

Modulation of the uptake and toxicity of PFOA by Polystyrene and Titanium dioxide nanoparticles in Pacific oysters (*Magallana gigas*) and Daphnia (*Daphnia magna*)

by

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Science

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Abstract

Nanomaterial toxicity is a major concern in today's world. The benefits of nanoparticle use have led to the production of various kinds of nanomaterials including a high volume of nanoplastics, TiO₂ nanoparticles, and CeO nanoparticles. Different nanomaterials are shown to be a suitable vector for various toxicants. The effects of plastic pollution on marine organisms are of growing concern. The hydrophobic surface of plastics has been shown to adsorb phenanthrene and increase the rate of uptake into fish. To date, the potential for other nanoparticles to associate with POPs in water and affect POP transport has not been investigated. Titanium dioxide (TiO₂) nanoparticles are known to form different eco-coronas by adsorption of various constituents in water. Therefore, I hypothesized that the presence of nano-sized plastic particles could also enhance PFOA uptake in animals. I measured the uptake rate of ¹⁴C-PFOA in juvenile Pacific Oysters at different concentrations, and in different periods of exposure time, and investigated whether different concentrations of either 500 nm or 20 nm polystyrene nanoparticles (PS-NPs) altered the uptake rate of PFOA. My results demonstrate that PS-NPs have both a high sorption capacity for PFOA and also can significantly enhance the uptake of PFOA at environmentally realistic exposure concentrations. I found that PFOA uptake at 100 µg/l was increased 2.3-fold in the presence of 1000 µg/L 500 nm PS-NPs and 3.2 -fold increase was seen in the presence of 1000 µg/L 20 nm PS-NPs. Based on the previous data, I also hypothesized that PFOA would adsorb to the hydrophobic surface of nano sized TiO₂ particles and affect the uptake of PFOA into *Daphnia magna*. I measured the accumulation of PFOA and TiO₂ compound in *Daphnia* using a radiotracer-based method involving ¹⁴C-labelled PFOA over multiple concentrations, flux times, and different TiO₂ particle sizes. My results showed that TiO₂ NPs have a high sorption capacity for PFOA and also meaningfully modulate PFOA uptake at environmentally relevant concentrations. Uptake of

10 $\mu\text{g/L}$ PFOA was found to be 45% higher in the presence of 500 $\mu\text{g/L}$ 5 nm TiO_2 which is 20% higher than the uptake enhancement caused by adsorption of PFOA to the 25 nm TiO_2 , respectively. Results from my uptake experiments demonstrated the exacerbated uptake rate of PFOA by adsorption onto the surface of the plastic and TiO_2 nanoparticles in two different organisms. Furthermore, I investigated whether the presence of the *NP* potentiated accumulation of PFOA, which would result in an intensified PFOA-induced toxicological impact on aquatic animals. PFOA is shown to induce oxidative stress and alter the metabolism of various organisms. I showed that the presence of PS-NPs increased the oxidative stress induced by 1 mg/L PFOA by 2.5-fold and 3-fold in the presence of either 100 mg/L 500 or 20 nm PS-NPs, respectively. These findings demonstrate that micro and nanoplastics as co-contaminants in marine Pacific Oysters can significantly potentiate organic contaminant uptake and toxicity. Additionally, PFOA sorption to TiO_2 *NPs* also potentiated the decrease in metabolic oxygen consumption (MO_2) by 0.31-fold, compared to PFOA alone, when co-contaminated with 5nm TiO_2 particles. These results also showed for the first time that TiO_2 nanoparticles can act as vectors for organic pollutants and significantly modulate their accumulation and toxicity in *Daphnia*. Overall, my data demonstrated the nanoparticles' capacity to adsorb organic pollutants and showed that adsorption of POPs to *NPs* accelerated the uptake of organic toxicants and intensified the toxicity of the accumulated toxicant in different aquatic organisms.

Preface

Arian Farajizadeh is the principal researcher for the research done within this thesis and therefore assumes all responsibilities. The components of Radio tracer-based experiment and analyses were modified from previous publications by Zhang et al. (2018) to suit the conditions, resources, and research goals of the experiments. All experimental work in chapter 2 uptake experiments (on Pacific oysters) was conducted at Bamfield Science center situated at the Bamfield, British Columbia, Canada. Additionally, the rest of the study were held on the Department of Biological Sciences located at the University of Alberta, North Campus, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada.

Dr. Marina Giacomini provided help over. analyses of uptake and toxicity experiments of chapter two. Additionally, Lazarus Siu and Jonas Wang provided assistance in toxicity evaluation experiment (including TBARS assay and Oxygen consumption assay) and Daphnia colony maintenance . The entirety of this research was conducted under the supervision of Dr. Greg Goss. No part of this thesis has been published as of the submission of this work to the University of Alberta.

Acknowledgments

My very first and special thanks go to my supervisor, Dr. Greg Goss, without whose support and kindness not only couldn't I execute my research but also couldn't make it through my years of graduate studies. Thank you, Greg, for all your support and guidance. My words cannot describe my gratitude towards you!

Thank you, my committee members, Dr. Keith Tierney, and Dr. Jeffrey Farner who generously dedicated your time to helping me finishing my graduate studies and kindly provided guidance and support through this research.

My next most sincere gratitude goes to Dr. Ebrahim (Ebi) Lari, my very first mentor and teacher of biological sciences, who helped and guided me to indescribable extents. Thanks, Ebi!

I would also like to appreciate Dr. Marina Giacomini, for all her support and valuable instructions. Thank you, Marina, for all the tips and help in both Bamfield and Edmonton!

Also, a very especial thank you for Tad Plesowicz from the university animal care facility for all his help and support through my graduate studies!

Subsequently, I would like to thank Dr. Yueyang (Brian) Zhang, Laszarus Sui, Jonas Wang and all past and present Goss lab members who helped me throughout this research in many ways!

Lastly, I would like to thank my family, especially my mom, who supported me all my life in any way possible and beyond!

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List of Abbreviation

μL	Microliter
μm	Micrometer
μg	Microgram
$\mu\text{g/L}$	Micromole per Liter
%	Percentage
~	Approximately
[]	Concentration
ATP	Adenosine Triphosphate
BHT	Butylated Hydroxytoluene
$^{\circ}\text{C}$	Celsius
^{14}C	Carbon-14
^{14}C	Carbon-14
^{14}C -PFOA	Carbon-14 Labelled Perfluorooctanoic Acid
CAT	Catalase activity
CeO	Cerium Oxide
CD	Compact Disc
cpm	Counts per Minute
DLS	Dynamic Light Scattering
EC50	Half Maximal Effective Concentration

EDTA	Ethylenediaminetetraacetic Acid
EPA	Environmental Protection Agency
EROD	Ethoxyresorufin-O-deethylase
FDA	(U.S.) Food and Drug Administration
Fig	Figure
g	Gram
g/L	Gram per Liter
H ³	Tritiated Hydrogen
HA	Humic Acid
HCl	Hydrochloric Acid
HNO ₃	Nitric Acid
h	Hour(s)
KCl	Potassium Chloride
K _{ow}	n-octanol/water partition coefficient
L	Liters
LC50	Lethal Concentration in 50% of an exposed population
LDPE	Low-density Polyethylene
LPO	Lipid Peroxidization
min	Minute
mg	Milligrams

mg/L	Milligrams per Liter
mL	Milliliter
mV	Millivolts
M	Molar
MDA	Malondialdehyde
MP	Microplastic
MPT	Mitochondrial Permeability Transition Pore
MO ₂	metabolic oxygen consumption
N	Normal
NP	Nanoplastic
<i>NP</i>	Nanoparticles
NM	Nanomaterial
ng/L	Nanogram per Liter
nmol/g/h	Nanomoles per Gram per Hour
nm	Nanometer
PAH	Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons
PBS	Phosphate-Buffered Saline
PDI	Polydispersity Index
PET	Polyethylene Terephthalate
PFAS	Per- and Polyfluorinated Substances

PFOA	Perfluorooctanoic acid
PO	Phenol oxidases
POPs	Persistent organic pollutants
PP	Polypropylene
PS	Polystyrene
PS-NPs	Polystyrene Nanoparticles
PS	Polystyrene
PVC	Polyvinyl Chloride
pH	Potential Hydrogen
pmol	Picomole
pmol/g	Picomole per gram
pmol/g/h	Picomole per gram per hour
ppm	Parts Per Million
REACH	Registration, Evaluation, Authorisation and Restriction of Chemicals
ROS	Reactive Oxygen Species
SEM	Standard Error of Mean
SSA	Specific Surface Area
TBA	2-Thiobarbituric Acid
TBARS	Thiobarbituric Acid Reactive Substances
TiO ₂	Titanium Dioxide

TiO ₂ <i>NPs</i>	Titanium Dioxide nanoparticles
TM	Trademark
U/mL	Units per milliliter
Uci/kg/min	Micro Currie per Kilogram per Minute
U	Uranium
UV	Ultra Violet
X	Times

1 Chapter 1: General introduction

1.1 Plastics

For over 80 years, plastics have been produced in large quantities and production has expanded widely in the last 50 years (Brandts et al. 2018; Geyer, Jambeck, and Law 2017; Mattsson et al. 2018). Plastic production is estimated to be more than 320 million tonnes, annually (Brandts et al. 2018; Geyer et al. 2017). Plastics are used in a wide range of products such as agricultural plastic mulch, car tires, microfibers from textiles, and other objects (including plastic bottles, rope, bags, nets, and artificial sculptures) (Chen et al. 2020; E. Hernandez, Nowack, and Mitrano 2017; McDevitt et al. 2017; Surendran et al. 2023; Zhou et al. 2020). Roughly 50% of these plastics are considered one-time-use materials only (Geyer et al. 2017; Surendran et al. 2023). Of the total world production, about 10% of the annual production of plastic is estimated to reach the marine environment (Chidambarampadmavathy, Karthikeyan, and Heimann 2017; Mattsson et al. 2018; Wang et al. 2019). Plastics are estimated to form more than half of marine litter globally, making them one of the most abundant marine pollutants (Chen et al. 2017; Mattsson et al. 2018; Zhang et al. 2020). UV light exposure and mechanical degradation are the primary reasons for the degradation of plastics in the environment. Plastics break down gradually creating smaller particles including microplastics (MPs) (Chae and An 2017; Zhang et al. 2020). MPs are particles that are less than 5 mm as defined by The National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration. These MPs can undergo further degradation initiated through microbiological activity, mechanical force, or UV radiation creating nanosized plastic particles (nanoplastics) which have an extremely high surface area per gram of plastic compared to MPS (da Costa et al. 2016; Manfra et al. 2017; Mattsson et al. 2018). Nano plastics (NPs) are defined as plastic particles smaller than 100 nm in at least one dimension (Brandts et al. 2018; Chen et al. 2017; da Costa et al. 2016; Mattsson et al.

2018; Zhang et al. 2020). In addition to the breaking down of larger plastic particles, NPs are also introduced to the environment as direct ubiquitous nanoparticle toxicants (Cole et al. 2011) generated from commercial products such as toothpaste, cosmetics, personal care products, etc. which, until recent bans by many countries, contain nanoplastics beads (Cole et al. 2011; Luo et al. 2019; Miao et al. 2019).

1.2 Micro and Nano plastic as pollutants

Micro and nano plastics have been detected in various marine ecosystems, including the Pacific Ocean, Southern Caspian, and Mediterranean Sea coasts, and both the Arctic and Antarctic environments (da Costa et al. 2016; Geyer et al. 2017; Mattsson et al. 2018). The uptake of these plastics has been demonstrated to result in adverse effects on a variety of different aquatic organisms (Chae and An 2017; Chen et al. 2017; Cole et al. 2011; da Costa et al. 2016; Deloid et al. 2022; Luo et al. 2019; Manfra et al. 2017; Zhang et al. 2020; Zhou et al. 2020). The dominant route of exposure to MPs and NPs in marine organisms is ingestion (Cole et al. 2011; Pikuda et al. 2019; Zhang et al. 2020). Microplastic toxicity is normally caused by physical blockage of the intestinal tract (Jovanović 2017) although MPs toxicity also includes decreased growth or photosynthesis rates (Besseling et al. 2014; Zhang et al. 2020), reduced reproduction (Besseling et al. 2014), reduced body size (Besseling et al. 2014), altered muscle and liver metabolism, and altered feeding rate (Mattsson et al. 2015) in *Scenedesmus obliquus*, *Daphnia magna*, and *Carassius carassius*, respectively. Degraded plastic particles with smaller sizes are generally shown to be associated with higher toxicity (Chae and An 2017; Cole et al. 2011; da Costa et al. 2016; Jovanović 2017; Xue et al. 2020). For example, 50 nm NPs have been demonstrated to result in more significant membrane damage compared to 1 µm MPs in exposed *Halomonas alkaliphile* (Gonçalves and Bebianno 2021). Another proposed mechanism

of acute NP toxicity is an exacerbated immune response (Brandts et al. 2020). In addition to direct toxicity resulting from exposure to MPs and NPs, another recently proposed mechanism is that MPs and NP can act as a carrier for other pollutants (Qiao et al. 2019; Zarfl and Matthies 2010; Zhang et al. 2020), and this forms the subject of my thesis.

1.3 Polystyrene nanoparticles (PS-NP)

Plastics are usually manufactured using synthetic organic polymers including low-density polyethylene (LDPE), polypropylene (PP), polyethylene terephthalate (PET), polyvinyl chloride (PVC), and polystyrene (PS) (Kik, Bukowska, and Sicińska 2020). Plastics can be shaped into any required form due to their thermoplastic features. Global plastic manufacture has been constantly expanding, with plastic production increased about 178-fold in roughly 63 years (1950-2013) (da Costa et al. 2016; Kik et al. 2020) and plastic production has risen 12% in the past 3 years. Furthermore, this production rate is hypothesized to increase significantly (approximately 100%) in the coming years (Hesler et al. 2019; Kik et al. 2020). Vinylbenzene, known as Styrene, is formed from Ethylene and Benzene. Styrene monomers are polymerized to an aromatic polymer form called PS. Mass PS polymerization is done through catalytic dehydrogenation of ethylbenzene (J.R Wunsch 2000a; Kik et al. 2020). Stability, translucency, and being smoothly dyable are significant features of PS. Toothbrushes, toys, and CDs are examples of PS utilization. Styrofoam, known for limited elasticity, is an important product when PS is exposed to rapid heating, making it a good choice for the manufacture of kitchenware including dishes, trays, and mugs. Food transport, packing materials, clips, and office supplies are also some of the PS's other products (Domininghaus 1992; Johannaber and Michaeli 2004; J.R Wunsch 2000a). Full degradation of PS only results from exposure to temperatures over 330 °C, forming styrene monomers. Styrene concentrations above 300 ppm (1000 µg/L) are known to be toxic to human

health, as determined by Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) (Gurman, Baier, and Levin 1987; Mutti et al. 1992). While average styrene consumption is $\sim 9 \mu\text{g}/\text{person}/\text{day}$, this is lower than the FDA-approved admissible daily intake, making them a suitable polymer for food and non-food products (Lickly, Breder, and Rainey 1995; US Food and Drug Administration 2002; World Health Organization (WHO) 2000), and hence a risk for ingestion. Furthermore, PS particles with a broad size diversity can be easily produced making them model particles for the investigation of particle surface feature effects and effects on numerous biological organisms (Brandts et al. 2020; Kik et al. 2020; Luo et al. 2019; Manfra et al. 2017). PS-NPs also have broad technological and biomedical applications due to their ease of modulating the shape and size of the particles. Recently developed functions include bio-sensory products, photonics, and other different nanostructures (C Loss 2014; Gurman et al. 1987; J.R Wunsch 2000b).

Different sizes of PS-NPs have been detected in almost all aquatic ecosystems, with concentrations of up to 9200 particles/ m^3 detected on the shores of British Columbia, Canada (Zellers 2005). They have also been shown to be present in high concentrations in wastewater plants (Mahon et al. 2017). Exposure of zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) embryos to 25, 50, 250, and 700 nm PS-NPs have been shown to result in significant adverse effects where particles larger than 50 nm in size were only found in the gastrointestinal tract but 25 and 50 nm particles were shown to penetrate tissue membranes and were detected in different organs (van Pomeran et al. 2017). In a similar study by Lee et al. (2019), zebrafish embryos were exposed to three different sizes of 50, 200, and 500 nm PS NPs alone or co-contaminated with Au ions. It was found that the smaller the size of the nanoplastic, the easier the penetration of tissues and increased accumulation of plastics and Au in the body, especially in lipid-rich organs (Lee et al. 2019). A similar supporting study by Mattsson et al. (2017) showed PS-NP accumulation in the brain of fish, with a higher NP uptake

demonstrated for 53 nm PS-NPs compared to 180 nm NPs. This was associated with acute behavioral and morphological changes, followed by excess weight loss and reduced brain fluids (Mattsson et al. 2017).

1.4 Titanium Dioxide (TiO₂)

More than %0.5 of the earth's crust is made of natural titanium existing as oxides. (Völz et al. 2000). Nanosized titanium dioxide is manufactured for many different purposes such as solar cells, biomaterials, memory devices, and photocatalysts (Chen and Mao 2007; Diebold 2003; Gong, Selloni, and Vittadini 2006; Lin et al. 2009; Liu et al. 2004; Martin et al. 1996; Martyanov et al. 2004; Nakamura and Nakato 2004; Tan and Wu 2006; Wang, Groenzin, and Shultz 2005; Zhang et al. 1999) and worldwide production exceeds now 330 million tons [gg1] /year. Nano TiO₂ is present in the majority of sunscreens and cosmetic products due to its UV light-absorbing abilities (Chen and Mao 2007). While cosmetic pigments including TiO₂ in sunscreen are washed off directly into the environment after use (Tourinho et al. 2012), due to their broad scale uses in consumer products, TiO₂ mainly enters the environment through wastewater treatment plants as nanoparticles (Tourinho et al. 2012).

