

Effect of an environmental microplastic mixture from the Seine River and one of the main associated plasticizers, dibutylphthalate, on the sentinel species Hediste diversicolor

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25 antioxidant response, immunity, neurotoxicity and energy and respiratory metabolism were

investigated using biomarkers. After 21 days, worms exposed to MPs showed an increasing aerobic metabolism, an enhancement of both antioxidant and neuroimmune responses. Energy-related biomarkers demonstrated that the energy reallocated to the defence system may come from proteins. A similar impact was depicted after DBP exposure, except for neurotoxicity. Our results provide a better understanding of the ecotoxicological effects of environmental MPs and their associated-contaminants on *H. diversicolor*.

Keywords: Microplastic; dibutylphthalate; *Hediste diversicolor;* Biomarker; Plastics Ecotoxicology; Estuaries

1 Introduction

Environmental concerns have so far not led to a decrease in global plastic production reaching almost 370 million tons in 2019 (PlasticsEurope 2021). It can be predicted an increase of worldwide plastic production and use since 2020 due, among others, to the need of single-use plastics during COVID-19 pandemic (Silva et al. 2021). Therefore, plastic wastes have gradually invaded and accumulated in most ecosystem (Hohn et al. 2020), ending up inevitably in aquatic environments including marine ecosystems. Upon biotic and abiotic degradation processes, macroplastics can be fragmented into microplastics (MPs), nanoplastics (NPs). However, their associated additives are likely to spread through the water leading to health risks to organisms at all levels of biological organization.

Smaller than 5 mm in size, MPs result from the weathering of plastic debris discharged into the environment and can release their own additives and also adsorb external contaminants like POPs (persistent organic pollutants) or heavy metals from their surrounding environment, concentrating them on their surface (Cao et al. 2021). Environmental MPs (EMPs) act as carriers of contaminants during ingestion through the food chain increasing the risks of environmental exposure (Purwiyanto et al. 2020; Mateos-Cardenas et al. 2022; Hasegawa and Nakaoka, 2021). Indeed, once inside the animal's body, contaminants or additives can potentially be released and cause toxic effects on organs and cells (Pannetier et al. 2019a, 2019b; Missawi et al. 2022). Herrera et al. (2022) compared the impact of virgin and EMPs on the European seabass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*) and demonstrated that additives and chemical contaminants adsorbed on EMPs bioaccumulate in fish liver after long-term (60 days) ingestion of MPs.

Among plastic additives, phthalic acid esters (PAEs) are widely used as plasticizer to increase the physical properties of polymers like durability or flexibility during plastic manufacturing. As they develop only weak bonds with plastic polymers, they have been demonstrated to be easily released into environmental compartments (air, water or food) by leaching (Net et al. 2015). Nowadays, it has been shown that all environmental compartments are contaminated by phthalates esters including marine sediments (Cuvillier-Hot et al. 2018; Schmidt et al. 2021; Hidalgo-Serrano et al. 2022). Cuvillier-Hot et al. (2018) reported total phthalates concentrations in sediments sampled from 3 sites (Authie, Gravelines, Boulogne in France) varying from 3.63 66 to 23.88 μ g.g⁻¹ sediment. Hermabessiere et al. (2017) reported phthalate concentrations in sea 67 waters ranging from a few pg L^{-1} to around 10 μ g L^{-1} . Among PAEs, di-n-butyl phthalate (DBP) and bis-2-ethylhexyl phthalate (DEHP) were the most detected in water phase (Zhang et al. 2018; Paluselli et al. 2018), in sediment (Wang et al. 2021) and in certain marine organisms (Hu et al., 2016, 2020; Sun et al. 2021). DBP is considered as an endocrine disruptor and also as a carcinogen, a reproductive toxicant, inducing also immunotoxic effects on various marine aquatic organisms as copepods (Li et al. 2020), mussels (Gu et al. 2021) or swimming crab (He et al. 2022).

Living in sediments, the ragworm *Hediste diversicolor* is a sentinel species of estuarine habitats. As a bioturbator of shallow coastal sediments, it affects the biogeochemical cycles of nutrients

and contaminants including MPs. In addition, *H. diversicolor* populations are important food resources for higher trophic levels such as crabs, flatfish and birds (Scaps and Borot, 2000). This worm has been widely used in ecotoxicological studies (Silva et al. 2020) and has been previously used to assess commercial and environmental microplastic toxicity. Urban-Malinga et al. (2022) exposed *H. diversicolor* during 28 days to sediment spiked with commercial MPs (0.08% sediment d. wt.) leading to neurotoxicity and suppressing the worm antioxidant system 82 function. EMPs $(10 \text{ and } 100 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1})$ were shown to accumulate in *H. diversicolor* (7- and 14-days exposure) in a size dependent manner, reducing survival and growth, affecting neurotransmission and antioxidant pathways (Missawi et al. 2021), inducing metabolomic alterations (amino acid metabolism, energy and osmoregulatory processes) and promoting autophagy and cytoskeleton loss (Missawi et al. 2022). Barrick et al. (2021) underlined in their review the need to investigate the adverse biological and toxic effects of both plastics particles and their chemical additives. One of the challenges of environmental MPs studies is to discriminate the ecotoxicity of initial plastic polymer products, their additives or adsorbed contaminants. The aim of this present study was to explore the adverse effects of chemically characterized EMPs *versus* one of their major co-plasticizers, dibutylphthalate (DBP), on the sentinel species *H. diversicolor*. A suite of biomarkers has been investigated to study the impacts of MPs and DBP on the antioxidant response (catalase and glutathione-S-transferases activities), immunity (phosphatase acid activity), neurotoxicity (acetylcholinesterase activity) and energy and respiratory metabolism (lactate dehydrogenase activity, protein, glycogen and lipid contents and electron transport system activity).

