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CONSERVAÇÃO DA NATUREZA**

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**The use of ciliated microeukaryotes and zooplankton in ecotoxicological studies: a
look into the future**

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Tese de doutorado apresentada ao Programa de Pós-Graduação em Biodiversidade e Conservação da Natureza, Instituto de Ciências Biológicas da Universidade Federal de Juiz de Fora, como requisito parcial para obtenção do título de Doutor.

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Preamble

The present thesis was based on two important paradigms to aquatic ecotoxicology: the first is related to the importance of studying different groups of organisms, their ecological representativeness, and the intrinsic characteristics that classify them as potential models for ecotoxicological studies, taking into account the detailed review of the applied methodologies, the main problems and possible solutions for perfect and/or develop reproducible test protocols for conducting laboratory bioassays; the second one corresponds to the importance of studying not only the individual effects of environmental stressors but also their combination in a climate change scenario, in order to know what are the responses of aquatic organisms at the level of population and community and the consequences of these effects for ecosystem processes and services. Therefore, this thesis was elaborated and organized in four chapters, divided into two sections: Section 1 included reviews chapters with the history of ecotoxicological studies using ciliated microeukaryotes and, a meta-analysis showing the sensitivity of ciliate species to different heavy metals, discussing the main problems, gaps and future perspectives for bioassays. Section 2 included two experimental studies, the first one is a study with ciliate species (e.g., *Paramecium caudatum*) as a model organism exposed to caffeine, presenting a more refined methodology compared to what was found in literature and discussions regarding the ecological implications, the imminent risk that this substance has for aquatic ecosystems, and the other one an experimental study evaluating the effect of multiple stressors on the zooplankton community in a climate change scenario, which was carried out during the Doctorate Sandwich period in Spain.

Abstract

Aquatic ecosystems have been affected by different human activities (e.g., urbanization, industrial and agricultural activities) and hence, changing the water quality, the process, and function exercised by these environments. The evaluation of water quality through ecotoxicological studies has become an effective tool for understanding the effects of pollutants on biological communities, allowing the measurement of anthropogenic effects on aquatic systems. The use of microeukaryotes ciliates as bioindicators has been identified as a great potential for assessing water quality, however, these organisms are still neglected in ecotoxicological fields being necessary to enlarge the studies with these organisms. Moreover, the interaction effect among more than one environmental stressor (e.g., chemical contaminant, temperature) also needs to be more study due to the complexity of the aquatic ecosystems functioning. In the present study, we demonstrated through three chapters that the microeukaryotes ciliates can be included in the ecotoxicological studies since as long as they are expanded the classical ecotoxicological studies where it is possible to develop standard methods and deepen knowledge. Furthermore, a fourth chapter showed the interaction between more than one environmental stressor could contribute to a biodiversity decline and even, future research should be dedicated to assessing different interactions in the Mediterranean aquatic ecosystems. (Chapter 1) By means of a mini review, and discussed a brief history, the current scenario and pointing out their methodological approaches gaps of the ecotoxicological studies with ciliates. (Chapter 2) Performing a meta-analysis, we assessed the available toxicity data of heavy metals and ciliates. The results showed the tolerance of ciliates to heavy metals varies notably being partly influenced by differences in methodological conditions across studies. Moreover, most ciliates are tolerant to heavy metal pollution than the standard test species used in ecotoxicological risk assessments, i.e., *Raphidocelis subcapitata*, *Daphnia magna*, and *Onchornyncus mykiss*. Finally, this study highlighted the importance of developing standard toxicity test protocols for ciliates, which could lead to a better comprehension of the toxicological impact of heavy metals and other contaminants on ciliate species. (Chapter 3) By means of ecotoxicological tests, this study demonstrated the tolerance of *Paramecium caudatum* to caffeine. The results showed that this species had higher resistance in the environment. Even, we observed a moderate risk for *P. caudatum* regarding maximum environmental concentrations of caffeine in surface freshwater being that the global distribution of caffeine and the probability of increasing environmental concentrations highlight the need for more studies to better understand caffeine in aquatic ecosystems and the associated risks. (Chapter 4) Finally, by means of an indoor microcosm experiment, it was demonstrated that the temperature can influence the direct and indirect effects of salinity and pesticides on zooplankton communities in Mediterranean coastal wetlands and highlights vulnerable taxa and ecological responses that are expected to dominate under future global change scenarios.

Keywords: aquatic ecosystems, ciliates, ecotoxicology, multiple stressors, zooplankton.

Resumo

Os ecossistemas aquáticos vêm sendo afetados por diferentes atividades humanas (e.g., urbanização, atividades industriais e agrícolas) e, portanto, alterando a qualidade da água, os processos e as funções exercidas por esses ambientes. A avaliação da qualidade da água por meio de estudos ecotoxicológicos tem se tornado uma ferramenta eficaz para o entendimento dos efeitos dos poluentes nas comunidades biológicas, permitindo a mensuração dos efeitos antrópicos nos sistemas aquáticos. O uso de microeucariotos ciliados como bioindicadores tem sido apontado como um grande potencial para avaliação da qualidade da água, entretanto, esses organismos ainda são negligenciados no campo da ecotoxicologia sendo necessário ampliar os estudos com esses organismos. Além disso, o efeito de interação entre mais de um estressor ambiental (e.g., contaminantes químico, temperatura) também precisa ser mais estudado devido à complexidade do funcionamento dos ecossistemas aquáticos. No presente estudo, foi demonstrado por meio de três capítulos que os microeucariotos ciliados podem ser incluídos nos estudos ecotoxicológicos desde que sejam expandidos os estudos ecotoxicológicos clássicos onde é possível desenvolver métodos padronizados e aprofundar os conhecimentos. Além disso, um quarto capítulo mostrou que a interação entre mais de um estressor ambiental poderia contribuir para o declínio da biodiversidade e, mesmo, pesquisas futuras devem ser dedicadas a avaliar as diferentes interações nos ecossistemas aquáticos mediterrâneos. (Capítulo 1) Por meio de uma mini revisão, discutiu-se um breve histórico, o cenário atual e apontou-se as lacunas de suas abordagens metodológicas dos estudos ecotoxicológicos com ciliados. (Capítulo 2) Realizando uma meta-análise, avaliou-se os dados de toxicidade disponíveis de metais pesados e ciliados. Os resultados mostraram que a tolerância dos ciliados aos metais pesados varia notavelmente sendo parcialmente influenciada por diferenças nas condições metodológicas entre os estudos. Além disso, a maioria dos ciliados é mais tolerante à poluição por metais pesados do que as espécies de teste padrão usadas em avaliações de risco ecotoxicológico, ou seja, *Raphidocelis subcapitata*, *Daphnia magna* e *Onchornyctus mykiss*. Finalmente, este estudo destacou a importância do desenvolvimento de protocolos de teste de toxicidade padrão para ciliados, o que poderia levar a uma melhor compreensão do impacto toxicológico de metais pesados e outros contaminantes em espécies de ciliados. (Capítulo 3) Por meio de testes ecotoxicológicos, este estudo demonstrou a tolerância do *Paramecium caudatum* à cafeína. Os resultados demonstraram que esta espécie apresenta maior resistência no ambiente. Ainda, observamos um risco moderado para *P. caudatum* em relação às concentrações ambientais máximas de cafeína na água doce superficial, sendo que a distribuição global da cafeína e a probabilidade de aumentar as concentrações ambientais destacam a necessidade de mais estudos para melhor compreender a cafeína em ecossistemas aquáticos e os associados riscos. (Capítulo 4) Finalmente, por meio de um experimento de microcosmo interno, foi demonstrado que a temperatura pode influenciar os efeitos diretos e indiretos da salinidade e dos pesticidas nas comunidades zooplânctônicas nas terras úmidas costeiras do Mediterrâneo, e destaca táxons vulneráveis e respostas ecológicas que devem dominar sob futuros cenários de mudança global.

Palavras-chave: ecossistemas aquáticos, ciliados, ecotoxicologia, múltiplos estressores, zooplâncton.

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1 General Introduction

Over the last few hundreds of years, our society has entered the 'Anthropocene', a period characterized by the overexploitation of natural resources. Freshwater ecosystems have been severely affected by chemical pollution, flow modification, and habitat degradation (Dudgeon et al., 2006). Especially chemical pollution by industrial activities, agriculture and urban wastewaters have contributed to a loss of biodiversity, and changes in the structure and composition of aquatic ecosystems, hence, changing their ecological dynamics and the services they provide (Reid et al., 2018).

Currently, emerging contaminants (ECs) (e.g., pharmaceuticals, personal care products, pesticides) have been a major concern among environmental researchers since they have been monitored in a wide range of freshwater ecosystems worldwide (Fekadu et al., 2019; Valdez-Carrillo et al., 2020). ECs can produce neurotoxicity and endocrine disruption even at environmentally relevant concentrations (e.g., nanogram to microgram per liter; Sumpter and Johnson, 2005, 2008). Especially in Brazil, as an example of a country with an increasing per capita consumption and a lack of sanitation systems, these compounds have been often reported in water matrices since they are only partially removed during conventional treatment or are discharged into the environment without any treatment (Valdez-Carrillo et al., 2020). Furthermore, many of these substances lack any formal legislation that evaluates their effects and risks to aquatic and human life in Brazil (Montagner et al., 2017). As an example, caffeine is a psychoactive substance that has been reported in Brazilian freshwater ecosystems in concentrations of $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ to mg L^{-1} (Montagner et al., 2014; Rodríguez-Gil et al., 2018) and, although these concentrations are not enough to cause acute toxic effects (Selderslaghs et al., 2013; Zarrelli et al., 2014), the consumption of this compound is increasing mainly due to population growth and, in the future, it may exceed tolerance limits in the environment, affecting species previously described as resistant (Quadra et al., 2020).

One of the major tasks of aquatic ecotoxicologists is to define acceptable limits of environmental contamination (Moiseenko et al., 2008). Such limits are used for the evaluation and registration of chemical products used in different commercial sectors (e.g., pharmaceutical industry and agriculture) in Europe and in North America and allow an evaluation of their potential side-effects on non-target organisms (Lombardi, 2004). Ecotoxicologists usually work in close cooperation with scientists working in different areas (e.g., chemistry, biology, toxicology, environmental conservation), and attempt to

understand how chemical effects are propagated across populations, communities, ecosystems and, even, on humans (Zagatto and Bertolotti, 2008; Releya and Hoverman, 2006).

During the last Brazilian Ecotoxicology Congress (Ecotox, 2018), it was discussed the main areas of aquatic ecotoxicology that still need to be advanced, especially in Brazil. Sub-areas such as the assessment of the effects of emerging contaminants (using microcosms, mesocosms, and *in situ* experiments), the use of predictive modeling, or the evaluation of ecosystem services and multiple stressor effects (including chemical mixtures) were highlighted as needing further development in the nearby future. Moreover, it is required to study species that are beyond the classical model organism groups (e.g., algae, microcrustaceans, and fish) such as microeukaryotes ciliates, which actively participate in the mediation of important ecosystem processes. In this sense, based on the issues discussed above, the diagram below (Figure 1A) presents the important topics that still need to be more explored in order to improve our understanding on the effects of chemicals on freshwater ecosystems, some of which will be investigated as part of this thesis.

