PET tracing of biodistribution for orally administered $^{64}$Cu-labeled polystyrene in mice

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ABSTRACT

Purpose: Plastics are used commonly in the world because of its convenience and cost-effectiveness. Microplastics, an environmental threat and human health risk, are widely detected in food, and consequently ingested. However degraded plastics are found everywhere, which cause environmental threat and human health risk. Therefore, real-time monitoring of orally administered microplastics is tremendously important to trace them in the body.

Methods: In this study, to visualize their absorption path, we labeled polystyrene with $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu-DOTA}$. We prepared radiolabeled polystyrene with $^{64}\text{Cu}$ after, $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu-DOTA}$-polystyrene was then orally administered to mice and evaluate its transit and absorption in mice using PET imaging. The absorption path and distribution of $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu-DOTA}$-polystyrene were determined using positron emission tomography (PET) over 48 h. Ex vivo tissue-radio thin-layer chromatography (Ex vivo-radioTLC) was used to demonstrate the existence of $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu-DOTA}$-polystyrene in tissue.

Results: PET images demonstrated that $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu-DOTA}$-polystyrene began to transit to the intestine within 1 h. $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu-DOTA}$-polystyrene accumulation in the liver was also observed. Biodistribution of $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu-DOTA}$-polystyrene confirmed the observed distribution of $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu-DOTA}$-polystyrene from PET images. Ex vivo-radioTLC was used to demonstrate that the detected gamma rays originated from $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu-DOTA}$-polystyrene.

Conclusion: This study provided evidence of microplastic accumulation and existence in tissue by using PET imaging, and cross confirmed by ex vivo-radioTLC. The information provided may be used as the basis for future studies on the toxicity of microplastics.
INTRODUCTION

Microplastics (MPs) with diameters less than 5 mm are recognized as a new environmental threat and human health risk (1). MPs have been observed to accumulate in many different marine animals, including marine fish (2-5), Copepod (6,7), Mussel (8-10), European flat oysters (11) and other marine animals (12-14). Fiber-type MPs were found in mussels purchased at markets in Belgium (15). Considering that MPs are widely detected in food, we can assume that MPs are ingested along with the contaminated food. Therefore, it is highly likely that human consumption of MPs is widespread. To understand the full significance of MP ingestion, the absorption path for MPs ingested with foods needs to be visualized.

Positron emission tomography (PET) imaging is a powerful tool for observing absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion (16). PET can also be used to visualize the in vivo distribution of toxic substances labeled with radioactive isotopes, including diesel exhaust (17), and inhaled aerosol particles composed of toxic household disinfectants (18). Fig. 1 shows a schematic of this study. We first identified the absorption path and distribution of MPs using PET. MP polystyrene was labeled with Copper-64 ([64Cu]Cu, to yield [64Cu]Cu-DOTA-polystyrene), and then orally administered to mice. In a separate experiment, 64Cu was orally administered as a control to assess the effects of the harsh stomach conditions on de-chelated 64Cu. PET was performed to monitor the absorption and distribution of [64Cu]Cu-DOTA-polystyrene and/or 64Cu over 48 h. The ex vivo biodistributions of [64Cu]Cu-DOTA-polystyrene and/or 64Cu were measured. Ex vivo tissue-radio thin-layer chromatography (Ex vivo-radioTLC) was performed to identify whether gamma rays emitted from the tissue originated from [64Cu]Cu-DOTA-polystyrene or 64Cu.
MATERIALS AND METHODS

Synthesis and Radiolabeling

2.5 mg of amino-polystyrene (0.2–0.3 μm, Spherotech, Lake Forest, IL, USA) was added to 300 μL of 0.1 M sodium carbonate buffer (pH 9.0). 260 μg (471.70 nmol) of S-2-(4-isothiocyanatobenzyl)-1,4,7,10-tetraazacyclododecane tetraacetic acid (p-SCN-Bn-DOTA) in 50 μL of deionized water was added and mixture (pH 9.0) was shaken at 1000 rpm and 25 °C for 20 h. Unconjugated p-SCN-Bn-DOTA was removed using an Amicon centrifugal filter (30 kDa cut-off, Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA). DOTA conjugation was confirmed using fourier-transform infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopy (Nicolet iS5, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) and the resulting spectra were analyzed using an Omnic software from Nicolet Instrument Corp. (Madison, WI, USA). To determine moles of DOTA per milligram of plastic, 50 μL of filtrate was analyzed by high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC, Waters, Milford, MA, USA). Quantity of DOTA in the filtrate was calculated from a standard curve (prepared from an analysis of known concentrations of DOTA). The conjugated moles of DOTA to polystyrene were then calculated by subtracting the moles of DOTA in the filtrate from the total moles of DOTA for the reaction. Physicochemical characterization of DOTA-polystyrene was performed using FE-SEM, and DLS. Concentrated DOTA-polystyrene was subsequently buffer-exchanged to isotonic buffered saline (IBS) for subsequent radiolabeling. The final concentration before radiolabeling was 2.5 mg/100 μL concentration.