- **2 Materials and methods**
- 2.1 Organism sampling

Ragworms *H. diversicolor* were collected in January 2022 on an intertidal mudflat located on

101 the French Atlantic coast (1° 59′ 02′ 80′ W, 47° 01′ 49.20″ N, Port du Collet, Bay of Bourgneuf, France). This site was considered a reference due to the lack of industrial activity and reduced anthropogenic pressure. During the low tide (water temperature 5°C and salinity 21 practical salinity unit (PSU), worms were carefully hand-collected before being transported in their sediment in cool boxes to the laboratory. Worms were immediately acclimated in aquaria filled with sediment from the sampling site covered with 5 cm of artificial seawater (ASW - Tropic 107 Marin[®]) at 21 PSU, 16 °C \pm 1 °C under a photoperiod of 16h light/8h dark.

2.2 Preparation and characterization of environmental microplastics

Plastic litter was collected in the Seine estuary near Villequier, an active floodplain of 3 ha located on the left riverbank of the Seine River. Presence of plastic debris on the Seine River banks in estuarine zone have been reported in Tramoy et al. (2019, 2020a, 2020b). These macroplastics were used to prepare a representative mixture of environmental microplastics found in the sediment based on Leslie et al. (2017) and Phuong et al. (2018) field analysis. Each macroplastic was first manually fragmented into pieces of around 1 cm² for polymer identification using FTIR spectroscopy (VERTEX 70v, Brucker). Fragments were separated by type of polymer (PE, PP, PVC, PET) and cryogrinded for 2 cycles of 4 consecutive min (Freezer/mill 6770, prex Sampleprep). The powder obtained was then sieved in order to retain only the fraction <100 μm (10 min, Retsch AS 200). The particle size distribution (d10, d50 and d90) was carried out with a Malvern-type laser particle sizer after sieving the powder at 800 µm. The granulometry of the different sampled and cryo-grinded plastic polymers was shown in the supplementary data. The representative mixture of MPs was prepared by mixing 120 mg of PE (40%), 120 mg of PP (40%), 30 mg of PVC (10%) and 30 mg of PET (10%) from grinded environmental macroplastics. The concentration in term of number of particles was not determined. PAE (15 congeners) were analysed for this microplastic mixture, among which dibutylphthalate (DBP) was currently shown as the most concentrated phthalate 126 plasticizer (126 μ g of DBP.g⁻¹ of MPs) representing 60% of total phthalate concentration. The characteristics of the environmental MPs mixture used for *H. diversicolor* exposure experiments are summarised in Table 1, the whole results of the chemical analysis of the MP mixture are shown in the supplementary material. Briefly, three successive solid-liquid extractions with 40 mL of a methanol/dichloromethane/hexane (1/1/1 v/v/v) mixture were carried out. Internal standards of the three families of compounds monitored (Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons-PAH, Alkylphenols-AP, Phthalic acid esters-PAE) have been added beforehand. The first extraction was carried out using an orbital shaker (200 rpm) for 2 h and its fraction was recovered. The two other extractions were performed under sonication for 30 min, then the fractions were collected. All three fractions were combined and filtered on pleated filters in order to remove some particles residues. For phthalates quantification, the final extract was evaporated to dryness using a rotary evaporator then taken up in 5 ml of ethyl acetate before purification on an alumina cartridge (1 g). Then, 100 µL of the purified extracts were analysed by gas chromatography coupled with mass spectrometry (GC-MS). Experimental blanks were performed by preparing samples with solvents and following all the extraction and purification procedure (Gasperi et al. 2022; Flanagan et al. 2018).

143 **Table 1**: Characteristics of the MP mixture: composition (in mass percentage) in polyethylene 144 (PE), polypropylene (PP), polyvinyl chloride (PVC) and polyethylene terephthalate (PET), 145 median size of particles d10, d50, d90 (in μ m) and dibutylphthalate (DBP) concentration (in 146 $mg \cdot kg^{-1} MPs$).

MP mixture	Mass composition	Median size	Median size	Median size
	$\mathscr{G}_{\boldsymbol{\ell}}$	$d10 \, (\mu m)$	$d50 \, (\mu m)$	$d90 \, (\mu m)$
PE	40	14.35	51.49	120.56
PP	40	11.51	51.82	115.46
PVC	10	18.50	62.35	110.50
PET	10	27.46	76.78	144.46

