

1 Evaluation of imidacloprid genotoxicity
2 in *Chrysoperla externa* eggs
3 (Neuroptera: Chrysopidae) through
4 comet assay

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6 Fernández Acevedo V.¹, Rodríguez Gil, S¹; Seoane A²; Minardi G¹; Schneider M.I.¹7 ¹Centro de Estudios Parasitológicos y de Vectores, CONICET-UNLP CICPBA. Boulevard 120

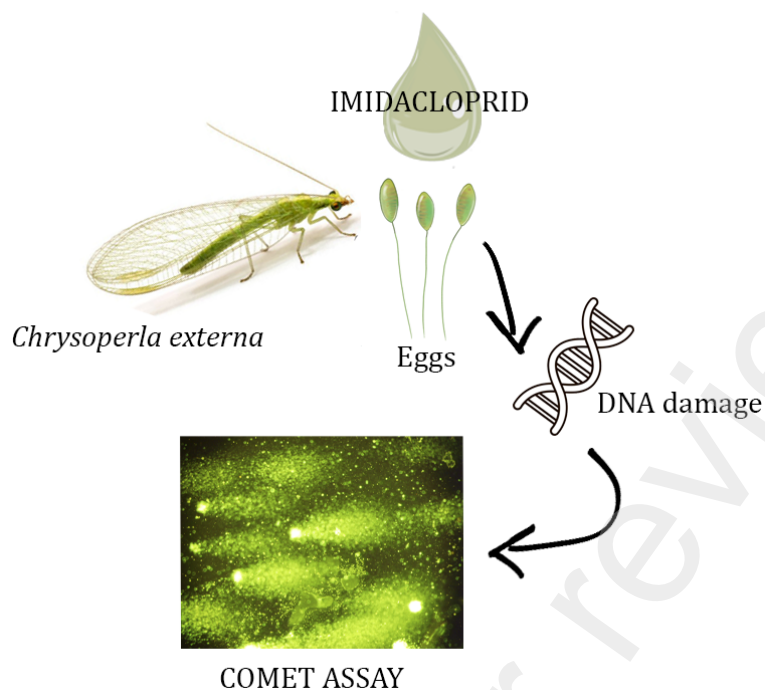
8 s/n entre Av. 60 y Calle 64. La Plata (1900), Argentina

9 ².Instituto de Genética Veterinaria, CONICET-UNLP. Avenida 60 y 118 S/N (1900) La Plata,

10 Argentina.

11 Corresponding Author: Fernandez Acevedo V. Correo electrónico:12 victoriafernandez@cepave.edu.ar. Teléfono: +54-9-221-5589-865. Dirección: Boulevard 120

13 s/n entre Av. 60 y Calle 64. La Plata (1900), Argentina



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15 Highlights

- 16 • Imidacloprid caused DNA damage in the eggs of the biological control agent *Chrysoperla*
- 17 *externa*.
- 18 • DNA damage could be quantified using different variables of the comet assay.
- 19 • A specific protocol was developed for performing the comet assay for *C. externa* eggs.

20 Keywords

21 Pesticides, Neonicotinoid, Predator, lacewings, agrochemical, ADN damage

22 Abstract

23 The comet assay allows the analysis of DNA damage caused by different genotoxins. This
 24 assay has recently gained interest because of its ease of studying the interactions of
 25 xenobiotics with different organisms.

26 *Chrysoperla externa* (Hagen, 1861) is a species of great economic relevance because it is a
27 predator of major agricultural pests during its larval stage. Neonicotinoids are the most
28 important chemical class of insecticides introduced into markets. A previous imidacloprid
29 toxicity assessment on *C. externa* showed that this neonicotinoid insecticide reduced the egg
30 viability. The objective of this study was to analyze the genotoxicity of imidacloprid on the
31 biological control agent *C. externa* at DNA level using the comet assay as an ecotoxicological
32 biomarker. This technic was used for the first time for this organism under laboratory
33 insecticide exposition. For the bioassays, the commercial product formulated Confidor OD®
34 (imidacloprid 20% a.i., LS, Bayer CropScience) was used in two concentrations. The selected
35 eggs were dipped in a Confidor OD® solutions for 15 s. Controls were treated with solvent
36 alone. A comet assay protocol was develop for this species at first time. Variables evaluated
37 in Comet assay were as follow: damage index, % DNA damage and tail length. All statistical
38 analyses were performed using R software. The damage index did not show any significant
39 differences between the different concentrations evaluated, but differences were observed for
40 the tail length, because at higher concentrations of imidacloprid, smaller DNA fragments. The
41 DNA of the cells from treated eggs analyzed at 48 h and 96 h of development showed the
42 same % DNA damage; that is, they had no recovery capacity. Applications of imidacloprid on
43 *C. externa* eggs produce irreparable breaks at the DNA level. The technique adjusted for *C.*
44 *externa* can be used in other beneficial insects to study pesticide genotoxicity using the comet
45 assay.

