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# First evidence that emerging pinnatoxin-G, a contaminant of shellfish, reaches the brain and crosses the placental barrier

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## 2 reaches the brain and crosses the placental barrier

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#### 21 ABSTRACT

Massive proliferation of some toxic marine dinoflagellates is responsible for the occurrence of 22 23 harmful algal blooms and the contamination of fish and shellfish worldwide. Pinnatoxins (PnTx) (A-H) comprise an emerging phycotoxin family belonging to the cyclic imine toxin group. Interest has 24 25 been focused on these lipophilic, fast-acting and highly potent toxins because they are widely found in 26 contaminated shellfish, and can represent a risk for seafood consumers. PnTx display a potent 27 antagonist effect on nicotinic acetylcholine receptors (nAChR), and in this study we assessed in vivo the ability of PnTx-G to cross physiological barriers to reach its molecular target. Radiolabeled [<sup>3</sup>H]-28 PnTx-G synthesized with good radiochemical purity and yield retained the high affinity of the natural 29 30 toxin. Oral gavage or intravenous administration to adult rats and digital autoradiographic analyses revealed the biodistribution and toxicokinetics of [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G, which is rapidly cleared from blood, 31 32 and accumulates in the liver and small intestine. The labeling of peripheral and brain adult/embryo rat 33 tissues highlights its ability to cross the intestinal, blood-brain and placental barriers. High-resolution 34 3D-imaging and *in vitro* competition studies on rat embryo sections revealed the specificity of [<sup>3</sup>H]-35 PnTx-G binding and its selectivity for muscle and neuronal nAChR subtypes (such as  $\alpha$ 7 subtype). 36 The use of a human perfused cotyledon model and mass spectrometry analyses disclosed that PnTx-G 37 crosses the human placental barrier. The increasing worldwide occurrence of both the dinoflagellate Vulcanodinium rugosum and PnTx-contaminated shellfish, due to climate warming, raises concerns 38 39 about the potential adverse impact that exposure to pinnatoxins may have for human health.

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42 Keywords: Pinnatoxins; Cyclic imine toxins; Nicotinic acetylcholine receptors; Harmful algal bloom;
43 Toxicokinetics; Digital autoradiography

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Abbreviations: CI, cyclic imine; PnTx, pinnatoxins; nAChR, nicotinic acetylcholine receptor; MS,
mass spectrometry; FTR, fetal transfer rate; MLA, methyllycaconitine; SUG, superficial gray layer of
the superior colliculus

#### 49 **1. Introduction**

Cyclic imine (CI) toxins produced by various species of marine dinoflagellates constitute a widely 50 51 distributed group of phycotoxins, comprising the prorocentrolides, spiro-prorocentrimine, gymnodimines, spirolides, pinnatoxins, pteriatoxins, and portimines, with increasing prevalence in the 52 53 global environment (Molgó et al., 2017; Stivala et al., 2015). The warming of ocean temperatures and 54 increases in nutrients have driven an intensification of harmful algal bloom events (Anderson et al., 55 2012; Farabegoli et al., 2018; Griffith and Gobler, 2020; Hallegraeff, 2010; Van Dolah, 2000). During 56 these active dinoflagellate blooms, phycotoxins can accumulate in shellfish tissues and be transferred into crabs, fish, seabirds, marine mammals and ultimately to humans (Molgó et al., 2014). 57

In recent years, there is increasing evidence for the occurrence of emerging pinnatoxins (PnTx) in 58 59 various wild or commercial shellfish species, collected at different periods of the year, and in different 60 marine waters. Among the eight known PnTxs (A to H), PnTx-G is the most commonly found contaminating shellfish in European waters (Aráoz et al., 2020; Kvrgić et al., 2021; McCarthy et al., 61 2015; Moreiras et al., 2019; Otero et al., 2019; Otero et al., 2020; Rambla-Alegre et al., 2018; Varriale 62 63 et al., 2021). In addition, PnTx-G, as well as PnTx-E and PnTx-F, have been detected in Japan, 64 Australia, New Zealand and Canada (reviewed in (Molgó et al., 2014)), and in commercial mussels 65 from Chile (Otero et al., 2020). The cosmopolitan dinoflagellate Vulcanodinium rugosum is the 66 producer of PnTx-G (Nézan and Chomérat, 2011; Rhodes et al., 2011), and its growth rate and PnTx-67 G production are reported to be highest at temperatures ranging between 25 and 30°C (Abadie et al., 68 2016). PnTx-G levels in contaminated mussels at the Mediterranean Ingril lagoon (France) ranged 69 between 261 and 1,244 µg/kg (Anses, 2019; Hess et al., 2013), values that are much higher than those 70 reported in contaminated shellfish from other locations: 115 µg/kg in Norway (Rundberget et al., 71 2011), 59 µg/kg in Spain (Garcia-Altares et al., 2014) and 83 µg/kg in Canada (McCarron et al., 72 2012). In 2019, the French Agency for Food, Environmental and Occupational Health and Safety 73 (Anses, 2019; Arnich et al., 2020), established a detailed view regarding the occurrence of PnTxs in 74 shellfish, establishing a contamination value of 23 µg PnTx-G/kg of total meat not to be exceeded. 75 Consequently, a risk for human consumers may exist (Arnich et al., 2020; Delcourt et al., 2019) when
76 PnTx shellfish accumulation reaches higher levels.

