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D. Bertin, P. Labadie, B.J.D. Ferrari, A. Sapin, J. Garric, et al.. Potential exposure routes and accumulation kinetics for poly- and perfluorinated alkyl compounds for a freshwater amphipod: Gammarus spp. (Crustacea). Chemosphere, 2016, 155, pp.380-387. 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2016.04.006 . hal-01868211

HAL Id: hal-01868211 https://hal.science/hal-01868211

Submitted on 5 Sep 2018

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Potential exposure routes and accumulation kinetics for poly- and perfluorinated alkyl compounds for a freshwater amphipod: *Gammarus* spp. (Crustacea)

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1 Highlights

- Gammarids were exposed to field sediments from downstream of a fluoropolymer
 plant.
- The steady state was not achieved after 21 days.
- Elimination rates were dependent on the perfluorinated carbon chain length.
- Clearance was high up to 8-9 perfluorinated carbons.
- Kinetic BSAFs exceeded 1 for compounds having more than 8 perfluorinated
 carbons.

9 Abstract

10 Gammarids were exposed to sediments from a deposition site located on the Rhône River (France) downstream of a fluoropolymer manufacturing plant. Gammarids accumulated to 11 various extents four long-chain perfluoroalkyl carboxylic acids (PFCAs) from C9 to C13, one 12 sulfonate, perfluorooctane sulfonate (PFOS) and three of its precursors (the perflurooctane 13 sulfonamide (FOSA), the N-methyl perfluorooctane sulfonamidoacetic acid (MeFOSAA), the 14 N-ethyl perfluorooctane sulfonamidoacetic acid (EtFOSAA) and the 6:2 fluorotelomer 15 sulfonic acid (6:2 FTSA). Whatever the compound, the steady state was not achieved after a 16 3-week exposure; elimination was almost complete after a 3-week depuration period for 17 18 perfluorononanoic acid (PFNA), PFOS, the three precursors and the 6:2FTSA. However, this was not the case for long-chain PFCAs, whose elimination rates decreased with increasing 19 chain length. PFAS accumulation in gammarids occurred via the trophic and respiratory 20 pathways, in proportions varying with the carbon chain length and the terminal moiety. 21

22 Keywords

perfluorinated compounds; sediment; *Gammarus* spp.; exposure route; uptake rate; clearance;
BSAF

25 **1. Introduction**

26 Poly- and perfluorinated alkyl compounds (PFASs) are present in all media (water, sediment, biota, humans) and are subject to large-scale distribution as far as the polar regions (Giesy and 27 Kannan, 2001; Houde et al., 2006; Houde et al., 2011). Many studies have shown PFASs' 28 29 bioaccumulation in various species, including top-predators, and a few of them point to sediment as a PFAS source (Martin et al., 2004; Armitage et al., 2006; Loi et al., 2011). In 30 31 2009, perfluorooctane sulfonate (PFOS) and related compounds were registered under Annex of В the Stockholm Convention Persistent Pollutants 32 on Organic (http://chm.pops.int/TheConvention/ThePOPs/TheNewPOPs/tabid/2511/Default.aspx). 33

Although they are located at the basis of many food webs, little is known about PFAS transfer 34 35 from sediment to benthic organisms. The oligochaete Lumbriculus variegatus accumulated seven perfluoroalkyl carboxylic acids (PFCAs; carbon chain length ranging from C7 to C14) 36 and three perfluoroalkane sulfonates (perfluorobutane sulfonic acid - PFBS, perfluorooctane 37 sulfonic acid - PFOS and perfluorodecane sulfonic acid - PFDS) from sediment in two 38 39 laboratory experiments (Higgins et al., 2007; Lasier et al., 2011). However, the PFAS 40 accumulation pathways and the factors influencing their bioaccumulation were not identified. Two studies of midge (Chironomus riparius) larvae exposed to field sediment showed rapid 41 accumulation and elimination of two PFCAs (C11, perfluoroundecanoic acid [PFUnDA] and 42 43 C₁₃ acid perfluorotridecanoic [PFTrDA]), PFOS and its perfluorooctane sulfonamide precursor (FOSA) (Bertin et al., 2014; Bertin et al., submitted). Like oligochaetes, chironomid 44 larvae are in direct contact with sediment, and accumulation occurs through food ingestion 45

and diffusion from pore water (PW) through the tegument. Biota to sediment accumulation factors (BSAFs) for chironomids were lower than BSAFs reported previously for *Lumbriculus variegatus* (Higgins et al., 2007; Lasier et al., 2011). This difference could be related to the respective experimental designs (uncontaminated food added to chironomids experiments), to physiology, or to differing life traits, in particular feeding habits (Bertin et al., submitted). We found no study addressing these issues for PFASs.