1.5 TiO₂ nanoparticles

Nano-sized TiO₂ particles (especially less than 10 nm) have unique size-dependent characteristics, such as surface reactivity and particle morphology, and have a high band gap (Erik Lucas 2001; Pettibone et al. 2008). Given that nano sized TiO₂ is used in many commercial, medicinal, and environmental applications, studying TiO₂ surface chemistry is of utmost importance for the safe application of this helpful nanomaterial (Akakuru, Iqbal, and Wu 2020; Hussain et al. 2010). TiO₂ nanoparticles are usually poorly dispersed in water due to their significant hydrophobic nature, and therefore, applying surfactants is necessary to use in most applications (Akakuru et al. 2020;

Hussain et al. 2010; Khan et al. 2020) . Additionally, multiple studies have demonstrated that TiO₂ NM can form an eco-corona of proteins and other substances following entrance into the environment (Khan et al. 2020; Pettibone et al. 2008). The fact that the hydrophobic surface of TiO₂ can bind materials in the environment leads to the possibility that the TiO₂ in combination with a co-contaminant will result in the adsorption and partitioning of the co-contaminant to the surface of the TiO₂ NPs (Pettibone et al. 2008; Zhang et al. 1999).

1.6 Hydrophobic persistent organic pollutants (POPs)

The deposition of hydrophobic persistent organic pollutants (POPs), including polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), is a significant environmental issue in the world (Mattsson et al. 2018; Wang et al. 2019). POPs have been shown to have significant adverse effects on a wide variety of marine and terrestrial organisms, including developmental defects, chronic illnesses, and even death, have been demonstrated by many studies (AL Andarady 2011; Cole et al. 2011; Ma et al. 2016a; Zhang et al. 2020). Exposure to some POPs can result in disruption within the endocrine system, the central nervous system, or the immune system (Cole et al. 2011; Ma et al. 2016a).

1.7 Perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA)

Perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) is a widely known hydrophobic persistent organic pollutant (POPs) known to be highly persistent and abundant in the environment (Cai et al. 2020; Domingo and Nadal 2017a; Gebbink and van Leeuwen 2020a; de la Torre et al. 2020). It has been found in soils, sediment, the atmosphere, both groundwater and drinking water, plants, and animal body fluids (Awad et al. 2021; Bai and Son 2021; Franco et al. 2020; Galloway et al. 2020; Hagenaars et al. 2013a; Lindim, van Gils, and Cousins 2016; Xie et al. 2021). The half-life of PFOA is reported to be ~3 years in human blood, 250 years in ocean water, and even longer in soils (Bartell et al. 2010; Brede et al. 2010; Kennedy et al. 2010; Steenland, Fletcher, and Savitz 2010). PFOA's main known

environmental sources consist of landfill leachate, film-forming foams such as fire retardants, and wastewater releases from industrial companies and municipal wastes. As a result of these depositions, organisms are exposed to PFOA through food, drinking water, air, and dust (Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR) 2018; D'eon and Mabury 2011; Langer, Dreyer, and Ebinghaus 2010; Renner 2007; Schechter et al. 2010). High concentrations of PFOA exposure can result in severe toxicological effects (Shanmuganathan et al. 2011a). PFOA is known to bioaccumulate in different organs and has been shown to act as a carcinogen, a liver toxicant, an immune system modulator, or an endocrine disrupter (K. Betts 2007; K. S. Betts 2007; Hood 2008; Lau et al. 2007; Ryu et al. 2021). PFOA, a widely used PFAS, was officially added to the 2017 and 2019 REACH regulatory restrictions and Annex A of the Stockholm Convention on carcinogens (UNEP, 2019). (Fiedler et al. 2019; Fiedler and Sadia 2021)(UNEP, 2019). While having PFOA excluded from daily use would reduce their adverse effects, PFOA will remain persistent and minimally degradable in the environment and would still be accumulated by organisms for the foreseeable future, affecting their physiological well-being(Darnerud et al. 2001a; Domingo and Nadal 2017b). PFOA is known to be present in high concentrations, up to $\mu\text{g/L}$ levels in air, water, soil, food (Awad et al. 2021; Bai and Son 2021; Franco et al. 2020; Galloway et al. 2020; Hagensaaers et al. 2013a; Lindim et al. 2016; Xie et al. 2021). PFOA has been shown to demonstrate greater uptake and accumulation in aquatic organisms compared to similar terrestrial animals (Geng et al. 2021a; Guo et al. 2019a; Wang et al. 2014). Marine organisms such as bivalves (e.g., shellfish are a major source of human PFOA intake(Du et al. 2021; Shanmuganathan et al. 2011b), with values up to 40 times more than average contaminant accumulation in Baltic marine organisms (including mussels and oysters) (Darnerud et al. 2001b). The highest human blood PFOA concentration was recorded as 147 ng/L (Gebbinck and van

Leeuwen 2020b), while PFOA has been found in human breast milk in North America, Sweden, and China with concentrations of 40.1 ng/g lipid(Zhang et al. 2017), 89 pg/mL, and 976 pg/L(Gebbink and van Leeuwen 2020c). The detected presence in breast milk is particularly concerning for breastfeeding infants. Although no PFOA limits for industrial facilities wastewater discharges have been established, the US EPA plans to create wastewater discharge standards to encourage more effective PFOA removal during wastewater treatment.

1.8 Oxidative stress, Lipid peroxidation

Many aquatic pollutants lead to the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in various animals (Cavaletto et al. 2002; Cheung et al. 2004; Gebbink and van Leeuwen 2020c; Lushchak 2011; Regoli and Giuliani 2014; Verlecar, Jena, and Chainy 2007). Excess ROS results in damage to biomolecules such as lipids and proteins(Halliwell, medicine, and 2015 2015; Jones 2006; Klein et al. 2019; Verlecar et al. 2007). The increased level of oxidative damage can be analyzed through the measurement of either lipid peroxidation or through the formation of protein carbonyls which are widely used indicators for exposure to increase oxidative stress. When lipids are exposed to increased ROS, it results in the formation of malondialdehyde (MDA) which can be measured by the thiobarbituric acid reactive substance (TBARS) assay. Increased TBARS is used as an indicator of increased ROS exposure in the cells of an organism (Aguilar Diaz De Leon and Borges 2020; Devasagayam, Boloor, and Ramasarma 2003; Janero 1990).

1.9 PFOA-induced lipid peroxidation

The most common source of ROS production is the mitochondrion due to its role in aerobic respiration (Liu et al. 2007; Panaretakis et al. 2001). The mechanism of PFOA-induced toxicity is related to acute mitochondrial disruption (Kelly et al. 1998). However, the exact mechanism by which PFOA induces increased LPO remains relatively understudied. PFOA is assumed to trigger

a change in the mitochondrial permeability transition pore (MPT) due to PFOA's structural similarity to long-chain fatty acids (O'Brien and Wallace 2004; Panaretakis et al. 2001), thus leading to mitochondrial membrane damage, followed by excess ROS production and increased LPO (Liu et al. 2007; O'Brien and Wallace 2004), as witnessed by an increase in malondialdehyde production measured by the TBARS assay (Aguilar Diaz De Leon and Borges 2020; Janero 1990).

1.10 Metabolic stress altered (reduced) oxygen consumption

Respiration is an essential function in the physiological well-being of aerobic organisms (Armitage and Lei 1979; J. C. Martins et al. 2007). Differences in routine metabolic oxygen consumption rates are seen between different species and even between individuals or groups of the same species (Armitage and Lei 1979; J. C. Martins et al. 2007). Oxygen consumption measurements are an applicable method of detecting metabolic disruption by various toxicants (Hernando et al. 2005; J. C. Martins et al. 2007). This method offers multiple benefits compared to other toxicity detection methods due to its accurate and quick responses, even at very low detection limits for some chemicals. Respiration rate is altered through intrinsic (including size, age, and sex) and/or extrinsic (including pH, light, temperature, environmental stress levels, food availability, and physical activity rate (Armitage and Lei 1979). The presence of toxicants in the environment affects both the physiological and behavioral functions of organisms in a dose-dependent manner. Respiration-related assays have been used in numerous studies to examine the effects of various aquatic toxicants on organisms (Ahern and Morris 1999; Chinni, Khan, and Yallapragada 2002; Hyne and Maher 2001; Racotta and Hernández-Herrera 2000; Reyes, Dalla-Venezia, and Alvarez 2002; Rodrigues da Silva et al. 2004; Wu and Chen 2004). The Multispecies Freshwater Bio Monitor Test (U.S. Army Center for Environmental Health Research, Fort Detrick, MD, USA) is

an example of the usage of respiration rate to measure the impact of a toxicant(Gerhardt et al. 2002).

1.11 PFOA induced MO₂

PFOA exposure at or above 0.1 mg/L has been previously demonstrated to result in a significant decrease in whole-body metabolic oxygen consumption, suggesting PFO induces metabolic stress. For example, pollutant-induced metabolic stress has been demonstrated by Martins and colleagues (2009) showing that *Daphnia magna* had a significantly lowered MO₂ when exposed to several different toxicants and several concentrations (J.C Martins et al. 2007). A similar increase in metabolite alteration was also seen in PFOA-exposed zebrafish embryos (*Danio rerio*) whereby the metabolic rate dropped to about 70% of the paired control fish (Gebreab et al. 2020). While the exact mechanism by which PFOA induces decreased MO₂ stays relatively understudied, PFOA exposure is hypothesized to alter metabolites through neurotransmitters and/or their precursors including Tyrosine, Tryptophan, Glutamate, Glutamine, choline, and GABA (Souders et al. 2021). Oxygen consumption measurement is an applicable method of detecting the impacts of many toxicants (J. C. Martins et al. 2007). This method offers multiple benefits compared to other detection methods due to its accurate and rapid response even at very low exposure concentrations.

1.12 Trojan Horse effect

Some hydrophobic POPs tend to adsorb to the hydrophobic surface of micro and nanoparticles (AL Andarady 2011; Cole et al. 2011; Ma et al. 2016b). This sorption is considered a potential toxicity mechanism by potentiating the transport of the POPs into the animal (AL Andarady 2011; Cole et al. 2011; Garbovskiy 2017; Ma et al. 2016b; Mattsson et al. 2018; Wang et al. 2019; Zhang and Xu 2020). This potentiation is termed the “Trojan horse effect” (Fig 1.1) whereby uptake of certain POPs has been demonstrated to be enhanced by the presence of micro and nanoparticles.

Nanoparticles are shown to have considerably higher adsorption capacity by delivering POPs to the exposed organisms due to their much smaller size in comparison to MPs and their larger specific surface area (SSA) (Brandts et al. 2018; Ma et al. 2016b; Mattsson et al. 2018; Wang et al. 2019; Zhang and Xu 2020). Furthermore, nano-sized particles can pass through bio-membranes, resulting in a higher uptake rate of POPs (Binelli et al. 2017; Cole et al. 2011; da Costa et al. 2016). Several studies have demonstrated a higher accumulation of PAHs in tissues while co-contaminated with *NPs* (Brandts et al. 2018; Ma et al. 2016b; Zhang and Xu 2020). TiO₂ nanoparticles are known to have an increased dispersion in the presence of higher concentrations of dissolved organic matter (Preočanin and Kallay 2006; Völz et al. 2000). They are shown to be coated with different (organic (Pettibone et al. 2008)) substances, forming different versions of eco-coronas (Khan et al. 2020). A direct relation between nanoparticle size and surface adsorption properties is predicted for TiO₂ nanoparticles. Solution phase adsorption studies using numerous organic acids support this hypothesis (Wang et al. 2005; Wu and Chen 2004; Zhang et al. 1999). The growing rate of various nanomaterial releases results in increased interaction with chemicals in surface waters, the atmosphere, and soils (Astefanei, Núñez, and Galceran 2014; Bäuerlein et al. 2017; Gondikas et al. 2014; Kaegi et al. 2010; Sanchís et al. 2012). This interaction leads to the adsorption of toxicants onto the surface of the nanomaterial which is hypothesized to facilitate the uptake and transportation of pollutants. Co-contamination is predicted to increase the adverse toxicological effects of the pollutant (Hartmann and Baun 2010; Naasz, Altenburger, and Kühnel 2018). The results of co-contamination caused by the Trojan Horse Effect are as yet relatively understudied, especially in marine organisms.

1.13 Pacific Oysters (*Maggallana gigas*)

The use of bivalves including mussels and oysters as a toxicological indicator and model of marine environmental pollution is a growing trend (Bouallegui et al. 2017; DP 2000; Geng et al. 2021b; Luna-Acosta et al. 2010; Vidal-Liñán et al. 2015). The filter-feeding mechanism of bivalves exposes them to most of the elements present in their environment since bivalves constantly filter the surrounding water. This property makes them an ideal test organism for measuring the accumulation of the toxicants and examining their implications on toxicity (Geng et al. 2021b; Jeon et al. 2010a; Lemos et al. 2022; Zhou et al. 2008) Bivalves are known to take up micropollutants from the environment (Garnier et al. 2007; Jeon et al. 2010b), including trace metals (Boyden and Philips 1981), antibiotics (Watkinson et al. 2007) and plastic particles (Ward et al. 2019). Mollusks including mussels and oysters are great test organisms for eco-toxicological studies, specifically for examination of POPs uptake and accumulation experiments (Geng et al. 2021b; Jeon et al. 2010b; de Souza, Windmöller, and Hatje 2011). PFOA has been shown to have the greatest rate of detection in mollusks compared to other marine biomarkers/POPs (Guo et al. 2019b; Lee and Kim 2015; Shanmuganathan et al. 2011c). The Pacific oyster (*Maggallana gigas*) is a marine bivalve mollusk in the family Osteydidae, originally native to the Pacific coast of Asia (Salvi, Macali, and Mariottini 2014), although it has become a widely introduced cosmopolitan species. Pacific oysters have special characteristics including being easy to breed and grow, having high environmental tolerance, and being easily adaptable to different ecosystems, making them one of the most widely commercially farmed oysters (Pacific Oyster Factsheet, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO)). Coastal waters and the nearby estuaries have been known to be primary habitats for filter-feeding sessile animals including Pacific oysters (Boyden and Philips 1981; Salvi et al. 2014). The filter-feeding lifestyle means oysters have constant interaction with various pollutants existing in their inhabited

ecosystems. This has made Pacific oysters a frequently used test organism by the France National Monitoring Network (RNO) to evaluate the presence of pollutants in the aquatic environment. Nevertheless, numerous mortality reports of this ecologically and economically significant species, especially juveniles, have become a well-known concern for the last few decades (DP 2000; Garnier et al. 2007; J.A., J.H., and K.K. 1981; Luna-Acosta et al. 2010). Different estuarine commercial production sites for this species, including Marennes Oleron Bay, meaning they are exposed to numerous toxicants including pesticides, metals, and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) through inputs into rivers that are receiving waste waters from municipal and commercial activities (Miramand, Guyot, and Pigeot 2003; Munaron 2004; Munaron et al. 2006). Environmental stress caused by pollutants is known to be a significant cause of incidence and/or increase in severity of different abnormalities (Lacoste et al. 2001). Bivalve molluscs, including Pacific oysters, have been known to have different types of coping mechanisms to POP exposure including cellular mechanisms such as encapsulation and/or phagocytosis, and humoral mechanisms such as synthesis of nitric oxide, plus heat shock proteins and antimicrobial peptides. Reactive oxygen species (ROS) are demonstrated to be helpful in phagocytosis as these are normal antibacterial cell-killing responses in the immune system. Other immune system factors such as phenol-oxidases (PO) are activated and can also be altered in organisms exposed to organic toxicants (Stabili and Pagliara 2009). The utilization rate of these immune response parameters can serve as biomarkers to help in detecting signals of environmental pollutants. Their use has grown in recent decades (Bernier et al. 1995; Luster et al. 1989) and is now included in the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration's National Status and Trends Program (Cajaraville et al. 2000). Thus, oysters are excellent model organisms for determining the potential risk of the co-contaminant uptake of POPS in the presence of NPs in the environment.

1.14 Water flea (*Daphnia magna*)

Daphnia magna of the genus *Daphnia* is a water flea. *Daphnia* is found in ecosystems rich in organic matter and making it a key organism in northern hemisphere lentic habitats. This animal is acknowledged as a sensitive organism to a wide range of aquatic toxicants (Dodson and Hanazato 1995; J. C. Martins et al. 2007; J. Martins et al. 2007), including organic pollutants and nanoparticles (Lin et al. 2020). The use of this animal resulted in the modification of numerous water-quality tests including the Dynamic Daphnia Test by Michels et al. (Michels et al. 2000) and Martins et al. (J. Martins et al. 2007) phototactic analysis of Daphnia behavior. Daphnia has an ecologically important role in various aquatic environments (J. C. Martins et al. 2007; J. Martins et al. 2007) including their ease of breeding and maintenance in the laboratory, and high fertility making them a beneficial test organism in the field of toxicology (Enserink, Maas-Diepeveen, and Van Leeuwen 1991; J. C. Martins et al. 2007). Daphnia are relatively transparent animals, thereby allowing observation of their inner structures using a microscope. Daphnia asexual reproduction (Parthenogenesis) allows them to generate identical colonies in all aspects including sex and size (Bronmark and Hansson 2012; J. C. Martins et al. 2007; J. Martins et al. 2007; Michels et al. 2000). The production of clones enables us to examine replicate responses on different individuals' morphological or physiological differences. OECD guidelines for the testing of chemicals utilize *Daphnia* as a specified test organism (OECD Guidelines for Testing of Chemicals 2004a), in various 48-hour acute toxicity experiments (OECD Guidelines for Testing of Chemicals 2004b). *D. magna* filters the suspended particles present in its environment through an evolved filtering apparatus. A water current is generated within the carapace's thoracic opening facilitating foraging and digestion of different nutrients (Fryer 1991). *D. magna* is one of the dominant filter feeders due to its mobile feature and specialized filtering system, making them a suitable test

organism for uptake experiments (Lin et al. 2020). The Martins et al (2007) data demonstrated the effects of various environmental toxicants on daphnia metabolic oxygen consumption. This data showed a decreased rate in Daphnia oxygen consumption (J.C Martins et al. 2007).