Cyclotron-produced [⁶⁴Cu]CuCl₂ was dried and re-dissolved in 0.01 N HCl (final concentration, 9.25 MBq/μL). 155.4 MBq of [⁶⁴Cu]CuCl₂ was added to 80 μL of 0.1 M NaOAc buffer (pH 5) in a 1.5 mL-tube. DOTA-polystyrene (2 mg in 80 μL) was added and mixture was shaken in a Thermomixer C (Eppendorf AG, Hamburg, Germany) at 40 °C and 1000 rpm for 30 min. ⁶⁴Cu-labeled DOTA-polystyrene was purified using an Amicon centrifugal filter at 25°C, 3000 rpm, for 30 min. By repeating this procedure, reaction buffer was exchanged to 1× PBS for further studies.

In vitro stability study

[⁶⁴Cu]Cu-DOTA-polystyrene in PBS (1.85 MBq/30 μL) was diluted in 270 μL of PBS, hydrochloric acid-potassium chloride buffer (pH 2), human serum, or mouse serum. Each sample
was incubated at 25°C (buffer) and 37°C (serum) for 48 h. Stability was analyzed using instant TLC (0.1 M citric acid in water as a mobile phase).

**PET/CT imaging**

All animal experiments were performed under the institutional guidelines of the Korea Institute of Radiology and Medical Sciences (KIRAMS). BALB/c nude mice (n=5–7, 5 weeks old, Shizuoka Laboratory Center, Japan) was used.

PET/CT images were acquired with a Siemens Inveon PET scanner (Siemens Medical Solutions, Germany). $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{CuCl}_2$ (4.81 MBq/100 μL) or $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu-DOTA-polystyrene}$ (4.81 MBq/57.8 μg/100 μL) was orally administered to mice. Then PET was acquired at 1, 6, 12, 24, and 48 h after. PET data were acquired for 15 min within 350–650 keV. The PET data were reconstructed using an SP-MAP (target resolution 3). The voxel size was $0.776 \times 0.776 \times 0.796$ mm$^3$. Regions of interest (ROI) were drawn in the stomach, liver, and intestine using ASIpro (Siemens Medical Solutions, Germany) after co-registration of CT and PET. SUV$_{\text{max}}$ was then calculated.

**Bio-distribution (Bio-D) study**

The accumulated radioactivity concentration (%ID/g) in each organ were measured at corresponding time after administration of $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu-DOTA-polystyrene}$ or $^{64}\text{Cu}$.

**Ex vivo tissue-radio thin-layer chromatography (Ex vivo-radioTLC)**

Ex vivo-radioTLC assays were performed to determine whether the detected gamma rays emitted from the tissues were emitted from $^{64}\text{Cu}$ or $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu-DOTA-polystyrene}$ at each time point. Homogenized samples were lysed in 10% SDS-PBS (pH 7.4) instead of strong acid because low pH ($\leq 1$) induces de-chelation of $^{64}\text{Cu}$ from DOTA within 1 min (19). Similarly, low pH in the stomach can disrupt stable chelation of $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu-DOTA}$, and this phenomenon was identified from ex vivo-radioTLC of the stomach at later time points.

**Statistical analysis**

The data are presented as the mean with standard deviation. Student's t-test was performed using PRISM (ver. 5.0. GraphPad, San Diego, CA, USA). * denotes $P < 0.05$; ** denotes $P < 0.005$. 
RESULTS

Synthesis and Radiolabeling

DOTA-conjugation was confirmed by HPLC and FT-IR spectrometer (Fig. 2A and Supplemental Fig. 1). 184.78±0.26 nmol of DOTA was conjugated per milligram of polystyrene. The particle sizes of polystyrene and DOTA-polystyrene were 223–224 nm, and no aggregation was observed (in either set of results) after the DOTA-conjugation reaction (Fig. 2B and C). Radiochemical yield of [\(^{64}\text{Cu}\)]Cu-DOTA-polystyrene was 92.07±3.20% and radiochemical purity was 96.39±1.66% (Supplemental Fig. 2A).

