ4500,
Thermo Scientific®, Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). All these parameters were measured in all
water samples from each fish tank.

138

139 2.3.2. PAA

140 The method for quantifying and validation of PAA in water was based on a modified DPD (N,N-141 diethyl-p-phenylenediamine sulfate salt) (Sigma-Aldrich, Oslo, Norway) photometric method 142 (Pedersen and Lazado, 2020). Briefly, DPD reacts with PAA at pH 6.5, resulting in the formation of 143 a red-colored complex (DPD+). The reaction is catalyzed using potassium iodide (KI) (Sigma-144 Aldrich, Oslo, Norway) photometric and exhibits maximum absorption at 550 nm (Pedersen et al., 145 2009). To determine the PAA concentration, water samples (2.5 mL) were pipetted to a cuvette (4 146 mL) and reagent 1 (EDTA•2H<sub>2</sub>O, H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> 96% (Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany) and DPD salt; 147 250 µL) was added. Thereafter, reagent 2 (Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>•7 H<sub>2</sub>O, (Sigma-Aldrich, Oslo, Norway) 148 KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> (Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany) and KI; 250 µL) was added. The solution was mixed 149 and allowed to equilibrate for 30 s before the absorbance at  $\lambda = 550$  nm was measured in a 150 spectrophotometer (PharmaSpec UV-1700, Shimadzu®, Japan). The detection limit and 151 quantification for PAA was 0.1 mg/L.

152

153 2.3.3. Water bacteria

154 At the conclusion of the 28 days trial, water samples were collected from both the pump sump and

155	fish tank. To decrease the bacteria concentration, we used 10-fold serial dilutions and each dilution
156	(100µl) was platted in technical duplicates on two different medium plates: a general-purpose,
157	nonselective media for a wide variety of microorganisms - Tryptone Soy Agar (TSA) + 1% NaCl
158	(REF 101112DA, VWR, Leuven, Belgium) and a selective media to isolate Vibrio species -
159	Thiosulfate-Citrate-Bile-Sucrose (TCBS) agar (REF 101011ZA, VWR, Leuven, Belgium). The
160	culture plates were then incubated at 12 °C for a period of 7 days. Following incubation, bacterial
161	colonies were counted, and the results were expressed as colony forming units per milliliter of the
162	sample (CFU/mL). Only plates with CFU counts falling within the range of 30 to 200 were
163	considered.

# 165 2.4 Fish sampling

166	Three sampling events were conducted to evaluate the effects of PAA exposure treatment on the
167	fish. The first event took place before the addition of PAA (week 0), the second occurred midway
168	through the trial (14 days, week 2), and the final event was at the termination of the trial (28 days,
169	week 4). At week 0, three fish were collected from each individual tank, while at weeks 2 and 4,
170	five fish were collected from each tank. Animal euthanasia was performed by immersing the fish in
171	a solution of benzocaine (Benzoak vet, 200 mg/ ml, EuroPharma, Norway). The length and weight
172	of each fish were recorded, and external welfare indicators of the fish were evaluated following the
173	guidelines outlined in Noble et al. (2018) (Noble et al., 2018). Blood samples were collected from
174	the caudal vessels using Vacuette® vacuum tubes (Greiner Bio-One, Kremsmunster, Austria)
175	containing a clot activator (for plasma). The collected plasma was obtained through centrifugation
176	at 4000 x G for 10 min and stored at -80 °C until further analysis. Skin mucus was obtained using

177	a FLOQSwabs® swab (COPAN Diagnostics, USA) from below the lateral line, and then snap-
178	frozen using dry ice. Sections of dorsal skin (just below the dorsal fin), the second gill arch, and the
179	olfactory organ were dissected and divided into two portions. The first fraction was suspended in
180	RNAlater <sup>™</sup> (Ambion, USA), kept overnight at room temperature to aid penetration, and
181	subsequently stored at $-80$ °C until RNA extraction. The other half of the dissected dorsal skin,
182	olfactory organ, and second gill arch was stored in 10% neutral buffered formalin (BiopSafe®,
183	Denmark). Gill clip samples (ca. 3 mm) from three fish from each tank and sampling point were
184	collected, transferred into 1.5ml cryotubes containing 1ml cell culture media (RPMI 1640, Sigma),
185	20% DMSO (Hininger et al., 2004) and kept on ice. The samples were then placed in controlled
186	freezing boxes (Corning® CoolCell®) in a freezer at -80°C allowing slow freezing (1°C/min) and
187	stored under these conditions for further comet assay. In addition to the gills and skin, liver and
188	dorsal fin were also collected, snap-frozen in dry ice, and stored at $-80$ °C.

190 2.5 Gill histology

191 The formalin-preserved gill samples were sent to an external laboratory (Norwegian Veterinary 192 Institute, Harstad, Norway). These tissue sections were stained using Periodic Acid Schiff-Alcian 193 Blue (AB-PAS) and delivered to Nofima as digitally scanned files. Gills were manually scored for

194 common pathologies based on the scoring strategy earlier described (Carletto et al., 2022).

- 196 2.6 Plasma and skin mucus TAC, ROS/RNS
- 197 Only samples collected at week 4 were utilized for this analysis. Due to the limited quantity of skin

198	mucus, quantification involved pooled samples from five fish per replicate tank. A colorimetric kit
199	from Sigma-Aldrich (Burlington, MA, USA) was employed to assess the total antioxidant capacity
200	(TAC) in both plasma and skin mucus. This assay measures the concentration of small molecules
201	and antioxidant proteins, or specifically, the concentration of small molecule antioxidants. This
202	method was validated earlier for salmon (Soleng et al., 2019). The level of antioxidant capacity is
203	expressed relative to 6-hydroxy-2,5,7,8-tetramethylchroman-2-carboxylic acid (Trolox).
204	To determine the concentration of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and reactive nitrogen species
205	(RNS) in both plasma and skin mucus, OxiSelect <sup>™</sup> In Vitro ROS/RNS Assay Kit (Cell Biolabs Inc.,
206	USA) was employed. This kit is suitable for detecting and quantifying the total ROS plus RNS in a
207	wide range of sample types, including plasma and cell lysates. The levels of ROS and RNS were
208	determined by measuring the oxidation level of the dichlorodihydrofluorescin DiOxyQ (DCFH-
209	DiOxyQ) probe, expressed in terms of fluorescence. Hydrogen peroxide (H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> ) was used as a
210	standard.

