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Seasonal differences and grazing pressure alter the fate of gold nanoparticles in a microcosm experiment

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17 Abstract:

18 Gold nanoparticles (AuNPs) are used as models to track and predict NP fates and effects in19 ecosystems. Previous work found that aquatic macrophytes and their associated biofilm primarily

drove the fate of AuNPs within aquatic ecosystems and that seasonality was an important abiotic 20 21 factor in the fate of AuNPs. Therefore, the present work aims to study if grazers, by feeding on these interfaces, modify the AuNP fate and if this is altered by seasonal fluctuations. Microcosms 22 were dosed with 44.8 µg/L of AuNP weekly for 4 weeks and maintained in environmental 23 chambers simulating Spring and Fall light and temperature conditions. We discovered that 24 25 seasonal changes and the presence of grazers significantly altered the fate of Au. Higher temperatures in the warmer season increased dissolved organic carbon (DOC) content in the water 26 27 column, leading to stabilization of Au in the water column. Additionally, snail grazing on biofilm 28 growing on the *Egeria densa* surface led to a transfer of Au from macrophytes to the organic matter above the sediments. These results demonstrate that climate and grazers significantly impacted the 29 fate of Au from AuNPs, highlighting the role that grazers might have in a large and biologically 30 more complex ecosystem. 31

Graphical abstract: 32





34 Keywords: Snails, nanomaterials, emerging contaminants, macrophytes, microcosms

35 Synopsis:

This study highlights how food web complexity and seasonal changes influence nanomaterial fate in aquatic systems, which can impact aquatic plant growth and alter water quality.

38 Introduction:

39 Engineered nanomaterial use is increasing in a wide variety of applications ranging from drug delivery to agriculture use^{1–3}. While many studies have shown that nanomaterials can cause 40 toxicity ^{4,5}, further research is needed to fully understand how these chemicals interact within the 41 42 environment and in the presence of other stressors. Gold nanoparticles (AuNPs) are frequently used as a nanomaterial model^{6–9} but use is also growing in the fields of biomedicine, technology, 43 and pharmaceuticals^{10–12}. Previous research has shown that citrate capped AuNPs have high 44 chemical stability in abiotic, surface waters and overall low toxicity in aquatic environments, 45 suggesting low environmental consequences if AuNPs enter aquatic ecosystems^{13,14}. Though inert 46 in sterile conditions, AuNPs can undergo oxidation in the presence of biofilms¹³ where they can 47 interact with other biological systems¹⁴⁻¹⁷. Therefore, AuNPs are used as a model for 48 understanding how biological responses can impact the chemical and physical processes and 49 influence the fate and transport of Au within systems of varying complexity. 50

51 Our previous work demonstrated that low-level, chronic AuNP enrichment led to 52 significant increases in algal blooms and hypoxia¹⁵ in large-scale freshwater mesocosm setups. We 53 hypothesize that this interaction was largely modulated by primary consumers and a macrophyte 54 *Egeria densa*, but the large-scale experimental design limited our ability to test this interaction 55 implicitly. Other work using *E. densa* has shown that AuNPs are not taken up through shoot or

root uptake and adsorption of AuNPs on plant surfaces was influenced by dissolved organic carbon 56 present in the water column¹⁸. Yet, we found that the dominant fate of AuNPs was deposition on, 57 and/or absorption into the macrophyte Egeria densa resulting in suppression of growth and 58 productivity¹⁵. Due to this suppression, we concluded that algae within the water column were able 59 to outcompete rooted macrophytes for nutrients, shifting the mesocosms from clear water to an 60 algal bloom state¹⁵. It has also been shown that an increase in algae and epiphyton is capable of 61 suppressing macrophyte growth leading to algal blooms¹⁹. Furthermore, it was found that Au from 62 supposedly inert AuNPs present at the macrophyte interface had largely undergone oxidation due 63 to microbial activity within the biofilms attached to macrophyte leaves leading to Au 64 dissolution^{13,15}. The Au fate and transformation at the macrophyte interface seem to be one of the 65 major drivers for the ecosystem responses¹³. To add to this complexity, biofilm grazers are also 66 present at this interface and will feed on the macrophyte leaves and biofilm, accumulating Au 67 within their tissues²⁰. Snail grazing has also been shown to significantly impact the water column 68 quality through nitrogen, phosphorus, and carbon excretions^{20,21}. Grazing on the surface of 69 macrophytes can significantly reduce algal assemblages and improve macrophyte growth by 70 grazing on epiphyton and increasing light attenuation^{22,23}. Therefore, grazing activity at this 71 72 interface may thus modulate AuNP fate and transformation, and potentially impact their overall effect at the ecosystem level. 73