2.3 Experimental set up

Laboratory assays followed the ASTM guidelines (ASTM, 2013) for conducting sediment tests with annelids with some minor adaptations. Worms were sampled outside of their reproduction period and of the similar size to avoid a potential influence of sexual maturity on biomarker responses. A set of 8 bioassay units consisted of 5L-aquaria filled with 3 kg of wet homogenized artificial sediments (90% Quartz; 9% Kaolinite; 1% CaCO3). The representative mixture of MPs was prepared (40% PE, 40% PP, 10% PVC, 10% PET) and placed in 50 mL of 21 psu artificial salt water (ASW). The MPs suspension was homogenised within 3 kg of artificial sediment, corresponding to the "Microplastics" (MP) exposure condition at 100 mg.kg⁻¹ (2 ± 157) aquaria). As DBP was the most represented additive measured in the MPs mixture (126.6 mg DBP.kg⁻¹ MPs), it was used in parallel at an equivalent concentration corresponding to the "Phthalate" (P) exposure condition (2 aquaria). To this end, a stock solution of DBP was 161 prepared at 1 μ g. μ L⁻¹ in methanol (w/v) (HPLC grade, Fisher scientific). Then, 38 μ L of this stock solution (corresponding to 38 µg of DBP, the quantity associated with 300 mg MPs) were added to 50 mL of ASW and homogenised within 3 kg of sediment. As methanol was used as a solvent for DBP powder dissolution to prepare the DBP spike solution, 38 µL of methanol (same batch as the one used to dissolve DBP powder) was added to 50mL of ASW homogenised with 3 kg of sediment corresponding to the "solvent" (S) exposure (2 aquaria). A "control" (C) exposure condition was conducted by mixing 50 mL of ASW within 3 kg of sediment (2 aquaria). The appropriate spiking concentration was introduced in the corresponding aquarium and manually mixed for 10 min with a stainless-steel spatula. The sediment was then covered with 500 mL of 21 psu ASW under aeration. The chosen concentration of exposure (100 mg MPs.kg⁻¹ sediment) represents the concentration found in sediment at the outlet of a sewage treatment plant and was described by Missawi et al. (2021) as the one allowing MPs uptake in *H. diversicolor* and leading to a clear response in term of biomarkers.

A total of 192 organisms *Hediste diversicolor* were washed in ASW and then randomly distributed into each aquarium and exposed for 4 and 21 days to the 4 conditions prior to biomarker and energy reserves analysis. When adding worms in the aquaria, aeration was stopped for 15 min to allow organisms to settle undisturbed in the sediment. A constant aeration was then applied to oxygenate the water of each aquarium before endpoints covering them with glass plates to avoid MPs contamination from the ambient air and evaporation. During 180 exposure, controlled temperature of 16 $^{\circ}$ C \pm 1 $^{\circ}$ C and photoperiod of 16h light:8h dark were applied. *H. diversicolor* individuals were fed every 2 days at 2% of their biomass with "Goldfish Tetra ©" fish food (Madeira et al. 2021). After 4 and 21 days of exposure to the 4 conditions, worms for biomarkers (n=9) and energy reserves (n=15) analysis were gently collected from sediment, rapidly rinsed in clean ASW to remove adsorbed particles, weighed and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and then stored at -80 °C until investigation.

2.4 Biomarker analysis

Enzyme activities (catalase-CAT, Glutathione-S-transferase-GST, Lactate dehydrogenase-LDH, acetylcholinesterase-AChE, phosphatase acid-PA) were quantified in whole individuals (n=9). First, the worms were thawed, weighed and homogenized, on ice, in Tris buffer at pH 7.2 (Tris-HCl 0.008M (Trizma-base Sigma® T6791); NaCl 0.02M (Sigma® S9888); DTT 1mM (Sigma® 8349-12-3); CIP 1/1000 (Protease Inhibitor Cocktail, Sigma® P8340)). The homogenates were then centrifuged either at 3300 g at 4°C for 5 min for LDH analysis or at 9000 g at 4°C for 30 min for the other enzymatic analysis (CAT, GST, AChE, PA). The amount

195 of total protein was quantified using Bradford method (Bradford, 1976). CAT activity was neasured spectrophotometrically at 240 nm ($ε = 0.04$ mM⁻¹.cm⁻¹; UviLine® 9600) at 25°C, 197 following the dismutation of hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) (Claiborne et al. 1985). Specific 198 activity was expressed in nmoles.min⁻¹.mg⁻¹ of protein. GST activity was measured 199 spectrophotometrically at 340 nm ($ε = 9.6$ mM⁻¹.cm⁻¹ TECAN® Sunrise) at 25°C by observing 200 the conjugation of the 1-chloro-2,4-dinitrobenzene (CDNB) and the L-glutathione reduced 201 (GSH) (Habig et al. 1974). Specific activity was expressed in μ moles.min⁻¹.mg⁻¹ of protein. 202 AChE activity was determined spectrophotometrically at 412 nm (TECAN® Sunrise) at 25^oC, 203 monitoring the conversion of acetylthiocholine into thiocholine in the presence of 5,5-dithiobis 204 (2-nitrobenzoic acid) called DTNB (Ellman et al. 1961; Galgani and Bocquene 1991). The specific activity is expressed in nmoles.min⁻¹.mg⁻¹ protein. Phosphatase acid (PA) activity was 206 determined spectrophotometrically at 340 nm ($\varepsilon = 18.3$ mM⁻¹.cm⁻¹; TECAN® Sunrise; Acid 207 phosphatase Assay kit Sigma® CS0740), measuring the appearance of p-nitrophenol (pNP) by 208 the hydrolysis of p-nitrophenylphosphate (4-NPP) at 37° C and expressed in nmoles.min⁻¹.mg⁻¹ 209 of protein.

