Motion behavior and metabolic response to microplastic leachates in the benthic foraminifera *Haynesina germanica*

Langlet Dewi ^{1,*}, Bouchet Vincent M. P. ¹, Delaeter Camille ¹, Seuront Laurent ^{2, 3, 4}

¹ Univ. Lille, CNRS, Univ. Littoral Côte d'Opale, UMR 8187, LOG, Laboratoire d'Océanologie et de Géosciences, F 62930 Wimereux, France

² CNRS, Univ. Lille, Univ. Littoral Côte d'Opale, UMR 8187, LOG, Laboratoire d'Océanologie et de Géosciences, F 62930 Wimereux, France

³ Department of Marine Resource and Energy, Tokyo University of Marine Science and Technology, 4-5-7 Konan, Minato-ku, Tokyo 108-8477, Japan

⁴ Department of Zoology and Entomology, Rhodes University, Grahamstown 6140, South Africa

Corresponding author : Dewi Langlet, email address : dewi.langlet@univ-lille.fr

Abstract :

Plastic is one of the major sources of pollution in modern oceans. When in seawater, toxic plasticizers (the additives incorporated in plastic polymers during manufacturing processes) typically diffuse and accumulate in sediments and in benthic and pelagic organisms' tissues. These plastic leachates affect survival, behavior and metabolism of various marine metazoans, but little effort was placed in studying their effect on protists. In this contribution we monitored the short-term effect of polypropylene (PP) leachates at both environmentally realistic and chronic concentrations on Haynesina germanica locomotion and metabolism. We found that PP leachates has no lethal nor effects on this species activity. Taken together, these results suggest that benthic foraminifera may be more resistant than marine metazoans to plasticizers pollutants.

Highlights

► Short-term exposure to polypropylene leachates does not affect foraminiferal survival. ► Polypropylene leachates do not change *Haynesina germanica* behavior nor respiration. ► Foraminiferal resistance to plastic pollution might provide a competitive advantage.

Keywords : Benthic foraminifera, Plastic leachates, Polypropylene, Survival, Behavior, Respiration

32 **1 Introduction**

Plastics are acknowledged as one of the most ubiquitous and conspicuous sources of pollution of the Anthropocene, especially in the marine environment (W. C. Li et al., 2016). Microplastics (MP) can either be small plastic particles (smaller than 5mm) released in the environment or result from the breakage and aging of macroplastics. They are now considered the most numerically abundant form of solid waste on the planet (Eriksen et al., 2014) and a potential threat to marine ecosystems globally (Galloway et al., 2017). Hence, they are widely observed from coastal waters to the deep-ocean floor and from tropical to polar regions (Barnes, 2005; Chiba et al., 2018).

- 40 Microplastics are also responsible for a range of sub-lethal effects related to their pernicious role as a vector of chemical pollutants. These pollutants leaching from MP to the marine environments 41 42 originate from the additives compounds (e.g. plasticizers, flame retardant, UV stabilizers, antioxidant, 43 and antistatic molecule) incorporated in plastics during the manufacturing process to modify the 44 plastic polymers physical properties and durability, but also from the chemical compounds already 45 present in the water (i.e. coming from another source of pollution) which are adsorbed at the MP's 46 surface when aging in the environments. Plastic additives such as phthalates, bisphenol A, 47 nonyphenols and brominated flame retardants can reach high concentrations in coastal waters 48 (Hermabessiere et al., 2017; Sánchez-Avila et al., 2012) and accumulate in marine organisms tissues 49 (Vered et al., 2019). This work specifically focuses on the toxicity of virgin MP leachates since they 50 have recently been identified as one of the most critical threat related to the presence of plastics in the 51 ocean (Hahladakis et al., 2018; Paluselli et al., 2019). The toxic effects of virgin microplastic leachates 52 have been reported in various marine faunal taxa, such as barnacles (H.-X. Li et al., 2016), crustacean 53 larvae (Lithner et al., 2009), gastropods (Seuront, 2018), bivalves (Ke et al., 2019) and sea urchins 54 (Oliviero et al., 2019). Desorption of these chemicals in the surrounding environment causes a range 55 of harmful effects on embryo development, reproduction, behavior or induce genetic aberrations (see
- 56 Oehlmann et al. (2009) for a review).