46 1. Introduction

47 The comet assay allows the analysis of DNA damage caused by different genotoxins both in
48 vivo and in vitro (López et al., 2012). This assay has recently gained interest because of its
49 ease of studying the interactions of xenobiotics with different organisms (Augustyniak et al.,
50 2016). The main benefit of this technique is that it is fast and economical, and various types
51 of cells can be used without prior knowledge of their karyotype, genomic structure, or mitotic

52 activity (Augustyniak et al., 2016; Cuevas Díaz et al., 2012; López et al., 2012). The comet
53 assay allows for the analysis of single-strand breaks in DNA, incomplete repair sites, and
54 alkali-labile sites. DNA damage determination is commonly performed by counting the affected
55 cells, the length of the comet tail, and using software to measure fluorescence intensity
56 (Cuevas Díaz et al., 2012; López et al., 2012).

57

58 Nowadays, only model species or species with great economic relevance have been used to
59 perform comet assay (Augustyniak et al., 2014) due to a few number of insects could be bred
60 and studied under controlled conditions. In this sense, main orders of insects include Diptera,
61 mainly *Drosophila melanogaster* (Meigen), *Aedes aegypti* (L.), *Liriomyza trifolii* (Burgess),
62 lepidopterans such as *Plutella xylostella* (L.), *Spodoptera litura* (F.), and some coleopterans
63 and orthopterans (Augustyniak et al., 2016; Gleis et al., 2016; Shetty et al., 2017; Todoriki et
64 al., 2006). It has been also performed on earthworms as a bioindicator of soil contamination
65 (Cuevas Díaz et al., 2012).

66

67 *Chrysoperla externa* (Hagen, 1861) is a species of great economic relevance because it is a
68 predator of major agricultural pests during its larval stage. It has a neotropical distribution and
69 commonly found associated to relevant pest with spontaneous presence in crops in Argentina.
70 Owing to its ease of controlled breeding, it is well produced in biofactories (Souza & Souza
71 Bezerra, 2019).

72 Although lacewings larvae are polyphagous, they prefers aphids, which are sucking insects
73 that attack all types of plants, mainly in temperate zones, causing physical damage and
74 transmission of viruses of high economic relevance in cultivated plants (Loxdale et al., 2020).
75 Sucking pest chemical management require the use of systemic insecticides such as
76 neonicotinoids, which represent 25% of the global insecticides market (Bass et al. 2015).

77

78 Neonicotinoids are the most important chemical class of insecticides introduced into global
79 markets in the 90 decade as less toxic than previous conventional pesticides, mainly the

80 synthetic pyrethroids, which are not only applied against some arthropods pests in agriculture,
81 but also with use for veterinary and urban pests (Abdel-Halim & Osman, 2020; Nauen et al.,
82 2008). They are chemicals that act at the level of the central nervous system, persistently
83 activating nicotinic receptors that cause the overstimulation of synapses, producing
84 hyperexcitation, paralysis and subsequent death (Puricelli & Arregui, 2008). In relation to its
85 broad spectrum characteristic, these insecticides could affect several non-target organisms
86 such as lacewings, which one habit agroecosystems spraying with these compounds. The
87 most common neonicotinoids used in Argentina correspond to imidacloprid, acetamiprid,
88 thiacloprid, clothianidin, and thiamethoxam (CASAFE, 2023; Puricelli & Arregui, 2008).

89

90 A previous imidacloprid toxicity assessment on *C. externa* showed that this neonicotinoid
91 insecticide reduced the egg viability when it or they were or was applied in eggs 24 h-old
92 treated (Pasini et al., 2018). In the case of imidacloprid it was corroborated that it induced DNA
93 damage in *Nile tilapia* (*Oreochromis niloticus* (L.)) and red earthworms (*Eisenia fetida*
94 (Savigny)) (Ansoar-Rodríguez et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2016). However, its genotoxicity and
95 effects on DNA remain unknown for biological control agents of economic relevance such as
96 Chrysopidae according to our knowledge.

97

98 The objective of this study was to analyze the genotoxicity of imidacloprid on the biological
99 control agent *C. externa* at DNA level using the comet assay as an ecotoxicological biomarker.

100 It is relevant to highlight that this technic was used for the first time for this organism under
101 laboratory insecticide exposition.

