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1	An examination of microcystin-LR accumulation and toxicity using tethered bilayer lipid
2	membranes (tBLMs).
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20 Abstract

Microcystin-LR (MC-LR) is a potent cyanobacterial toxin responsible for animal and human 21 poisonings worldwide. MC-LR is found in organisms throughout the foodweb, however there 22 is conjecture regarding whether it biomagnifies. Few studies have investigated how MC-LR 23 interacts with lipid membranes, a determinant of biomagnification potential. We tested whether 24 25 1 µM MC-LR irreversibly associates with lipid bilayers or causes the creation of pore defects 26 upon short and long-term exposure. Using tethered bilayer lipid membranes (tBLMs), we observed an increase in membrane conduction in tBLMs, representing an interaction of 27 28 microcystin-LR with the lipid bilayer and a change in membrane packing properties. However, 29 there were minimal changes in membrane capacitance upon short and long-term exposure, and MC-LR exhibited a rapid off-rate. Upon 24 h exposure to the toxin, no lipophilic multimeric 30 31 complexes were detected capable of altering the toxin's off-rate. There was no evidence of the creation of new pores. This study demonstrates that MC-LR does not irreversibly imbed itself 32 into lipids membranes after short or long-term exposure and suggests MC-LR does not 33 biomagnify through the food web via lipid storage. 34

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37 Keywords

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Microcystin-LR; biomagnification; tethered bilayer lipid membrane; cyanobacteria.

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43 **1. Introduction**

Cyanobacteria blooms are increasing in prevalence and severity, threatening both ecological 44 and anthropogenic water requirements (Paerl & Fulton, 2006; Paerl et al., 2011; Drobac et al., 45 46 2013). Many bloom-forming cyanobacteria produce toxic secondary metabolites and cyanotoxins that have been implicated in fish kills, deaths of waterbirds and other wildlife, 47 livestock poisonings and human fatalities (Azevedo et al., 1996; Carmichael, 2001; Ibelings et 48 49 al., 2005; White et al., 2005; Boopathi & Ki, 2014). Of all cyanotoxins, the hepatotoxic microcystins (MC) are the most widespread and problematic (Quiblier et al., 2013; Mowe et 50 51 al., 2015).

52 MCs are a structurally diverse group of cyclic heptapeptides, with 90+ isomers (Boopathi & 53 Ki, 2014). They contain three D-amino acids (glutamic acid, *erythro*- β -methyl-aspartic acid 54 and alanine), two variable L-amino acids, and two unique residues (Mdha and Adda) 55 (Vesterkvist & Meriluoto, 2003). The toxicity of MC variants differs according to the 56 combination of variable amino acids in the peptide ring (de Figueiredo et al., 2004; Schmidt et 57 al., 2014). Microcystin-LR, a microcystin congener with a leucine and an arginine group, is 58 among the most toxic and common (Carmichael, 1997; de Figueiredo et al., 2004).

59 MC is frequently found in a variety of organisms, for example, aquatic plants (Mitrovic et al., 2005), cladocerans (Ibelings et al., 2005), mussels (Barda et al., 2015), gastropods (Lance et 60 61 al., 2008; Barda et al., 2015), fish (Ibelings et al., 2005; Papadimitriou et al., 2012; Vasconcelos et al., 2013) and mammals (Miller et al., 2010, van der Merwe et al., 2012). In higher 62 organisms, MCs are actively and preferentially accumulated in the liver through organic anion 63 transporting polypeptides (specifically, OATP1B1, OATP1B2, OATP1B3 and OATP1A2) 64 involved in bile-acid transport in hepatocytes (Chorus & Bartram, 1999; Ito et al., 2008; 65 McLellen & Manderville, 2017). They inhibit catalytic subunits of protein phosphatases-1 and 66 -2A, cause acute hepatotoxicosis and may promote cancer (Bagu et al., 1997; Carmichael, 67

68 2001; de Figeuiredo et al., 2004). Small but notable concentrations of MC are found in various other tissues of rats and fish – for example the kidneys, heart, intestine, spleen, brain, gill, 69 muscle, gonad and stomach (Ito et al., 2000; Lei et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2008). The 70 71 identification of MCs in such varied organisms and tissues indicates a broad mechanism of 72 toxicity and accumulation beyond the well-known bile-acid transporters in hepatocytes. Petrov et al. (1991) suggested that emplacement of MC's Adda residue in lipid bilayers may occur 73 74 due to its lipophilic and flexible tail that extends from the rigid cyclic backbone. This potentially creates pores and compromises cell membrane integrity. 75