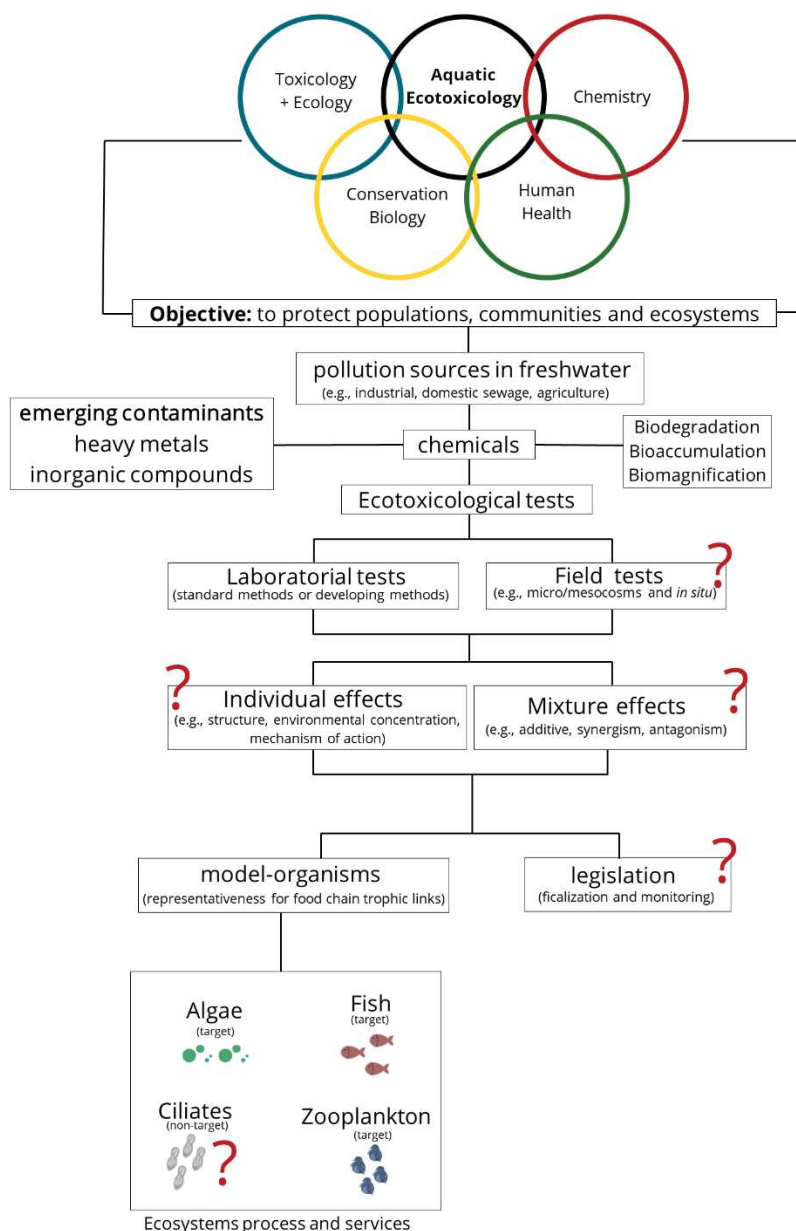


Figure 1A. Aquatic ecotoxicological diagram based on their classical concepts and principles. The question marks represent the subjects in aquatic ecotoxicology that still needs to be more investigating in the coming future, particularly in Brazil.

Up to date, the ecotoxicological risk of chemicals has been based on the extrapolation of the toxicological effects measured in one single or few model organisms to complex communities and ecosystems (Chapman, 2002; Baird et al., 2007). In general, the choice of such model organisms is based on their sensitivity to selected chemicals, their wide geographical distribution, ecological representativeness, short life cycle, ease of cultivation and maintenance in the laboratory and, if possible, their commercial value (Niemeyer et al., 2010). The use of model organisms contributes to the identification of

compounds that affect particular biological systems and, hence, allow classification of compounds based on their general toxicological mode of action (Zagatto and Bertolotti, 2008; Krull and Barros, 2012).

Since the 1960s, the organisms most commonly used in ecotoxicological studies are selected species of algae, microcrustaceans and fish (Zagatto and Bertolotti, 2008). Currently, there are standardized protocols and regulations that are used to perform tests worldwide, aiming at their comparison and reproducibility (e.g., OECD, 2011, 2019). However, there are still some groups of organisms, which contribute notably to the maintenance of ecosystem processes that are still neglected in ecotoxicological studies, and that need to be considered to improve our understanding of the effects of chemicals at the ecosystem level (Gutiérrez et al., 2015; Mansano et al., 2016; Segovia et al., 2016). Among them, ciliated microeukaryotes are good examples. Although they have already been used in ecotoxicological studies, they are not taken into account in risk assessment studies with enough frequency (Mansano et al., 2016; Vilas-Boas et al., 2020b).

Ciliates are abundant in aquatic ecosystems and can be used as bioindicators of water quality in biomonitoring programs in order to assess the degree of contamination of aquatic ecosystems (Fenchel, 1987; Sherr and Sherr, 1994; Gerhardt et al., 2010). They are preyed upon by some zooplankton species and can consume algae, bacteria and even other smaller protozoa, and are therefore an important link between primary producers and decomposers with the higher trophic levels (Fenchel, 1987; Madoni, 2005; Gomiero et al., 2013; Debastiani et al., 2016). Few researchers have been dedicated to their study and to develop toxicity protocols for ciliates, so that our knowledge on their sensitivity to chemical pollution is limited (Mansano et al., 2016; Vilas-Boas et al., 2020 a, b).

Moreover, the need to improve our understanding on the response of aquatic ecosystems to chemicals and additional stressors (e.g., temperature, pH, turbidity), requires the evaluation of species interactions using more complex experimental designs and systems (e.g. micro and mesocosms). This is a more realistic approach as compared to testing only the effects of one single chemical compound in one organism, and allows the identification of complex interactions (e.g., synergism and antagonism) between stressors on individuals and populations (Jackson et al., 2016; Jackson, 2018). However, this does not mean that tests performed in the laboratory lose their importance and, therefore, should still be considered since they allow deciphering chemical effects at the individual level (Relyea and Hoverman, 2006), and constitute a more rapid solution for

testing the number of compounds that is produced on a large scale worldwide (Bernhardt et al., 2017).

This thesis makes an attempt to include new potential organisms in ecotoxicological studies (e.g., ciliates) making use of single species tests, and to improve our understanding on the direct and indirect impacts of chemicals (and additional stressors) on aquatic populations and communities, thus contributing to tackle some of the important challenges that the risk assessment of chemicals will face in the nearby future.

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2 Objectives

2.1 Main objective

The main objectives of this thesis were to investigate if the microeukaryotes ciliates could be a potential group of model organisms for ecotoxicological studies being important trophic links for the maintenance of ecosystem processes and to assess the resilience of zooplankton communities to multiple stressors in freshwater ecosystems.

2.2 Specific objectives

- to assess the sensitivity of ciliates to chemicals and their potential as model organisms in ecotoxicological studies through a bibliographic review and a meta-analytical study;
- to study their life cycle by constructing the growth curve, as well as establishing optimal conditions for their cultivation in the laboratory;
- to evaluate the sensitivity of model organisms (e.g., *Paramecium caudatum*) to an emerging contaminant (e.g., caffeine) such as caffeine and to propose a refined methodology for conducting toxicity tests using reference substances;
- to evaluate the effects of multiple stressors related to global change (salinity intrusion, insecticide pollution and temperature regimes) on zooplankton communities under Mediterranean conditions.

3 Chapter I

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Ciliates in ecotoxicological studies: A minireview

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Abstract: The present study has conducted a minireview of ecotoxicological studies using ciliated microeukaryotes, presenting a brief history, describing the current scenario and pointing out their methodological approaches gaps. We highlight in a clear and objective way the ecological importance of ciliates for ecosystems, their usefulness and the inherent characteristics that classify them as a good model organism. Finally, we discuss some modern tools that can be added to studies with ciliates in the near future.

Keywords: Ciliophora, ecotoxicology; model organism.

Resumo: O presente estudo realizou uma pequena revisão de estudos ecotoxicológicos utilizando microeucariotos ciliados, apresentando um histórico, descrevendo o cenário atual e apontando suas lacunas nas abordagens metodológicas. Destacamos de forma clara e objetiva a importância ecológica dos ciliados para os ecossistemas, sua utilidade e as características inerentes que os classificam como bons organismos modelo. Finalmente, discutimos algumas ferramentas modernas que podem ser adicionadas aos estudos com os ciliados em um futuro próximo.

Palavras-chave: Ciliophora, ecotoxicologia; organismo modelo.

1. Introduction

Despite all the importance of water for mankind, the accelerated deterioration of aquatic systems has been observed all over the world, affecting human health and the environment (Schwarzenbach et al., 2010). The population increase, occupation of irregular areas, agriculture, discard of industrial and urban effluents, mining and landfill activities, fragmentation of the landscape, deviation of rivers and the load of contaminants from different sources has been causing, unfortunately, huge and unprecedented impacts on aquatic ecosystems causing changes in the chemical profile of waterbodies (Molden et al., 2007). According to the Chemical Abstracts Registry database (www.cas.org) there are more than 100 million chemical substances and less than 0.36% are regularized. These chemicals can reach both surface and subterranean water bodies even those in far remote areas (Bernhardt et al., 2017). This represents a human health concern, because many of these substances can be toxic, reducing the availability of potable water (Oki & Kanae, 2006; UNESCO, 2009). In fact, it is estimated that by 2025, 50% of the population will live in countries with water shortages (Qureshi & Hanjra, 2010).

Accordingly, the best way to ensure the quality of water resources is through the establishment of accurate standard protocols, management methods and environmental legislation, which would provide also the guidelines for proper environmental monitoring (Schwarzenbach et al., 2006; Schwarzenbach et al., 2010). The degree of contamination of aquatic environments is evaluated mainly through chemical analysis and biomonitoring programs (USEPA, 1992; Silveira, 2004). However, these approaches are not enough to water quality control and must be complemented by ecotoxicological studies, which are useful for assessing the ability of a toxic agent to produce effects on organisms (Forget et al., 2000).

Ecotoxicology is used to integrate and understand the harmful effects of chemical substances on populations, communities, and ecosystems (Walker et al., 1996; Forbes & Forbes, 1994), and this knowledge can be used to complement environmental impact studies and on risk assessment programs (Silva et al., 2015). One of the most important steps for ecotoxicological studies is to find a model organism which is ideal and able to provide reproducible information on the acute and chronic toxicity of pollutants in aquatic environments. Some good examples of model organisms (*i.e.* *Pseudokiriella subcaptata*, *Daphnia similis*, *Ceriodaphnia* spp. and *Danio rerio*) are representatives of different trophic levels and are useful for answering different questions. This representativeness

allows a better understanding of the effects caused by toxic agents and contributes to the establishment of toxicity threshold values (Grolière et al., 1990; Lombardi, 2004).

The choice of a model organism should be based on previous knowledge of their biology, physiology, behavior, and food habits; they need to be abundant and available; have ecological representativeness within the ecosystem; have constant and accurate sensitivity; short life cycle; commercial importance and; be easily cultivated and maintained in the laboratory (Niemeyer et al., 2010).

