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A Multimethod Approach for Investigating Algal Toxicity of Platinum Nanoparticles

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1	TITLE		
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ABSTRACT

The ecotoxicity of platinum nanoparticles (PtNPs) widely used in for example automotive catalytic 25 converters, is largely unknown. This study employs various characterization techniques and toxicity 26 endpoints to investigate PtNP toxicity towards the green microalgae Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata 27 28 and Chlamydomonas reinhardtii. Growth rate inhibition occurred in standard ISO tests (EC₅₀ values of 15-200 mg Pt/L), but also in a double-vial setup, separating cells from PtNPs, thus demonstrating 29 shading as an important artefact for PtNP toxicity. Negligible membrane damage, but substantial 30 oxidative stress was detected at 0.1-80 mg Pt/L in both algal species using flow cytometry. PtNPs 31 caused growth rate inhibition and oxidative stress in *P. subcapitata*, beyond what was accounted for by 32 dissolved Pt, indicating NP-specific toxicity of PtNPs. Overall, P. subcapitata was found to be more 33 sensitive towards PtNPs and higher body burdens were measured in this species, possibly due to a 34 favored binding of Pt to the polysaccharide-rich cell wall of this algal species. This study highlights the 35 36 importance of using multi-method approaches in nanoecotoxicological studies to elucidate toxicity mechanisms, influence of NP-interactions with media/organisms, and ultimately to identify artefacts 37 and appropriate endpoints for NP-ecotoxicity testing. 38

INTRODUCTION

The aquatic fate and toxicity of various metal nanoparticles have been studied intensively in recent 40 years,¹ but very few studies have focused on the effects of platinum nanoparticles (PtNPs) on aquatic 41 organisms. This is somewhat surprising considering the extensive use of PtNPs in automotive catalytic 42 converters during the past decades. In the three-way catalytic converter, Pt is wash-coated onto a 43 ceramic carrier and deposited as NPs,² typically in the size range of 1-10 nm.³ The well-known 44 catalytic activity of Pt is improved for nanostructured particles, allowing for an increased specific 45 surface area of the Pt.⁴ During use, abrasion of the catalytic converter will cause emission of Pt to the 46 environment, mainly as elemental nanocrystalline Pt attached to µm-sized alumina particles.⁵ 47 Automotive catalysts represent the largest use of Pt and one of the main sources for emissions into the 48 environment.⁶ Emitted particles will be spread in the environment via atmospheric transport and/or 49 stormwater runoff into drainage systems. Thus, elevated Pt levels have been detected in roadside dust, 50 river sediments, aquatic organisms^{6,7} and even in Greenlandic snow isolated from heavy traffic.⁸ 51 The ecotoxicological effects of PtNPs in the aquatic environment remains, however, largely unknown. 52 Zebrafish embryos exposed to 3-10 nm PtNPs capped with polyvinyl alcohol, showed hatching delays, 53 concentration-dependent drop in heart rate, touch response, and axis curvature.⁹ Similarly, 10 nm 54 PtNPs influenced the heart rate of zebrafish embryos, as well as hatching and morphology, while also 55 causing mortality and cytotoxicity in *in vitro* assays.¹⁰ More recently, PtNPs in the size range of 30-60 56 nm were shown to inhibit the growth of green algae with a 72 h mean effective concentration (EC_{50 72h}) 57 of 17 mg Pt/L.¹¹ 58

Algal toxicity data are required in hazard assessments schemes for chemical classification and
 regulation,¹² but NPs comprise a challenge to aquatic toxicity testing, due to their heterogeneous and
 dynamic nature when suspended in aqueous media.¹³ This results in varying exposure concentrations

during incubation which ultimately affect the test validity and reproducibility.^{14–16} The issue of NP transformation during incubation is further magnified for algal growth inhibition tests, due to the exponential increase in algal cells as well as the presence of their exudates and metabolic products.¹⁷ The presence of relatively high concentrations of NPs in algal growth inhibition tests may also restrict light from reaching the algae, thereby causing growth inhibition as a result of a physical shading effect and not as an effect of toxicity to the algae.^{14,15,18}

When conducting algal toxicity testing for regulatory purposes, the tested substances, are considered 68 hazardous to the aquatic environment when the mean effective concentration (EC₅₀) is ≤ 100 mg/L in 69 tests with either algae, crustaceans or fish.¹² Consequently, the algal testing setup needs to be valid 70 even at relative high NP-concentrations, compared to relevant environmental exposure concentrations. 71 The algal test was originally developed for soluble chemicals, for which a high concentration is only 72 problematic in the case of poorly soluble or very colored substances.¹⁹ As NPs are not soluble 73 chemicals, but rather particles suspended in the test medium, it is important to investigate testing 74 artefacts, such as shading, to evaluate the appropriateness of the currently used standard tests.²⁰ 75 Currently, the outcome of standard toxicity testing is applied in hazard identification and regulation of 76 77 NPs, although the mechanisms behind the test outcome rarely are understood completely. A testing scheme involving various endpoints may contribute to a better understanding of potential NP-specific 78 79 ecotoxicological effects and form a more solid foundation for NP regulation. This study aims to investigate potential mechanisms involved in the growth rate inhibition caused by 80

PtNPs in the standard algal test used for hazard identification purposes. A multi-method approach is applied to elucidate the role of: 1) Physical obstruction of light, referred to as shading, 2) Cellular effects including oxidative stress and membrane damage, 3) Dissolution of PtNPs, and 4) Association of PtNPs to algal cells, determined as measured body burdens. Different biological endpoints are

- 85 compared for PtNPs and dissolved Pt (PtCl₄) in two algal species *P. subcapitata* and *C. reinhardtii* and
- 86 paralleled with the aggregation and dissolution behavior of PtNPs in the respective algal media.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

89 Test materials, chemical analysis and preparation of test suspensions The PtNPs were synthesized as described by Engelbrekt and co-workers,⁴ yielding an aqueous 90 suspension of pH~4, containing residual amounts of starch (0.6% weight in total), 6 mM glucose, 4 91 mM gluconic acid, 10 mM 2-(N-morpholino)ethanesulfonic acid (MES), 9 mM K⁺ and 12 mM Cl⁻. The 92 93 starch stabilized PtNPs have a primary metal core diameter of 1.7 ± 0.2 nm and an outer diameter 94 (including the starch coating) of 5.8-6.0 nm as determined by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and thermogravimetric analysis.⁴ The nominal Pt concentration of 390 mg Pt/L in the synthesized 95 96 suspension was confirmed by inductively coupled plasma – mass spectrometry (ICP-MS; Agilent 7700, 97 Morges, Switzerland) upon *aqua regia* digestion, yielding an average recovery of $109 \pm 1\%$ (n=3). The two algal species *P. subcapitata* and *C. reinhardtii* were cultivated in ISO 8692 medium,²¹ and 98 four-fold diluted Tris-Acetate-Phosphate medium,²² respectively (referred to hereafter as ISO and 99 100 TAP4 media). Prior to all characterization and algal toxicity testing, a stock suspension was prepared from an aliquot of the synthesized suspension by adjusting the pH using 1 M NaOH and adding algal 101 nutrients to match the two algal test media. These stock suspensions were then diluted further with 102 algal medium to prepare the test concentrations. The Pt concentration in selected stock and diluted test 103 suspensions of both PtCl₄ (0.1-400 mg Pt/L) and PtNPs (10-390 mg Pt/L) was measured by ICP-MS 104 upon preparation. PtNPs were digested before ICP-MS by evaporating the media and re-dissolving the 105 solid fraction in *aqua regia*. The average recovery was $85 \pm 15\%$ (n=66). A series of studies on abiotic 106 107 ROS generation was carried out with a second batch of PtNP synthesized as outlined above. For this batch the average recovery was $68 \pm 9.6\%$ (n=6) in media suspensions of 1-200 mg Pt/L. Platinum (IV) 108 chloride (PtCl₄, 96%) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and included as a soluble Pt material. Other 109

reagents were analytical grade and all suspensions were prepared with Ultrapure Milli-Q water (> 18.2
Ω Milli-Q Direct system, Merck Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany).