The Gammarus sp. is a freshwater invertebrate widely used in ecotoxicology. It is a 52 widespread epi-benthic species, present throughout the Northern hemisphere. Furthermore, 53 this species is an important food source for fish, amphibians and birds (MacNeil et al., 1997). 54 It feeds mainly by shredding the leaf litter (Tachet et al., 2010). This behaviour plays an 55 56 important role in the nutrient cycle and contributes to redistributing organic matter in the riverine ecosystem. In addition, gammarids graze organic biofilm at the litter surface, and 57 ingest fine organic matter particulates from sediment deposits. They can also adopt a predator 58 position (MacNeil et al., 1997). Gammarids are also known for their capacity to accumulate 59 various organic and inorganic contaminants (Amiard et al., 1987; Ashauer et al., 2010; Lebrun 60 et al., 2011; Tlili et al., 2012). 61

The aim of the present study was to determine the PFAS accumulation pathways and kinetics in a benthic species, *Gammarus* sp. in realistic conditions, because its biology and life traits differ from those previously studied. The objectives were (i) to identify the contamination routes in the accumulation of PFASs by gammarids, (ii) to describe PFAS accumulation and elimination kinetics and (iii) to compare the kinetic constants and BSAFs obtained for gammarids to those available for other benthic species and to discuss the differences according to the respective life traits and physiology.

69 2. Materials and methods

70 2.1. Sediments

In October 2013, a sample of approximately 60 L of sediment was taken from the river bed of 71 a deposition site in the Rhone River (eastern central France, N45°28'17.0"E4°46'43.4"). This 72 site is located 40 km downstream of a fluoropolymer manufacturing plant, where 73 polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) and various fluorinated polymers have been synthesized 74 75 since the 1980s (Dauchy et al., 2012). The known releases from this site include mainly a range of perfluoroalkyl acids, in particular the perfluorohexanoic (PFHxA) and 76 perfluorononanoic acids (PFNA), used as a carrier (solvent) of fluorinated polymers. Some 77 longer chain perfluoroalkyl acids, such as the perfluoroundecanoic and perfluorotridecanoic 78 acids (PFUnDA, PFTrDA respectively), are believed to be impurities of the technical PFNA. 79 Surface sediment was collected using a Van-Veen grab, sieved at 2 mm, pooled in a 80 polypropylene (PP) jar and stored at 4°C in the laboratory. Twelve aquaria (38 x 20 x 24.5 cm 81 in polystyrene) were prepared with 4 L of homogenized sediment and 15 L of groundwater 82 with 400-500 µS.cm⁻¹ conductivity. Each aquarium was allowed to settle for 1 week before 83 introducing the gammarids. Twelve aquaria were prepared with only groundwater for the 84 controls. 85

86 2.2. Collection and maintenance of gammarids

Three weeks before the start of the experiment, adult gammarids, i.e. a mixture of *Gammarus fossarum* and *Gammarus pulex*, $(9.5 \pm 0.8 \text{ mm})$ were collected with a hand net at a remote/uncontaminated site (La Mouge River, N46°50'97.2"E4°75'63.9"). Gammarids were kept in a bucket on ice, and brought to the laboratory. They were acclimatized for 3 weeks in aquaria with continuously renewed groundwater under constant aeration; a 16:8 h light:dark photoperiod was maintained and the temperature was kept at 12°C. Organisms were fed ad libitum with alder leaves (*Alnus glutinosa*).

94 2.3. *Gammarus sp.* exposure

One experiment was conducted in two phases: the first step examined PFAS accumulation 95 kinetics while the second step considered PFAS elimination (Figure S1 in SI). Only male 96 gammarids were selected, in order to eliminate potential biases due to neonate release by 97 females. For the accumulation step, 450 individuals were added to nine sediment aquaria (50 98 per aquarium) and 150 individuals were added to three control aquaria (50 organisms per 99 aquarium). All the aquaria were made in polystyrene (PS) materials; flexible pipes were made 100 of low-density poly-ethylene (PE, Versilic [®]). Gammarids were collected at 7 (T1), 15 (T2) 101 and 21 (T3) days, one aquarium being sacrificed at each time. For the elimination step, 450 102 gammarids were added to three sediment aquaria (150/aq.) and exposed for 21 days. After 3 103 104 weeks of sediment exposure, the organisms were transferred to a clean media (about 450 organisms in three flow-through aquaria filled with groundwater completely renewed four 105 106 times per day). About 50 gammarids were killed at 7 (T4), 15 (T5), and 21 (T6) days after the 107 transfer. The control gammarids were also killed after 42 days (Te, about 50 organisms). For both experiments, overlying water (OW) was continuously renewed (four times a day) under 108 constant aeration. A 16:8 h light:dark photoperiod and a temperature of 12°C were maintained 109 during the experiments. The organisms were fed ad libitum with alder leaves (Alnus 110 glutinosa), previously conditioned for 3 days in groundwater; freshly pre-conditioned leaves 111 were added once a week. Each week the water quality parameters (pH, temperature, 112 concentration of dissolved oxygen, conductivity, NO_2^- and NH_4^+) were monitored 113 (experimental design shown in Fig. S1). 114