Ciliated microeukaryotes have been used in ecotoxicological studies since the 1950s (Grebecki & Kuznicki, 1956). However, these organisms have been historically neglected in detriment of other model organisms (Figure 1). Many ciliate species, such as from genera *Paramecium* and *Tetrahymena* have many biological features that makes them appropriate to toxicity bioassays, such as the presence of a delicate cell membrane, small size (from $\sim 10 \mu\text{m}$ to $4,500 \mu\text{m}$), which allows the use of reduced volumes for maintenance and experimentation, short life cycle and high reproductive rate, allowing for long-term transgenerational assays in relatively short time periods. Also, encystment stages allow greater resistance to environmental stressors and allow the measuring the possible effects of toxic substances (Soldo & Van Wagtendonk, 1969; Lee & Soldo, 1992; Nerad & Daggett, 1992; Madoni et al., 1996; Gilron & Lynn, 1998; Madoni, 2000, 2003, 2011; Gutierrez et al., 2003; Delmonte Corrado et al., 2005; Kchaou et al., 2009; Gomiero et al., 2013).

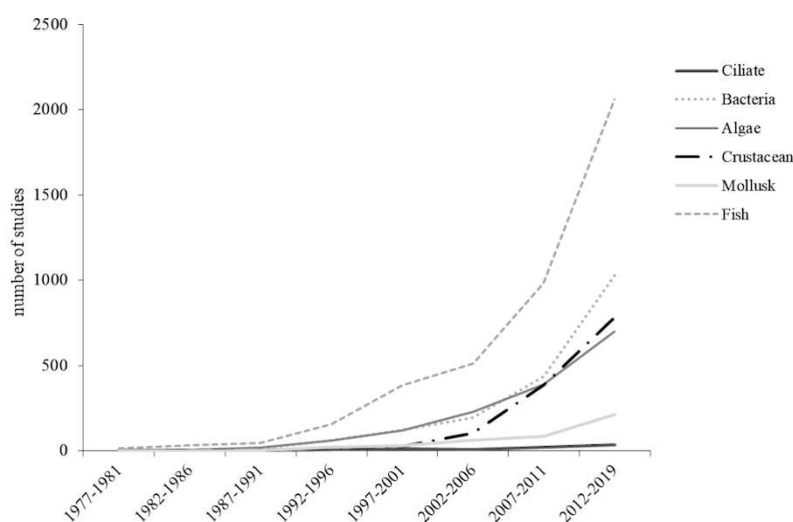


Figure 1. Number of ecotoxicological studies per model organism. Data available in the Scopus database from 1977 to 2019 (survey conducted 06/06/2019). Codes used to search: Ecotoxicol * AND ciliate *, Ecotoxicol * AND algae *, Ecotoxicol * AND bacteria *, Ecotoxicol * AND mollusk *, Ecotoxicol * AND crustacean * AND Ecotoxicol * AND fish *.

The phylum Ciliophora represents a basic component of microplankton and microbenthic within environments (Finlay & Fenchel, 1996; Madoni, 2000). They have a wide geographical distribution and can be found in freshwater, brackish, salty, bromeliads and edaphic environments, such as superficial soils, mosses and lichens (Puytorac, 1994; Corliss, 1979; Joppert et al., 1995; Foissner et al., 2002; Foissner, 2003; Lynn, 2008). Ciliates are mostly heterotrophic organisms, predators of bacteria and other protozoa (Fenchel, 1987; Beaver & Crisman, 1989; Müller et al., 1991), and are preyed by different species from the zooplankton. Therefore, representing an essential link for the flow of carbon and energy to higher trophic levels (Fenchel, 1987; Sherr & Sherr, 1994; Madoni, 2000).

The presence of ciliates in several habitats is influenced by their tolerance and adaptability to the different physical and chemical conditions of the environments (Noland, 1925; Sleight, 1988). When under unfavorable conditions, they form resistance cysts, which can be dispersed and transported by wind, water, insects, among other animals (Finlay & Fenchel, 1996; Finlay, 2002; Esteban & Finlay, 2003; Fenchel & Finlay, 2004). This adaptive changes may be linked to the specificity of the recurrent changes in the physical-chemical factors of the water, such as temperature, amount of dissolved organic matter, pH, conductivity and oxygen concentration (Noland, 1925; Kudo, 1966; Sleight, 1988; Madoni, 2005; Madoni & Barghiroli, 2007). Seasonal, vertical, trophic and flood pulse variations can also be determining factors in the patterns of distribution, composition and abundance of ciliates in aquatic systems (Madoni, 2003, 2005; Velho et al., 2005, 2013; Gomiero et al., 2013; Debastiani et al., 2016; Pauleto et al., 2009).

Ciliates can be used as bioindicators of water quality in biomonitoring studies (Madoni, 1994, 2003, 2005; Dias et al., 2008; Bagantini et al., 2013; Debastiani et al., 2016). They play an important role in the purification process in water treatment plants, especially in the activated sludge system, where it makes up more than 9% of the biomass of microorganisms (Madoni, 1994, 2003, 2011).

The use of ciliates as model organisms had its beginning with the work of Gause (1934) in population ecology. The Russian ecologist used the ciliate species *Paramecium caudatum* and *Paramecium aurelia* to test the hypothesis of competitive exclusion. The results showed that both species of ciliates occupy the same ecological niche and can not coexist. Since then, the use of these organisms as models for applied studies has been through the knowledge of the species through the use of techniques of optical microscopy

and appropriate techniques (Klein, 1958; Foissner, 1994, 1999; Dieckmann, 1995; Kapuscinski, 1995; Foissner & Berger, 1996; Finlay & Fenchel, 1999; Lynn, 2008; Mitchell & Meisterfeld, 2005). Biology information (Lynn, 2008; Lynn & Small, 2002; Pratt & Cairns Júnior, 1985; Weisse, 2017), evolution and taxonomy (Foissner & Berger, 1996; Lynn, 2008; Gao et al., 2016), behavioral traits (Nishigami et al., 2018; Ohmura et al., 2018; Ishikawa, 2019), physiology, histology and even the genome description of the species, *i.e.*, *Tetrahymena thermophila*, *Paramecium tetraurelia*, *Euplotes crassus*, *Oxytricha trifallax* and *Stentor coeruleus* (Aury et al., 2006; Eisen et al., 2006; Vinogradov et al., 2012; Swart et al., 2013; Slabodnick et al., 2017) may be useful for answering different questions within ecotoxicology. Therefore, the present study presents a minireview of the ecotoxicological studies with ciliates, the importance of these organisms for the aquatic ecosystems, the approaches and gaps found, besides presenting some perspectives for the advancement of the studies in the near future.

2. Ciliates as Models in Ecotoxicological Studies

2.1. Brief history and approaches

The first ecotoxicological study using ciliates was published in the 1950s (Grebecki & Kuznicki, 1956). *Paramecium caudatum* species were exposed to different concentrations of Copper, Mercury, Cadmium, Zinc, Nickel, Cobalt, and Chromium. Posteriorly, some studies were done using different ciliate species and approach (Figure 2A, Supplementary Material Table S1). The main ecotoxicological approaches using ciliated organisms are those related to the determination of lethal concentrations, changes in behavioral, substances accumulation and morphological changes (Figure 2B). Acute and chronic tests have been used since the first works to identify the maximum concentration ranges that cause population to decline and/or mortality (mean lethal concentration - LC_{50}), to check cell deformities, heavy metal accumulation and/or behavioral changes. Mortality and/or survive states are commonly established through optical microscope (Madoni, 1994; Madoni et al., 1992, 1996; Madoni & Romeo, 2006; Mansano et al., 2016). Moreover, microscopy can also be used to evaluate other features such as behavior, morphological deformities, changes in generation time, abundance and cell shape. Rao et al. (2006) observed changes in cell shape, developing irregular membrane bubbles promoting cell lysis. In addition, a tracking system with optical microscope was used to observe changes in the locomotion of *Paramecium caudatum*.

An initial increase and subsequent decrease in swimming speed were observed when exposed to concentrations of an acephate insecticide. The number of generations decreased, and the generation time increased significantly in a manner dependent on the sublethal concentrations used. Changes in the number and ultrastructure of cilia were observed in the study by Li et al. (2016) in the exposure of an emerging compound (Tris (1,3-dichloro-2-propyl) phosphate (TDCIPP)). The authors conclude by highlighting that the results suggest that chemical exposure in organisms of the early trophic levels can cause long-term damage. The resistance of ciliates to metal ions shows the importance of these organisms for bioremediation in industrial wastewater (Madoni, 1994; Martin-Gonzalez et al., 2006; Rehman et al., 2009; Chaudhry & Shakoori, 2011; Elguero et al., 2019).

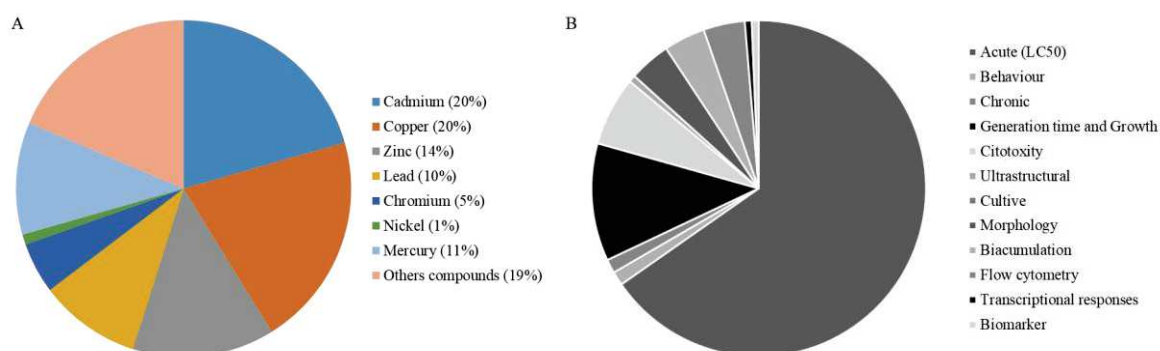


Figure 2. A=Percentage of ecotoxicological studies per compound; B= Endpoints distributions.

Rico et al. (2009) evaluated the induction of reactive oxygen species (ROS) after exposure to heavy metals in ciliates. Benbouzid et al. (2012) observed reduced growth, increased generation time, respiratory metabolism disturbance (significant increase in oxygen uptake), and high percentage response in a ciliate species in a short-term (24h) experiment. Kim et al. (2014) measured intracellular oxygen levels (ROS) and total glutathione content (GSH) using gene expression by means of RT-PCR. Wu et al. (2015) used UV spectrophotometry to visualize changes in enzymatic antioxidants in a ciliate species. The application of modern techniques may be useful for ecotoxicological studies with ciliates, such as the use of flow cytometry by Liu et al. (2017) to evaluate the Mercury accumulation properties in species of the genus *Tetrahymena*.