76 Lipophilic compounds, those that are soluble in lipids or oils, can impair the organisation of 77 lipids in a membrane and disrupt the functioning of the cell (Vesterkvist & Meriluoto, 2003). Further, the capacity of a toxin to bioaccumulate and biomagnify can be influenced by 78 79 lipophilicity as lipophilic chemicals tend to accumulate in the lipids of organisms where they are retained for extended periods and more readily transfer up trophic levels (Petersen & 80 Kristensen, 1998; Ibelings et al., 2005; Amiard & Amiard-Triquet, 2015). The water-octanol 81 partition coefficient (log Kow) of MC-LR is -1 at pH 7 (Ibelings et al., 2005), suggesting that 82 the compound is relatively hydrophilic and may not strongly interact with lipids. However, 83 84 microcystins are amphipathic, containing both lipophilic and hydrophilic regions (Figure 1) (Vesterkvist & Meriluoto, 2003). The lipophilic Adda residue and the variable amino acids in 85 86 the peptide ring of MCs may impair lipid membrane structure or facilitate MC-LR 87 accumulation within an organism (Orr & Jones, 1998; Zurawell et al., 2005; Schmidt et al., 2014). 88



Figure 1. Chemical structure of microcystin-LR. (1) is D-alanine; (2) is the lipophilic
variable amino acid L-Leucine; (3) is D-erythro-β-methylaspartic acid; (4) is the
variable amino acid L-Arginine; (5) is the lipophilic residue Adda; (6) is D-glutamic
acid; and (7) is N-methyldehydroalanine.

Given that MC is regularly found in organisms across all trophic levels (Xie et al., 2005; Tokodi
et al., 2018), there are also concerns regarding whether MC can biomagnify to affect upper
trophic level organisms through the food web, such as fish, water birds, sea otters and humans
(Xie et al., 2005; Miller et al., 2010). Lipid membrane interactions are a common mechanism
of assimilation, accumulation and biomagnification of toxins; however this has not yet been
demonstrated with MC-LR (Ibelings et al., 2005; Kozlowsky-Suzuki et al., 2012; Schmidt et
al., 2014).

Despite the relatively low log K_{ow} of MC-LR, the lipophilic Adda and variable amino acid
 regions of the compound, combined with suggestions of bioaccumulation and biomagnification

of MC-LR in the literature, may indicate some interaction between the cyanotoxin and lipid
membranes. To determine whether MC-LR irreversibly associates with lipid bilayers, we
investigated the interactions of the toxin with *tethered bilayer lipid membranes* (tBLMs), which
provide a model for natural biological membranes (Cranfield et al., 2014; Cranfield et al.,
2015a)

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- 109 **2. Materials and Methods**
- 110 2.1 *Mass Spectroscopy*

111 Commercially available microcystin-LR was obtained and its purity tested prior to use using mass spectroscopy. Matrix Assisted Laser Desorption Ionisation MassSpectrometry (MALDI-112 MS) using a 5800 MALDI TOF/TOF (AB Sciex, Framingham USA) in positive ion reflector 113 114 mode was used. Its operation utilized a laser set to 4700, mass range set to 400-3000 Da with focal mass of 995 Da. 500 spectra were accumulated on a spot containing 1 ng of microcystin-115 LR standard (Abraxis) co-crystallised with α-Cyano-4-hydroxycinnamic acid (Sigma, USA) 116 to assist in ionization. The concentration of microcystin used for tBLM experiments was 1 μ M 117 dissolved in phosphate buffered saline (PBS). This concentration was selected as it is on the 118 upper end of those found in natural systems, so is representative of a toxic bloom scenario 119 (Chorus, 2001). 120

121 2.2 Tethered Bilayer Lipid Membranes (tBLMs)

Lipid bilayers were anchored to a pure gold substrate using a combination of 10% tethering lipids and 90% spacer lipids as described previously (**Figure 2***A*) (Cranfield et al., 2015b). In brief, pure 5N5 gold electrodes of 2.1 mm² were pre-prepared with a coating of tethered benzyldisulfide (tetra-ethyleneglycol)_{n=2} C20-phytanyl tethers (DLP) and benzyl-disulfide-tetraethyleneglycol-OH spacers (TEGOH) in the ratio of 1:9 (*SDx Tethered Membranes Pty Ltd*, 127 Australia). To these tethering chemistries were added 8 µL of a 3 mM solution of a mobile lipid phase dissolved in ethanol. After a 2 min incubation, the mobile phase lipids were washed 128 three times with $3 \times 400 \,\mu\text{L}$ of phosphate buffered saline (PBS). The lipids added consisted of 129 130 70% zwitterionic C20 Diphytanyl-Glycero-Phosphatidylcholine lipid and 30% C20 Diphytanyl-diglyceride-OH ether. To determine if the microcystin-LR might have an affinity 131 for other membrane components, the membranes were supplemented with either 20% 132 (mol/mol) 1-palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine (POPE, Avanti Lipids, 133 USA) or 20% (mol/mol) cholesterol. 134