1.15 Radiotracer based techniques

An element isotope is only different from the same atom in its mass number. As an example, ^{14}C is formed by the absorption of neutrons by the atomic nucleus of ^{13}C , in which the element of concern would have a greater mass number by one unit (Schlyer et al. 1990). A radioactive tracer substance is a chemical compound in which one (or more) atom(s) is replaced with a radioactive isotope of the same chemical element; the process is also known as radioactive labeling (Pathak and Sen 2017). Low concentrations of radioactive isotopes can be present and sensitive radiation detectors such as Geiger or Scintillation counters can detect the presence of the low concentrations of them due to their highly energetic radioactive decay. The 1943 Nobel Prize in Chemistry was awarded to George de Havensy for his research on the “Use of isotopes as tracers in the study of chemical processes” (The Nobel Prize 1943). The use of radioisotope tracers is a common technique in biological research (Rennie 1999a; Zhang et al. 2020). Its purpose and mechanism of use can differ depending on the study details and methods (Rennie 1999b; Zhang et al. 2020). A radiotracer compound that enters an organism through channels such as digestion or respiration and its distribution can be easily tracked to specific cells or tissues by simply measuring radioactive decay (Magkos and Sidossis 2004; Zhang et al. 2020). Radioactive compounds are frequently used in metabolism research including lipoprotein metabolism research in human and experimental animals (Collins et al. 1992). ^{14}C -labelled urea is commonly used for breath tests for *helicobacter pylori* to investigate h. pylori infection (Rennie 1999a).

1.16 Thiobarbituric Acid Reactive Substances (TBARS)

The TBARS assay has been broadly used for the detection and measurement of lipid peroxidation. This method is an acceptable metric of the oxidative stress levels in different organisms (Antus et al. 2015; Kaur, Politis, and Jacobs 2016; Khoubnasabjafari, Ansarin, and Jouyban 2015; Khoubnasabjafari, Soleymani, and Jouyban 2018; Kilic et al. 2014; Morales and Munné-Bosch 2019; Wade and van Rij 1989). Lipid peroxidation results in the production of multiple compounds including lipid peroxy radicals, hydroperoxides, and malondialdehyde (MDA) (Tsikas 2017). MDA goes through a reaction in the presence of thiobarbituric acid (TBA) to form the MDA-TBA compound (Ohkawa, Ohishi, and Yagi 1978). The mixture then results in a reddish-pink color change which when measured at 532 nm, is an indicator of LPO/oxidative stress (Devasagayam et al. 2003; Kaur et al. 2016; Kilic et al. 2014).

1.17 Dynamic light scattering (DLS)

Understanding the properties of nanomaterials in solution helps determine much of their impact and one of the most common means to examine these properties is the use of dynamic light scattering (L. M. Hernandez, Yousefi, and Tufenkji 2017; Zhang, Wang, and Chen 2022). Measurement of light-scattering is typically conducted by sample exposure to a monochromatic light wave, detection of the signal using a suitable detector, and mathematical interpretation of sample size, polydispersity, and zeta potential (net charge in solution) (Berne and Pecora 1976; Stetefeld, McKenna, and Patel 2016). DLS is a common method for the determination of the size and aggregation of *NPs* based on the peptides, nucleic acids, and viruses' hydrodynamic behavior (Bloomfield 1981; Fujime 1972; Harding and Jumel 1998; Harvey 1973; Jamieson et al. 1972; Lorber et al. 2012; Nieuwenhuysen and Clauwaert 1981; Nobbmann et al. 2007; Rimai et al. 1970; Schurr 1977; Serdyuk et al. 2007; Van Holde 1970; Zakharov and Scheffold 2009). DLS holds various advantages over other techniques due to its workability with a variety of sample buffers,

temperatures, and concentrations and its relative ease of use (Stetefeld et al. 2016). DLS is not an invasive procedure and only needs low sample concentrations and small volumes but produces a reliable, consistent estimation of the physical-chemical qualities of various particles in solution (Stetefeld et al. 2016).

1.18 Hypotheses and Aims

In this study, we aimed to develop a method to track the accumulation of PFOA and this was accomplished using radiolabelled ^{14}C -PFOA as a model hydrophobic organic pollutant. Our first aim was to determine if the presence of different nanoparticles in the environment results in an altered accumulation rate of PFOA. My study aimed to: 1. Design a modified assay to measure PFOA uptake in various aquatic organisms using ^{14}C -labelled PFOA; and 2. Examine the effects of PFOA co-contamination with and without TiO_2 nanoparticles of varying sizes and concentrations on the rate of PFOS accumulation and resultant toxicological responses to PFOA exposure in relevant marine and freshwater aquatic test organisms.

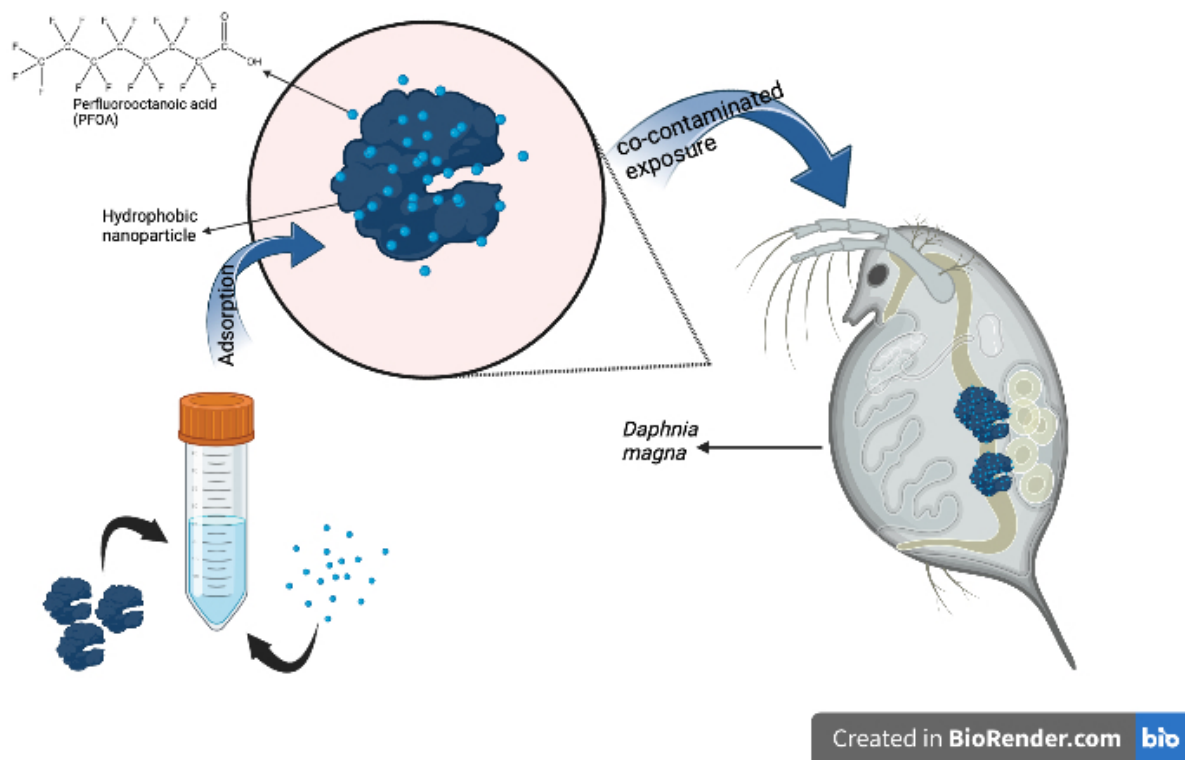


Figure 1-1

Demonstration of PFOA adsorption on different nanoparticles and exacerbated uptake of the co-contaminated compound in exposed organism.

2 Chapter 2: Modulation of the uptake of PFOA by polystyrene nanoparticles in Pacific Oyster (*Magallana gigas*)

2.1 Introduction

Plastics have been produced in large quantities since the 1940s and its production has expanded widely since the 1970s (Brandts et al. 2018; Mattsson et al. 2018) with plastic production estimated to be more than 320 million tonnes in 2015 annually (Brandts et al. 2018). Approximately 50% of these plastics are made for a one-time use only. Furthermore, ~10% of the annual plastic production is estimated to reach the marine environment (Chidambarampadmavathy et al. 2017; Mattsson et al. 2018; Wang et al. 2019). Plastics are estimated to form 60% of marine litter globally, turning them to one of the most dominant pollutants in the marine environment (Chen et al. 2017; Mattsson et al. 2018; Zhang et al. 2020).

These plastics break down gradually due to both UV light exposure and mechanical degradation to produce microplastics (MPs; less than 5 mm, defined by The National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration) (Chae and An 2017; Zhang et al. 2020). MPs can go under further degradation caused by microbiological activity, mechanical force, and UV radiation to generate even a lower sized group of plastics which have a higher surface area per gram of plastic (da Costa et al. 2016; Manfra et al. 2017; Mattsson et al. 2018). These nanoplastics (NPs) are defined as plastic particles smaller than 100 nm in at least one aspect (da Costa et al. 2016; Mattsson et al. 2018; Zhang et al. 2020). The dominant route of exposure to MPs and NPs in marine organisms is by ingestion (Cole et al. 2011; Pikuda et al. 2019). Microplastics can exert their toxicological effects by physical blockage of the intestinal tract (Jovanović 2017). while some other noted adverse biological effects of MPs include reduced growth, reproduction, metabolism, and feeding rate (Besseling et al. 2014; Mattsson et al. 2015; Zhang et al. 2020).

Hydrophobic persistent organic pollutants (POPs), including polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), are also a significant issue in the environment (Mattsson et al. 2018; Wang et al. 2019). POPs have been extensively studied and have been demonstrated to have significant adverse effects on a wide variety of marine and terrestrial organisms including developmental defects, chronic illnesses, and even death (Andrady 2011; Cole et al. 2011; Ma et al. 2016b; Zhang et al. 2020). Exposure to some POPs can result in disruption within the endocrine system (K. S. Betts 2007), the central nervous system (K. Betts 2007) or the immune system (Cole et al. 2011; Ma et al. 2016b).

Some hydrophobic POPs adhere to the surface of NPs (8, 15, 16) and sorption of these organic pollutants on the surface of plastics is considered as a potential toxicity mechanism by exacerbating transport of the POPs into the animal (Andrady 2011; Cole et al. 2011; Ma et al. 2016b; Mattsson et al. 2018; Wang et al. 2019). This has been variously termed the “Trojan horse effect” (AL Andarady 2011; Cole et al. 2011; Ma et al. 2016b), whereby uptake of certain POPs has been demonstrated to be enhanced by the presence of MPs and NPs (AL Andarady 2011; Cole et al. 2011; Garbovskiy 2017; Ma et al. 2016b; Mattsson et al. 2018; Wang et al. 2019; Zhang and Xu 2020). NPs are hypothesized to have considerably higher capacity to adsorb and deliver POPs to the exposed organisms due to their much smaller size in comparison to MPs and their larger specific surface area (SSA) (Brandts et al. 2018; Ma et al. 2016b; Mattsson et al. 2018; Wang et al. 2019). Furthermore, nano-sized particles have the ability to pass through bio-membranes and this could result in a higher uptake rate of POPs (Binelli et al. 2017; Cole et al. 2011; da Costa et al. 2016; Zarfl and Matthies 2010; Zhang et al. 2020). Several studies have demonstrated a higher uptake rate of PAHs into tissues while exposed to POPs in the presence of NPs (Lin et al. 2020; Ma et al. 2016b; Zhang et al. 2020).

Bivalves are filter feeding animals which exposes them to the elements present in their environment. They are ideal animals for measuring the uptake of the pollutants and examining their effects due to their constant filtration of the water (Bayne et al. 1976; Geng et al. 2021b; Jeon et al. 2010a; Lemos et al. 2022; Zhou et al. 2008) and thus are considered model organisms for determining the potential risk of the co-contaminant uptake of POPS in the presence of NPs in the environment (Brandts et al. 2018; Vidal-Liñán et al. 2015). Pacific Oyster (*Magallana gigas*) is a marine bivalve mollusk in the family Ostreidae, originally native to the Pacific coast of Asia but now a widely introduced cosmopolitan species (Salvi et al. 2014).

In this study, we developed a method to track the uptake of PFOA using radiolabelled ^{14}C -PFOA as a model hydrophobic POP contaminant. Our goal was to determine if the presence of NPs results in altered uptake of PFOA due to its adsorption to NPs. The aims of our study were to: 1. develop an optimized assay to measure PFOA uptake in Pacific oysters using ^{14}C -PFOA; and 2. investigate the effects of NP size and concentration on the uptake rate and toxicological response to PFOA exposure.

2.2 Material and Methods

2.2.1 Animal collection and maintenance

Juvenile Pacific oysters (*Magallana Gigas* < ~2 mm in size) were provided from NOVA Harvest Ltd, Bamfield BC and were housed in Bamfield Marine Science Centre standard wet tables with flow through seawater from their natural habitat (pH 8, temperature 12 °C). Oysters were fed every 2 days with a mixture of local algae given an acclimation time of at least 48 hours to minimize stress from transportation. We selected oysters as our model organism due to that fact they are filter feeders with high fluid filtering rates (Bayne et al. 1976; Geng et al. 2021b; Jeon et al. 2010a; Lemos et al. 2022; Zhou et al. 2008) (ref), they live in the near shore environment where micro

and nanoplastics are being formed from mechanical and solar degradation, and they occur at the shore nearest where most organic pollutants are discharged (Brandts et al. 2018; Vidal-Liñán et al. 2015).

2.2.2 Chemicals

Two sizes of carboxylated polystyrene nano plastics (PSNP) (500 nm and 20 nm) were purchased for this study (ThermoFisher). The stock solution of ^{14}C -PFOA (55 mCi/mmol) was purchased from American Radiolabelled Chemicals Inc. and prepared to a final working concentration of 0.1mCi/mL which corresponds to 0.784 g/L of PFOA. All other chemicals used in the study were purchased from Sigma chemical.

2.2.3 Experimental Protocol

2.2.3.1 Development of a method to measure uptake rate of PFOA:

To determine the optimal uptake time and concentration to measure PFOA uptake in the oysters, 3 different concentrations (25, 50 and 100 $\mu\text{g/L}$) of PFOA and 4 different time intervals of 1, 2, 4 and 6 h exposure periods were tested. Three beakers were filled with 25 mL filtered seawater and brought to 25, 50 and 100 $\mu\text{g/L}$ concentrations of PFOA by addition from the ^{14}C -PFOA stock (above). Two 1 mL samples were removed from each beaker for measurement of initial ^{14}C -PFOA specific activity. For each exposure, 60 oysters (< 10 mg) were randomly selected and placed into an 18 mL glass scintillation vials, each containing 2mL of filtered sea water. Oysters were then given 0.5 h acclimation which re-established the oysters' normal behaviour of filtration (18). After the acclimation period, the water around the oysters was replaced with 2 mLs of either the 25, 50 or 100 $\mu\text{g/L}$ ^{14}C PFOA diluted solutions and the animals were exposed for one of 4 different time periods (1, 2, 4, 6 h) in 12 °C incubator. At the prescribed time, a single water sample (0.5 mL) was taken to determine final ^{14}C -PFOA specific activity. To measure ^{14}C -PFOA

activity in water samples, Optifase scintillation cocktail (Perkinelmer) was added at a ratio of 5 parts Optiphase:1part ¹⁴C- containing water) to water samples, incubated for at least 2 h in the dark to remove chemiluminescence before measuring counts per minute (CPM) in a B-counter (Beckman-Wallace LS-6500).

At the end of each flux period, oysters were removed and washed twice with non-radioactive PFOA (2 mg/L) and then once with filtered sea water to remove any surface bound ¹⁴C-PFOA. Extra fluid around the oysters was wicked away using a Kimwipe, they were then weighed and placed in 1 mL of HNO₃ (2 N) at 65 °C for 24 h. After digestion, samples were briefly vortexed, and 0.25 mL of the digest added to 1.5 mL Ultima Gold scintillation cocktail (Perkinelmer). Samples were incubated for 2 h before measuring CPM in the beta-counter as above. All measurements were corrected for background CPM using a blank sample.

Unidirectional influx of PFOS was calculated by the following equation:

$$\text{Equation 1: } J_{\text{in}} = ((\text{CPM}_{\text{tissue}})/\text{Weight}/\text{Time}) \times (\text{nmol PFOA}/\text{CPM } ^{14}\text{C-PFOA})$$

2.2.3.2 Characterization of PS-NPs and effects of co-contaminant exposure on particle behaviour

2.2.3.2.1 Transmission electron microscopy

PS-NPs were diluted in ddH₂O at 2g/L and placed on a polymer-coated copper grid (TED PELLA, INC, Lot # 151122) air-dried and counterstained with 4% uranyl acetate to allow imaging. They were placed in a transmission electron microscope (Phillips Morgagni 268) and imaged at 10,000x and 180,000 x using DigitalMicrograph™ 1.81.78 for GMS 1.8.0 software.

2.2.3.2.2 Dynamic light scattering

To validate the size of the PS-NPs and if there is an effect of co-contaminant exposure, 5 mL solutions of 1000 µg/L of PS-NP in the presence and absence of co-contamination with 100 µg/L PFOA was prepared and analyzed using Dynamic Light Scattering (Malvern Nano Series Zetasizer). Six 1 mL aliquots replicate of each solution were then tested in the DLS for average particle size, zeta potential and polydispersity index.

2.2.3.3 Sorption of PFOA onto the surface of NPs

Stock Polystyrene nanoparticles (PS-NP) solutions were first dialyzed overnight in distilled water using dialysis membrane (3kDa MWCO) with at least 8 water changes to remove sodium azide preservative. The day of the experiment, 25 mL of filtered seawater was diluted to 100 µg/L ¹⁴C-PFOA into each of six glass beakers. PS-NPs (either 500 nm or 20 nm size) were then added to three beakers to reach final concentrations of 100, 500 and 1000 µg/L. The mixtures were then incubated at 12 °C for 30 minutes to allow sorption equilibration between the PFOA and the PS-NP.

2.2.3.4 Measurement of uptake rate of PFOA from seawater co-contaminated with PS-NPs

To examine the effect of each of the 3 concentrations of PS-NP on the uptake rate of PFOA, 60 oysters (< 10 mg each) were randomly selected and placed into an 18 mL glass scintillation vials, each containing 2mL of filtered sea water. They were then exposed to a co-contaminant mixture of ¹⁴C PFOA-spiked PS-NPs for either 4 or 6 h. The uptake rate of oysters was calculated as per Section a and equation 1 above.