In this present work, we aimed at understanding the extent to which biofilm grazers (snails) could alter the fate of Au in simplified systems regarding its association with the different compartments of the microcosms (*Egeria densa*, biofilm, sediment floc, or water column). We hypothesized that grazers may reduce the amount of AuNP associated with macrophytes by reducing biofilm growth. If true, grazing may alter AuNPs fate, transport, and form of Au within the microcosm. We used the pulmonate, *Physa gyrina*, which is an air-breathing freshwater snail that primarily consumes filamentous algae, detritus, and senescent plant tissue²⁴. *P. gyrina* was chosen as a grazer for this experiment due to their ability to consume large amounts of filamentous algae while not directly consuming live plant tissue since we wanted to test Au toxicity and concentration in aquatic macrophytes. Furthermore, aquatic snails are readily found in freshwater habitats that are susceptible to runoff and chemical exposures and have shown to accumulate nanoparticles in their tissues^{25,26}.

86 Additionally, we wanted to understand how grazer activity and seasonal differences will influence the impact and fate of AuNP in a simplified aquatic ecosystem. Previous research has 87 shown that gold nanoparticles impacted E. densa growth rates and ecosystem metabolism rates 88 more substantially in the spring months than in the fall¹⁵. In order to manipulate both biotic and 89 abiotic conditions while controlling the exposure and growth conditions parameters, we used 90 91 microcosms to test our ecological questions with a high replication, while simplifying the chemical 92 and biological complexity of the system to isolate the grazers contribution in the observation. Our simplified food web treatments included three biotic factors: phytoplankton, the aquatic 93 macrophyte Egeria densa, and the aquatic snail Physa gyrina. The microcosms were randomly 94 95 sorted into two treatment groups: control and AuNP addition. The AuNP treatments were dosed each week for four weeks to investigate the effects of chronic AuNP exposure. Both treatment 96 groups received two seasonal conditions, fall (12.5°C average) and spring (25°C average), and 97 with and without grazing pressure. We hypothesized that spring would have higher biological 98 99 metabolism causing stress between organisms through competition. Higher competition coupled 100 with AuNP stress could result in less *E. densa* growth and productivity.

101 Materials and Methods:

Citrate-coated gold nanoparticles were synthesized by the Center for the Environmental 103 104 Implication of Nanotechnology (CEINT). In filtered (0.45µm), control mesocosms water (pH 7.5, 105 conductivity 80 μ S/cm), AuNPs have a hydrodynamic diameter of 10.86 \pm 1.44 nm and zeta potential in ultrapure water of -13 ± 6.24 mV. Full characterization of gold nanoparticles used in 106 107 this experiment has previously been reported^{8,22}. Each week 31.36 μ g of AuNP were added to each microcosm for a total of 125.44 µg added over the four weeks of the experiment. To dose, 108 each microcosm received 196 µL of 160 ppm AuNP stock solution pipetted across the water 109 surface for even dispersal of nanoparticles. 110

111 <u>Experimental Design and microcosm setup</u>

Microcosms were built into acid-washed one-quart Ball® glass mason jars (16.36 x 8.59 112 cm). Water and E. densa were collected in July 2017 from a control mesocosm setup from the 113 previous experiment in Duke Forest. Each microcosm was inoculated with phytoplankton 114 communities collected from a local wetland and filtered through a 0.25 mm sieve to remove large 115 organisms and debris. Physa gyrina were purchased from Carolina Biological Supply. We used 116 117 two seasonal conditions (spring vs fall), two AuNP conditions (AuNP vs Control), and two food web conditions. The two food web conditions created were Phytoplankton + Macrophyte, and 118 Phytoplankton + Macrophyte + Snails. This full factorial design resulted in 8 treatments with 48 119 120 microcosms in total (2 food webs x 2 seasons x 2 AuNP x 6 technical replicates). Macrophyte shoots were added to a bin with DI water and loaded onto a shaker for one hour at medium speed 121 to ensure *E. densa* did not contain any phytoplankton or organisms. Shoots were examined again 122 before placing them into the microcosms. 123