102

103 2. Materials and methods

104 2.1. Insects

105 *Chrysoperla externa* eggs used in this study, which were never exposed to pesticides, were
106 obtained from permanent colonies of the Laboratory of Ecotoxicology, Pesticides and
107 Biological Control of “Centro de Estudios de Parasitología y Vectores” (CEPAVE),
108 “Universidad Nacional de La Plata”- CONICET - CICPBA, located in La Plata, Argentina which
109 were never exposed to pesticides previously. Colonies units were performed from mated
110 adults (around 50-80 females), placed in ventilated transparent plastic containers (5 l, 21 cm
111 diameter, 25 cm high) covered with a fine mesh following the rearing method developed in our
112 laboratory and described in Haramboure et al. (2016). Briefly, considering that Chrysopidae
113 adults have no predator behavior, they were reared on an artificial diet based on honey, wheat
114 germ, and brewer’s yeast, which is commonly used for adults of the species (Vogt et al., 2000),
115 and tap water *ad libitum*. In addition, clean black cardboard (15 cm width × 15 cm height) was
116 added inside containers (the walls of the containers were lined) as an oviposition substrate
117 and replaced periodically. Colonies were maintained in a bioterium at $25 \pm 5^\circ\text{C}$, $70 \pm 5\%$
118 relative humidity, and under a photoperiod of L:D 16:8.

119

120 2.2 Biossays

121 2.2.1 Insecticides and Treatments

122 For the bioassays, the commercial product formulated Confidor OD® (imidacloprid 20% ai,
123 LS, Bayer CropScience, S.L Argentina) was used.

124 The two most recommended field rates of this insecticide for pest control in vegetable crops
125 in Argentina were used (CASAFE, 2023).

126 Field rates of 50 and 90 cm³/hl equivalent to 100 and 180 mg/l of active ingredient,
127 respectively were chosen for bioassays and distilled water was used as solvent to prepare the
128 insecticide solutions. Black cartons with lacewing eggs less than 24 h old were removed from
129 the plastic containers of the *C. externa* colonies and cartons with groups of 60 eggs were
130 randomly selected for each treatment. The selected eggs were dipped in a Confidor OD®
131 solutions for 15 s. Controls were treated with solvent alone. After the application, the cards
132 with eggs were kept under a hood until completely dry and were placed in ventilated petri
133 dishes in a bioterium at 25 ± 5°C, 70% ± 5% relative humidity and under a photoperiod L:D
134 16: 8 until preparation of comet trials.

135

136 2.2.2 Set up of the comet assay

137

138 The first step in this study was to develop and standardize a specific protocol for comet assay
139 for *C. externa* eggs, due to there were not available previous ones for similar arthropods.
140 Briefly, a single-cell gel electrophoresis was performed using the alkaline version described
141 by Singh et al. (1988) with some modifications. To set up the comet assay, tests were
142 performed combinations of lysis solutions, and electrophoresis run times. The protocol that
143 yielded the best results was that use of whole eggs, from which the intrachorion material was
144 extracted in a macerate with 30 µL of distilled water. The cell solution was suspended in 170
145 ul of low melting point agarose (0,5%). This material was seeded on two slides covered with
146 100ul of normal melting point agarose (0,5%). Each sample was covered with a coverslip and
147 refrigerated at 4 °C for 10 min. The coverslip was then removed and placed in a lysis solution
148 (2.5 MNaCl, 100 mM Na₂EDTA, 10 mM Tris, 0,5% Triton X-100, pH 10). The slides were
149 placed in a horizontal electrophoresis tank covered with a buffer solution (pH > 13) composed
150 of distilled water, NAOH, and EDTA for 15 min at 4 °C at 25 volts and 250 mA. Once the run
151 was complete, the slides were washed three times with Tris-HCl buffer solution (pH 7.5) for
152 one minute at room temperature, then with distilled water, and placed in 96% ethanol for 10

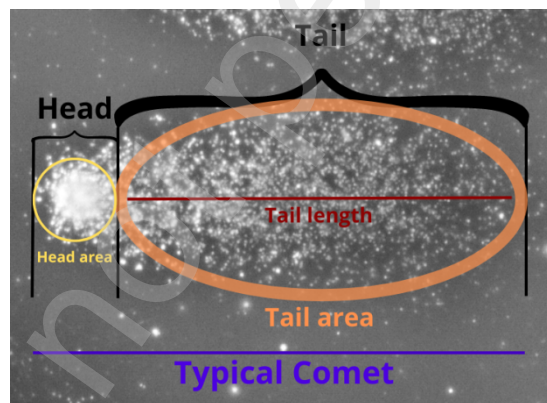
153 min. Finally, the samples were dried at room temperature. The preparations were stained with
 154 SYBR Green dye and observed by fluorescence microscopy with a 40x Olympus BX51
 155 objective and an Olympus DP71 camera, and images were obtained with the DP controller
 156 3.3.1.292 and DP manager 3.3.1.222 program.

