Title: Blood Concentrations of Per- and Polyfluoroalkyl Substances are Associated with Lupus-like Autoimmunity in the American Alligator

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Abbreviations: ACN: acetonitrile; CFR: Cape Fear River; CV: coefficient of variation; F: female; Infα interferon alpha type 1; IS: internal standard; LW: Lake Waccamaw; LOD: limit of detection; M: male: PCA: principal component analysis; RBC: red blood cell; SLE: systemic lupus erythematosus; SRM: standard reference material; SVL: snout to vent length; TBARS: thiobarbituric acid reactive substances

Highlights:

- Populations of American Alligator (*Alligator mississippiensis*) from the Cape Fear River in NC have elevated PFAS exposures compared to a nearby reference population

- Increased blood PFAS concentrations are associated with increased innate immune activities and hallmark phenotypes of autoimmune disease including increases in autoantibodies

- Compared the reference population, expression of interferon alpha responsive signature genes that are predictive of lupus erythematosus in humans was increased ~ 60- to 577-fold in the Cape Fear River Alligators with elevated blood PFAS

Abstract:

Surface and ground water of the Cape Fear River basin in central and coastal North Carolina is contaminated with high levels of per- and polyfluoroalkyl substances (PFAS). Elevated levels of PFAS have also been found in blood of fish and wildlife living in and around the Cape Fear River, and in the blood of human populations reliant on contaminated well or surface water from the Cape Fear River basin as a sources of drinking water. While the public and environmental health impacts of long-term PFAS exposures are poorly understood, elevated blood concentrations of some PFAS are linked with immunotoxicity and increased incidence of some chronic autoimmune diseases in human populations. The goal of this study was to evaluate PFAS exposure and biomarkers related to immune health in populations of American alligators (*Alligator mississippiensis*), a protected and predictive sentinel species of adverse effects caused by persistent toxic pollutants. We found that serum PFAS concentrations in a representative population of alligators from the Cape Fear River were increased compared to a reference population of alligators from the adjoining Lumber River basin. The elevated serum PFAS concentrations in the Cape Fear River alligators were associated with increased innate immune activities and hallmark phenotypes of the human autoimmune disease systemic lupus erythematosus. In addition to significant increases in double stranded-DNA binding autoantibodies in adult Cape Fear River alligators, our qRT-PCR analysis found remarkably high induction of Interferon-α signature genes implicated in the pathology of human autoimmune disease. We interpret the association of increased PFAS exposure with disrupted immune functions to indicate that PFAS broadly alters immune activities resulting in autoimmune disease in American Alligators. This work substantiates and extends evidence from experimental models and human epidemiology studies showing that some PFAS are immune toxicants.

Keywords: autoantibodies; autoimmune disease; crocodilian; immune toxicity; lupus; PFAS

Introduction:

Per- and polyfluoroalkyl substances (PFAS) are a class of synthetic organic chemicals that

are global contaminants of both built and natural environments (OECD 2018). Owing to their

extensively fluorinated aliphatic backbone, PFAS are chemically stable, resistant to thermal and

enzymatic breakdown, and can persist in terrestrial and aquatic environments. Because of their

widespread use over the past 70 years, many PFAS and their terminal breakdown products, have

become ubiquitous contaminants of the land, water, and air to which humans and wildlife are

exposed (De Silva et al. 2021). In the US alone, drinking water supplies for an estimated 200

million people are contaminated with PFAS, with recent analyses estimating the direct annual

health-related cost due to PFAS exposure ranges from $37-59 billion in the US and €52-84

billion per year in the European Union (Cordner et al. 2021; Andrews and Naidenko 2020)

Evidence from experimental animal and human epidemiologic studies has linked increased

exposure to the most abundant PFAS with immunotoxicity and altered immune functions

(DeWitt 2015). Those data led the United States National Toxicology Program to conclude that

perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) and perfluorooctanesulfonic acid (PFOS) are hazards to the

human immune system (DeWitt 2015; NTP 2016). Additional findings have also demonstrated

associations between exposures to some PFAS with immunosuppression, with adverse health

impacts linked to increased incidence in childhood infection, decreased antibody production in

response to vaccination, and increases in severity of COVID-19 (Grandjean et al. 2020; Fenton et

al. 2021). There is also evidence linking some PFAS exposures with an increased incidence of

chronic autoimmune disorders, including thyroid disease and inflammatory bowel diseases

(Fenton et al. 2021). The mechanisms of PFAS-mediated immunotoxicity and their roles in

autoimmunity are poorly understood.

The Cape Fear River basin, located in central and coastal North Carolina encompasses over

9,300 sq. miles of waterways that service ~5.2 million people in rural and urban communities,

and is typical of many regions with high PFAS contamination of surface, ground, and drinking

water (Fig. 1A). PFAS contamination in the Cape Fear originates primarily from fluorochemical

production, manufacturing, wastewater treatment discharges, and the use of aqueous film

forming foams (AFFF) as fire suppressants (McCord and Strynar 2019). In 2017, surface water

sampling from the Cape Fear River revealed high levels of per- and polyfluoroether acids

(PFEA) and fluoropolymer manufacturing byproducts with diverse chemical structures

originating from a fluorotelomer and fluoropolymer PFAS production facility active since the

mid-1980's (Hopkins et al. 2018; Sun et al. 2016). Both novel PFEAs such as HFPO-DA

(GenX), Nafion byproducts, and a variety of other fluorochemicals from PFAS-based aqueous

film forming foam used as a fire suppressant by military, municipalities, and regional airports

have now been detected in the drinking water and blood samples of residents living near the

Cape Fear River (McCord and Strynar 2019; Ruyle et al. 2021; Kotlarz et al. 2020). Recently,

total organic fluorine analysis detected extremely high sum PFAS concentrations in excess of

100,000 ng/L in the Cape Fear River at drinking water treatment plant intakes suggesting that

humans and aquatic ecosystems in the Cape Fear River basin have been experiencing very high

levels of total PFAS exposure (Zhang et al. 2019). The potential for impacts on both ecosystems

and human populations from this contamination has been confirmed by wildlife and human

population based PFAS exposure studies finding increased levels of PFAS in fish, birds, and

humans living near the CFR (Guillette et al 2020; Kotlarz et al. 2020; Robuck et al. 2021). The

public and environmental health impacts of long-term exposures resulting from these

undocumented PFAS discharge are largely unknown.

