

# Microplastics and sorbed contaminants – Trophic exposure in fish sensitive early life stages

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18

#### 19 Abstract

- 20 The present study evaluated very small microplastic particle (MPs) transfer to zebrafish and
- 21 marine medaka larvae *via* prey experimentally exposed to MPs from the onset of feeding.
- 22 Larvae were fed Paramecium or Artemia nauplii loaded with fluorescent 1-5 or 10-20 µm
- 23 MPs. Pollutant accumulation was analyzed by optically tracking of benzo[a]pyrene (BaP) and
- recording cyp1a transcription. Paramecium transferred 1-5 µm particles only, whereas Arte-
- 25 *mia* efficiently transferred both MPs. Although zebrafish and medaka larvae fed from the on-
- set of active food intake (2-3 dph, respectively) on *Paramecium* and from days 6-7 post-hatch
- 27 on Artemia nauplii, neither MP accumulation nor translocation to tissues was detected. MP
- egestion started within few hours after ingestion. *Cyp1a* induction and fluorescent analyses
  proved BaP bioavailability after transfer *via Paramecium* and *Artemia*. Unicellular or plank-
- ton organisms ingest contaminants *via* MPS and transfer effectively these to sensitive early
- 31 life-stages of vertebrates, giving rise to whole-life exposure.
- 32
- 33 Keywords: Trophic transfer, microplastics, fish, larvae, benzo[a]pyrene, Paramecium, Arte-
- 34 mia, zebrafish, marine medaka
- 35
- 36

#### 37 Introduction

Today, microplastic particles (MPs) are found ubiquitously in any water body (Browne et al.,

2011; Eerkes-Medrano et al., 2015; Eriksen et al., 2014; Van Cauwenberghe et al., 2015).

40 Along with increasing occurrence in the environment, detection rates of MPs in marine biota

41 have been well documented especially in zooplankton and fish (Cole et al., 2013; Desforges et

42 al., 2015; Hermsen et al., 2017; Rummel et al., 2016; Steer et al., 2017; Watts et al., 2015).

- 43 However, eventual effects by MPs in marine and freshwater organisms and their potential
- 44 impact on ecosystems have remained a matter of debate for more than a decade (Heinrich et
- 45 al., 2020; Koelmans et al., 2016; Lohmann, 2017; Thompson et al., 2004; Wright et al., 2013).

46 Ingestion of MPs has been demonstrated across a wide range of phyla (*e.g.* zooplankton, mol-

lusks, marine worms, fish), and their adverse effects might be attributed to different processes
including the lack of egestion (occlusion effects) or the induction of false satiation after inges-

49 tion of MPs and the devoid of nutritional value as reviewed in Eerkes-Medrano et al. (Eerkes-

50 Medrano et al., 2015). In some cases ingestion of virgin MPs induced no or limited toxicity

50 Medrano et al., 2015). In some cases ingestion of virgin MPs induced no or initied toxicity 51 (Beiras et al., 2018; Cormier et al., 2019; Le Bihanic et al., 2020; Mazurais et al., 2015) while

in other cases they have been shown to induce inflammatory processes and physiological
stress responses (Jovanovic, 2017; Karami et al., 2017; von Moos et al., 2012; Wright et al.,

- 2013), which may be the consequence of physical or chemical insults (due to additives for the
  latter). In a review, (Hermabessiere et al., 2017) summarize reports on effective transfer of
- 56 plastic additives to marine organisms including phthalates, nonylphenol, bisphenol A and
- 57 brominated flame retardants.

Beyond such intrinsic toxicity, another potential threat attributed to MPs is due to their physi-58 cochemical properties, which favor the adsorption of hydrophobic chemicals on their surface. 59 As a consequence, hydrophobic compounds present in aquatic environments accumulate on 60 MPs, as shown for a wide variety of substances including polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), 61 polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and metals (Alimba and Faggio, 2019; Ashton et 62 al., 2010; Bakir et al., 2012; Endo et al., 2005; Fisner et al., 2013; Mato et al., 2001; Ogata et 63 al., 2009; Rios et al., 2007; Strungaru et al., 2019; Velzeboer et al., 2014). Yet, the importance 64 of MPs as vectors for adsorbed contaminants has been under discussion and - according to 65 modeling approaches – has been assumed not to be major (Bakir et al., 2016; Heinrich et al., 66 2020; Koelmans et al., 2016; Lohmann, 2017). In part, experiments agree with such modeling 67 by documenting the absence or a minor role for MPs as vectors for pollutants (Besseling et 68 al., 2017; Devriese et al., 2017). In contrast, other experimental studies demonstrated that con-69 taminants adsorbed on MPs can effectively be transferred to organisms (Batel et al., 2016; 70 Gassel and Rochman, 2019; Rochman et al., 2013; Scopetani et al., 2018; Teuten et al., 2009; 71 van der Hal et al., 2020; Wardrop et al., 2016) and can elicit molecular responses (Avio et al., 72 73 2015; Rochman et al., 2013; Sleight et al., 2017). Most likely, the potential role of MPs as vectors for pollutants depends on the physicochemical properties of the pollutants as revealed 74 by both experimental approaches and field sampling (Diepens and Koelmans, 2018; Gassel 75 and Rochman, 2019). 76

In the marine environment, coastal areas are considered of major importance, as they repre-77 sent nurseries for many fish species (Beck et al., 2001). Simultaneously, these areas are close 78 litter sources and, thus, characterized by relatively high concentrations of MPs and chemical 79 pollutants (Browne et al., 2011; Guzzetti et al., 2018; Hermsen et al., 2017). The increase in 80 MPs and MPs ingested in larvae observed in coastal slick supports this hypothesis (Gove et 81 82 al., 2019). As a consequence, fish early development and larval stages may be speculated to 83 be affected in different or stronger manners by MPs and associated hazardous chemicals than adult organisms. Fish larvae mainly feed on diverse zooplankton species, which have been 84 shown to ingest MPs (Cole et al., 2013; Desforges et al., 2015). Zooplankton may then act as 85 a funnel delivering high amounts of MPs to fish larvae; relative to body weight, amounts of 86 pollutants may be larger than in adult fish. The contribution of zooplankton to the transfer of 87 MPs to fish larvae might, therefore, be a major issue for fish stock sustainability, but is largely 88 unknown so far (Au et al., 2017). Thus, even if exposure to contaminants through MP inges-89 tion may theoretically not be a major source for the uptake of contaminants, trophic transfer 90 91 via food webs might still represent an important route for the transfer of MP and associated contaminants to ecologically sensitive life-stages of aquatic organisms. Especially early expo-92 sure to elevated amounts of MPs might potentially have larger impact on fish early life-stages 93 than on adult fish. 94