2.2.3.5 48 h exposure to PFOA and effects of co-contaminating PS-NPs on oxidative stress

To determine if PFOA alone resulted in oxidative stress, 5 different concentrations of PFOA alone (0, 0.5, 1, 2, and 4 mg/L) were prepared in filtered sea water. To measure the effect of co-contamination with PS-NPs, three different concentrations of either 20 nm or 500 nm PS-NPs (1, 10, and 100 mg/L) were co-contaminated with 1 mg/L PFOA. In addition, to determine if PS-NPs alone caused increased oxidative stress, two PS-NP-only control groups of 10 mg/L/20 nm PS-NP or 10 mg/L 500 nm PS-NP were also tested. For each exposure, 300 oysters (< 10 mg each) were randomly selected and placed into 250 mL glass beaker filled with 200 mL filtered seawater. Oysters were then given 0.5 h acclimation which re-established the oyster's normal behaviour of filtration. After the acclimation period, the water around the oysters was replaced with 200 mLs of the experimental groups (above) and the animals exposed for 48h in 12 °C incubator, with aeration inside each beaker. At the end of each flux period, oysters were removed and washed twice with filtered sea water, extra fluid around the oysters was wicked away using a Kimwipe. Oysters were then weighed, placed in 2 mL microfuge tubes, frozen using Liquid Nitrogen, and put in -80 freezer.

2.2.3.6 TBARS assay

The standard test for increased oxidative stress used the measurement of Thio-barbituric acid-reactive substances (TBARS) where malondialdehyde is generated by increased lipid peroxidization (LPO). TBARS were performed as per Janero DR, 1990 (Ref.) with some modifications. To make sure final absorbance was lower than the limits of the fluorometer, 125 µl of potassium phosphate buffer (0.1 M, pH 7.5) was added to 200 mg of whole oysters. The oysters were then homogenised 4x, 30 second each time, using a bead beater homogenizer (name, manufacturer). The homogenates were briefly centrifuged at low speed (1000 g for 120 seconds) and the supernatant used for the assay. Aliquots (70 µl) of either samples or accompanying

standards were transferred to 1.5 mL tubes kept on ice (~0 °C) and 17 µl of freshly made 1mM Butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT), 230µl PBS and 83 µl of 50% Trichloroacetic acid (TCA) was added in order and the mixture cooled for 15 minutes on ice. The mixture was centrifuged at 13000 g for 2 minutes. After that 370 µl of the supernatant was added to screw cap centrifuge tubes and 240 µl of freshly made Thiobarbituitic acid (TBA) was added. The final mixture was heated for at least 60 minutes in a heated (> 90 °C) water bath. Triplicate 150 ul aliquots of the supernatant were plated into 96 well plates and fluorescence (Victor V, Molecular Dynamics) was measured 4x at 532 nm excitation and 545 nm emission. TBARS level was expressed as nmol TEP equivalents/ mg protein using a molar extinction coefficient of $1.56 \times 10^5 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$.

2.2.4 Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was done using Prism 9 for macOS (version 9.5.1). All data were checked for normality using Shapiro Wilk/Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for normality (all data were normal). Afterwards, Data were analyzed for different factors using a T-test, one-way ANOVA, or two-way ANOVA based on the data set number and variability (specified in figure captions), followed by Turkey's multiple comparison post-hoc test for all data.

2.3 Results

2.3.1 Particle characterization

We verified the nanoplastic size using TEM and representative images are shown in Fig 2.1. The 500 nm and 20 PS-NPs approximated the size as reported by the manufacturer with consistent sizes and relatively little variation in size. Solution specific characterization was conducted by dynamic light scattering (Fig 2.2) where the hydrated size of the nominal 500 nm particles was 706.1 nm +/- 17.2 and the nominal 20 nm particles had an average hydrated size of 56.5 nm +/- 2.0. The polydispersity index (PDI) for the 500 and 20 nm particles in solution was found to be

similar (0.253 ± 0.03 and 0.213 ± 0.01), respectively while the zeta potential was also similar (-25.3 ± 1.04 mV and -23.9 ± 0.52 mV) for the 500 and 20 nm particles without PFOA present. Addition 100 $\mu\text{g/L}$ PFOA resulted in increases in the average hydrated diameter of the 500 nm particles to 721 ± 20.1 nm and 79.7 ± 4.9 nm for the 20 nm particles. The presence of PFOA resulted in an increased PDI to 0.386 ± 0.04 and 0.334 ± 0.02 for the 500 and 20 nm, respectively. This was also associated with a reduced zeta potential in both the 500 (-34.4 ± 2.02 mV) and 20 nm (-33.1 ± 0.03 mV) particles (Fig 2.2).

2.3.2 Uptake rate of PFOA - effect of time and PFOA concentration:

PFOA uptake (in the absence of PS-NPs) consistently occurred at all time points with uptake increasing with both increasing [PFOA] and time of exposure demonstrating an ability to accurately measure PFOA uptake rate. At each of 1, 2, 4 and 6 h of exposure (Fig 2.3A-D), there was a significantly greater uptake of PFOA at both 50 and 100 $\mu\text{g/L}$ compared to 25 $\mu\text{g/L}$. However, the 100 $\mu\text{g/L}$ PFOA uptake was only significantly greater than the 50 $\mu\text{g/L}$ exposure at the 2, 4, and 6 h time periods. At 6 h, the uptake of PFOA in 100 $\mu\text{g/L}$ exposed oysters was 37% higher than the 50 $\mu\text{g/L}$ PFOA and 177% higher than the 25 $\mu\text{g/L}$ PFOA exposed oysters. This suggests that the 100 $\mu\text{g/L}$ was the optimal concentration to examine uptake, and this is the concentration used in subsequent experiments. To determine the optimal time of exposure, PFOA accumulation was compared at the 100 $\mu\text{g/L}$ concentration and the results are shown in Fig 4. Direct comparison of PFOA uptake at each time in 100 $\mu\text{g/L}$ exposed oysters demonstrated significantly greater uptake at 6 h (85.4 ± 3.9 pmol/mg/h) when compared to 1 h (50.3 ± 2.5 pmol/mg/h), 2 h (65.9 ± 2.6 pmol/mg/h) and 4 (73.2 ± 7.2 pmol/mg/h) h of exposure (Fig 2.4).

2.3.3 PFOA uptake rate in presence of 20 nm and 500 nm PS-NP:

PFOA uptake with co-contamination of PS-NP demonstrated consistently higher uptake with increasing [PS-NP] and lower particle size. At both 4 and 6 h of exposure (Fig 2.5A-B), there was a significant increase in PFOA accumulation in the presence of both 500 and 1000 $\mu\text{g/L}$ 500 nm PS-NP compared to 0 and 100 $\mu\text{g/L}$ PS-NP. However, in the presence of 20 nm PS-NP, PFOA accumulated at a greater rate with significant increases noted at each PS-NP concentration (1000, 500, 100 and 0 $\mu\text{g/L}$), at both 4 and 6 h time intervals, when compared with each other. Furthermore, PFOA uptake was meaningfully higher when exposed to 20 nm PS-NP in comparison to when exposed to 500 nm at all time intervals and PS-NP concentrations tested. At 4 h, the uptake of PFOA in presence of 1000 $\mu\text{g/L}$ 500 nm PS-NP exposed oysters was 2.3X higher than the uptake of 100 $\mu\text{g/L}$ PFOA in the presence of 0 $\mu\text{g/L}$ 500 nm PS-NP and 2X higher than the PFOA and 100 $\mu\text{g/L}$ PS-NP co-contaminated exposed oysters. Direct evaluation of PFOA uptake at 6 h in the presence of different concentrations of 20 nm PS-NPs showed significantly higher accumulation at 1000 $\mu\text{g/L}$ (307.6 \pm 9.3 pmol/mg/h) when compared to 500 (246.9 \pm 17.9 pmol/mg/h), 100 (162.7 \pm 9.2 pmol/mg/h) and 0 (96.3 \pm 5.0 pmol/mg/h) $\mu\text{g/L}$ 20 nm PS-NP (Fig 2.5 A-B). This shows that PS-NP can modulate PFOA uptake, and this increases with the higher nanoparticles' concentration and a lower nano plastics size.

2.3.4 Effect of PFOA on lipid peroxidation

Lipid peroxidation (LPO) as measured by the TBARS assay, was consistently triggered at all PFOA concentrations with an increasing rate as [PFOA] increased. At 48h of exposure (Fig 2.6), there was a significantly greater TBARS concentration at 1, 2 and 4 mg/L PFOA compared to 0 mg/L PFOA exposed oysters. The TBARS concentration in 4 mg/L PFOA exposed oysters was significantly higher while being 52%, 107%, 230% and 279% higher than the 2, 1, 0.5 and 0 mg/L

PFOA exposed oysters, respectively. This data demonstrates that sub chronic exposure to higher [PFOA] results in greater LPO.

2.3.5 Effect of 20 nm and 500 nm PS-NP on PFOA-induced LPO:

Lipid peroxidation consistently increased as an indicator of oxidative stress with both incremental [PS-NP] and smaller particle size when co-contaminated with 1 mg/L PFOA. At 48h of exposure (Fig 2.7), there was a significantly greater TBARS concentration at 100 mg/L PS-NP compared to oysters co-contaminated with 1 mg/L PFOA, but at lower concentrations of PS-NP. TBARS in 1 mg/L PFOA oysters co-exposed with either 100 mg/L 500 nm or 20 nm PS-NP was 2.5X and 3X higher than 1 mg/L PFOA exposed oysters, respectively. Co-contamination with 100 mg/L 20 nm PS-NP significantly exacerbated lipid peroxidation ([TBARS] = 449.17 +- 7.73 nmol/mg protein⁻¹) compared to 100 mg/L 500 nm PS-NP ([TBARS] = 365.58 +- 8.45 nmol/mg protein⁻¹). This data demonstrates that sub chronic exposure to PFOA co-contaminated with higher [PS-NP] results in intensified oxidative stress (higher [TBARS]).

2.4 Discussion

2.4.1 PFOA uptake by Pacific oysters and effects on lipid peroxidation

As PFOA concentration in the water increased, there was a general increase in the rate of accumulation of PFOA. This is the expected result, and it is reasonable that a higher concentration would result in a higher accumulation rate due to a higher bioavailability (Zhang et al. 2020). It was also shown that the optimal time for our radiotracer assay was between 4 and 6 hours with shorter periods showing lower rates and greater variability. The likely reason for the increased rate at 4 and 6 h is due to both the high ventilation rate for oysters (Geng et al. 2021b; Zhang et al. 2020) and the fact we are operating in a fixed volume static system, which then allows for resampling of the water and increases in the apparent rate of uptake of the organic pollutant. Due

to the small size of these oysters (< 20 mg), we are unable to distinguish the specific organs that take up the PFOA and their effects on specific biochemical pathways. However, PFOA exposure at or above 1 mg/L did cause a significant increase in whole body TBARS suggesting an increase in oxidative stress as result of PFOA exposure. PFOA induced oxidative stress been previously demonstrated by Amraoui and colleagues (2018) showed that the gill of freshwater mussels (*Unio ravoisieri*) had significantly increased LPO and CAT when exposed to PFOA concentrations above 2 mg/L PFOS (Amraoui, Khalloufi, and Touaylia 2018). A similar increased in LPO was found in 10 mg/L PFOA exposed adult male Murray River rainbow fish (*Melanotaenia fluviatilis*) whereby TBARS concentration was 2 and 4 times higher in gill and liver, respectively, compared to 0 mg/L PFOA exposed fish (Miranda et al. 2020). The mechanism by which PFOA is thought to induce LPO is not completely defined but it is thought to stimulate reactive oxygen species (ROS) production, such as superoxide and hydrogen peroxide, ultimately leading to increased markers of oxidative damage such as LPO (Liu et al. 2007; Panaretakis et al. 2001).

The most common source of ROS production is the mitochondrion due to its role in aerobic respiration (Kelly et al. 1998). The mechanism of PFOA-induced toxicity has been suggested to be associated with mitochondrial disruption (Kelly et al. 1998). However, the exact mechanism by which PFOA induces increased LPO remains relatively understudied. PFOA is thought to act by triggering a change in the mitochondrial permeability transition (MPT) because of its long-chain fatty acid similar structure (O'Brien and Wallace 2004; Panaretakis et al. 2001), thus leading to membrane damage followed by LPO (Liu et al. 2007; O'Brien and Wallace 2004) as witnessed by a significant) increase in malondialdehyde production measured by the TBARS assay (Aguilar Diaz De Leon and Borges 2020; Janero 1990).

2.4.2 Association between PFOA and polystyrene nanoplastics

One of the primary methods for toxicity in aquatic invertebrates is through occlusion/blockage of the intestinal tract (Jovanović 2017) although numerous reports exist of translocation of nanoplastics across integumental barriers with unknown direct effects on cellular physiology (Besseling et al. 2014; Mattsson et al. 2015; Zhang et al. 2020). This has also raised concerns regarding direct toxicity of some of the plastic which constituent themselves such as metals, hardeners, and polymerization agents (Gurman et al. 1987). Recently, numerous studies have also highlighted the potential for association between hydrophobic organic contaminants and the hydrophobic surfaces of plastics, thereby creating a vector for enhanced organic exposure/uptake (Lin et al. 2020; Ma et al. 2016b; Wang et al. 2019; Zhang et al. 2020). Normally, PS-NPs will remain as relatively mono-dispersed particles in water and have low rates of aggregation. This was confirmed by both the relatively similar sizes between the nominal (500 and 20 nm particles) and their respective hydrodynamic radius (721 and 56 nm) and the similar PDI (0.25 and 0.21) in the absence of PFOA. Given that PFOA has a terminal carboxylic acid functional group, it was predicted that adsorption of PFOA onto hydrophobic polystyrene nanoparticles would result in an outward facing negative surface charge, a subsequent decrease in zeta potential and an increase in dispersion as measured by PDI. The surface coating of the particle with PFOA explains the nominal increase in the average hydrodynamic size as seen for both sized particles. As predicted, the addition of a PFOA coating resulted in greater charge:charge repulsion between particle and this explains both the decrease in aggregation as reflected in increase in the polydispersity index and the decrease in zeta potential resulting from increased surface negative charges as a result of PFOA binding to the surface (Pettibone et al. 2008).

2.4.3 Effects of PS-NP co-contamination on uptake rates of PFOA and TBARS expression

Our study demonstrates that sorption of the PFOA onto the surface of PS-NP alters both the particle behaviour in solution and confirms previous research showing potentiation of organic toxicant uptake into the animal by the presence of nanoplastics (Ma et al. 2016b; Zhang et al. 2020). In general, the smaller the NP size, the potential for greater organic toxicant binding capacity due to their increased surface area/mg NP (Ma et al. 2016b; Pettibone et al. 2008; Wang et al. 2019; Zhang et al. 2020). However, other factors likely also determine the binding of each particular organic with each different type of plastics. There are many types of plastics (e.g., polystyrene, polypropylene, polyethylene etc), each with specific formulations of hardeners, metals, colourants, plasticizers etc, complicating our ability to predict association with various organics. It is thought that plastics with more hydrophobic surfaces will interact strongly with organics with high K_{ow} . A recent study by Lin et al., (2020) demonstrated that a combination of humic acid (HA) and PS nanoparticles facilitated transfer to the lipids of daphnia exposed to 6 different PAHs with differing hydrophobicity (Lin et al. 2020). Those PAHs with lower hydrophobicity (lower Log K_{ow}) had higher accumulation in the presence of either HA or HA plus PS plastics. Since PFOA is negatively charged, it is likely that the surface negative charge afforded by either HA or PFOA association to the PS facilitates transfer of the organics into the animal (Lin et al. 2020). Our results clearly support and extend these findings that NPs can potentiate the uptake of organic contaminants into animals.

Unfortunately, we did not differentiate if the plastics remain associated with the PFOA once they enter into the animal's digestive tract or pass by the gill/mantle epithelia, or if the PFOA dissociates from the plastics once inside the animal. It is known that small nanoplastics (< 500nm) are able to cross the intestinal membrane in some studies (Besseling et al. 2014; Mattsson et al. 2015; Zhang

et al. 2020), but this study did not examine if co-contaminant exposure alters the rate of nanoplastic translocation, this remains to be investigated.

2.5 Conclusion

We have developed a radiotracer-based method to measure unidirectional PFOA uptake in oysters at very low and environmentally realistic concentrations (Geng et al. 2021b). This study clearly demonstrates that Pacific oysters rapidly take up PFOA from the water in a time and concentration dependent manner. Furthermore, the presence of nanoplastics significantly potentiates this uptake, with the smaller 20 nm sized PS-NPs resulting in even greater potentiation of uptake when compared to 500 nm sized PS-NPs. PFOA is known to increase lipid peroxidation as evidenced by increased malondialdehyde production, which can be detected by the TBARS assay. As shown by the TBARS assay, exposure to the co-contaminant mixture also potentiated the TBARS response suggesting increased toxicological impact. We consider NPs to be better vectors for the organic transport and uptake due their much smaller size and their larger specific surface area (SSA), and their increased mobility in solution when compared to MPs. Many other nanoparticles are also present in the environment and have been demonstrated to have their own toxicological impacts (Gao et al. 2004; Kaegi et al. 2010; Khan et al. 2020; Liu et al. 2004; Naasz et al. 2018; Zhang et al. 1999) (refs). Some nanoparticles, such as TiO₂ which is heavily used in a broad variety of industrial applications such as paint, sunscreen, and food colourings (Akakuru et al. 2020; Pettibone et al. 2008), may also act as a vector for the organic pollutants due to the relatively hydrophobic surface (Khan et al. 2020; Pettibone et al. 2008). Future directions should investigate the potential for the sorption of PFOA and other POPs onto hydrophobic nanoparticles (e.g., TiO₂, CeO) and whether the formation of co-associated materials leads to a higher accumulation and toxicity of the POP. This study evaluated the possibility of PFOA sorption to the surface of PS-

NPs and demonstrates that PFOA uptake and transport are assisted in presence of PS-NPs. The potential complexity and impacts of co-contamination in organic pollutant toxicity is a major concern and requires further investigation to integrate into models of both hazard and risk assessment.