The aim of this study was to evaluate the impacts of long-duration PFAS exposure on

American alligators (*Alligator mississippiensis*), a top trophic carnivore at the human/wildlife

interface of both rural and urban environments (Beal and Rosenblatt 2020; Somaweera et al.

2020). Alligators, renowned for their robust and highly protective immune systems, are an

especially important aquatic biomonitoring and predictive sentinel species of adverse outcomes

resulting from integrated effects of persistent toxic chemicals (Crain and Guillette 1998;

Guillette et al. 2000; Finger and Gogal 201; Pérez and Wise 2018). Alligators living along the

Cape Fear River are non-migratory apex predators with a life span exceeding 60 years that co-

utilize human habitats contaminated with PFAS (IUCN 2018). Building from previous

biomonitoring studies demonstrating utility of American alligators as effective indicators of

environmental PFAS contamination (Bangma, Bowden, et al. 2017; Bangma, Reiner, et al.

2017). With a focus on immune health endpoints, we predicted that populations of American

alligators would be sensitive sentinels of cumulative adverse health effects resulting from PFAS

exposures common to humans living in the Cape Fear River basin.

Methods

Animal and sampling procedures

All animal procedures were performed with approval by the North Carolina State University

Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (protocol #18-085-O). Alligators were sampled

using active capture methods that employed snatch hooks from locations with direct access to the

Cape Fear River (CFR) and the adjacent Lumber River basin (Lake Waccamaw;

34.28726947673369, -78.50965117663293) in North Carolina. Cape Fear River sites included:

Greenfield Lake (34.2107388211135, -77.93707241283391) Wilmington, NC; Orton Pond in

Brunswick County (34.045198995423966, -77.98399224982941); Oak Island, NC

(33.91736426475394, -78.12476238375928), and Baldhead Island, NC

(33.85295162890547, -77.97713359942439). Sampling occurred in 2018 (July 24 to October 25)

and 2019 (April 18 to October 14).

Immediately following capture a 10-15 mL a whole blood sample was collected from the

post-occipital spinal venous sinus using a sterile 20 g or 18 g needle and a 30 mL syringe

(Myburgh et al. 2014). Whole blood samples were transferred to 8 mL serum and lithium

heparin coated plasma tubes (Vacutainer, BD). Serum tubes were allowed to clot for 30 minutes

at ambient temperature prior to storage on ice. Plasma tubes were inverted gently following

collection, then stored on ice until centrifugation. After field collections, blood was centrifuged

(1800 x g for 10 min at 4°C) and serum/plasma fractions were immediately aliquoted into

Teflon-free cryovials and stored at -80°C until analysis. Following the blood sample collections,

alligators were visually examined for general health, and external injuries were noted and

photographed. Sex was determined by cloacal examination with total length, snout to vent

length, tail girth, head/snout, and rear foot measurements recorded. Following sample/data

collection, alligators were released at the site of capture. Typical time from first contact to

release of animal was dependent on animal size with the average time to release being < 15

minutes.

Chemicals

Ethanol (Optima®, Lot 183859), ammonium formate (99%, AC401152500), acetonitrile

(ACN; Optima®, Lot 184819), and formic acid (99.5%, A117-50) from Fisher Scientific

Waltham, MA) was used for extractions and instrument solvent gradient. All water used for

extraction, in aqueous buffers, and solutions were prepared in sterile Milli-Q A10 water (18Ω; 3

ppb total oxidizable organics), with the purified water analyzed for contamination prior to use.

All laboratory glassware was rinsed with sterile Milli-Q water and methanol prior to use. The

control material for the instrument methods was National Institute of Standards and Technology

(NIST) Standard Reference Material (SRM) 1957 organic contaminants in non-fortified human

serum. Chemicals for buffers and other standard laboratory chemicals were also purchased from

Fisher Scientific and as indicated below.

LC-MS analysis of Serum PFAS Concentrations

Matrix matched (serum) calibration solutions (n = 23; ranging from 0.1 ng/mL to 100

ng/mL) were prepared from neat standards in charcoal stripped fetal bovine serum (Life

Technologies, Grand Island, NY; cat #10437, Lot #1754113; total protein 3.7 g/dL). An internal

standard (IS) solution was prepared by diluting a solution containing 10 mass-labeled PFAS in

water with 0.1 M formic acid (99.5%, A117-50, Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA): $^{18}O_2$-

PFBS,$^{13}C_4$-PFBA, $^{18}O_2$-PFHxS, $^{13}C_4$-PFOA, $^{13}C_4$-PFOS, $^{13}C_5$-PFNA, $^{13}C_9$-PFDA, $^{13}C_4$-

PFBA, $^{13}C_2$-PFHxA, $^{13}C_2$-6:2FTS (Wellington Labs, Guelph, ON). An additional matrix

matched quality control (QC) sample was made by combining randomly selected aliquots of

sampled American alligator serum (n = 12). The resulting alligator QC sample and NIST SRM

1957 (n = 6) was used to test the method for reproducibility and stability (Table S2). Charcoal

stripped fetal bovine serum was also spiked with 5 ng/mL of PFAS standards and used as an

internal control for accurate measurement (n = 4). Additional control samples included fetal

bovine method serum blanks (n = 7), and purified water field blanks (n = 5) made by injecting 4

mL of Milli-Q water into vacutainer tubes during field sampling on 5 different days during the

sampling period.