Each microcosm was assembled using 100 g of Quikrete pool filter sand thoroughly rinsed with 126 DI water and dried at 100°C, 700 mL of filtered (0.25mm) mesocosm water, 1 mL of 127 phytoplankton communities, and five shoots of rinsed E. densa with a total wet biomass of 6g. 128 Microcosms were then capped with Parafilm® to allow the exchange of gases as well as light 129 infiltration and placed in their respective controlled environmental growth chamber. Macrophytes 130 and phytoplankton were acclimated to the microcosms for one week. During the acclimation 131 period, microcosms were dosed with 0.1433 mg of Nitrogen (N) as KNO₃ and 0.05697 mg of 132 phosphorus (P) as KH₂PO₄. Nutrient addition continued weekly for the duration of the experiment 133 for a total of 0.7165 mg of N and 0.2849 mg of P over five weeks. After the one-week acclimation 134 period, snails and AuNP treatments were added. 135

For the snail treatments, five *P. gyrina* were added to the microcosms. After receiving snails from 136 Carolina Biological, snails were kept in holding aquariums filled with the same water, sand, 137 phytoplankton, and E. densa as the microcosms, allowing them to clear their intestinal tract for 48 138 hours and acclimate to the experimental conditions²⁵. For each microcosm that received snails, 139 five snails were removed from the holding aquariums, lengths and weights were recorded, and 140 141 unique enamel paint markings were applied to each snail before placing the snails in their respective microcosms. The size variation for individual snails was maintained for each microcosm 142 replicate (Table S1). To control for any effects on the systems from the addition of the enamel 143 paint, glass beads were tagged in the same way as the snails and placed in all microcosms that did 144 not contain snails. During the experiment, we replaced dead snails and removed any snail egg 145 masses to keep the number of snails and snail biomass consistent across all treatments. Microcosms 146 were monitored twice a week for egg clutches and snail death. Egg clutches were removed with a 147 disposable transfer pipette with the tip cut. When snail death occurred, they were removed and 148 replaced with a snail similar in size and weight, and the timing of exposure in the microcosms for 149 each snail was tracked if they were introduced later in the experiment. 150

151 *Incubation chambers*

Our seasonality treatments were maintained by running the experiment in two controlled environmental growth chambers that were set to mimic the average seasonal conditions recorded during our previous field mesocosm experiment. In the spring treatment, the chamber oscillated between a 15-hour day at 30°C and a 9-hour night at 20°C. In the fall treatment, the chamber cycled between a 12-hour day at 15°C and a 12-hour night at 10°C. All work was performed inside of the incubators, and microcosms were maintained on wire shelving units equipped with 158 fluorescent lights. Jars were randomized within these shelving units, with replicates rotated twice159 a week to eliminate any shading effects.

160 <u>Sample collection and analysis</u>

After 28 days of AuNP exposure, microcosms were disassembled. Water samples were collected and dissolved organic matter and total nitrogen (TN) were measured using TOC- VCPH Analyzer with a TNM-1 module (Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan), and ammonium and phosphate were analyzed using Lachat QuikChem 8500 autoanalyzer. Au concentration was determined using ICP-MS after acidification of the samples with HNO₃.

We determined the biomass and tissue Au concentrations of macrophytes, macrophyte 166 associated biofilm, and snails. To remove the biofilm from E. densa shoots, shoots from each 167 microcosm were placed into 100 mL of ultrapure water in a 250 mL Nalgene bottle and vigorously 168 shaken by hand for 30 seconds. The cleaned shoots were then placed in aluminum tins and dried 169 at 60°C for 48 hours to determine total dry biomass. The biofilm that was removed from the E. 170 densa shoots was transferred to a weigh boat and dried at 60°C for 48 hours and weighed. Snails 171 were removed from their microcosms and placed into a 15 mL conical tube and stored in the freezer 172 173 until mass and Au content were measured. After thawing, snails were removed from their shell and dried at 60°C for 24 hours. After weighing all dried biomass samples were ground to a fine 174 powder and weighed before digestion for metal analysis. 175

We expected unconsolidated organic matter, or floc, which accumulated on top of the sand throughout the experiment to be an important reservoir of Au. The constituents of the floc that accumulated varied by treatment. The Phytoplankton + Macrophyte mainly consisted of decaying *E. densa* debris, and Phytoplankton+Macrophyte+Snails was a combination of *E. densa* debris and snail excrement. At the end of the experiment, transfer pipettes were used to collect all the floc from each replicate. Floc samples were then homogenized, and subsamples were concentrated onto a 0.7 μ m pore glass fiber filter attached to a filtering apparatus. All filters were dried at 60°C for 48 hours and weighed to determine dry floc mass. After weighing, each filter was cut in half and re-weighed. Half of the filter was subsequently combusted at 500°C for 1 hour in a muffle furnace to determine the ash-free dry mass (AFDM). The second half was then processed to determine AuNP content.

