Title: Developmental exposure to perfluorooctane sulfononate (PFOS) and

perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) selectively decreases brain dopamine levels in northern

leopard frogs

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Abstract

Per- and polyfluoroalkyl substances (PFAS) are synthetic compounds that are a major

public health concern due to widespread use, long environmental and biological half-lives,

detection in most human plasma samples, and links to multiple adverse health outcomes. The

literature suggests that some PFAS may be neurotoxic. However, there are major gaps in the

literature with respect to how environmentally-relevant doses during development may influence

the nervous system. To address this gap, we utilized a sentinel species, Northern leopard frogs

(*Lithobates pipiens)* to determine the effects of developmental exposure to environmentally

relevant perfluorooctane sulfononate (PFOS) and perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) on major

neurotransmitter systems. Frog larvae at Gosner stage 25 were exposed to 10, 100, or 1000 ppb

PFOS or PFOA for 30 days before neurochemical analysis. High performance liquid

chromatography (HPLC) with electrochemical detection or fluorescent detection assays was used

to measure neurotransmitter levels which were normalized to protein levels in each sample.

Dopamine (DA) decreased significantly in the brains of frogs treated with PFOA (1000 ppb) and

PFOS (100 and 1000 ppb). Significant increases in DA turnover also resulted from PFOA and

PFOS treatment. Neither PFOS, nor PFOA produced detectable alterations in serotonin or its

metabolite, norepinephrine, gamma-amino butyric acid (GABA), glutamate, or acetylcholine.

PFAS body burdens showed that PFOS accumulated relative to dose, while PFOA did not. These

data suggest that DArgic neurotransmission is selectively affected in developmentally exposed

amphibians and that PFAS should be evaluated for a potential role in diseases that target the DA

system.

Keywords: Per- and polyfluoroalkyl substances; perfluorooctanoic acid; perfluorooctane

sulfononate; neurotoxicity; dopamine

1. Introduction

Per- and polyfluoroalkyl substances (PFAS) are compounds that have been extensively used in manufacturing of surfactants, paper and packaging treatments, anti-static agents, corrosion inhibitors, insecticides, shampoos, and firefighting foams (Stahl *et al.*, 2011). PFAS are of significant concern due in part to the stable carbon-fluorine bond and, therefore, long half-life and potential for accumulation (Moody *et al.*, 2003). Perfluorooctane sulfononate (PFOS) and perfluorooctanoic acid (PFAS) have been extensively investigated for adverse health effects. While PFOS and PFOA have largely been phased out in favor of shorter chain length PFAS, they are ubiquitously detected in the global population (Olsen *et al.*, 2009; Jian *et al.*, 2018).

PFOS and PFOA both cross the blood-brain barrier, with PFOS generally accumulating 10-100x more in mammals than many other major PFAS (Maestri *et al.*, 2006). Studies in large mammals suggest that PFAS accumulate in the brain and are potentially neurotoxic. In polar bears, brain PFAS levels (including PFOS) were found to correlate with neurotransmitter alterations (Dassuncao *et al.*, 2019). Further, PFAS in North Atlantic pilot whales (*Globicephala melas*) were found to accumulate in brain, where only the liver had higher levels. Here, PFAS were strongly correlated with the high phospholipid content in the brain (Dassuncao et al., 2019). Laboratory studies in rodents on PFAS neurotoxicity have suggested neurobehavioral alterations. For example, mice exposed to various PFAS on post-natal day 10 showed that exposure increased spontaneous activity and increased proteins important for making synapses (Johansson *et al.*, 2009; Lee and Viberg, 2013). After dams were treated with PFOA during pregnancy, male offspring had significantly shorter latency to fall on the wire-hang test when they were 5-8 weeks old, suggesting a potential motor deficit (Onishchenko *et al.*, 2011). This implies that PFAS exposure may affect brain development. Exposures to invertebrates have shown that *C. elegans*

have decreased motor function after 48 hour exposure to PFOS (Chen *et al.*, 2014). Finally, *in*

vitro exposures suggest that PFAS may influence neuronal differentiation, where in PC12 cells,

PFOS promoted differentiation to cholinergic neurons at the expense of differentiation to

dopaminergic (DA)ergic neurons, whereas other tested PFAS suppressed or enhanced overall

differentiation (Slotkin *et al.*, 2008). This research suggests that developmental exposure could

lead to a long-term deficit in the number of DA neurons.

In general, there is a lack of data on PFAS neurotoxicity and potential relevance to

neurological diseases. While neurobehavioral alterations have been examined in a number of

developmental and adult studies, environmental relevance of the tested doses is generally lacking

and few studies have assessed multiple neurotransmitter systems. The primary goal of this report

was to determine the effects of developmental PFAS exposure at doses which include those

detected in environmental samples in a sentinel species. The long-term goal is to prompt specific

research into how exposure to PFAS during development may affect specific neurotransmitter

systems and influence neurological disease.