In vitro stability study

No significant de-chelation was observed after 48 h in PBS (96.34%), pH 2 (91.68%), human serum (93.23%), or mouse serum (96.83%). The in vitro stability study demonstrated that \(^{64}\text{Cu}\)-labeled polystyrene was stable for the time period used in this study (Supplemental Fig. 2B).

PET/CT imaging

Fig. 3 and Supplemental Fig. 3 show the representative PET data at 1, 6, 12, 24, and 48 h after oral administration of [\(^{64}\text{Cu}\)]Cu-DOTA-polystyrene and/or \(^{64}\text{Cu}\). The corresponding time activity curve (TAC) is shown for the stomach, liver, and intestine. PET images demonstrate that [\(^{64}\text{Cu}\)]Cu-DOTA-polystyrene remained for up to 24 h in the stomach. The SUV\(_{\text{max}}\) of [\(^{64}\text{Cu}\)]Cu-DOTA-polystyrene in the stomach was 35.42±4.25 at 1 h, 36.22±3.91 at 6 h, 37.32±1.34 at 12 h, 22.68±4.81 at 24 h, and 0.20±0.03 at 48 h. Polystyrene began its transit to the intestine within 1 h. The SUV\(_{\text{max}}\) of [\(^{64}\text{Cu}\)]Cu-DOTA-polystyrene in the intestine was 41.93±22.59 at 1 h, 45.29±19.79 at 6 h, 33.84±7.10 at 12 h, 15.59±3.22 at 24 h, and 0.72±0.75 at 48 h.

The in vivo absorption and distribution pattern of \(^{64}\text{Cu}\) observed using PET was statistically different at each PET measurement point (Fig. 3, *p<0.05, **p<0.005). The SUV\(_{\text{max}}\) in stomach (marked “S” in Fig. 3) were 35.42±4.25 for [\(^{64}\text{Cu}\)]Cu-DOTA-polystyrene and 8.39±6.98 for \(^{64}\text{Cu}\) at 1 h post administration. The SUV\(_{\text{max}}\) of [\(^{64}\text{Cu}\)]Cu-DOTA-polystyrene was 4.22, 4.67, 7.40, and 7.83-fold greater in the stomach (compared to the SUV\(_{\text{max}}\) of \(^{64}\text{Cu}\)) at 1, 6, 12, and 24 h, respectively (*p<0.05, **p<0.005). Moreover, the area under the
curve (AUC) for $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu}$-DOTA-polystyrene was 6.03 times greater in the stomach (AUC for $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu}$-DOTA-polystyrene, 1034.0; AUC for $^{64}\text{Cu}$, 171.2).

The SUV$_{\text{max}}$ in the intestine (marked “I” in Fig. 3) were 45.29±19.75 for $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu}$-DOTA-polystyrene and 8.40±3.36 for $^{64}\text{Cu}$ at 1 h post administration. The SUV$_{\text{max}}$ of $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu}$-DOTA-polystyrene was 5.38, 23.26, and 19.43-fold greater in the intestine (compared to the SUV$_{\text{max}}$ of $^{64}\text{Cu}$) at 6, 12, and 24 h, respectively (*p<0.05, **p<0.005). Moreover, the AUC for $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu}$-DOTA-polystyrene was 4.95 times greater in the intestine (AUC for $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu}$-DOTA-polystyrene, 933.1; AUC for $^{64}\text{Cu}$, 188.3).