210

211 2.5 Energy-related biomarkers

212 LDH activity was measured spectrophotometrically at 340nm ($\epsilon = 6220 \text{ M}^{-1} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1} \text{ TECAN}$ ® Sunrise) at 30°C, following oxidized NAD appearance (Diamantino et al. 2001). Specific 214 activity was expressed in μ moles.min⁻¹.mg⁻¹ of protein. Energy reserves were quantified as lipids, glycogen and proteins content of the organism. For each condition, 15 worms were individually ground in liquid nitrogen, then the powder was homogenized with a motorized grinder in a Tris magnesium buffer (0.1 M Tris-HCl pH 8.5, 0.4 M MgSO4, 15% 218 polyvinylpyrrolidone and 0.2% (w/v) Triton X-100). Total lipids were determined by the sulfo-phospho-vanillin reaction and measured spectrophotometrically at 540 nm (TECAN® Sunrise)

220 (Frings et al. 1972). Total lipids concentration was expressed as mg. g^{-1} of fresh weight (FW). 221 Glycogen content was estimated using enzymatic digestion by amyloglucosidase and measured 222 spectrophotometrically (TECAN® Sunrise) at 420 nm (Carr and Neff, 1984). Glycogen concentration was expressed as mg. g^{-1} of FW. For protein quantification and ETS (Electron 224 Transport System) activity, the homogenates were centrifuged at 3000 g, 10 min at 4 °C. Protein concentration was quantified using Bradford method (Bradford, 1976) and expressed as mg. g-225 226 ¹ of FW. ETS activity was determined according to a protocol adapted from De Coen and 227 Janssen (1997), based on the reduction of p-iodonitrotetrazolium as the final electron acceptor 228 of the mitochondrial respiratory chain. 50 μL of supernatant was mixed to 150 μL of buffer 229 solution (0.13 M Tris base; 0.27% (v/v) Triton X-100; 1.7 mM NADH; 274 μM NADPH) and 230 the reaction was started by adding 100 μL of INT solution (p-iodonitrotetrazolium; 8 mM). The 231 absorbance was measured spectrophotometrically at 20 °C for 10 min at 490 nm (TECAN® 232 Sunrise). Oxygen consumption rate conversion was calculated based on the stoichiometric 233 relationship, whereby for every 2 mmoles of formazan formed, 1 mmole of oxygen is 234 consumed. The oxygen consumed was then quantify related to the formazan formed ($\epsilon_{\text{INT for maxan}}$) $= 15,900 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$. The potential Energy consumption (Ec) after four days (T4) and 21 days 236 exposure (T21) was calculated based on ETS activity using an average oxyenthalpic equivalents 237 of 484 kJ.mol⁻¹ O_2 for combustion of an average mixture of protein, lipid and glycogen 238 (Gnaiger, 1983) and expressed as $mJ.mg^{-1}$ FW.h⁻¹ (De Coen and Janssen, 1997). The energy 239 reserve fractions: available energy (Ea) was calculated as the sum of lipid, glycogen and protein 240 contents transformed into energy equivalents and expressed in mJ mg⁻¹ FW using their energy 241 of combustion, respectively 39.5 J mg⁻¹, 17.5 J mg⁻¹ and 24 J mg⁻¹ (Gnaiger, 1983). Thus, 242 CEA (cellular energy allocation) value, representing the total energy budget, and expressed in 243 h^{-1} (Smolders et al. 2004), was calculated by the ratio Ea /Ec, with: Ea = E _{Lipids} + E _{Glycogen} + E 244 $_{\text{Proteins}}$ (mJ mg ⁻¹ FW) and Ec = ETS activity (mJ mg ⁻¹ FW h⁻¹).

No difference of worm biometric parameters (size and weight) were noticed at the end of experiment between conditions.

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2.6 Statistical analysis

Normality of data distribution and homogeneity of variance were tested using the Shapiro-Wilk test and Bartlett test, respectively. Data analysis was performed at 5% alpha level using XLSTAT 2019 software (4.2.63762). If the data did not meet the conditions for parametric tests, Kruskal-Wallis tests were therefore used to test for differences between the treatments. If the overall test was significant, a Dunn procedure was performed to determine which means were significantly different. If the data followed the conditions for application of parametric tests, an ANOVA was used to test for differences between the treatments. If the overall test was significant, a Tukey post hoc test was performed to determine which means were significantly different. The means are given with their standard deviations (SD). The statistical analysis using the Principal Components Analysis (PCA) was carried out with XLSTAT 2019 software 260 (4.2.63762) and the significance of the correlation was tested by the Pearson test (α = 0.05). The PCAs were performed on a matrix containing all the studied parameters for the four treatments (C, S, P and MP).

3 Results

3.1 Oxidative stress and detoxication

After 4 days (T4), no significant difference of *H. diversicolor* catalase (CAT) specific activity (SA)was observed after microplastic (MP) exposure compared to control (C) and after phthalates (P) exposure compared to the solvent (Figure 1A). The S and P treatments led to a 269 significant CAT decrease when compared to the C and MP treatments. After 21 days (T21) of

exposure, a significant inhibition of CAT activity was observed only for worms exposed to solvent compared to the other treatments (Figure 1B). A CAT SA increase was depicted between both time of exposure for all the conditions (T4 and T21).

Concerning Glutathione-S-Transferase (GST) activity, after 4 days of exposure, a significant inhibition was depicted in the worms exposed to microplastic (MP) compared to the control one (Figure 1A). No significant difference was observed comparing worms exposed to DBP (P) to those exposed to solvent (S), both activities were significantly lower than the control (C) one. After 21 days of exposure (Figure 1B), a significant increase of GST activity was depicted in the all exposed *H. diversicolor* compared to control: the increase was significant comparing MP exposed worms to the control, but not significant comparing P exposed worms to the solvent treatment. Comparing both time exposures (T4 and T21), the mean value of GST activities increased for MP, S and P treatments, while it decreased for the control one.