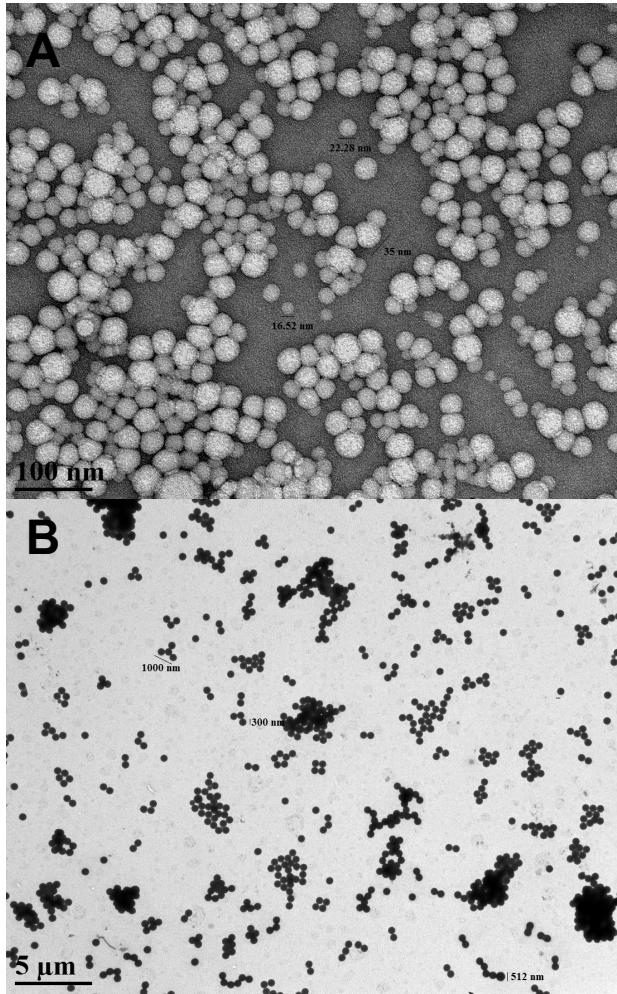


Figure 2-1

Transmission Electronic Microscope (TEM) pictures of 2 g/L (A) 20 nm, and (B) 500 nm PS-NPs using 18000X, and 10000X magnification, respectively.

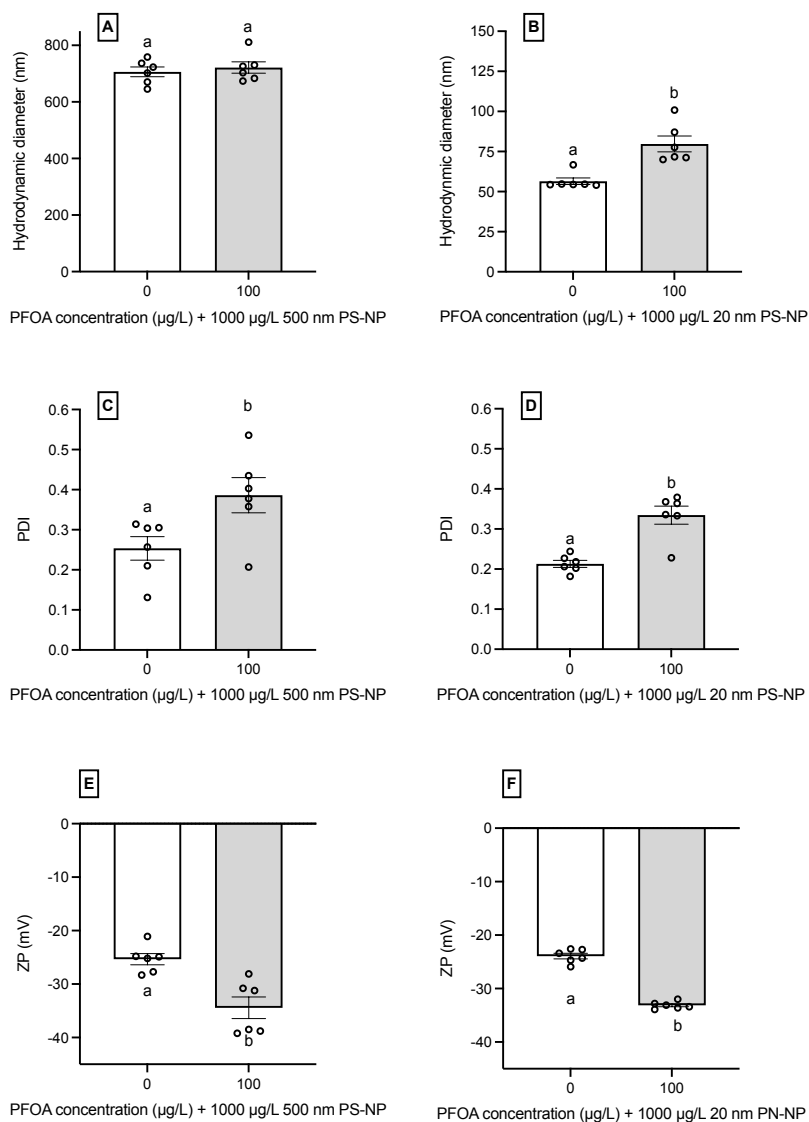


Figure 2-2

Evaluation of 1000 µg/L PS-NPs only and 1000 µg/L PS-NPs co-contaminated with 100 µg/L PFOA difference in size (of (A) 500nm, and (B) 20 nm), Polydispersity index (PDI) (of (C) 500nm, and (D) 20 nm), and Zeta-potential (ZP (of (E) 500nm, and (F) 20 nm), PS-NPs using Dynamic light scattering (DLS) method. (T-test : P-value_A=0.5760; P-value_B=0.0015; P-value_C=0.0309; P-value_D=0.0005; P-value_E=0.0025; P-value_F=<0.0001). Mean values sharing the same lower-case letter are not significantly different among PFOA concentrations. Data are means ± SEM (n = 6). Symbols are individual data points.

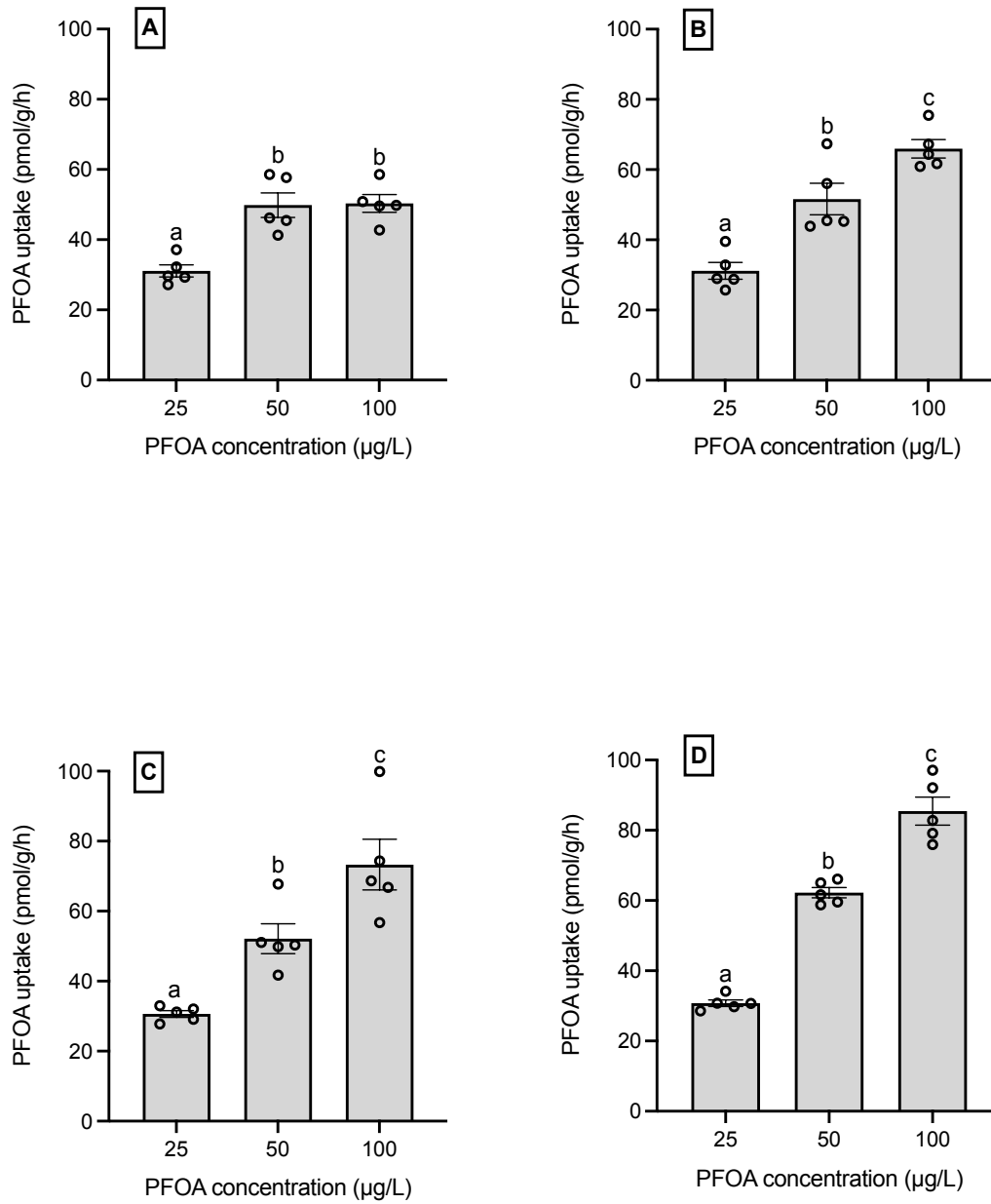


Figure 2-3

Uptake rate (pmol/h g⁻¹) 25, 50, 100 µg/L of PFOA at (A) 1, (B) 2, (C) 4 and (D) 6h in the Pacific oyster (*Magallana gigas*). (One-way ANOVA: P-value_A=0.0003; P-value_B=<0.0001; P-value_C=0.0002; P-value_D=<0.0001). Mean values sharing the same lower-case letter are not significantly different among PFOA concentrations. Data are means ± SEM (n = 5). Symbols are individual data points

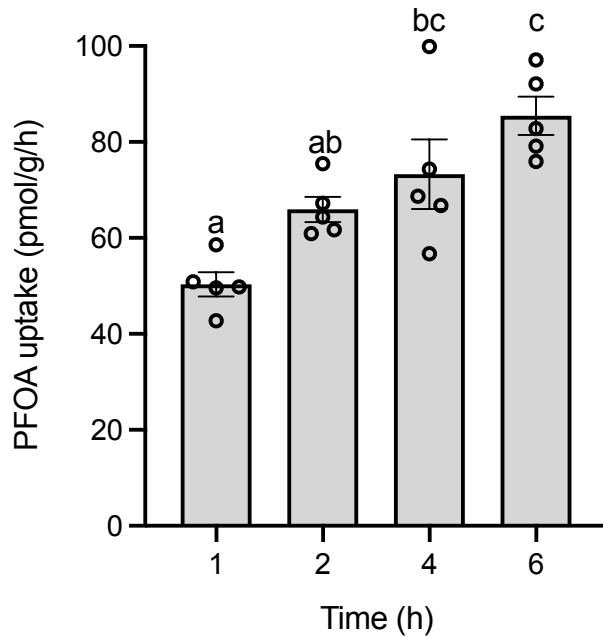


Figure 2-4

Uptake rate (pmol/h g-1) of, 100 µg/L PFOA at 1, 2, 4 and 6 in the Pacific oyster (*Magallana gigas*). (One-way ANOVA: P-value =0.0004). Mean values sharing the same lower- case letter are not significantly different among PFOA concentrations. Data are means ± SEM (n = 5). Symbols are individual data points.

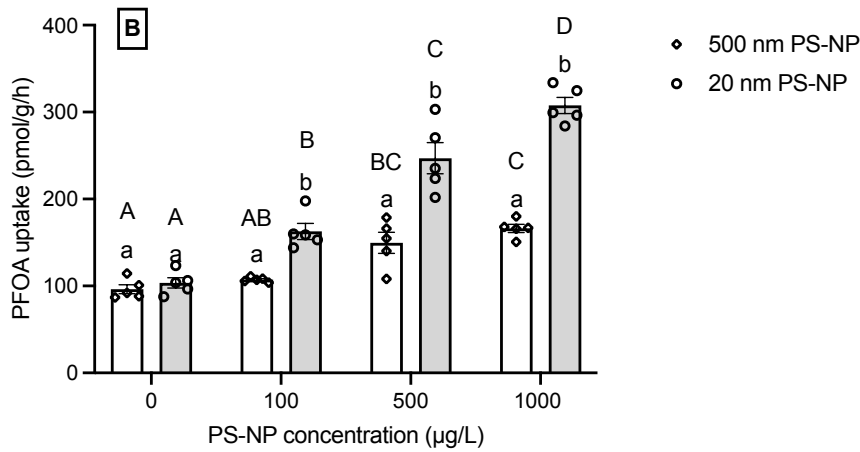
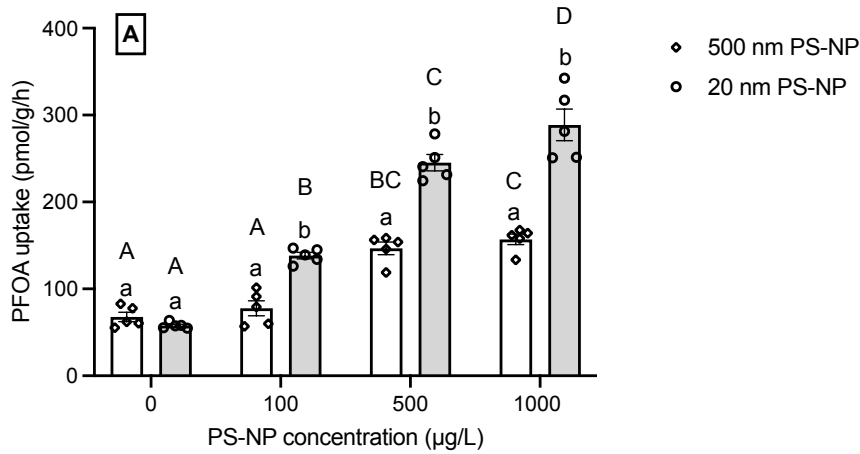


Figure 2-5

Uptake rate (pmol/h g⁻¹) of 100 µg/L PFOA co-contaminated with 0, 100, 500, 1000 µ/L of 20 nm and 500 nm PS-NPs in (A) 4 and (B) 6 hours of exposure in the Pacific oyster (*Magallana gigas*). Mean values sharing the same upper-case letter are not significantly different among different PS-NP concentrations of the same size. Mean values sharing the same lower-case letters are not significantly different among different PS-NP sizes with the same concentrations. (Two-way ANOVA P-values _ A: Pinteraction=<0.0001, Psize=<0.0001, Pconcentration=<0.0001; P-values_Y: Pinteraction=<0.0001, Psize=<0.0001, Pconcentration=<0.0001). Data are means ± SEM (n = 5). Symbols are individual data points.

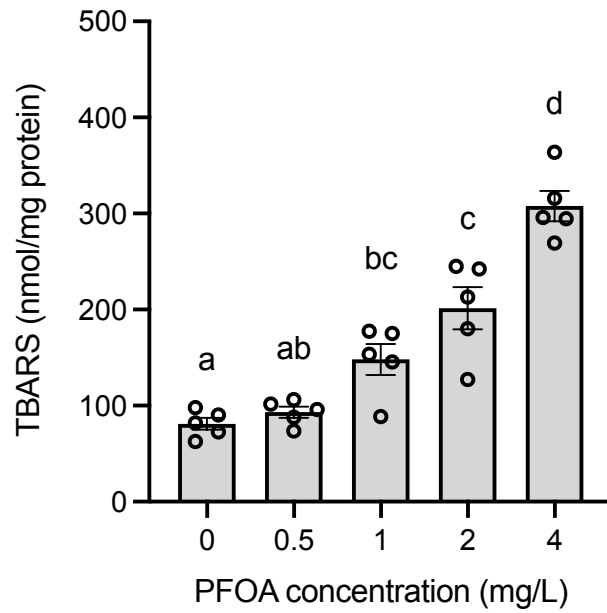


Figure 2-6

TBARS concentration (NM/mg protein⁻¹) in the Pacific oyster (*Magallana gigas*) after 48 h of exposure to 0, 0.5, 1, 2, and 4 mg/L PFOA. (One-way ANOVA: P-value = ≤ 0.0001). Mean values sharing the same lower- case letter are not significantly different among PFOA concentrations. Data are means \pm SEM (n = 5). Symbols are individual data points.

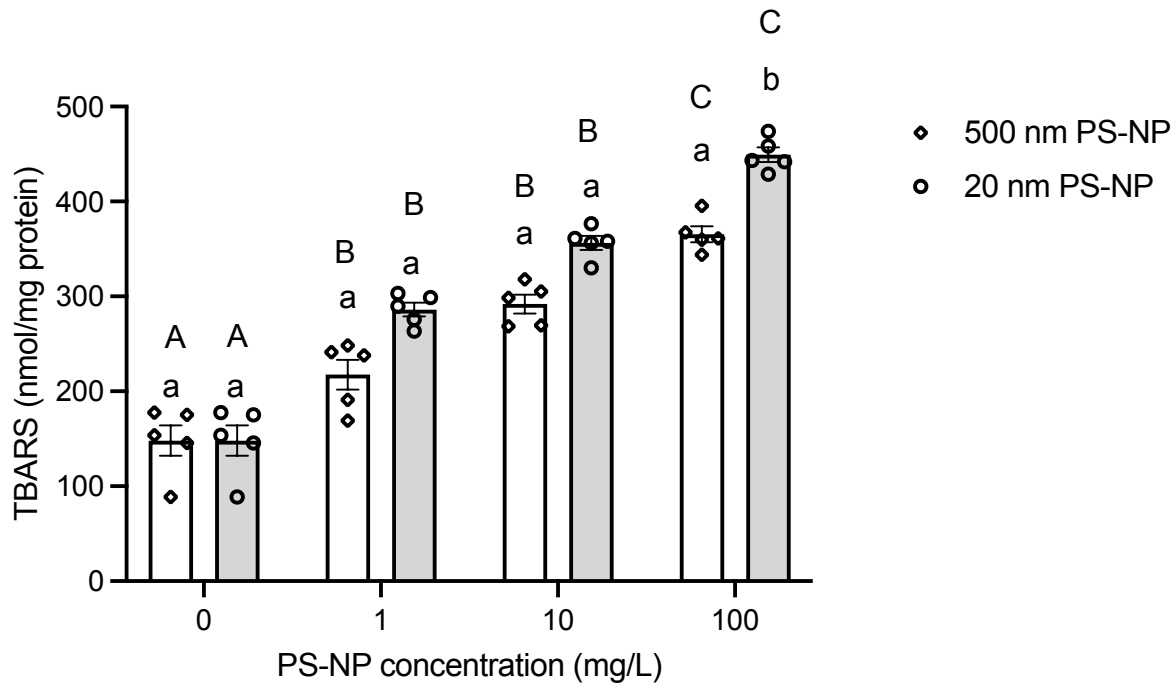


Figure 2-7

TBARS concentration (NM/mg protein⁻¹) in the Pacific oyster (*Magallana gigas*) exposed to 1 mg/L PFOA co-contaminated with 0, 1, 10, 100 mg/L of PS-NP (20 and 500 nm) after 48 h of exposure. Mean values sharing the same upper-case letter are not significantly different among different PS-NP concentrations of the same size. Mean values sharing the same lower-case letters are not significantly different among different PS-NP sizes with the same concentrations. (Two-way ANOVA P-values _ A: $P_{\text{interaction}}=0.0060$, $P_{\text{size}}<0.0001$, $P_{\text{concentration}}<0.0001$). Data are means \pm SEM (n = 5). Symbols are individual data points.