157

158 2.2.3 Variables evaluated in Comet assay

159 *Chrysoperla externa* 24 hs old eggs were treated with imidacloprid solutions and evaluations
 160 were done at 24 and 96 hs after insecticide applications, when the embryo begins to manifest
 161 within the egg (24 hrs) or when it is fully formed (96 hrs) (Fernandez Acevedo et al., 2022).
 162 Treatments were named according to egg age and insecticide concentrations applied.

163



164

165 Figure 1: Typical comet description. Cells are composed of a head and tail. Variables
 166 analyzed to determine DNA damage. Comet tail width (red), comet tail area (orange) and
 167 comet head area (yellow).

168

169 The comet from *C. externa* eggs were observed having into account the typical comet
 170 description (Figure 1). The damage index (DI) was calculated according to Collins (2004); 100
 171 comets were randomly counted per slide and this procedure was replied twice. The comets

172 were classified into five categories or degrees according to the damage (Figure 2). Each image
 173 was assigned with a value between 0 and 4 and the DI was calculated using the formula:

$$174 \quad DI = (1 \times Nd1 + 2 \times Nd2 + 3 \times Nd3 + 4 \times Nd4) / \text{Total comets observed.}$$

175 Where Nd represents the number of comets at each value. Besides, DNA damage has been
 176 estimated through the relationship between tail and head areas using the formula:

$$177 \quad \%DNA \text{ damage} = \text{tail area} / (\text{tail area} + \text{head area}) \times 100$$

178 Direct measurements were performed to calculate tail length in μm . Both variables were
 179 counted in 100 comets per treatment and measured using the Image J software.

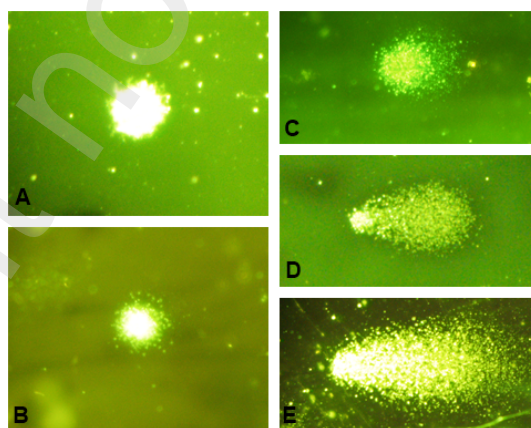
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181 2.3 Statistical Analyses

182 All statistical analyses were performed using R software. Permutation two-way ANOVA with
 183 interaction. Eta squared (η^2) was used as a measure of effect size. Post-hoc analyses were
 184 performed considering the variables analyzed with adjustment of the level of significance using
 185 the Sidak method ($p < 0.05$).

186

187



188

189 Figure 2: Classification degrees of comets. A: grade 0. Comets without halo around them. B:
 190 grade 1. Comets with tails smaller than the nucleus diameter C: Grade 2. Comets with a tail
 191 between one and two diameters of nucleus. D: Grade 3. Comets with tails between 2 and 3

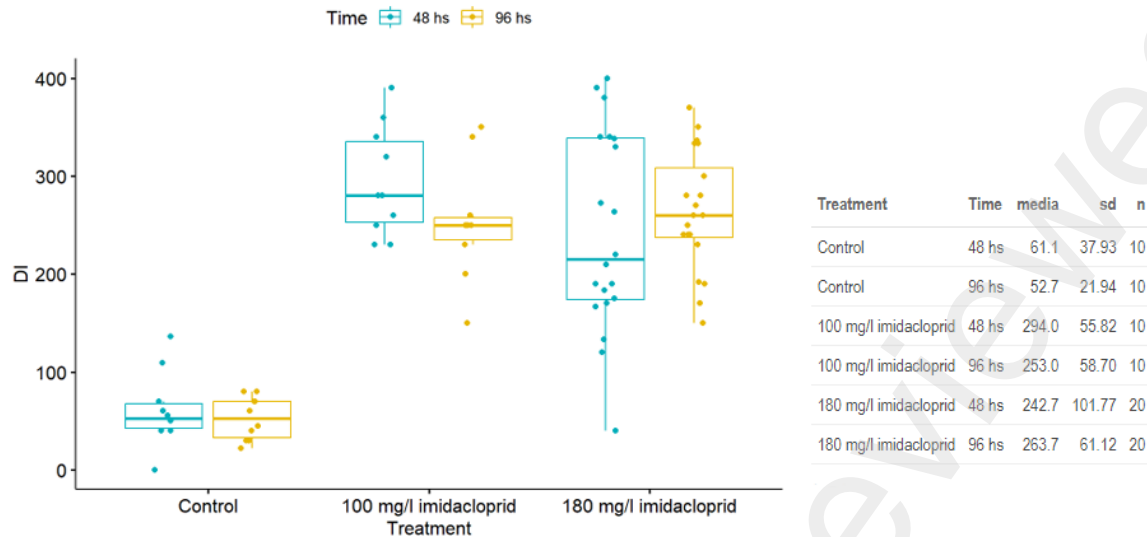
192 times the diameter of the nucleus. E: Grade 4: Comets with a tail larger than three core
193 diameters with wide spread of DNA.