115 2.4. Sample collection

Overlying water (OW) was sampled directly in a 1 L polyethylene (PE) bottle at T1, T2, T3,
T4, T5, T6 and in the controls. PW was obtained with Rhizon® systems (SDEC, Reignac-sur-

Indre, France) following the method developed in (Seeberg-Elverfeldt et al., 2005) and was sampled at T1, T2 and T3. Sediment was also sampled at T1, T2 and T3. Leaves were sampled at T0, T1, T2, T3, T4, T5, T6 and once in the controls. Before freezing, leaf samples were rinsed with groundwater to remove sediment particles. Like the leaf samples, organisms were sampled at T0, T1, T2, T3, T4, T5, T6 and in the controls. Then these biota samples were cryopreserved in liquid nitrogen and stored at -21°C (Reiner et al., 2012).

124 2.5. PFAS extraction

For sediment, gammarid samples, leaf samples and the fish tissues used as reference matrix 125 126 (NIST SRM 1947, Reiner et al., 2012), PFASs were extracted using sonication following the method described in Bertin et al. (2014). The OW and PW samples were processed using 127 Strata-X-AW cartridges as described by Labadie and Chevreuil (2011). Sediment or tissue 128 129 samples were extracted by sonication using methanol (MeOH), concentrated under a nitrogen 130 stream, purified on ENVI-Carb cartridges and eluted with MeOH. Eluates were concentrated to 400 µl under a nitrogen stream and transferred into injection vials. Details are provided in 131 SI. 132

133 2.6. LC-MS/MS analysis and chemicals

PFASs (list of compounds and acronyms in SI, table S1) were analysed by LC-MS/MS using an Agilent 1200 LC system (Agilent Technology, Massy, France) interfaced with an Agilent 6490 triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (details in SI, Table S2). The purchase of the chemicals and their source are described in the supplementary data; most were purchased from Wellington Laboratories (via BCP Instruments, Irigny, France) and Sigma-Aldrich (St Quentin Fallavier, France).

140 2.7. Quality control and method performance

Analyte recovery was determined using spiked samples for each matrix (OW and PW, 141 sediment and gammarids). Native PFAS recovery ranged from 73% to 122% with a relative 142 standard deviation below 33% for fish and spiked sand except for perfluoropentanoic acid 143 (PFPeA) and PFBS. Native PFAS recovery for spiked waters (OW and PW) ranged from 65% 144 118% with a relative standard deviation below 12% 145 to except PFTrDA, perfluorotetradecanoic acid (PFTeDA), 6:2 fluorotelomer sulfonic acid (6:2 FTSA), N-ethyl 146 perfluorooctane sulfonamidoacetic acid (EtFOSAA), N-methyl perfluorooctane sulfonamide 147 (MeFOSA) and N-ethyl perfluorooctane sulfonamide (EtFOSA) (Table S3 in SI). 148

Replicate procedural blanks were analysed for each series of samples (details in Table S4 in 149 SI). For the water sample procedure, the predominant compound was PFPeA (mean level: 160 150 \pm 8 pg, *n*=4) and perfluorodecanoic acid (PFDA) (mean level: 34 \pm 5 pg, *n*=4). For tissue, 151 sediment and leaf samples, the prevailing analytes in blanks were PFPeA (123 pg) and PFDA 152 (31 pg). PFAS concentrations were therefore blank-corrected when applicable. For 153 154 compounds present in blanks, the limits of detection (LDs) were defined as three times the standard deviation, and the limits of quantification (LQs) were set at 10 times the standard 155 deviation of the blank (Muir and Sverko, 2006; Munoz et al., 2015). For analytes not detected 156 in blanks, LDs and LQs were determined as the concentration with a signal-to-noise ratio of 3 157 and 9, respectively. This was calculated on matrices spiked at 0.3-1.8 ng g⁻¹ (sediment and 158 *Gammarus spp.*) and 0.9-17.3 ng L⁻¹ (Vittel® mineral water samples) (Table S6). The PFASs 159 measured in NIST SRM 1947 Lake Michigan Fish Tissue compared well with reference 160 values (SI Table S6). 161

162 2.8. Data analyses and modelling

Data were checked for normality using the Shapiro-Wilk test and were analysed using the
Kruskal-Wallis test (a non-parametric test) and the Mann-Whitney test using R language (R
Core Team, 2014a, b).

Assuming sediment was the main source of PFASs for the gammarids, accumulation data were adjusted to a two-compartment model (Spacie and Hamelink, 1985; Landrum, 1989). Equation (1) was used to estimate the uptake and elimination coefficients (k_u and k_e , respectively).