95 For these reasons, the present study was designed to evaluate how very small MPs and associated contaminants transfer via prey exposed to MPs and how they affect early life-stages of 96 97 fish. In order to avoid possible species-specific findings, we used two evolutionary distant model fish species, the freshwater zebrafish (Danio rerio) and the marine medaka (Oryzias 98 *melastigma*) both being frequently used for ecotoxicology studies. Similarly, as prey, we used 99 100 two unrelated organisms, Paramecium and Artemia, as two plankton-like models of contrasting sizes. Following the approach by Batel et al. (2016) in adult fish, we analyzed (1) the 101 trophic transfer of MPs to larvae of zebrafish and of the marine medaka via Paramecium and 102 103 Artemia, (2) the quantitative and qualitative transfer of MPs and associated chemicals, and finally (3) the bioavailability of chemicals transferred from MPs to fish larvae. 104

105

#### 106 Materials and Methods

#### 107 Fish husbandry

108 Adult zebrafish (Danio rerio) aged 12 months were obtained from the breeding and maintenance facilities of the Aquatic Ecology and Toxicology Group at the Center for Organismal 109 Studies Heidelberg (licensed by regional animal welfare authorities under 35-9185.64/BH 110 Braunbeck). Temperature was maintained at  $25.0 \pm 1.0$  °C, and fish were kept under a con-111 stant artificial dark/light cycle of 8/16 h. Constant filtering plus permanent flow-through con-112 ditions guaranteed that ammonia, nitrite, and nitrate concentrations were kept below detection 113 limits (5, 1 and 140 mg/L, respectively). Fish were fed commercially available artificial diets 114 (TetraMin<sup>TM</sup> flakes; Tetra, Melle, Germany) twice daily ad libitum, supplemented with Arte-115 mia nauplii of appropriate size (Instar II, 2 pipettes per 10 fish; (Lim et al., 2003) obtained 116

- 117 from uncontaminated sources. Zebrafish eggs were obtained according to Lammer et al.118 (2009).
- 119 Marine medaka (Oryzias melastigma) brood stocks are routinely maintained in the La-
- boratoire Ressources Halieutiques, Ifremer (facility authorization A171901; project authoriza-
- 121 tion APAFIS#10883) from a stock obtained as embryos in 2007 from the laboratory of Dr.
- 122 Doris Au (State Key Laboratory in Marine Pollution, City University of Hong Kong, China).
- Juveniles and adult fish were reared in recirculating systems in water at 25 % salinity in an isothermal room at 26 ± 1 ° C with a 14/10 h light/dark photoperiod. Fish were fed twice a
- isothermal room at  $26 \pm 1$  ° C with a 14/10 h light/dark photoperiod. Fish were fed twice a day with food pellets of various size depending on their age (Special Diets Services, Dietex
- France, Argenteuil, France) with an additional feeding at noon with freshly hatched brine
- 127 shrimp (*Artemia*) nauplii (Ocean Nutrition Europe, Essen, Belgium).
- 128 Eggs were collected by siphoning tanks bottom within 4 hours after light onset and quickly
- 129 cleaned. In order to remove chorionic projections, eggs were rolled on sandpaper (p.2000) as
- described for Japanese medaka (Porazinski et al., 2010), extensively rinsed in order to remove
- debris and finally transferred to Petri dishes filled with artificial 20  $\mu$ m-filtered synthetic arti-
- ficial seawater (Instant Ocean; salinity 25 %, pH = 8.0) containing methylene blue.
- 133

### 134 Chemicals

Unless stated otherwise, all chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Deisenhofen,Germany, or St. Quentin Fallavier, France) at the highest purity available.

137

# 138 Microplastics (MPs) and benzo[a]pyrene (BaP) spiking

Green fluorescent microspheres of two sizes were purchased from Cospheric (Santa Barbara, CA, USA): (1) proprietary plastic microspheres with a size range of  $1 - 5 \mu m$  range and a density of 1.3 g/cc (catalogue code: FMG-1.3 1-5  $\mu m$ ; later referred to as MP5), and (2) polyethylene plastic microspheres with a size range of  $10 - 20 \mu m$  and a density of 1.00 g/cc (catalogue code: UVPMS-BG-1.00 10-20  $\mu m$ ; later referred to as MP20). Characterization of MPs

144 polymers was performed as described in Supporting information (S1).

MP spiking was performed according to previously published protocols (Batel et al., 2018; 145 Batel et al., 2016). BaP from stock solution in acetone (maximum amount used 100 µl) was 146 added to double-distillated water to a total volume of 10 ml in a 50 ml glass bottle. Approxi-147 mately  $1.2 \times 10^6$  particles, corresponding to 0.5 mg of MP5 or 2.5 mg of MP20 were added 148 and incubated overnight on a shaker (Rocky 1010; Fröbel, Lindau, Germany). After spiking, 149 solutions were filtered over sterile 0.45 µm nitrocellulose filters (TOP CA Sterile Syringe 150 Filter, Berrytec, Grünwald, Germany), washed three times with double-distilled water and 151 finally recovered in 10 ml of double-distilled water. Nominal BaP concentrations used for 152 spiking were 10, 100 and 300 µM; spiked MPs will later be called MP-BaP10, MP-BaP100 or 153 MP-BaP300. In previous studies, chemical analyses had shown that over 90 % of BaP bound 154

to MPs and that there were no solubility problems (Batel et al., 2016). An additional desorption control was used to analyze the potential desorption of BaP from spiked MPs after 24 h incubation in clean water and to simulate the potential direct transfer of desorbed BaP *via* the water column. The desorption control (DC) was prepared by incubating the spiked, washed and filtered MPs for 24 h in double-distilled water under continuous agitation. MPs were then filtered out, and larvae were exposed to the residual water and BaP potentially re-dissolved.