112

113 Characterization of PtNPs suspended in algal media

114 The size distributions and zeta potentials of PtNPs in algal media were determined by Dynamic Light

115 Scattering (DLS) using a Malvern ZetaSizer Nano ZS (Malvern Instruments, Malvern, UK).

116 Measurements were conducted 1, 24 and 48 h after preparation of the PtNP suspensions of 30 mg Pt/L

in TAP4 and ISO medium, respectively. The size distributions of PtNPs suspended in both media were

also determined by Asymmetric Flow Field-Flow Fractionation (AsFlFFF) using an AF2000 (Postnova

119 Analytics, Landsberg, Germany) immediately upon preparation and after 1, 24 and 48 h. For the

elemental detection, the AsFIFFF system was coupled to an ICP-MS (Agilent 7700, Morges,

Switzerland) monitoring the ¹⁹⁵Pt signal. The outflow of the AsFlFFF system was connected directly to
the nebulizer of the ICP-MS.

123 The PtNP agglomeration and sedimentation behavior during 48 h in the two media were investigated

respectively by nanoparticle tracking analysis (NTA) with a NanoSight LM10 (Malvern Instrument,

125 Malvern, UK) and spectrophotometry (Agilent 8453, Agilent Technologies, USA). The PtNP

suspensions (80 mg Pt/L) were prepared as for toxicity testing, and stored at 4 °C between

measurements, with TAP4 and ISO media as blank references. The measurements were conducted 1,

128 24 and 48 h after preparation of suspensions. The size and number of agglomerates ($> \approx 50$ nm) present

in the suspensions were determined using NTA 3.1 with automated settings, camera level 16 and a

130 detection threshold of 5. For each measurement, three videos of 60 s were recorded and the sample

131 advanced before each video. Sedimentation was investigated by recording the absorbance of

suspensions at wavelengths ranging from 190 to 1100 nm.

The concentration of dissolved Pt in the stock suspensions of PtNPs and dilutions in algal media was 133 determined by ultracentrifugation (Beckman L8-60M) using a swinging bucket rotor (SW 41 Ti; 134 Beckman). PtNPs were suspended at 68 mg Pt/L in Milli-Q, ISO and TAP4 media. Immediately upon 135 suspension, and after 48 h incubation under algal testing conditions, samples of 10 mL (n=2) were 136 centrifuged for 16 h at 3×10^4 rpm (68000 × g) to ensure settling of particles > 5.7 nm. The supernatant 137 (5 mL) was removed, acidified with nitric acid and the Pt content was measured by ICP-MS. 138 The abiotic generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) by PtNPs and PtCl₄ suspended in algal media 139 (without algae present) was determined using the fluorescent dye 2',7'-dichlorodihydrofluorescein 140 diacetate (H₂DCF-DA, Sigma Aldrich) as described by Ivask and co-workers.²³ Specific details are 141 given the Supporting Information (SI). 142

143

144 Algal growth rate inhibition and ¹⁴C-assimilation tests

Tests were performed in accordance with the ISO 8692 algal growth inhibition test protocol²¹ with 145 modifications as described below, and 48 h incubation.²⁴ Tested concentrations (n=3) and controls 146 (n=6) were inoculated with algae (10^4 cells/mL) yielding average control growth rates of 1.0-1.3 d⁻¹ for 147 *P. subcapitata* and 1.7-1.8 d⁻¹ for *C. reinhardtii*. A maximum pH change of 1.7 units occurred in 148 controls as well as exposed algae during the 48 h incubation. The quantity of algal pigments was 149 quantified at 0, 24 and 48 h by acetone extraction²⁵ followed by fluorescence spectrophotometry 150 (Hitachi F-7000) at 430 and 670 nm excitation and emission wavelengths, respectively. The ¹⁴C-151 incorporation was performed as described in previous work¹⁶ (details are included in SI). A maximum 152 change in pH of 1.5 units was measured during the 2 h incubation. 153 The influence of PtNPs' shading on algal growth rates and ¹⁴C-assimilation inhibition was studied 154

- under the same conditions as described above, but using a double-vial test setup. Algae in media (2
- 8

mL) were kept in a small inner-vial, and physically separated from the PtNP suspension (6 mL) placed
in the larger outer-vial (Figure S1). The control growth rates were in the range given for the regular
setup. Finally, the potential photochemical efficiency was monitored over 48 h in algae exposed to 0, 2
and 80 mg Pt/L, as described in the SI.

160

161 Algal cell damage and oxidative stress

Test suspensions were prepared in volumetric flasks, inoculated to 10^5 cells/mL and distributed (25) 162 mL, n=3) to 100 mL Erlenmeyer flasks incubated as described in the SI. Tests with $PtCl_4$ were 163 conducted using the setup for growth inhibition tests. A maximum variation of 0.4 (PtNPs) and 1.3 164 165 (PtCl₄) pH-units was found before testing and after 48 h incubation in controls and the highest test concentrations. After 2, 24 and 48 h incubation, algae were sampled from each concentration and 166 controls, and incubated with fluorescent dyes for 30 min in the dark. CellROX Green (Life 167 168 Technologies Europe B.V., Zug, Switzerland) was employed as intracellular oxidative stress indicator (5 µM), and propidium iodide (Sigma-Aldrich, Buchs, Switzerland) was used to determine membrane 169 permeability alteration (7 µM), as previously described in details for *C. reinhardtii*.^{26,27} Unexposed 170 171 algae were used as negative controls, whereas the positive controls prior to staining, were incubated with 10 mM H₂O₂ (30 min in the dark) and in a 90°C water bath (10 min) for CellROX Green and 172 propidium iodide, respectively. Flow cytometry was conducted using a BD Accuri C6 flow cytometer 173 (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA) with an argon-ion excitation laser (488 nm) and FL1 green 174 channel (530 \pm 15 nm), FL2 orange channel (585 \pm 20 nm) and FL3 red channel (670 \pm 25 nm). For 175 tests with PtCl₄, results were analyzed using a BD FACSCanto II flow cytometer (BD Biosciences, San 176 Jose, CA, USA). Gating strategies were applied to discriminate positively stained cells from the 177

negative control (Figure S2-4). Data analysis was conducted using BD Accuri C6 software 264.15 and
FlowJo V10 for the two flow cytometers, respectively.

180

181 Algal body burden of PtNPs

182 Algae were exposed to PtNPs (2 and 80 mg Pt/L) in triplicate 250 mL flasks with 75 mL suspension inoculated to10⁵ cells/mL. A sample of 20 mL suspension from each replicate was taken after 2, 24 and 183 48 h incubation and filtered through a 3.0 µm nitrocellulose filter (Merck Millipore). The algal cells 184 retained by the filter were gently washed with 20 mL medium before filters were digested in Teflon 185 tubes (1 mL aqua regia at 90°C for 2 h). The Pt content was determined by ICP-MS analysis (Agilent 186 7700, Morges, Switzerland) after dilution with 5% (v/v) HCl (Baker, instar grade). The cell number for 187 each replicate suspension was determined after 0, 2, 24 and 48 h incubation on a Coulter Multisizer III 188 particle counter (Beckman-Coulter, Switzerland). Suspensions of PtNPs in media (80 mg Pt/L) without 189 190 algae were applied as background controls, and treated as described above. The particle counts and Pt 191 content of digested filters were all background corrected using data from these controls.

192

193 Atomic force microscopy imaging

For atomic force microscopy (AFM) both algal species were exposed to PtNPs (10 mg Pt/L) under the same conditions as described for growth inhibition testing. After 48 h incubation, a drop of each suspension was placed on sliced silicon wafers and allowed to dry. To remove dry salt particles, the wafer pieces were carefully washed with distilled water and dried again with nitrogen gas. Atomic Force Microscope (AFM NX20, Park Systems) images were taken of the two samples using noncontact mode, an amplitude of 1.67×10^6 nm and a scan rate of 1 Hz.