All control and experimental samples were extracted and analyzed using methods identical

to those detailed in our previous studies (Guillette et al. 2020). Briefly, 50 µl of each sample was

aliquoted into a 2 mL polypropylene tube to which 100 µl of 0.1 M formic acid and internal

standards (12.5 ng) were added. Ice-cold ACN (450 µl) was added to the tube and then vortexed

for 3 seconds. Samples were then centrifuged at 12,500 x g for 5 min at room temperature. The

resulting supernatant (100 µl) was collected and added to 300 µl of aqueous 0.4 mmol of

ammonium formate and then transferred to polypropylene autosampler vials. PFAS were

analyzed using a Vanquish UPLC system (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) equipped

with an Accucore C18+ column (2.1 mm x 100 mm x 1.5 µ) at a flow rate of 300 µL/min,

injection volumes of 100 µL, and a binary mobile phase gradient composed of 95:5 H_2O:ACN,

0.4 mM ammonium acetate and 95:5 ACN:H_2O, 0.4 mM ammonium acetate. A Thermo Orbitrap

Fusion mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) with a heated electrospray

ionization (HESI) source operated in negative mode was used to detect PFAS. For compound

validation, data was collected in data dependent mode with a preferred ion list consisting of the

quantitated PFAS standards (Table S1). PFAS quantitation was based on an eight-point

calibration curve with three injections per concentration randomly assigned in the sample run of

the internal standard normalized integrated peak area of the extracted ion chromatogram of the

[M-H]-ion with a 5-ppm mass tolerance. The r^2 of all calibration curves used for analysis were

above .97; limits of detection (LOD) were defined as the estimated mean concentration of

method blanks plus three standard deviations (Table S2). Multiple replicates of SRM 1957 (n =

6) were compared to the values on the Certificate of Analysis for the NIST SRM 1957 standards

and were within 15.89 % of expected values (Table S4).

Lysozyme assay

The EnzChek® Lysozyme Assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, Cat. E-22013)

was used according to manufacturer's protocols to determine lysozyme activity in serum of a

subset of American alligator serum samples (Lake Waccamaw: n = 22, Wilmington CFR: n =

21). Samples were diluted 1:5 in sample buffer and analyzed in triplicate, the average relative

standard deviation (RSD) for QC and experimental samples were 7% and 9%, respectively.

Alligator serum/plasma complement assay

Packed Sheep red blood cells (RBCs, Innovative Research Novi, MI) were aliquoted into 15

ml polypropylene conical tubes and centrifuged for 5 minutes at 800 x g. Cell pellets were

washed with phosphate buffered saline (pH 7.4; PBS) and then gently suspend in PBS and

recentrifuged. Washed cells were resuspended at a final concentration of 2% RBCs in PBS or

PBS supplemented with a final concentration of 50 mM EDTA. Cells were rocked gently and

150 μl of the cell suspension was rapidly aliquoted into 1.7 ml microcentrifuge tubes containing

150 μl of each alligator serum sample (plasma samples were analyzed in parallel and yielded

comparable results) and mixed by inversion. All sample aliquoting for each analysis was

completed in ≤ 2 minutes. Samples were incubated at room temperature for 20 minutes and then

rapidly placed onto ice/water bath for 10 minutes, samples were centrifuged at 3000 x g for 5

minutes and then rapidly returned to ice. Supernatant (100 μl) was aliquoted in duplicate into

clear 96-well microtiter plates. Absorbance at 540 nm was determined using a Tecan microplate

reader. Controls on each analysis plate included a blank control containing 1x PBS only, 1%

RBC in PBS, 1% RBC in 1x PBS supplemented with 50 mM EDTA, and a positive control of

maximum RBC lysis containing 2% RBCs to which an equal volume of deionized water was

added. Percent maximal complement activity for each sample was calculated by subtracting the

mean absorbance from the EDTA containing samples from the mean absorbance of the sample

lacking EDTA. That difference was divided by mean maximal absorbance of the positive control

samples, and the product was multiplied by 100. Each sample was analyzed a minimum of two

times. The mean % CV for maximal RBC lysis positive controls was 1.75 ± 1.42 % and for all

experimental samples was 3.41 ± 4.43 %.

dsDNA ELISA Analysis

Individual wells of 96 well microtiter plates were coated overnight at 4°C with 500 ng of double stranded calf thymus DNA suspended in DNA coating solution (Pierce, Rockford IL, cat # 17250). Plates were washed extensively with PBS containing 0.05 % Tween 20 (Fisher Scientific), incubated at room temperature for 2 hours in blocking buffer consisting of PBS supplemented with 10% bovine serum albumin (BSA; fraction V, Fisher Scientific), and then rewashed with PBS containing 0.05% Tween 20. Alligator plasma samples were diluted 1:500 and 1:1000 into PBS containing 10% BSA. Diluted samples (100 μl) were added to wells in duplicate or triplicate and incubated overnight at 4º C. Wells were then washed extensively with PBS/0.05% Tween 20, blotted dry by inversion on to paper towels, and then incubated for 1 hour at room temperature with affinity purified polyclonal horse radish peroxidase (HRP) conjugated goat anti-alligator IgG antiserum (Bethyl Labs, Montgomery, TX; Cat # A140-119P; Lot# A140-119P-6) that was diluted 1:10,000 (0.1 μg/ml) in PBS 10% BSA. Samples were extensively washed with PBS 0.05 % Tween 20, blotted dry, and 50 μl of 1x TMB Solution (Invitrogen, Cat # 00-4201-56) was added to each well. The peroxidase reaction was terminated following incubation for 30 minutes at room temperature by the addition of an equal 50 μl volume of 2M sulfuric acid, and the absorbance of each well measured at 450 nm. Control samples on each analyzed plate included calf serum diluted 1:500 (Gibco), blocking buffer only, 1:500 dilution of alligator plasma or calf serum sample lacking HRP-conjugated anti-alligator antiserum, and coated wells lacking DNA. Following optimization of alligator plasma concentrations and alligator antiserum dilutions, specificity of DNA binding was confirmed by observing significant decreases in immunoreactivity in DNA-coated wells that were treated with DNase1 (10 units; RQ1 Dnase, Promega Madison, WI), and in samples of alligator plasma pretreated with 100 μg of calf thymus DNA. Experimental plasma samples were analyzed in duplicate or triplicate on a