161 For definition of exposure groups, see Table 1.

Exposure group	Live prey	MPs	Benzo[a]pyrene (BaP	
MP5	-	MP 1-5 μm -		
MP20	-	MP 10- 20 μm	-	
Par-MP5	Paramecium	MP5	_	
Par-MP20	Paramecium	MP20	-	
Par-MP5-BaP10	Paramecium	MP5	10 µM	
Par-MP20-BaP10	Paramecium	MP20	10 µM	
Art-MP5	Artemia	MP5	-	
Art-MP20	Artemia	MP20	-	
Art-MP5-BaP100	Artemia	MP5	100 µM	
Art-MP5-BaP300	Artemia	MP5	300 µM	
NC (negative control)	-	-	-	
PC (positive control:	-	-	100 nM	
waterborne BaP)				
C (desorption control) -		-	BaP re-solution	
			control (see text)	

162 **Table 1**: Definition of exposure group codes used in the present study

163

164

#### 165 Trophic transfer from *Paramecium* to fish larvae

#### 166 MP uptake by Paramecium

Paramecia (Paramecium spec.) were obtained from a permanent culture of the Aquatic Ecolo-167 gy and Toxicology Group at the Center for Organismal Studies (University of Heidelberg, 168 Germany). The culture was kept in glass bottles darkened with aluminum foil and filled with 169 artificial seawater (1.5 g Artemia salt [9.52 g/L Na<sup>+</sup>, 0.71 mg/L Mg<sup>2+</sup>, 0.24 g/L Ca<sup>2+</sup>, 0.22 K<sup>+</sup>, 170 11.0 g/L Cl<sup>-</sup>, 1.54 g/L SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> per 5 L distilled water]; Preis Aquaristik, Bayerfeld-Steckweiler, 171 Germany)). Paramecium was fed with 5 cooked wheat grains per L (50 grains cooked in 50 172 ml distilled water for 10 min at 300 °C). Paramecium cultures were split every two weeks in 173 order to prevent a decrease in population density. 174

For the monitoring of MP ingestion, approx.  $1.2 \times 10^6$  MP particles (about 0.5 or 2.5 mg of 175 MP5 or MP20, respectively) were mixed in 9 ml of *Paramecium* rearing medium in glass Pe-176 tri dishes. For better mixing of Paramecium and MPs, Petri dishes were incubated on a REAX 177 3 hinged plate (Heidolph, Schwabach, Germany). After 1, 3 and 5 h incubation, 1.5 ml of the 178 solution were transferred to a 2 ml tube. Paramecium rearing media were filtered through a 179 100 µm filter (EASY strainer, Greiner, Frickenhausen, Germany) into new tubes and washed 180 181 with 1 ml artificial sea water. Paramecium passed the filter, whereas MPs attached to the filter or to the plastic walls of the tubes due to hydrophobic interactions. The tubes were then spun 182 in a table centrifuge (Mini centrifuge, National Labnet, Woodbridge, USA) for 2 ×10 sec. 183 Remaining MP5 with higher density than water sedimented at the bottom or along the wall of 184 185 the vessel, whereas MP20 particles with lower density than water floated at the water surface.

186 Separated *Paramecium* were sampled from the layers in-between and later called Par-MP.

187 Paramecium were transferred to confocal dishes, and MP uptake was tracked with a Nikon

- 188 Eclipse 90i epifluorescence microscope (Nikon, Düsseldorf, Germany). For photography,
- 189 *Paramecium* were immobilized with a saturated EDTA (5 g/15 ml) solution.
- 190

# 191 MPs transfer from *Paramecium* to fish larvae

The transfer of MPs from *Paramecium* to zebrafish larvae was tested at different ages of the
larvae (96 - 192 hours post-fertilization, hpf) and for different feeding durations (1 - 6 h, Ta-

ble 2). One zebrafish larva was transferred to each well of a 24-well plate (TPB, Trasadingen,

- Switzerland) in 1.5 ml ISO 7346/3 water (64.7 mg/L NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, 5.7 mg/L KCl, 294.0 mg/L  $CaCl_2 \times 2 H_2O$ , 123.3 mg/L MgSO<sub>4</sub>; (ISO, 1996)). *Paramecium* were fed MPs for 1 h and
- separated from particles in solution as described above.  $500 \ \mu l$  of Par-MP solution were added to each well to reach approximately 30 *Paramecium* per fish larva. The 24-well plates were
- 199 sealed (Excel scientific, SealPlate, USA), and zebrafish larvae were incubated at 26 °C for 1 -200 6 h with Par-MP. After incubation, the medium was carefully removed from the larvae, which
- were then euthanized by adding 1 ml tricaine (400 mg/L ethyl-4-aminobenzoate). After trans-
- 202 fer to confocal dishes, the uptake of MPs via Paramecium was analyzed with a Nikon Eclipse
- 203 90i epifluorescence microscope.
- Marine medaka exposure to Par-MP followed the same protocol with the exception that exposure started 1-2 days post-hatch corresponding to 11-12 days post-fertilization (dpf).
- 206

# 207 MP transfer from *Artemia* to fish larvae

#### 208 MP uptake by Artemia nauplii

209 Artemia nauplii were exposed to MPs as previously described (Batel et al., 2016). In brief,

- Artemia cysts were incubated in seawater at 26 °C under constant aeration. After 48 h incuba tion, Instar II stage nauplii (Lim et al., 2003) were collected and counted after dilution under a
- dissecting microscope. This nauplii stage has been chosen as it is the first *Artemia* stage in-

gesting particles being still small enough to match larvae mouth size. Approx. 10.000 nauplii were incubated further in 30 ml of seawater with approx.  $1.2 \times 10^6$  MP5 or MP20 particles and kept under constant aeration for oxygen supply and agitation of *Artemia* nauplii and MPs. *Artemia* nauplii were then filtered using a 100 µm mesh and rinsed thoroughly. In the further text, *Artemia* nauplii incubated with MPs will be referred to as Art-MP.