194

195 3. Results

196 The damage index (DI) caused by imidacloprid was observed at both concentrations evaluated
197 and it was similar at both development time of embryos developing inside of eggs. In this
198 sense, the damage index registered in the treated samples for both eggs development times
199 was much higher than that of the control (Figure 3). These differences were marked by
200 insecticide treatment ($F=67.11$; $df=2$; $p < 1 \times 10^{-8}$) whereas both age of egg evaluated were
201 similar ($F=0.01$; $df=1$; $p = 0.905$). The η^2 for the treatment reaches 0.63, where this 63% of
202 DNA damage (ID) ID is explained by the applied product.

203 In the comparisons between different treatments, the control showed differences both with the
204 lowest and he highest concentration ($p < 1 \times 10^{-8}$). The DI tended to have a greater difference
205 than the control at the lower concentration, influenced by the high proportion of damage at 48
206 h of development of embryon. However, there were no significant differences between the
207 concentrations with respect to the DNA damage caused ($p=0.62$).



208

209 Figure 3: Genotoxicity of Imidacloprid on *Chrysoperla externa* eggs. Damage Index (DI)
 210 measured in arbitrary units. The Damage Index evaluation times were 48 hours (blue) and 96
 211 hours (yellow) of embryo development inside the egg. The concentrations of the treatments
 212 were 0 (controls), 100 and 180 mg/l active ingredient of imidacloprid. Boxes indicate mean
 213 values and standard deviations (sd). Points represent all samples tested.

214

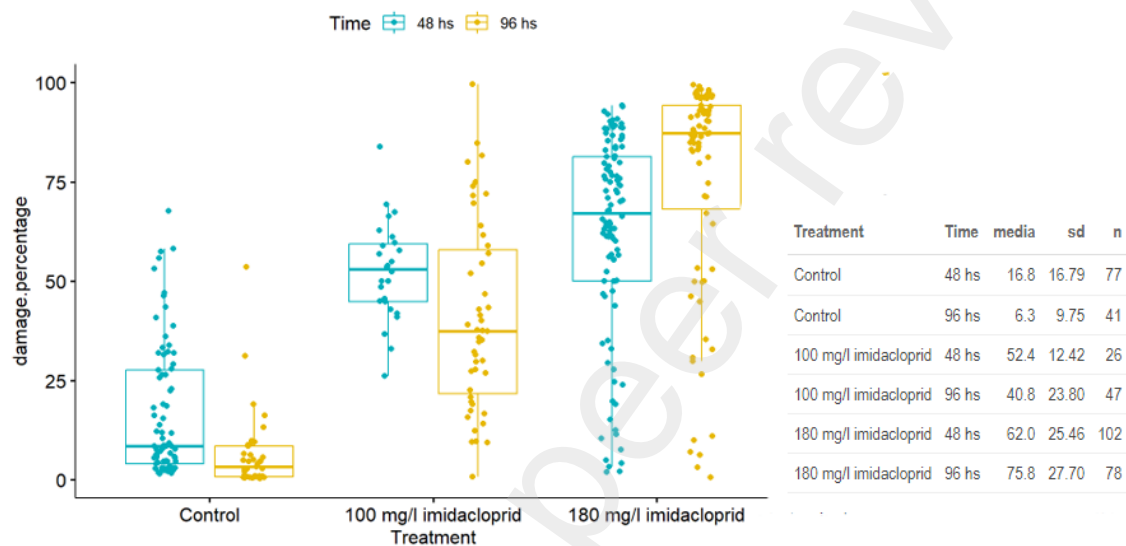
215 The percentage of damage presented increasing mean values with respect to the
 216 concentration regardless of the development time, with the highest value being the eggs at 96
 217 h of development that correspond to the highest dose of imidacloprid (75.8%, se=27.70)
 218 (Figure 4).

219 There was an interaction between the treatment and age of development regarding the
 220 percentage of damage ($F=13.53$; $Df=2$; $p = 2.1 \times 10^{-6}$). Similar to the previous parameters,
 221 the percentage of damage was mainly influenced by imidacloprid treatment ($\eta^2=0.52$) and not
 222 by the age at egg development ($\eta^2=0.03$).