170
$$\frac{dC_{org}}{dt} = k_u \times C_{sed} - k_e \times C_{org}$$
 Eq. (1)

171 with C_{org} the PFAS concentration in organisms (ng.g⁻¹ww), C_{sed} the PFAS concentration in 172 sediment (ng g⁻¹dw), k_u expressed in g g⁻¹ww.d⁻¹ and k_e in d⁻¹. In the selected size range, 173 gammarids do not grow significantly within the experiment duration, so there is no need to 174 correct for growth.

175 Elimination data can also be adjusted directly to an exponential decrease model (Eq. 2).

176
$$C_{org}(t) = C_0 \cdot e^{-k_e t}$$
 Eq. (2)

where C_0 is the PFAS concentration at the start of the elimination phase (ng g⁻¹ww). 177 Conceptually, k_e values obtained from Eqs. 1 and 2 are identical: Eq. 2 corresponds to the 178 179 integrated form of Eq. 1 when Cs_{ed} is set to 0. Nevertheless k_e values obtained from the two approaches can differ when fitted on independent data sets. Model calculations were 180 performed in R language using the $\langle de \rangle$ function, and k_u and k_e were optimized 181 182 simultaneously with the least square method using the <<optim>> function implemented in the $\langle 2014a \rangle$ When k_u and k_e are processed in this way, 183 the whole data set including both uptake and elimination experimental data can be used, 184 avoiding differences in k_e values derived from separate adjustments. 185

186 The kinetic biota-to-sediment accumulation factor ($BSAF_{kinetic}$) is derived from the uptake and 187 elimination rate constants (Eq. 3):

188
$$BSAF_{kinetic} = \frac{k_u}{k_e}$$
 Eq. (3)

- 189 The elimination half-life $(T_{1/2})$ is obtained according to Eq. (4):
- 190 $T_{1/2} = \frac{ln2}{k_e}$ Eq. (4)

191 **3. Results**

- 192 3.1. PFAS distribution in water, sediment and leaves
- 193 Water in control aquaria displayed low concentrations of PFHpA, PFOA, PFNA, PFDA,
- 194 PFUnDA, as well as perfluorohexane sulfonate (PFHxS), PFOS and 6:2FTSA (0.01 0.07 ng
- 195 L^{-1}) while PFBA, PFPA and PFHxA reached higher concentrations (1.35, 0.25 and 0.24 ng L⁻¹)
- ¹96 ¹, respectively). The contamination profile in sediments (test aquaria, T1 to T3) was
- dominated by PFUnDA (1.19 \pm 0.15 ng g⁻¹ dry weight dw) and PFTrDA (2.09 \pm 0.10 ng g⁻¹

198 dw); PFHxA, PFNA, PFDA, perfluorododecanoic acid (PFDoDA), PFOS and 6:2FTSA

ranged from 0.1 to 0.5 ng g^{-1} dw, while other compounds, such as PFOA, N-methyl

- 200 perfluorooctane sulfonamidoacetic acid (MeFOSAA) and FOSA, ranged from <LD (0.003-
- 201 0.013 ng g⁻¹ dw) to 0.1 ng g⁻¹ dw. In PW the dominant compounds were PFHxA (97.95 \pm
- 202 17.41 ng L⁻¹), PFNA (7.10 \pm 1.98 ng L⁻¹) and PFUnDA (6.05 \pm 0.97 ng L⁻¹); PFPA, PFOA,
- 203 PFBS and PFOS were within the range $1.0-5.0 \text{ ng L}^{-1}$, with other compounds undetected (e.g.
- 204 PFDA, PFTrDA, PFBS, FOSA, 6:2FTSA) to ≤ 1.0 ng L⁻¹ (PFHpA, MeFOSAA). PFHxA (2.59
- ± 0.23 ng L⁻¹) was still the most concentrated compound in OW; PFBA, PFPA, PFHpA,
- 206 PFOA, PFTrDA, PFBS, PFHxS and PFOS concentrations were within the range 0.5–1.5 ng L⁻
- ¹. The concentrations of other compounds, including PFNA, PFUnDA and 6:2FTSA were <
- 208 0.5 ng L⁻¹. PFUnDA (0.53 \pm 0.34 ng g⁻¹ dw), PFTrDA (0.40 \pm 0.23 ng g⁻¹ dw) and PFOS

209 $(0.63 \pm 0.38 \text{ ng g}^{-1} \text{ dw})$ displayed the highest concentrations in alder leaves; PFPA, PFOA,