3 Chapter 3: Modulation of the uptake of PFOA by TiO₂ nanoparticles in *Daphnia* (*Daphnia magna*)

3.1 Introduction

More than %0.5 of the earth's crust is made of natural titanium existing only as oxides (34). Manufactured nanosized titanium dioxide is used for many different purposes including solar cells, biomaterials, memory devices, and photocatalysts (Chen and Mao 2007; Diebold 2003; Gong et al. 2006; Lin et al. 2009; Liu et al. 2004; Martin et al. 1996; Martyanov et al. 2004; Nakamura and Nakato 2004; Tan and Wu 2006; Wang et al. 2005; Zhang et al. 1999). TiO₂ is also present in majority of sunscreens and cosmetics products due to their UV light absorbing abilities (Jaroenworarluck et al. 2006). These cosmetic pigments including TiO₂ are washed off into the environment after use (Tourinho et al. 2012), while nanosized TiO₂ also enters the environment through wastewater treatment plants (Tourinho et al. 2012). In general, TiO₂ particles have not been associated with significant health concerns in humans (Völz et al. 2006; Warheit and Donner 2015). Nano-sized TiO₂ particles, especially those less than 25 nm, display novel size-dependent characteristics including photocatalytic ability, increased mobility in solutions, and altered surface reactivity (Erik Lucas 2001). The surface of anatase TiO₂ is generally hydrophobic and aggregates rapidly in aqueous solutions (Grassian et al. 2009; Kiadó and Vol 2006; Rachel, Subrahmanyam, and Boule 2002). Perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) is considered a hydrophobic persistent organic pollutant (POP) of concern given its highly resistance to degradation and nearly ubiquitous presence in the environment, being found in soil, air, and ground water (Cai et al. 2020; Domingo and Nadal 2017a; Gebbink and van Leeuwen 2020a; de la Torre et al. 2020). Organisms are exposed to PFOA through food, drinking water, air, and dust (Awad et al. 2021; Bai and Son 2021; Franco et al. 2020; Galloway et al. 2020; Hagens et al. 2013a; Lindim et al. 2016; Xie et al.

2021). Exposure to PFOA leads to bioaccumulation in different organs where it can act as a possible carcinogen, a liver and immune system toxicant, and as an endocrine disrupter (K. Betts 2007; K. S. Betts 2007; Hood 2008; Lau et al. 2007; Ryu et al. 2021). *Daphnia magna* of the genus *Daphnia* is a filter feeding water flea (Armitage and Lei 1979; J. C. Martins et al. 2007). *Daphnia* are found in aquatic eco-systems rich in organic matter, making it a key model organism for toxicology studies (Dodson and Hanazato 1995; Lin et al. 2020; J. C. Martins et al. 2007). As a filter feeding organism, *D. magna* will also filter any suspended particles from its environment utilizing their evolved filtering apparatus (Fryer 1991; Lin et al. 2020).

TiO₂ particles are known to be coated with different substances when placed in environmental solutions to form an Eco corona (Khan et al. 2020; Pettibone et al. 2008). This ecocorona has been shown to both alter TiO₂ behaviour in solution (e.g., dispersion/aggregation) (Gong et al. 2006; Pettibone et al. 2008; Zhang et al. 1999) and aquatic toxicity (Khan et al. 2020). For example, TiO₂ nanoparticles are known to have a better dispersion/increase in poly-dispersity index in the presence of higher concentrations of dissolved organic matter (Preočanin and Kallay 2006; Tourinho et al. 2012). The effect of co-contaminants other than dissolved organic matter is relatively understudied. PFOA is an 8-carbon chain molecule with saturating fluorine molecules at the hydrophobic end with a negatively charged terminal carboxylic acid at the other end (Bai and Son 2021; Gebreab et al. 2020). Given the relative hydrophobic nature of both TiO₂ and PFOA, we hypothesized that PFOA would form a corona with TiO₂ when both were placed in aqueous solutions. In this study, we used radioactively labelled ¹⁴C-PFOA to develop a method to induce PFOA adsorption onto TiO₂ nanoparticles. We then tracked both the effects of PFOA on the properties of TiO₂ in solution and quantified the rate of uptake of either PFOA alone or PFOA in association with TiO₂. Our goal was to determine if the coating of TiO₂ results in altered uptake

of PFOA due to its adsorption to the nanoparticles. The aims of our study were to: 1. develop an optimized assay to measure PFOA adsorption on TiO₂ nanoparticles, 2) to measure PFOA uptake and toxicological response in *D. magna*; and 3) to investigate the effects of nanoparticle size and concentration on the PFOA uptake rate and toxicological response during combined TiO₂/PFOA exposure.

3.2 Material and Methods

3.2.1 Chemicals

The stock solution of ¹⁴C-PFOA (55mCi/mmol) was provided from American Radiolabelled Chemicals Inc. and diluted to a suitable concentration of 0.784 g/L PFOA (0.1mCi/mL). Three different sizes of Titanium dioxide (TiO₂), 5, 25, and 100 nm were acquired from JRC European Commission, Evonik Industries, and mk Nano, respectively. All other chemicals used were from Sigma-Aldrich unless otherwise specified.

3.2.2 Daphnia maintenance

Adult Water flea (*Daphnia magna*) were obtained from Aquatic Research Organisms (ARO; Hampton, NH, USA) and were then housed and reared at room temperature in moderately hard OECD water in the Goss Lab at the University of Alberta. New-born neonates were removed from the adult colonies daily and transferred to a 1 L beaker filled freshly made OECD water. Daphnia were fed using a mixed food of Algae (ARO) and house made yeast, Cerophyl, trout chow (YCT). The water was changed every 2 days with a freshly made OECD water and there was a maximum occupancy of 100 and 50 daphnia per beaker at 3-4 and 7-8 days of age, respectively. Daphnia of use in this study were 10-15 days old, chosen based their optimal metabolism and moving behavior.

3.2.3 Experimental Protocol

3.2.3.1 Development of a method to match PFOA adsorption onto TiO₂ nanoparticles to control exposures

To allow a direct comparison of PFOA uptake with and without TiO₂, we needed to adjust the amount of ¹⁴C-PFOA added to each TiO₂ solution so that the amount of absorbed PFOA in the TiO₂ exposure solutions was the same as the non-TiO₂ exposure solution. This was validated for each test by counting a 100 µL subset of each stock solution in a B-counter and ensuring that the amount of PFOA in each test vessel was the same, allowing direct comparison. To coat TiO₂ with PFOA, TiO₂ was first dispersed in DMSO and vortexed, then 10 µL suspension was added to 10 mLs of an OCED solution containing 10 µg/L ¹⁴C -PFOA, vortexed for 2 min, allowed to sit for 2 h, vortexed again and then centrifuged for 2 h at 14,000 g. A 100 µL subset of the TiO₂ pellet coated with PFOA was counted and this allowed us to pair the PFOA adsorbed to TiO₂ with each control PFOA alone exposure. TiO₂ pellet was diluted using ddH₂O to make needed concentration of the co-contaminated TiO₂-PFOA.

3.2.3.2 Characterization of TiO₂ nanoparticles and effects of co-contaminant exposure on particle behaviour

3.2.3.2.1 Transmission electron microscopy

A 2g/L TiO₂ stock was made using ddH₂O and mixed using a Vortex and then sonicated 3X using a bath sonication right before addition to minimize aggregation. The sample was then placed on a polymer-coated copper grid (TED PELLA, INC, Lot # 151122) and air-dried. They were imaged at 10,000 X and 180,000 X using a transmission electron microscope (Phillips Morgagni 268) and imaged at 10,000 X and 180,000 X using DigitalMicrograph™ 1.81.78 for GMS 1.8.0 software.

3.2.3.2.2 Dynamic light scattering (DLS)

To certify the size of the TiO₂ nanoparticles and if there is an effect of co-contaminant exposure on particle behaviour, 5 mL solutions of 500 µg/L TiO₂ either coated with PFOA or not were prepared. A test PFOA solution (10 µg/L) was prepared and added where appropriate. Five replicate 1 mL aliquots were then tested using DLS Malvern Nano Series Zetasizer and average particle size, zeta potential and polydispersity index measured.

3.2.3.3 Development of a method to measure uptake rate of PFOA

The rate of uptake of PFOA was determined using radioactively labelled ¹⁴C-PFOA as a tracer and this method was adapted from previous research on oysters (Farajizadeh et al, submitted). To determine the optimal time interval for measurement of PFOA uptake in daphnia, one PFOA concentration (10 µg/L) was tested over 5 different exposure time intervals (0.25, 0.5, 1, 2, 4 h). At the beginning of each exposure period, 20 daphnia (10-15 days old) were randomly selected and placed into a 10 mL glass vial containing 5 mL of freshly made OECD water. Daphnia were given 0.5 h acclimation to allow the animal to re-establish its normal behavior and metabolism. PFOA exposure was initiated by removal of OECD water and replacement with 5 mL of ¹⁴C-PFOA containing (10 µg/L) working solution. Concentration of the working solution was verified by removal of two 1 mL samples, counting ¹⁴C-PFOA total activity and PFOA concentration calculated based on specific activity of the ARC stock solution. Daphnia were then exposed for one of 5 different time intervals (1, 2, 4, 6 h) at room temperature. At the end of each flux period, a water sample (0.5 mL) was removed to determine final ¹⁴C-PFOA activity. To measure ¹⁴C-PFOA activity, Optifase (company) was added water samples at a ratio of 5 parts Optiphase:1part ¹⁴C- containing water) and incubated at least 2 h in the dark to remove chemiluminescence before determining activity (counts per minute (CPM)) in a B-counter (Hitachi Beckman-Wallace LS-6500).

At the end of each exposure interval, Daphnia were taken out and washed twice with solution of 2mg/L non-radioactive PFOA and then once with OECD water to remove any surface attached ¹⁴C-PFOA. Extra fluid around the daphnia was wicked away using a Kimwipe for at least 90 seconds. They were then weighed and placed in 1 mL of 2 N HNO₃ solution at 65 °C for 24 h. After digestion, samples were vortexed for at 0.5 minutes, and 1.5 mL Ultima Gold scintillation cocktail (Perkinelmer) was added to 0.25 mL of the digest. Samples were incubated for 2 h before measuring CPM in the beta-counter as above. All measurements were corrected for background CPM using a blank sample.

Unidirectional influx of PFOA was analysed by the following formula:

$$\text{Equation 1: } J_{\text{in}} = ((\text{CPM}_{\text{tissue}})/\text{Weight}/\text{Time}) \times (\text{nmol PFOA}/\text{CPM } ^{14}\text{C-PFOA})$$

3.2.3.4 Measurement of PFOA uptake rate with or without TiO₂ nanoparticles present.

For each test, 20 daphnia (10-15 days old) were randomly selected and placed into a 10 mL glass scintillation vials, each containing 5mL of freshly made OECD water. After 30 min acclimation time, Daphnia were then exposed to either PFOA alone or a matching combination of PFOA-spiked TiO₂ for the time interval (h). The uptake rate of PFOA was then calculated as per equation 1 above. First, we tested the possible modulation of 10 µg/L PFOA uptake by the presence of 5 nm TiO₂ at 5 different TiO₂ concentrations (0, 125, 250, 500 or 1000 µg/L). Next, we tested for the effect of particle size on PFOA (10 µg/L) uptake using 3 nominal particle sizes (5 nm, 25 nm, or 100 nm) at 500 µg/L TiO₂. Additionally, we tested for the effect of 500 µg TiO₂ as a co-contaminant on the uptake rate of 10µg/L PFOA over 0.25, 0.5, 1, 2, and 4 h.

3.2.3.5 48 h exposure to PFOA and effects of co-contaminating TiO₂ nanoparticle on metabolic status

To measure metabolic oxygen consumption (MO_2), fifty randomly selected 10–15-day old daphnia were transferred into two 300 mL glass beaker filled with 250 mL filtered freshly made OECD water. Animals were then given 0.5 h acclimation to re-establish the daphnia normal filtration and foraging behaviour. The water around them was then replaced with 250 mL of the appropriate treatment groups (above). The daphnia were exposed to the treatments for 48h in a 21 °C temperature-controlled room. After the treatment period, animals were removed, washed twice with OECD water, and extra fluid around the daphnia was wicked away using a Kimwipe. Daphnia were then randomly sorted in groups of two. Each group was then placed into sensor cells of an oxygen consumption SDR- meter, filled with 500 μ l freshly made clean OECD water and sealed. Oxygen concentration in each cell was then recorded using SDRTM-Sensor Dish Reader software every 15 seconds, for 1 h and MO_2 calculated on the rates of O_2 decline in the metabolic chamber. To determine if PFOA exposure affected the metabolic status, daphnia were exposed to 5 different concentrations of PFOA alone (0.1, 0.25, 0.5, and 1 mg/L) and MO_2 measured. Based on these results, MO_2 was measured in daphnia comparing the effects of exposure to either 0.5 mg/L PFOA or 0.5 mg/L PFOA sorbed to 5 nm TiO_2 nanoparticles at three different concentrations (25, 50, and 100 mg/L). We also measured MO_2 in daphnia exposed to either 0.5 mg/L PFOA or 0.5 mg/L PFOA sorbed to 50 mg/L TiO_2 in three sizes (5, 25, 100 nm). As a control, we also tested if TiO_2 (50 mg/L) alone of either 5 nm, 25 nm, or 100 nm TiO_2 nanoparticles affected MO_2 metabolic and no significant effect of TiO_2 on MO_2 was noted (data not shown).

3.2.4 Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was done using Prism 9 for macOS (version 9.5.1). All data were normal and were checked for normality using Shapiro Wilk/Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests for normality. Data were then analyzed for different factors using a T-test, one-way ANOVA, or two-way ANOVA

based on requirements of the data set (specified in figure captions), followed by Turkey's multiple comparison post-hoc test for all data.

3.3 Results

3.3.1 Particle characterization

TiO₂ nanoparticles size were verified using TEM and Fig 3.1 demonstrates the supportive images. The 5, 25, and 100 TiO₂ nominal manufacturer provided dimensions were closely matched with our images with little variation in sizes. DLS was used to determine if the presence PFOA altered behaviour of TiO₂ in solution (Fig 3.2). The measured hydrodynamic radius of the nominal 5, 25, and 100 nm particles alone was 1330.5 nm +/- 81.8, 1553.6 nm +/- 78.3, and 1127.17 +/- 32.2, respectively, suggesting significant aggregation. The recorded polydispersity index (PDI) (0.249 +/- 0.01, 0.196 +/- 0.03, and 0.34 +/- 0.01) and Zeta potential (ZP) (-11.2 +/- 0.64, -9.9 +/- 0.34, and -8.3 +/- 0.23 mV) for present non-PFOA-coated 5, 25, and 100 nm TiO₂ NPs in solution was found to be similar, respectively. However, the presence of a 10 µg/L PFOA coating was associated with a 34%, 20%, and 27% decrease in the average hydrated diameter of the 5, 25, and 100 nm particles, respectively. Adsorption of PFOA resulted in an increased PDI and decreased ZP, whereas PDI for 5, 25, and 100 nm PFOA-spiked TiO₂ NPs was increased by 1.31, 1.67, and 1.26 times. Similarly, ZP of the TiO₂ was reduced by 13.8 mV, 7.32 mV, and 4.07 mV, respectively (Fig 3.2) in the presence of PFOA.

3.3.2 Development of a PFOA uptake assay

10 µg/L PFOA was chosen as an optimal concentration for measuring uptake based on both preliminary experiments and the fact that this slightly above (in order to ease the uptake measurement) measured environmental levels of organic pollutants (Dodson and Hanazato 1995) including PFOA (Geng et al. 2021b). The effect of flux time on PFOA uptake (without TiO₂ co-

contamination) is shown in Fig 3.3. A higher PFOA uptake rate was associated with an increasing time of exposure (up to 2 h) demonstrating the efficacy of our method to measure PFOA uptake. a greater rate of uptake of PFOA was observed at each of 0.25, 0.5, 1, and 2 h of exposure (Fig 3.3) while PFOA uptake at 4 h of exposure was slightly decreased compared to the 2 h period. This suggests that the 10 µg/L PFOA exposure for 2h was the optimal time and concentration to study PFOA uptake.

3.3.3 Effect of [TiO₂] on PFOA uptake.

We next examined if the amount of PFOA-sorbed TiO₂ altered the rate of PFOA uptake (at same PFOA concentration). *Daphnia* exposed for 2 h to increasing concentrations of TiO₂ showed a significant increase in their uptake rate compared to control. When the PFOA exposure was co-contaminated with 0.5 or 1 mg/L TiO₂, uptake rate increased by 65%, and 123% respectively (Fig 3.4).