77 PnTx were identified as potent antagonists of embryonic and mature muscle ( $\alpha l_2\beta\gamma\delta$  and  $\alpha l_2\beta\epsilon\delta$ ), and neuronal ( $\alpha$ 7,  $\alpha$ 3 $\beta$ 2,  $\alpha$ 4 $\beta$ 2) nicotinic acetylcholine receptor (nAChR) subtypes (Aráoz et al., 2011; 78 79 Benoit et al., 2019; Hellyer et al., 2015). At the structural level, their seven-membered CI ring fits perfectly with the receptor subunit interface of nAChRs, while the unique substructures of the 80 81 macrocyclic framework of the PnTx extend radially from the binding pocket to engage in distinctive interactions with the complementary and variable face F of the nAChRs (Bourne et al., 2015). The 82 83 interaction of PnTx with nAChRs was shown in mice to induce exceptionally rapid lethality associated 84 with central neurological symptoms and flaccid paralysis (Munday et al., 2012; Selwood et al., 2010). 85 In addition, due to their high chemical stability (Jackson et al., 2012; Selwood et al., 2014), PnTx exhibit high oral acute toxicity in mice (Arnich et al., 2020; Delcourt et al., 2019; Munday et al., 2012; 86 87 Sosa et al., 2020), suggesting that they cross the intestinal barrier.

Interestingly, a recent publication reported that a *V. rugosum* bloom in Cuba induced acute skin irritation in swimmers. The bloom contained CI toxins such as pinnatoxins and portimine, which could have caused dermatitis (Moreira-González et al., 2021). Even though no information has been reported yet linking CI toxins to neurotoxic events in humans, the potent interaction of PnTx with central and peripheral nAChRs raises concerns about the harmful downstream effects of PnTx exposure.

93 In the present study, we chose to study the ability of PnTx-G to cross physiological barriers, because: (i) it is a chemically stable molecule and is considered as the precursor of other pinnatoxins 94 (A-C) in mollusks, (ii) it is a common shellfish contaminant distributed worldwide, and (iii) it can be 95 96 chemically synthesized and radiolabeled with tritium allowing its detection using high-resolution 97 digital autoradiographic analyses. As demonstrated herein, the toxicokinetic profile of [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G in rats reveals its rapid blood clearance, large tissue distribution, and its ability to cross the intestinal, 98 99 blood-brain and placental barriers. Finally, using a human perfused placenta cotyledon model and 100 mass spectrometry analysis, the ability of PnTx-G to pass through the human placental barrier is 101 confirmed.

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#### 2. Materials and Methods

#### 104 2.1. Synthesis and spectral analysis of radiolabeled [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G

Among the PnTx family, PnTx-G is the only one that has proven amenable to tritium labeling so far by partial hydrogenation reaction (Fig. S1, Supplementary materials). Based on a previously reported total synthesis (Aráoz et al., 2011), the protocol afforded [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G with a radiochemical purity greater than 97%, and a specific activity of 40 Ci/mmol.

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#### 110 2.2. Characterization and validation of $[^{3}H]$ -PnTx-G

The  $\alpha$ 7/5HT<sub>3</sub> chimera was transiently transfected into tsA-201 cells using 15 µg cDNA for ca. 10<sup>7</sup> cells per Petri dish. All binding experiments were performed in 96-well GF/C plates pre-soaked in 0.5% polyethylenimine, and using PBS buffer complemented with 0.1% BSA. The reaction was stopped by simultaneous filtration of the 96 wells with a FilterMate harvester (PerkinElmer, France). The filters were washed twice with ice-cold buffer and dried, 25 µl of MicroScint was added, and the bound radioactivity was counted by scintillation spectrometry on a TopCount beta counter (PerkinElmer, France).

118 Equilibrium competition with the  $\alpha$ 7/5HT<sub>3</sub> chimera used a cell density adjusted to bind specifically no more than 10% of [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G (1 nM). IC<sub>50</sub> values were determined by fitting the competition 119 120 data with a Hill equation and conversion to  $K_i$  constants using the equation:  $K_i = IC_{50}/(1+L^*/K_d)$ . 121 Association kinetic experiments were performed with 3 different concentrations of [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G (1, 122 1.9 and 3.6 nM) and the apparent association constants obtained from these experiments were plotted 123 against the tracer concentrations. The slope of this line corresponds to the association kinetic constant Kon. Dissociation experiments were performed at 1.9 nM of [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G and the dissociation was 124 125 measured for 3 h after the addition of 1 µM of PnTx-G. Each experiment was performed two times in duplicate. 126

127

128 2.3. In vivo experiments

#### 129 2.3.1 Ethical compliance

Animal care and surgical procedures were performed according to the Directive 2010/63/EU of the European Parliament, which had been approved by the Ministry of Agriculture, France. The project was submitted to the French Ethics Committee CEEA (Comité d'Ethique en Expérimentation Animale) and obtained the authorization APAFIS#4111-2016021613253432 v5. All experiments were performed in accordance with relevant named guidelines and regulations. Experiments were conducted on adult Wistar rats from Janvier Labs (Le Genest St Isle, France).

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#### 2.3.2 Toxicokinetics, organ distribution, and elimination

Wistar male rats were anesthetized with 2% isoflurane (Iso-vet®, Piramal, UK). A 22G Surflo i.v. 138 catheter (Terumo, Japan) was inserted into the tail vein for intravenous (i.v.) injection of [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G 139 140 at 3 µg/kg. This dose was selected because was not lethal to rats, as determined by a 24 h period of observation. Blood samples were collected between 2 and 15 min after i.v. injection. Animals were 141 euthanized 15 min after [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G administration, and perfused with 0.9% NaCl (30 mL/rat, 300 142 143 mL/h) for collection of major organs. Urine and feces were collected 4 h after administration. Quantification of  $\beta$ -radioactivity contained in blood and organs was performed using a Liquid 144 145 Scintillation Analyzer (Tri-Carb 2100TR, Packard BioScience Company, USA). Toxicokinetic 146 parameters were calculated with the non-compartmental analysis Linear up/Log down method, using 147 the PKSolver add-in program (Excel).