210 PFNA, and EtFOSAA ranged from 0.05 to 0.5 ng g^{-1} dw. PFHxA, PFDoDA, PFHxS,

211 MeFOSAA and FOSA were measured at levels <0.05 ng g⁻¹ dw; other compounds such as

- 212 PFDA or 6:2FTSA remained undetected in this matrix. Details are shown in SI (Table S6).
- 213 3.2. Gammarid survival, PFAS accumulation and elimination
- 214 Organisms from the reference site (La Mouge) displayed a limited contamination by a range

of PFCAs (PFOA, PFNA, PFDA, PFDoDA and PFTrDA, all around 0.1–0.0.3 ng g⁻¹ (ww),

and PFOS (0.93 \pm 0.2 ng g⁻¹ww). After acclimatization for 3 weeks, all concentrations

remained similar, except for PFUnDA, which increased to 0.19 ng g^{-1} (ww) and PFOS, which

fell to 0.09 ± 0.002 ng g⁻¹ww (Table S7 in SI). Gammarid survival was > 75% in control

aquaria, and > 80% in test aquaria except at T6 (54%, 66% and 6% respectively). Organisms

220 from this aquarium with a low survival rate were not considered further.

- 221 PFAS concentrations in OW remained steady during the course of the experiment (Figure S2-
- A in SI), except PFOA (decrease at day 21), PFTrDA (<LD at day 7, 2.62 ng L⁻¹ at day 15,
- and 0.14 ng L^{-1} at day 21) and PFBS (increase at day 21). PFAS concentrations in PW were in

the 1-10 ng L^{-1} range (PFPA, PFHpA, PFOA, PFNA, PFUnDA, PFHxS, PFOS) or below

225 (PFDA, PFBS), and steady (Figure S2-B), with two exceptions: PFHxA, which decreased

from 116 ng L^{-1} at day 7 to 81 ng L^{-1} at day 21 (Figure S2-B), and PFTrDA which remained

undetected. PFAS concentrations were also steady in the sediment (Figure S2-C).

Nine of ten compounds (PFCAs: PFNA, PFUnDA, PFDoDA, PFTrDA; PFOS and precursors:
PFOS, MeFOSAA, EtFOSAA, FOSA; 6:2FTSA) displayed significantly higher
concentrations in test gammarids at 21 days (T3) compared with control organisms (Table 1).

- **Table 1:** Mean PFAS concentration in gammarids in control aquaria and at T3 (ng g⁻¹wet weight (ww)) (±
- standard deviation, n=3). (*) significant difference between test and control (p-value < 0.05).

Compounds	Concentration in gammarids	Concentration in gammarids	
	in control aquaria (ng g ⁻¹ ww)	(ng g ⁻¹ ww) at 21 days	
PFOA	0.43 ± 0.14	0.36 ± 0.04	
PFNA	<0.09 (LQ)	0.20 ± 0.01 (*)	
PFUnDA	0.11 ± 0.02	2.29 ± 0.60 (*)	
PFDoDA	0.12 ± 0.01	0.39 ± 0.03 (*)	
PFTrDA	<0.02 (LD)	3.18 ± 0.19 (*)	
PFOS	0.17 ± 0.07	0.84 ± 0.17 (*)	
6:2 FTSA	<0.01 (LD)	0.13 ± 0.06 (*)	
MeFOSAA	<0.04 (LQ)	0.11 ± 0.03 (*)	
EtFOSAA	< 0.02 (LD)	0.16 ± 0.05 (*)	
FOSA	<0.02 (LQ)	0.14 ± 0.01 (*)	

234

- 235 Concentrations of most PFASs were still increasing at T3 (21 days), so the steady state was
- not reached at 3 weeks of exposure (Figure 1).

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Figure 1 : Accumulation and elimination kinetics of selected PFAS; errors bars represent the standard deviation of measurements (n = 3, except for the last depuration point T6) – Curves represent model outputs.



246	The results from the accumulation and elimination experiments fitted the two-compartment
247	model well (Eq. 1; Figures 1 and S3 and S4 in SI): the distance between the observed and
248	simulated data ranged from 0.0001 to 0.039, and R^2 ranged from 0.78 to 0.97 except for
249	FOSA ($R^2 = 0.54$) and PFDoDA ($R^2 = 0.29$) (Table 2). The uptake rates (k_u) ranged from
250	0.053 to 0.242 g.g _{ww} .d ⁻¹ and the elimination rates (k_e) from 0.042 to 0.276 d ⁻¹ (Table 2). Given
251	that elimination was not significant for PFDoDA and PFTrDA, the k_e values provided by the
252	model calculations for these compounds are indicative, as are the corresponding BSAFs.
253	

Table 2: Model outcomes. The values in brackets for PFDoDA and PFTrDA are tentative, because eliminationwas not significant for these compounds.