2. Methods

2.1 Animals, nominal exposure, and measured water and sediment PFAS levels.

All animal studies were approved by Purdue Animal Care and Use Committee standards.

The Northern leopard frog (*Lithobates pipiens*) was chosen as a relevant sentinel species

(Hoover *et al.*, 2017). Eggs were collected and reared to Gosner stage 25 in outdoor tanks prior

to the start of the experiment. Treatment tanks were prepared with 75 L of aged well water

(containing algae and zooplankton) and 10 kg of sediment spiked with PFOS or PFOA to

achieve nominal sediment concentrations of 0, 10, 100, or 1000 ppb. The doses were selected to

include concentrations detected at contaminated sites (Moody *et al.*, 2003). Measured water and

sediment concentrations, along with body burdens were determined by tandem mass

spectrometry from representative samples as previously reported (Hoover *et al.*, 2017). Exposure

lasted 30 days and tadpoles were sacrificed immediately using tricaine (MS-222). For this short

initial report on neurotoxicity, 6-14 frogs/treatment (PFOA or PFOS at 0 to1000 ppb) were

randomly selected from 32 treatment tanks (~20 tadpoles housed/tank) for detailed

neurotransmitter analysis (81 total samples analyzed for each neurotransmitter), where the

majority of the animals were devoted to a long-term, non-neuronal study on systemic

ecotoxicity. Brains were removed, frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until processed.

2.2 Neurotransmitter Quantification

Six neurotransmitter systems were assessed. The majority of neurotransmitters were

analyzed by HPLC with electrochemical detection as we have previously reported (Agim &

Cannon, 2018; Cannon et al., 2009; Horowitz et al., 2011; Wirbisky, Weber, Lee, Cannon, &

Freeman, 2014; Wirbisky et al., 2015). Neurotransmitter levels in the samples were quantified by

measuring the area under the curve and comparing it to a standard curve. Neurotransmitter levels

were then normalized to protein levels in the sample (ng neurotransmitter/mg protein) and DA

(DA) turnover was calculated as [(DOPAC + HVA)/DA where DOPAC and HVA refer to DA

metabolites 4-dihydroxyphenylacetic acid and homovanillic acid, respectively].

Acetylcholine (ACh) was quantified using the Invitrogen Molecular Probes Amplex

ACh/Acetylcholinesterase Assay Kit (A12217). Briefly, samples were diluted 1:1 in the reaction

buffer. Samples and standards were incubated in 200 µM amplex red, 1 U/mL horseradish

peroxidase, 0.1 U/mL choline oxidase and 0.5 U/mL acetylcholinesterase 1:1 reaction buffer.

Concentrations were determined with fluorescence spectroscopy (530 nm excitation and 590 nm

emission). Acetylcholine levels were normalized to protein levels in the sample (ng

neurotransmitter/mg protein).

2.4 Statistical Analysis

Differences in bioaccumulation of PFAS between treatments were tested using linear

regression on log_{10}-transformed PFAS body burdens and comparisons of estimated marginal

means post-hoc analysis. Neurotransmitters were analyzed by one-way ANOVA with Sidak's

post-hoc test to compare all treatment groups within an exposure (PFOA or PFOS) and to

controls. Whole brain analyses of lower order species (i.e., zebrafish) produce considerably more

variable neurochemistry data than micro-dissected brain analysis in rodents (Lee *et al.*, 2015;

Dukes *et al.*, 2016). Thus, outlier analysis was conducted. Statistical analyses were conducted

both before and after outlier analysis. Importantly, outlier analyses for raw neurotransmitter data

had no effect on statistical significance, where no new significant comparisons were revealed,

nor were any significant comparisons eliminated after outlier analysis. Outliers were identified

using stringent ROUT analysis (Q = 0.1%) (Motulsky and Brown, 2006). Outlier analyses

resulted in no more than 3 samples/group being excluded, with the following total

exclusions/endpoint: DA (0/81 data points omitted), DOPAC (7/81 data points omitted), HVA

(0/81 data points omitted), 5-HT (0/81 data points omitted), 5-HIAA (0/81 data points omitted),

NE (1/81 data points omitted), DA turnover (9/81), 5-HT turnover (1/81 data points omitted),

glutamate (0/81 data points omitted), GABA (11/81 data points omitted), and acetylcholine (0/81

data points omitted). All data were expressed as mean ± standard error of the mean (S.E.M.) and

$p < 0.05$ used to identify significant differences.

3. Results

3.1 Water, sediment, and body burden levels

Quantified PFAS exposure and body burden levels are shown in **Table 1** and **Figure 1**.