The use of the ‘Omics’ in ecological studies has allowed advances and brought the possibility of evaluating changes in different levels of cellular organization, such as individual, tissue, cell and molecule (Zhang et al., 2018). The union of these sciences allows the uncovering of cellular processes details of many organisms, such as the screening of genes whose loss of function may confer resistance or sensitivity to phenotypic toxicity, such as programmed cell death (Jo et al., 2009). In the study by Kim et al. (2018) it was possible to evaluate the transcriptional response of the antioxidant defense system and heat shock protein of the *Euplotes crassus* species. The production of proteins or metabolites for the formulation of vaccines and drugs has also been performed from the use of ciliates (Putten et al., 2006, Hartmann et al., 2000). The successes of studies like these require the use of organisms that are culturable under laboratory/industrial conditions such as ciliates. In this sense, there are a lot of tools that can be used to evaluate environmental alteration using ciliates in different approaches contributing to the understanding of how environmental changes can affect the role of these organisms in the ecosystem processes.

2.2. Species

In regards to ciliates species, more than 50 have been used in ecotoxicological studies to evaluate the impact of different compounds ([Table S1](#)). In this sense, given its wide geographic distribution and short cell cycles, *Paramecium caudatum* could be considered a good model for behavioral and population reproductive rate studies allowing evaluation of a large number of generations in short time spans (Rao et al., 2006; Mansano et al., 2016). While *T. thermophila*, *Paramecium tetraurelia* (and also *P. caudatum*), *Euplotes crassus*, *Oxytricha trifallax* and *Stentor coeruleus* can be considered are potential model species in molecular (ecotoxicogenomics) approaches, given the availability of their genome in sequence databases (Aury et al., 2006; Eisen et al., 2006; Vinogradov et al., 2012; Swart et al., 2013; Slabodnick et al., 2017).

The intensification in the use of ciliated protists will be of great value to the field of ecotoxicological. They present several characteristics that make them model organisms (Giovanni Junior & Carvalho, 2017) and since many species are aquatic, their use can contribute to more accurately evaluate the changes these environments have been facing, as consequence of anthropic activities.

2.3. Substances

As available within the AQUIRE database (USEPA, 2019), the heavy metals were the first and the most often chemicals used in ecotoxicological studies using ciliates as model organisms (Figures 2A, 3 and 4). However, over the time, the environmental impact of contaminants of emerging concerns, such as inorganic, organic, β -blockers, herbicides, insecticides and pesticides started to have their toxicity evaluated also within ciliate species (Figures 2A, 3 and 4). Among heavy metals, Copper, Cadmium, Zinc, Lead and Mercury were the most frequently used in ciliates and within these, the assays directed toward their effects over populations (growth rate), mortality (lethal concentration) and accumulation were the most often used (Figures 2A, 3 and 4). With regards to contaminants of emergent concern, the personal pharmaceutical care products (PPCPs) were the most often used compounds against ciliates, followed by polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, in mortality and populational alteration assays (Figures 2A, 3 and 4).

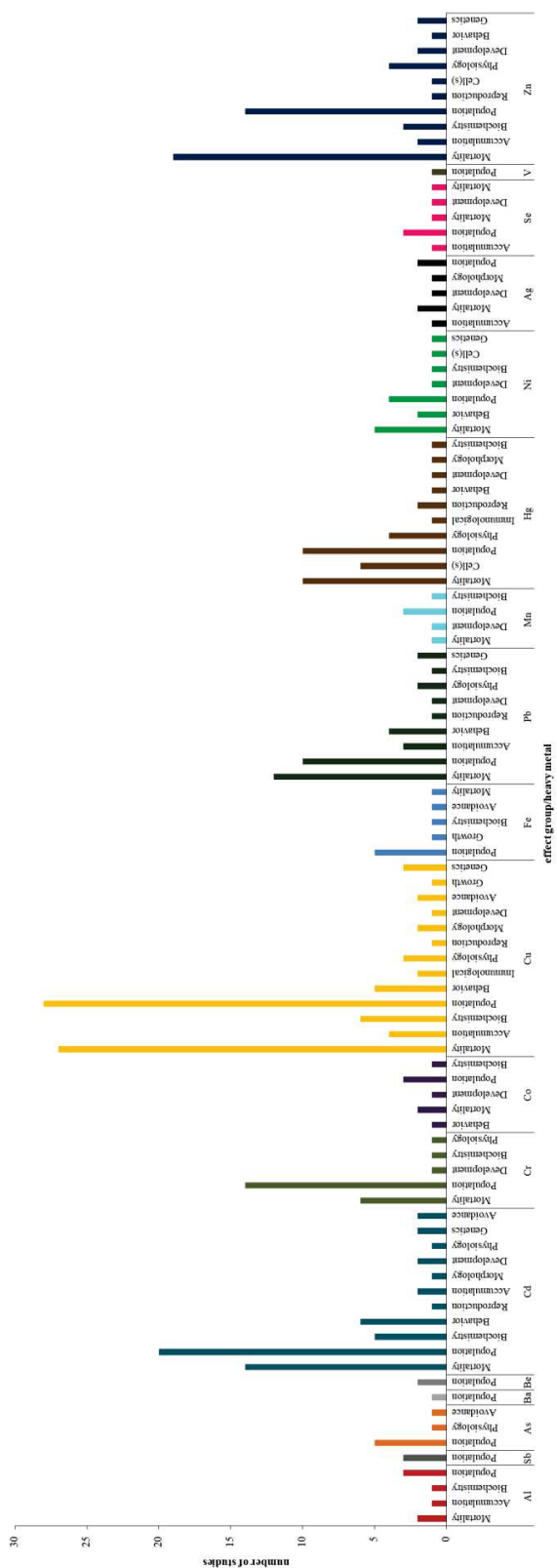


Figure 3. Number of studies with heavy metals and their respective approaches according to the Ecotox knowledgebase database (USEPA, 2019) (survey conducted on 05/28/2019); Number of studies with heavy metals and their respective approaches according to the Ecotox knowledgebase database (USEPA, 2019) (survey conducted on 05/28/2019).

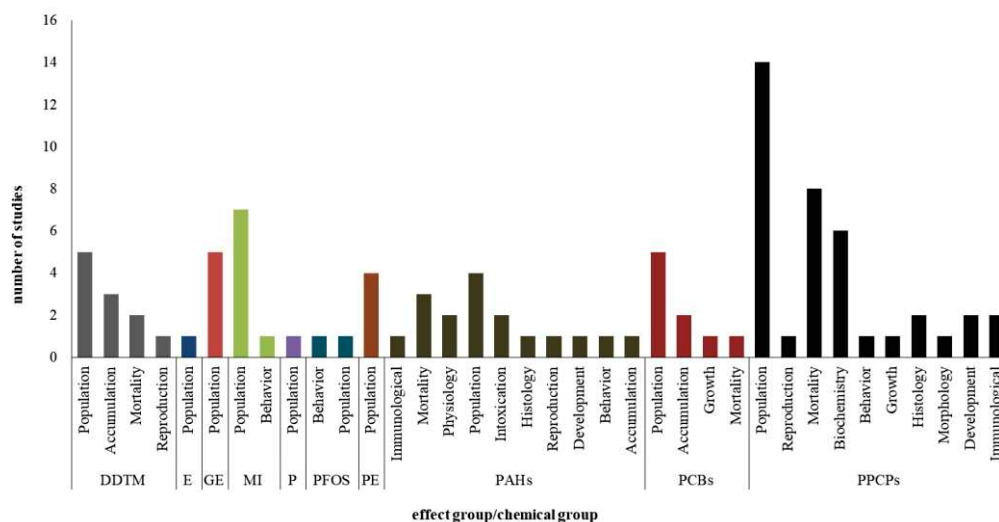


Figure 4. Number of studies with organic compounds and their respective approaches according to the Ecotox knowledgebase database (USEPA, 2019) (survey conducted on 05/28/2019); DDTM: DDT and metabolites, E: Explosives; GE: Glycol ethers, MI: Major ions, P: Perchlorates, PFOS: Perfluorooctane sulfonates and acids, PE: Phthalate Esters, PAHs: Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons, PBCs: Polychlorinated Biphenyls, PPCPs: Pharmaceutical Personal Care Products.

2.4. Methodological approaches gaps

There are numerous growth media and conditions available in the literature for *in vitro* maintenance of ciliates in laboratory. For example, species of the genus *Tetrahymena* can be cultivated in axenic cultures based on protease (Carter & Cameron, 1973; Schlenk & Moore, 1994; Gallego et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2013, Liu et al., 2017). *Paramecium* and many others can grow using the Cerophyl culture medium proposed by Sonneborn (1970) was used by Joshi & Misra (1986), Juchelka & Snell (1994), Pratt et al. (1997) and Salvadó et al. (1997). Mineral water and bark rice, is a common general used media used to promote the growth of bacteria that are, actually the sources of food for ciliates employed by Ruthven & Cairns Junior (1973), Dive et al. (1980), Madoni et al. (1992), Madoni (1994, 2000), Madoni & Romeo (2006), Wanick et al. (2008) and Bitencourt et al. (2016). Water from the original sample sites are used in association with a variety of cereals as in the studies of Nalecz-Jawecki et al. (1993), Madoni et al. (1996), Rehman et

al. (2005, 2006, 2007, 2007a, 2008, 2008a, 2009, 2010, 2010a) and Shakoori et al. (2011). There are also culture media available for marine ciliates, such as proposed by Yoo & Hur (2002) and used by Kim et al. (2011, 2014, 2018). On the other hand, Madoni et al. (1996) did not use methods of cultivation in laboratory. The species used in the bioassays were directly from activated sludge. Twagilimana et al. (1998) tested different culture conditions for the *Spirostomum ambiguum* species. The authors conclude by highlighting the need for reproducibility of the assays in order to allow comparison between laboratories.

The major challenge today limiting the use of ciliates in ecotoxicological tests is the creation of a standard methods. Thus, it is necessary to develop specific methods to each potential species leading to efficient, replicable and comparable bioassays. The standardization of procedures in toxicity tests is paramount for the reproducibility and comparability of results comparability of results from laboratories in different geographical regions (Soares & Calow, 1993). Furthermore, they can help environmental managers since one of the first approaches in environmental studies is precisely the ecotoxicological risk assessment, which is responsible for showing the fate and effects of chemicals in the environment (Vindimian, 2001).

3. Final Considerations

Here, we highlighted the advantages of using ciliates in ecotoxicological studies. They have many characteristics that make them good model organisms for environmental toxicity evaluation. Therefore, they can potentially contribute to the establishment of more accurate guidelines and risk management programs, and also represent a valuable system to study how environmental contaminants may impacts normal cell biological functions. For these reasons, we hope that in a near future more ecotoxicological works will be using ciliates as model organisms.

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4 Chapter II

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Ciliates as model organisms for the ecotoxicological risk assessment of heavy metals: a meta-analysis

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Abstract: Ciliates are key components of aquatic ecosystems, significantly contributing to the decomposition of organic matter and energy transfer to higher trophic levels. They are considered good biological indicators of chemical pollution and relatively sensitive to heavy metal contamination. In this study, we performed a meta-analysis of the available toxicity data of heavy metals and ciliates to assess: (1) the sensitivity of freshwater ciliates to different heavy metals, (2) the relative sensitivity of ciliates in comparison to the standard test species used in ecotoxicological risk assessment, and (3) the difference in sensitivity across ciliate taxa. Our study shows that the tolerance of ciliates to heavy metals varies notably, which is partly influenced by differences in methodological conditions across studies. Ciliates are, in general, sensitive to Mercury > Cadmium > Copper > Zinc > Lead > Chromium. Also, this study shows that most ciliates are more

tolerant to heavy metal pollution than the standard test species used in ecotoxicological risk assessments, i.e., *Raphidocelis subcapitata*, *Daphnia magna*, and *Onchornycus mykiss*. Threshold concentrations derived from toxicity data for these species is expected to confer sufficient protection for the vast majority of ciliate species. Our data analysis also shows that the most commonly tested ciliate species, *Paramecium caudatum* and *Tetrahymena thermophila*, are not necessarily the most sensitive ones to heavy metal pollution. Finally, this study stresses the importance of developing standard toxicity test protocols for ciliates, which could lead to a better comprehension of the toxicological impact of heavy metals and other contaminants to ciliate species.