All dried solid samples were subsequently digested and analyzed for their Au content. The 187 glass fiber filters used to determine AFDM were cut into small pieces and transferred into Teflon 188 vials with 1 mL of 15 N hydrofluoric acid and 2 mL of 15 N nitric acid. Samples were heated for 189 30 min and allowed to air dry under a fume hood until all acid was removed. Rehydrated snails, 190 biofilm, pre-digested filters, and E. densa powders were then digested in 70% HNO3 overnight 191 and heated for 30 minutes at 95°C. HCl 30% was added to match a 3:1 HNO₃: HCl volume ratio 192 193 and heated additionally at 95°C for 30 minutes. All digested samples were diluted to 2% HNO₃, filtered at 0.45µm, and analyzed for Au concentration by ICP-MS (Agilent 7700 for plant and floc 194 samples and Agilent 7900 for snail and biofilm samples). Spike and certified reference material 195 196 recoveries were $95.6 \pm 4\%$, and detection limits were determined as (mean of 3 different reagent blanks) + $(3 \times SD \text{ of } 10 \text{ replicate analyses of the reagent blank solution}).$ 197

198 *Statistical analyses*

Endpoints were analyzed using either a one-way ANOVA to test for AuNP and snail treatment effects or a t-test when testing for snail effects or AuNP effects separately. One-way ANOVAs were followed by a Tukey posthoc test. All statistical analyses were performed in GraphPad Prism 8.0.1

204 **Results:**



Figure 2: Total dry biomass of each compartment in the microcosms at the end of the experiment (28 days). Panels A-D and E-H represent the biomass in the fall and spring microcosms, respectively. Data shown are the averages of six technical replicates <u>+</u>SEM. Note the y-axis range

on panels C and G graphs. Letters represent a significant difference (P < 0.05) from Tukey's post hoc test. Asterisks indicate statistical significance from a Student's t-test, * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.001, *** P < 0.001.

To assess how seasonal changes, AuNP, and snail presence influenced biotic growth after 214 28 days of AuNP exposure, total dry biomass was measured for each compartment in the 215 microcosms (Fig 2).

216 *Limited effects of AuNP on biomass pools or water chemistry*

217 Overall, AuNP exposure had limited effects on biomass pools or water chemistry in either the fall or spring microcosms or with snail grazing presence. However, in the fall microcosms, the 218 219 amount of biofilm significantly decreased with the addition of AuNP compared to control without 220 snails (-52%, P= 0.003) (Fig. 2B). While no effects were seen on the snail, E. densa, or floc biomass in the fall microcosms (Fig. 2 C-D). Additionally, no AuNP effects were seen in the spring 221 microcosms on biomass in any of the compartments measured. Additionally, AuNP did not alter 222 water chemistry parameters in either season (Fig. 3). Furthermore, we did not observe a difference 223 in *E. densa* photosynthetic and respiration rates with Au present compared to control (Fig. S6). 224



Figure 3: Dissolved organic carbon (DOC), Dissolved oxygen (DO), pH, and Specific Conductance in the water column of the microcosms. Data shown are the averages of six technical replicates \pm SEM. Letters represent a significant difference (P < 0.05) from Tukey's post hoc test.

Seasonal differences had a substantial impact on the amount of biomass for all 230 compartments. Snail and E. densa biomass decreased in the spring conditions compared to the fall 231 (-63%, P<0.001 and -4.1%, P=<0.001, respectively) (Fig. S1) while biofilm and floc organic 232 matter (OM) increased by 3.7-fold and 4.3-fold in the spring conditions compared to the fall (P< 233 0.001 and P=<0.001, respectively) (Fig. S1). Overall, the spring season had an increase in DOC, 234 235 total nitrogen (TN), ammonium nitrogen (NH4-N), and phosphorus (PO4-P) in the water column compared to the fall (P<0.001, Fig. S1-S2). Additionally, dissolved oxygen (DO) and specific 236 237 conductance also increased in the spring compared to the fall by 32% and 70%, respectively (P<0.001, Fig. S3), while pH remained similar between the two seasonal conditions. 238

In the fall conditions, snail grazing reduced the amount of biofilm by 66% in the controls and 25% in the AuNP treatments (P<0.001 and P= 0.77, respectively) (Fig. 2B). Snail presence did not influence the biomass of *E. densa* or floc; however, DOC within the water column increased in the control treatments by 73% (P<0.001) and AuNP treatments by 55% (P<0.001) with the addition of snails (Fig. 3A). Further, snail presence increased the amount of total nitrogen and phosphate in both control and AuNP treatments (Fig. S4).