Table 1. PFAS applied and measured doses and total body burden. Measured concentrations include sediment and water analysis, along with whole body burden determination at the end of the exposure ($n = 4$-5).

Exposure	Nominal sediment concentration (ppb)	Measured water concentration at initiation (ppb ± SEM)	Measured water concentration at completion (ppb ± SEM)	Measured sediment concentration at initiation (ppb ± SEM)	Measured sediment concentration at completion (ppb ± SEM)	Body burden (ppb ± SEM)
Control	0	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00	0.10 ± 0.06	0.08 ± 0.08	27.71 ± 9.22
PFOA	10	3.22 ± 0.12	2.58 ± 0.17	18.90 ± 1.05	7.61 ± 0.40	204.54 ± 26.46
PFOA	100	8.34 ± 0.73	6.33 ± 0.13	41.99 ± 1.65	14.32 ± 1.11	161.37 ± 16.68
PFOA	1000	76.91 ± 2.60	55.38 ± 0.58	422.55 ± 22.25	140.25 ± 15.06	169.41 ± 24.20
PFOS	10	0.08 ± 0.04	0.03 ± 0.03	7.89 ± 0.34	5.94 ± 0.67	195.85 ± 40.84
PFOS	100	0.77 ± 0.08	1.15 ± 0.13	89.13 ± 4.66	45.58 ± 2.77	852.83 ± 46.41
PFOS	1000	16.44 ± 0.45	14.78 ± 0.29	739.25 ± 28.98	455.92 ± 45.47	4494.63 ± 655.55

3.2. Neurotransmitter levels

Quantification of catecholamine neurotransmitters showed a significant decrease in DA in frogs treated with 1000 ppb PFOA and 100 or 1000 ppb PFOS, (3.61 ± 0.61 ng/mg protein, 1.62 ± 0.18 ng/mg protein, 2.41 ± 0.15 ng/mg protein, 2.09 ± 0.24 ng/mg protein for the control, 1000 ppb PFOA, 100 ppb PFOS, and 1000 ppb PFOS, respectively) (**Figure 2A**), but no significant changes in the DA metabolites DOPAC or HVA (**Figure 2B,C**). DA decreases, relative to metabolite levels led to a significant increase in DA turnover [(DOPAC + HVA)/DA] for both 1000 ppb PFOS and PFOA (0.33 ± 0.05, 1.22 ± 0.20, 0.69 ± 0.09, 1.02 ± 0.10 for the control, 1000 ppb PFOA, 100 ppb PFOS, and 1000 ppb PFOS, respectively) (**Figure 2D**). Neither PFOS nor PFOA caused significant changes in norepinephrine (NE) levels (**Figure 2E**). Neither serotonin (5-HT) nor its metabolite 5-hydroxyindoleacetic acid (5-HIAA) were significantly affected by treatment with either PFAS, leading to no changes in 5-HT metabolism (**Figure 2F-H**).

The amino acid neurotransmitters glutamate and gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA)

were measured and no significant differences were found in treatment groups versus the control

for either glutamate or GABA (*Figure 3A,B*). In addition, there was no significant change in

ACh levels in any treatment group compared to the control (*Figure 3C*).

4. Discussion

There are major gaps in the literature related to PFAS neurotoxicity. Here, we have

shown that developmental exposure within the concentration range documented at contaminated

sites produce selective total brain DA depletion in an amphibian sentinel species. Further, in

general, we observed that PFAS exposure increased DA turnover, which is typically a

compensatory mechanism in response to DArgic neurotoxicity and DA depletion; and an

additional metric of damage to DArgic function (Sossi *et al.*, 2002). This short report is expected

to prompt research on the neurochemical and neuropathological effects of PFAS on the brain.

Further, our findings suggest that the potential role of PFAS in neurological diseases affecting

DArgic neurotransmission should be examined.

DA depletion in the frog brain could have several implications, especially given that there

are some significant advantages of specific frog species as a model. Leopard frogs are unique in

that they have neuromelanin-containing DArgic neurons in the ventral motor neurons which

could be related to DArgic neurons in the nigrostriatal DA system that are affected in

Parkinson's disease (PD). Importantly, these pigmented neurons have been shown to bind PD-

relevant toxicants and exhibit heightened sensitivity with respect to low-neuromelanin

expressing species (Lindquist *et al.*, 1988; Sokolowski *et al.*, 1990; Spencer *et al.*, 2004;

Karlsson *et al.*, 2009). With respect to neuromelanin expression and toxicant binding to

neuromelanin, certain amphibian species are more representative to human DArgic neurons than

low-expressing rodent models. Thus, the potential relevance of DA depletion in PFAS-treated

amphibians to PD should be further examined. An additional common DArgic pathway in

mammals is the reward system with DArgic neurons extending from the ventral tegmental area

to the ventral striatum (Lammel *et al.*, 2014). Frogs have a similar DArgic pathway for reward

that contains DArgic neurons in the anteroventral tegmental area, thus the DA depletion that we

observed could potentially result in suppression of the reward pathway (O'Connell *et al.*, 2010).