212 2.7 Gills, skin, dorsal fin, and liver tissue 80HDG and DIY

The tissue samples were extracted and analysed following the procedure reported by (Zhang et al., 2022). Briefly, the samples were thawed at room temperature, and approximately 100 mg of each tissue sample was carefully weighed. Subsequently, 600 µL of methanol (VWR International AS, Oslo, Norway)) containing 1% ammonium formate (Sigma-Aldrich, Oslo, Norway) (w/v) was added to each sample. These mixtures were vortexed for 30 seconds, ultrasonicated for 30 minutes, and then centrifuged for 5 minutes at 3,500 rpm. The resulting supernatant was meticulously

219	collected, and 400 $\mu$ L of water was introduced. The mixture was placed in a freezer at –20 °C for 1
220	hour to facilitate purification. After this purification step, the supernatant (referred to as the extract)
221	was carefully transferred for UPLC-MS/MS analysis after a final centrifugation at 10000 rpm. The
222	analytical column ACQUITY UPLC HSS T3 (100 $\times$ 2.1 mm, 1.7 $\mu m;$ Waters, Milford, CT, USA )
223	connected to an ULTRA C18 guard column (20 × 2.1 mm; Waters, Milford, CT, USA) was utilized
224	to separate these two biomarkers at an Acquity UPLC I-Class system (Waters, Milford, CT, USA).
225	The analysis was done using a triple quadrupole mass analyzer (QqQ; Xevo TQ-S) with a ZSpray
226	ESI ion source (Waters, Milford, CT, USA). More details about this method can be found in a
227	previously published study (Zhang et al., 2022). UPLC-MS/MS data was acquired with the
228	MassLynx v4.1 software, and quantification processing was conducted with TargetLynx (Waters,
229	Milford, USA).

## 231 2.8 Gill comet assay

232 Preparation of cells was performed following the procedure reported by (Hininger et al., 2004) with 233 the addition of a rapid crush of thawed gill tissue by use of an Eppendorf micropestle preceding cell 234 harvest. The alkaline comet assay was performed using a CometAssay® Kit (4250-050-K, Trevigen 235 Inc., Gaithersburg, MD, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, the cell 236 suspension was then embedded in low-melting-point agarose (1:9 v/v) at 37 °C. This mixture of 237 agarose and cells was evenly spread onto glass slides pre-coated with 1% standard agarose, covered 238 with glass coverslips and allowed to solidify in the dark at 4 °C for 5 min. The coverslips were 239 subsequently removed, the slides submerged in an ice-cold freshly prepared lysis solution following 240 Hininger et al. (2004). After 1h in the dark at 4 °C, the slides were allowed to drain briefly before

241	being immersed in an alkaline electrophoresis buffer (300 mM NaOH, 1 mM EDTA, adjusted to
242	pH > 13, Sigma-Aldrich, MO, USA) for unwinding (20 min) and single-cell electrophoresis (21
243	V/400mA, 30 min) using a CometAssay® Electrophoresis System II (R&D Systems, Inc., MN,
244	USA). After electrophoresis, the slides were briefly washed in distilled water followed by 70%
245	ethanol and covered with approximately 100 $\mu$ L of the DNA fluorescent dye 4',6-diamidino-2-
246	phenylindole (DAPI, Sigma-Aldrich, MO, USA). The slides were then left to completely dry at
247	room temperature in the dark. Finally, the extent of DNA damage was visualised using a Leitz
248	Aristoplan fluorescent microscope (Leica Microsystems GmbH, Germany) equipped with a Filter
249	Cube A for UV (excitation filters BP 340-380 nm) and a digital camera (Flexcam C1, Leica
250	Microsystems GmbH, Wetzlar, Germany). Percentage DNA in comets' tail and tail length ( $\mu$ m) were
251	measured (50 cells per sample, n=3) by CometAssay® Analysis Software (Comet 1.3d, R&D
252	Systems, Inc., MN, USA). The comet samples were coded and evaluated blind. Alkaline COMET
253	assay's experimental conditions were verified by use of commercially available reference cells
254	(CometAssay® Control Cells, Trevigen Inc., Gaithersburg, MD, USA).

256 2.9 Gills, skin, and olfactory organ microarray analysis

Total RNA extraction was performed on the gill, skin, and olfactory organ samples collected at all
three time points (week 0, 2, and 4) in a Biomek 4,000 Benchtop Workstation using Agencourt
RNAdvance<sup>™</sup>Tissue Total RNA Purification Kit (Beckman Coulter Inc, USA). The concentration
and purity of the RNA were determined using a NanoDrop 8,000 spectrophotometer (Thermo
Scientific, USA). For quality control, a representative subset of samples was further assessed using
an Agilent<sup>®</sup> 2,100 Bioanalyzer<sup>™</sup> RNA 6000 Nano kit (Agilent Technology Inc, USA). All the

samples that were evaluated displayed an RNA Integrity Number (RIN) exceeding 8.0.

264	A custom-designed 44K Atlantic salmon DNA oligonucleotide microarray designated SIQ-6
265	(Agilent Array, ICSASG_v2) was used for microarray analysis. The One-Colour Quick Amp
266	Labelling Kit was used for RNA amplification and Cy3 labelling, using 110 ng of RNA template
267	per reaction. RNA fragmentation was measured using the gene expression hybridization kits,
268	followed by a 15-h hybridisation period within a 65°C oven with a continuous rotational speed of
269	10 rpm. Following hybridisation, the arrays were washed using Gene Expression Wash Buffers 1
270	and 2 and subsequently scanned using the Agilent SureScan Microarray Scanner and processed
271	within Nofima's bioinformatics software package Salmon and Trout Annotated Reference
272	Sequences (STARS).