3.3.4 Effect of TiO₂ size on PFOA uptake

Accumulation of PFOA in *Daphnia* showed a significantly greater rate as the TiO₂ co-contaminant with reduced particle size (Fig 3.5). 5 nm TiO₂ nanoparticles as a co-contaminant resulted in 45% greater PFOA uptake rate over two hours when compared controls without TiO₂ while 25 nm TiO₂ NPs showed a modest 20% increase and 100 nm TiO₂ NPs did not significantly potentiate uptake.

3.3.5 TiO₂ potentiates PFOA uptake in *Daphnia magna*

Based on the method development described above, we examined effect of an exposure to 5 nm TiO₂ (0.5 mg/L) coated with PFOA (10 mg/L) over increasing time intervals (Fig 3.6). At each time interval (0.5 h to 4 h), 10 µg/L PFOA sorbed to 500 µg/L TiO₂ nanoparticles showed significant and consistently higher rates of transport compared to the time-matched control without TiO₂. Similar to above, a 2 h period of exposure showed the highest PFOA uptake rate when

compared to other time intervals (0.25, 0.5, 1, and 4 h). TiO₂ co-contaminated with 10 µg/L PFOA, showed 1.81-, 1.64-, 1.65-, and 1.61-fold greater uptake when compared to the non-adsorbed PFOA when exposed for 0.5, 1, 2, and 4 h, respectively.

3.3.6 Effect of PFOA on MO₂

After 48h of exposure (Fig 3.7A), there was a significant depression of respiration at each of 0.1, 0.25, 0.5, and 1 mg/L PFOA compared to 0 mg/L PFOA. Daphnia had a significantly lower oxygen consumption when exposed to 0.5 mg/L (0.13 +/- 0.00 µg/daphnia/h) and 1 mg/L PFOA (0.10 +/- 0.01) compared to daphnia treated with 0.25 (0.21+- 0.0), 0.1 (0.22 +- 0.0), and 0 (0.28 +/- 0.01) mg/L PFOA, respectively. From this information, a [PFOA] of 0.5 mg/L was chosen to investigate the possible effects of TiO₂ as a co-contaminant.

Effects of co-contamination with 5 nm TiO₂ on PFOA-induced MO₂

Addition of 0.5 mg/L PFOA-coated 5 nm sized TiO₂ particles consistently decreased MO₂, an indicator of daphnia metabolic stress. Moreover, as [TiO₂] increased, there was a stepwise decrease in daphnia MO₂ with 50 mg/L TiO₂ resulting in a 32% decrease and 100 mg/L TiO₂ resulting in a 55% decrease in MO₂ compared to the daphnia treated to 0.5 mg/L PFOA only (no TiO₂) (Fig 3.7B).

3.3.7 Effect of co-contamination with different sizes of TiO₂ on PFOA-induced depression of MO₂

Using 50 mg/L TiO₂ and 0.5 mg/L PFOA as common elements in our assay, we investigated the effect of different sized TiO₂ as a co-contaminant on MO₂ (Fig 3.7C). MO₂ was significantly reduced by 22% and 11%, in the 25 nm and 100 nm TiO₂ treatment groups, respectively. However, 5 nm TiO₂ resulted in a much greater (32%) significant reduction in MO₂ compared to the absence of TiO₂.

3.4 DISCUSSION

In this study, we have demonstrated that PFOA is rapidly taken up by *Daphnia magna*. Importantly, this uptake can be significantly potentiated by the presence of TiO₂, with the smaller TiO₂ particles resulting in a greater potentiation of PFOA uptake. Moreover, the presence of TiO₂ in PFOA containing solutions resulted in a greater reduction of the PFOA-induced MO₂, again, with the smaller sized 5 nm TiO₂ showing greater reductions in MO₂ compared to 25 and 100 nm TiO₂.

3.4.1 Measurement of PFOA uptake and effects on whole body metabolism

Measurement of PFOA uptake by *Daphnia magna* was accomplished by modification of our previously published method on Pacific oysters (Farajizadeh et al, submitted). This method allows for acute measurement of unidirectional PFOA uptake rates at environmentally relevant concentrations. Aquatic PFOA concentrations have been often measured at low µg/L (Geng et al. 2021b) although measurements are usually higher near the sources of production. We chose 10 µg/L as an optimal exposure concentration for uptake experiments to increase sensitivity but remain close to the environmentally relevant range. Unidirectional uptake of PFOA increased with exposure time up until 2 h and then levelled off or decreased after this time, likely due to increase in excretion rate by the *Daphnia* to match the uptake rate. Lower uptake rates in the shorter exposure time periods are likely the result of the experiment is being done in a fixed volume static system where longer exposure period would result in resampling of the water and hence the accumulation rate increases with exposure time. In our experiments, PFOA exposure at or above 0.1 mg/L caused a significant decrease in whole body metabolic oxygen consumption suggesting a metabolic stress as result of PFOA exposure. Pollutant-induced reductions in metabolic rate have been previously demonstrated by numerous researchers (Armitage and Lei 1979; J. C. Martins et

al. 2007; Reyes et al. 2002; Wu and Chen 2004). Martins and colleagues (2007) showed that *Daphnia magna* had significantly lowered MO_2 when exposed to several different toxicants (J. C. Martins et al. 2007). With respect to PFOA, Hagenarrs et al (2013) found an ~ 60% reduction in mitochondrial oxygen consumption in zebrafish exposed to 1 mg/L PFOA with proteomic analysis suggesting the principal target o PFOA disruption is metabolic processes (Hagenaars et al. 2013b). Similarly, Gebreab et al (2020) that 25-200 ppm PFOA exposed zebrafish embryos (*Danio rerio*) displayed a 70% reduction in mitochondrial metabolic oxygen demand(Gebreab et al. 2020). While the exact mechanism by which PFOA induces decreased MO_2 is relatively understudied, the findings above correlates with our significant reductions in whole animal metabolic oxygen consumption and suggests impairment of mitochondrial function (Souders et al. 2021). PFOA exposure has also been demonstrated to significantly alter metabolite concentrations in the muscles of fish with Tyrosine, Tryptophan, Glutamate, Glutamine, choline, and GABA all being affected by PFOA exposure (Souders et al. 2021).

3.4.2 Association between PFOA and TiO_2 nanoparticles and effects on particle behaviour

It is well known that nanoparticles in environmental solutions can associated with various pollutants (POPs, proteins, dissolved organic carbon etc) and inorganics (metals) to form an eco-corona (Cedervall et al. 2007; Chetwynd et al. 2020; Khan et al. 2020; Pettibone et al. 2008). Similarly, recent studies have also demonstrated association of POPs with the hydrophobic surfaces of nanoplastics (Lin et al. 2020; Ma et al. 2016b; Zhang et al. 2020). Generally, TiO_2 NPs tend to form a larger cluster in water and have high aggregation rates. This was demonstrated by the relatively large hydrodynamic size of the particles in solution compared to the actual physical size (~5 nm, ~25 nm, and ~100 nm) as seen in the TEM. The presence of PFOA, which has a terminal carboxylic acid functional group which results in an outward facing negative surface

charge. As we saw in the results, PFOA surface coating of the TiO₂ particles led to a decreased zeta potential (increased negative charge), a diminished average hydrodynamic size of each of the three particle sizes, and an increase in the poly dispersion index, using DLS technique. DLS is not the most accurate technique for particle size analysis but since we are comparing the hydrodynamic characteristics of PFOA -spiked TiO₂ with non-co-contaminated TiO₂, DLS is an acceptable method. These changes would be predicted to increase the bioavailability of both the TiO₂ and PFAO. The mechanisms by which this happens is likely due to increase repulsion between PFOA-spiked TiO₂ particles by a greater charge:charge interaction. This increase repulsion would reduce aggregation as revealed in the improved polydispersity and smaller average clusters formed shown as average particle size (Pettibone et al. 2008; Wang et al. 2005).

3.4.3 Effects of TiO₂ co-contamination on PFOA uptake and toxicity

It has been previously demonstrated that many POPs sorb onto the surface of a variety of NPs (Cole et al. 2011; Ma et al. 2016b; Wang et al. 2019; Zhang et al. 2020). We have also previously demonstrated that 20 and 500 nm nanoplastics can modulate the uptake of PFOA into marine oysters, with 20 nm nanoplastics having a greater effect compared to 500 nm nanoplastics. Together, these findings confirm that the presence of particulate matter, specifically very small nano-sized materials (< 100 nm), have the potential to significantly exacerbate organic toxicity. Given that regulatory limits are often based on acute exposures (e.g., LC₅₀, EC₅₀) of contaminants in the relative absence of nano sized particles, that means that regulatory limits for contaminant releases of high particulate effluents (e.g., municipal waste, mining wastewater) may need to be revisited. A higher particulate co-contamination rate can lead to a higher accumulation of organics (Cole et al. 2011; Ma et al. 2016b; Wang et al. 2019; Zhang et al. 2020). It is likely that the relatively high hydrophobicity of the surface of some nanoparticles (e.g., TiO₂, CeO) will interact

more strongly with organics with high K_{ow} (Lin et al. 2020). Therefore, the interaction between organics and particulate matter, specifically nano-sized materials, should be further investigated to determine the relative importance of physico-chemical characteristics on uptake of various POPs and their associated toxicity. While PFOA alone has been shown by many others to negatively affect MO_2 in a variety of organisms (Gebreab et al. 2020; Hagenaars et al. 2013b), our results demonstrate that the presence of TiO_2 particles co-associated with PFOA resulted in an even more substantial inhibition of MO_2 .

At this stage, we are unsure of the mechanism responsible for increased uptake of PFOA in the presence of TiO_2 and the effect of particle size on PFOA uptake. Possible explanations are that smaller size nano particles ($< 500nm$) are known to cross cell membranes (Besseling et al. 2014; Mattsson et al. 2015; Zhang et al. 2020) and these could serve as a “trojan horse” ferrying the PFOA into the animal (Ma et al. 2016a; Zhang et al. 2020). Other explanations include increase polydispersity and mobility in solutions for smaller particles resulting in increased uptake or alternatively, simply having more smaller particles close to the cell membranes, resulting in dissociation of the PFOA from the TiO_2 near the membrane and an increased rate of transfer of the hydrophobic PFOA (and not the TiO_2 particle per se). The mechanism by which TiO_2 potentiate organic uptake is understudied and needs to be further investigated.

3.5 Conclusion

In this study, a radiotracer-based method was developed to measure unidirectional accumulation of PFOA at environmentally relevant concentrations (Geng et al. 2021b). It is clearly shown that PFOA in the water is transferred rapidly into daphnia with time- and concentration-dependent rates. We also demonstrated that PFOA sorption to TiO_2 nanoparticles accelerates its accumulation rate in the animal. A greater increase of uptake rate is seen in co-contamination with

a smaller particle size (5 nm TiO₂) when compared to bigger sizes (25 nm and 100 nm TiO₂). PFOA is known to alter the metabolic status of many organisms as demonstrated by a reduced MO₂. Interestingly, exposure to PFOA-spiked TiO₂ nanoparticles also exacerbated the decrease in oxygen consumption suggesting that organic contaminants in the presence of nanoparticles can significantly increase toxicological impact. Smaller sized particles have a greater specific surface area and also a high mobility in solution and can serve as vectors for transport and uptake of different toxicants (including POPs) (Pettibone et al. 2008; Zhang et al. 1999). Future directions include investigating the underlying properties affecting co-contaminant uptake in a variety of nano-sized materials and POPs. The possible potentiation of various pollutants (specifically POPs) uptake and toxicity by different hydrophobic particles is a growing concern and requires further research to modify and/or create relevant hazard and risk assessment models.

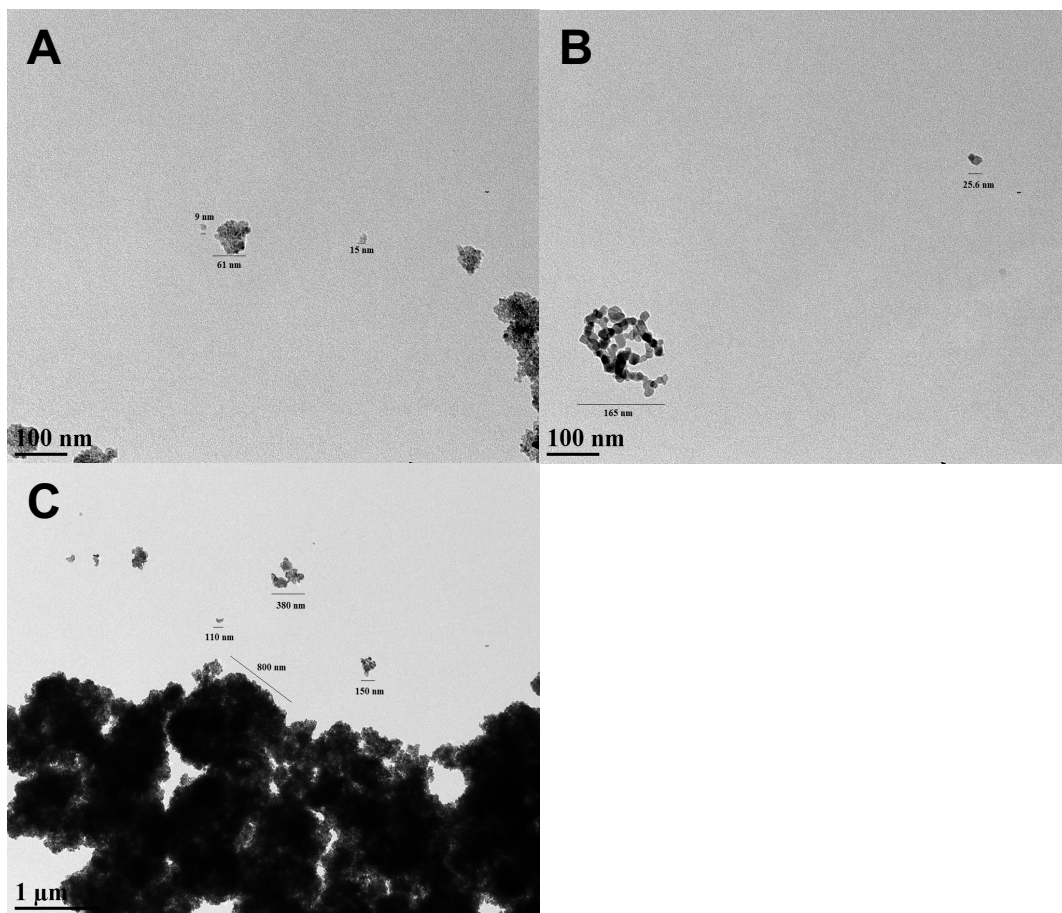


Figure 3-1

Transmission Electronic Microscope (TEM) pictures of 2 g/L (A) 5 nm, and (B) 25 and (C) 100 nm TiO₂ nanoparticles using 18000X, 18000X, and 10000X magnification, respectively.

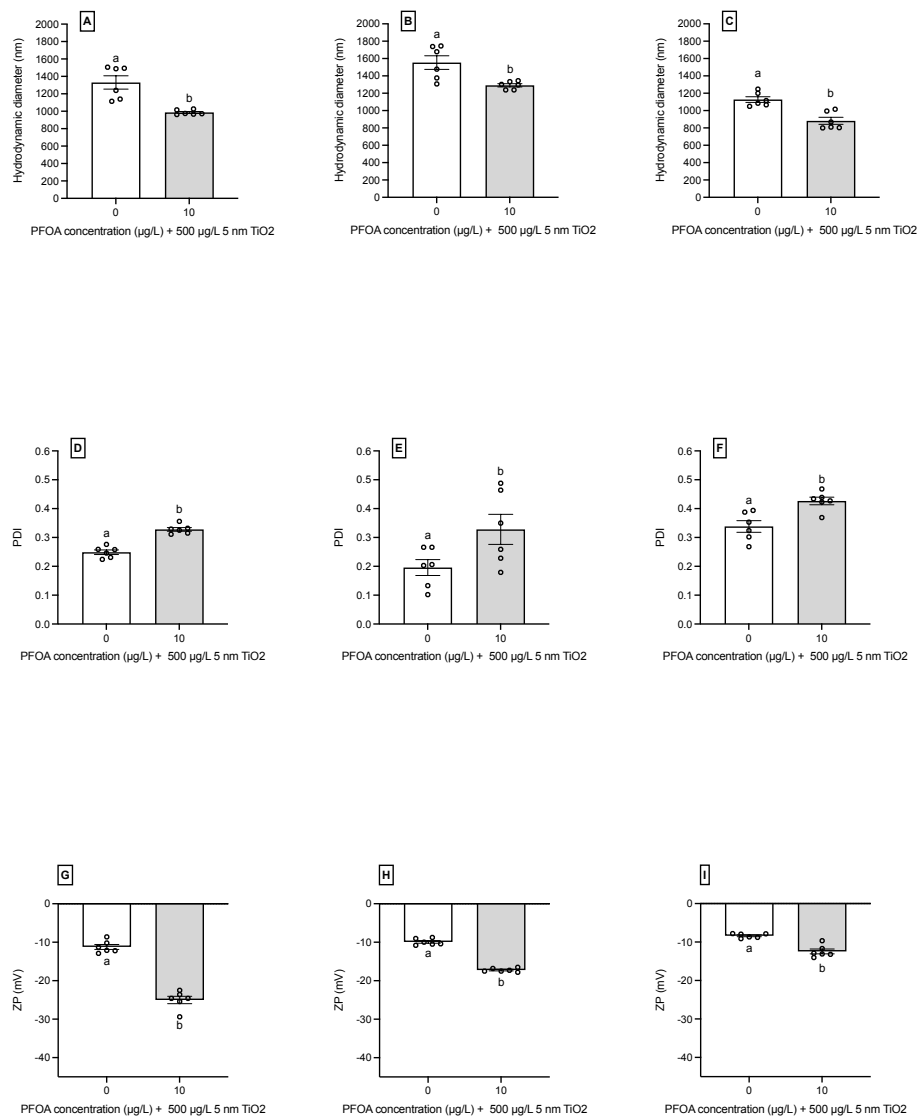


Figure 3-2

Evaluation of 0.5 mg/L TiO₂ nanoparticle only and 0.5 mg/L TiO₂ nanoparticle co-contaminated with 10 µg/L PFOA difference in size (of (A) 5 nm, (B) 25 nm and (C) 100 nm), Polydispersity index (PDI) (of (D) 5 nm, (E) 25 nm and (F) 100 nm), and Zeta-potential (ZP) (of (G) 5 nm, (H) 25 nm and (I) 100 nm) TiO₂ nanoparticles using Dynamic light scattering (DLS) method. (T-test : P-value_A=0.0012; P-value_B=0.0087; P-value_C=0.0008; P-value_D=<0.0001; P-value_E=0.0491; P-value_F=0.0044; P-value_G=<0.0001; P-value_H=<0.0001; P-value_I=0.0001). Mean values sharing the same lower-case letter are not significantly different among PFOA concentrations. Data are means ± SEM (n = 6). Symbols are individual data points.