single plate at 1:500 dilution and on the same plate using an independent dilution of 1:1000, with

each analysis independently replicated. The average intra-assay coefficient of variation for all

experimental samples was $5.9 \pm 1.4\%$ (1:500) and $4.5\% \pm 1.1\%$ (1:1000). The average between

plate coefficient of variation was $7.0 \pm 1.7\%$ (1:500) and $6.0 \pm 1.5\%$ (1:1000). The average

Absorbance 450 nM observed for each sample diluted at 1:500 was 2.05 ± 0.02 times greater

than samples diluted at 1:1000.

Whole blood cell counts and leukocyte differential

Blood smears were prepared from ~10 µl of peripheral whole blood taken from a subset of

alligators. Blood smears were prepared in the field and allowed to air dry at room temperature on

Superfrost plus slides (Fisher Scientific, Pittsburgh, PA). Slides were stained with Hemacolor®

according to the manufacturer's protocols (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat: 1.11661). Peripheral whole

blood cell counts were made by evaluation of stained blood smears using 40X and 100X

objectives on a Nikon Eclipse 80i microscope (Nikon; Melville, NY). Each slide was examined

independently by three different investigators blinded to sampling site, size, and sex. Leukocyte

identity was determined by cellular morphology and staining characteristics (Sykes and

Klaphake 2015; Stacy, Alleman, and Sayler 2011). A minimum of 400 leukocytes and

thrombocytes were counted to the calculate percentage of each cell type. Leukocytes were

categorized into lymphocytes, basophils, heterophils, eosinophils, azurophils, and basophils with

percent of each cell type determined by dividing the number of each cell type by the total cells

counted minus the number of thrombocytes and then multiplying by 100. Variation between

individual researcher counts was determined to be less than 7.9% for each cell type.

TBARS Assay

Plasma lipid peroxidation was analyzed for 100 µl alligator plasma samples ran in duplicate

using TBARS (TCA method) Assay kit (# 700870, Cayman Chemical, Ann Arbor, MI)

according to manufacturer's supplied protocols. Malondiadehyde concentrations were calculated

by interpolation from a standard curve generated by serial dilution of manufacturer supplied

standards.

Quantitative RT-PCR analysis

Total RNA from archived (stored at -80°C) American alligator whole blood was isolated

using the Quick-RNA Whole Blood Kit (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA). One µg of RNA was

reverse transcribed using the high-capacity cDNA reverse transcription kit following

manufacturer's recommendations (Applied Biosystems; Grand Island, NY). Standard Fast

TaqMan PCR amplification was performed in triplicate on a Step One Plus Real-Time PCR

System (Applied Biosystems; Grand Island, NY) in a final volume of 20 µL containing ~10 ng

of cDNA (1.5 µL of RT product), 1x Universal Master Mix and custom TaqMan expression

assay primers specific for each target alligator mRNA (**Table S5, S6**) (Applied Biosystems;

Grand Island, NY). Relative expression was quantified using the $2^{\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method, in which $\Delta\Delta Ct$ is

the normalized value. Alligator Gapdh expression was used as an independent reference gene for

normalization.

Data and Statistical Analysis

Each animal/blood sample was assigned a randomized numeric code by NC State

University researchers at the time of collection. Samples were decoded for site and

length/size/sex only after PFAS measurement/analysis and biological markers analysis were

completed. Blood slides were further deidentified to mask sample identity for whole blood cell

counts. Samples used for each analysis were randomly selected based only on availability of

sufficient material for analysis, to balance analysis for comparable numbers of males and

females, life stage (adult SVL > 90 cm/juvenile SVL < 90 cm), and to control for possible effects

on seasonality samples were date matched. When necessary, SVL and sex were included in

statistical models as covariates.

Data was analyzed and visualized using Prism (version 9.3, GraphPad La Jolla, CA); R

statistical programming environment version 3.5.2; SPSS (Version 27.0, IBM, Armonk, NY);

JMP Genomics 9 (SAS, Cary, NC). For PFAS concentration data, means and concentration

ranges were determined from values above the LOD and interpolated ($[PFAS] = LOD/\sqrt{2}$)

values were used when detected PFAS congeners were detectable but below the LOD (LOD =

$mean_{blanks} + 3(SD_{blanks})$, non-detects were replaced with a value of zero. A Shapiro-Wilk's test

was used to assess normality of data; for data requiring normalization a natural log

transformation was used, [PFAS] data was log_{10} transformed, and percentage/ratiometric data

were arcsine transformed. Non-parametric statistics were used for data not meeting analysis

model assumptions following data transformation. Linear regression and Pearson's correlation

coefficient or Spearman's rank correlation coefficient were used to calculate relationships

between total PFAS serum concentrations and serum biomarkers. A 2-way analysis of variance

(ANOVA) was used to evaluate peripheral blood counts data (cell type, location), and $\sum log_{10}$

[PFAS] (size class, location) data and biomarker activities were initially evaluated at each site

using multivariate ANOVA (biomarker activity, $\sum log_{10}$[PFAS], and/or location). Principal

component analysis (PCA) was performed to dimensionally reduce PFAS concentrations using a

restricted maximum likelihood estimation (REML) and components with a minimum eigen value

of 1. Ward's general agglomerative hierarchical clustering procedure was performed on serum

PFAS congener concentrations (log_{10} transformed) to demonstrate large scale differences in

PFAS clustering using JMP Genomics 9. A minimal level of statistical significance for

differences in values among or between groups was considered $p \leq .05$.