57 To date and to the best of our knowledge, there is still a critical lack of information available on effect 58 of microplastic on protists, despite a recent urge to fill this knowledge gap (Rillig and Bonkowski, 59 2018). However, MP ingestion is likely to be common in protists (Setälä et al., 2014), including 60 foraminifera (Ciacci et al., 2019), and subsequently negatively impact their metabolic activity (Ciacci 61 et al., 2019; Su et al., 2020). Benthic foraminifera were targeted in this work due to their importance in 62 the structure and function of benthic ecosystems (Geslin et al., 2011; Gooday et al., 1992), their ability 63 to respond to various types of pollutant both under laboratory conditions (Denoyelle et al., 2012; Ernst 64 et al., 2006; Nigam et al., 2009) and *in situ* (see Alve, 1995 for a review). Like any benthic organisms, 65 they are directly exposed to the range of pollutants, including microplastics (Schwarz et al., 2019) which cannot be degraded by bacteria (Nauendorf et al., 2016) and therefore accumulate in coastal 66 sediments (Galgani et al., 1996). In this context, the present study assessed the potential short-term 67 68 effects of the leachates from virgin polypropylene pellets considered at both environmentally realistic and chronic concentrations on the stress level of the benthic foraminifera *Haynesina germanica*.
Specifically, movement behavior (Seuront, 2018) and respiration rate (Su et al., 2020) were considered

- 71 as proxies of the stress level of *H. germanica* following an exposure to polypropylene leachates. This
- 72 for a for a species and this plastic polymer were specifically chosen for their high abundances along
- the French coast of the eastern English Channel (Armynot du Châtelet et al., 2018; Francescangeli et
- 74 al., 2017; Hermabessiere et al., 2019).

75 2 Material and methods

76 2.1 Haynesina germanica collection

77 Surface sediment (0-1cm) from Boulogne-sur-Mer harbor mudflat (eastern English Channel, 78 50°43'06.4"N 1°34'22.0"E) was sampled in June 2019 and stored in 100 ml polypropylene containers. 79 Sediment was kept at ambient temperature during transportation and placed within one hour in English 80 Channel seawater aquarium (12°C and 35 PSU) under a natural day-light cycle conditions until the 81 experiment took place. Sediment was sieved over a 125 µm stainless-steel mesh and colored-82 cytoplasm Haynesina germanica were subsequently sorted. Only the active specimens (i.e. leaving a 83 displacement track on a thin layer of sediment) were considered as living and selected for the 84 experiment. Living individuals were transferred in artificial seawater (ASW) prepared with 35 grams 85 of sea salt (RedSea Fish Farm, Israel) per liter of Milli-Q water (Merck Millipore, Germany) and 86 gently cleaned with a brush to remove any surrounding particles.

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88 2.2 Experimental conditions

89 Both behavioral experiments and metabolic measurements were conducted exposing H. germanica to 90 artificial seawater as control and to microplastic leachates seawater. Microplastic leachates seawater 91 was prepared from commercially available virgin polypropylene pellets (typically 3.3 to 4.7 mm in 92 diameter; Pemmiproducts, Germany) mixed with artificial seawater at a concentration of 20 ml and 93 200 ml of pellets per liter (hereafter respectively referred to as PP20 and PP200) and aerated for 24 h 94 before the beginning of the experiments following the protocol developed in Seuront (2018) to 95 monitor the effect of plastic leachates on a marine gastropod. Although not quantified in this 96 experiment, polypropylene leachates typically contain bisphenol A, octylphenol and nonylphenol 97 (Hermabessiere et al., 2017).