1. Introduction

Heavy metal contamination in aquatic ecosystems is a pressing and recurrent issue for biodiversity preservation and for human health. Heavy metal contamination is primarily associated to residues from mining and industrial activities, and environmental discharges of treated and untreated domestic sewage sludge (Green et al., 2010; Diaz-de Alba et al., 2011). A large number of studies show that heavy metals may exert toxicological effects to aquatic organisms at concentrations monitored in surface waters with notable anthropogenic pressure (Lopa and Adhikari, 2006; Arenas-Sanchez et al., 2019). The toxicological effect of heavy metals to aquatic organisms largely depends on the exposure concentration, their speciation under environmental conditions, and their nature *i.e.*, essential vs non-essential metals (Bolan and Duraisamy, 2003; Green et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2017; Meng et al., 2016). For example, essential metals such as Zinc or Cadmium are key elements for the growth of living organisms. However, at large doses, these metals can inhibit growth, reduce endocytosis and food absorption rates, and concentrate on the cell membrane, leading to cell disruption and lysis (Xin et al., 2015; Schuler and Relyea, 2018). On the other hand, non-essential metals such as Lead and Mercury bind to thiol-containing groups and oxygen sites, cause alterations in the configurational structure of nucleic acids and proteins, and interfere with the oxidative phosphorylation and osmotic balance of cells and organisms (Hughes and Poole, 1989; Poole and Gadd, 1989).

The ecotoxicological risk assessment of heavy metals generally involves the development of threshold concentrations based on toxicity data for a limited number of standard test species (*i.e.*, algae, *Daphnia* sp., fish) and the application of assessment factors (Water Framework Directive, 2006). Assessment factors are expected to take into

account inter-species sensitivity differences, so that the derived threshold concentrations are able to also protect non-standard test organisms. The protectiveness of these assessment factors for non-standard test species of primary producers, invertebrates and fish has been well documented (Moreira et al., 2016; Montassir et al., 2017; Santos-Medrano and Rico-Martínez, 2018; Belangera and Carr, 2019). However, the sensitivity of these standard test species as regards to that of microorganisms such as bacteria, fungi or ciliates has not been properly evaluated.

Ciliates are considered important components of aquatic ecosystems as they significantly contribute to organic matter decomposition and to the transfer of energy to higher trophic levels (Fenchel, 1987; Sherr and Sherr, 1994; Jiang et al., 2007; Weisse, 2017). Laboratory toxicity tests show that ciliates can be severely affected by heavy metal pollution. These studies describe, for example, impacts on feeding capacity and growth rates, and variations in respiration and oxidative stress through the generation of increased levels of ROS (Oxygen Reactive Species), which in many cases leads to high individual mortalities (Gutiérrez et al., 2003; Liu et al., 2017). Furthermore, it has been suggested that those impacts are generally a consequence of ultrastructural changes, membrane alterations, and inhibition of the organization of main cytoskeleton components (Makhija et al., 2015; Pudpong and Chantangsi, 2015). Ciliates are on the first level of the aquatic food chain and, therefore, have the capacity to transfer contaminants such as heavy metals to higher trophic levels (Mortuza et al., 2005; Gerhardt et al., 2010). However, the impact of heavy metals on the structure and functioning of ciliate communities, and their potential side-effects for the whole aquatic ecosystem, have not been sufficiently investigated (Trielli et al., 2007; Velho et al., 2013; Segovia et al., 2016).

Despite their relevance for ecosystem integrity, ciliates are usually not considered in prospective risk assessments (Gomiero et al., 2013; Mansano et al., 2016). One probable reason for this is the lack of standard protocols for testing the toxicity of chemicals. As documented by some authors, many ciliate species do not adapt well to laboratory conditions and are, therefore, not suitable for *in vitro* testing (Delmonte Conrado et al., 2006), while some others (*e.g.*, *Paramecium caudatum*, *Tetrahymena thermophila*) have been used in sensitivity and resilience tests against a variety of contaminants (Madoni et al., 1992, 1994; Madoni and Romeo, 2006; Gomiero et al., 2012; Mansano et al., 2016). Moreover, given some particular characteristics of ciliates (*i.e.*, small size, short time generations, quick response to disturbances and easy sampling), many authors have advocated for their inclusion as whole-cell biosensors or water quality

indicators for chemical risk monitoring (Cairns et al., 1993; Trielli et al., 2007; Tan et al., 2010).

In this study we performed a meta-analysis of the available toxicity data for heavy metals and ciliates. The objectives of this study were to provide an overview on the sensitivity of ciliates to heavy metals, and to test the capacity of standard test species used in ecotoxicology to protect ciliate species assemblages. For this, we first comparatively assessed the sensitivity of ciliates to different heavy metals. Then, we evaluated the sensitivity of ciliates as regards to that of the standard test species commonly used in ecotoxicological risk assessments (*i.e.*, algae, *Daphnia*, fish). And, finally, we compared the sensitivity of the most commonly tested ciliate species with that of the other, less investigated, ciliate taxa. Furthermore, in this study we discuss the need to include ciliates in future heavy metal risk assessments, and provide recommendations for the selection of model organisms and the development of standard toxicity test methods.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Toxicity data mining

We carried out an extensive search for studies that assessed the toxicity of heavy metals to ciliates. Toxicity data were primarily retrieved from the US EPA ECOTOX database (<https://cfpub.epa.gov/ecotox/index.cfm>; 24th May 2019). Furthermore, additional studies were searched in Scopus, Web of Science, PubMed and Google Scholar databases using the code: *ecotoxicolog** OR “*heavy metal**” AND *ciliate*. Additionally, we also searched for references cited by these articles to ensure a greater volume of studies and to identify additional information related to the topic. Only data for the most frequently tested ($\geq 5\%$) heavy metals (*i.e.*, Zinc, Lead, Mercury, Copper, Chromium, Cadmium) were considered for the analysis in order to provide a robust sensitivity comparison. In this way, Nickel and Cobalt were not included in our analysis due to the small number of studies investigating them. In our study, we focused on LC₅₀ or EC₅₀ (growth) values for freshwater ciliate taxa obtained under laboratory conditions after an exposure period of 24 h. The toxicity values were converted to a standard unit (mg L⁻¹) for the analysis.

Toxicity data for standard test species of algae, invertebrates and fish commonly used in ecotoxicological risk assessments were also retrieved from the US EPA ECOTOX database (26th Sep 2019). The scientific name of the standard test species, the exposure duration and the endpoints selected for each were: *Raphidocelis subcapitata* (EC₅₀ 72 h

– 96 h, growth inhibition), *Daphnia magna* (EC₅₀ 48 h, immobility) and *Oncorhynchus mykiss* (LC₅₀ 96 h, mortality).

2.2. Relative sensitivity of ciliates to the different heavy metals

To compare the relative sensitivity of ciliates to the different heavy metals included in this study, we calculated the standardized sensitivity z–score according to the following equation:

$$z = \frac{x-\mu}{\sigma} \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

where x is the raw lethal concentration data described in the studies with ciliates, μ is the overall mean of all data per heavy metal, and σ is the standard deviation of all data for all heavy metals included in this study.

The z–score is a widely used meta–analytical approach to assess differences in the effect sizes in ecological and toxicological studies (Adams et al., 1997; Gurevitch and Hedges, 1999; Melvin and Wilson, 2013; Melvin and Leusch, 2016). Calculations were performed in MS Excel by firstly calculating the standardized and partial z–score values, standard deviation, confidence interval, overall effect size, and later calculating the sum of the squared deviations. Figures were performed in SigmaPlot (version 12.0).

2.3. Sensitivity comparison with standard test species

The sensitivity of ciliates to heavy metals was compared with that of the standard test species by using the Relative Tolerance (Trel) approach. Trel values were calculated by dividing the toxicity values of the ciliate species by the toxicity values of the standard test species using Microsoft Excel. A Trel of one indicates a tolerance equal to that of the standard test species. A Trel value lower than one indicate that the ciliate species is more sensitive than the standard test species, while a Trel value larger than one indicates that the ciliate species is more tolerant than the standard test species to the evaluated heavy metal. Prior to the Trel calculation, the geometric mean was calculated when there were more than one toxicity value available for each combination of heavy metal and species, both for ciliates toxicity data and for the standard test species. The Trel values were used to calculate cumulative distribution functions, so that the relative percentage of ciliate taxa with Trel above or below one can be easily visualized.

2.4. Sensitivity comparisons across ciliates taxa

Species Sensitivity Distributions (SSDs) were constructed for ciliates in order to visualize the relative sensitivity of *Paramecium caudatum* and *Tetrahymena thermophila* as regards to that of the other tested ciliate species. The SSDs were calculated on the basis of log-normal distributions by using the ETX computer program version 2.2 (Van Vlaardingen et al., 2004). Log-normality of the fitted distributions was evaluated by using the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test, using a significance level of 0.05.

3. Results

3.1. Data availability

Our article search yielded a total of 27,328 studies: 47 from the ECOTOX database, 184 from Scopus, 21,878 from Web of Science, 87 from PubMed, 5,090 from Google Scholar, and 6 additional ones taken from references cited in these studies. After screening all studies, only 66 provided toxicity data that fulfilled the inclusion criteria and were selected for the meta-analysis (Figure 1). Cadmium (22%), Copper (26%), Zinc (19%), Chromium (12%), Lead (12%) and Mercury (9%) were the most frequently tested heavy metals in the included studies.

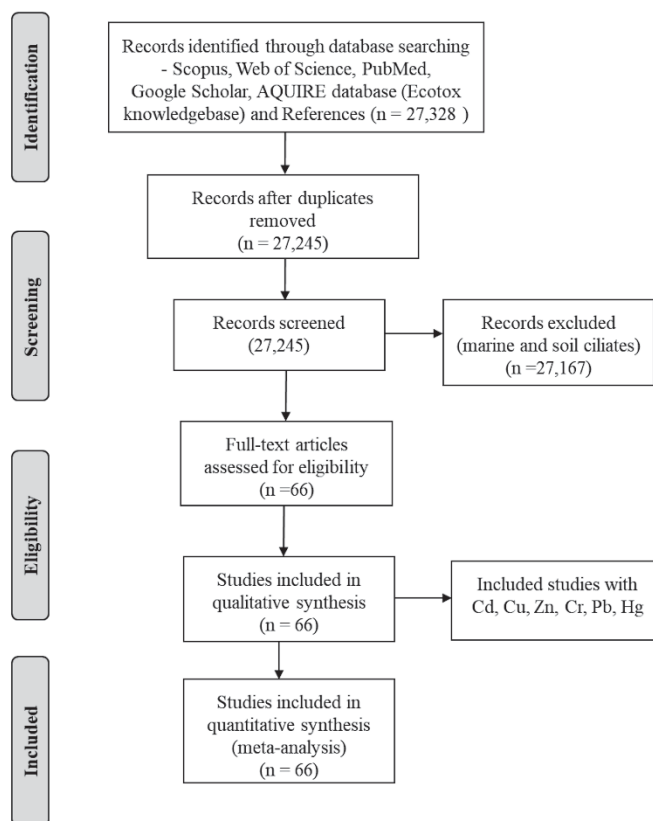


Fig. 1. Flow diagram of the literature searched in Scopus, Google Scholar, ACQUIRE Database and references within articles found and included in our study. Figure adapted from PRISMA (Moher et al., 2009); Cd: Cadmium, Cu: Copper, Zn: Zinc, Cr: Chromium, Pb: Lead and Hg: Mercury.