Results and Discussion

We used liquid chromatography and high-resolution mass spectrometry to determine concentrations of 23 different PFAS present in serum samples of 75 adult and juvenile alligators from North Carolina (Guillette et al. 2020). Alligators were sampled beginning in July 2018 and continued through October of 2019 at sites experiencing both point and non-point source PFAS exposures along the Cape Fear River (CFR; n = 49), and from Lake Waccamaw (LW; n = 26), a site < 50 km away and in the adjoining Lumber River watershed with no known fluorochemical production (Fig. 1A). From the targeted list of 23 PFAS analyzed (Table S1), we found 14 different PFAS, including long and short chain perfluoroalkyl acids (PFAA), perfluoroether acids (PFEA) and the fluorotelomer 6:2 FTS in these alligator blood samples (Table S2, S3).

As anticipated from previous wildlife exposure studies along the Cape Fear River, PFOS was the dominant PFAS detected in alligator serum (Guillette et al. 2020; Robuck et al. 2021) We detected PFOS in 100% of samples analyzed and it accounted for 79.7% and 75.8% of the total PFAS present in alligator serum samples from the CFR and LW respectively. The median number of PFAS congeners detected in serum samples from CFR alligators was 10 (range 4-12), whereas a median of 5 (range 2-9) were detected in LW samples (Table S3). The relative composition of long and short chain PFAAs and PFEAs detected in blood of CFR American alligators were in general agreement with those found in the blood of adults and children exposed to PFAS from drinking water in Wilmington, NC (Kotlarz et al. 2020).

Results of our principal component, multiple linear regression, unsupervised hierarchal clustering, and statistical analysis of total serum concentrations demonstrated both increases in PFAA concentrations and an exposure profile enriched for Nafion byproduct 2, PFO_5DoDA, NVHOS, HFPO-DA and 6:2 fluorotelomer sulfonate (6:2 FTS) was characteristic and predictive of samples from the CFR (Fig. 1 B-D). Concentrations and detection frequencies of PFEAs

338   (HFPO-DA, Nafion byproduct-2), PFAS congeners related to upstream production and 6:2 FTS

339   discharge from the Chemours Fayetteville Works facility, were exclusive to, or greatly enriched

340   in the CFR serum samples (Fig. 2C, D; Table S2). By contrast the PFAS exposure profiles

341   observed in blood of LW alligators were characterized by the presence of bioaccumalitive six-

342   carbon and longer PFAAs (Fig.1D). However, the PFEAs PMPA (15%), PDO4DA (23%), and

Fig 1. Location of study sites and serum PFAS exposure profiles. (**A**) Location of samples collected at Lake Waccamaw (LW; blue) and from the Cape Fear River basin (CFR; orange). Results of (**B**) principal component and (**C, D**) unsupervised hierarchal clustering of $\log_{10}$ transformed serum PFAS congener concentrations from the CFR and LW. Females and are indicated with a circle in panel (B) or a capital F (C, D) and males are indicated with a triangle or a capital M. (**E**) Mean of $\log_{10}$ transformed PFAS concentrations (ng/ml) found in serum of adult (SVL ≥ 90 cm) and juvenile/sub-adult American alligators from LW (adult n = 15; juvenile n = 11) and the CFR (n = 26; juvenile = 23).

PFO5DoDa (19%) were also detectable in some alligator serum samples from LW suggesting

that there are low levels of PFEA contamination within the Lumber river basin ecosystem (Fig.

1D, Table S2).

Concentrations of sum total PFAS detected in serum of CFR alligator was increased

compared to alligators sampled from LW (Fig. 1E), two-way ANOVA found a significant effect

of location on total serum PFAS concertation ($F(1, 71) = 27.3$, $p < .0001$). We did not detect

differences in total PFAS concentrations between juveniles/sub-adults (SVL < 90 cm) and adults

($F(1, 71) = 0.0018$, $p = .965$) at either site, and there was not an interaction between groups ($F(1,$

$71) = 0.989$, p = .323). Post hoc analysis indicated that serum concentrations of PFAS were

significantly increased in both the juveniles/sub-adult ($p = .006$) and adult alligators ($p <.0001$)

from the CFR (Fig. 1E).