201 Statistical analysis and data interpretation

Mean effective concentrations (EC₅₀) and corresponding 95% confidence intervals for the inhibition of algal growth rates and carbon assimilation were estimated using the statistical program LOG457, which applies the log-logistic model for nonlinear regression analysis of responses versus concentration, minimizing the sum of squares between calculated and measured inhibitions.²⁸ Nominal concentrations were used, as the average Pt recovery from ICP-MS analyses was 84 ±15% in selected stock and test suspensions of PtCl₄ and PtNPs (n=72). Comparison of growth rate inhibition data is based on EC₅₀values and their variability provided by corresponding 95% confidence intervals.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

211 Characterization of PtNPs in algal media

The size distributions of PtNPs suspended in algal media were determined after 1, 24 and 48 h by 212 AsFIFFF (4 mg Pt/L), DLS (30 mg Pt/L) and NTA (80 mg Pt/L), see Figure 1. A size peak of 10 nm 213 214 was identified by AsFIFFF and DLS. For NTA the size detection limit is higher than 10 nm, but NTA measurements contribute with information about agglomeration of PtNPs in algal media. As shown in 215 Figure 1C, the number of PtNP agglomerates (> 50 nm) increased almost three orders of magnitude in 216 the TAP4 medium, whereas PtNPs in the ISO medium remained within the same order of magnitude 217 over the 48 h period. The agglomerates formed were in the size range of 50-400 nm for both media; 218 219 this finding is supported by the DLS measurements, showing hydrodynamic diameters within this range at all times measured (Figure 1B). Moreover, the measured zeta potentials of PtNP suspensions (20-25 220 mg Pt/L) after 1 and 48 hours indicated higher stability of PtNPs in ISO (-28 \pm 0.3 mV) than in TAP4 221 222 medium (-15 ± 0.9 mV). Besides the increasing agglomerate number, agglomerate sizes increased with time according to NTA (Figure 1C). Although the PtNPs agglomerated substantially, especially in the 223 224 TAP4 medium, the UV-VIS absorbance did not change during the 48 h, indicating that the PtNPs 225 remained suspended, and did not settle in the suspensions (Figure S5). The ICP-MS analyses of samples fractionated using AsFIFFF showed constant Pt recoveries in ISO medium over time (around 226 227 80%), whereas recoveries in TAP4 decreased from 80% at 0 h to 62% and 63% at 24 and 48 h, respectively (Table S2). This decrease may be due to agglomeration, as larger agglomerates will not 228 229 elute from the channel and hence not be detected by ICP-MS. The concentration of dissolved Pt in PtNPs suspensions (total concentration 68 mg Pt/L) prepared in 230

231 Milli-Q water, ISO and TAP4 media and incubated for 48 h under algal testing conditions were in the

ranges of 2.3-2.4 mg Pt/L (Milli-Q water suspensions), 2.0-2.2 mg Pt/L (ISO medium suspension) and

2.0-2.5 mg Pt/L (TAP4 medium suspension). The concentrations increased only slightly during the 48
h incubation. This shows that dissolved Pt (corresponding to about 3% of the total Pt content) in the
test suspensions mainly was non-reacted Pt from the particle synthesis.

236 For the abiotic ROS generation analyses of PtNPs and $PtCl_4$ in both algal media (Figure S6) a relatively 237 high, and varying, background DCF fluorescence was measured. As a consequence, the abiotic ROS was determined concomitantly for both PtNPs and PtCl₄ in the two media within one test run, to allow 238 for a relative comparison between the ROS generation of the two forms of Pt. It should be noted that 239 these analyses were made using another batch of PtNPs than otherwise used in this study. The PtNPs in 240 241 this new batch were synthesized as described in the Materials and Methods and identical primary 242 diameters were obtained. The algal-free assay measuring abiotic ROS generation revealed increasing DCF fluorescence relative to the backgrounds in a concentration-dependent manner for PtNPs in both 243 media. A slightly higher response was detected in the ISO medium compared to TAP4, especially after 244 245 48 h. Conversely for PtCl₄, the relative DCF fluorescence was greater in TAP4 than in ISO medium. Collectively, these data suggest that abiotic ROS generation is influenced by the media and that abiotic 246 247 ROS measured in the PtNP suspension cannot be solely ascribed to dissolved Pt. The abiotic ROS 248 generation activity by PtNPs of various shapes has been reported as low, based also on a cell-free DCF assay.²⁹ Comparison of results is however challenged by differences in methods and media applied. 249

250

251 Effects of PtNPs on algal photosynthesis, carbon assimilation and growth rate

Exposure to PtNPs resulted in decreased growth rates of both *P. subcapitata* and *C. reinhardtii* in standard ISO tests, with $EC_{50,48h}$ values (95% confidence intervals in brackets) of 15 [13-16] and 201 [173-235] mg Pt/L, respectively. Based on the results from tests with *P. subcapitata*, the PtNPs would

be classified as "harmful" to algae in accordance with the CLP regulation.¹² These results are generally

in agreement with the reported EC_{50.72h} value of 17 mg Pt/L for growth inhibition in *P. subcapitata* 256 exposed to PtNPs.¹¹ Due to the dark color of the suspensions, we hypothesized that PtNPs limited the 257 available light for algal growth causing shading, thus inhibiting growth physically rather than by a toxic 258 259 action of the PtNPs to the algal cells. As growth rate inhibition also occurred in the double-vial setup 260 with no contact between algae and PtNPs, we cannot falsify this hypothesis. The growth rate inhibition found using the double-vial setup was however slightly lower that in the standard test setup with 261 $EC_{50.48h} = 45$ [30-68] and 373 [167-838] mg Pt/L for *P. subcapitata* and *C. reinhardtii*, respectively 262 (Figure 2A, C). These results suggest that physical shading from PtNPs lowered the algal growth rates, 263 but also indicate that PtNPs inhibit algal growth rates by other means than shading, possibly by direct 264 265 toxic effects. However, the higher response in the regular setup could also arise from PtNPs adhesion to the algal surface, potentially causing "localized" shading and/or interference with the membrane, 266 nutrient uptake and other cellular processes involving the cell surface.¹⁴ As described by Hjorth and co-267 workes ³⁰: "Shading and toxicity are not additive effects. The impact of shading cannot be eliminated 268 by simply subtracting the effect observed in the shading test from the actual test. Deducting the effect 269 of shading is more complicated for NPs as the exact mode of action is unknown and the observed 270 271 effects are potentially multicausal." Also, shading can mask or limit potential toxicity, because slowly growing algae under low light intensity are less sensitive to toxicants than faster growing algae.³⁰ 272 In agreement with our results, shading effects have been reported to markedly influence growth rate 273 inhibition in green algae exposed to gold NPs³¹ and carbon nanotubes,³² while studies with ZnO, CuO 274 and TiO₂ have found shading negligible.^{14,33} It is likely that exposure concentration, suspension color, 275 and NP adhesion to algal surfaces are influencing factors on shading. Consequently, growth rate 276 inhibition alone is not an appropriate endpoint for disclosing PtNP toxicity, as it does not allow for 277 discrimination between direct toxic effects and indirect physical effects. For this reason, ¹⁴C-278

279	assimilation was included as an alternative endpoint to quantify the toxicity of PtNPs towards the two
280	algal species (Figure 2B, D). Comparable EC_{50} values were obtained for <i>P. subcapitata</i> and <i>C</i> .
281	reinhardtii of 47 [43-50] and 37 [31-46] mg Pt/L, respectively, in the regular setup, and 32 [16-65] and
282	32 [18-56] mg Pt/L in the double-vial setup. The slopes of the concentration response curves are
283	however different between data from the shading and the regular test with C. reinhardtii (Figure 2B).
284	As the EC_{50} values does not differ between the regular and the double-vial setup, the 2 h 14 C-
285	assimilation inhibition in both algal species may be solely ascribed to physical shading effects of
286	PtNPs. Thus, the endpoint of 2 h carbon assimilation is even more sensitive to shading and/or less
287	applicable for testing PtNP toxicity than the standard 48 h growth rate inhibition test.
288	Using the ultracentrifugation results, concentration-response data for PtNPs were recalculated based on
289	the dissolved Pt concentration rather than the total nominal concentration (Figure 2A, C). For C.
290	reinhardtii these data aligned closely with the PtCl4 data, as also seen by the overlapping 95%
291	confidence intervals of the EC_{50} values. Thus, the PtNP toxicity to this algal species may be caused by
292	the dissolved Pt. For P. subcapitata however, data based on dissolved Pt showed greater inhibition than
293	PtCl ₄ , suggesting a possible NP-specific effect.
294	Taken together, the 48 h growth inhibition data (Figure 2A, C) demonstrate that <i>P. subcapitata</i> is more
295	sensitive to the toxic effects of both PtCl ₄ and PtNPs than C. reinhardtii. Furthermore, the results from
296	the double-vial setups indicate that P. subcapitata is more affected by shading than C. reinhardtii. It
297	may be, that <i>P. subcapitata</i> is less efficient in adapting to light conditions over time, and thus more
298	affected by this physical effect than C. reinhardtii. The potential photochemical efficiency monitored
299	over 48 h in algae exposed to 0, 2 and 80 mg Pt/L (Figure S7 was indeed slightly lower for <i>P</i> .
200	subcapitate then C rainhardtii both for controls and exposed along. This agrees with the difference in