135 2.3 AC electrical impedance spectroscopy (EIS)

Phase and impedance measures were performed using an SDx tethaPodTM operated with SDx tethaQuickTM software (SDx Tethered Membranes Pty Ltd). Using a 50 mV peak-to-peak AC excitation at frequencies between 0.1 and 10,000 Hz with four steps per decade. Swept frequency EIS was employed to determine the change in membrane conduction (G_m) and changes in membrane capacitance (C_m). The data were fitted to an equivalent circuit comprising a *Constant Phase Element* (CPE) to represent the reservoir region (Krishna et al., 2003) in series with a Resistor/Capacitor that described the tethered lipid bilayer (**Figure 2***B*).



Figure 2. A. Cartoon of a tethered lipid bilayer membrane (tBLM) with an 144 intrinsic membrane pore defect. Benzyl-disulfide (tetra-ethyleneglycol)_{n=2} C20-145 phytanyl tethers anchor a lipid bilayer to an underlying gold electrode. B. The 146 equivalent circuit for modelling AC electrical impedance data. In this circuit, R_s 147 148 represents the resistance of the electrolyte solution (PBS), G_m represents the conduction of the membrane, which is primarily determined by membrane pore 149 defects, Cm is the membrane capacitance and CPE is a constant phase element 150 used to model the tethering gold electrode and its surface chemistries. 151

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3. Results and Discussion

The microcystin-LR used in the experiment was determined to be of high purity with minimal degradation by use of MALDI-MS, the highest abundant ions present in the sample being the expected mass of the intact microcystin (**Figure 3**). Microcystin-LR was tested on tBLMs containing Dyphytanyl PC lipids or mixtures of Diphytanyl lipids with 20% POPE or 20% cholesterol. POPE and cholesterol are membrane constituents necessary for the interactions of

159 numerous other toxins and peptides with lipid bilayers (Palmer, 2001; Henriques et al., 2011; Al Khamici et al., 2016; Cranfield et al., 2017). For each of the different membranes used there 160 was a consistent increase in membrane conduction due to the presence of 1 µM microcystin-161 LR (Figure 4A, C and E). This response is consistent with a change in membrane packing 162 brought about by the interaction of the microcystin-LR with the lipid bilayer. According to a 163 membrane packing model, this alteration of the membrane packing arrangement causes an 164 increase in the diameter of intrinsic toroidal pores within the membrane and is unlikely to be 165 due to the formation of new pores (Cranfield et al., 2016; Cranfield et al., 2017; Kuppusamy et 166 167 al., 2018). This data is supported by the fact that there is little change in membrane capacitance as a result of adding 1 µM microcystin-LR (Figure 4B, D and F). Membrane capacitance is 168 directly influenced by membrane thickness and/or the water content at the bilayer. As a positive 169 170 control, a pore-inducing cathelicidin peptide, LL-37, was later added (Turner et al., 1998; Nizalapur et al., 2016). This addition of LL-37 induced a definite change in membrane 171 conduction and membrane capacitance. 172



Figure 3. A, Mass-spectra of microcystin LR sample. The peak at 995.48 m/z
corresponds with microcystin LR at 97% total ion intensity, 859.40 m/z corresponds to
a fragmentation of the toxin releasing 136 Da corresponding to (2methoxyethyl)benzene. *B*, spectra zoomed to display the carbon isotope distribution of
the molecule.

Following a PBS wash step microcystin-LR exhibited a rapid off-rate, which had little impact 180 on the capacitance of the membranes. This indicates that despite its amphipathic properties, its 181 lipophilicity is minimal as it can readily be removed by aqueous buffers. However, this does 182 not preclude the possibility microcystin-LR might form oligomers that are more lipophilic in 183 nature. To test this, we incubated tBLMs with microcystin-LR overnight before washing with 184 PBS. Figure 5A-D are these membrane conduction and membrane capacitance traces for 185 tBLMs exposed to 1 µM microcystin-LR in the presence of 20% POPE or 20% cholesterol 186 187 lipids, respectively. It is evident that the tBLMs exhibit an increase in membrane conduction, with minimal changes in membrane capacitance. MC-LR is then readily washed out after the 188 allotted time-period. This suggests that no lipophilic multimeric complexes are being formed 189 190 by the toxin in membranes or in aqueous buffer.