273

#### 274 2.10 Statistical analysis

275 Normality of the data distribution was assessed using a Shapiro-Wilk test, and the equality of 276 variance was analyzed with a Brown-Forsythe test for several of the data sets, including those from 277 plasma, total antioxidant capacity analysis, reactive oxygen species analysis, gene expression 278 analysis, and histological assessment (Systat Software Inc, London, UK). To evaluate differences 279 within exposure groups, a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was employed. This analysis 280 considered variations due to both modes of exposure and sampling points, as well as the interactions 281 between these two factors, for gene expression and histology data. Additionally, a one-way ANOVA 282 was conducted to test for differences among treatments in the case of plasma and mucus TAC and 283 ROS/RNS analysis, gill comet assay, as well as the analysis of the oxidative stress biomarkers. The

data from the gill comet assay were arcsin-transformed before ANOVA. In instances where significant differences were observed, a Holm-Sidak method comparison was carried out. Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed using Origin 2019 (OriginLab Corporation, Northampton, MA, USA). Pearson correlation analysis was conducted with SPSS (version 28.0.1.0.0). The threshold for statistical significance was set at p < 0.05. All data are presented as mean ± standard deviation (S.D.).

Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were selected by calculating t-tests between untreated controls and the two treatment groups (high and low) separately and for each of the three tissues. In addition, the mean differences between treated and un-treated groups needed to be larger than 0.79 log2 expression ratio (ER) for up-regulated genes and lower than -0.79 for down-regulated genes to be selected.

295 Genes which were DEGs for at least one of the six treatment groups and had a functional annotation 296 were selected for a cluster analysis (n = 475). The analysis and visualisation were performed in R 297 (version 4.0.2, https://www.r-project.org/). The distances between groupwise mean ERs were 298 calculated by the dist() function (stats package, Euclidean distance), were clustered by the hclust() 299 function (stats package, complete linkage method) and the heatmap was plotted by the heatmap.2() 300 function (gplots package). The resulting dendrogram was cut into six clusters (cutree() function, 301 stats package) and functional enrichments within each of these clusters were calculated by Fisher's 302 exact tests (fisher.test(), stats package) with the alternative hypothesis set to "greater" (one-sided 303 test).

Correlated gene expressions between individuals were calculated by the cor.test() function (stats
 package, Pearson method) for genes which were DEGs for at least one the groups of the compared

tissues. Correlation between tissues was defined by p-values smaller than 0.05.

307

#### 308 3 Results and discussion

309 3.1 Water quality

310 The concentrations of PAA in all water samples from fish tank effluent were below the limit of 311 detection (<0.1 mg/L) (Table 1). A possible explanation is the full degradation of PAA from the site 312 where it was added to the fish tank outlet, a circuit that had a combined hydraulic retention time 313 (HRT) of 35-40 min. A rapid degradation of PAA was previously by (Pedersen and Lazado, 2020), 314 with decay rates ranging from 0.5 to 4 hours under different conditions. The study also revealed that 315 the decay rates of PAA at concentrations of 0.15, 0.30, 0.60, and 1.2 mg/L were not significantly 316 different (Pedersen and Lazado, 2020), explaining the absence of detectable PAA in all groups in 317 the fish tank effluent.

318 Temperature remained quite stable across the groups, with mean values of 12.1±0.3, 12.3±0.4, and 319 12.5±0.7 °C in the control, low, and high groups, respectively. The pH values showed no significant 320 differences among the three groups (p=0.520, One-way ANOVA), similar to that reported in an 321 earlier study (Teitge et al., 2020). Turbidity was slightly elevated in the high-concentration group 322 but the difference did not reach statistical significance (p=0.057, One-way ANOVA). The amount 323 of bacteria has been reported to be an important factor explaining the turbidity of water in RAS 324 (Davidson et al., 2019). The significantly increased number of bacteria in RAS treated with 1 mg/L 325 PAA has a high turbidity. Regarding the concentrations of NH4<sup>+</sup>-N, NH3-N, NO3-N, and NO2-N, no 326 significant differences were observed among the three groups (Table 1). This suggests that both low

327	and high PAA concentrations had no negative impact on nitrification, which is in line with previous
328	findings by Pedersen et al., who reported that addition of 1.0 mg/L of PAA only caused minor
329	impairment of nitrification (Pedersen et al., 2009). Notably, the number of bacteria in the tank and
330	sump was significantly higher in the high-concentration group than in the low-concentration and
331	control group. The regrowth of bacteria after PAA disinfection was also reported in previous studies
332	(Kitis, 2004; Zhang et al., 2019). Acetic acid and acetate, transferred directly to the water during
333	application of PAA, are energy-rich and readily biodegradable carbon sources for many bacteria
334	(Pedersen and Lazado, 2020).

#### 336 3.2 Fish growth and welfare

337 The initial and final average weights of the Atlantic salmon in the three experimental groups were 338 as follows: at the beginning, the average weights were 14.87 g (control), 13.93 g (low), and 14.83 g 339 (high), and at the end, the weights were 35.73 g (control), 34.77 g (low), and 34.30 g (high) (Fig. 340 1a). These measurements were used to calculate the thermal growth coefficient (TGC), a reliable 341 predictor of the expected mean growth of Atlantic salmon within a temperature range of 4-14 °C, 342 commonly used in aquaculture studies (Thorarensen and Farrell, 2011). The TGC values for the 343 control, low, and high concentration groups were 2.50, 2.49, and 2.30, respectively, and these values 344 did not exhibit significant differences (p>0.05, One-way ANOVA). Furthermore, the specific growth 345 rate (SGR) was calculated for each group, resulting in values of 2.1 %/day for the control, 2.2 %/day 346 for the low concentration, and 2.1 %/day for the high concentration groups (Fig. 1b). The K-factor, 347 which is a parameter used to assess the body shape and condition of salmon parr, was found to be 348 1.43 for the control, 1.44 for the low concentration, and 1.43 for the high concentration groups.

349	Typically, K-factors ranging from 0.8 to 2.0 are considered acceptable for assessing the overall
350	health of the fish (Barnham and Baxter, 2003). These K-factor values reinforce that the fish
351	maintained a healthy body shape across all groups. The welfare scores of the salmon parr did not
352	exhibit significant changes at the three sampling time points (Fig. 1c), further indicating that both
353	0.1 mg/L and 1 mg/L PAA had minimal impact on the growth and overall welfare. These results
354	collectively suggest that the prolonged application of a PAA-based disinfectant in a RAS did not
355	significantly affect the growth or welfare of the salmon parr.