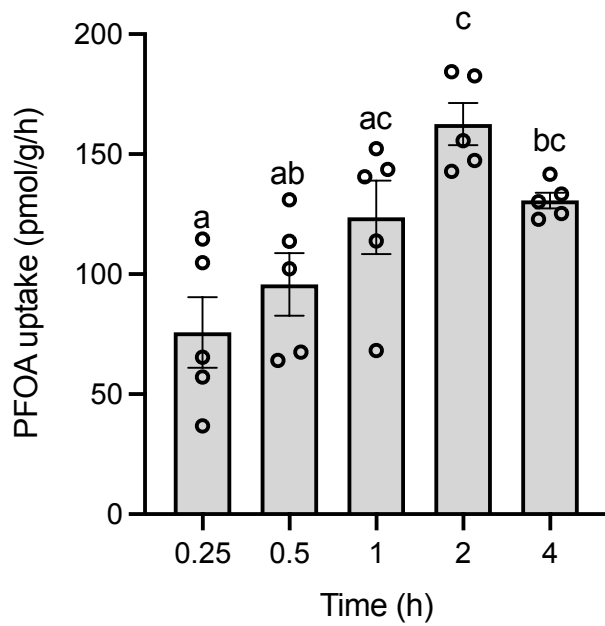


Figure 3-3

Uptake rate (pmol/h g^{-1}) of, $10 \mu\text{g/L}$ PFOA at 0.25, 0.5, 1, 2, and 4 h in the daphnia (*Daphnia magna*). (One-way ANOVA: P-value = 0.0006). Mean values sharing the same lower- case letter are not significantly different among PFOA concentrations. Data are means \pm SEM ($n = 5$). Symbols are individual data points.

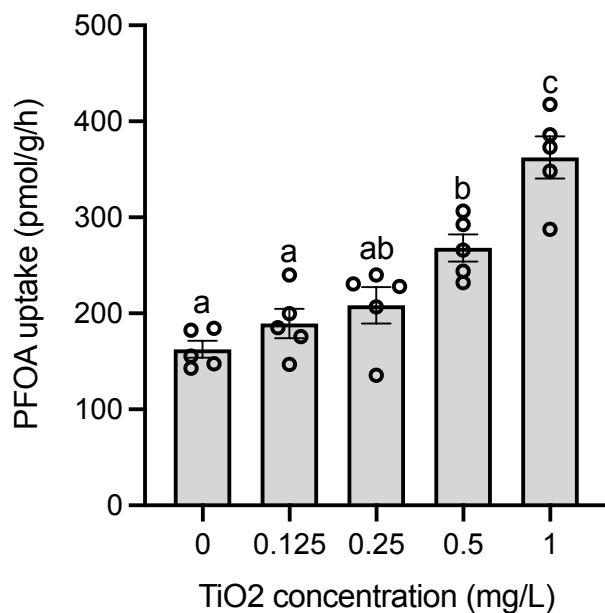


Figure 3-4

Uptake rate (pmol/h g^{-1}) of $10 \mu\text{g/L}$ PFOA ($10 \mu\text{g/L}$) co-contaminated with 0, 0.125, 0.25, 0.5, and 1 mg/L of 5 nm TiO_2 nanoparticles in 2 hours of exposure in daphnia (*Daphnia magna*). Mean values sharing the same lower-case letters are not significantly different among different TiO_2 nanoparticles concentrations. (One-way ANOVA: P-value ≤ 0.0001). Data are means \pm SEM ($n = 5$). Symbols are individual data points.

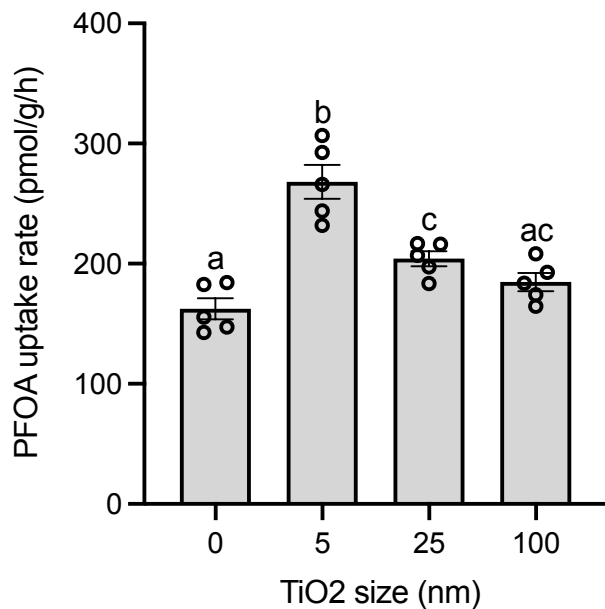


Figure 3-5

Uptake rate (pmol/h g^{-1}) of $10 \mu\text{g/L}$ PFOA ($10 \mu\text{g/L}$) co-contaminated with 0.5 mg/L of 5, 25, and 100 nm TiO_2 nanoparticles in 2 hours of exposure in daphnia (*Daphnia magna*). Mean values sharing the same lower-case letters are not significantly different among different TiO_2 nanoparticles sizes. (One-way ANOVA: P-value ≤ 0.0001). Data are means \pm SEM ($n = 5$). Symbols are individual data points.

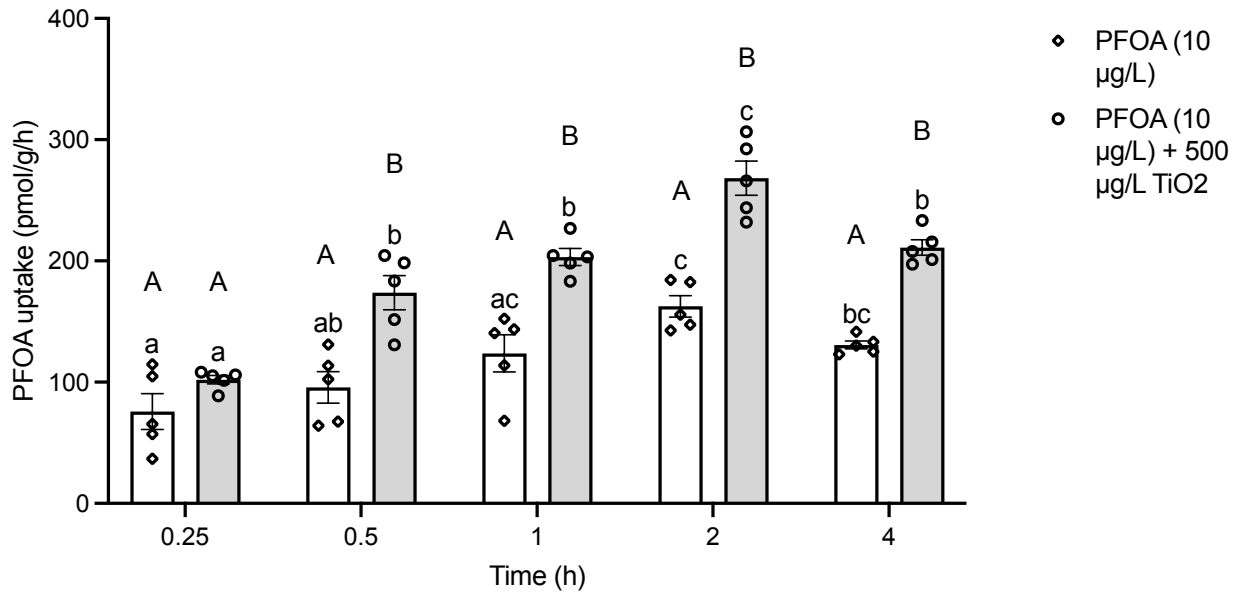


Figure 3-6

Uptake rate (pmol/h g⁻¹) of 10 µg/L ¹⁴C-PFOA (100 µg/L) co-contaminated with 0, and 500 mg/L 5 nm TiO₂ nanoparticles in 0.25, 0.5, 1, 2, and 4 hours of exposure in the daphnia (*Daphnia magna*). Mean values sharing the same upper-case letter are not significantly different among different exposure periods for same TiO₂ concentrations. Mean values sharing the same lower-case letters are not significantly different among different 5 nm TiO₂ concentrations for same exposure periods. (Two-way ANOVA P-values : P_{interaction}=<0.0156, P_{time}=<0.0001, P_{concentration}=<0.0001). Data are means ± SEM (n = 5). Symbols are individual data points.

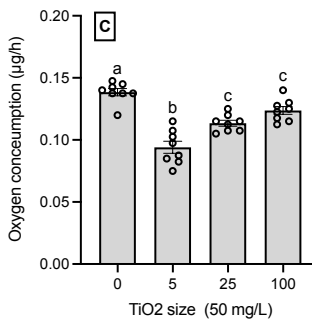
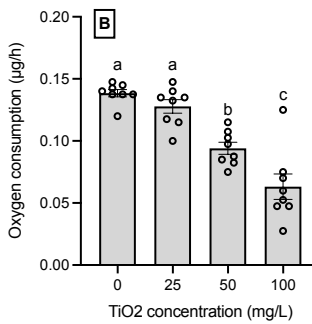
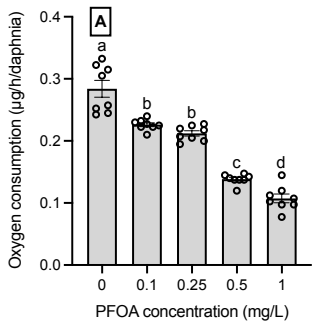


Figure 3-7

Metabolic oxygen consumption (MO_2) ($\mu\text{g/h daphnia}^{-1}$) concentration in the daphnia (*daphnia magna*) after 48 h of exposure to (A) 0, 0.1, 0.25, 0.5, and 1 mg/L PFOA, (B) 0.5 mg/L PFOA co-contaminated with 0, 25, 50, and 100 mg/L 5 nm TiO₂ nanoparticles, and (C) 0.5 mg/L PFOA co-contaminated with 50 mg/L of 5, 25, and 100 nm TiO₂ nanoparticles. (One-way ANOVA: P-value_A =<0.0001; P-value_B =<0.0001; P-value_C =<0.0001). Mean values sharing the same lower- case letter are not significantly different among different (A) PFOA concentrations, (B) 5 nm TiO₂ nanoparticles concentrations, and (C) TiO₂ nanoparticles sizes. Data are means \pm SEM (n = 8). Symbols are individual data points.

4 Chapter 4: General conclusion

4.1 Conclusion

Nanoparticles (NM), alongside other pollutants including persistent organic pollutants, are frequently co-released into the environment (Ma et al. 2016b; Pettibone et al. 2008; Zhang et al. 2020). These persistent organic pollutants can interact with the nanoparticles in the aquatic environment, forming an ecocorona on the surface of the *NP* (Khan et al. 2020; Pettibone et al. 2008; Zhang et al. 2020). The goal of my series of experiments was to determine if there is a Trojan horse effect of the nanomaterial through the adsorption of different pollutants, and a subsequent increase in the exposure and their exposure effects on different aquatic organisms. The adsorption of PFOA onto the hydrophobic surface of both polystyrene nanoparticles (PS-NPs) and Titanium dioxide (TiO₂) was demonstrated by the changes in the characteristics of the dispersed particles as demonstrated through changes in properties found by dynamic light scattering (DLS). My results demonstrate a significantly decreased zeta potential, increased polydispersity index, and an increased or decreased particle size for PS-NPs or TiO₂ nanoparticles, respectively in the presence of PFOA. Given that PFOA possesses a negative carboxylic group, I also hypothesized that exposure to this mixture of *NPs* and the PFOA toxicant would modulate/potentiate the effect of the chemical in exposed organisms. My data for both types of hydrophobic *NPs* demonstrated that the co-occurrence of the PFOA contaminant with these *NPs* results in an accelerated transport and bioconcentration of the adsorbed toxicant in the exposed animals. During my research program, I was able to develop a novel radiotracer-based method to unidirectionally measure organic toxicant (PFOA) uptake in different aquatic organisms at various environmentally and scientifically realistic concentrations (Geng et al. 2021b). My data then clearly demonstrates that the presence of PFOA in the environment results in a time and concentration-dependent accumulation in both

the Pacific oyster (*Magallana gigas*) and the water flea Daphnia (*Daphnia magna*). Furthermore, my data clearly shows that the Trojan horse effect of NM can significantly enhance the uptake of PFOA in exposed animals and exacerbate the effects of PFOA compared to PFOA exposure alone. For example, I have demonstrated that PFOA sorption to 20 nm and 500 nm sized PS-NPs potentiate PFOA uptake in Pacific oysters by 196% and 72%, respectively. Additionally, I showed that PFOA adsorption to 5 nm, 25 nm, and 100 nm TiO₂ nanoparticles increased the uptake rate of the PFOA in daphnia by 65%, 25%, and 13%, respectively.

The potential for NPs to intensify accumulation and exposure translates to increased measures of organisms' toxicity of the adsorbed pollutant as measured by potentiates TBARs and MO₂ measured in exposed animals. My data is the first to study PFOA toxicity using radiotracer-based means and is one of only a handful of studies that examine the effects of PFOA on the physiology of organisms at environmentally relevant levels. I have demonstrated that higher concentrations of PFOA result in intensified lipid peroxidation (LPO) and reduced metabolic oxygen consumption (MO₂) in both marine (oysters) and freshwater (daphnia) organisms. Moreover, my data also demonstrates that co-contaminant mixtures of PFOA and PS-NPs will increase LPO in oysters by at least 3-fold. Similarly, the reduced MO₂ response in my data also suggests that the presence of TiO₂ as a co-contaminant will increase the toxicological impact of PFOA by at least 55%. Overall, my research clearly demonstrates that nanomaterial can be vectors for enhancing the transport of organic substances into organisms, and this accumulation is enhanced when smaller particles with large specific surface areas (SSA), high dispersions rates, and increased mobility are present.

There is a very large variety of possible adsorbable pollutants in the environment that are generated from sources like industrial or domestic wastewater (Gao et al. 2004; Jaroenworarluck et al. 2006; Lin et al. 2020; Ma et al. 2016b; Pettibone et al. 2008; Wang et al. 2019; Zhang et al. 2020), with

each toxicant demonstrated to have a specific toxicological effect (Geng et al. 2021b; Hagenaaers et al. 2013b; Liu et al. 2007; J. C. Martins et al. 2007; Wu and Chen 2004). Similarly, different types of nanoparticles are abundantly present in the environment as a result of release from multiple applications including medicine, pharmacy, paint, sunscreen, food colourings, etc. (Gurman et al. 1987; Hussain et al. 2010; Mattsson et al. 2018; Preočanin and Kallay 2006), with each having demonstrated to have their own toxicological impacts (Brandts et al. 2018; Chae and An 2017; Ma et al. 2016b). While the diversity of outcomes from these interactions between the NM and various toxicants is daunting, I believe that the potential effects of co-contamination in nanoparticles with various toxic chemicals are a major concern and further investigation is needed to examine the underlying properties (e.g. . surface reactivity of NPA, K_{ow} , charge) of toxicants to create modified models for the prediction of both hazard and risk assessment.

4.2 Future directions

As mentioned, there is an incredibly high variety of nanomaterials with a hydrophobic surface making them possible candidates for being a suitable vector for different hydrophobic pollutants (Gurman et al. 1987; Hussain et al. 2010; Mattsson et al. 2018; Preočanin and Kallay 2006). Additionally, there are many toxicants with adsorption capacity onto the surface on nanomaterials (Gao et al. 2004; Jaroenworoluck et al. 2006; Lin et al. 2020; Ma et al. 2016b; Pettibone et al. 2008; Wang et al. 2019; Zhang et al. 2020). Future directions should explore the potential for the adsorption of the mentioned pollutants (e.g., heavy metals, other POPs) onto the hydrophobic surface of different nanomaterials (e.g., CeO, nAg) and whether the formation of co-contaminated compounds resulting in a potentiated accumulation and toxicity of the mixture on different exposed aquatic (e.g., mussels, shrimps, and fish) and/or terrestrial (e.g., rodents and/or primates) organism.

Given that co-contamination between nanomaterials and various toxicants is constantly happening in the environment, especially near the source of the pollutant to surface waters, samples from wastewater should be analyzed for the presence of these co-contaminated compounds to demonstrate the percentage and actual level of the pollutant sorption onto the surface of NM in the presence of high natural organic matter which likely also affects the sorption capacity and enhanced toxicity of co-contamination.

My thesis demonstrated that adsorption to NMs does happen and results in higher uptake and toxicity of the pollutant. However, the potential for *NPs* to affect the excretion of the PFOA in the exposed animals remains unstudied. Additionally, I did not investigate if the POP and the *NP* remain associated inside the animal or if there is dissociation, and if so, to what extent.

Finally, although co-contamination results in various Trojan horse effects and potentiates the toxicity of various organisms in laboratory conditions (Ma et al. 2016b; Pettibone et al. 2008; Zhang et al. 2020), we are unsure of the impact in real-world scenarios. Given that applications of nanomaterial and their uses is highly beneficial for multiple fields including medicine and industry, it is unwise to ask for production to be slowed as the benefits likely outweigh the harm as this point and current regulations have considerable safety factors worked into regulations. Nontoxic chemicals (including proteins, DOC, etc.) are known to form Eco-coronas by sorption to the surface of the nanomaterial including Plastic and TiO₂ nanoparticles (Cai et al. 2022; Khan et al. 2020). This adsorption likely results in the blockage of the surface and inhibition of the adsorption of other toxicants. Future research conducting experiments to evaluate the possibility of formation and effects of other possible protein or non-protein coronas when *NPs* are released into the environment is recommended.

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