223 Eggs 48 hours old show a higher percentage of damage in both treatments with imidacloprid
 224 compared to control eggs ($p < 1 \times 10^{-8}$) but not between the evaluated concentration

225 (p=0.266). The 96-h-development eggs presented not only a higher percentage of damage in
 226 those treated with imidacloprid ($p < 1 \times 10^{-8}$), but also, between concentrations at a higher dose
 227 of active ingredient, the damage increases ($p < 1 \times 10^{-8}$). The 180 mg/l of imidacloprid produces
 228 a higher percentage of damage in eggs with 96 hours of development than in eggs with 48
 229 hours of development ($p = 1.3 \times 10^{-4}$), that is to say, the variable increased with time.

230



231

232 Figure 4: Genotoxicity of Imidacloprid on *Chrysoperla externa* eggs. Damage percentage
 233 measured in percentage. The evaluation times of the damage percentage were 48 hours
 234 (blue) and 96 hours (yellow) of embryo development inside the egg. The concentrations of the
 235 treatments were 0 (controls), 100 and 180 mg/l active ingredient of imidacloprid. Boxes
 236 indicate mean values and standard deviations (sd). Points represent all samples tested

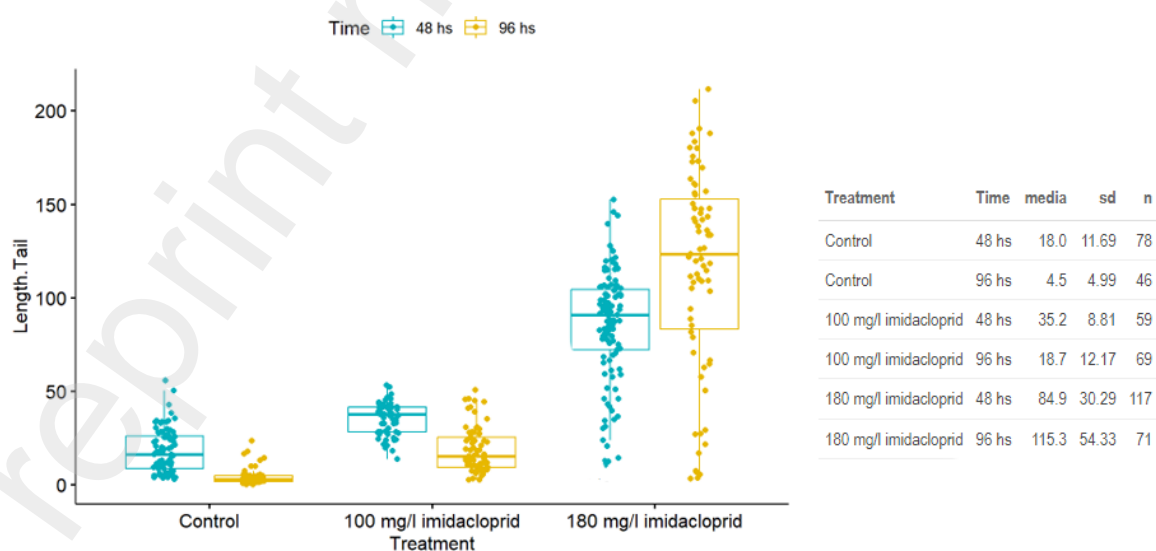
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238 The tail length parameter of comets presents an interaction between the evaluated variables.
 239 DNA damage evaluation through the comets tail length showed that both concentrations of
 240 imidacloprid assayed and development times of eggs caused variations in the length of tail
 241 comets ($F = 33.93$; $df = 2$; $p < 1 \times 10^{-8}$) (Figure 6). At the lowest concentration assayed tail length
 242 were greater in eggs at 48 h of development, with a mean of $35.2 \mu\text{m}$ ($sd = 8.81 \mu\text{m}$) (following

243 a pattern C of Figure 2) than in eggs at 96 h of development with 18.7 μm (sd= 12.17 μm)
 244 (following a pattern B of Figure 2) (Figure 5). At the highest concentration of imidacloprid, eggs
 245 at 96 h of development had a greater mean tail length, with mean values of 115.3 μm (sd=
 246 54.33 μm) corresponding to comets grade E (Figure 2) than eggs at 48 h of development, with
 247 mean values of 84.9 μm (sd=30.29 μm) (comets grade F of Figure 2) (Figure 5). Besides,
 248 when measuring the size of the effect, treatment ($\eta^2 = 0.61$) was the factor that most influenced
 249 variability, and its effect was much higher than that of development time ($\eta^2 = 0.05$).