For 2 days of exposure, freshly harvested Artemia nauplii were distributed to zebrafish larvae 218 twice daily. For monitoring of MPs elimination kinetics, larvae were fed another 2 days with 219 non-loaded Artemia nauplii prepared as described above. Every evening, 1h after the last 220 feeding of the day, some larvae were collected and euthanized using an overdose of benzo-221 caine solution (500 mg/L) and observed under an Olympus BX41 epifluorescence microscope 222 (Olympus, Rungis, France; magnification 40x, light source: X-Cite EXFO with GFP filter). 223 Fluorescent larvae were counted to calculate the proportion of larvae having ingested MP-224 loaded Artemia and imaged using DMK 31AU03 camera and IC Capture software (The Imag-225 ing Sources, Elvitec, Pertuis, France). Fluorescence was then quantified using ImageJ 226 (Schneider et al., 2012) with correction for background fluorescence. A total of 20 larvae for 227 each exposure group were monitored in triplicate. 228

229

# Trophic transfer of MP-associated benzo[a]pyrene (BaP) and *cyp1a* induction in fish larvae

#### 232 Fish larvae exposure

The transfer of BaP from microplastics through planktonic organisms to fish larvae was eval-233 234 uated in zebrafish via Paramecium and in marine medaka via Artemia nauplii to show the potential of MP trophic transfer from the very first feeding of the fish larvae. In the case of 235 zebrafish, 10 individuals of 7 d old larvae per exposure group were analyzed in three inde-236 pendent replicates. Larvae of the negative control (NC) were incubated in artificial water; 237 positive controls (PC) contained 100 nM waterborne BaP, with the wells pre-incubated over-238 239 night with the BaP solution for of the plastic well walls. MPs were spiked, and Paramecium were incubated with spiked MPs as described above. Six ml Paramecium rearing medium 240 were mixed with 2 ml of the MPs loaded with BaP; except for negative and positive controls, 241 the other test groups were also diluted 1:3 with ISO water. For this end, 500 µl of the test so-242 243 lutions were added to the wells (final volume 2 ml), and larvae were incubated for 3 hours at  $26 \pm 1$  °C. After incubation, the medium was discarded, and the larvae were euthanized as 244 described above and used for either fluorescence tracking or *cyp1a* analysis. 245

In the case of marine medaka, 17 d old larvae were used. MP5-BaP and Art-MP5-BaP were prepared as described above. Likewise, larval exposure was performed as described above for 2 days (4 meals), and larvae were collected 3 hours after the last meal and euthanized using an overdose of benzocaine solution (500 mg/L), rinsed thoroughly in water and stored for *cyp1a* transcription analyses. A total of 6 pools of 10 larvae were collected from three exposure replicates. The subsequent evaluation of the fluorescence signal of the BaP required a positioning of the larvae as identical as possible. Within a drop of 0.1 % low melting agarose ( $26 \pm 2 °C$ ; MatTek, Ashland, USA), larvae were positioned on their left sides and fixed by gelling of the low melting agarose (100 mg/10 ml 0.016 % tricaine). Micrographs were taken in the DAPI fluorescence channel (340 - 380 nm excitation, 435 - 485 nm emission) of a Nikon Eclipse 90i epifluorescence microscope (Nikon, Tokyo, Japan) with an exposure time of 2 seconds.

258

#### 259 Cyp1a gene transcription analysis

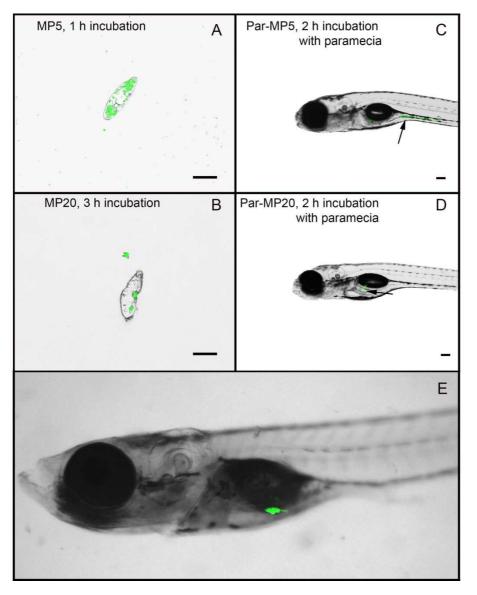
To evaluate bioavailability of BaP, we monitored transcription of *cyp1a* which is known to be 260 induced in vertebrates, by a wide range of chemicals including BaP (Ma and Lu, 2007). For 261 cypla gene transcription analyses, larvae were washed three times in RNAse-free water im-262 mediately after sampling and stored in RNALater at -20°C until further processing. Prior to 263 RNA extraction, RNALater was removed, and embryos were immersed in lysis buffer 264 (Quiagen, Les Ulis, France) before disruption in a Beadblaster (Benchmark Scientific, 265 266 Dutscher, France). The total RNA extraction followed the protocols of the RNeasy Plus Universal Mini Kit (Quiagen). Quality and quantity of the extracts were checked using electro-267 phoresis migration and spectrophotometric dosing. Subsequently, cDNA was synthesized 268 from 2 µg of the total RNA, using 2 µl of Superscript III Reverse Transcriptase (Invitrogen, 269 Fisher Scientific, Illkirch, France) according to the manufacturer's protocol in a final volume 270 271 of 21 µl. Prior to analysis, all cDNA was diluted 5 times in Milli-Q water. The qPCR experiments were run in a final volume of 20 µl, including an optimized primer concentration range 272 between 300 and 600 nM (Eurofins Genomics, Ebersberg, Germany) and 2X Fast SYBR 273 Green Master Mix (Applied Biosystems, Fisher Scientific, Illkirch, France). Technical tripli-274 cates were run for each biological replicate. The analysis software Relative Expression Soft-275 ware Tool (REST; (Pfaffl, 2001; Pfaffl et al., 2002)) automatically calculated fold changes in 276 transcription relative to negative controls (NC; cf. Table 1) using the 3 most stable references 277 genes between all groups, and combined into an index via the free access BestKeeper soft-278 279 ware (Pfaffl et al., 2004). Reference genes were g6pd, actb1 and b2m for zebrafish and g6pd, actb1 and 18s for medaka. 280

281

#### 282 **Results**

# Trophic transfer of microplastic particles from *Paramecium* to zebrafish and medaka larvae

After 1, 3 and 5 h incubation to microplastics, *Paramecium* was analyzed for MP uptake. In general, MP5 particles were taken up more efficiently than MP20: After 1 h incubation, all *Paramecium* individuals contained high numbers of MP5 particles within nutritive vacuoles (Fig. 1A), which remained constant after 3 and 5 h of incubation. In contrast, only a small amount of MP20 particles were visible inside about 10 % of the *Paramecium* individuals (Fig. 1B). Although with longer incubation time the number of *Paramecium* with ingested MP20 increased, the overall number of microplastic particles absorbed remained low, if compared to
MP5. Because of the small number of MP20 particles within *Paramecium*, only very few of
the bigger MP20 particles were observed in the intestinal tract of zebrafish larvae after feeding Par-MP20, whereas the signal was far stronger when feeding Par-MP5 (Figs. 1C-D). A
similar experiment was performed with marine medaka confirming efficient transfer of MP5
through *Paramecium* (Fig. 1E).