The American alligator is renowned for having a particularly robust and protective

antibacterial and antiviral innate immune system (Merchant and Britton 2006; Finger and Gogal

2013). Initially focusing on biomarkers of innate immune function, we found that anti-microbial

lysozyme activity was significantly increased in adult CFR alligators compared to adult alligators

from LW (Fig. 2A). Those findings were similar to our previous findings that high

concentrations of PFAS were associated with elevated lysozyme activity in adult striped bass

(*Morone saxatilis*) from the CFR (Guillette et al. 2020). By contrast, we did not observe a

significant difference between sites for lysozyme activities of juvenile/subadult alligators,

although at LW the lysozyme activity of sexually immature animals compared to adults from the

same location was significantly increased ($p < 0.0001$; Fig. 2A). The apparent age-related

difference in lysozyme activity at LW was unrelated to differences in PFAS exposure, a

difference that is likely related to ecological, population density, or other undefined factors at

this location. Because of these site-specific differences in lysozyme activity, associations

Figure 2. Impacts and relationship of PFAS exposure on innate immune functions. (**A**) Violin plots comparing median lysozyme activity in juvenile (SVL < 90 cm) and adult American alligators (SVL > 90 cm) from Lake Waccamaw (LW; thick lines indicate median; thin lines indicate quartiles) and from the Cape Fear River (CFR). (**B**) Relationship of total PFAS concentrations with lysozyme activity in adult alligators. Solid line is the best fit linear regression, with shaded area represents 95% CI. (**C**) Violin plots of complement activity in plasma samples of alligator from LW and CFR. Shown is the percent of maximal EDTA sensitive sheep red blood cell lysis activity (thick lines indicate median; thin lines indicate quartiles; LW: n = 22, CFR n= 44.

between total PFAS concentrations and lysozyme activity were evaluated only in sexually

mature adult alligators. Using Spearman's ranked correlation to assess the relationship between

serum total PFAS concentrations and lysozyme activity in adult alligators from both sites, we

observed a positive correlation between serum PFAS and lysozyme activity, $r(29) = .45$, $p = .006$

(Fig. 2B). Serum complement activity, a key component of the humoral innate response that has

been linked to autoimmunity (Zipfel 2009), was increased in the entire population of sampled

CFR alligators (Fig. 2C). As observed for lysozyme, log10 transformed total PFAS

concentrations and serum complement activity were found also to be moderately positively

correlated, $r(71) = .23$, $p = .05$.

Despite living in environments with near-constant exposure to pathogenic microorganisms,

and having especially high burdens of fecal coliform and other pathogenic bacteria (Johnston et

al. 2010), crocodilians, including American alligators, rarely suffer from systemic or skin

infections from these microorganisms (Barksdale, Hrifko, and van Hoek 2017; van Hoek 2014).

However, during our sampling we observed a notably uncharacteristic increase in incidence of

Fig. 3. Autoimmune disease like phenotypes associated with PFAS exposure. (**A**) Examples of cutaneous lesions and slow to heal wounds associated with PFAS exposure in 3 representative animals sampled from the CFR in 2019. Lower case letters indicate body location of lesion shown in each panel. (**B**) Violin plots comparing median thrombocyte numbers quantified from whole blood smears in alligators from Lake Waccamaw (n = 16) and the Cape Fear River (n = 39). (**C**) Representative photomicrograph of a schistocyte (arrowhead) observed in a whole blood sample isolated from an alligator from the CFR. Bar = 10 μm (**D**) Violin plots comparing median anti-dsDNA immunoreactivity in male (n = 4) and female (n = 4) alligator serum samples from each site. (**E**) Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of Infα signature gene expression analysis. Note the X-axis scale is Log_{10} relative fold-change. All increases in expression are significant (P < .0001). For violin plots median is indicted by a thick line and thin lines indicate quartiles.

skin lesions, slow healing, and infected wounds in ~20% of sampled CFR alligators (Fig. 3A).

Those lesions were considered reminiscent of autoimmune disease related vasculitis in humans

(Shanmugam et al. 2017). Although fresh and healed wounds, including loss of limbs that were

likely related to territorial and mating interactions were observed, similarly infected and slow to

heal wounds were not observed in alligators sampled from LW. We also observed decreased

clotting in some CFR alligators following blood collection; that phenotype was consistent with

our findings of modestly decreased numbers of thrombocytes in whole blood cell counts from

CFR alligators (Fig. 3B). Additionally, we found an increased incidence of abnormal red blood

cell phenotypes including schistocytes (helmet cells) associated with PFAS exposure in the CFR

samples (Fig. 3C, Table S2). Our analysis of whole blood cell counts found no evidence for a

general increase in chronic stress; no relationships were detected between sample site or PFAS

concentrations and leukocyte differentials, or heterophile/lymphocyte ratios. We also measured

relative levels of lipid peroxidation products in plasma which also found no evidence of

increased impacts related to general systemic mechanisms of cellular injury and stress in the

CFR alligators (Fig. S1).

Based on the observed increases in helmet cells and modest thrombocytopenia associated

with increased PFAS exposure in CFR alligators, we evaluate other hallmark phenotypes of

autoimmune diseases (Crow, Olferiev, and Kirou 2019; Sirobhushanam, Lazar, and Kahlenberg

2021). Using an alligator specific anti-double stranded DNA (dsDNA) immunoglobulin (IgG)

binding enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay, we evaluated a subset of adult male and female

alligators from the CFR and LW and found that dsDNA binding IgGs were significantly

increased in CFR alligator plasma samples (Fig. 3D). Differences between males and females

were not detected. Finally, our RT-PCR analysis of type 1 interferon (Ifn-α) responsive gene

expression in alligator whole blood samples found extremely high expression of four different

Ifn-α signature genes implicated in pathology of human autoimmune diseases including systemic

lupus erythematosus (SLE) (Crow, Olferiev, and Kirou 2019). Relative to samples from LW, Ifn-

α responsive gene expression was induced > 60-fold for *Rsad2* (viperin), and >400-fold for

Cxcl10, *Mx1*, and *Oas1* in CFR alligator blood samples (Fig. 3E). The finding of extremely high

induction of Inf-α signature gene expression in the CFR alligators supports a central role for

excessive production of type I interferons in increasing the innate immune functions associated

with elevated PFAS exposures. We interpret the greatly increased Inf-α signature gene

expression, elevated autoantibodies, vasculitis-like skin lesions, elevated incidence of slow

healing wounds, and increases in innate immune activity observed in the CFR population as

indicative of an SLE autoimmune-like disease process in American alligators.