357 3.3 Gill histology

358	Over 50% of the gill lamellae examined in this study were classified as healthy (Fig. 2a). In the gills
359	assessed, non-specific pathologies such as hyperplasia, lifting, clubbing, and fusion were observed
360	with some frequency: significant differences were found in cases of clubbing between the fish
361	sampled at the initial stage and at 14 days in the control group, and between the initial stage and 28
362	days in the 1 mg/L PAA group. However, no differences were observed in cases of clubbing between
363	the different treatment groups at the same time points. Some of the non-specific pathologies were
364	showed in Fig. 2b and 2c, which includes epithelial lifting, hyperplasia and fusion of lamella. There
365	were no significant effects in gill health status in 0.1 and 1 mg/L PAA groups.
366	Gills play a critical and unique role in fish due to their direct contact with the external environment.
367	They are also sensitive indicators of environmental changes and potential stressors for fish (Evans,
368	1987; Haddeland et al., 2021; Mota et al., 2022a). A previous acute exposure study reported that a

369 higher prevalence of healthy lamellae was found in treatment groups exposed to PAA concentrations

of 1.6 mg/L or lower, with only minor occurrences of lifting and hyperplasia, compared to groups exposed to 3.2 and 6.4 mg/L PAA, which exhibited 100% necrosis of the lamellae (Mota et al., 2022a). Similar results regarding gill abnormalities, including hyperplasia, lifting, clubbing, and fusion, have also been observed in other studies (Carletto et al., 2022; Lazado et al., 2021b). Despite the observed significant differences in clubbing at different time points, the prevalence of clubbing was similar at the final time point, suggesting only minor effects on fish cultured in a RAS where a prolonged application of a PAA-based disinfectant is present.

377

#### 378 3.4 TAC and ROS/RNS of plasma and mucus

379 It has been documented that PAA, as an oxidant, can trigger oxidative responses in organisms, in 380 addition to its pathogen-eliminating properties (Lazado et al., 2020b). This makes it crucial to assess 381 the effects of PAA on salmon parr before its application, as chronic oxidative stress may have 382 detrimental consequences to fish health. TAC measures the capacity of free radical scavenging by 383 the antioxidants present in the samples, indicating their ability to counteract various disorders and 384 diseases induced by oxidative stress (Niki, 2010). The levels of TAC and ROS/RNS were slightly 385 elevated in the 0.1 mg/L PAA group in both plasma and mucus, although the increase was not 386 statistically significant. There were no significant differences in TAC and ROS/RNS levels among 387 the treatment groups in both plasma and skin mucus (Fig. 3). 388 The parallel results of TAC in both plasma and mucus suggested that mucus can serve as a non-

invasive method to evaluate the effects of xenobiotics in fish, which is consistent with the study
 (Oliveira et al., 2018). It is well established that ROS and RNS are essential to the harmful effects

of oxidative stress (Di Meo et al., 2016). Oxidative stress occurs due to an imbalance between antioxidants and ROS/RNS (Gupta et al., 2021). The patterns observed in ROS/RNS levels in both the control and treated groups are similar to the TAC results, further indicating that salmon parr cultured in a RAS with a prolonged application of a PAA-based disinfectant, presents only minor effects on the oxidative response.

396 3.5 Oxidative stress biomarkers of DNA and protein in tissues

397 In all groups, the concentrations of 80HDG were generally low, ranging from <0.11 to 3.6 ng/g, 398 with median values (ranges) of 0.36 ng/g (<0.11 to 454 ng/g) in skin, 3.4 ng/g (<0.11 to 216 ng/g) 399 in gill tissue, 2.9 ng/g (<0.11 to 10 ng/g) in dorsal fin tissue, and below 0.11 ng/g in liver tissue. In 400 contrast, the concentrations of DIY were notably higher, ranging from 66 to 284 ng/g in skin tissue, 401 247 to 685 ng/g in gill tissue, <1.4 to 4050 ng/g in dorsal fin tissue, and 922 to 13176 ng/g in liver 402 tissue, with median values of 144 ng/g, 383 ng/g, 310 ng/g, and 3118 ng/g, respectively. The 403 concentrations of 8OHDG in skin were negatively correlated with those in liver (r = -0.47, p = 404 0.003). Positive correlations were observed between the concentrations of DIY in skin and gill tissue 405 (r = 0.269, p = 0.006), as well as skin and dorsal fin tissue (r = 0.278, p = 0.005). However, a negative 406 correlation was found between DIY concentrations in dorsal fin and liver tissue (r = -0.435, p =407 0.000). Interestingly, there were no significant differences in the concentrations of these two 408 biomarkers among most of the different groups in the four types of samples. Notably, the 409 concentrations of DIY in gill tissue were significantly higher in the 1 mg/L PAA groups compared 410 to the control groups at 14 days and 28 days (Fig. 4). Principal component analysis revealed distinct 411 trends in these two biomarkers with fish growth (Fig. 5).

412 In addition to the biological assays for TAC and ROS/RNS, oxidative stress biomarkers related to

21

413	DNA and protein were analyzed using UPLC-MS/MS, an analytical method that was established in
414	our previous study (Zhang et al., 2022). The varied concentration levels of 8OHDG and DIY in
415	different tissues indicate diverse responses in these tissues. For example, the liver, being the primary
416	detoxification organ in fish, exhibited higher levels of stress compared to other tissues. Apart from
417	the sensitive gills, there were no significant changes in the other three tissues after 28 days of
418	exposure. These results are in agreement with the findings of the TAC and ROS/RNS assays,
419	underscoring the reliability of both chemical and biological assays. Moreover, the sensitivity of gill
420	tissue to oxidative stress has been well-documented in previous studies (Carletto et al., 2022; Osório
421	et al., 2022; Soleng et al., 2019). The negative and positive correlations of 8OHDG and DIY between
422	different tissues underscore the varied impacts of oxidative stress on different tissues.

# 424 3.6 Comet assay

425	In the Comet assay, two parameters were measured: the tail length and the percentage of DNA in
426	the tail (Table 2). Overall, the analysis revealed low (< 5% DNA in the tail, < 0.2 $\mu$ m tail length)
427	and comparable levels of DNA damage in control and PAA-treated groups (Table 2). Interestingly,
428	at day 14 the low (0.1 mg/L) PAA treatment group showed a significant lower (p<0.001) value of
429	percentage DNA in the tail than the control and the high treatment groups (control: $4.25 \pm 4.03\%$ ,
430	0.1 mg/L: 2.59±1.98, 1 mg/L: 3.87±3.10), but not differences in tail length. There is no clear
431	explanation for this and we speculate that this was due to an error in coding the sample or most
432	likely to a technical artefact. In contrast to the percentage of DNA in tail, comet lengths were similar
433	across groups at the three sampling time points.