3.2 Neurotoxicity

After 4 days of exposure (Figure 1A), compared to the control, a significant increase of the acetylcholinesterase (AChE) activity was observed in worms exposed to MP. No significant difference was depicted for the S and P treatments. After 21 days of exposure, a significant increase of AChE activity was depicted after worm exposure to MP compared to the control (Figure 1B). AChE activity was significantly lower in the worms exposed to P compared to S.

3.3 Immunity

After 4 days of exposure, a significant increase in the phosphatase acid (PA) activity after worm exposure to Phthalate (P) and compared to methanol (S) (Figure 1A). After 21 days (Figure 1B), a significant increase of the PA activity was depicted in worms exposed to MP and P compared to the control and the solvent exposures respectively.

Figure 1 Mean (a) catalase (CAT), (b) glutathione-S-transferase (GST), (c) acetylcholinesterase 297 (AChE) and (d) phosphatase acid (PA) specific activities (mean \pm standard deviation) after 4 days (A) and 21 days (B) of *H. diversicolor* exposure to 4 conditions: C: Control; S: Solvent; 299 P: Phthalate (dibutylphthalate 0.126 μ g. g MP⁻¹); MP: Microplastic (100mg.kg⁻¹ sediment). N=9 for each condition. For each time exposure, different letters indicate significant differences

301 between conditions ($p \le 0.05$), while the same letter indicates no significant difference between treatments.

3.4 Energy-related biomarkers

After 4 days of exposure, no difference of the lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) activity was depicted between worms exposed to MP *vs* C and to P *vs* S. A significant inhibition was demonstrated after exposure to solvent and phthalate compared to control and MP (Figure 2). After 21 days (Figure 3), only a significant inhibition of LDH was observed for worms exposed to MP compared to C. No significant difference in glycogen and lipid content was observed in MP exposed worms compared to the control whatever the time of exposure (Figures 2 and 3). At T4 and T21, both contents were significantly higher in P exposed worms compared to S treatment. Concerning the protein content, significant higher levels were observed after 4 days of worm exposure to MP and P compared, respectively, to C and S treatments, whereas after 21 days, a significant decrease was observed comparing MP to C and P to S treatments (Figures 2 and 3). ETS, corresponding to the consumption energy (Ec), was significantly higher after both time exposures for MP and P conditions when compared respectively to C and S treatments (Figure 2 and 3). The available energy (Ea) was significantly higher at T4 (Figure 2) and lower at T21 (Figure 3) for both MP and P exposures compared, respectively, to C and S treatments. CEA was significantly lower at T4 (Figure 2) for worms exposed to P compared to S treatment, and at T21 (Figure 3) for MP and P condition compared, respectively, to C and S conditions.

Figure 2 Mean (a) lactate dehydrogenase activity (LDH), (b) glycogen, (c) lipid and (d) protein contents, (e) ETS (Electron Transport System) activity *e.g* Energy consumption (Ec), (f) Energy available (Ea) and (g) cellular energy allocation (CEA) in *H. diversicolor* (mean ± standard deviation) after 4 days exposure to 4 conditions: C: Control; S: Solvent; P: Phthalate (dibutylphthalate 0.126 µg. g MP⁻¹); MP: Microplastic (100mg.kg⁻¹ sediment). N=15 for each condition. For each time exposure, different letters indicate significant differences between conditions ($p \le 0.05$), while the same letter indicates no significant difference between treatments.

Figure 3 Mean (a) lactate dehydrogenase activity (LDH), (b) glycogen, (c) lipid and (d) protein contents, (e) ETS (Electron Transport System) activity *e.g* Energy consumption (Ec), (f) Energy available (Ea) and (g) cellular energy allocation (CEA) in *H. diversicolor* (mean ± standard deviation) after 21 days exposure to 4 conditions: C: Control; S: Solvent; P: Phthalate (dibutylphthalate 0.126 µg. g MP⁻¹); MP: Microplastic (100mg.kg⁻¹ sediment). N=15 for each condition. For each time exposure, different letters indicate significant differences between 338 conditions ($p \le 0.05$), while the same letter indicates no significant difference between treatments.

The average variations in significant specific biomarker activities between the control and MP, P and S treatments (Table 2) showed that MPs do not have a significant impact on CAT activity, glycogen and lipid contents, but modified all other studied biomarker activities especially after 21 days. The main increase was ETS activity (197%), PA (71%) and GST (68.6%) activities. DBP caused also an increase in ETS activity (332%) and PA (43.1%) activities. Both MP and DBP impacted protein content (-38.9 and –39.8% respectively) and CEA (-75.4% and –85.7% respectively).

Table 2 Significant difference (p<0.05) in *H. diversicolor* specific activities of biomarkers (CAT: catalase; GST: glutathione-S-transferase; LDH: lactate dehydrogenase; AChE: acetylcholinesterase; PA: phosphatase acid; LIP: lipid content; GLY: glycogen content; PROT: protein content; ETS (Electron Transport System) activity e.g. Energy consumption (Ec); Ea: available energy; CEA: cellular energy allocation) after 4 days (T4) and 21 days (T21) of exposure to Solvent (S), Phthalate (P), Microplastic (MP), at T4 and T21, expressed as percentages as compared to control (C). Only significant differences are represented (light green to dark green: increase and yellow to red: decrease).