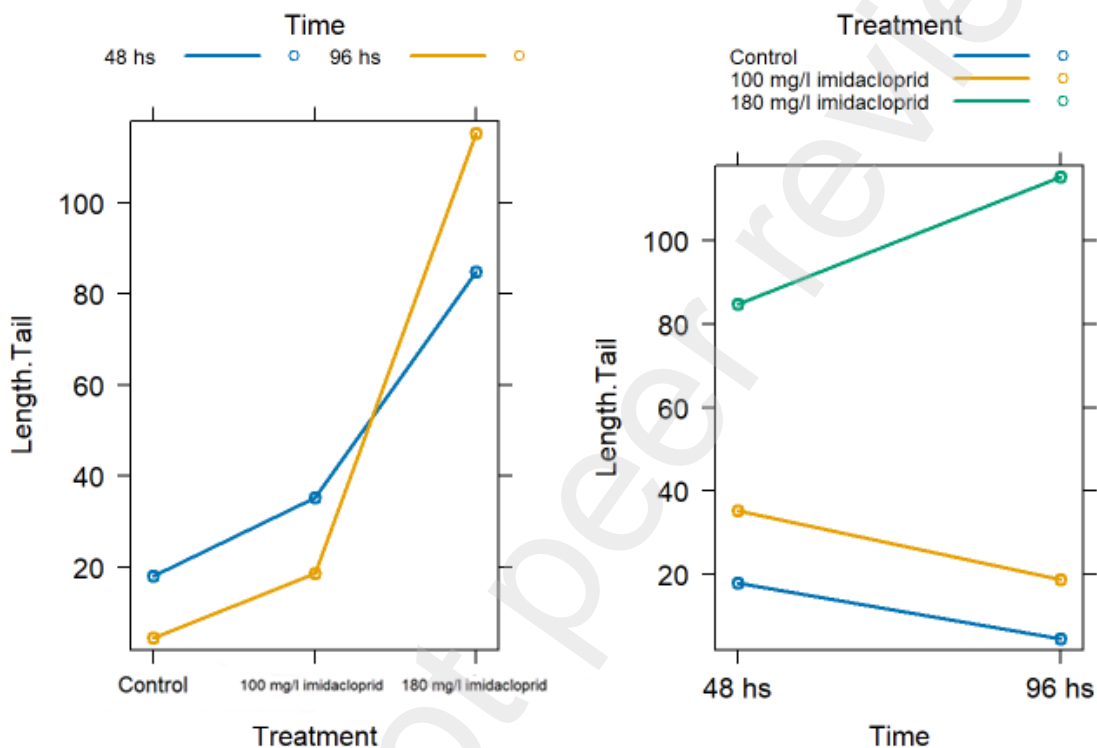
250 At 48 hours of development, the longest tail was present at the highest concentration
 251 evaluated ($p < 1 \times 10^{-8}$), an intermediate value at the lowest concentration, and the lowest
 252 value in the control. The same situation that occurred in the eggs of 96 hours of development
 253 ($p < 1 \times 10^{-8}$). That is, the higher the concentration, the greater the length of the comet tail,
 254 regardless of the development time (Figure 6).

255 When comparing the different concentrations, the eggs dipped in 100 mg/l a.i. of imidacloprid
 256 had a longer tail at 48 hours of development than at 96 hours of development ($p = 0.0027$) and
 257 the eggs dipped in 180 mg/l a.i. of imidacloprid of insecticide had a longer tail at 96 hours than
 258 at 48 hours of development ($p < 1 \times 10^{-8}$) (Figure 5 and 6).



259

260 Figure 5. Genotoxicity of Imidacloprid on *Chrysoperla externa* eggs. Comet tail length
 261 measured in micrometers. The tail length evaluation times were 48 hours (blue) and 96 hours
 262 (yellow) of embryo development inside the egg. The concentrations of the treatments were 0
 263 (controls), 100 and 180 mg/l active ingredient of imidacloprid. Boxes indicate mean values and
 264 standard deviations (sd). Points represent all samples tested



265

266 Figure 6. Genotoxicity of Imidacloprid in *Chrysoperla externa* eggs. Effects of the interaction
 267 between egg development time and treatments. Comet tail length was measured in
 268 micrometers. Left graph: effect of treatment for two developmental periods. The tail length
 269 assessment times were 48 h (blue) and 96 h (yellow) of embryonic development within the
 270 egg. The concentrations of the treatments were 0 (control), 100, and 180 mg/l of the active
 271 ingredient, imidacloprid. Right graph: effect of treatment development time. The treatments
 272 were as follows: control (blue), 100 mg/l of active ingredient imidacloprid (yellow), and 180
 273 mg/l of active ingredient imidacloprid (green).