The SUV$_{\text{max}}$ in the liver (marked “L” in Fig. 3) were 0.04±0.03 for $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu}$-DOTA-polystyrene and 1.83±0.75 for $^{64}\text{Cu}$ at 1 h post administration. The SUV$_{\text{max}}$ of $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu}$-DOTA-polystyrene was 0.02, 0.01, 0.01, and 0.04-fold lower in the liver (compared to that of $^{64}\text{Cu}$) at 1, 6, 12, and 24 h, respectively (*p<0.05, **p<0.005). Moreover, the AUC for $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu}$-DOTA-polystyrene was 0.07 times lower in the liver (AUC for $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu}$-DOTA-polystyrene, 3.78; AUC for $^{64}\text{Cu}$, 53.16). A higher uptake of $^{64}\text{Cu}$ in the liver was observed on PET. This was because $^{64}\text{Cu}$ was largely adsorbed by albumin and transcuprein and then carried to the liver (20). We also found that both $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu}$-DOTA-polystyrene and $^{64}\text{Cu}$ were partly excreted in feces (marked “F” in Fig. 3).

**Bio-distribution (Bio-D) study**

Fig. 4 shows the result of Bio-D in the interesting organs. Overall, the accumulation pattern of Bio-D was similar to that of SUV in the PET images. In the stomach, %ID/g of $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu}$-DOTA-polystyrene was 2.01, 2.31, 8.28, 3.61, and 13.27-fold greater compared to that of $^{64}\text{Cu}$ at each time point, respectively (*p<0.05, **p<0.005). In the small intestine, %ID/g of $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu}$-DOTA-polystyrene was 6.88, 3.44, 2.50, and 11.44-fold greater in the small intestine compared to that of $^{64}\text{Cu}$, respectively (*p<0.05, **p<0.005). In the large intestine, %ID/g of $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu}$-DOTA-polystyrene was 3.98, 2.27, 3.11, and 13.74-fold greater in the stomach compared to that of $^{64}\text{Cu}$, respectively (*p<0.05, **p<0.005). In the liver, %ID/g of $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu}$-DOTA-polystyrene was 0.10, 0.22, 0.18, 0.49, and 0.10-fold lower in the liver compared to that of $^{64}\text{Cu}$, respectively (*p<0.05, **p<0.005). Additionally, we observed transit of $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu}$-DOTA-polystyrene to the liver, spleen, heart, blood, lung, kidney, bladder, and testis.
In contrast, most of the $^{64}$Cu accumulated in the large intestine, stomach, and small intestine at 1 h post administration. $^{64}$Cu then quickly transitioned to other organs, including the liver. Greater %ID/g accumulation of $^{64}$Cu was observed in all other organs, including the liver (9.59-fold), spleen (12.0-fold), heart (7.85-fold), blood (5.83-fold), lung (25.69-fold), kidney (26.92-fold), bladder (1.35-fold), brain (1.36-fold), and testis (6.35-fold) compared to $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu}$-DOTA-polystyrene.

**Ex vivo tissue-radio thin-layer chromatography (Ex vivo-radioTLC)**

The *ex vivo*-radioTLC assay results in other tissues (liver, small, and large intestine) demonstrated that the radiation signal was from $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu}$-DOTA-polystyrene, not $^{64}$Cu (Supplemental Fig. 4).
DISCUSSION

We first identified the in vivo distribution of MPs in mice. To accomplish this, we labeled MP polystyrene with the radioisotope $^{64}$Cu, $[{^{64}}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene (radiolabeled MP polystyrene) was then orally administered to mice. PET was used to trace the absorption and distribution of $[{^{64}}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene. Next, ex vivo biodistribution studies confirmed $[{^{64}}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene accumulation in specific organs. Ex vivo-radioTLC was used to confirm that the detected gamma rays originated from $[{^{64}}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene. Exposure to MPs in food and water through oral administration is a significant environmental and health problem (21-23). However, as discussed earlier, it is extremely likely that MPs are widely distributed within the food we eat.

The advantage of PET is that it is possible to observe the in vivo absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion of substances labeled with radioactive isotopes without sacrificing the animal (16). Although fluorescence is commonly used for in vivo exposure and biodistribution studies, fluorescence in animal bodies can be absorbed by bone and soft tissues, and prolonged exposure to ultraviolet light can result in bleaching and loss of fluorescence intensity (24). Therefore, quantification of fluorescent images is limited compared to PET imaging. In addition, when using MPs conjugated with fluorescent dyes, animals must be sacrificed to observe the absorption and accumulation of MPs over time. $[{^{64}}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene transit and absorption were observed within the same animal using PET, without sacrificing the animal.