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Fig. 1: Internalization of fluorescent MPs by *Paramecium* and transfer to zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) larvae. Detection of fluorescent MPs inside *Paramecium* after 1 h incubation with MP5
(A) and 3 h incubation with MP20 (B). Ingestion of fluorescent MPs by fish larvae fed *Paramecium* previously incubated with MPs for 2 hours: 168 hpf zebrafish larvae fed Par-MP5 (C)
or Par-MP20 (D); 264 hpf marine medaka larvae fed Par-MP5 (E; green fluorescence overlaid with bright field image). Scale bars: 100 µm.

304

To further characterize the trophic transfer, ingestion of particles by zebrafish larvae was monitored for different feeding durations (1 - 6 h) and starting at different ages (96 - 192 hpf;Table 2). Independent of the feeding duration, transfer could only be documented from  $\ge 120$ hpf. Starting at this age, fluorescence was readily detected in larvae. Furthermore, after 5 h feeding, one larva was observed egesting microplastic-containing feces. There were no MPs visible in intestinal tracts of larvae incubated with waterborne MPs, thus, larvae did not feed directly on MPs, only *via* intermediate prey at this age.

**Table 2:** Transfer of *Paramecium* loaded with small microplastic particles (Par-MP1) to zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) larvae after variable feeding duration and feeding starting at different ages. Numbers indicate fluorescent larvae *versus* total number of larvae analyzed (in brack-ets).

Feeding start time	96 hpf	120 hpf	144 hpf	168 hpf	192 hpf
1 h	-	4 (12)	-	-	-
2 h	0 (11)	12 (12)	7 (12)	11 (12)	8 (8)
-	-	9 (12)	5 (12)	10 (11)	3 (12)
Feeding duration 4 h	-	11 (11)	8 (12)	11 (12)	10 (12)
np 4 h	0 (11)	12 (12)	8 (12)	12 (12)	9 (11)
eedin	-	11 (12)	8 (11)	12 (12)	7 (7)
5 h	0 (11)	10 (12)	12 (12)	12 (12)	12 (12)
	-	-	7 (12)	11 (12)	-
6 h	0 (11)	11 (11)	10 (11)	12 (12)	-

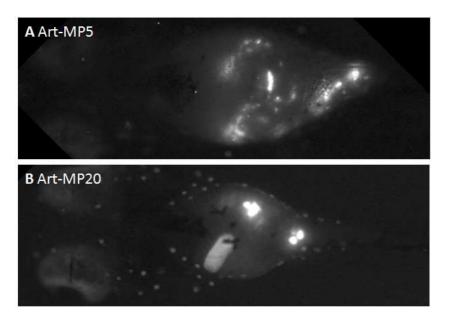
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#### 319 Trophic transfer of microplastic particles from *Artemia* nauplii to fish larvae

As described previously (Batel et al., 2016), *Artemia* Instar II successfully ingested MPs both MP5 and MP20. Since the uptake of particles by *Artemia* nauplii only starts at Instar II stage (body size ~ 200  $\mu$ m), feeding of fish larvae could only be initiated when the mouth opening of the fish larvae was wide enough, i.e. at about 6 d post-hatch (~8 dpf = 192 hpf for zebrafish and ~17 dpf for medaka. At this age, larvae readily ingest *Artemia* nauplii and MPs transfer was easily visible (Fig. 2).

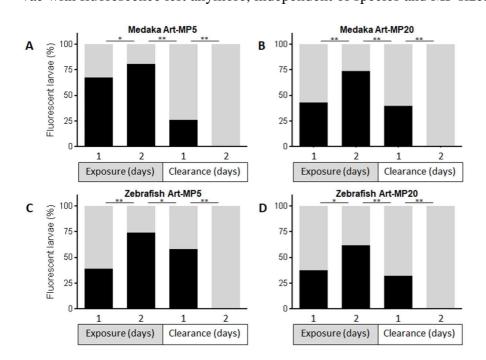


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Fig. 2: Transfer of fluorescent MPs to marine medaka (*Oryzias melastigma*) larvae, dorsal
view. Ingestion of fluorescent MPs by 17 dpf medaka larvae fed Art-MP5 (A) Art-MP20 (B);
ventral views. Note some autofluorescent pigment cells in B.

330

Independent from species and MPs size, the evolution of the proportion of fish larvae showing fluorescence followed the same pattern (Fig. 3) with an increase between days 1 and 2 and a significant decrease of the proportion of larvae showing fluorescence at day 3 (i.e. day 1 of clearance after the end of exposure to MP). At day 4 (day 2 of clearance), there were no larvae with fluorescence left anymore, independent of species and MP size.





**Fig. 3**: Proportion of marine medaka (*Oryzias melastigma*) and zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) larvae showing fluorescence (MP uptake) over time after feeding with *Artemia* loaded with fluores-

cent MPs. Fish larvae were fed on days 1 and 2 with Artemia that had been exposed to fluo-339 rescent MPs, followed by two additional days of clearance with non-exposed Artemia. Marine 340 medaka larvae fed Art-MP5 (A) and Art-MP20 (B). Zebrafish larvae fed Art-MP5 (C) and 341 Art-MP20 (D). Triplicates of 20 individuals were monitored; Differences between successive 342 days have been tested using Fisher's exact test: \* = p < 0.05; \*\* = p < 0.01.