274

275 4. Discussion

276 Comet assay analysis protocolized for first time for *C. externa* eggs was useful to corroborate
277 DNA damage due to imidacloprid exposition at both concentrations studied. The lowest
278 concentration evaluated corresponds to one of the lowest recommended field rates for pest
279 control in agroecosystems in Argentina. These results indicate that the use of these
280 concentrations was detrimental to *C. externa*, which is a non-target organism.

281 First, it is important to highlight that the controls presented basal damage because complete
282 individuals were being analyzed and not only independent tissues, as is usually done in these
283 assays, which entails differential electrophoretic damage in the tissues. Ecotoxicological
284 assays on erythrocytes of *Rana nigromaculata* *Hallowell* (Anura: Ranidae) showed a direct
285 relationship between comet grade and imidacloprid concentration (Feng et al., 2005), but not
286 in studies on *Oreochromis niloticus* (Perciformes: Cichlidae) and *Misgurnus anguillicaudatus*
287 exposed to imidacloprid, in which DNA damage was independent of the dose used (Ansoar-
288 Rodríguez et al., 2015; Xia et al., 2016). In our study, the damage index did not show
289 significant differences for the different doses, but differences were marked for tail length,
290 because at higher doses of imidacloprid, smaller DNA fragments were produced as a result of
291 strand breaks, alkali-labile sites, and delayed repair sites, similar to that reported by Xia et al.
292 (2016).

293 With a single exposure to the lowest dose, the DNA of the cells analyzed at 48 h and 96 h of
294 development showed the same damage (% damage); that is, they had no recovery capacity.
295 In addition, the cells analyzed at 48 h presented shorter DNA fragments than those analyzed
296 at 96 h.

297 Ecological studies carried out on earthworms (*Eisenia fetida*) with subchronic exposure to
298 analytical-grade imidacloprid showed damage not only at the DNA level but also lipid
299 peroxidation due to the increase in reactive oxygen species and the involvement of antioxidant

300 enzymes (Wang et al., 2016). Studies have concluded that imidacloprid favors the production
301 of reactive oxygen species (ROS) at the cellular level (Abdel-Halim & Osman, 2020; Duzguner
302 & Erdogan, 2012; EL-Gendy et al., 2010; Ge et al., 2015). .

303 In these studies, the main hypothesis of damage to *C. externa* eggs was that exposure to low
304 doses of imidacloprid produces an increase in the amount of ROS, and it would seem that the
305 antioxidant system fails to compensate for this increase causing an imbalance that would lead
306 to an increase in DNA breaks that are maintained throughout the development time. The main
307 difference in the length of the fragments could be that, at 48 h of development, there is high
308 cell division, with a greater number of okazaki fragments; therefore, the basal DNA damage
309 is greater at this time. These fragments did not form a complete DNA chain because of the
310 addition of ROS to the structures. On the other hand, at the highest dose, the more advanced
311 the stage of egg development, the more DNA damage was observed. The ROS production
312 rate was so high that it appeared that the antioxidant complex weakened over time. This would
313 cause an imbalance, and the unbalanced ROS would cause widespread breaks in the cells
314 and DNA.

315 The use of imidacloprid in insects not only causes direct damage at the central nervous system
316 level, but also causes damage at the cellular level, damaging biological molecules of utmost
317 importance. Specific applications of *C. externa* eggs produce breaks at the DNA level, which
318 cause irreparable damage to organisms in the short and medium term. This situation could be
319 repeated in other non-target organisms, causing environmental damage in agricultural fields
320 that is not being taken into account. It is extremely important to know what these synthetic
321 molecules are produced in the environment, to estimate the environmental damage caused
322 by their release, not only in wildlife, but also their involvement in human health and nutrition.

323 5. Conclusions

324 The new comet assay protocol for *C. externa* is novel and has not been previously described.
325 It was concluded that Confidor OD® (imidacloprid 20% ai) and its concentrations related to
326 the maximum field recommended concentrations (MFRC) caused DNA damage in *C. externa*
327 eggs regardless of the evaluated concentration and eggs age.

328 The comet assay as a tool for the evaluation of genetic damage in non-target organisms of
329 agriculture is something new and easy to use in the terrestrial ecotoxicology studies.

330

331 6. Author contributions

332 **Victoria Fernandez Acevedo:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Formal
333 analysis, Writing - Original draft preparation; **Analia Seoane y Sergio Rodriguez Gil:**
334 Conceptualization, Methodology, Supervision, Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing;
335 **Graciela Minardi:** Statistical analysis; **Marcela Inés Schneider:** Conceptualization,
336 Methodology, Supervision, Resources, Funding acquisition, Writing - Reviewing and
337 Editing.

338

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