In this study, we first observed the in vivo pathways (absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion) of an MP labeled with a radioisotope using PET. In order to trace the polystyrene after oral administration, we selected $^{64}$Cu and p-SCN-Bn-DOTA for the radiolabeling of plastic particles. We subsequently confirmed that the detected radiation was emitted from the $[{^{64}}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene, and not from $^{64}$Cu, using ex vivo-radioTLC. DOTA-NHS ester and p-SCN-Bn-DOTA are frequently used chelators (19). DOTA conjugation was confirmed by FT-IR spectroscopy, because the functional groups of DOTA show specific bands (Supplemental Fig. 1).

The Bio-D study also demonstrated that the distribution of $[{^{64}}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene was different from that of $^{64}$Cu. The Bio-D study provided quantification of $[{^{64}}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene accumulation in each organ, even at low levels of emitted gamma ray. Using Bio-D,
we observed the transit and accumulation of $^{64}$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene within the gastrointestinal tract (stomach, intestine, and liver), circulatory organs (heart, lung, and blood), renal system (kidney and bladder), and even in the brain, at 1 h after oral administration.

In contrast, orally administered $^{64}$Cu was rapidly removed from the stomach, small intestines, and large intestine, before transit to the other organs, including the liver (Fig. 4). We also observed a higher SUV in the liver on PET for the $^{64}$Cu orally administered group (Fig. 3). In a previous report, accumulation of $^{64}$Cu in the liver was observed on PET (20). For kidney and spleen, the levels of ID/g ($1 < \%ID/g < 10$) were 3.47 and 1.08 at 1 h, respectively. For bladder, testis, heart, lung, and blood, the levels of ID/g ($\%ID/g < 1$) were 0.70, 0.22, 0.55, 0.92, and 0.21 at 1 h, respectively. The rapid distribution of orally administered $^{64}$Cu to the other organs may have occurred because digestive fluid may facilitate solubilization of $^{64}$Cu in the stomach. $^{64}$Cu was partly cleared in feces after transit through the gastrointestinal tract, and the remaining $^{64}$Cu was distributed to other organs, including the liver.

In mice, normal gastric pH is approximately 3.0 (25). During transit through the stomach, $^{64}$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene may encounter harsh conditions, possibly de-chelating $^{64}$Cu. However, our ex vivo-radioTLC assay assured that there was no de-chelation of $^{64}$Cu in the stomach and liver at 1 h through comparison data between $^{64}$Cu and $[^{64}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene. According to the data, the detected signal from PET and Bio-D at 1 h in all other organs, including the liver, was from $[^{64}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene, not de-chelated $^{64}$Cu. Although the acidity of the stomach did affect de-chelation at 6 h post-administration, the other organs were not influenced by de-chelation of $^{64}$Cu from radioTLC (shown in Supplemental Fig. 4). Therefore, each data obtained from PET imaging and biodistribution was confirmed with $[^{64}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene. Consequently, the de-chelation of $^{64}$Cu could be negligible. (Fig. 4, *p<0.05, **p<0.005).

Recently, several animal studies have been published on the effects of MPs (26-29). MP ingestion may induce behavioral disorders in mice (30). Therefore, it is important to observe how MPs are distributed in the body following ingestion. Remarkably, Bio-D demonstrated that $[^{64}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene was distributed to all tested organs, including the testis, even after a one-time single dose. Thus, $[^{64}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene may transit and accumulate in all organs even 1 h after oral administration. According to a recent report, a four-week exposure to
polystyrene (1.0 % w/v, 10 mL) induced male reproductive dysfunction in mice (31). Based on that mouse study and on our present results, we assumed that at least four weeks of polystyrene exposure may induce hazardous effects on individual organs such as digestive organs, circulatory organs, and excretory organs.

We used BALB/c nude mice because we aimed to assess the tumorigenesis after longitudinal polystyrene exposure for further study. When different strains of mouse were used, possibly different absorption, distribution, metabolism, and elimination of polystyrene might be observed during PET imaging.