Conclusions

Overall, our work found strong associations across multiple hallmark phenotypes of SLE-like

autoimmune disease and elevated PFAS exposures in American alligators exposed to elevated

levels of PFAS from the CFR. The PFAS-associated changes in both the innate immune and

adaptive immune system may represent a significant health concern for wildlife and human

health that may leave exposed populations at greater risk for infections and autoimmune disease.

Uniquely, for this work we implemented an integrated One Environmental Health approach

using American alligators as sentinels to more fully understand the consequences of long-term

exposure to complex and poorly understood mixtures of PFAS with the aim of improving health

of impacted human, animals, and ecosystems (Gibbs 2014; Pérez and Pierce 2018). In addition

to being long lived, and sharing their environment with humans, American alligators and other

crocodilians, by virtue of having innate immune functions optimized to eliminate microbial

pathogens, may serve as an ideal predictive model for detecting autoimmune hazards caused by

chemical pollutants. Our findings of adverse immune-health effects in American alligators that

have exposure profiles similar to the surrounding human population illuminates and reaffirms the

need to reduce exposure and cease production and use of a chemical class that, through its

ubiquity and persistence, is a global environmental health concern.

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Supplementary Materials for

Blood Concentrations of Per- and Polyfluoroalkyl Substances are Associated with Lupus-like Autoimmunity in the American Alligator

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This PDF file includes:

Figs. S1
Tables S1 to S6

Fig. S1. Analysis of plasma lipid peroxidation: TBARS analysis.

Table S1. Targeted List of 23 PFAS Analytes

Compound Name	Class	Family	Chemical Name	CAS #	Formula	Degree of Fluorination	Ether Bonds	Isomer Type	Functional Group R-CO$_2$H[a]	R-SO$_3$H[b]	Structure
PFBA	PFAA	PFCA	Perfluorobutanoic acid	375-22-4	C$_4$HF$_7$O$_2$	Per	0	Linear	Y	--	
PFPeA	PFAA	PFCA	Perfluoropentanoic acid	2706-90-3	C$_5$HF$_9$O$_2$	Per	0	Linear	Y	--	
PFHxA	PFAA	PFCA	Perfluorohexanoic acid	307-24-4	C$_6$HF$_{11}$O$_2$	Per	0	Linear	Y	--	
PFHpA	PFAA	PFCA	Perfluoroheptanoic acid	375-85-9	C$_7$HF$_{13}$O$_2$	Per	0	Linear	Y	--	
PFOA	PFAA	PFCA	Perfluorooctanoic acid	335-67-1	C$_8$HF$_{15}$O$_2$	Per	0	Linear	Y	--	
PFNA	PFAA	PFCA	Perfluorononanoic acid	375-95-1	C$_9$HF$_{17}$O$_2$	Per	0	Linear	Y	--	
PFDA	PFAA	PFCA	Perfluorodecanoic acid	335-76-2	C$_{10}$HF$_{19}$O$_2$	Per	0	Linear	Y	--	
PFBS	PFAA	PFSA	Perfluorobutanesulfonic acid	375-73-5	C$_4$HF$_9$SO$_3$	Per	0	Linear	--	Y	
PFHxS	PFAA	PFSA	Perfluorohexanesulfonic acid	355-46-4	C$_6$HF$_{13}$SO$_3$	Poly	0	Linear	--	Y	
PFOS	PFAA	PFSA	Perfluorooctanesulfonic acid	1763-23-1	C$_8$HF$_{17}$SO$_3$	Per	0	Linear	--	Y	
PMPA*	PFAA	PFECA	Perfluoro-2-(perfluoromethoxy)propanoic acid	13140-29-9	C$_4$HF$_7$O$_3$	Per	1	Branched	Y	--	

PEPA*	PFAA	PFECA	Perfluoroethoxypropyl carboxylic acid	267239-61-2	$C_5HF_9O_3$	Per	1	Branched	Y	--	
HFPO-DA (GenX)*	PFAA	PFECA	Hexafluoropropylene oxide dimer acid	13252-13-6	$C_6HF_{11}O_3$	Per	1	Branched	Y	--	
PFO2HxA*	PFAA	PFECA	Perfluoro (3,5-dioxahexanoic) acid	39492-88-1	$C_4HF_7O_4$	Per	2	Linear	Y	--	
PFO3OA*	PFAA	PFECA	Perfluoro (3,5,7-trioxaoctanoic) acid	39492-89-2	$C_5HF_9O_5$	Per	3	Linear	Y	--	
PFO4DA*	PFAA	PFECA	Perfluoro-3,5,7,9-butaoxadecanoic acid	39492-90-5	$C_6HF_{11}O_6$	Per	4	Linear	Y	--	
PFO5DoDA (TAFN4)*	PFAA	PFECA	Perfluoro (3,5,7,9,11 pentaoxadodecanoic) acid	39492-91-6	$C_7HF_{13}O_7$	Per	5	Linear	Y	--	
Hydro-EVE Acid*	PFAA	PFECA	Perfluoroethoxsypropanoic acid	773804-62-9	$C_8H_2F_{14}O_4$	Per	2	Branched	Y	--	
NVHOS*	PFAA	PFESA	Perfluoroethoxysulfonic acid	1132933-86-8	$C_4H_2F_8O_4S$	Per	1	Linear	--	Y	
Nafion Byproduct 1*	PFAA	PFESA	Perfluoro-3,6-dioxa-4-methyl-7-octene-1-sulfonic acid	29311-67-9	$C_7HF_{13}O_5S$	Per	2	Branched	--	Y	