	PFCAs				PFOS, 6:2 FTSA and PFOS precursors				
Compounds	PFNA	PFUnDA	PFDoDA	PFTrDA	PFOS	6:2 FTSA	MeFOSAA	EtFOSAA	FOSA
Distance	0.001	0.013	0.004	0.039	0.023	0.002	0.0001	0.001	0.001
\mathbb{R}^2	0.899	0.965	0.290	0.968	0.804	0.782	0.947	0.821	0.537
k_u (g g _{ww} .d ⁻¹)	0.094	0.141	0.078	0.089	0.202	0.242	0.129	0.053	0.218
$k_e \left(\mathrm{d}^{-1} \right)$	0.087	0.048	(0.015)	(0.011)	0.042	0.276	0.060	nd	0.066
BSAF	1.08	2.92	(5.05)	(8.13)	4.76	0.88	2.13	nd	3.32
N perfluorinated C	8	10	11	12	8	6	8	8	8

256

BSAF_{kinetic} values tended to increase as the PFCA chain length increased. In addition, BSAF is also higher for PFOS than for PFNA, which has the same number of perfluorinated carbons (Table 2). All compounds with more than 8 perfluorinated carbons display $BSAF_{kinetic}$ values above 1, with the exception of EtFOSAA. Note that EtFOSAA concentrations varied between LD and LQ during the elimination phase, so both k_e and $BSAF_{kinetic}$ values could not be determined.

263 4. Discussion

4.1. PFAS distribution in water, sediment, food and *Gammarus* sp.

The comparison of PFAS concentrations in each compartment (OW, PW, sediment, leaves 265 266 and gammarids) in control and test aquaria at the beginning and end of the experiment makes it possible to identify the transfers between the compartments and design a conceptual 267 diagram of PFAS transport (Figure 2). A transfer from one compartment to another is 268 assumed when a compound is present in both compartments in test aquaria, but undetected in 269 one of them in controls. PFBA, MeFOSAA and EtFOSAA are present at similar 270 271 concentrations in both control and test OWs throughout the experiment, while other PFAS 272 concentrations increase by several orders of magnitude, suggesting transfers from PW (e.g. PFHxA, PFHpA, PFHxS) or sediment particles via PW (e.g. PFUnDA). Thus PFUnDA was 273 274 presumably transferred from sediment to leaves. PFUnDA is both associated to sediment particles and dissolved in PW: therefore gammarids may have taken PFUnDA from both PW 275 and leaves or sediment. PFTrDA concentrations varied widely in OW (range <LD – 2.62 ng 276 L⁻¹) but remained undetected in PW. Since the water was not filtered prior to extraction and 277 analysis, the concentrations measured in OW and PW represented the total concentrations 278 279 (dissolved + sorbed to suspended particles). On the other hand, PFTrDA concentrations could be underestimated in PW, as a consequence of sorption to Rhizon ® materials. 280 Notwithstanding these uncertainties concerning PFTrDA measurements in water 281 compartments, the higher load on sediment particles as well as its K_{OC} value (Munoz et al., 282 2015) supports the hypothesis that PFTrDA uptake occurred much more through the ingestion 283 of contaminated particles than from water. This hypothesis is consistent with previous 284 285 conclusions about the PFCA benthic source signature for Lake Ontario Diporeia (an amphipod species) (Martin et al., 2004). 286

During the exposure period, gammarid activity mobilized particles, which deposited on the leaves' surface. Two PFAS transfer pathways to the leaves are therefore possible: (i) by diffusion from water, or (ii) from sediment particles and water. These transfers could involve

the microbial biofilm on the leaves' surface. Indeed, the leaf conditioning before their 290 291 addition to the aquaria led to the microorganism's colonization (Abelho, 2001; Aßmann et al., 2011) and biofilms are known for accumulating trace elements (Farag et al., 1998; van 292 Hullebusch et al., 2003) as well as organic compounds (Widenfalk et al., 2008; Writer et al., 293 294 2011). Nevertheless, PFAS transfer to the leaves themselves was probably limited, because leaves were renewed every week. Like PFUnDA and PFNA, PFOS accumulation by 295 gammarids could have occurred via water (OW) and leaves concurrently. In summary, 296 gammarids accumulate PFASs by two potential contamination routes: the trophic route, i.e. 297 ingestion of leaves and sediment particles, and the respiratory route. The former was 298 299 predominant for long-chain compounds such as PFTrDA and PFDoDA, while the latter was 300 also involved for PFOS, PFNA and PFUnDA (Figure 2). As a consequence, the k_u values are overestimated for these three compounds, because the derivation process assumed sediment 301 was the main source. The k_e values are not affected. 302