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In order to describe ingestion in both fish species in more detail, fluorescence intensity was 345 analyzed within the gut lumen of fluorescent larvae (Fig. 4). The temporal pattern was very 346 similar between species, but differed with MP size: In the case of Art-MP5, fluorescence was 347 higher during feeding days without difference between days 1 and 2, if compared to day 1 of 348 clearance. In contrast, in medaka fed Art-MP20, the fluorescence remained constant during 349 the first 3 days, while in the case of zebrafish fluorescence was slightly lower on day 1 of 350 clearance when compared to day 1 of exposure. In all cases, fluorescence had completely dis-351 352 appeared on day 2 of clearance. It is noteworthy that, independent of the species, the fluorescence intensity obtained with MP20 was significantly lower than with MP5. 353

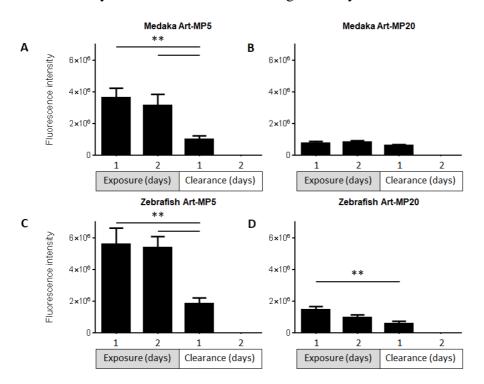




Fig. 4: Fluorescence intensity (MP uptake) in the gut lumen of zebrafish (Danio rerio) and 355 marine medaka (Oryzias melastigma) measured in fluorescent larvae over time. Fish larvae 356 were fed using the same schedule as described in Fig. 3. Marine medaka larvae were fed Art-357 MP5 (A) and Art-MP20 (B); zebrafish larvae were fed Art-MP5 (C) and Art-MP20 (D). Trip-358 licates of 20 individuals were monitored; data are given as means ± SEM; one-way-ANOVA: 359 \*\* = p < 0.01.360

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#### 363 Transfer of benzo[a]pyrene (BaP) to zebrafish and medaka larvae *via* MPs given to prey

Due to its strong autofluorescence, BaP can easily be tracked within organisms. The BaPspecific fluorescence in fish larvae that had fed on *Paramecium* or *Artemia* nauplii previously loaded with BaP adsorbed to MPs thus confirmed successful transfer from MPs to fish larvae. Independent of particle size, no BaP-specific fluorescence was detected in larvae from either negative or desorption controls, or in larvae fed clean "virgin" MPs (Fig. 5).

369 The negative result for the desorption control specifically illustrates that in clean water BaP

did not re-dissolve off the MPs into the water column. Therefore, BaP-specific fluorescence

371 signals under other experimental conditions could not derive from previously desorbed BaP to

water. Direct exposure to waterborne BaP (PC) also resulted in a distinct accumulation of BaPwithin fish larvae.

- A
   BF
   B
   NC
   C
   PC

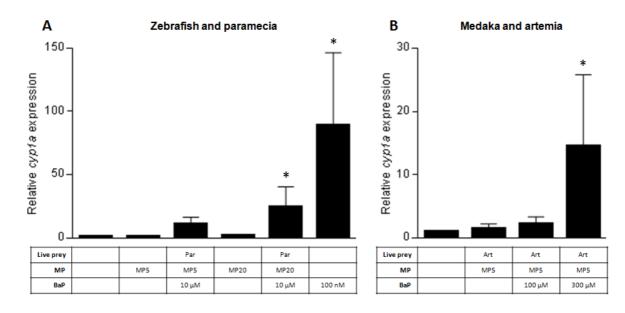
   Image: SB
   <
- 374

Fig. 5: Uptake of benzo[a]pyrene (BaP) into 168 h old zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) larvae after
exposure to MP-BaP or feeding with Par-MP-BaP. (A) Bright field micrograph of the larvae
(H – heart, IT – intestinal tract, A – anus, SB – swim bladder, C – chorda, S – somites, M –
muscles). (B) Negative control without any fluorescence signal. (C) Positive control (100 nM
waterborne BaP) with a strong signal along the entire intestinal tract. (D) Desorption control
(DC) without any fluorescence signal. (E) Larvae feeding on Par-MP5-BaP10 revealed a
strong signal. (F) Larvae fed Par-MP20-BaP10.

#### 382 Bioavailability of BaP transferred to fish larvae through MPs given via prey

In order to biologically quantify the bioavailability of BaP transferred by MPs, the induction 383 of cypla was monitored using qPCR in both species. In zebrafish, consistently with the ab-384 sence of BaP fluorescence, no cypla induction was visible in negative controls and in fish fed 385 on virgin MPs (independent of size), whereas a 90 fold induction could be documented for the 386 positive control (waterborne BaP; Fig. 6A; p = 0.035). In the case of Par-MP5-BaP10, there 387 was no significant induction of cypla, when compared to the negative control. In contrast, 388 exposure to MP20-BaP10 significantly induced cyp1a transcription after exposure via Para-389 *mecium* (Par-MP20-BaP10; fold change: 16.5, p = 0.022). 390

The same experiment was carried out using marine medaka and Artemia as live prey interme-391 diate. After 2 d of exposure (i.e. 4 meals), no change of cypla transcription was observed in 392 marine medaka larvae fed Art-MP5, if compared to the control (Artemia only; fold change: 393 1.455; p = 0.22; Fig. 6B). Similarly, the use of Art-MP5-BaP100 produced no change of 394 395 cyp1a transcription (fold change: 2.18; p = 0.17). In contrast, when marine medaka were fed Art-MP5-BaP300, a significant induction of *cyp1a* transcription was observed, if compared to 396 *cyp1a* transcription in Control larvae (fold change: 14.57; p = 0.03). These results demon-397 strated the efficiency of Artemia as an intermediate host to deliver MPs to fish larvae and the 398 bioavailability of BaP after exposure to Art-MP5-BaP300. 399



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**Fig. 6**: Transcription of *cyp1a* relative to the negative control (NC; first bar of each graph) in zebrafish (*Danio rerio*; A) and marine medaka (*Oryzias melastigma*; B). Tables below each graph describe exposure conditions. Note that scales are different between graphs. Three (zebrafish) and six (medaka) pools of ten larvae were monitored; data are given as means  $\pm$ SD; statistical analyses based on ANOVA-on-ranks against NC: \* = p < 0.05.