Nafion Byproduct 2*	PFAA	PFESA	7H-Perfluoro-4-methyl-3,6-dioxaoctanesulfonic acid	749836-20-2	$C_7H_2F_{14}O_5S$	Poly	2	Branched	--	Y	
R-PSDA (Formerly Nafion Byproduct 4)*	PFAA	PFESA	Perfluoro-4-(2-sulfoethoxy)pentanoic acid	2416366-18-0	$C_7H_2F_{12}O_6S$	Per	1	Branched	Y	--	
6:2 FTS	FTSA		6:2 fluorotelomersulfonic acid	27619-97-2	$C_8H_5F_{13}O_3S$	Poly	0	Linear	--	Y	

a: Carboxylic acid functional group; b: Sulfonic acid functional group. Perfluoroalkyl acid (PFAA); Perfluorocarboxylic acid (PFCA); Perfluorosulfonic acid (PFSA); Perfluoroalkane sulfonamides (FASA); Perfluoroalkane sulfonamidoacetic acids (FASAA); Perfluoroether carboxylic acids (PFECA); Perfluoroether sulfonic acids (PFESA); Fluorotelomer sulfonic acid (FTSA)

Table S2. Contained in Data File 1.

Table S3. Detected PFAS Concentrations

Location	N =	Sex (F/M)		∑ PFAS	PFBA	PFHxA	PFOA	PFNA	PFDA	PFHxS	PFOS	PMPA	HFPO DA	PFO4 DA	PFO5 DoDA	NVHOS	Nafion BP2	6:2 FTS
Cape Fear River	48	19/29	Freq (%)	100	83	94	85	98	81	90	100	13	27	46	69	25	79	17
			Mean (ng/ml)	166	2.04	3.19	0.38	0.85	18.47	2.16	133	0.08	1.34	0.06	0.37	0.13	0.75	3.95
			Median (ng/ml)	27.90	1.31	0.28	0.26	0.81	3.83	0.66	12.07	<LOD	<LOD	<LOD	0.15	<LOD	0.26	<LOD
			Min (ng/ml)	1.78	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	0.65	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
			Max (ng/ml)	4194	26.4	44.4	1.29	8.45	466	27.2	4061	1.46	15.0	0.19	1.55	0.72	7.75	95.2
Lake Waccamaw	27	7/20	Freq (%)	100	37	69	59	89	85	74	100	15	0	22	22	0	4	0
			Mean (ng/ml)	10.2	0.06	0.03	0.21	0.36	1.51	0.26	7.67	0.02	ND	0.02	0.03	ND	0.01	ND
			Median (ng/ml)	7.66	<LOD	<LOD	0.08	0.24	0.84	0.09	5.62	<LOD	ND	<LOD	<LOD	ND	<LOD	ND
			Min (ng/ml)	1.15	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	0.25	ND	-	ND	ND	-	ND	-
			Max (ng/ml)	40.5	0.26	0.08	2.82	0.91	5.00	3.35	36.9	0.30	-	0.09	0.14	-	0.12	-

F, female; M, male, Freq, detection frequency; LOD, limit of detection; Min, minimum concentration; Max, maximum concentration; ND, not detected.

Table S4. SRM 1957 Analysis

	SRM 1957 (ng/mL)	Certified Value (ng/mL)	% Difference
PFOA	4.812 ± 0.057	5 ± 0.440	3.76
PFNA	0.852 ± 0.018	0.878 ± 0.077	2.96
PFDA	0.328 ± 0.004	0.39 ± 0.12	15.89
PFOS	21.643 ± 0.341	21.1 ± 1.3	2.57
PFHxS	3.652 ± 0.041	4 ± 0.830	8.70

NIST Standard Reference Material 1957, ran in triplicate within each batch of samples (n = 6).

Table S5. Alligator gene list and results of qRT-PCR mRNA analysis

Gene Name	Gene Symbol	RefSeq ID	Fold Change (Mean ± SEM)	p-value
C-X-C motif chemokine ligand 10	Cxcl10	XM_019534257.1	478 ± 241	.001
Interferon-induced GTP-binding protein Mx1	Mx1	XM_019476366.1	405 ± 201	.009
2'-5'-oligoadenylate synthase 1	Oas1	XM_019490991.1	577 ± 162	.001
Radical S-adenosyl methionine domain-containing protein 2	Rsad2	XM_019492667.1	61.1 ± 20.7	.004
Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase	Gapdh	XM_006258364.3	-	-

Table S6. Primer sequences used for qRT-PCR analysis.

Primer	Primer sequence (5' - 3')
Cxcl10-F_qRT	TCATGCCTCAGCTAATGTAACC
Cxcl10-R_qRT	GTCAGTACAAGCTGCTCTCTTT
Cxcl10-P_qRT	AGTGATGACCGTGCTGAAACACCA
Mx1-F_qRT	CTGGTGAAGGAGTGGGTATTAG
Mx1-R_qRT	CACTCTTGTGATCCCTGGTAAG
Mx1-P_qRT	CCCTGGAAATCAGCTCCCAAGATGT
Oas1-F_qRT	TCAGAAAACGCAGCCTGAAC
Oas1-R_qRT	ATGCTTAGCCACAGAGCGAA
Oas1-P_qRT	TCAAAGGGAGCAAGGG
Rsad2-F_qRT	ACTACAAGTGCGGCTTCTGC
Rsad2-R_qRT	AATTTTCTCCATACCTGCCGCC
Rsad2-P_qRT	TTCCACACGGCCAAGA
Gapdh-FqRT	AAAGTCGGCGTAAACGGATTTG
Gapdh-R_qRT	GACCTCAACTTTGCCACTGC
Gapdh-P_qRT	TATCGGCCGCCTGGT

F, forward primer; R, reverse primer; P, fluorescein (FAM) labeled
TaqMan probe