303

304 Figure 2: Conceptual diagram of PFAS distribution between compartments

305 4.2. PFAS bioaccumulation

The concentrations observed in gammarids in the present experiment are within the same 306 range as in the few studies that reported PFAS concentrations in crustaceans from the field 307 (Kannan et al., 2005; Haukås et al., 2007). FOSA concentrations (<2 ng g⁻¹ww) were lower in 308 freshwater amphipods from a Great Lake food web (Kannan et al., 2005) than those found in 309 gammarids in our study. PFOS and PFOA concentrations were higher in marine gammarids 310 (Gammarus wilkitzkii) from the Barents Sea than in the present study, whereas the opposite 311 was found for 6:2 FTSA (0.48 \pm 0.24 ng g⁻¹ww)(Haukås et al., 2007). Long chain compounds 312 were not often measured in monitoring studies, except in two shrimp species (Peneaus 313 monodon and Metapenaeus ensis) (Loi et al., 2011). (Martin et al., 2004) also analysed a 314 315 range of PFCAs in the Ontario food-web, observing decreasing concentrations with increasing chain length, but they did not report the respective concentrations in sediments. They stated 316 that the contamination profile observed in Diporeia and sculpin (a benthic-feeding fish 317 318 species) reflected a benthic source signature. Such comparisons nevertheless remain difficult, because (i) different species were considered and (ii) the exposure concentrations were 319 different and did not necessarily involve water and sediment in all cases. 320

According to accumulation kinetics, the steady state was not reached at 3 weeks of exposure. 321 For the pesticides chlorpyrifos and pentachlorophenol (Ashauer et al., 2006), the steady state 322 was achieved between 48 and 72h for Gammarus pulex: for chlorpyrifos resulted from a 323 decline of the exposure concentration in the test vessel, while for carvedilol and fluoxetine the 324 325 steady state was not reached in 48 hours (Meredith-Williams et al., 2012). Ashauer et al., (2006) explained the differences between pentachlorophenol and chlorpyrifos by 326 327 hydrophobicity. Furthermore, Meredith-Williams et al. (2012) assigned the variations in uptake rates of several pharmaceuticals (5-fluorouracil, carbamazepine, diazepam, 328 moclobemide, carvedilol and fluoxetine) at an estimated steady state to the respective 329

ionization state. Nevertheless, both studies were conducted in water, with neither sediment 330 331 nor food present, which presumably lead to different kinetics compared to the present study. These observations and the need for longer equilibration times for PFASs suggest that 332 transport mechanisms across membranes are more complex than simple diffusion. The failure 333 to achieve steady state within 3 weeks could also be due to the formation of PFCAs (or 334 335 PFSAs) in sediment or gammarids from unanalysed precursors. We nevertheless discarded this hypothesis, bcause (i) PFCA and PFSA concentrations remained steady in sediment 336 during the experiment, and (ii) the corresponding kinetics in sediments are deemed to be very 337 low (Liu and Mejia Avendaño, 2013). 338

In spite of the failure to achieve the steady state, the determination of the uptake and 339 340 elimination constant rates allowed determining kinetic BSAFs. For PFCAs, these BSAFs are positively correlated with the number of perfluorinated carbons (Pearson correlation 341 coefficient, 0.958; p-value 0.042; when all compounds including PFOS, its precursors and 6:2 342 343 FTSA are accounted for, the Pearson coefficient is still 0.797, and the *p*-value = 0.01). Moreover, the BSAF for PFOS was higher than for PFNA, which has the same number of 344 fluorinated carbons, as already shown in previous studies (Martin et al., 2003a, b; Lasier et al., 345 2011). 346

347 4.3. Comparison between gammarids and chironomids

Despite the inherent spatial and temporal variability of the PFAS sediment concentrations in the field, the sediment molecular profile contamination in this study and in studies with the midge *Chironomus riparius* using a similar design (Bertin et al., 2014; Bertin et al., submitted) are comparable (Table S8). Uptake and elimination rates were estimated with the approach in both studies. The respective kinetics presented several differences between these two species: chironomids did not accumulate PFNA, unlike gammarids. Despite a shorter

exposure (4 days) according to its life cycle, chironomids' k_u for PFUnDA (0.70 g g_{ww}.d⁻¹), 354 PFTrDA (0.93 g g_{ww} .d⁻¹), PFOS (1.27 g g_{ww} .d⁻¹) and FOSA (2.02 g g_{ww} .d⁻¹) were higher than for 355 gammarids (Table 2). PFAS elimination by chironomids was faster than for gammarids and 356 357 complete after 42 h. In addition, PFCAs k_e values for chironomids were negatively correlated with the carbon chain-length for compounds with more than nine perfluorinated carbons in 358 gammarids. BSAFs were also higher for all PFASs for gammarids than for chironomids, 359 consistent with the gammarids' slower elimination. These differences between these two 360 invertebrates could be explained by different exposure routes related to the organisms' 361 lifestyles and physiology. The chironomid is a benthic invertebrate feeding on organic matter 362 associated with sediment particles, whereas the gammarids are shredder epi-benthic 363 organisms, living in the water column with occasional contact with sediment. For 364 chironomids, the trophic pathways were identified as the main PFAS exposure route (Bertin et 365 366 al., 2014; Bertin et al., in prep.) while for gammarids the trophic route was predominant for longer chain (>11) PFCAs, and both respiratory and trophic routes were involved for C8-C10 367 compounds. 368