148

#### 2.3.3 Investigation of biological barriers crossing

Fasted rats were exposed by oral gavage to 100  $\mu$ g/kg of [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G in PBS. The dose was chosen on the basis of our own preliminary studies, given that it is not lethal to rats, and because it corresponds to about 4 times the proposed maximum tolerable concentration of PnTX-G contaminating shellfish (23  $\mu$ g PnTX G/kg of total meat) (see Introduction). We used oral gavage, instead of intraperitoneal administration, since the oral route of administration is the one that may be related to consumption of contaminated shellfish in humans, and because it assures less variability, pain, and discomfort for the animals. The administration by gavage followed the OECD 156 recommendations for the testing of chemicals. Rats were euthanized 6 h after exposure to the 157 radiolabeled toxin.

158 Tissue sections were prepared on a microtome and analyzed by digital autoradiography.

Pregnant female rats were i.v. injected 19 days after fertilization with  $10 \mu g/kg$  of [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G to explore the ability of PnTx-G to cross the placental barrier. The dose was chosen for the reason that is not lethal to pregnant rats, according to our preliminary studies. Rats were euthanized 30 min later and perfused with 0.9% NaCl. Embryos and placentas were rapidly collected and snap-frozen to prepare whole-body sagittal tissue sections, for digital autoradiographic analyses and to measure radioactivity content.

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#### 166 *2.4. Digital autoradiography*

The analyzed organs were maintained in mounting medium, and tissue sections (20 µm thick) were 167 cut at -20 °C with a slicing microtome (Leica Microsystems, France). The microtome was carefully 168 169 cleaned with water-ethanol solution between treatment of each sample to remove any trace of 170 radioactivity and avoid contamination between different organs. The absence of radioactive contaminants in the rinsing solution was checked by radioimaging of drop samples. The tissue sections 171 172 were placed on glass slides and were either stored in a freezer for microscopy analyses or kept at room 173 temperature for 1 day in the presence of silica gel to ensure complete drying for proper radioimaging. 174 A high-performance autoradiography imager (β-imager 2000, Biospace Lab, Paris, France) allowing real-time radioactive imaging through direct β-particle counting and absolute radioactivity 175 quantification (detection threshold of 0.001 cpm/mm<sup>2</sup> for <sup>3</sup>H) was used to measure radioactivity in 176 177 dried tissue sections. These sections were analyzed by radioimaging at high resolution and sensitivity 178 (125 µm resolution and 0.5 pCi detection threshold) using digital autoradiography, to determine the count/per tissue section volume, which was converted to total radioactivity per organ on the basis of 179 180 the total volume of each organ (determined by organ weighing)

181 The time of acquisition on the β-Imager was 1 h for peripheral organ preparations and 24 h for182 brain sections.

#### 183 2.5. HPLC analysis of organ extracts

Soluble extracts of spleen, liver and whole brain from rats sacrificed 30 min post-injection were prepared as follows: organs were resuspended in 3 mL TFA (trifluoroacetic acid) and homogenized using an Ultra Turrax® system (IKA-Werke, Gmbh & Co Kg, Staufen, Germany). The homogenate was rinsed with 15 mL of MilliQ H<sub>2</sub>O and was kept on ice for 5 min before being centrifuged (8,000 rpm, 15 min at 4°C). Supernatants were collected, analyzed with radio-HPLC (Kromasyl HPLC C18 column 4.6 x 150 mm) and compared to control analysis of [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G.

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#### 191 2.6. Reconstruction 3D images

192 Six embryos from 2 pregnant rats were recovered for histological and autoradiographic analyses. After euthanasia, embryos were immediately frozen at -40 °C in isopentane. They were cut into 20-µm 193 194 thick sections (sagittal embryo sections, coronal brain sections) with a CM3050S cryostat (Leica, 195 Rueil-Malmaison, France). Every fourth section was mounted on Superfrost glass slides, and rapidly 196 dried in a desiccator. After autoradiography imaging, the same sections were processed for Nissl 197 staining, to obtain additional information about brain anatomy. Images from the embryo surface, corresponding to sections subsequently processed, were recorded before sectioning using a digital 198 199 camera (Oscar F-810C, 8 megapixels, Allied Vision Technologies, Stadtroda, Germany) with an in-200 plane resolution of  $27 \times 27 \ \mu m^2$ . Block-face photographs were stacked and tissue was automatically 201 segmented using a histogram analysis method. As these images were taken prior to sectioning at the 202 exact same position section after section when the imaged tissue was still attached to the block, so the 203 resulting stack of photographs was therefore intrinsically 3D spatially coherent.

To further refine the toxin biodistribution in the rat embryo, we applied a protocol previously developed to obtain 3D imaging of adult animal brain from tissue sections (Dauguet et al., 2007). As shown in supplementary material (Fig. S3, Supplementary information) 66 sagittal embryo section images were produced consecutively by photography, histological coloration (cresyl violet) and digital autoradiography, allowing 3D reconstruction of the volumes by co-alignment of the block face, histological and autoradiographic slices. The digitalization of the autoradiography and histological 210 sections and the 3D reconstruction of the images are described in detail in the supplementary 211 materials.