The polystyrene used in these experiments have been surface coated with amines, and it seems likely that this may affect their biodistribution. Polystyrene is a highly hydrophobic particle, and the addition of multiple primary amines (hydrophilic and positively charged at physiological pH) and DOTA chelators (hydrophilic and negatively charged at physiological pH) on the surface may influence biodistribution. Hydrophobic compounds and aggregates tend to show uptake and retention in the liver, and therefore uptake in the liver may be influenced by the surface modifications. Even if radiotracers were prepared from same material, several factors, which are size, shape, and surface charge, can affect biodistribution and clearance. Generally, small nanoparticles penetrate capillary walls more easily than large nanoparticles, and positively charged nanoparticles are cleared more quickly by macrophages (32-34). Smaller and negatively charged silica nanoparticles have enhanced intestinal permeation by opening tight junctions (35). In this study, we selected a sphere-shaped and 0.2 μm-sized polystyrene and observed no significant difference of size and shape after DOTA conjugation. $^{64}$Cu-labeled DOTA-polystyrene contains uncoordinated carboxylic acids, which have negative charges, and free amines, which have positive charges at physiological pH. These surface charge may affect the permeability of gastrointestinal tract and distribution. Recent fluorescence conjugated MP studies indicated that biodistribution of MP was dependent on size of the particles (26,36). According to the result of ref (26), 5-μm sized MP was more accumulated in the kidney and gut compared to when use of 20 μm sized MP. Therefore, possibly, the smaller amount of radioisotope labelled MP could be accumulated in the mice organ when larger sized MP was used.
CONCLUSION

Our results demonstrate the utility of PET for visualizing the absorption and distribution of polystyrene microplastics radiolabeled with $^{64}$Cu. PET provides information on the accumulation of MPs \textit{in vivo} and can provide information on how each organ could be affected following continuous MP exposure. The biological effects of long-term exposure to MPs in each organ affected in this study will be evaluated in future studies.
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KEY POINTS

QUESTION: Microplastic (MP) cause environmental threat and human health risk. Because MP was widely detected in food, we can assume that MPs are ingested along with the contaminated food. To understand the absorption path for MPs ingested with foods we eat, $^{64}$Cu-labeled polystyrene was orally administered and then PET imaging and ex vivo biodistribution was obtained.

PERTINENT FINDINGS: The absorption path and distribution of $[^{64}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene were determined using positron emission tomography (PET) over 48 h. PET images demonstrated that $[^{64}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene accumulated in stomach and began to transit to the intestine within 1 h. $[^{64}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene accumulation in the liver was also observed.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PATIENT CARE: Based on accumulation of $[^{64}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene in vivo, we can assume long term exposure of polystyrene may induce the potential risks to human health.
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Fig. 1. Schematic of the experiment. $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu}$-DOTA-polystyrene was synthesized and validated using analytical instruments and radioTLC. $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu}$-DOTA-polystyrene was orally administrated to mice and PET/CT was performed at 1, 6, 12, 24, and 48 h after the administration of $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu}$-DOTA-polystyrene. Tissues were weighed and counted at each time point for tissue distribution. An ex vivo-radioTLC assay was performed to determine whether the detected gamma rays emitted from the tissue were originated from $^{64}\text{Cu}$ or $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu}$-DOTA-polystyrene.
Fig. 2. Synthesis of $^{64}\text{Cu}\text{Cu-DOTA}$-polystyrene, and physicochemical validation of DOTA-polystyrene using field emission scanning electron microscope (FE-SEM) and dynamic light scattering (DLS). (A) $p$-SCN-Bn-DOTA was conjugated to amine in polystyrene and labeled with $^{64}\text{Cu}$ in pH 5 buffer. (B) The polystyrene particles (left) and DOTA-polystyrene particles (right) show no difference in FE-SEM and DLS. (C) No aggregation of DOTA-polystyrene particles occurred during conjugation.
Fig. 3. (A) Representative PET/CT imaging of oral administered $[^{64}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene and/or $^{64}\text{Cu}$. $[^{64}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene accumulated in the stomach and intestine for 24 h. Uptake of $[^{64}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene was observed in liver at 48 h post administration. However, $^{64}\text{Cu}$ in the stomach and intestinal track was rapidly cleared and transported to the liver. (B) The maximal standard uptake value ($\text{SUV}_{\text{max}}$). $\text{SUV}_{\text{max}}$ of $[^{64}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene was significantly higher than that of $^{64}\text{Cu}$ in the stomach and intestine. In contrast, the $\text{SUV}_{\text{max}}$ of $[^{64}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene was significantly lower than that of $^{64}\text{Cu}$ in liver. (S, stomach; I, intestine; F, feces; L, liver. n=5, Student's t-test, *p<0.05, **p<0.005) The image color map reports the SUV value.
Fig. 4. The bio-distribution results of $^{64}$Cu and $[^{64}$Cu]$^{64}$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene in gastrointestinal tract (stomach, intestine, liver), circulatory organs (heart, lung, blood), renal system (kidney, bladder), and the brain. Overall, the accumulation pattern of Bio-D was similar to that of SUV in PET images. The %ID/g of $[^{64}$Cu]$^{64}$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene was significantly higher in stomach, small intestines, and large intestine compared to that of $^{64}$Cu. However, a lower %ID/g of $[^{64}$Cu]$^{64}$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene was observed in the liver compared to that of $^{64}$Cu. Additionally, we found that $[^{64}$Cu]$^{64}$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene transited to the gastrointestinal tract (liver, spleen), circulatory system (heart, blood, lung), renal system (kidney, bladder), and even to the brain and testis. In contrast, most of the $^{64}$Cu accumulated in the large intestine, stomach, and small
intestine at 1 h post administration. Subsequently, $^{64}$Cu transited quickly to other organs, including the liver. Greater %ID/g accumulation of $^{64}$Cu was observed in all other organs tested, including the liver, spleen, heart, blood, lung, kidney, bladder, brain, and testis, compared to $[^{64}$Cu]Cu-DOTA-polystyrene (n=5, student's t-test, *p<0.05, **p<0.005).
Supplementary Information for
Tracing of Biodistribution of Orally Administered $^{64}$Cu-Labeled Polystyrene in Mice