DArgic neurons are also important for the hypothalamic function and multiple neuroendocrine

axes that control well-conserved behaviors such as metabolic rate stress, digestion and mood (Hu

et al., 2008). Thus, neuroendocrine function in response to PFAS should also be tested.

Another important aspect of these findings potentially relates to developmental origins of

adult health and disease (DOHaD). It will be important to examine whether developmental PFAS

exposures result in increased susceptibility to neurodegenerative diseases. PD, for example is a

disease of aging, where once the nigrostriatal DA reserve is depleted (i.e., loss of DA neurons

reaches a symptomatic threshold), the onset of clinical symptoms appear (Tabbal *et al.*, 2012).

Testing whether a developmental PFAS exposure may lower such reserve and increase

susceptibility later in life is of importance.

Neurochemical quantification is a frequent endpoint studied for effects of compounds on

the brain in rodents, but has also been measured in aquatic species, both in whole zebrafish larva

and brains (Cannon *et al.*, 2009; Milanese *et al.*, 2012; Wirbisky *et al.*, 2014; Wirbisky *et al.*,

2015; Dukes *et al.*, 2016). However, quantification in aquatic species is more difficult and more

variable than specific region neurotransmitter quantification in rodents. Clearly, our samples

exhibited increased variability relative to micro-dissected rodent studies. Indeed, GABA and

ACh analyses exhibited potential nonsignificant trends resulting from PFAS treatment,

suggesting further examination. Future studies will require an increase number of animals/group,

along with subregional analysis.

Relationships between PFAS treatments and body burden show log-linear

bioaccumulation of PFOS, whereas PFOA did not, which is consistent with the bioaccumulative

properties of PFOS, especially in the brain (Maestri *et al.*, 2006). Differences between nominal

and measured sediment PFAS levels are due to redistribution of the PFAS between sediment and

water, and to a lesser part from a mass balance perspective, to uptake by algal communities and

the frogs.

In summary, our findings suggest developmental PFAS exposure in a sentinel species at

environmentally-relevant doses produce selective DA depletion. These findings imply that the

role of PFAS in neurological diseases involving DArgic neurotransmission should be evaluated.

5. Funding

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Figure Legends:

Figure 1. Total body burden in PFAS-treated frogs 30 days after treatment (mean +/-

SEM). A regression shows that all PFAS treatments have greater body burdens than controls.

Post-hoc analysis showed that: 1) the two highest PFOS treatment were significantly greater than

the low PFOS treatment and all PFOA treatments, 2) the 1000ppb PFOS treatment was greater

than the 100ppb PFOS, and 3) that none of the PFOA treatments differed from each other. Note,

y-axis is $\log_{10}$-transformed.

Figure 2. Developmental exposure to PFOA or PFOS selectively decreases dopamine levels.

Northern leopard frog (*Lithobates pipiens*) tadpoles at Gosner stage 25 were exposed to PFOS or

PFOA for 30 days. Whole brain monoamines and major metabolites were quantified using HPLC

with electrochemical detection and normalized to amount of protein per sample: Dopamine (DA)

(***A***); 3,4-dihydroxyphenylacetic acid (DOPAC) (***B***); homovanillic acid (HVA) (***C***); DA turnover

[(DOPAC + HVA)/DA] (***D***); norepinephrine (NE) (***E***); serotonin (5-HT) (***F***); 5-

hydroxyindoleaceti acid (5-HIAA) (***G***); 5-HT turnover (5-HIAA/5-HT) (***H***). Data was analyzed

using one-way ANOVA followed by Sidak's post hoc test. *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.005$, ***$p<0.0001$;

n=6-14/group.

Figure 3. Developmental exposure to PFOA or PFOS does not affect amino acid or

cholinergic neurotransmitter levels. Northern leopard frog (*Lithobates pipiens*) tadpoles at

Gosner stage 25 were exposed to PFOS or PFOA for 30 days. Whole brain amino acid

neurotransmitters were quantified using HPLC with electrochemical detection: glutamate (***A***);

and gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) (***B***). Whole brain acetylcholine was quantified using the

Invitrogen Molecular Probes Amplex Acetylcholine/Acetylcholinesterase Assay Kit with

fluorometric detection. Neurotransmitters were normalized to amount of protein per sample.

Data was analyzed using one-way ANOVA followed by Sidak's post hoc test; n=6-14/group.