212

#### 213 2.7. Passage through the human placental barrier

214 2.7.1 Mass calibration and analysis

215 The mass spectrometry analysis of PnTx-G was described in supplementary materials section.

216

217 2.7.2 Human placental perfused cotyledon model

Term placentas (37-40 weeks of gestation) from uneventful pregnancies were immediately 218 collected after vaginal delivery or cesarean section from the Port-Royal Hospital Obstetrics 219 220 Department (Paris, France). The enrolled patients did not receive any medication, except for epidural 221 analgesia or oxytocin during labor, and did not present any vascular disease such as diabetes mellitus, 222 preeclampsia, or intra-uterine growth restriction. These placentas were obtained following informed patient written consent and approval from our local ethics committee (CPP Paris Ile-de-France 3, N-223 224 18-05, Paris, France). Collected placentas (n = 3) were perfused in a double circuit according to a validated method as previously described (Ceccaldi et al., 2009). Maternal and fetal solutions were 225 prepared with Earle's medium containing 25 g/L bovine serum albumin (Euromedex, 226 227 Souffelweyersheim, France). The pH of the maternal and fetal compartments was adjusted to  $7.4 \pm 0.1$ 228 and  $7.2 \pm 0.1$ , respectively.

229 Perfusion experiments were started within 20 min after delivery. After a visual examination to confirm the vascular integrity of both maternal and fetal sides, a distal branch of a fetal artery and its 230 231 associated vein that were supplying a selected cotyledon were cannulated. The fetal circulation was 232 established at a flow rate of 6 mL.min<sup>-1</sup> (to ensure a balance between arterial and fetal venous flow). 233 Placentas with evidence of vascular leakage were discarded. On the maternal side, the perfused area 234 progressively whitened, which allowed visualization of the chosen cotyledon. After a wash step of 10 235 min, the maternal perfusion was initiated by inserting two catheters into the intervillous space on the maternal side. The maternal circulation was established at a flow rate of 12 mL.min<sup>-1</sup>. Parameters such 236 as perfusion pressure in the fetal vasculature and potential fluid leakage from the fetal circulation were 237

monitored to check the technical process. After an additional wash step of 5 min, a freely diffusing 238 marker, antipyrine, was added to the maternal medium (final concentration 20 mg/L) and PnTx-G (100 239 240 nM) was subsequently added to the same compartment. The perfusion duration was 90 min with maternal recirculation. Samples from the maternal circulation and venous fetal circulation were 241 collected at 0, 15, 30, 45, 60, 75 and 90 min, in order to monitor toxin concentrations. At the end of 242 perfusion, all the samples were stored at -80°C until toxin analysis. Standard parameters were 243 244 calculated according to Challier's formulas (Challier, 1985). Placental transfer was estimated from two transport parameters: the fetal transfer rate (FTR) and the clearance index. Calculating the clearance 245 246 index allowed comparison of results during different experiments and evaluation of the index of transplacental transfer from one placental unit to another. 247

- 248 The two transport parameters were calculated as follows:
- The Fetal Transfer Rate (FTR) = (Cf / Cm) x 100, where Cf is the venous fetal concentration of a molecule and Cm is the maternal concentration of the same molecule. The result is given as a percentage. FTR for antipyrine had to be over 20% as described by Challier (Challier, 1985).
- The Clearance Index = FTR (pinnatoxin)/FTR (antiypirine).
- 254

#### 255 2.8. In vitro competition experiments

256 Adult rats or rat embryos were euthanized and the whole embryos (n = 3) or adult brains (n = 3)were immediately frozen at -80°C. In turn, 16 and 42 coronal sections (20 µm) of embryo and brain 257 258 from each rat were cut and mounted onto chrome/gelatin coated slides and allowed to air dry overnight before being frozen again. All sections were preincubated in KRH buffer (20 mM HEPES, 118 mM 259 NaCl, 4.8 mM KCl, 2.5 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub> and 1.2 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub>) at 4°C for 30 min. Then, all sections were 260 incubated in cold KRH buffer for 90 min with 0.3 nM [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G with or without the different 261 262 competitors (cold 0.3 µM PnTx-G, 0.25 µM αC-conotoxin PrXA, 100 nM MLA for embryo slices and 0.3 µM PnTx-G, 100 nM MLA (methyllycaconitine) or 5 nM A-85380 for brain preparations). The 263 sections were rinsed twice in cold KRH buffer then twice in cold 20 mM HEPES buffer, and finally 264

rinsed in distilled water. As previously described, these sections were analyzed by digitalautoradiography for 24 h (embryo sections) or 64 h (brain sections).

267

#### 268 2.9. Statistics and Reproducibility

All quantitative measures were performed as independent replicates. All attempts to replicate the data were consistent. Statistical analyses and sample sizes are described in the pertinent figure legends. Statistical analysis was performed using Prism 7 software (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA). Differences between values were tested using the unpaired Student's *t*-test, and samples were considered statistically significant when P < 0.05.

274

**3. Results** 

276

#### **277** 3.1. Binding properties of $[^{3}H]$ -PnTx-G

In vitro and in vivo properties of PnTx-G were evaluated using its tritium labeled form ([<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-278 G), a labeling that fully preserves toxin bioactivity. The pharmacological properties of [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G 279 were evaluated by kinetic binding experiments on the  $\alpha$ 7 receptor subtype ( $\alpha$ 7-5HT<sub>3</sub> chimeric 280 receptor) in order to measure its association and dissociation rate constants. These values, were 281 respectively 7.7 10<sup>5</sup> M<sup>-1</sup>.sec<sup>-1</sup> and 1.7 10<sup>-4</sup> sec<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. S2a, S2b, Supplementary information), leading to 282 a dissociation constant (Kd = 0.22 nM), similar in value to that determined by competition binding 283 experiments, or in previously described results using  $[^{125}I]-\alpha$ -bungarotoxin ( $[^{125}I]-\alpha$ -BgTx) as 284 radiotracer (Fig. S2c, Table S1, Supplementary information). 285