434	The Comet assay is a sensitive method for detecting DNA damage in individual cells (Liao et al.,
435	2009). The data indicate that prolonged exposure to PAA has no significant genotoxic effects on gill
436	tissues of salmon parr. Similar results were reported in a biomonitoring study, which used the same
437	dose of PAA and did not induce clastogenic/aneugenic effects or DNA damage in haemolymph or
438	gill cells of the filter-feeder zebra mussel (Dreissena polymorpha) after 20 days of exposure
439	(Bolognesi et al., 2004).

441 3.7 Regulation of molecular defenses in gill, skin and the olfactory organ

442	A total of 475 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were identified across the gills, skin, and
443	olfactory organ (Fig. 6a). Sensitivity to PAA varied among these organs, with the gills and olfactory
444	organ exhibiting notable responses. The gills showed a clear dose-dependent reaction, whereas the
445	olfactory organ displayed a higher number of DEGs at the low dose compared to the high dose.
446	Conversely, the skin exhibited minimal sensitivity to PAA, with only a limited number of DEGs
447	detected compared to the other mucosal organs.
448	Comparison of the gill and olfactory transcriptomes revealed only one shared gene between the two
449	organs at both exposure doses (Fig. 6b). Due to the limited DEG count, the skin was excluded from
450	this comparison. In the olfactory organ, 291 DEGs were exclusively identified at the low dose, while

- 451 27 were exclusive to the high dose, with only 9 DEGs common to both doses. For the gills, 55 DEGs
- 452 were exclusive to the high dose, 26 to the low dose, and 30 were common to both.
- 453 Functional annotation of these DEGs revealed key pathways grouped into 6 clusters affected by454 PAA exposure (Fig. 6c). Clusters 1, 2, and 5 stood out, with Cluster 1 showing dose-dependent

changes in the gills and significant changes only at the low dose in the olfactory organ. Genes in this cluster are primarily involved in tissue differentiation, endocrine function, xenobiotic metabolism, and lipid metabolism. Cluster 2, the largest cluster, exhibited high upregulation in the olfactory organ of fish exposed to the low dose, mainly associated with immunity. Finally, Cluster 5 included genes downregulated in both gills and olfactory organ, primarily involved in mitochondrial metabolism and erythrocyte function.

461 The sensitivity of the olfactory organ and minimal response of the skin mirrored earlier 462 transcriptome studies in salmon exposed to PAA (Lazado et al., 2021a; Lazado et al., 2021b; Lazado 463 et al., 2021c; Lazado et al., 2020c). The responsiveness of the olfactory organ is likely related to the 464 innate nature of PAA as an irritant, which targets the mucous membranes of nasal passages. Most 465 of the upregulated genes in Cluster 2 are related to immune responses, suggesting that PAA was a 466 strong immunomodulator. PAA produces free radicals during degradation (Rokhina et al., 2010), 467 which has been shown to be a potent activator of fish immunity (Biller and Takahashi, 2018; Lazado 468 et al., 2020c). The up-regulation of these crucial genes likely played a role in maintaining the 469 structural integrity and barrier functionality under oxidative challenge (Lazado et al., 2020c). The 470 magnitude of transcriptional changes in salmon smolts is not entirely dependent on the dose of PAA 471 (Lazado et al., 2020b). For instance, the magnitude of gene expression changes in salmon smolts 472 was larger in the 0.6 mg/L group than in the 2.4 mg/L group (Lazado et al., 2020b). Additionally, 473 the responses to PAA substantially varied in different organs indicating the differential sensitivity. 474 Immune response at mucosal sites to various challenges is a crucial first line of defense in fish. Here 475 we showed that salmon cultured in a RAS with a prolonged application of a PAA-based disinfectant 476 could mount a strong immune response and this is likely to be a crucial mechanism for fish living

477 in an environment with the constant presence of oxygen radicals, though at very low levels.

478

# 479 Conclusions

480	This study evaluated the effects of different concentrations of PAA on salmon parr weighing
481	between 15-35 g. A limitation of the current study is that the PAA concentration mentioned in this
482	study (0.1 and 1.0 mg/L) are calculated for the pump sumps and not measured in these units. All the
483	measurements were done from fish tank effluent water and, there measured PAA was below the
484	limit of detection (<0.1 mg/L). Therefore, the observations from the current study are the result of
485	a prolonged application of a PAA-based disinfectant in a RAS and its effects on the cultured salmon
486	parr. Most of the water quality parameters remained unchanged, except for increased bacterial
487	numbers, possibly because PAA by-products can serve as a nutrition source for bacteria. Fish growth
488	performance, assessed through the parameters body weight, TGC, SGR, K-factor, and external
489	welfare score, indicated no significant differences between the control group and the groups exposed
490	to 0.1 mg/L and 1 mg/L PAA over the 28-day exposure period. Histological assessments of gill
491	tissues revealed no significant differences after 28 days of PAA exposure. Two methods were
492	employed to evaluate the oxidative stress on salmon parr. One was a biological assay measuring
493	TAC and ROS/RNS, while the other involved a chemical analysis of oxidative stress biomarkers in
494	DNA and proteins using UPLC-MS/MS. Both methods showed no significant differences between
495	the control group and the exposure groups. Furthermore, the Comet assay, which assesses DNA
496	damage, indicated no significant changes in the percentage of DNA in the tail or tail length, except
497	for a significantly lower DNA percentage observed in the 0.1 mg/L PAA group at 14 days, compared
498	to the control and 1 mg/L PAA group. Gene transcriptome analysis identified 475 DEGs in the gill,

499	skin, and olfactory organ. These DEGs were related to various categories, including cell, immune,
500	metabolism, and tissue. The olfactory organ was the most reactive tissue to PAA treatment,
501	exhibiting the highest number of DEGs. Notably, the number of up-regulated DEGs exceeded that
502	of down-regulated ones. In the olfactory organ, the 0.1 mg/L PAA group had more DEGs than the 1
503	mg/L PAA group. In conclusion, the water quality and fish parameters measured in this study
504	indicate that a prolonged use of a PAA-based disinfectant in RAS water in the tested conditions (0.1
505	and 1 mg/L) did not result in significant adverse effects on growth, water quality, histology,
506	oxidative stress, or DNA damage.