3.6 Principal component analysis

PCA was conducted using two dimensions, representing 67% of the total inertia (39.35 for PC1 and 27.63 for PC2) (Figure 4 and details in supplementary material). PC1 is mainly explained (>10%) by five biomarkers (LDH, Glycogen, Protein, ETS activity, Ea) and PC2 by four (PA, 378 Lipid, ETS activity and CEA). A positive significant correlation (Pearson test, α =0.05, supplementary material) was established between Ea and PROT and between PA and ETS

380 activity. A significant negative correlation (Pearson test, α =0.05) was depicted between GST and Ea, and between CEA, PA and ETS activity. GST, CAT and AChE were grouped, showing low contribution to both axis as ETS activity and PA, which were also grouped together. LDH was grouped to PROT and Ea. On the biplot, two conditions of exposure corresponding to T21 P and T21 MP were clearly associated together and contributed to PC1 axis (>30%).

Biplot (PC1 and PC2; inertia: 66.97%)

386

387 Figure 4: Principal component analysis (PCA) of the effect of microplastic (MP), 388 dibutylphthalate (P), methanol (S) and control exposure (C) for 4 days (T4) and 21 days (T21) 389 on oxidative stress (GST, CAT), neurotoxicity (AChE), immunity (PA), and energy-related 390 metabolism: LDH, protein (PROT), lipids (LIP), glycogen (GLY), ETS (Energy consumption), 391 CA and CEA on *H. diversicolor*. For each axis, eigenvalues and inertia values are indicated. 392 The table below summarizes the contributions to the axes of each variable (percentage).

4 Discussion

The Seine estuary is highly impacted by human activities and therefore by plastic pollution. Tramoy et al. (2019, 2020a, 2020b) referred to the Seine estuary as a "microplastic factory" describing the dynamics of plastics between land and ocean, leading to the slow degradation of macroplastics into MPs before reaching the ocean. Once in the marine environment, most MPs tend to sink and accumulate on the seabed and in the sediments, acting as MPs tanks (Van Cauwenberghe et al. 2015b). The chemical analysis of the MP mixture used in this study showed dibutylphthalate (DBP) as the most representative phthalic acid esters (PAE) associated with macroplastics debris originated from the Seine estuary. DBP is known to be used as a plasticizer representing 10% to 35% of the typical concentration associated with PUR and soft PVC polymers (ECHA, 2022). The toxic effects of environmental MPs obtained from a mixture of those debris and the equivalent content in DBP were investigated on the ragworm *H. diversicolor*.

4.1 Microplastic effects on worms

Our results first showed that the mixture of environmental MPs used for exposure, at the 410 concentration of 100 mg. kg⁻¹ of sediment, caused metabolic disorders on *H. diversicolor*. The duration of the exposure to environmental MPs caused different impacts with the longer exposure (21 days) leading to significant level changes for 8 biomarkers out of the 11 studied, whereas only 5 had their levels impacted after 4 days of exposure (Table 2). The 4 days exposure to EMPs impacted the phase II antioxidant system of worms and induced a weak neurotoxic response. These results are in accordance with the study of Missawi et al. (2021) which showed impairments of neurotransmission and antioxidant pathways on *H. diversicolor* 417 exposed to an equivalent concentration of an environmental MPs mixture $(100 \text{ mg. kg}^{-1})$ sediment). Concerning the energy metabolism, after 4 days exposure, the protein content increased, together with an increase in ETS and Ea. After 21 days of exposure to MPs, an enhancement of the antioxidant system (GST), neurotoxicity (AChE), immunity (PA) was depicted while energy metabolism was also strongly impacted. No change in the level of antioxidant enzyme catalase (CAT) was observed even though its level increased during the exposure. The high level of CAT activity and its increase between both times (30-40 µmol.min- 1.1 mg^{-1} protein after 4 days and 60-70 μ mol.min⁻¹.mg⁻¹ protein after 21 days exposure) could be the result of a stress induced by the experimental conditions of exposure as previously reported on *Hediste diversicolor* by Pedro et al. (2022). Studies conducted on *H. diversicolor* previously demonstrated that MPs entered the body of worm when exposed through sediment (Revel et al. 2018; Missawi et al. 2021). It has been shown that the feeding mode of this worm as deposit-feeder could enhance the accumulation of MPs through ingestion (Pires et al. 2022). Once into the gut, it could disrupt essential intestinal function promoting cellular metabolism disorders (Hirt and Body-Malapel, 2020). Defence mechanisms are then set up at the cellular level to counter the excess of ROS. Generally, both catalase and GST are part of the antioxidant system reducing excess of ROS (reactive oxygen species), whose increase was triggered by several pollutants in invertebrates (De Marco et al. 2022). In our study, ROS excess did not seem to be eliminated by catalase, which usually acts as an antioxidant enzyme, directly scavenging ROS 436 by neutralising acute burst of H_2O_2 . Another pathway seems to be used involving GST, a phase II enzyme of detoxification and excretion of endogenous compounds and oxidative stress products (Trestrail et al. 2020). However, these mechanisms didn't seem sufficient to reduce the ROS effects and after 21 days of exposure, the energy metabolism was also impaired. Lactate dehydrogenase, as an enzyme of anaerobic metabolism, is mainly involved in the energetic homeostasis equilibrium of the cells and its level assess the metabolic state of the organism (Moreira et al. 2006). After 21 days of exposure, its inhibition may demonstrate that the anaerobic pathways of energy production were also inhibited when the worms faced the effect of MPs exposure. Concomitantly, the ETS activity increase (197.9% vs control) in worms exposed to MPs is related to an enhancement of the cellular aerobic metabolism and energy consumption (Ec). Increase in ETS activity were previously reported in *H. diversicolor* exposed to PS (polystyrene) nanoparticles $(0.005 \text{ to } 50 \text{ mg} L^{-1})$ (Silva et al. 2020), to arsenic $(50 \text{ µg} L^{-1})$ $^{-1}$) after a parental exposure to 100 nm PS nanoparticles (28 days; 0.005 mg.L⁻¹) (Silva et al. 2022), to mercury (Freitas et al. 2017), and to multi-walled carbon nanoparticles (De Marchi et al. 2018), but also in mussels *Mytilus edulis* exposed to PS microplastics on the field (Van Cauwenberghe et al. 2015a). ETS activity measures the metabolic capacity throughout the oxygen consumption and stands out as an even more relevant biomarker of stress when combined with the quantification of energy reserves (Pedro et al. 2022). ETS activity can be the reflect of the metabolic need in energy by the worm to detoxify its body. Since the glycogen and lipid levels were not impacted by exposure to MPs in our study, the energy reallocated to the defence system may come from proteins. Previous studies showed that glycogen alone (Silva et al. 2022) or in combination with protein (Freitas et al. 2017, De Marchi et al. 2018) were the main energy source of *H. diversicolor* to face a stress caused by contaminant exposure. In contrast, Silva et al. (2020) demonstrate that glycogen content was not modified by the tested exposure conditions of *H.diversicolor* to polystyrene nanoplastics at 0, 0.005, 0.05, 0.5 and 50 $m_{\text{g}}L^{-1}$. Worm's fitness could be impacted by the energy cost related to repairing cells and maintaining homeostasis, by promoting defence mechanisms to the detriment of other physiological functions such as growth or reproduction (Smolders et al. 2004, Mouneyrac et al. 464 2010). The negative correlation highlighted between CEA and ETS activity and the positive one between Ea and protein level were in accordance with the results obtained by Pham et al. (2023), who studied the additive effect of copper and warming on *Hediste diversicolor*. CEA was shown as an ecologically relevant biomarker to study environmental stressors on worms. The conditions of exposure combining feeding and aeration could allow the worms to maintain