286

#### 287 3.2. In vivo toxicokinetics, organ distribution and elimination of $[^{3}H]$ -PnTx-G

288 Maximum blood  $\beta$ -radioactivity concentration of [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G was observed 2 min after i.v. 289 administration (T<sub>max</sub>), representing 16.3 ± 3.2% of the administered dose (Fig. 1). The blood  $\beta$ -290 radioactivity concentration of [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G decreased after T<sub>max</sub>, showing a value of 6.9 ± 0.4% of the 291 administered dose 15 min after administration (Fig. 1a). The kinetic profile of [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G presented 292 an exponential decrease in radioactivity with a final elimination characterized by a terminal half-life,  $T_{1/2}$ , equal to 13 ± 4 min and an elimination constant equal to 0.06 ± 0.02 min<sup>-1</sup>. The estimated AUC<sub>0-t</sub> 293 was  $5.24 \pm 0.76 \text{ min}, \mu \text{Ci/mL}$ . The distribution volume was  $117.4 \pm 34.4 \text{ mL}$  and the clearance  $6.3 \pm$ 294 295 0.1 mL/min (Table 1). Maximum organ radioactivity concentrations of [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G were observed in the liver and small intestine 15 min after administration, with  $14.6 \pm 4.4\%$  and  $17.5 \pm 6.0\%$  of the 296 297 administered dose, respectively (Fig. 1b). Urine elimination represented  $3.6 \pm 0.6\%$  of the 298 administered dose, 15 min after injection, whereas feces elimination after 4 h accounted for only 0.04 299  $\pm 0.02\%$  of the administered dose (Fig. 1b).

300

301 3.3 PnTx-G crosses the intestinal and blood-brain barriers of adult rats

Previous studies have reported acute toxicity of PnTx-G in mice through respiratory failure after oral administration (Arnich et al., 2020; Munday et al., 2012; Sosa et al., 2020), suggesting the capacity of this toxin to cross the intestinal barrier.

305 As shown in Fig. 2a, when  $[{}^{3}H]$ -PnTx-G was administered orally to rate the radioactivity was 306 observed in peripheral organs such as liver, kidney and spleen, but also in various brain regions such 307 as the hippocampus and superficial gray layer of the superior colliculus (SuG). Interestingly, the 308 biodistribution of the toxin 15 min after i.v. injection in the brain was similar to that observed after 309 oral gavage. Further systematic tissue analyses revealed the presence of radioactivity in skeletal 310 muscles such as the *extensor digitorum longus* (EDL) and gastrocnemius muscles (Fig. 2b). In these muscles, the particular labeling of the radioactivity signal followed the distribution of the  $\alpha 1_2\beta 1_{\epsilon\delta}$ 311 muscle-type nAChR at skeletal neuromuscular junctions, an observation in agreement with the 312 interaction of PnTx-G with this receptor subtype. Similarly, the presence of radioactivity in the 313 314 hippocampus, SuG and hypothalamus would correspond to the toxin binding to various neuronal 315 nAChR subtypes known to be expressed in these brain structures.

Soluble extracts of spleen, whole brain and liver from rats euthanized 30 min post-injection were prepared and analyzed by HPLC coupled to a radioactivity detector. For the spleen, a single radioactivity peak eluting at the retention time of the native standard toxin was observed, demonstrating the stability of pinnatoxin during its distribution phases in this organ (Fig. 3a). In brain
extracts, in addition to the major native PnTx-G peak, minor metabolite peaks were also detected,
corresponding to 20% of the injected toxin. This percentage rose to 45% in liver extracts (Fig. 3a),
indicating a possible role of this organ in PnTx-G metabolization.

- 323
- 324 *3.4*

#### PnTx-G crosses the placental barrier

The ability of PnTx-G to cross the placental barrier was evaluated by injecting i.v. [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G to pregnant rats (19 days after fertilization) and determining the presence of the radiolabeled toxin in the placenta and in embryos. Thirty minutes after the [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G injection, the mean radioactivity present in placentas corresponded to 0.73 % of the injected dose, while in embryos represented 0.45 %.

330 As shown by the whole-body sagittal autoradiographic sections in Fig. 4a, different rat embryo 331 tissues were labeled by the  $[{}^{3}H]$ -PnTx-G, including the tongue, limb skeletal muscles, the spinal cord 332 and various brain regions, demonstrating the toxin's ability to cross the placental barrier and to 333 distribute into various tissues/organs. This labeling was highly reproducible in different sections from three different embryos (Fig. 4a), and the radioactivity was associated with the intact toxin, as revealed 334 by radio-HPLC analyses of whole embryo extracts (Fig. 3b) (Dauguet et al., 2007). To further refine 335 336 the [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G toxin biodistribution in the rat embryo, 3D reconstruction imaging was performed. 337 As can be seen in Fig. 4b, the toxin labels several peripheral organs such as the tongue, the liver, the 338 hindlimb and forelimb skeletal muscles, and several areas of the central nervous system, such as the 339 medulla oblongata, the pons, the trigeminal nerve and the cervical and thoracic ganglia.

The capacity of PnTx-G to cross the placental barrier was studied further, using a human perfused *ex vivo* cotyledon model, and quantitative detection of the intact toxin in maternal and fetal compartments (Fig. 5d) by mass spectrometry. For this, a mass spectrometry analysis of the PnTx-G standard was first performed (Fig. 5a), followed by the construction of a calibration curve for PnTx-G spiked at different known concentrations in naïve human placental perfusates (Fig. 5b) and submitted to an extraction protocol before analysis by MALDI-TOF spectrometry. The PnTx-G concentrations 346 detected in the maternal and fetal compartments, as a function of time (0-90 min), are shown in Fig. 5c, and the results of three placentas that were sucessfully perfused and validated using the mean fetal 347 348 transfer rate (FTR) of antipyrine are shown in Fig. 5e. These studies showed that a maximum value of 349 FTR was reached after 15 min of perfusion, and decreased slightly due to maternal recirculation (Fig. 5d-e). In comparison, the kinetics of the PnTx-G clearance index during the perfusion procedure 350 increased up to 30 min, and then reached a plateau up to 90 min (Fig. 5e). The mean clearance index 351 352 of PnTx-G was  $1.65 \pm 0.17$ , indicating that the FTR of the toxin is higher than the FTR of antipyrine, which undergoes only passive diffusion and is used to measure tissue integrity/membrane 353 permeability. 354

Since antipyrine neither binds to proteins nor accumulates in placental tissue, its transfer rate depends only on fetal and maternal flows, which should be constant during the perfusion. Hence, a clearance index value close to 1 demonstrates a mechanism of placental transfer by passive diffusion without placental accumulation (Challier, 1985). In this case, PnTx-G transfer was significantly higher than the transfer rate of antipyrine, reaching a value close to 2, indicating a rapid significant facilitated transfer of the toxin (p = 0.032).