407

#### 408 **Discussion**

409 The results of this study reveal the efficient transfer of very small MPs with dimensions in the 410 lower  $\mu$ m size range *via* trophic transfer through exposed prey in the micro- or millimeter

411 range organisms to vertebrate larvae, highlighting the importance of considering trophic food

412 webs when analyzing microplastic exposure. Using two types of MPs different in both struc-

413 ture and size illustrates the variability of type- and size-dependent effects on organisms. In the 414 present experiment, we used well-defined  $10 - 20 \,\mu\text{m}$  polyethylene particles as well as 1 -

- 414 present experiment, we used well-defined  $10 20 \,\mu\text{m}$  polyethylene particles as well as  $1 5 \,\mu\text{m}$  particles made up of a Cospheric<sup>TM</sup> proprietary plastic; both sizes are likely to regularly
- 416 occur in the environment.

As a common model organism for freshwater protozoans, *Paramecium* had readily ingested the very small  $1 - 5 \mu m$  MPs of as early as 1 h after initiation of the incubation. In contrast, larger particles (10 - 20  $\mu m$ ) were apparently too large to be ingested efficiently. A similar size range for plastic ingestion by *Paramecium* was mentioned by Holm et al. (2013), who fed *Paramecium* with 1  $\mu m$  fluorescent polystyrene particles (Holm et al., 2013). As representatives of zooplankton filter feeders, *Artemia* nauplii also ingested both 1 - 5 and 10 - 20  $\mu m$ 

423 MPs at high amounts, which had already been demonstrated by (Batel et al., 2016).

424 In both medaka and zebrafish larvae feeding on *Paramecium* and *Artemia* nauplii containing MPs could be documented inside the gastrointestinal tract within few hours of ingestion. 425 Some variability was observed in MPs uptake, especially in the case of exposure of zebrafish 426 427 through Paramecium (e.g. at 144 hpf in Table 2). This may be related to variation in larval activity level through development (Vignet et al., 2013). In addition, in zebrafish, feeding 428 starts at 5 dpf and is associated with an increase in gut function at this age (Sadler et al., 429 2013). It is thus likely that what is observed at 144 hpf is due to inter-individual variability in 430 developmental rate, potentially affecting these traits. Such transfer of MPs through prey has 431 already been shown from mesozooplankton to macrozooplankton (Setala et al., 2014) as well 432 as from mussels to crabs (Farrell and Nelson, 2013), but - to the best of our knowledge - not 433 in fish larvae. Conversely, after direct exposure via water, no MPs were visible in the intesti-434 435 nal tracts of the larvae. Thus, fish larvae primarily ingested the small MPs via the prey, but not directly via the water column. 436

Trophic transfer of microplastics is also receiving increasing attention in microplastic field 437 studies. Nelms et al. (2018) analyzed sub-samples of scat from captive seals (Halichoerus 438 grypus) and whole guts of wild caught Atlantic mackerel (Scomber scombrus) the seals were 439 fed on. Results indicate that 'trophic transfer represents an indirect, yet potentially major 440 441 pathway of microplastic ingestion for any species whose feeding ecology involves the con-442 sumption of whole prey, including humans' (Nelms et al., 2018). Trophic transfer of MPs has also been documented in the field: Welden et al. (2018) analyzed microplastics contents in 443 plaice (Pleuronectes plastessa), spider crab (Maja squinado) and ingested sand eels (Ammo-444 445 dytes tobianus) and found microplastics in ingested sand eels, directly proving microplastic trophic transfer in the wild (Welden et al., 2018). This has also been suggested for Mediterra-446 nean fish species (Savoca et al., 2019a; Savoca et al., 2019b). 447

In the present laboratory study, focus was laid on the mode-of-action of microplastic trophic 448 transfer in early life-stages of fish, analyzing time scales and kinetics of first MPs uptake and 449 potential transfer of hazardous chemicals by MPs using benzo[a]pyrene (BaP) as a model 450 PAH. Zebrafish were feeding on Paramecium on MPs from 120 hpf, whereas marine medaka 451 started feeding on Paramecium immediately from hatching. In the case of the fish species 452 studied here, approx. 6 - 7 d after hatching (i.e. 8 dpf for zebrafish and 17 dpf for marine 453 454 medaka), larvae were able to switch to larger prey and started feeding on Artemia nauplii. As a consequence, as shown above, exposure of fish larvae to MPs via live prey was able to reach 455 high levels of exposure. This is in agreement with field studies, which revealed MP uptake in 456 larvae of various fish species (Steer et al., 2017). Previous work showed that, in the case of 457 zebrafish, uptake of MPs through Artemia nauplii also occurred in juveniles or adults (Batel et 458 al., 2016); thus, trophic food chains can deliver significant amounts of very small MPs from 459 the first food uptake by early life-stages of fish until adulthood, meaning a whole life expo-460 sure to very small MPs through uptake via prey. 461

Despite massive uptake of MPs, adverse effects never became obvious in neither Paramecium 462 and Artemia nauplii, nor fish larvae. A longer exposure may have resulted in biological ef-463 fects. Likewise, neither accumulation nor translocation to tissues other than the gut could be 464 observed over time. This is in line with previous experiments performed in juvenile seabass 465 (Dicentrarchus labrax) fed with the same MPs as in the present study, however, contained in 466 regular food pellets (Mazurais et al., 2015). This lack of effects is likely due to the fast eges-467 tion rate of fish larvae: Effective egestion started 5 h after the onset of exposure, and disap-468 pearance of fluorescence in the gastrointestinal tracts of the larvae was complete after less 469 than two days after the last exposure. This corroborates observations in seabass exposed to 470 471 pellets spiked with MPs (Mazurais et al., 2015), where translocation to tissues could also not be observed. Likewise, previous studies using similar trophic exposure of adult zebrafish, 472 Japanese medaka (Oryzias latipes) and fathead minnow (Pimephales promelas) revealed no 473 474 translocation to tissues (Batel et al., 2020; Batel et al., 2016; Elizalde-Velazquez et al., 2020; Zhu et al., 2020). However, there are also reports on translocation in fish, particularly to the 475 liver, after experimental exposure (Bakir et al., 2016; Ding et al., 2018) and in fish collected 476 in the field (Avio et al., 2015; Collard et al., 2017). Such discrepancies cannot be resolved 477 easily, since there is no correlation of translocation with MP size, shape, material or duration 478 479 in the case of experimental exposures (Avio et al., 2015; Bakir et al., 2016). In freshwater 480 studies, however, a recent review on MP uptake and translocation in a multitude of species 481 revealed that, at least partly, studies reporting translocation should be re-evaluated (Triebskorn et al., 2019). 482