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99 2.3 Behavioral experiment

For each experimental condition (i.e. control seawater and the two leachate treatments PP20 and
PP200), 15 living *Haynesina germanica* (maximum diameter range: 300-440 μm) were spread
randomly on the bottom of 15-cm wide glass-Petri dishes filled with ASW, PP20 or PP200 (Figure 1).
Petri dishes were placed in a light and temperature-controlled incubator (MIR-154, Panasonic, Japan)
set at 12°C. The movements of *H. germanica* were recorded every 10 minutes using a digital camera

105 (V1 with a 10-30 mm lens, Nikon, Japan) under homogenous dim light conditions (photosynthetically 106 active radiation <100 μ mol photon m⁻² s⁻¹; SA-190 quantum sensor, LI-COR, USA) provided by a 107 horizontal array of LEDs (YN-160 III, Yongnuo, China). Each experiment lasted 10 hours.

- 108 Images were compiled in the open-source image analysis software Fiji (Schindelin et al., 2012) and
- 109 (x,y) coordinates were measured for each individual *H. germanica* using the *Manual Tracking* plugin
- 110 (Figure 1). The distance travelled (D_t) by each individual between two images was calculated as: $D_t =$
- 111 $\sqrt{[(x_t x_{t+1})^2 + (y_t y_{t+10})^2]}$ where (x_t, y_t) and (x_{t+10}, y_{t+10}) are the coordinates between two successive
- 112 images taken at 10-minute intervals. The total distance travelled in 10 hours was calculated from the
- sum of all D_t and subsequently converted to locomotion speed (mm h⁻¹). These behavioral parameters

were measured using trajr package (McLean and Skowron Volponi, 2018) in R v.3.5.3 (R Core Team,

foraminifera trajectories were estimated following the box dimension method (Seuront, 2015, 2010).

- 115 2019). Trajectories complexity was assessed using fractal analysis. The fractal dimensions of
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118 2.4 Respiration measurements

119 Five H. germanica specimens were randomly selected from the individuals used in behavioral 120 experiments and transferred from the Petri dish to a 1-mm wide glass microtube containing the three 121 tested seawater (ASW for control and PP20 and PP200 to test the effect of polypropylene leachates). 122 Steady-state oxygen consumption gradient $(dC/dz, in pmol cm^4)$ in the millimeter above the 123 organisms were measured using a 50-µm Clark-type oxygen microelectrode (Unisense, Denmark). Oxygen fluxes (J, pmol cm⁻¹ s⁻¹) in the microtube were calculated using Fick's first law of free 124 diffusion as $J = D \times dC/dz$ (Li and Gregory, 1974) with D being the free diffusion coefficient for 125 oxygen ($D = 1.6 \ 10^{-5} \ \text{cm}^2 \ \text{s}^{-1}$ at 12°C and 35PSU). Individual respiration rate (R, pmol ind⁻¹ day⁻¹) was 126 then calculated as $R = J \times S/n$ (considering the microtube inner section $S = 7.9 \ 10^{-3} \ \text{cm}^2$ and the number 127 128 of individuals n = 5). Note that our measurements were conducted on groups of 5 individuals both to 129 take into account the low individual respiration rate of benthic foraminifera and to overpass the sensor 130 detection limit (Geslin et al., 2011). Respiration rate measurements were replicated 6 times in control 131 seawater and triplicated in both P20 and PP200 leachate treatments. Since respiration is influenced by 132 individual size, specimens were measured to normalize the respiration rates by the foraminiferal biovolume (8.10⁶ µm³ in average; estimated following Geslin et al., 2011). All respiration 133 134 measurements were carried out in the dark in a 12°C temperature-controlled water bath (Huber CC-135 K12, Germany).