300 subcapitata than C. reinhardtii, both for controls and exposed algae. This agrees with the difference in

301 growth rate measured for the two algal species controls in growth rate inhibition tests (app. 1.1 vs. 1.8 302 d^{-1} for *P. subcapitata* and *C. reinhardtii*, respectively).

303 Overall, the results demonstrate that shading from PtNPs does occur and affects the growth rates 304 measured in a standard guideline test. If the double-vial setup had not been applied, comparing the 305 results for PtCl₄ and PtNPs in Figure 2 could easily be misinterpreted and lead to faulty conclusions. Due to the influence of shading, neither growth rate inhibition nor ¹⁴C-assimilation can be considered 306 appropriate endpoints to test algal toxicity of PtNPs for hazard identification purposes. As the PtNP 307 toxicity may be attributed to dissolved Pt for C. reinhardtii, but not entirely for P. subcapitata, the NP-308 specific effect(s) found could be algal species specific though the behavior of PtNPs in the two 309 310 different algal media used, may also affects the toxicity.

311

312 Cellular effects of PtNPs in algae: Oxidative stress and membrane damage

313 Extensive oxidative stress was observed for both algal species upon PtNP exposure, as demonstrated by the increasing percentage of stained cells (Figure 3A, B). C. reinhardtii was highly stressed after 2 h 314 exposure to PtNPs, even at the lowest exposure concentration (0.1 mg Pt/L). However, the algal 315 316 population recovered over time for all PtNP-concentrations up to 10 mg Pt/L. Some indication of recovery over time was also seen for *P. subcapitata*, although much less pronounced than for *C*. 317 *reinhardtii*. After exposure to PtCl₄, oxidative stress was only detected in *C. reinhardtii* with no 318 indication of recovery over time as it was seen after exposure to PtNPs (Figure 3D). Interestingly, no 319 signs of oxidative stress were detected in *P. subcapitata* upon PtCl₄ exposure (Figure 3C), indicating 320 321 the oxidative stress from PtNP exposure is not related to the dissolved Pt. Despite the substantial percentage of cells with oxidative stress caused by PtNPs, the percentage of cells with membrane 322 323 damage were < 2% for *P. subcapitata* and < 22% for *C. reinhardtii* (supporting data, Figure S8). This

suggests that the antioxidant systems of both algal species were able to cope with the oxidative stress
induced by PtNPs, thereby preventing its progression to membrane damage. In vitro studies using
human cell lines similarly report that PtNPs do not affect the membrane integrity.^{10,34,35} Whether or not
PtNPs induce oxidative stress in human cells is more ambiguous, with biotic ROS and oxidative stress
from PtNPs being both confirmed³⁶ and rejected,^{29,35} and even detoxification of ROS has been
suggested.³⁴

330

331 Algal body burden of PtNPs

Although exposed to similar PtNP concentrations in suspension, the Pt body burden differed greatly for 332 333 the two algal species (Figure 4A, B). In general, the body burdens were higher for *P. subcapitata*, especially at the highest tested concentration of 80 mg Pt/L. This may explain the more pronounced 48 334 h growth rate inhibition found for this algal species since higher attachment of PtNPs to the algal 335 336 surface is likely to cause a higher (local) shading effect and/or toxicity. For *C. reinhardtii* the body burden decreased significantly over 48 h for 2 mg Pt/L, but increased slightly at 80 mg Pt/L. This 337 observation correlates well with the oxidative stress pattern showing recovery at 2 mg Pt/L, but not at 338 339 80 mg Pt/L (Figure 3). Conversely, P. subcapitata recovered slightly from oxidative stress after 48 h at the highest concentration of 80 mg Pt/L and the body burden also decreased with time at this 340 concentration (Figure 3 and 4A). The differences in body burdens in the two algal species may relate to 341 the different composition of their cell walls. The cell wall of *P. subcapitata* contains cellulose and 342 polysaccharides, whereas the cell wall of *C. reinhardtii* does not,³⁷ but rather consists of several layers 343 of glycoproteins.²² It has been proposed, that while Pt (II) has higher affinity for amino acids and 344 proteins, Pt (IV) may preferentially bind to a polysaccharide matrix.³⁸ This may explain why higher 345 growth rate inhibition was found for *P. subcapitata* than *C. reinhardtii* upon PtCl₄, and PtNP exposure. 346

Another factor influencing the body burden is the higher growth rate of *C. reinhardtii* compared to *P. subcapitata*. This causes the ratio of PtNPs to algal cells to decrease faster in *C. reinhardtii*, and thus
yield a lower body burden after 48 h exposure to PtNPs.

In a separate series of tests, the two algal species were examined by AFM after 48 h exposure to PtNP, providing some indication of PtNP-agglomerates on the algal cell surface (Figure S9). Several studies have demonstrated how various NPs attach to the surface of algae.^{14,15,33} Attachment of NPs to algae is most likely a dynamic process, changing the NP body burden over time depending on algal physiology and NP properties. This is an area that needs more investigation and could prove very useful for the interpretation of data from aquatic toxicity testing of NPs.

356

357 PtNP behavior in test media and related biological effects

358 Overall, the characterization of PtNPs in algal media showed a higher degree of agglomeration and 359 dissolution of PtNPs in the TAP4 medium, whereas slightly more abiotic ROS was generated in the ISO medium. The implications of these findings are discussed below, along with the possible 360 361 connection between the toxicity endpoints, and the difference in toxicity of PtNPs vs. dissolved Pt. 362 According to NTA, a significantly higher number of agglomerates was formed during 48 h incubation in the TAP4 medium (C. reinhardtii) than in the ISO medium (P. subcapitata). The lower PtNP body 363 burden in C. reinhardtii cells may be linked to the agglomeration behavior in the TAP4 medium, as 364 smaller particle sizes theoretically favor greater adhesion to the algal surface, due to the increased 365 number of particles available for contact with the algae. The lower Pt body burden in C. reinhardtii 366 may in turn explain why this species was less affected in the growth inhibition test with PtNPs, as less 367 contact between algal cells and PtNPs also reduces any localized shading and/or physical effects. 368

Both AsFIFFF and ultracentrifugation data showed higher dissolution of PtNPs in the TAP4 medium 370 371 (C. reinhardtii) than in the ISO medium (P. subcapitata). The growth rate inhibition of C. reinhardtii could be explained by the dissolved fraction of Pt in the medium. For P. subcapitata however, the 372 373 PtNPs caused higher growth rate inhibition than explained by the measured dissolved Pt. Furthermore, 374 the oxidative stress responses in the two algal species were not governed by dissolved Pt. For P. subcapitata all cells were affected by PtNPs, but none by PtCl₄ (Figure 3). C. reinhardtii cells were 375 affected by both PtNPs and PtCl₄, but the presence of dissolved Pt cannot fully account for the level of 376 oxidative stress nor the recovery observed when cells were exposed to PtNPs (Figure 3). To fully 377 understand the role of dissolved Pt in algal toxicity, knowledge on speciation and binding to media 378 components is crucial. Unfortunately, speciation data such as solubility constants is limited³⁹ and not 379 included in speciation models such as MINTEQ. The main differences between the two media are the 380 pH, buffer types and the content of chloride and organic components. The ISO medium (pH 8) contains 381 382 sodium bicarbonate buffer, whereas TAP4 (pH 7) contains TRIS, sodium acetate and roughly half the chloride amount of the ISO medium. The speciation and solubility of Pt is influenced by chloride 383 species, pH, and organic ligands such as citric acid.^{39–41} However, determining the exact Pt speciation 384 385 in the actual media is challenged by the different scopes and variables of available speciation studies, as well as the obscure number of chemical species found even in a simple system of Pt, chloride and 386 water.41 387