The selected studies provided 427 toxicity values for 46 species of ciliates (see e.g. Figure 2), belonging to 8 classes (Appendix A. Table S1). The number of studies found per species ranged from 1 to 41 (Figure 3). Our study showed that *P. caudatum* was the most tested species, followed by *Tetrahymena thermophila*, *Colpidium campylum* and *Spirostomum ambiguum* (Figure 3). The number of studies per ciliate species for each of the selected heavy metals are presented in Figure 4.

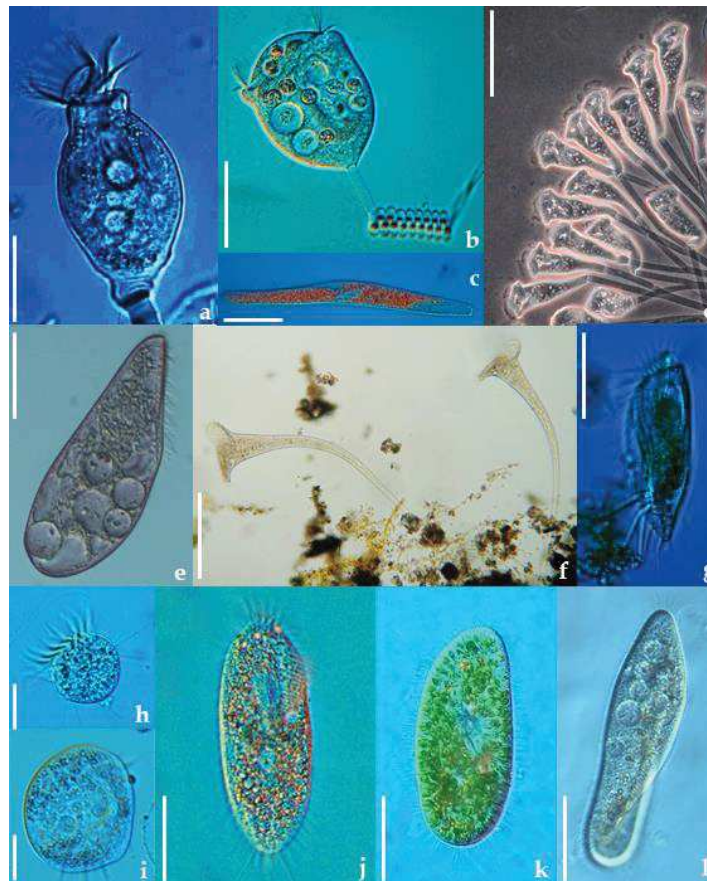


Fig. 2. Ciliates used in ecotoxicological studies. a. *Opercularia*. b. *Vorticella*. c. *Spirostomum*. d. *Epistylis*. e. *Blepharisma*. f. *Stentor*. g. *Euplotes*. h. *Halteria*. i. *Aspidisca*. j. *Tetmemena*. k. *Paramecium bursaria*. l. *Paramecium caudatum*. Bars: a-e, g, j-l: 50 μm ; f: 100 μm ; h: 30 μm ; i: 20 μm .

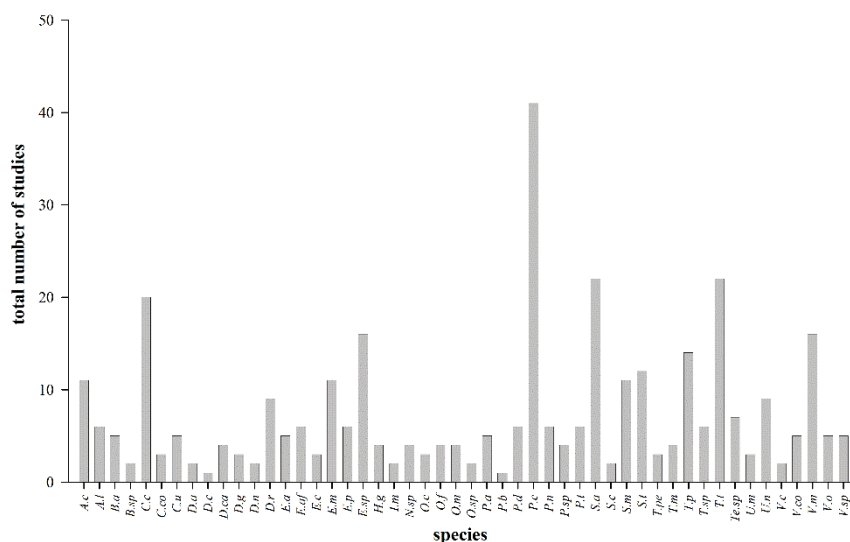


Fig. 3. Total number of L(E)C₅₀ values per ciliate species. Species abbreviations are: A.c.: *Aspidisca cicada*, A.l.: *Aspidisca lynceus*, B.a.: *Blepharisma americanum*, B.sp.: *Blepharisma* sp., C.u.: *Chilodonella uncinata*, C.e.: *Cyrtolophosis elongata*, C.c.: *Colpidium campylum*, C.co.: *Colpidium colpoda*, C.cu.: *Chinodella uncinata*, D.a.:

Diophrys appendiculata, *D.ca*: *Dexiostoma campyla*, *D.c*: *Dexiostoma campylum*, *D.gr*: *Dexiostoma granulosa*, *D.g*: *Dexiotricha granulosa*, *D.n*: *Didinium nastum*, *D.r*: *Drepanomonas revoluta*, *E.a*: *Euplotes aediculatus*, *E.af*: *Euplotes affinis*, *E.c*: *Euplotes crassus*, *E.m*: *Euplotes mutabilis*, *E.p*: *Euplotes patella*, *E.sp*: *Euplotes sp.*, *H.g*: *Halteria grandinella*, *I.m*: *Ichthyophthirius multifiliis*, *N.sp*: *Notohymena sp.*, *O.c*: *Opercularia coarctata*, *O.f*: *Oxytricha fallax*, *O.m*: *Opercularia minima*, *O.sp*: *Opercularia sp.*, *P.a*: *Paramecium aurelia*, *P.b*: *Paramecium bursaria*, *P.c*: *Paramecium caudatum*, *P.d*: *Paramecium dubosqui*, *P.n*: *Paramecium nephridiatum*, *P.sp*: *Pseudourostyla sp.*, *P.t*: *Paramecium trichium*, *S.a*: *Spirostomum ambiguum*, *S.c*: *Stentor coeruleus*, *S.m*: *Stylonychis mytilus*, *S.t*: *Spirostomum teres*, *T.p*: *Tachysoma pellionella*, *T.m*: *Trochilia minuta*, *T.py*: *Tetrahymena pyriformis*, *T.sp*: *Tetmemena sp.*, *T.t*: *Tetrahymena thermophila*, *Te.sp*: *Tetrahymena sp.*, *U.m*: *Uronema marinum*, *U.n*: *Uronema nigricans*, *V.c*: *Vorticella campanula*, *V.c*: *Vorticella convallaria*, *V.m*: *Vorticella microstoma*, *V.o*: *Vorticella octava*, *V.sp*: *Vorticella sp.*

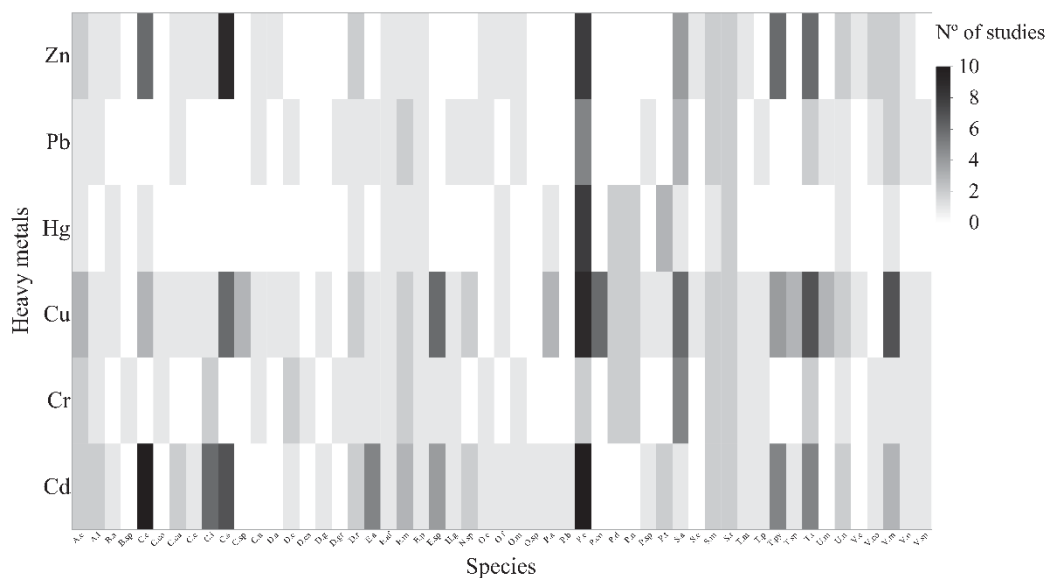


Fig. 4. Total number of L(E)C₅₀ values per ciliate species and heavy metal (1956–2017). Zn=Zinc; Pb=Lead; Hg=Mercury; Cu=Copper; Cr=Chromium; Cd= Cadmium. Species abbreviations are the same as in Fig. 3.

3.2. Relative sensitivity of ciliates to different heavy metals

The overall effect size for all heavy metals was 4.31 (confidence interval = 2.29–6.34) (Figure 5). Overall, our study shows that ciliates are, in general, more sensitive to Mercury>Cadmium>Copper>Zinc>Lead>Chromium. Copper, Lead, Chromium, and to a lower extent Zn, showed large confidence intervals, indicating a high variability in the available toxicity data. The L(E)C₅₀ values for *P. caudatum*, the most commonly

evaluated species, varied greatly within and across metals, with lower toxicity values found for Copper, Mercury and Cadmium (Appendix A. Table S2).