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137 2.5 Data analysis

Due to our small size samples, the effect of the 3 experimental conditions on movement speed, fractal
dimension and foraminiferal respiration rate was tested using Kruskal-Wallis test (Hollander and
Wolfe, 1999) in R v.3.5.3 (R Core Team, 2019).

142 **3 Results**

143 Image analysis show that 100% of the individuals tested were moving throughout the experiments and were still alive after being exposed to PP20 and PP200 for 10 hours. Haynesina germanica moved 144 145 over distances ranging from 7 to 32 mm, at locomotion speed ranging from 0.7 to 3.2 mm h⁻¹, 1.6 to 2.8 mm h⁻¹ and 1.1 to 3.1 mm h⁻¹ for ASW, PP20 and PP200 respectively (Figure 1A). All the 146 147 trajectories considered in this work were significantly described in terms of fractal dimensions that 148 ranged between 1.02 and 1.13 with average values of 1.07, 1.06 and 1.06 in ASW, PP20 and PP200 respectively (Figure 1B). Finally, respiration rate ranged from 41 to 114 10⁻⁶ pmol µm⁻³ day⁻¹ in the 149 ASW control, from 66 to 164 10^{-6} pmol μ m⁻³ dav⁻¹ in PP20 and from 84 to 98 10^{-6} pmol μ m⁻³ dav⁻¹ in 150 PP200 (Figure 1C). Neither locomotion speed, fractal dimensions nor respiration rates exhibited any 151 152 significant differences between the three experimental conditions (Kruskall-Wallis-test: p>0.05; Table 153 1).

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155 **4 Discussion**

The additives leaching from polypropylene (i.e. essentially antioxidant additives such as bisphenol A, octylphenol and nonylphenol; Hermabessiere et al., 2017) have lethal effects on mollusks (Oehlmann et al., 2000), barnacle larvae (H.-X. Li et al., 2016), amphibians (Hogan et al., 2006), annelids and crustaceans (Staples et al., 2016). In contrast, the present work showed a lack of any lethal effect on *Haynesina germanica* of PP leachates.

161 Similarly, no sublethal effect were perceptible through *H. germanica* locomotion and metabolism. 162 Specifically, locomotion speed was nearly 2-fold lower than those reported previously on the same species (here ~2 mm h⁻¹ vs. ~4 mm h⁻¹ in Seuront and Bouchet, 2015) probably due to the lower 163 164 experimental temperature (12°C here vs. 22°C in Seuront and Bouchet, 2015) since decreasing 165 temperature is known to reduce for aminiferal activity (Bradshaw, 1961). Our results nevertheless 166 clearly indicated that PP leachates did not affect foraminiferal behavior (Figure 1A, B). This is 167 consistent with the observed lack of behavioral impairment in the intertidal gastropod Littorina 168 littorea; as PP20 leachates impaired their chemosensory ability without impacting their neuromuscular 169 abilities (Seuront, 2018). In turn, our results contrast with previous evidence that PP-plasticizers 170 reduce fish larvae velocity in the first days after hatching (Inagaki et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2013) and 171 negatively impact adult-fish locomotion and reproductive behavior after at least 2 months of exposure 172 (Gray et al., 1999; Xia et al., 2010). Note that the apparent discrepancy observed between the 173 aforementioned studies and our experiment might be due to differences in exposure duration as 174 reported in Table 2.

Plasticizers have previously been reported to lead to an immediate increase followed by a decrease in respiration rates with rising phenols concentration in mollusks (Levine and Cheney, 2000). They can also induce energetical impairments in crustaceans anaerobic metabolism in less than 2 days (Nagato 178 et al., 2016). In contrast, we did not find any significant effects of PP leachates on foraminiferal 179 respiration, even under very high leachates concentrations, i.e. PP200 (Figure 1C). To the best of our knowledge, the only other study that investigated the effect of PP leachates on a unicellular organism 180 181 found a decrease in dinoflagellate photosynthesis (M'Rabet et al., 2018) after 1 day of exposure, in 182 accordance with the reduced growth and oxygen production observed in the marine cyanobacteria Prochlorococcus following a 24h-long exposure to leachates of common plastic items (i.e. HDPE 183 184 shopping bags and PVC matting; Tetu et al., 2019). Note that, conversely to M'Rabet et al. (2018) 185 who specifically worked with bisphenol A (Table 2), we did not have any control on the composition 186 of the PP leachates. This is a clear limitation of our study that will need to be improved in future 187 works.