#### 508 Credit authorship contribution statement

509 Vasco C. Mota, Carlo C. Lazado and Alexandros G. Asimakopoulos designed the experiment. Junjie

510 Zhang wrote the manuscript draft. Junjie Zhang, Maia Eggen, Rolf Klokkerengen, Eivind Sundfør

- and Derrick Kwame Odei conducted the lab analyses. Vasco C. Mota, Carlo C. Lazado, Junjie Zhang,
- 512 Stefano Peruzzi and Gerrit Timmerhaus conducted data visualisation and made figures. Stefano
- 513 Peruzzi, Trond Peder Flaten, Vasco C. Mota and Carlo C. Lazado offered helpful comments. All co-
- authors contributed to the draft and revision of the manuscript.
- 515

#### 516 **Declaration of competing interest**

- 517 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships
- that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

## 520 Acknowledgement

521	This work was funded by the Research council of Norway, Young Research Talent Program, project
522	no. 302767 - Water disinfection strategies to improve Atlantic salmon parr production. The authors
523	would like to thank Jan-Eirik Jensen, Morten Marienborg, Gerhardus (Chris) Verstege and Astrid-
524	Elisabeth Chr. Hanssen at Havbruksstasjonen i Tromsø AS for technical support during the
525	experimental systems and fish sampling.

Table 1 Summary of water quanty parameters measured at the fish tank efficient
--

	Control	Low	High	<i>p</i> -value
Measured PAA	<lod< td=""><td><lod< td=""><td><lod< td=""><td>-</td></lod<></td></lod<></td></lod<>	<lod< td=""><td><lod< td=""><td>-</td></lod<></td></lod<>	<lod< td=""><td>-</td></lod<>	-
(mg/L)				
Temperature (°C)	12.1±0.3	12.3±0.4	12.5±0.7	0.300
рН	7.64±0.15	7.70±0.11	7.60±0.07	0.520
O <sub>2</sub> (%)	93.9±2.1	93.6±2.3	92.7±3.5	0.849
Turbidity (NTU)	0.64±0.25	0.69±0.49	1.06±0.28	0.057
NH4 <sup>+</sup> -N (mg/L)	5.64±2.34	6.23±2.42	5.04±1.93	0.130
NH3-N (mg/L)	$0.05 \pm 0.04$	0.06±0.04	0.04±0.03	0.140
NO <sub>2</sub> -N (mg/L)	0.00±0.01	0.01±0.02	0.02±0.03	0.682
NO3-N (mg/L)	0.48±0.22	0.47±0.20	0.52±0.21	0.332
Tank Bacterial	6667ª	34825ª	164000 <sup>b</sup>	0.044
CFU/mL				
Sump Bacterial	6850ª	17100ª	35528 <sup>b</sup>	0.001
CFU/mL				

Superscript alphabets indicate significant differences, post-hoc Tukey HSD test, p < 0.05

values are given as treatment mean  $\pm$  SD (n = 3)

PAA - peracetic acid; LOD - limit of detection; 0.1 mg/L; CFU -colony formation units

Table 2 Level of nuclear DNA damage in gill cells given as percentage of DNA in the comet tail and tail length measured (n=50 cells/sample) at the three sampling points throughout the trial (mean  $\pm$  S.D., n=3).

	Control	Low	High	Day
%DNA in tail	4.29±3.31	4.54±3.27	4.54±2.98	0
%DNA in tail	4.25±4.03ª	2.59±1.98 <sup>b</sup>	3.87±3.10ª	14
%DNA in tail	4.76±4.50	4.48±4.60	4.84±4.78	28
Tail length (µm)	0.01±0.11	0.01±0.11	0.01±0.09	0
Tail length (µm)	0.01±0.11	0.01±0.08	0.01±0.10	14
Tail length (µm)	0.16±0.50	0.12±0.50	0.19±0.54	28

Statistically significant differences (p<0.05) are indicated by distinct letters.



Figure 1 Fish performance metrics weight (a), growth and condition indexes (b), welfare score (c) (mean  $\pm$  S.D.) to at the beginning and at the end of each PAA dosing period for PAA-treated and control RAS



Figure 2 Changes in the structure of the gills following PAA administration. Histopathological cases are shown as a percentage of prevalence of a specific lesion to the total analysed cases (a); Representative AP/Pas-stained histological sections of healthy (b) and compromised gills (c) (Filled arrowheads show mucus cells at the base

of the secondary lamella. Unfilled arrow shows epithelial lifting. Asterisks show hyperplasia and fusion of lamellae. Scale bars =  $200 \mu m$ ).



Figure 3 The level of total antioxidants (TAC) and reactive oxygen species (ROS, expressed as H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) in plasma (a: TAC, c: ROS) and skin mucus (b: TAC, d: ROS) at

day 28. Values are presented as mean  $\pm$  S.D. (n=9).

80HDG



DIY

Figure 4 The level of 80HDG and DIY in Atlantic salmon parr exposed to PAA. The levels were quantified in skin, gill, dorsal fin, and liver of experimental fish. The

left charts represent the concentration of 8OHDG and the right ones represent the concentration of DIY. Values were presented as mean ± S.D. of at least 13 fish per

treatment group at a particular sampling point. No significant difference was observed over time within the treatment groups



Figure 5 Principal component analysis of 80HDG and DIY concentrations in different tissues of Atlantic salmon parr under different treatments (control, low, and high) and sampling time points (day 0, 14 and 28)



Figure 6 Transcriptome of the gills, skin, and olfactory organ of peracetic acid (PAA) -exposed salmon parr. (a) Stacked column of DEGs numbers in different organs with low and high PAA exposure, split for three different p-value levels. (b) Venn diagram for the DEGs expression variation among different PAA exposure in salmon parr, respectively. (c) The heatmap shows the down- and upregulation of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in a colour gradient from blue to red. The dendrogram was split into six sub-clusters and the mean values for genes within these clusters were represented in bar plots (error bars show  $\pm$  S.D.) in the centre. The bubble chart shows the enrichment analyses of the seven sub-clusters.