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This PDF file includes:

Supplemental Figure 1 to 4
Supplemental Fig. 1. Chemical analysis of DOTA-polystyrene for confirmation of DOTA-conjugation. (A) Standard area curve of three different concentration of \( p \)-SCN-Bn-DOTA using high performance liquid chromatography (n=3) and moles of DOTA per polystyrene (mg) was determined using a standard curve. (B) Fourier-transform infrared spectrum, (i) \( p \)-SCN-Bn-DOTA, at 3335 cm\(^{-1} \) the presence of amine groups was observed and the isothiocyanate motif vibration was shown at 2098 cm\(^{-1} \). At 1724 cm\(^{-1} \) the C=O stretch and at 1500 cm\(^{-1} \) the aromatic C-C stretch was identified. The C-H stretch at 1400 cm\(^{-1} \) and at C-N were identified (ii) amino-polystyrene, the C-H stretch was assigned at 3000-2800 cm\(^{-1} \) and the N-H bend was observed at 1601 cm\(^{-1} \) and the C-C stretch was observed at 1600-1400 cm\(^{-1} \). At 720-685 cm\(^{-1} \) the aromatic bend was shown. (iii) DOTA-polystyrene, the isothiocyanate region (2098 cm\(^{-1} \)) from \( p \)-SCN-Bn-DOTA was disappeared. At 3000-2800 cm\(^{-1} \) the C-H stretch and at 1600-1400 cm\(^{-1} \) the C-C stretch were observed. At 720-685 cm\(^{-1} \) the aromatic bend was shown.
Supplemental Fig. 2. Radiochemical yield and stability of $[^{64}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene. (A) Standard area curve of three different concentration of $p$-SCN-Bn-DOTA using HPLC (n=3) and moles of DOTA per polystyrene (mg) was determined using a standard curve. (B) Radiochemical yield was analyzed using radioTLC developed in 0.1 M citric acid (left peak is $[^{64}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene and right peak is $^{64}\text{Cu}$). (C) Relative stability results of $[^{64}\text{Cu}]$Cu-DOTA-polystyrene in PBS, pH 2 buffer, human serum, or mouse serum (n=3).
Supplemental Fig. 3. The representative coronal, sagittal, and transverse image of PET/CT at 1, 6, 12, 24, and 48 h post administration of $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu-DOTA-polystyrene}$ or $^{64}\text{Cu}$. The image color map shows SUV value. Red, green, and blue lines indicate the same slice at different location (S, stomach; I, Intestine; L, liver; F, feces).
Supplemental Fig. 4. *Ex vivo*-radioTLC analysis of homogenized tissues at 1, 6, and 12 h after oral administration of $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu-DOTA-polystyrene}$ (A) and $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{CuCl}_2$ (B). Instant TLCs were developed in 0.1 M citric acid (left peak is $[^{64}\text{Cu}]\text{Cu-DOTA-polystyrene}$ and right peak is $^{64}\text{Cu}$).