369 **5.** Conclusion

370 The study results reported here show an accumulation by gammarids of four long-chain PFCAs (PFNA, PFUnDA, PFDoDA and PFTrDA), one PFSA (PFOS), three precursors 371 (MeFOSAA, EtFOSAA, FOSA) and one fluorotelomer (6:2 FTSA) from the sediment. The 372 373 steady state was not reached at 3 weeks of exposure. In addition, the depuration of PFOS, 374 precursors and 6:2 FTSA was almost complete in 21 days but not for the long-chain PFCAs. The PFCA depuration time increases as the chain length increases. Moreover, in agreement 375 376 with previous studies (Martin et al., 2003a, b; Lasier et al., 2011), the BSAFs of PFCA values also seem to increase as the chain length increases. The PFAS pathway follows digestive and 377 respiratory routes. In comparison with PFAS bioaccumulation by chironomids, where the 378

- 379 PFAS accumulation and elimination were fast and complete after 42 h, and the behavioural
- 380 differences existing between these two organisms, it is clear that lifestyle has an impact on
- 381 PFAS exposure routes and subsequent bioaccumulation.

382 Acknowledgements

- 383 This study was funded by the Rhone-Mediterranean and Corsica Water Agency and the
- 384 Rhone-Alps Region within the Rhone ecological restoration plan. The Aquitaine Region and
- the European Union (CPER A2E project) are acknowledged for their financial support. This
- study also benefitted from grants from the French National Research Agency (ANR) as part
- 387 of the Investments for the Future Program, within the Cluster of Excellence COTE (ANR-10-
- LABX-45). We thank Linda Northrup (English Solutions, Voiron, France) for copy editing
- the text.

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485 Figure captions

- 486 Figure 2 : Accumulation and elimination kinetics of selected PFAS; errors bars represent the standard deviation
- 487 of measurements (n = 3, except for the last depuration point T6) Curves represent model outputs.
- 488 Figure 2: Conceptual diagram of PFAS distribution between compartments

489 Table captions

- 490 Table 3: Mean PFAS concentration in gammarids in control aquaria and at T3 (ng.g⁻¹wet weight (ww)) (±
- 491 standard deviation, n=3). (*) significant difference between test and control (p-value < 0.05).
- Table 4: Model outcomes. The values in brackets for PFDoDA and PFTrDA are tentative, because elimination
- 493 was not significant for these compounds.

Potential exposure routes and accumulation kinetics for poly- and perfluorinated alkyl compounds for a freshwater amphipod: Gammarus spp. (Crustacea)

Figure captions

Figure 1 : Accumulation and elimination kinetics of selected PFAS; errors bars represent the standard deviation of measurements (n = 3, except for the last depuration point T6) – Curves represent model outputs.

Figure 2: Conceptual diagram of PFAS distribution between compartments

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(Table 1)

Compounds	Concentration in gammarids	Concentration in gammarids
	in control aquaria (ng.g ⁻¹ ww)	$(ng.g^{-1}ww)$ at 21 days
PFOA	0.43 ± 0.14	0.36 ± 0.04
PFNA	<0.09 (LQ)	0.20 ± 0.01 (*)
PFUnDA	0.11 ± 0.02	2.29 ± 0.60 (*)
PFDoDA	0.12 ± 0.01	0.39 ± 0.03 (*)
PFTrDA	<0.02 (LD)	3.18 ± 0.19 (*)
PFOS	0.17 ± 0.07	0.84 ± 0.17 (*)
6:2 FTSA	<0.01 (LD)	0.13 ± 0.06 (*)
MeFOSAA	<0.04 (LQ)	0.11 ± 0.03 (*)
EtFOSAA	< 0.02 (LD)	0.16 ± 0.05 (*)
FOSA	<0.02 (LQ)	0.14 ± 0.01 (*)

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	PFCAs				PFOS, 6:2 FTSA and PFOS precursors				
Compounds	PFNA	PFUnDA	PFDoDA	PFTrDA	PFOS	6:2 FTSA	MeFOSAA	EtFOSAA	FOSA
Distance	0.001	0.013	0.004	0.039	0.023	0.002	0.0001	0.001	0.001
R^2	0.899	0.965	0.290	0.968	0.804	0.782	0.947	0.821	0.537
k_u (g.g _{ww} .d ⁻¹)	0.094	0.141	0.078	0.089	0.202	0.242	0.129	0.053	0.218
$k_e \left(\mathrm{d}^{-1} \right)$	0.087	0.048	(0.015)	(0.011)	0.042	0.276	0.060	nd	0.066
BSAF	1.08	2.92	(5.05)	(8.13)	4.76	0.88	2.13	nd	3.32
N perfluorinated C	8	10	11	12	8	6	8	8	8

(Table 2)