Abiotic ROS, generated by PtNPs when suspended in the two algal media, may have caused or contributed to the oxidative stress detected in both algal species. Abiotic ROS was however, also generated by PtNPs in Milli-Q water (data not shown) suggesting that the ROS generation from PtNPs may occur on the surface of PtNPs. This is further supported by the results of the positive controls in the tests of abiotic ROS (Figure S6) and oxidative stress (Figure S3 and S4) as no abiotic ROS or

oxidative stress occurred from the positive control (H_2O_2) or the dissolved reference $(PtCl_4)$ in the ISO 393 394 medium, whereas PtNPs caused very clear responses in both these tests. Similarly, it has been suggested by other publications that NPs may induce elevated intracellular ROS by direct 395 physical/chemical interactions with biomolecules.^{42,43} In this case, the algal species with the highest Pt 396 397 body burden, i.e. P. subcapitata, would be expected to exhibit most oxidative stress. However, most oxidative stress was found in C. reinhardtii cells. In contrast, P. subcapitata was the most affected 398 species in the growth inhibition tests. Thus, oxidative stress and growth rate inhibition appear 399 unrelated. Generally, ROS generation and oxidative stress has been suggested as likely mechanisms 400 related to NP toxicity in algae and other aquatic microorganisms, although the causal link between 401 particle properties and ROS generation or effects is not vet established.⁴² The formation of extra- or 402 intracellular ROS can trigger a cascade of cellular events that may cause toxicity.⁴² The reverse may 403 also occur, i.e. that NPs induce toxicity by another mechanism, such as DNA lesions, leading to 404 cellular stress and accumulation of intracellular ROS.⁴³ DNA damage is a known effect of platinum 405 compounds and is also confirmed for PtNPs in human cells.^{35,36} However, whether DNA damage 406 results in cytotoxicity strongly depends on the nature of formed DNA adducts, as documented for the 407 stereoisomers cis- and transplatin in their toxicity towards cancer cells.³⁵ Least oxidative stress was 408 found for P. subcapitata even though higher toxicity occurred for this species and more abiotic ROS 409 was produced in the medium of this species (ISO medium). The many pathways interlinking 410 abiotic/biotic ROS, oxidative stress, DNA damage and cellular toxicity challenge the establishment of 411 causality. 412

Our results demonstrate that shading is an important artefact in standard algal growth rate inhibition
testing of PtNPs. If not taken into account, the standard method is not applicable for regulatory hazard
identification purposes. The shading issue will be relevant for other NPs as well, especially those with

EC₅₀ values in the higher end of the classification range (10-100 mg/L) and those adhering strongly to 416 417 the algal surface. While the environmental relevance of toxicity testing of NPs at such high concentration levels is questionable, it is of high regulatory relevance for toxicity identification and 418 419 ranking as well as classification, and labeling of NPs within the current regulatory framework. The 420 cellular toxicity quantified by flow cytometry revealed no marked membrane damage, but significant oxidative stress in both algal species. This may be linked with abiotic ROS generated by the PtNPs. For 421 P. subcapitata, PtNPs caused both growth rate inhibition and oxidative stress in higher levels than what 422 could be accounted for by dissolved Pt. This indicates a NP-specific effect possibly related to the 423 424 catalytic properties of PtNPs and/or their adhesion to algal cells. Overall, P. subcapitata was more 425 sensitive to the effects of PtNPs than C. reinhardtii. Furthermore, higher body burdens were measured for *P. subcapitata*, most likely due to favored binding of Pt to the polysaccharide containing cell wall 426 of this algal species. The multi-method approach in this study provided insight into the possible 427 428 underlying mechanisms behind the observed PtNP-cell interaction and toxicity. Until more knowledge 429 on NP-specific toxicity mechanisms becomes available, it is crucial to investigate and account for 430 artefacts and NP interactions with organisms and media. Generally, a broader and more exploratory 431 approach to aquatic toxicity testing, employing various endpoints and testing methods, may assist to 432 avoid false negative as well as false positive test results and advance the understanding within the field of nanoecotoxicology. 433

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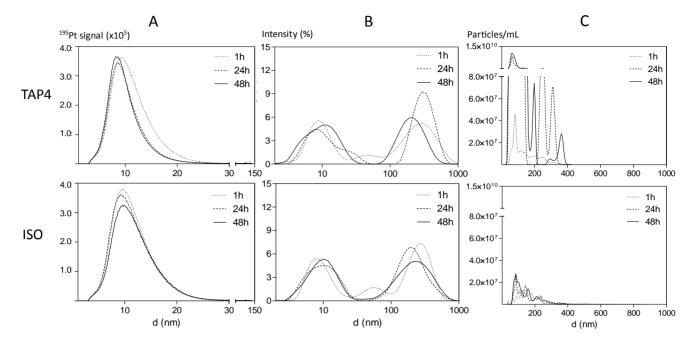
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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

566	Additional experimental details regarding size distribution measurements by AsFIFFF, abiotic ROS
567	formation by PtNPs and PtCl ₄ , algal culturing, algal shading and ¹⁴ C-assimilation tests, gating
568	strategies for flow cytometry, as well as determination of the potential photochemical efficiency of
569	PSII in algae. Results and data for sedimentation of PtNPs in algal media, abiotic ROS generation by
570	PtNPs and PtCl ₄ in algal media, potential PSII photochemical efficiency and membrane damage in
571	algae, and atomic force microscopy images of algal cells exposed to PtNPs.





573 Figure 1. Size distributions after different incubation periods (1-48h) for PtNPs suspended in TAP4

574 medium (top row) and ISO medium (bottom row) determined by different methods. Column A)

- 575 Suspensions of 4 mg Pt/L analyzed by Asymmetric Flow Field-Flow Fractionation (AsFIFFF); Column
- B) Suspensions of 30 mg Pt/L analyzed by Dynamic Light Scattering (DLS); Column C) Suspensions
- 577 of 80 mg Pt/L analyzed by Nanoparticle Tracking Analysis (NTA).

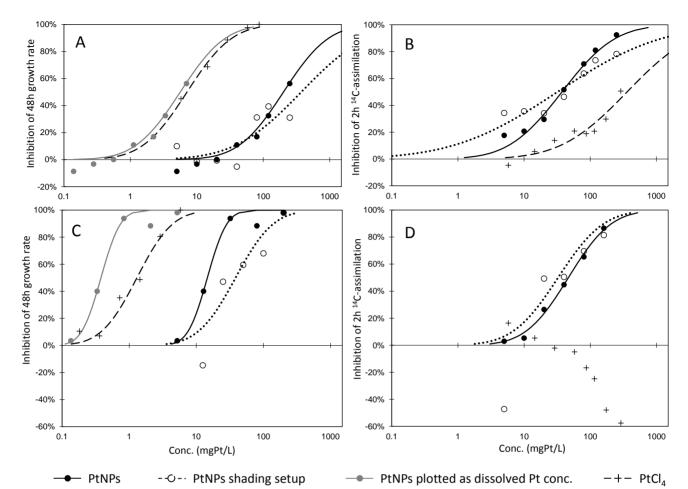


Figure 2. Concentration-response data and fitted curves from 48 h growth rate inhibition tests (A and
C) and 2 h ¹⁴C-assimilation tests (B and D) with *C. reinhardtii* (A and B) and *P. subcapitata* (C and D)
for PtNPs and PtCl₄. For PtNPs two setups were applied in accordance with Figure S1: A regular setup
and a double-vial setup for investigation of shading effects. Furthermore, the concentration-response
data and curves for PtNPs was recalculated based on the dissolved Pt fraction, and plotted for A and C
to reflect the toxicity of the dissolved Pt in the PtNP suspension.