Another most important aspect in MP research is the much-discussed issue of a potential transfer of hazardous organic chemicals to aquatic organisms upon MP uptake (Bakir et al., 2016; Koelmans et al., 2016; Lohmann, 2017). In the present study, the transfer of benzo[a]pyrene (BaP), a model PAH, was analyzed: Using BaP-specific autofluorescence and *cyp1a* induction, absorption of BaP by larvae and, thus, bioavailability of BaP could clearly be documented. However, concentrations of both microplastics and BaP were beyond environmentally relevant concentrations and thus only document potential modes-of-action. Com490 parison of *cyp1a* transcription induction by positive control and prey is quite impossible since
491 actual exposure of larvae depends on the number of MPs ingested by the prey and the number
492 of preys ingested by larvae.

MP ingestion by Paramecium and Artemia nauplii, and consequently by fish larvae, was 493 higher with 5 µm MPs than with the larger 20 µm MPs. In contrast, this difference did not 494 become apparent when BaP transfer and subsequent BaP-specific fluorescence in larvae was 495 visualized by optical means. The induction of cyp1a was even higher with the larger 20  $\mu$ m 496 497 MPs than with 5 µm MPs, which was most likely related to a difference in chemical composition of MPs. According to the suppliers, the 20 µm MP particles were made of polyethylene 498 (PE), whereas the smaller 5 µm particles were made of a non-disclosed polymer other than 499 PE, at least according to their melting temperatures. Interestingly, the desorption control, 500 which analyzed the desorption of BaP from MPs in clean water, produced no fluorescence in 501 502 larvae. This points out that not only trophic transfer, but also the type of plastic used as a vehicle and chemical equilibria need to be taken into consideration when assessing the risk of 503 MPs in the aquatic environment. 504

Although there has been a critical discussion about testing "clean" laboratory animals and 505 MPs spiked with hazardous organic chemicals with regard to chemical equilibrium 506 (Lohmann, 2017), the present study illustrates that, in simple mode-of-action studies, the 507 feeding of MPs via prey may increase (1) the amount of MPs taken up into intestinal tracts of 508 fish larvae and (2) at least the uptake of hazardous organic chemicals. Thus, transfer of haz-509 ardous organic chemicals bound to MP along trophic food chains might play an important role 510 511 in aquatic ecosystems with respect to MP toxicity and the transfer of hazardous organic chemicals. Furthermore, it is important to note that hazardous organic chemicals on MPs may reach 512 chemical equilibrium in one area, but – following drift of MPs – may reach areas that had not 513 been in touch with high concentrations of hazardous organic chemicals before, e.g. the deep 514 515 sea or remote areas (Van Cauwenberghe et al., 2013). Thus, the chemical equilibrium to 516 aquatic organisms in such remote areas is most likely different from that in the regions of MP origin and might well account for the transfer of hazardous organic chemicals to biota. 517

Fish larvae can be exposed to MPs by prey from the very first day of feeding until adulthood, 518 making exposure potentially lasting a whole life. Already at small scale, the transfer along 519 food webs is most important in aquatic ecosystems. If MP transfer already starts at such 520 small-scale events and continues to higher levels within trophic food webs, the overall live-521 long MP exposure in natural environments might well be higher than expected (Pannetier et 522 al., 2020). This seems especially true regarding nanoplastic particles, for which the actual 523 number is potentially by orders of magnitude higher than that of microplastics, and the biolog-524 ical importance is likely to be much higher than that of microplastics (Ivleva et al., 2017). 525

526

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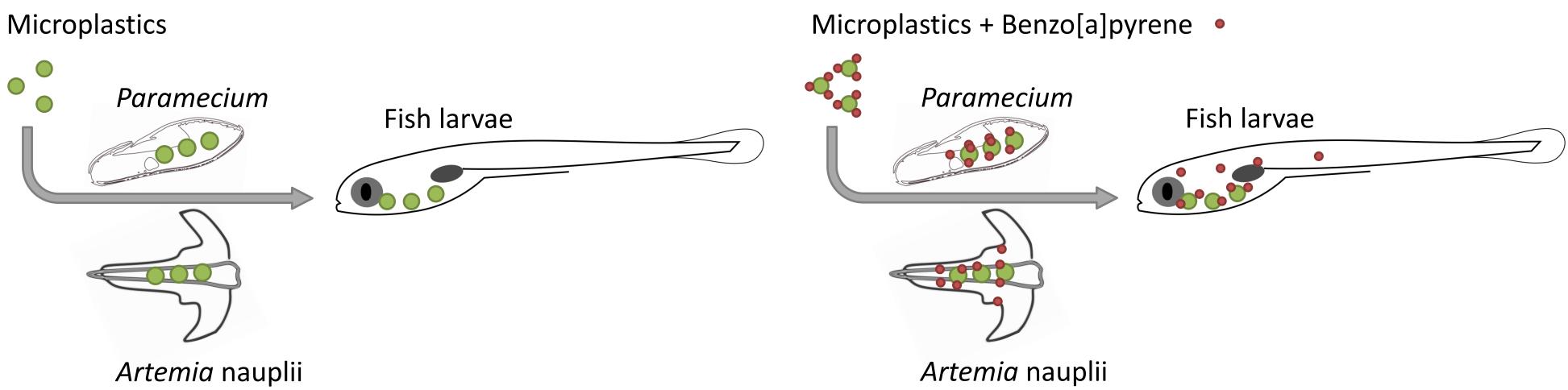
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Prey as *Paramecium* and *Artemia* nauplii efficiently transfer very small microplastics and associated benzo[a]pyrene to zebrafish and marine medaka larvae exposing sensitive early life stages of fish