their energy reserves. Under the effect of stress, CEA decreased representing the time of survival for the worms under energy reserves depletion (Pham et al 2023). The strong contribution of the longer time of exposure (21 days) to PC1 on the PCA highlighted the necessity of using long-term exposure as underlined by Li et al (2020). Moreover, the aerobic respiration rate increase causes an elevation of ROS levels, which is consistent with the GST increase depicted in our study (Trestrail et al. 2020). A somewhat unexpected result concerned neurotoxicity. Indeed, AChE is considered to be a biomarker of neurotoxicity, whose activity has, according to many chemicals' exposure studies (Deidda et al 2021, Parrino et al. 2021, De Marco et al. 2022), a tendency to be inhibited by contaminant expressing anticholinergic properties, as previously demonstrated in *H. diversicolor* (Urban-Malinga et al. 2022, Abouda et al. 2022). However, several studies showed that neurotoxicity may also be mediated by apoptosis. Xie et al. (2016) attributed the induction of AChE activity to both apoptosis and inhibition of the muscarinic cholinergic receptor in the brain of the crucian carp (*Carassius auratus*) exposed to diphenhydramine. Kim and Lee (2018), in their review on invertebrate's acetylcholinesterases, described AChE as a putative stress regulator, exhibiting additional non-neuronal physiological functions. This is in accordance with more ancient studies showing AChE enhancement after exposure of zebrafish to neurotoxic compounds such as aluminium (Senger et al. 2011) or ethanol (Rico et al. 2007). According to Barboza et al. (2020), AChE activity may be induced in response to oxidative stress and damage due to MPs exposure in 3 marine fish (*Dicentrarchus labrax*, *Trachurus trachurus* and *Scober colias*), which inflamed cells and tissues need higher acetylcholine level compared to non-exposed ones. Our conclusion is in accordance with Barboza et al. (2020), the enhancement of AChE, could be a signal of neurologic alterations even if the molecular mechanisms of related to cholinergic signalling are until now not well characterised in worms. Moreover, at T21, the phosphatase acid activity was also enhanced demonstrating alteration in lysosomal membrane and consequently of the

4.2 DBP effects on worms

As dibutylphthalate was the main additive measured in the MPs mixture used in this study, its effect on the worm was studied in parallel at an equivalent concentration. In our study, methanol was used as a solvent control allowing the comparison of exposure with DBP, as methanol was used to dissolve DBP powder. Whatever the duration of the exposure of worms, and compared to control, methanol impacted all enzymatic activities (CAT, GST, AChE, PA, LDH) except AChE and PA after 4 and 21 days of exposure, respectively. This led us to disregard the major enzymatic responses depicted after DBP exposure of worm. To our knowledge, the literature on the toxicity of methanol on invertebrates is relatively scarce. According to Kaviraj et al. (2004), methanol is lowly toxic to aquatic organisms and the estimated concentration of methanol that produces no observed effect (NOEC) to freshwater ecosystem in chronic 508 exposure is 23.75 mg. L^{-1} . However, after 4 days exposure, the activities of CAT, GST and LDH decreased in the worm exposed to methanol and after 21 days of exposure all the enzymatic biomarkers activities and lipid content were impacted. This conduct to consider the conjugate effect of methanol and DBP for the impacted biomarkers and relativize the impact of DBP on most enzyme activities that may be due to the presence of methanol. This reflects the difficulty to study the effect of environmental plastic as they correspond to a mixture of different type of plastic with different additives or adsorbed contaminants.