188 Overall, both the behavioral and metabolic activity data gathered in this preliminary study indicate that 189 the benthic foraminifera Haynesina germanica do not respond to MP unlike other unicellular and 190 metazoan organisms. Though this is highly speculative, this observation may suggest that their 191 resistance to leachates from virgin PP might induce a competitive advantage for benthic foraminifera. 192 Such a competitive advantage for foraminifera has previously been observed in relation to some 193 anthropo-natural phenomena such as organic-matter enrichment and anoxia (Langlet et al., 2013; 194 Stachowitsch, 2014). Note, however, that the observed lack of effect of MP on foraminiferal activity 195 may also be due to the relatively short-term exposure used in our experiments. More fundamentally, 196 the diversity of methods reported in the literature related to the type of polymer considered, the use of 197 unidentified leachates or a specific plasticizer, the pollutant concentrations, the duration of exposure as 198 well as the biology of the organisms considered (Table 2) dramatically prevent to reach a general 199 consensus when comparing the effect of MP on foraminifera with other organisms in our study. In this 200 context, future experiments aiming to assess the effects of MP leachates on benthic foraminifera 201 should benefit from (i) being more specific about the acute or chronic nature of their exposure, and (ii) 202 identifying and quantifying the plasticizers used or present in the leachates. Finally, further work is 203 also needed to assess the potential effects of leachates from (i) weathered PP in particular as they have 204 shown to have significantly stronger effects that virgin plastics (Bejgarn et al., 2015; Gandara e Silva 205 et al., 2016; Kedzierski et al., 2018; Nobre et al., 2015; Seuront, 2018), (ii) different plastic polymers 206 (H.-X. Li et al., 2016; Lithner et al., 2012, 2009; Tetu et al., 2019) and (iii) ingested plastic particles 207 (Ciacci et al., 2019).

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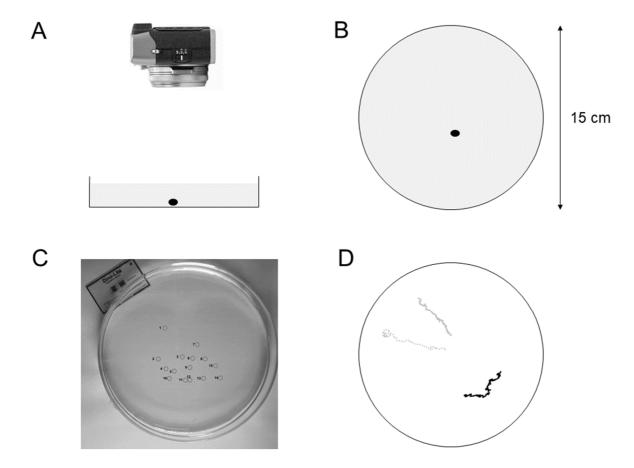


Figure 1 caption: A and B: schematic representation of the experimental setup with lateral view (A) and top view (B) of the position of the foraminifera (black ovoid shape) placed on the petri-dish. C: photograph of the initial position of the 15 individuals used in ASW control conditions. D: example of 3 extracted trajectories for ASW (full black line), PP20 (full grey line) and PP200 (dotted grey line).