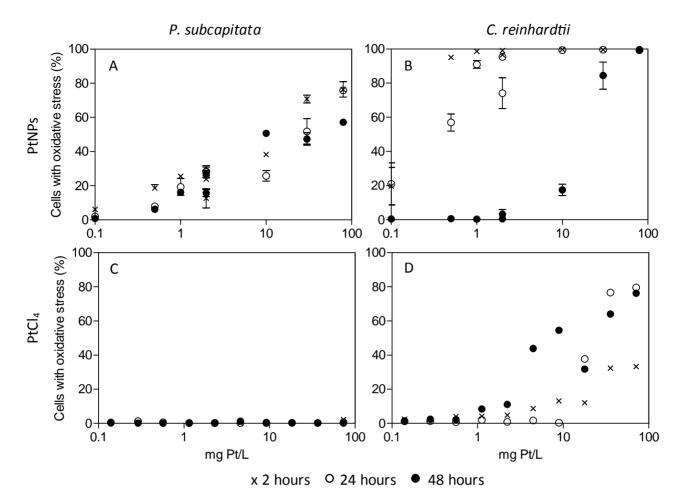
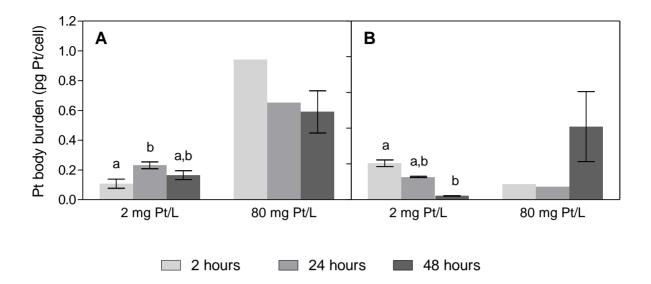


Figure 3. Oxidative stress in *P. subcapitata* and *C. reinhardtii* upon 2, 24 and 48 h exposure to PtCl₄,
in single concentrations (0.14-73 mg Pt/L) and PtNPs in two parallel tests with triplicate low
concentrations (0.1-2 mg Pt/L) and high (2-80 mg Pt/L), respectively. Data for *C. reinhardtii* exposed
to PtCl₄ for 2 h are based on very low cells numbers. The error bars represent standard deviations.



590

Figure 4. Body burdens of platinum for *P. subcapitata* (A) and *C. reinhardtii* (B) after 2, 24 and 48 h exposure to PtNPs at 2 and 80 mg Pt/L. The error bars represent standard deviations. For body burdens determined at 80 mg Pt/L after 2 and 24 hours n=2 or n=1. For all other data n=3. The letters "a" and "b" denotes statistically significant differences in medians (p < 0.05) according to Kruskal-Wallis and Dunn's multiple comparison tests, over time within each algal species and exposure concentration treatment.

1		Supporting information
2		
3	A Multir	nethod Approach for Investigating Algal Toxicity of Platinum Nanoparticles
4		
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16	This suppo	orting information contains:
17	16 Pages	
18	2 Tables	
19	9 Figures	

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S1 Materials and methods - additional details, including references.

32

33	Size distribution measured by AsFIFFF			
34	Suspensions of 4 mg Pt/L were injected in the separation system and characterized immediately upon			
35	preparation and after 1, 24 and 48 h. A spacer of 350 μ m thickness, a 20 μ L loop and a regenerated			
36	cellulose (RC) membrane with a cut-off of 1 kDa were used in all the experiments. 0.01% sodium dodecyl			
37	sulfate (SDS) in 1 mM NH ₄ NO ₃ (Sigma-Aldrich) solution at pH 8 was used as carrier. The optimal			
38	separation program found is detailed in Table S1. In order to characterize the sample, the system was first			
39	calibrated against polystyrene standards of known size (22, 58 and 97 nm). The following linear			
40	relationship between the logarithm of the retention ratio R (defined as elution time corresponding to the			
41	void volume divided by the retention time for a given particle) and the logarithm of the diameter (d) in			
42	nanometers was experimentally found:			
43	$Log(R) = 0.4939 - 0.9539 \times Log(d); r = 0.9958$ (1)			

44 Fractograms obtained as a function of time for each sample were converted into size distributions45 according to equation (1).

46

47 Abiotic ROS formation

48 H₂DCF-DA was dissolved in ethanol (1.3 mM) and deacetylated to H₂DCF by letting 1 mL react with 4 49 mL 0.01 M NaOH for 30 min in the dark. The mixture was added 20 mL sodium phosphate buffer (25 50 mM, pH 7.4) and the resulting 52 μ M H₂DCF solution was placed on ice in the dark until use. PtNPs and 51 PtCl₄ were added to TAP4 and ISO media in the concentration range 0.001-390 mg Pt/L. After 2 h and 48 52 h incubation in media, under the same conditions as for growth inhibition testing, 100 μ L of the PtNP 53 suspensions was each mixed with 100 μ L H₂DCF solution in the wells of a 96-well black microplate 54 (three replicates of each concentration). After 1 h incubation in the dark, the fluorescence of DCF was measured (readings, n=3) (excitation/emission at 485/527 nm) using a fluorescence plate reader (Biotek Synergy Mx plate reader). As positive control, H_2O_2 was diluted in ISO and TAP4 media in the concentration range 0.16–20% (w/w). The ROS level in samples was calculated in relative fluorescence units (RFUs) by dividing the fluorescence of samples (PtNPs in media incubated with H₂DCF) by fluorescence of background (media incubated with H₂DCF).

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61 Algal culturing

P. subcapitata was obtained from the Norwegian Institute for Water Research, Oslo, Norway (NIVA) and 62 cultivated in ISO 8692 medium¹ and the C. reinhardtii strain CPC11 was obtained from the Canadian 63 Phycological Culture Center (CPCC, Department of Biology, University of Waterloo, Canada) and grown 64 in four times diluted Tris-Acetate-Phosphate medium². The two respective media are hereafter referred to 65 66 as ISO and TAP4 media. For all toxicity testing, the algae were exposed in their respective cultivation 67 medium and testing was conducted under the same incubation conditions as for the culture. For cellular toxicity, photosynthesis efficiency and body burden studies 250 mL Erlenmeyer flasks were fitted with 68 69 permeable stoppers, containing 50 mL algal suspension and incubated (Infors, Bottmingen, Switzerland) at $20 \pm 2^{\circ}$ C with continuous agitation (100 rpm) and illumination from above (110 ± 10 μ mol/m²/s). For 70 71 growth and carbon assimilation inhibition tests 20 mL glass vials with perforated screw cap lids, 72 containing 5 mL suspension were kept at $20 \pm 2^{\circ}$ C, continuous shaking (300 rpm) and illuminated from below by fluorescent tubes (30W/33; Philips, The Netherlands) at a light intensity of $100 \pm 20 \,\mu mol/m^2/s$. 73 The algal cultures were re-inoculated in fresh media every second to third day, to ensure an exponentially 74 growing culture. 75

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77 Algal ¹⁴C-assimilation tests

Preparation of test concentrations, control and replicates was similar to the growth rate inhibition tests, but 78 the initial algal density was 10^5 cells/mL. Immediately before incubation, 50 µL of NaH¹⁴CO₃ solution 79 (specific activity: 20 µCi/mL; obtained from DHI, Hoersholm, Denmark) was added to all vials which 80 81 were then closed with airtight screw caps. The tests were terminated after 2 h incubation by adding 0.2 mL 10% HCl to each vial (yielding pH < 2). The vials were left open overnight in a fume hood and 10 mL 82 scintillation liquid (Optiphase "Hisafe" 3, Perkin Elmer, Waltham, MA, USA) was added to each vial. 83 84 After thorough mixing, they were left in the dark for 8 h and submitted to liquid scintillation counting (Hidex 300 SL). H¹⁴CO₃ solution was also added to three replicates of medium only, as controls to 85 confirm that all added ¹⁴C that had not incorporated into biomass, was being converted into ¹⁴CO₂ and 86 removed in the evaporation step. 87