361

#### 362 3.5 The nAChR receptor subtypes targeted by PnTx-G in rat embryos and adult rats

363 In an attempt to identify the main nAChR subtypes targeted by PnTx-G in rat embryos, whole-body 364 sagittal sections of rat embryos were prepared and incubated with [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G (0.3 nM) alone, or in the presence of three competitive ligands known to interact with different nAChR subtypes with 365 366 various selectivity profiles (Table S2, Supplementary information). Digital autoradiographic analyses 367 of these embryo sections (Fig. 6) highlighted first that the  $[{}^{3}H]$ -PnTx-G labeling obtained in this *in* 368 vitro experiment is impressively similar to that previously observed after in vivo toxin exposure (see 369 Fig. 4). This observation validates the use of *in vitro* labeling to study the binding specificity of the 370 toxin in vivo. Secondly, unlabeled PnTx-G (0.3 µM) largely displaced (up to 90%) [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G 371 binding, emphasizing the specificity of the toxin labeling in these tissues (Fig. 6a). Interestingly,  $\alpha$ Cconotoxin PrXA (0.25 µM), a ligand known to selectively interact with muscle-type nAChR (El-Aziz 372 et al., 2017; Jimenez et al., 2007), induced a large decrease of the labeling, highlighting the crucial role 373

of this receptor subtype in the toxin interaction. This was particularly obvious in peripheral organs such as the tongue or forelimb skeletal muscles, while the spinal cord and brain regions remained largely labeled. In contrast, MLA (100 nM), a specific  $\alpha$ 7 antagonist (Ward et al., 1990), displaced [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G labeling only weakly, but more efficiently in the CNS, such as the pineal gland and spinal cord regions (Fig. 6a). These observations suggest that  $\alpha$ 1<sub>2</sub> $\beta$ 1 $\gamma$  $\delta$  and  $\alpha$ 7 nAChRs are important targets for the toxin, in good agreement with the high affinity of PnTx for these two receptor subtypes (Table S2, Supplementary information), and with previous embryo labeling.

381 Furthermore, to assess the specificity of [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G binding to nAChR subtypes in various adult 382 rat brain regions, in vitro competition experiments were performed on brain tissue sections in the 383 absence or presence of various specific antagonists of nAChR subtypes: unlabeled PnTx-G, the 384 selective  $\alpha$ 7 nAChR antagonist MLA, and A-85380, a selective binder of the  $\alpha$ 4 $\beta$ 2 receptor subtype 385 (Sullivan et al., 1996) (Table S2, Supplementary information). Here again, it is worth mentioning that 386 in vitro brain imaging reproduced what was observed after in vivo exposure, suggesting, along with 387 competition experiments (see below), that the labeling is due to intact PnTx-G. Non-radioactive PnTx-388 G completely abrogates the labeling of the radioactive toxin, demonstrating the specificity of this 389 interaction in the central nervous system (Fig. 6b). Using MLA, a large part of the [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G 390 labeling was abolished, especially in hippocampus and hypothalamus regions, revealing a selective 391 toxin- $\alpha$ 7 receptor interaction in these regions, as well as the high content of this receptor subtype in 392 these brain areas (Fig. 6b). In the SuG region, MLA was less efficient than A-85380 in decreasing the  $[^{3}H]$ -PnTx-G-associated radioactivity, suggesting the prevalence of  $\beta$ 2-selective nAChRs in this area, 393 and in particular the  $\alpha 4\beta 2$  subtype, as previously reported (Baddick and Marks, 2011; Marks et al., 394 2011). In contrast, A-85380 was inefficient in abolishing the labeling in hippocampus and 395 hypothalamus regions (Fig. 6b). These results highlight the prevalence of  $[^{3}H]$ -PnTx-G labeling for  $\alpha7$ 396 397 nAChR in brain, even if other subtypes, such as the  $\alpha 4\beta 2$  subtype, also seem to be recognized, but to a 398 lesser extent.

399

#### 400 **4. Discussion**

PnTx belong to the CI toxin family, an emerging class of more than 40 different marine toxins 401 produced by dinoflagellates and distributed worldwide. Interestingly, among all the CI toxins, PnTx 402 403 display severe toxic effects after oral administration to mice, associated with piloerection, prostration, 404 decreased mobility (occasionally preceded by an initial phase of hyperactivity immediately following administration), hypothermia, hind leg paralysis, abdominal breathing and cyanosis, and finally death 405 by respiratory arrest (Arnich et al., 2020; Delcourt et al., 2019; Munday et al., 2012; Sosa et al., 2020). 406 407 These neurotoxic properties have been correlated with their high potency to block various central and peripheral nAChR subtypes (Aráoz et al., 2011; Delcourt et al., 2019; Molgó et al., 2017). 408 409 Nevertheless, no human poisoning has yet been associated with their ingestion via contaminated 410 shellfish. This may be because recent monitoring shows that reported PnTx-G levels are below the threshold value proposed by Anses (2019) of 23 µg/kg of total meat for contaminated shellfish in 411 412 various European shellfish production areas (Kvrgić et al., 2021; Lamas et al., 2019; Moreiras et al., 413 2019; Otero et al., 2019; Otero et al., 2020; Rambla-Alegre et al., 2018; Varriale et al., 2021). On the other hand, in places where PnTx-G levels were high, as in the Mediterranean Ingril lagoon (Anses, 414 415 2019; Aráoz et al., 2020; Hess et al., 2013), wild shellfish collection has been banned (since January 1, 2020) by the health authorities because of the possible health risk to shellfish consumers. Interestingly, 416 a recent publication suggests a possible link between PnTx and portimine release during a V. rugosum 417 418 bloom and acute dermal irritation in sixty people (mostly children) who had prolonged contact with 419 the dinoflagellate bloom in Cuba's Caribbean waters (Moreira-González et al., 2021).