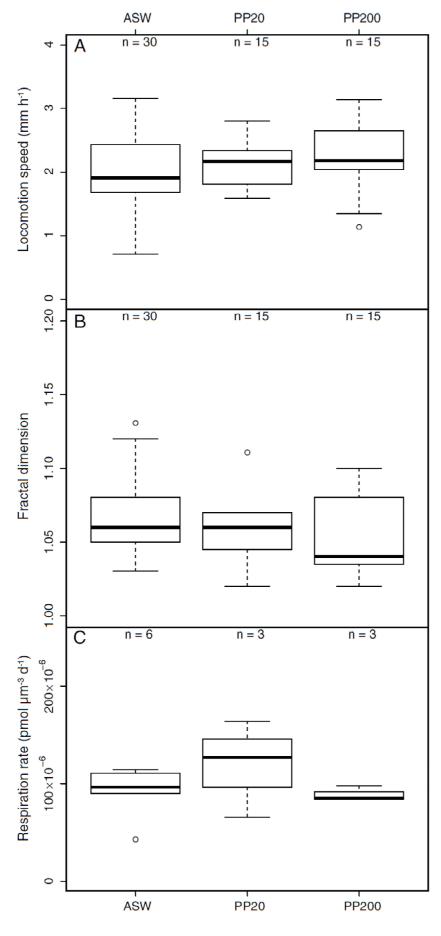


Figure 2: Locomotion speed (A), fractal dimension (B) and respiration rate (C) of *Haynesina germanica* under the three experimental conditions (ASW: artificial seawater, i.e. control conditions; PP20 and PP200: seawater prepared with 20 and 200 ml l⁻¹ polypropylene pellets, respectively). The box represents the first, second and third quartiles and the whiskers extend to 1.5 times the interquartile range. Values outside of this range are represented by open circles.

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Table 1 caption: results of the Kruskal-Wallis statistical analyses testing the effect of the
experimental conditions (ASW as a control, PP20 and PP200) on the three measured response
variables.

Response variable	Kruskal-Wallis X ²	degrees of freedom p-value
Locomotion speed	1.6	2 0.44
Fractal dimension	3.9	2 0.14
Respiration rate	1.3	2 0.52

Table 2 caption: organisms, response observed, type of pollutant, concentration, equivalent concentration in the present study and exposure
 duration tested in the literature cited in this article's discussion.

Reference	Organisms	Response observed	Pollutant type	Pollutant concentration	This study's equivalent	Exposure duration
Oehlmann et al. 2000	Mollusks	Mortality	Bisphenol A	1µg/L		5 months
		Mortality	Octylphenol	1µg/L		5 months
Li et al. 2016	Barnacle larvae	10% mortality	PP leachate	0.1 m ² /L	PP200 ~ 0.17m ² /L	1 day
Hogan et al. 2006	Amphibians	50% mortality	Octylphenol	1.4 μmol/L		2 weeks
Staples et al. 2016	Crustaceans	Mortality	Bisphenol A	78 mg/kg sedim dry weight		1 month
-	Annelids	Mortality	Bisphenol A	60 mg/kg sedim dry weight		1 month
Seuront 2018	Gastropods	Behavior	PP leachate	20mL/L	PP20 = 20mL/L	3 hours
Inagaki et al. 2016	Fish larvae	Locomotion	Bisphenol A	200ng/mL		20 days
Wang et al. 2013	Fish larvae	Locomotion	Bisphenol A	15µmol/L		2 days
Gray et al. 1999	Adult fish	Reproductive behavior	Octylphenol	25µg/L		3 months
Xia et al. 2010	Adult fish	Locomotion	Nonylphenol	100µg/L		2 months
Levine and Cheney 2000	Mollusks	Respiration	Nonylphenol	10µmol/L		1 hour
Nagato et al. 2016	Crustaceans	Anaerobic metabolism	Bisphenol A	0.1mg/L		2 days
M'Rabet et al. 2018	Dinoflagellate	Respiration and photosynthesis	Bisphenol A	2µg/L		1 day
Tetu et al. 2019	Cyanobacteria	Photosynthesis	PVC leachate	1g/L	PP20 ~ 10g/L	3 hours