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89 Potential photochemical efficiency of PSII

Algae exposed to PtNPs at 2 and 80 mg Pt/L, along with a control, were incubated for 48 h in triplicate 90 100 mL flasks of 25 mL suspension. After 2, 24 and 48 h incubation, samples of 3.5 mL were drawn from 91 92 all replicates, and upon 1 h of dark acclimation, fluorescence variables were measured by Fast Repetition 93 Rate Fluorometry (FRRF) using a FastOcean FRR plus FastAct fluorometer (Chelsea Technologies Group Ltd). Six acquisitions were run per sample and each acquisition comprised of 36 sequence repeats with 94 95 saturation/relaxation phases of 100/40 flashlets per sequence and a 2/50 µs pitch. By use of the program FastPro8 © (Version 1.0.50, Kevin Oxborough, Chelsea Technologies Group Ltd), the potential 96 photochemical efficiency of PSII (Fv/Fm) was obtained, reflective of changes in the photochemical 97 energy conversion efficiency.³ Specific blank corrections with pure medium and PtNPs suspension of 80 98 mg Pt/L in medium were carried out to rule out a possible direct increase of the fluorescence signal due to 99 the presence of PtNPs. Fluorescence blank readings were lower than 10% of the sample fluorescence 100 (22% for 2 h measurements). 101

103 **References**

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S2 Settings and results for AsFIFFF measurements

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Table S1. Separation program used for AsFIFFF measurements with an outflow of 1.0 mL/min.

	Time [s]		Crossflow [mL/min]
Injection/focusing	300	Injection flow 0.2 mL/min	2
	1200	constant	1
Crossflow	300	linear decay	0
	300	constant	0

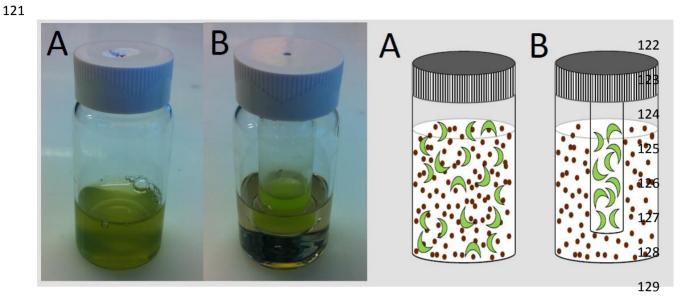
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Table S2. Diameters and widths of the different size distributions and Pt recoveries obtained by AsFIFFF.

	ISO 8692 medium			TAP4 medium		
Time for PtNPs	Size	Width	Recovery	Sizo (nm)	Width	Recovery
in media (h)	(nm)	(nm)	(%)	Size (nm)	(nm)	(%)
0	9.5	7.2	78 ± 4	9.5	7.1	80 ± 4
1	9.4	7.1	82 ± 4	9.5	6.9	80 ± 4
5	9.5	7.1	87 ± 4	8.4	6.1	75 ± 4
24	9.2	7.4	83 ± 4	8.6	5.4	62 ± 3
48	9.6	7.6	77 ± 4	8.2	5.1	63 ± 3

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- 120



- **Figure S1.** Photos and illustrations of the test setup used for determining shading effects in the algal
- 131 growth inhibition and ¹⁴C-assimilation tests. A) The setup used for standard testing and B) The double-132 vial setup, allowing for separation of algal cells in the smaller inner-vial from the surrounding PtNP
- 133 suspension in the larger outer-vial.

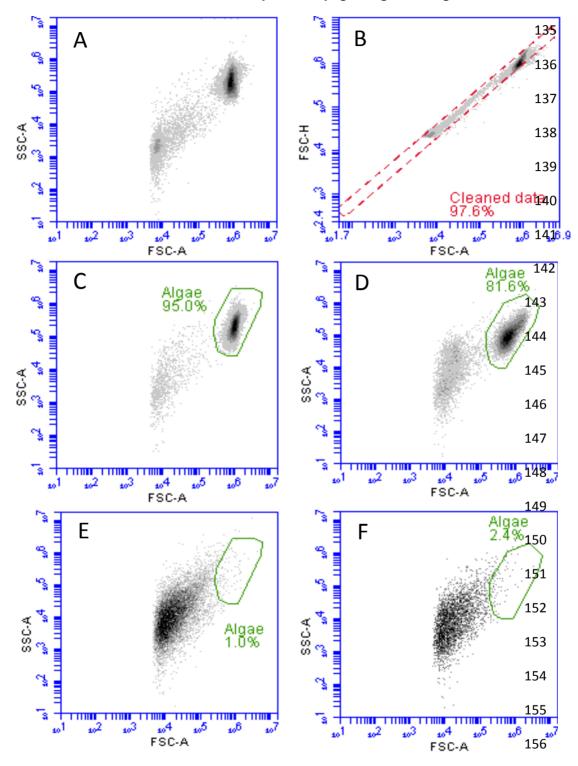


Figure S2. Flow cytrometry gating strategy. A) Raw data for *C. reinhardtii* upon 48 h exposure to PtNPs
(80 mg PtL), B) Removing doublets with "cleaned data" gate, C) Algal gate for unexposed *C. reinhardtii*,
D) Algal gate for unexposed *P. subcapitata*, E) PtNPs in TAP4 medium, and F) PtNPs in ISO medium.
FSC = Forward scatter, SSC = Side scatter, A = Area, H = Height.

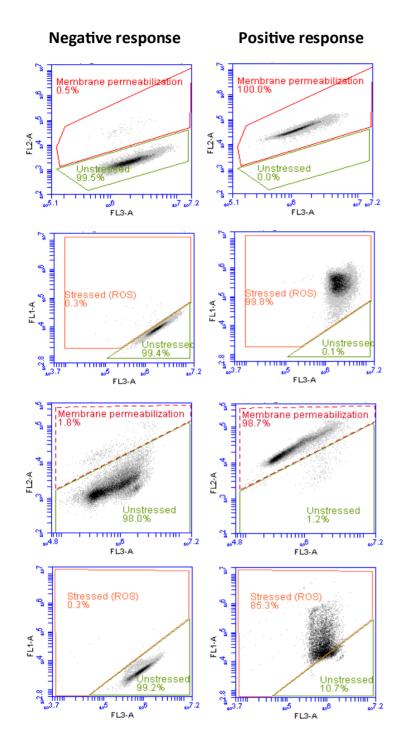
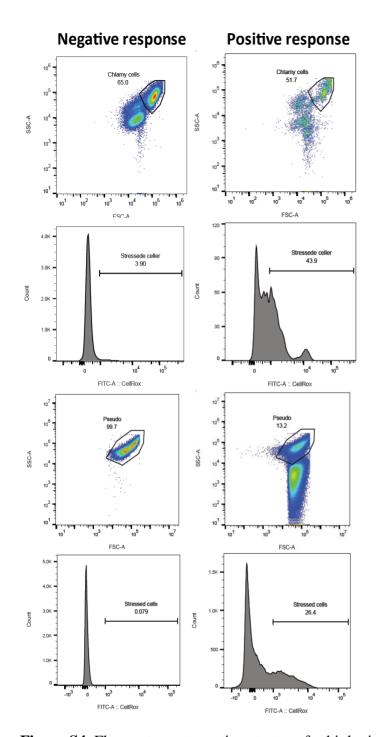
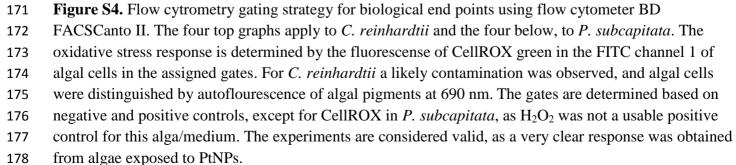


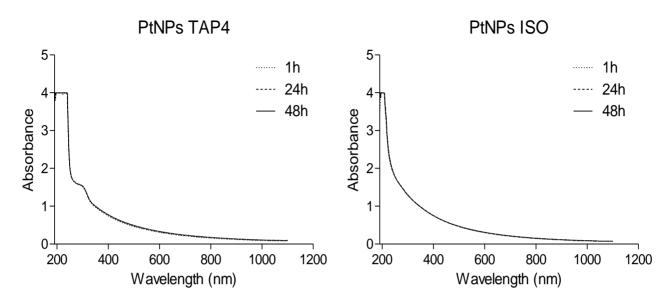


Figure S3. Flow cytrometry gating strategy for biological end points using flow cytometer BD Accuri C6. The four graphs on top apply to *C. reinhardtii* and the four below, to *P. subcapitata*. The autofluorescence is measured in the fluorescence channel 3 (FL3), membrane permeabilization with the fluorescent probe propidium iodide in fluorescense channel 2 (FL2) and oxidative stress with the fluorescent probe CellROX green in fluorescense channel 1 (FL1). The gates are determined based on the negative and positive controls, except for CellROX in *P. subcapitata*, as H₂O₂ was not a usable postitive control for this alga/medium. The experiments are considered valid, as a very clear response was obtained from algae

169 exposed to PtNPs.