#### Reference

- Acosta F, Bravo J, Monzón-Atienza L, Galindo-Villegas J, Torrecillas S, Montero D. Peracetic acid can be used as a disinfectant for gilthead sea bream (*Sparus aurata*) juveniles without affecting fish welfare. Aquac. Rep. 2022; 24. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aqrep.2022.101107</u>.
- Barnham C, Baxter A. Condition factor, K, for salmonid fish, State of Victoria, Department of Primary Industries, 2003.
- Biller JD, Takahashi LS. Oxidative stress and fish immune system: phagocytosis and leukocyte respiratory burst activity. An. Acad. Bras. Cienc. 2018; 90: 3403-3414. https://doi.org/10.1590/0001-3765201820170730.
- Bolognesi C, Buschini A, Branchi E, Carboni P, Furlini M, Martino A, et al. Comet and micronucleus assays in zebra mussel cells for genotoxicity assessment of surface drinking water treated with three different disinfectants. Sci. Total Environ. 2004; 333: 127-36. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2004.05.018.
- Carletto D, Furtado F, Zhang J, Asimakopoulos AG, Eggen M, Verstege GC, et al. Mode of application of peracetic acid-based disinfectants has a minimal influence on the antioxidant defences and mucosal structures of Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) parr. Front. Physiol. 2022; 13: 900593-900610. https://doi.org/10.3389/fphys.2022.900593.
- Davidson J, Summerfelt S, Straus DL, Schrader KK, Good C. Evaluating the effects of prolonged peracetic acid dosing on water quality and rainbow trout *Oncorhynchus mykiss* performance in recirculation aquaculture systems. Aquacu. Eng. 2019; 84: 117-127. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquaeng.2018.12.009</u>.
- Di Meo S, Reed TT, Venditti P, Victor VM. Role of ROS and RNS sources in physiological and pathological conditions. Oxid. Med. Cell. Longevity 2016; 2016: 1245049-1245092. https://doi.org/10.1155/2016/1245049.
- DiCocco A, May T, Crouse C, Marancik D, Phuntumart V, Ghosh S, et al. Reducing mortality associated with opportunistic infections in Atlantic salmon *Salmo salar* fry using hydrogen peroxide and peracetic acid. Aquac. Res. 2021; 52: 3101-3109. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/are.15155</u>.
- Dominguez Henao L, Turolla A, Antonelli M. Disinfection by-products formation and ecotoxicological effects of effluents treated with peracetic acid: A review. Chemosphere 2018; 213: 25-40. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2018.09.005.
- Evans DH. The fish gill: site of action and model for toxic effects of environmental pollutants. Environ. Health perspect. 1987; 71: 47-58. <u>https://doi.org/10.1289/ehp.877147</u>.
- FAO. The state of world fisheries and aquaculture 2022, 2022.
- Gupta S, Finelli R, Agarwal A, Henkel R. Total antioxidant capacity-Relevance, methods and clinical implications. Andrologia 2021; 53: 13624-13631. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/and.13624</u>.
- Haddeland S, Lazado CC, Merkin GV, Myre OJ, Okubamichael MA, Pedersen LF, et al. Dynamic morphometrics of mucous cells reveal the minimal impact of therapeutic doses of peracetic acid on Atlantic salmon gill health. Aquaculture 2021; 534: 736315-736323. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquaculture.2020.736315</u>.
- Hininger I, Chollat-Namy A, Sauvaigo S, Osman M, Faure H, Cadet J, et al. Assessment of DNA<br/>damage by comet assay on frozen total blood: method and evaluation in smokers and<br/>non-smokers.MutatRes2004;558:75-80.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mrgentox.2003.11.004.

- Johansson O, Wedborg M. The ammonia-ammonium equilibrium in seawater at temperatures between 5 and 25 C. Journal of Solution Chemistry 1980; 9: 37-44. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00650135.
- Kitis M. Disinfection of wastewater with peracetic acid: a review. Environ Int 2004; 30: 47-55. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-4120(03)00147-8.
- Lazado CC, Good C. Survey findings of disinfection strategies at selected Norwegian and North American land-based RAS facilities: A comparative insight. Aquaculture 2021; 532: 736038-736043. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquaculture.2020.736038</u>.
- Lazado CC, Haddeland S, Timmerhaus G, Berg RS, Merkin G, Pittman K, et al. Morphomolecular alterations in the skin mucosa of Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) after exposure to peracetic acid-based disinfectant. Aquac. Rep. 2020a; 17: 100368-100372. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aqrep.2020.100368</u>.
- Lazado CC, Pedersen LF, Kirste KH, Soleng M, Breiland MW, Timmerhaus G. Oxidant-induced modifications in the mucosal transcriptome and circulating metabolome of Atlantic salmon. Aquat. Toxicol. 2020b; 227: 105625-105635. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquatox.2020.105625.
- Lazado CC, Stiller KT, Reiten BM, Osorio J, Kolarevic J, Johansen LH. Consequences of continuous ozonation on the health and welfare of Atlantic salmon post-smolts in a brackish water recirculating aquaculture system. Aquat. Toxicol. 2021a; 238: 105935-105945. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquatox.2021.105935.
- Lazado CC, Sveen LR, Soleng M, Pedersen LF, Timmerhaus G. Crowding reshapes the mucosal but not the systemic response repertoires of Atlantic salmon to peracetic acid. Aquaculture 2021b; 531: 735830-735839. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquaculture.2020.735830</u>.
- Lazado CC, Timmerhaus G, Breiland MW, Pittman K, Hytterod S. Multiomics Provide Insights into the Key Molecules and Pathways Involved in the Physiological Adaptation of Atlantic Salmon (*Salmo salar*) to Chemotherapeutic-Induced Oxidative Stress. Antioxidants 2021c; 10: 1931-1950. <u>https://doi.org/10.3390/antiox10121931</u>.
- Lazado CC, Voldvik V, Breiland MW, Osorio J, Hansen MHS, Krasnov A. Oxidative Chemical Stressors Alter the Physiological State of the Nasal Olfactory Mucosa of Atlantic Salmon. Antioxidants 2020c; 9: 1144-1162. https://doi.org/10.3390/antiox9111144.
- Liao W, McNutt MA, Zhu WG. The comet assay: a sensitive method for detecting DNA damage in individual cells. Methods 2009; 48: 46-53. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ymeth.2009.02.016</u>.
- Liu D, Steinberg CEW, Straus DL, Pedersen L-F, Meinelt T. Salinity, dissolved organic carbon and water hardness affect peracetic acid (PAA) degradation in aqueous solutions. Aquacu. Eng. 2014; 60: 35-40. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquaeng.2014.03.006</u>.
- Liu D, Straus DL, Pedersen LF, Meinelt T. Pulse versus continuous peracetic acid applications: Effects on rainbow trout performance, biofilm formation and water quality. Aquacu. Eng. 2017; 77: 72-79. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquaeng.2017.03.004.
- Liu D, Straus DL, Pedersen LF, Meinelt T. Periodic bacterial control with peracetic acid in a recirculating aquaculture system and its long-term beneficial effect on fish health. Aquaculture 2018; 485: 154-159. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquaculture.2017.11.050</u>.
- Luukkonen T, Pehkonen SO. Peracids in water treatment: A critical review. Crit. Rev. Environ. Sci. Technol. 2016; 47: 1-39. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/10643389.2016.1272343</u>.