In the spring conditions, snail grazing reduced the amount of biofilm by 97% in the control and 89% in the AuNP treatments (P<0.001 and P<0.001, respectively) (Fig. 2F). Snail presence also increased the amount of floc (OM) in the control treatments by 1.3-fold (P=0.009, Fig. 2H). Snail presence also increased the amount of DOC in the control only treatment by 59% (P=0.03, Fig. 3E) and had no significant impact on TN or phosphorus amounts (Fig. S2.



Figure 4: Au concentration in each compartment in the microcosms. Data shown are the averages of six technical replicates <u>+</u> SEM. Asterisks indicate statistical significance from a Student's t-test, P < 0.05, ** P < 0.001, *** P < 0.001.

Seasonal changes and snail grazing also played a significant role in the AuNP concentration found in each compartment in the microcosms. In the fall microcosms, the presence of snails significantly increased the Au concentration in the water column by 1.23 fold (Fig. 4A, P=0.005), while decreasing the concentration found in the biofilm by 41% (Fig. 4C, P=0.001) and *E. densa* shoots by 69% (Fig. 4D, P= 0.02).

In the spring microcosms, snail presence decreased the Au concentration in the *E.densa* shoots by 86% (Fig. 4I, P=0.001). There was also a trend for higher Au concentrations in the floc in the fall and spring conditions with the presence of snails (P= 0.63 and P=0.09).



Figure 5: Au recovery in microcosm compartments. Microcosms without snails showed a higher recovery of Au than microcosms with snails present. Panel A and B represent the percentage of AuNP recovered in each abiotic or biotic compartment within the microcosms for fall and spring

267 seasons, respectively. Data shown are the averages of six technical replicates \pm SEM. Percentages 268 were calculated based on the total amount of Au added to microcosms.

269 <u>Au mass balance and recovery</u>

Au mass balance was calculated in the microcosms with almost complete recovery in the treatments without snails for both fall and spring conditions. While 96-104% of Au was recovered in the microcosms without snails, 50-60% of Au was recovered in the treatments with snails (SI Fig. 5).

In the fall microcosms, snail presence altered the fate of Au compared to the treatments without snails. The majority of Au added to the treatment without snails was found associated with *E. densa* (shoots and roots combined), followed by biofilm and floc. In the treatment with snails, most of the Au recovered was found in the floc and *E. densa* with a substantial portion not being recovered.

In the spring microcosms without snails, similar amounts of Au were recovered in the different compartments, with values ranging on average from 20% in the water column to 31% in the biofilm. In the treatments with snails, Au was mainly accumulated in the floc and water, with a large portion not being recovered. In the spring season, the Au concentration in the water column was higher than in the fall.



284

Figure 6: Correlation of Au concentration vs. DOC in the water column. P-value based on aPearson correlation test.

287 <u>Environmental drivers associated with AuNP fate</u>

More Au accumulated in the water column in the spring microcosms with and without snails compared to the fall microcosms. To better understand what was driving this accumulation, correlations of different water parameters were investigated in relation to the Au water column concentration. The strongest correlation to the accumulation of Au in the water column was the DOC concentration in the water column with an R^2 value of 0.7036. (P<0.001, Figure 6).

293

294 **Discussion**

After 28 days of chronic AuNP exposure, the different seasonal conditions did not alter AuNP effects but they did have a significant impact on the biomass, nutrients, and competitive interactions between the *E. densa* and their biofilm. In the spring conditions without snails, biofilm growth was abundant, which could cause stress to the macrophyte by increasing competition for nutrients and light²³. Higher biofilm growth and macrophyte stress with the warmer season could result in higher DOC concentrations in the water column that was observed^{27,28}. Although the spring temperature range was well within the tolerant range for both the macrophyte *E. densa* and the snail *P. gyrina*, both species showed visual stress from these conditions. The *E. densa* had a slight overall decrease in biomass in the spring conditions compared to the fall, while *P. gyrina* saw a higher death rate and lower biomass.