420 In the present study, we addressed more precisely the toxicokinetic properties of PnTx-G, how 421 PnTx interact *in vivo* with their central and peripheral receptor targets, and how easily they cross physiological barriers. First, the rapid blood clearance of  $[{}^{3}H]$ -PnTx-G ( $t_{1/2} = 13$  min) was shown, as 422 423 well as its distribution in several peripheral organs and in the brain. In addition, using digital 424 autoradiographic approaches in the adult rat, we provide evidence that after oral gavage or i.v. 425 injection, [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G crosses the intestinal and blood-brain barriers to target skeletal muscle and brain neuronal nAChR subtypes, respectively. Despite possible minor metabolization of PnTx-G in the 426 brain, the labeling of the main brain structures by the intact toxin was supported by autoradiographic 427 competition experiments performed on brain tissue sections. Indeed, to determine the subtypes of 428

429 neuronal nAChRs involved, coronal rat brain sections were incubated with [3H]-PnTx-G alone, or in the presence of selective nAChR ligands, highlighting the major target role of the a7 nAChR subtype 430 431 in the central nervous system. The ability of CI toxins to cross the blood-brain barrier was first 432 suggested by transcriptional and immunohistochemical analysis showing that neuronal nAChRs were upregulated after intraperitoneal spirolide administration to rats (Gill et al., 2003). More recently, mass 433 spectrometry analyses revealed the ability of 13-desmethyl spirolide C to cross the blood-brain barrier 434 435 in a transgenic mouse model (Alonso et al., 2013), but without any precise information on the brain 436 areas and nAChR subtypes recognized in the central nervous system. Interestingly, the role of  $\alpha$ 7 437 nAChR in receptor-mediated transcytosis across the blood-brain barrier was already suggested, and 438 exploited for brain-targeted drug delivery (Huey et al., 2017; Wei et al., 2015). This process could 439 explain the ability of PnTx-G to cross so efficiently the blood-brain barrier, and eventually the other 440 physiological barriers.

Second, biodistribution analyses on full embryo sections after i.v. administration of [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G to 441 pregnant rats, associated with 3D reconstruction imaging, revealed the ability of the toxin to cross the 442 443 placental barrier and to distribute into various peripheral and central organs of the embryos. 444 Intriguingly, the embryonic brain stem regions labeled by the toxin (spinal cord, medulla oblongata, 445 pons) are not similar to those highlighted in the adult rat (hippocampus, SuG, hypothalamus). This 446 observation seems to be in line with the timing of our observation (E19) and the timeline of brain 447 regional neurogenesis in rat in which the spinal cord, medulla and pons mature early (from gestational 448 days 11 to 16), while hippocampus neurogenesis starts later and continues until postnatal days 16-19 449 (Rice and Barone, 2000). Furthermore, the embryo regions labeled by the toxin superimposed nicely 450 with those described in the eMouse Atlas, which are known to over-express the  $\alpha$ 7- and  $\alpha$ 1-nAChRs 451 genes in central and peripheral regions of the mouse embryo (Armit et al., 2017). In line with the 452 ability of PnTx-G to cross the placental barrier in the rat, similar results were established using a 453 human placental perfused cotyledon model. A facilitated transfer of the toxin was observed in this 454 human placental model, suggesting a possible role of nAChRs in this process. This hypothesis seems to reinforce the view of the reported expression of various nAChR subtypes, including  $\alpha$ 7, in the 455 456 placenta (Machaalani et al., 2018).

In conclusion, the collective results from this study show that when PnTx-G was ingested, the toxin 457 crossed the intestinal and blood-brain barriers and reached specific brain regions. Our results also 458 459 demonstrate the placental transport of PnTx-G, following single low-dose exposure of pregnant rats 460 and in a human placental cotyledon model. The significance these outcomes may have for pregnant women exposed to PnTx-G by ingestion of contaminated shellfish is at present unknown. Likewise, 461 the consequences of mammalian fetal exposure to PnTx-G remain to be determined. Nevertheless, a 462 463 preliminary study tackling the potential developmental toxicity of PnTx in chick embryos has been 464 reported (Couesnon et al., 2014). These results raise many additional questions on the mechanisms by which PnTx target the nervous and impact on the musculoskeletal systems, and on the potential risk 465 associated with long-term consumption of contaminated shellfish on human health. 466

467

#### 468 Figure Legends

**Fig. 1.** Toxicokinetics, organ distribution and elimination of [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G in male rats. (a) Blood PnTx-G β-radioactivity, expressed as a % of the single i.v. dose (3 µg/kg) administered to rats (n=3), as a function of time. Each symbol in the curve represents the mean ± SEM. (b) PnTx-G βradioactivity in organs, urine and feces, expressed as a % of the administered dose (i.v., 3 µg/kg). Data were determined 15 min (organs and urine) or 4 h (feces) after single i.v. administration to rats (n=3)(mean ± SEM).