- Meinelt T, Staaks J, Staaks G, Stüber A, Bräunig I. Anti-parasitic effects of peracetic acid (PAA) to free infective stages (Theronts) of the white spot disease, Ichthyophthirius multifiliis in vitro. Dtsch. Tierärztl. Wochenschr. 2007; 114: 384-387. <u>https://doi.org/10.2377/0341-6593-114-384</u>.
- Meriac A. Smolt production and the potential for solid waste collection in Norway. Nofima rapportserie. Nofima, 2019.
- Mota VC, Eggen ML, Lazado CC. Acute dose-response exposure of a peracetic acid-based disinfectant to Atlantic salmon parr reared in recirculating aquaculture systems. Aquaculture 2022a; 554. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquaculture.2022.738142</u>.
- Mota VC, Striberny A, Verstege GC, Difford GF, Lazado CC. Evaluation of a recirculating aquaculture system research facility designed to address current knowledge needs in Atlantic salmon production. Front. Anim. Sci. 2022b; 3: 876504-876515. https://doi.org/10.3389/fanim.2022.876504.
- MOWI. Salmon Farming Industry Handbook 2023. MOWI, 2023.
- Niki E. Assessment of antioxidant capacity in vitro and in vivo. Free Radical Biol. Med. 2010; 49: 503-515. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.freeradbiomed.2010.04.016</u>.
- Noble C, Gismervik K, Iversen MH, Kolarevic J, Nilsson J, Stien LH, et al. Welfare Indicators for farmed Atlantic salmon: tools for assessing fish welfare. Nofima, 2018.
- Oliveira M, Tvarijonaviciute A, Trindade T, Soares AMVM, Tort L, Teles M. Can non-invasive methods be used to assess effects of nanoparticles in fish? Ecol. Indic. 2018; 95: 1118-1127. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolind.2017.06.023</u>.
- Osório J, Stiller KT, Reiten B-K, Kolarevic J, Johansen L-H, Afonso F, et al. Intermittent administration of peracetic acid is a mild environmental stressor that elicits mucosal and systemic adaptive responses from Atlantic salmon post-smolts. BMC Zool. 2022; 7: e1. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40850-021-00100-x.
- Pedersen LF, Lazado CC. Decay of peracetic acid in seawater and implications for its chemotherapeutic potential in aquaculture. Aquac. Environ. Interact. 2020; 12: 153-165. https://doi.org/10.3354/aei00354.
- Pedersen LF, Meinelt T, Straus DL. Peracetic acid degradation in freshwater aquaculture systems and possible practical implications. Aquac. Eng. 2013; 53: 65-71. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquaeng.2012.11.011</u>.
- Pedersen LF, Pedersen PB, Nielsen JL, Nielsen PH. Peracetic acid degradation and effects on nitrification in recirculating aquaculture systems. Aquaculture 2009; 296: 246-254. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquaculture.2009.08.021.
- Rokhina EV, Makarova K, Golovina EA, Van As H, Virkutyte J. Free Radical Reaction pathway, thermochemistry of peracetic acid homolysis, and its application for phenol degradation: Spectroscopic study and quantum chemistry calculations. Environ. Sci. Technol. 2010; 44: 6815-6821. <u>https://doi.org/10.1021/es1009136</u>.
- Soleng M, Johansen LH, Johnsen H, Johansson GS, Breiland MW, Rormark L, et al. Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) mounts systemic and mucosal stress responses to peracetic acid. Fish Shellfish Immunol. 2019; 93: 895-903. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fsi.2019.08.048</u>.
- Straus DL, Meinelt T, Liu D, Pedersen LF. Toxicity of peracetic acid to fsh: Variation among species and impact of water chemistry. J. World Aquacult. Soc. 2018; 49: 715-724. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/jwas.12475</u>.

- Teitge F, Peppler C, Steinhagen D, Jung-Schroers V. Effect of disinfection with peracetic acid on the microbial community of a seawater aquaculture recirculation system for Pacific white shrimp (*Litopenaeus vannamei*). J. Fish Dis. 2020; 43: 991-1017. https://doi.org/10.1111/jfd.13207.
- Thorarensen H, Farrell AP. The biological requirements for post-smolt Atlantic salmon in closed-<br/>containment systems. Aquaculture 2011; 312: 1-14.<br/>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquaculture.2010.11.043.
- Wu J, Zou J, Li S, Lin J, He L, Xu D, et al. Ascorbic acid-enhanced Fe(III)/peracetic acid process for the degradation of diclofenac: Treatment efficiency, mechanism and influencing factors. Separation and Purification Technology 2024; 330. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.seppur.2023.125382.
- Wu J, Zou J, Lin J, Li S, Chen S, Liao X, et al. Hydroxylamine enhanced the degradation of diclofenac in Cu(II)/peracetic acid system: Formation and contributions of CH(3)C(O)O(\*), CH(3)C(O)OO(\*), Cu(III) and (\*)OH. J Hazard Mater 2023; 460: 132461. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2023.132461</u>.
- Zhang C, Brown PJB, Miles RJ, White TA, Grant DG, Stalla D, et al. Inhibition of regrowth of planktonic and biofilm bacteria after peracetic acid disinfection. Water Res 2019; 149: 640-649. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2018.10.062</u>.
- Zhang J, Sundfør EB, Klokkerengen R, Gonzalez SV, Mota VC, Lazado CC, et al. Determination of the oxidative stress biomarkers of 8-hydroxydeoxyguanosine and dityrosine in the gills, skin, dorsal fin, and liver Tissue of Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) parr. Toxics 2022; 10: 509-521. <u>https://doi.org/10.3390/toxics10090509</u>.