Figure 4. *A* Membrane conduction changes over time as result of adding 1 μ M microcystin-LR to tBLMs made of Diphytanyl PC with 30% diphytanyldiglyceride-OH lipids. A small increase in membrane conduction can be seen,

196 which is readily washed from the membrane subsequently by PBS buffer. LL-37 peptide is added finally as a positive control. **B**, Capacitance measured over 197 the same period indicating minimal changes to membrane thickness and/or water 198 199 content as a result of the addition of microcystin-LR, which can be compared to the significant capacitance change due to LL-37 peptide. C, similar conduction 200 responses, and D, capacitance responses, in membranes that include 20% 201 202 mol/mol POPE lipids. E, similar conduction responses, and F, capacitance responses, in membranes that include 20% cholesterol mol/mol. All samples are 203 204 n=3.



207	Figure 5. A, membrane conduction changes over a period of nearly 24 hours as
208	result of adding 1 μ M microcystin-LR to tBLMs containing 20% POPE lipids.
209	A small increase in membrane conduction can be seen which is maintained a
210	relatively steady level until the microcystin-LR is subsequently washed from the
211	tBLM by PBS buffer. B , capacitance measures of the same period. C and D , are
212	similar conduction and capacitance measures, respectively, in tBLMs containing
213	20% cholesterol. All samples are n=3.

The minimal effect of MC-LR on membrane capacitance after short and long-term exposure, 214 and the rapid off-rate following the PBS wash, indicates that the toxin has minimal potential to 215 imbed itself in or disrupt biological membranes. Therefore, the creation of pores, and/or the 216 217 deterioration of membrane integrity, as was suggested by Petrov et al. (1991), is unlikely to be a contributing factor to MC-LR's toxicity. Biomagnification of MC-LR is unlikely to occur 218 219 due to the low residence time in lipids, and biodilution is likely to be the prevailing process (Ibelings, 2005; Kozlowsky-Suzuki, 2012). This is supported by Dyble et al. (2011) who found 220 that orally administered MC-LR was eliminated rapidly (within 24 h) from the tissue of 221 222 juvenile yellow perch.

The present study showed some minor, temporary interaction of MC-LR with lipid membranes, most likely caused by the insertion of the lipophilic Adda residue. This interaction may explain the detection of the toxin in low quantities in a diverse range of species and tissue types (Ito et al., 2000; Wang et al., 2008; Lei et al., 2008). The introduction of cholesterol and POPE lipid to membranes indicated that the presence of lipid micro-domains has little influence on the toxin's membrane insertion and retention time. Localised accumulation of MC-LR in hepatocytes through the OATP transporters remains the likely route of exposure to toxic levelsof MC-LR (Chorus & Bartram, 1999).

While this study suggests that MC-LR does not biomagnify through the food web through lipid 231 storage, this does not discount the possibility of other MC variants doing so. MC-LR is 232 frequently cited as the most toxic and widespread of the microcystin family (Schmidt et al., 233 234 2014; Rastogi et al., 2015), and many water quality guidelines often focus solely on MC-LR, such as those by the World Health Organisation (WHO) (Guidelines for drinking-water quality: 235 fourth edition incorporating the first addendum, 2017). It should also be noted that the majority 236 of cyanotoxin research focuses on MC-LR (de Figueiredo et al., 2004). Some microcystin 237 isomers, such as MC-LF and MC-LW, are more lipophilic than the MC-LR variant (Vesterkvist 238 et al., 2012) and Xie et al. (2004) noted that depuration of MC-RR in silver carp occurs far 239 240 more slowly than MC-LR. These microcystins may represent a greater biomagnification potential than MC-LR. Further research should seek to clarify the differences in 241 biomagnification potential between the microcystin congeners and establish water quality 242 guidelines that incorporate other MC congeners that may threaten higher trophic level 243 organisms. 244

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246 **4.** Conclusion

Using tethered bilayer lipid membranes, we demonstrated that MC-LR does not irreversibly imbed itself into lipid membranes after short or long-term exposure. We observed an increase in membrane conduction in tBLMs, most likely caused by insertion of the lipophilic Adda residue, altering the overall membrane packing properties. However, there was minimal changes in membrane capacitance and MC-LR exhibited a rapid off-rate. When left to incubate with the membrane over 24 hours, the data suggests that no lipophilic multimeric complexes were formed capable of altering the toxin's off-rate, and no new pores were created. The temporary insertion of the Adda residue may explain the identification of the toxin in low quantities in a diverse range of species and tissue types (Ito et al., 2000; Wang et al., 2008; Lei et al., 2008), however MC-LR appears incapable of accumulating to high levels as a result of lipid insertion in these tissues. These findings indicate that biodilution, as opposed to biomagnification, is the prevailing process when MC-LR enters the foodweb.

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