475 Fig. 2 Biodistribution of [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G either after oral gavage (100 µg/kg) (a) or i.v. injection (3  $\mu g/kg$ ) (b) of the toxin to rats. Rats were euthanized 6 h (oral gavage, n = 3) or 15 min (iv, n = 3) after 476 exposure to the radiolabeled toxin, and perfused with a solution of NaCl to remove the radioactivity 477 478 from blood, preceding the radioactivity count of individual organ tissues. The images represent middle 479 sections of peripheral organs and are located at Bregma -5.52 mm in the brain. The intensity scale (blue to red) is proportional to the increase in radioactivity levels (in counts/pixel). The time for image 480 acquisition on the  $\beta$ -Imager was 1 h for peripheral organs and 24 h for the brain. Images are 481 representative of at least 24 sections from 3 rats. 482

Fig. 3 (a) Radio-HPLC analyses of [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G (15 nCi control) and soluble extracts from spleen, brain and liver of rats injected with the toxin. (b) Radio-HPLC analyses of [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G (control) and soluble extracts from rat embryo extracts. Soluble extracts of spleen, liver, brain and whole embryos were obtained from rats euthanized 30 min post-i.v. injection, and were prepared using a homogenizer and centrifugation. Supernatants were collected, analyzed with a radio-HPLC column (Kromasyl C18 4.6 x 150 mm), and compared to control analysis of [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G.

490 Fig. 4 Biodistribution of [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G in rat embryos, 30 min after i.v. injection of toxin in pregnant 491 rats. (a) Optical (left) and autoradiographic images (right) of rat embryo sagittal sections. Two slices 492 (spaced by 80 µm) representative of the 66 sections from each of the three different embryos were 493 analyzed by digital autoradiography. The intensity scale (blue to red) is proportional to the 494 radioactivity levels (in count/pixel). (b) 3D reconstruction images of [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G labeling from 66 495 embryo sections (see protocols in Methods section) highlighting the regions with the higher or lower 496 radioactivity levels detected using respectively high and low thresholds defined by experts 497 (corresponding respectively to 89% and 83% of the maximal radioactivity value). In blue and green, respective  $[^{3}H]$ -PnTx-G labeled regions with  $\alpha$ 7- and  $\alpha$ 1-nAChR enriched gene expression(Armit et 498 499 al., 2017). Tongue in cyan expressed both receptor subtypes and liver and other brain areas are colored 500 in gray.

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**Fig. 5** Maternal-fetal transfer of PnTx-G in a human perfused *ex vivo* cotyledon model. (a) Mass spectrometry analysis of PnTx-G standard. (b) Calibration curve of PnTx-G that was spiked at different known concentrations in placental perfusates, and submitted to an extraction protocol before analysis by MALDI-TOF spectrometry (mean  $\pm$  SD, n = 4-6). (c) Measurement in maternal (Perfusate Placenta Maternal (PPM) with maternal recirculation) and fetal (Perfusate Placenta Fetal (PPF) without fetal recirculation) compartments of PnTx-G concentration, from time 0 (T0) to time 90 (T90), in min (mean  $\pm$  SD, n = 3). (d) Schematic view of the human perfused cotyledon model, and (e) fetal transfer rate of antipyrine (ATP) and kinetics of clearance index (PnTx-G transfer/antipyrine transfer ratio) of PnTx-G (mean  $\pm$  SD, n = 3).

511

Fig. 6 Digital autoradiography of sagittal sections of rat embryos (a) and adult rat coronal brain slices 512 (b) incubated with [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G alone or in the presence of selective nAChR ligands. (a) Sagittal 513 sections of rat embryos were prepared and incubated for 90 min with [<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G (0.3 nM) with or 514 515 without the different competitors (unlabeled 0.3 µM PnTx-G, 0.25 µM aC-conotoxin PrXA, 100 nM MLA). Each image is representative of one of the 16 slices of each embryo, (n = 3). (b) In vitro 516 517 competition experiments on adult rat coronal brain sections incubated for 90 min with [<sup>3</sup>H-PnTx-G] and various nAChR antagonist ligand competitors (cold 0.3 µM PnTx-G, 100 nM MLA, 5 nM A-518 85380). Each image is representative of one of the 42 sections of each brain (bregma B:-6.12) (n = 3). 519 All the sections were analyzed by digital autoradiography after 24 h (embryos sections) or 64 h (brain 520 sections) of acquisition on the  $\beta$ -Imager. The intensity scale (blue to red) is proportional to the 521 increase in radioactivity level (in counts/pixel). 522

523

#### 524 CRediT authorship contribution statement

525

526 Denis Servent: Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Funding acquisition, Supervision, Writing original draft. Carole Malgorn: Investigation. Mylène Bernes: Investigation. Sophie Gil: 527 Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing - review & editing. Christelle Simasotchi: Investigation. 528 Anne-Sophie Hérard: Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing - review & editing. Thierry 529 Delzescaux: Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing – review & editing. Robert Thai: Investigation. 530 Peggy Barbe: Investigation. Mathilde Keck: Investigation, Formal analysis. Fabrice Beau: 531 Investigation. Armen Zakarian: Investigation, Funding acquisition, Writing - review & editing. 532 533 Vincent Dive: Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Funding acquisition, Supervision, Writing -534 review & editing. Jordi Molgó: Conceptualization, Investigation, Formal analysis, Supervision, 535 Writing – review & editing.

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538	The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships
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b

#### **Gastrocnemius muscle**



#### Brain



















+ MLA (100 nM)



+ Conotoxin-PrXA (0.25 µM)

[<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G (0.3 nM) + PnTx-G (0.3 μM)



[<sup>3</sup>H]-PnTx-G (0.3 nM)