The only clear effects of DBP, except from those of the solvent, was related to an increase in PA activity at both exposure duration and an alteration of the cellular aerobic metabolism: an increase in protein content, ETS and EA, a decrease of CEA after 4 days exposure; a decrease in protein content, EA, CEA and an increase of ETS activity after 21 days of exposure. Those

effects of DBP on worms are relatively similar to those due to MP exposure. However, no other effect, particularly concerning enzymatic activities (CAT, GST, AChE, LDH) can be attributed directly to DBP due to the presence of the solvent. DBP has been previously shown to be the most toxic phthalate among PAE (Li et al 2020) causing oxidative damages on the swimming crab *Portunus trituberculatus* (He et al. 2022), both oxidative and energy metabolism disturbances on the marine mussel *Mytilus coruscus* (Gu et al. 2021), oxidative stress, lipid peroxidation and DNA damage in zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) liver (Song et al. 2022) and to disrupt embryonic development in a sessile marine invertebrate *Galeolaria caespitosa* (Lu et al. 2017). Berenstein et al. (2022) demonstrated the potential impact of DBP, issued from the degradation of horticultural PE covers and migrating to the soil, on the earthworm (*Eisenia andrei)* reproduction. Comparing the patterns of response between MP and DBP exposure of *H. diversicolor*, significant difference was only shown for AChE activity after 21 days of exposure. This could be linked to an effect of the type of polymer plastic on, principally, neurotoxicity for the long-term exposure, mainly to the other additives linked to the MP and their bioavailability. In our study, direct exposure of worms to bioavailable DBP, not bound to materials like organic matter, could lead to higher toxicity. Upon exposure to MP, DBP could also be released by MP, which could have been embrittled during the cryo-grinding. Chi et al. (2021) demonstrated that the bioavailability of DBP was dependant of the type and the concentration of MPs in sediments. The environmental MP mixture used in this study was composed by four types of plastic polymers (PE 40%, PP 40%, PET 10%, PVC 10%), whose neurotoxicity has already been demonstrated, such as $PE/PP \text{ (m/m)}$ mixture (0.06 g.kg⁻¹ of sand) on *Donax trunculus* (Tlili et al. 2020) and reviewed on different organism by Prokić et al. (2019). Further study on *H. diversicolor* reproduction and behaviour is needed to better characterize the impact of DBP and MPs on this species and the potential consequences at the population level and ecosystem levels. Zimmerman et al. (2020) demonstrated that the plastic chemical contribution to toxicity on *Daphnia magna* was plastic type-specific associated to chemicals for PVC, and to the mere particle for polyurethane (PUR) and polyactic acid (PLA) microplastics. Gomiero et al. (2018) compared the adverse effect on *H. diversicolor* exposed to sediment spiked with PVC MPs, with or without adsorbed benzo(a)pyrene B[a]P, or with benzo(a)pyrene alone, demonstrating the effective role of MPs as vectors of contaminant and the efficient transfer of this organic compound from sediment to the worm's coelomocytes leading to a greater adverse response when MPs were previously combined with B[a]P.

5 Conclusion

In conclusion, our study showed an impact of environmental microplastics on the worm *H. diversicolor* after 4 days and 21 days exposure. Can we link directly the effect of environmental MPs to the presence of DBP? DBP has been chosen in the present study as it represented the most abundant chemical found on plastics collected in the Seine River, but the presence of the methanol as a solvent control during exposure interfered with the response of worms to DBP. In general, similar pattern were observed in worms exposed to MP and DBP principally on energy-related biomarkers indicating that DBP seems to be responsible of MP toxicity in tested organisms. However, AChE, GST and LDH activities showed different induction when animals were exposed to DBP *vs* MP, indicating that for these responses, type of plastic itself caused lipid peroxidation leading to neurotoxic responses. Moreover, the environmental MPs used in this study are associated with many other contaminants as metals or hydrophobic organic contaminants such as PAHs, whose concentrations are much lower than DBP one. This highlight the fact that studying the effects of additives are complex and additional studies must be conducted in order to understand how all these contaminants are released in the sediment depending on the concentration, environmental and physical parameters. All these factors could also influence MP ingestion and the release of the adsorb contaminant in the sediment or in the worms and must be not neglected.

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Compliance with Ethical Standards

Ethical Approval: Not applicable. This article does not contain any studies with human participants. The animal used in this article is an aquatic invertebrate.

Consent to Participate: All authors agreed with the content of this article.

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Authors Contributions: Macroplastics were sampled by Romain Tramoy. The microplastics were generated and analysed by Fabienne Lagarde and Florane Le Bihanic. Chemical analysis of the microplastics were conducted by Johnny Gasperi, Emilie Caupos and Lila Boudhamane. Amélie Châtel, Isabelle Métais, Messika Revel and Coraline Roman conducted the conceptualization and the methodology of the experiment. Coraline Roman, Hanane Perrein-Ettajani, Mohammed Mouloud, Isabelle Métais, Amélie Châtel sampled the worm and conducted the lab MP exposure. Enzymatic biomarker analysis was performed by Coraline Roman and Isabelle Métais. Energy-related biomarker analysis was conducted by Hanane Perrein-Ettajani, Mohammed Mouloud and Antoine Le Guernic. The first draft of the manuscript was written by Isabelle Métais and all authors commented on previous versions of

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