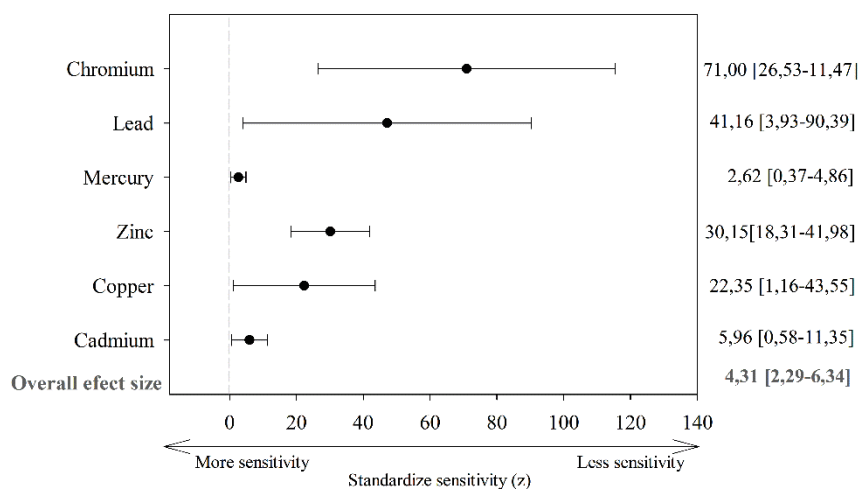


Fig. 5. Average and confidence interval of the L(E)C₅₀ z-score for ciliate species in the ecotoxicological tests performed with heavy metals. The overall effect size unit-less was included for a representation purpose. The number of samples L(E)C₅₀ values per heavy metal was: Chromium = 47, Lead = 46, Mercury = 35, Zinc = 81, Copper = 115, Cadmium = 103, Overall = 427.

3.3. Sensitivity comparison with standard test species

Raphidocelis subcapitata was in general more sensitive than the majority of ciliate species, particularly for Zinc and Cadmium (Figure 6). Ciliate species were considerably more sensitive than *Daphnia magna* to Lead, and overly more tolerant to Cadmium, Copper, Mercury and Chromium. For Zinc, *D. magna* was at the center of the sensitivity distribution (Figure 6). Trel values for *Onchornyncus mykiss* were in general higher than one, indicating a higher tolerance of ciliates to heavy metals than the fish standard test species, except for Chromium and Mercury. For these two metals *O. mykiss* was also placed in the middle of the sensitivity distribution (Figure 6).

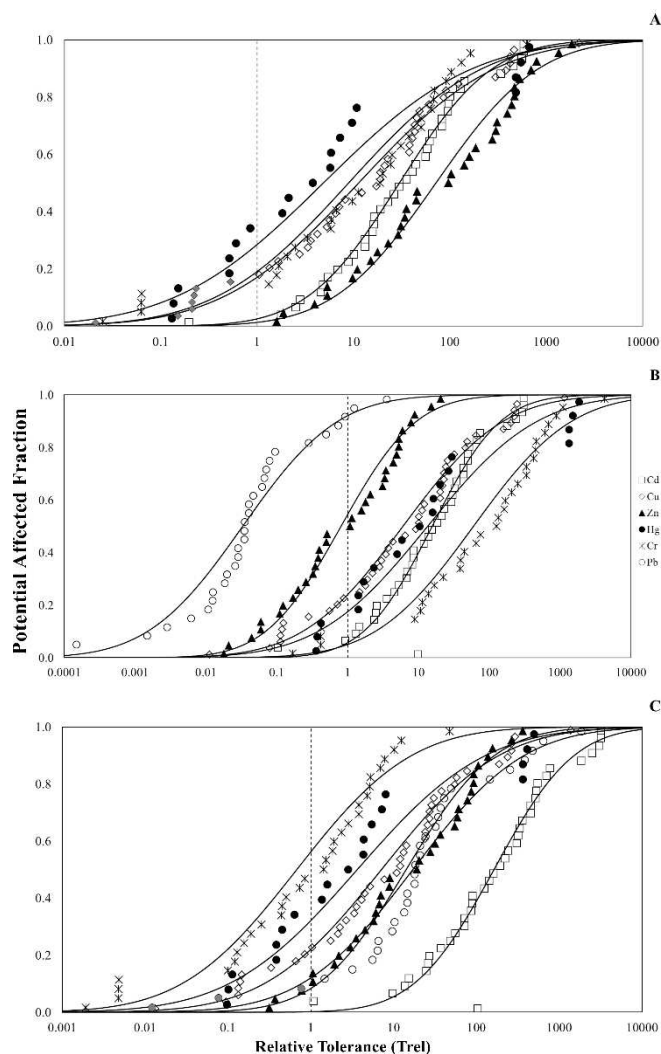


Fig. 6. Cumulative distribution function of calculated Trel values for A=*Raphidocelis subcapitata*, B=*Daphnia magna* and C=*Oncorhynchus mykiss*. Dashed line (Trel = 1) indicates the sensitivity of the standard test species. Trel<1 and Trel>1 indicate a greater and lower sensitivity of the ciliate species as regards to the standard test species, respectively. Trel values for Lead and *R. subcapitata* are not available due to the absence of a toxicity value for that species.

Table 1 shows the quantity of Trel values that are higher or lower than one, and the number of Trel values that are below or above one or more orders of magnitude as regards to the three standard test species (Appendix A. Table S3). Table 1 also indicates the standard test species that shows the lowest toxicity value and that will, therefore, trigger the development of metals threshold concentrations (*i.e.*, *R. subcapitata* for Copper and Zinc, *D. magna* for Mercury and Chromium, and *O. mykiss* for Cadmium and Lead). The results of this evaluation show that for these metals and standard test species combinations, the quantity of ciliate species below the Trel value of one is generally low. Furthermore, the application of an assessment factor of 10 (corresponding to a Trel of 0.1), which is usually applied to account for interspecies sensitivity differences, will result in a sufficient protection level for most ciliate taxa. The exceptions

are Copper and Lead, for which the application of an assessment factor of 10 to the toxicity value of the most sensitive standard test species will leave 1 and 2 of the ciliate species unprotected, respectively. The species that are not protected are *Blepharisma americanum* (Copper), *Dexiostoma campylum* (Lead) and *Aspidisca cicada* (Lead).

Table 1: Number of Trel values within each specific range. Trel values were calculated by dividing the toxicity value of each ciliate species by the toxicity value of *Raphidocelis subcapitata*, *Daphnia magna* or *Oncorhynchus mykiss* (Appendix A. Table S3). Trel < 1 indicate a higher sensitivity of the ciliate as regards to that of the standard test species, and Trel > 1 indicate a lower sensitivity. Bold numbers indicate the most sensitive standard test species for each heavy metal. Trel values for lead and *R. subcapitata* are not available due to the absence of a toxicity value for that species. The number of samples (L(E)C₅₀ values) per metal was: Cadmium = 38, Copper = 42, Zinc = 33, Mercury = 19, Lead = 30 and Chromium = 31.

		<i>R. subcapitata</i>						
Heavy metals	<0.01	0.01–0.1	0.1–1	1–10	10–100	>100	<1	>1
Cadmium	0	0	1	8	21	8	1	37
Copper	0	1	0	12	16	7	1	35
Zinc	0	0	0	6	11	16	0	33
Mercury	0	0	7	7	1	4	7	12
Lead	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Chromium	0	4	0	10	13	4	4	27

		<i>D. magna</i>						
Heavy metals	<0.01	0.01–0.1	0.1–1	1–10	10–100	>100	<1	>1
Cadmium	0	0	0	14	17	5	0	36
Copper	0	2	8	11	15	6	10	32
Zinc	0	5	11	15	3	0	16	17
Mercury	0	0	3	6	6	4	3	16
Lead	5	19	4	2	0	0	28	2
Chromium	0	0	4	1	10	16	4	27

		<i>O. mykiss</i>						
Heavy metals	<0.01	0.01–0.1	0.1–1	1–10	10–100	>100	<1	>1
Cadmium	0	0	0	2	13	23	0	38
Copper	0	2	7	11	16	6	9	33
Zinc	0	0	6	8	12	5	6	25
Mercury	0	1	6	6	0	4	7	12
Lead	0	2	1	6	15	6	3	27
Chromium	4	0	11	13	3	0	15	16

Note: –: no data for Lead.

3.4. Sensitivity comparisons across ciliate taxa

Our study shows that *P. caudatum* was more sensitive to $\text{Cu} > \text{Hg} > \text{Cd} > \text{Cr} > \text{Zn} > \text{Pb}$ and, *T. thermophila* was more sensitive to $\text{Cd} > \text{Cu} > \text{Pb} > \text{Zn} > \text{Cr}$ (based on the geometric mean of the available toxicity values). The relative sensitivity of *P. caudatum* and *T. thermophila* as regards to the other ciliate species can be observed in the SSDs shown in Figure 7. *P. caudatum* was found to be positioned in the lower tail of the SSD for Cadmium, Copper and Chromium, and showed a middle-to-high tolerance for Zinc, Mercury and Chromium as compared to other ciliates. *T. thermophila* was positioned in the lower SSD tail for Cadmium and Lead, and was found to be relatively tolerant to Copper, Zinc, and Chromium (note that there was not toxicity data available for this species and Mercury). The results of this analysis show that, although these two species are relatively sensitive for some compounds, none of them is systematically positioned in the lower tail of all SSDs, indicating that both species may be important for the risk assessment of metals to ciliates. Moreover, the application of an interspecies assessment factor of 10 to the most sensitive of the two, will result in a protection level of 7%, 26%, 78%, 43%, 67%, 84% of the species for Cadmium, Copper, Zinc, Mercury, Lead and Chromium, respectively.

Figure 7 also displays the relative position of the different ciliate classes within the SSD. It shows that the Classes Oligohymenophorea and Spirotrichea were distributed all along the SSD curve (Figure 7), demonstrating variable sensitivity. In general, the class Heterotrichia showed a higher sensitivity to Copper, Mercury and Zinc and high-to-median tolerance to Cadmium, Lead and Chromium. The class Phyllopharyngea was found to be highly sensitive to Zinc, and Nassophorea to Chromium, although the amount of toxicity data for these classes is limited.

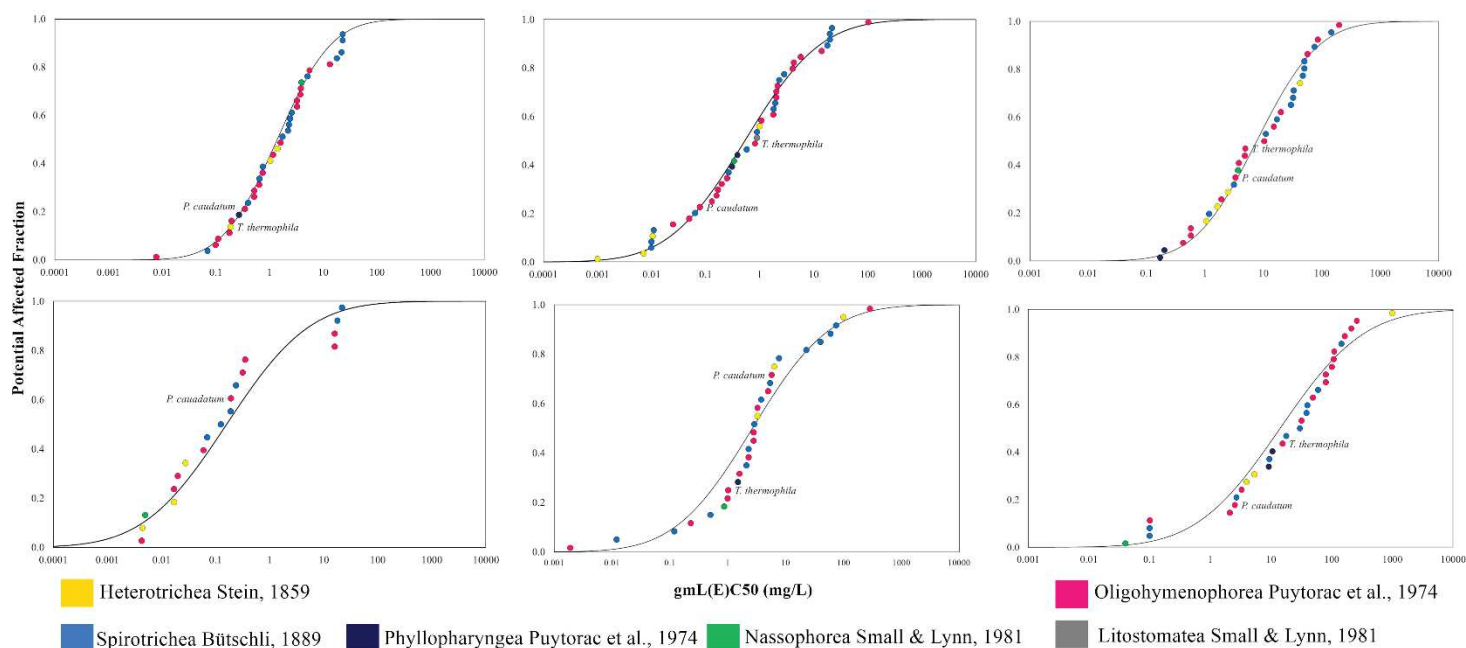


Fig. 7. Species Sensitivity Distributions (SSDs) for heavy metals and ciliates indicating the relative sensitivity of *Paramecium caudatum* and *Tetrahymena thermophila* as regards to the other ciliate taxa. All SSDs passed the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test.