Concerning the impact of the AuNP chronic addition, Simonin et al have shown that an 305 association of AuNP with the macrophyte tissues could reduce the photosynthetic and respiratory 306 rates of *E. densa*¹⁵. In this study, we found that *E. densa* was a large sink of Au, similar to what 307 was described in more complex mesocosm systems¹⁶. However, we did not observe a decrease in 308 photosynthetic or respiratory rates. This could have been due to the total duration of the microcosm 309 experiment, which only lasted five weeks, compared to the mesocosm experiment which lasted 310 nine months. Also, we did not observe a difference in biomass from the *E. densa* stems that were 311 312 placed in any microcosms meaning they did not undergo substantial growth. These factors could result in similar photosynthetic and respiratory rates despite having the Au addition. 313

Little impact was thus observed on the primary producer's and consumer's biomasses. However, while the *E. densa* biomass and photosynthetic activity were not altered by any of the treatments, we did see a reduction in biofilm growth in the fall microcosms exposed to AuNP without the presence of snails. Since biofilm growth decreased in the colder season and narrower window of light, the addition of AuNP could have posed as an additional stressor, further reducing the amount of biofilm growth. Although a reduction of biofilm was not observed in the spring microcosms, this could have been due to the abundant growth of biofilm in ideal conditions as well as the higher amount of DOC in the water column leading to the stabilization of Au in thewater column, thus reducing deposition on the biofilm, as discussed below.

323 Although the impacts of AuNP were minimal on biomass, the fate of AuNP was dramatically altered with the addition of the aquatic snail, P. gyrina. The primary mechanisms by 324 which *P. gyrina* altered Au fate in the microcosms were likely by the consumption of biofilm that 325 326 accumulated on the leaves of the aquatic macrophyte, E. densa. In our study, P. gyrina reduced the biofilm amount by 89-97% in the spring season and 25-66% in the fall. Macrophyte associated 327 biofilm growth has been shown to transform AuNP into oxidized, dissolved Au¹³, which could be 328 more readily available to other aquatic organisms, but also increase its stability among the water 329 column. With the addition of *P. gyrina*, biofilm growth in the spring conditions resulted on average 330 a 20% reduction of Au associated with the E. densa tissue and an accumulation in the floc at the 331 bottom of the microcosms. In the fall conditions, the addition of snails also decreased the amount 332 of biofilm growth and accumulation in *E. densa;* however, the reduction of biofilm was smaller 333 334 due to less growth overall. Remarkably, the addition of snails had the most dramatic reduction of Au associated with *E. densa* in the fall conditions with an average reduction of 34%. 335

The addition of snails also increased the amount of DOC found in the water column possibly due to snail excretions. This accumulation of DOC in the water column likely contributed to the stabilization of Au seen in the water column, as suggested by the strong correlation observed between these two traits. The presence of DOC in the water column has been shown to stabilize AuNP and reduce adsorption into macrophyte tissues^{18,25}. Similarly, organic matter released by *E*. *densa* in mesocosms has been shown to stabilize AgNP in the water column²⁹.

While Au in both seasons without snails had full recovery (96-104%, Fig. S5), microcosms with snails had lower recovery (50-60%, Fig. 5S). There are several possible scenarios why lower

Au recovery was seen with snails, such as a result of Au attaching to the shells of the snails, which 344 were not measured for Au concentration. Similar to biofilm growth on aquatic macrophytes, 345 biofilm growth can also occur on hard substrates such as the shell of mollusks³⁰. Since snail death 346 was observed in both seasons, the removal of dead snails could also be a sink for Au both within 347 tissues and shells. Further, aquatic snails can secrete extracellular polysaccharides, which can also 348 be a sink for metals 31,32 . Alternatively, it could be due to the heterogeneity of Au associated with 349 floc. While the majority of the floc was recovered from the microcosms complete recovery was 350 not possible, which could account for the remaining Au. 351

This study highlights how critical climate and ecosystem complexity can alter the fate and 352 effects of emerging chemicals. Using simplified systems allowed us to highlight the significant 353 role of aquatic grazers in altering the fate of Au in freshwater environments. The addition of only 354 five snails grazing on epiphyton significantly shifted the fate of Au from the macrophyte tissues 355 to other compartments within the microcosms. This shift in fate can have significant impacts on 356 water quality by increasing macrophyte growth, reducing periphyton buildup, and possibly 357 reducing the frequency of algal blooms. Although the use of microcosms allowed for higher 358 replication and ease of testing different climate conditions, this setup is likely far from any natural 359 360 ecosystem. Therefore, future studies should focus on using large scale mesocosms or field sites.

361 ASSOCIATED CONTENT

362 Supporting Information

Additional information on overall differences in biomass and water chemistry between the fall and
spring microcosms, as well as overall Au recovery and photosynthesis measurements in *E. densa*.
(PDF)

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