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Figure S5. Absorbance spectra for PtNPs (80 mg Pt/L) suspended in ISO and TAP4 algal media after 1, 24, and 48 h.

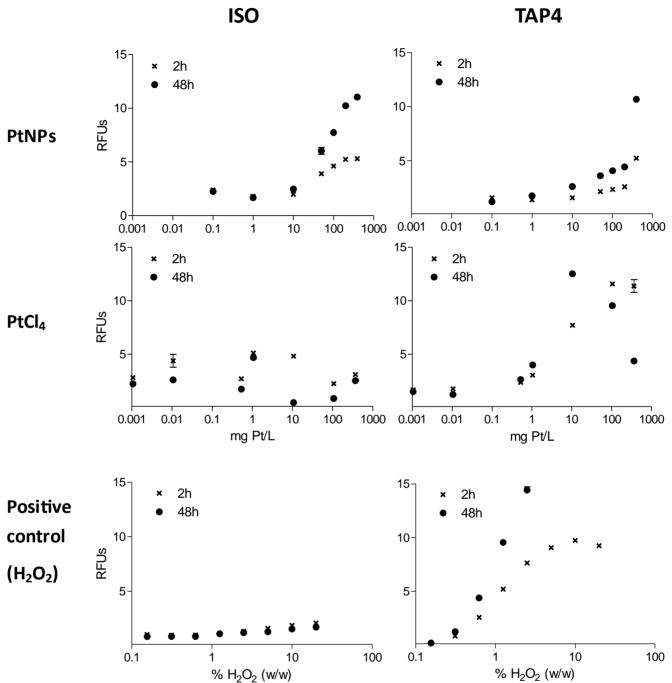
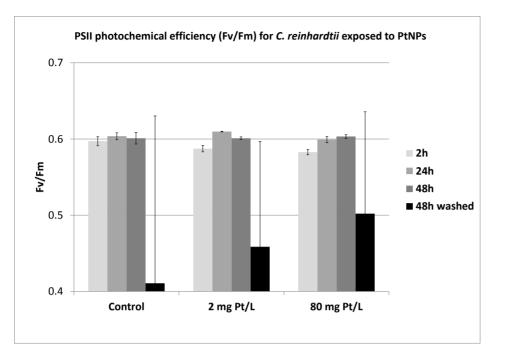
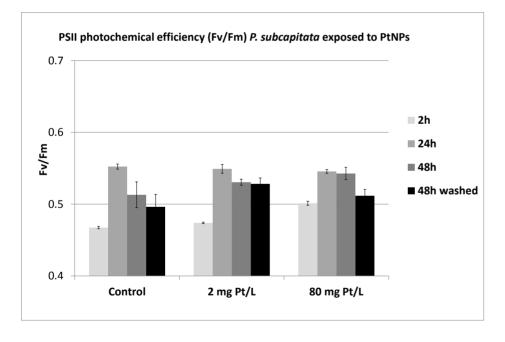


Figure S6. Abiotic ROS generation of PtNPs, $PtCl_4$ and the positive control (H_2O_2) upon 2 and 48 h suspension in ISO and TAP4 algal media, given as relative fluorescence units (RFUs) determined by the fluorescence of DCF from the tested suspension, relative to the fluorescence of the background (DCF in the respective media). The error bars represent standard deviations (n=3). The fluorescence exceeded the detection range in the positive controls of 5-20% w/w H₂O₂ in TAP4 medium for 48 h measurements.

S7 Potential PSII photochemical efficiency in algae



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194	Figure S7. Fast Repetition Rate Fluorometry (FRRF) measurements of the potential PSII photochemical
195	efficiency (Fv/Fm) for C. reinhardtii and P. subcapitata upon 2, 24 and 48 h exposure to 0, 2 or 80 mg
196	Pt/L. Measurements were conducted for the algae in the PtNP suspensions, and for 48 h measurements
197	also for algal cells washed with medium through a filter (48 h washed). The error bars represent standard
100	deviations (n. 2)

198 deviations (n=3).

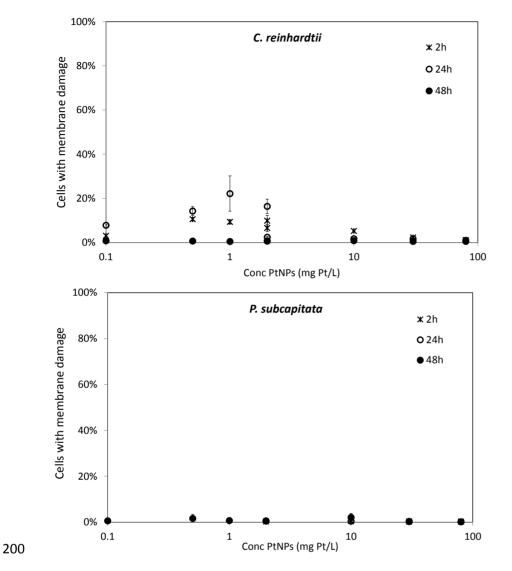
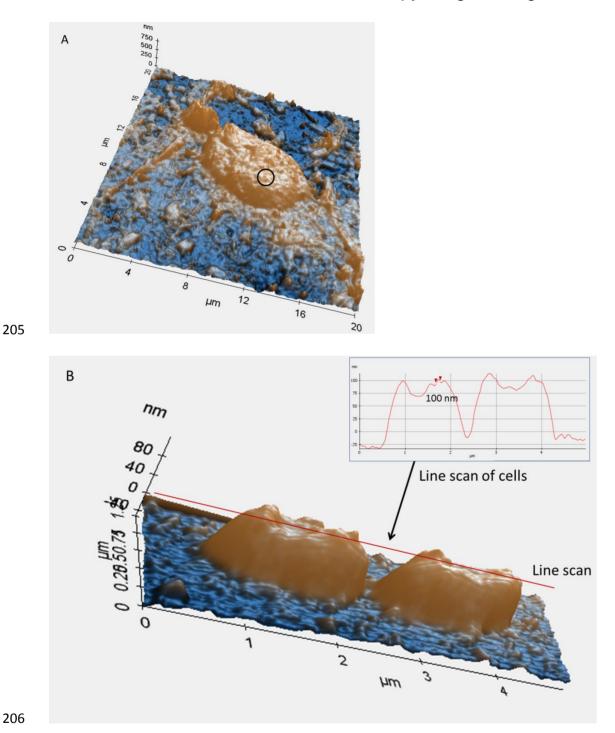


Figure S8. Membrane damage in *C. reinhardtii* and *P. subcapitata* upon 2, 24 and 48 h exposure to PtNPs in two parallel tests with low concentrations (0.1; 0.5; 1 and 2 mg Pt/L nominal) and high concentrations (2, 10, 30 and 80 mg Pt/L), respectively. The error bars represent standard deviations (n=3).



207 Figure S9. AFM visualizations of algal cells after 48 h incubation with PtNPs showing a single cell of C. reinhardtii (A) and two cells of *P. subcapitata* (B). The circle shown on the image of *C. reinhardtii* (A) 208 shows the likely presence of PtNP agglomerates. According to the line scan completed for P. subcapitata 209 (B), structures of app. 100 nm are identified on the cell surface, which may likely be PtNPs agglomerates. 210