4. Discussion

4.1. Ciliates sensitivity to heavy metals

In general, Chromium, Lead, Zinc, Copper were overly less toxic to ciliates but showed large confidence intervals, which indicates that there is a large variability in the toxicity data for these metals. Such large toxicity data variation may partly be explained by the diversity of experimental conditions and test methods used in the different studies (Appendix A. Table S2). For example, axenic cultures based on protease peptone culture medium (Carter and Cameron, 1973; Gallego et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2017), as proposed by Sonneborn (1970), have been extensively used in toxicity tests; but also mineral water and bark rice (Ruthven and Cairns, 1973; Dive et al., 1989; Madoni et al., 1992, 1994; Madoni, 2000; Madoni and Romeo, 2006; Wanick et al., 2008; Bitencourt et al., 2016), and natural waters (Nalecz–Jawecki et al., 1993; Madoni et al., 1996; Rehman et al., 2005, 2006, 2007, 2007a, 2008, 2008a, 2009, 2010, 2010a). When exposed to heavy metals in grain rice medium and boiled wheat (considered as the closest to the natural condition as possible; see Appendix A. Table S2), L(E)C₅₀ values ranged from 0.001 mg L⁻¹ to 211 mg L⁻¹ for all metals. It is important to mention that the studies that show lower L(E)C₅₀ variation across species and metals were all conducted within the

same laboratory. This suggests that inter-laboratory variability may be large, supporting the need to establish standardized test conditions.

Mercury and Cadmium were found to be the most toxic heavy metals and showed smaller confidence intervals. Mercury is a highly toxic element in the environment and has large potential to be transported through trophic chains (Ehrlich and Newman, 2008). The Mercury uptake by ciliates situated at the bottom of aquatic food chains can be a gateway for Mercury accumulation in upper trophic levels, and therefore deserves further attention (Lin et al., 2013). Cadmium is commonly found in aquatic ecosystems (Filho et al., 2000). The effect of Cadmium and the other heavy metals in freshwater organisms depends on their form (i.e., ion, organic and inorganic complexes, or insoluble complexes with hydroxide or sulfide ions), which is influenced by environmental conditions such as pH, alkalinity, hardness, and organic carbon content (USEPA, 1980; Suedel et al., 1997). Cadmium can cause mitochondrial degeneration and cristae disintegration in ciliates, both leading to serious modifications in vegetative cells (Iftode et al., 1985).

The sensitivity comparison of ciliates with *R. subcapitata*, *D. magna* and *O. mykiss* shows that ciliates are overly more tolerant than the standard test species commonly used in ecotoxicological risk assessments. Also, this study shows that, in general, the application of an assessment factor of 10 to the most sensitive of the three standard test species can result in a sufficient protection level for most ciliates. This suggests that current heavy metal threshold values and common prospective risk assessments, although disregard microorganisms in the data evaluation, are in principle protecting ciliates. The species that were found to be highly sensitive to heavy metals and that are apparently not protected by current threshold concentrations are *Blepharisma americanum*, *Dexiostoma campylum* and *Aspidisca cicada*. For these species, further toxicity testing is recommended.

Our study shows that the application of an assessment factor of 10 to the lowest toxicity value of the two most tested ciliate species (*P. caudatum* and *T. thermophila*) leaves a large number of ciliate taxa unprotected, particularly for Zinc, Lead and Chromium. This suggests that further toxicity studies should consider additional sensitive species; and that the development of heavy metal threshold concentrations for ciliates on the basis of these two common test species requires the application of a larger assessment factor.

4.2. Ciliates diversity and their use as toxicity models

The Phylum Ciliophora includes a wide diversity of species, ~ 8,000 (Gao et al., 2016). These species are ubiquitous in different types of environments, including marine, fresh and brackish waters, and edaphic systems such as soils, mosses, and lichens (Puytorac et al., 1994; Foissner et al., 2002; Foissner, 2003; Lynn, 2008). This versatility allows species of ciliates of distinct habitats to express different levels of sensitivity to heavy metal exposure (Gutiérrez et al., 2003, 2015).

According to the literature (Noland, 1925; Sleight, 1988), the presence of ciliates in different habitats is influenced by their capacity to adapt to the different physical and chemical conditions. They can form resistance cysts under unfavorable conditions, being dispersed and transported by wind, water, and insects or other animals (Finlay et al., 1996; Finlay, 2002; Esteban and Finlay, 2003; Fenchel and Finlay, 2004). The encystment ability of ciliates is significant in their life history, being an important trait to survive adverse environmental conditions, including pulsed contaminant exposure (Weisse, 2017). Environmental conditions of the water (*e.g.*, temperature, amount of dissolved organic matter, pH, conductivity, and oxygen concentration) may be linked to the specificity of ciliates and recurrent changes in community structure (Noland, 1925; Kudo, 1966; Sleight, 1988; Madoni, 2005; Madoni and Braghiroli, 2007). Furthermore, other factors such as seasonal, vertical, trophic and flood availability may also be determining the patterns of distribution, richness and, abundance of ciliates in aquatic systems (Velho et al., 2005, 2013; Pauleto et al., 2009; Segovia et al., 2016).

The aforementioned ecological elements can be an explanation to the variability in data referring to ciliates' chemical sensitivity. The unavailability of a standardized protocol, with particular grow medium and environmental conditions, is the main factor influencing the L(E)C₅₀ data variability. However, other factors that may explain the intrinsic species variability in sensitivity are the diverse ciliate ecological origin, morphology, behaviour and ecological niche.

P. caudatum and *T. thermophila* are the species that are most commonly used in toxicity tests performed with heavy metals (Grebecki et al., 1956; Nush, 1982; Madoni et al., 1992, 1994; Miranda and Martins, 2013; Gong et al., 2014) and other chemical compounds (Miyoshi et al., 2003; Rao et al., 2006; Alves, 2010; Amanchie and Hussain, 2010; Mansano et al., 2016). Both species have a large amount of published information regarding their biology, morphology, and behavior as compared to other ciliate species

(Rao et al., 2006; Gerhardt et al., 2010), and have a widespread geographic distribution (Sauvant et al., 1999). *P. caudatum* is mostly found in freshwater environments, in the hypolimnion or associated to macrophytes (e.g., lentic and lotic environments, but also sewage-treatment facilities). *P. caudatum* feeds on bacteria and have high tolerance to the presence of organic matter and, therefore, high saprobic index (Foissner and Berger, 1996; Miyoshi et al., 2003; Gerhardt et al., 2010). Moreover, as demonstrated by several studies, they grow well under *in vitro* conditions (Rao et al., 2006; Alves et al., 2016). As shown in this study, *P. caudatum*, but also *T. thermophila*, are sensitive to some heavy metals. However, none of them is the most sensitive species for all heavy metals, neither rank in the lowest sensitivity range for all metals, indicating that their suitability as model test organisms for heavy metal contamination may be questionable. Further research should also focus in the selection of other potential candidate model organisms. Among the potential candidates, we propose *Blepharisma americanum*, *Dexiostoma campylum* and *Aspidisca cicada* as these were the most sensitive species for at least two of the six metals analyzed.

4.3. Future perspectives

Ciliates are unicellular eukaryotes and have been used as whole-cell ecotoxicological models (Puytorac, 1994; Gutiérrez et al., 2003). Due to their high growth rates, they are able to double their individual numbers in a population in a short time span (Fenchel and Finlay, 1983). Ciliates reproduce both asexually and sexually, through binary fission or conjugation, respectively (Grell, 1973; Corliss, 1979). They do not have cell wall. This allows an easy uptake of chemicals resulting in modifications in the membrane structure, inhibition of the organization of cytoskeletons components, changes in the morphological integrity of organisms, and movement alterations (Olabarrieta et al., 2001; Pudpong and Chantangsi, 2015). These characteristics allow them to easily reflect changes due to exposure to heavy metals and other compounds in the field. Furthermore, there is a growing ciliate molecular database at GenBank (Banson et al., 2013), which can provide advancement for ecotoxicological studies by allowing the evaluation of genetic responses to toxicity in these organisms. Molecular tools may be applied to understand the mechanism of action of pollutants, to measure gene expression, and to develop indicators of toxic pressure and cellular damage, also helping to understand adaptation to changes in the external environment (Hamadeh et al., 2002; Calzolari et al., 2007).

Moreover, the advent of “omics” allow studies on genetic diversity in temporal and spatial scales across populations of ciliates, contributing to several interpretations regarding gene flow and the origin of ciliate populations (Tarcz et al., 2012; Zhao et al., 2013; Lu et al., 2019). The genome of some ciliates species (*T. thermophila*, *Paramecium tetraurelia*, *Euplotes crassus*, *Oxytricha trifallax* and *Stentor coeruleus*), has already been sequenced (Aury et al., 2006; Eisen et al., 2006; Vinogradov et al., 2012; Swart et al., 2013; Slabodnick et al., 2017). These species share a greater degree of functional conservation with human genes than with other eukaryotic models, and therefore are also suitable for human toxicological studies. Pan et al. (2018) described the sequencing of transcriptome and microRNAomic of *Euplotes vannus* exposed to nanoparticles, evidencing high expression of various antioxidant genes to prevent oxidative stress, and studying impacts over the TCA (tricarboxylic acid cycle) cycle and cellular repair mechanisms. We expect that the application of these novel methodologies with ciliates will allow the development of ecotoxicological assays for heavy metals and other contaminants.

5. Conclusions

In this study we comparatively assessed the sensitivity of freshwater ciliates to six metals, their relative sensitivity as compared to the standard test species commonly used in ecotoxicology (*Raphidocelis subcapitata*, *Daphnia magna* and *Onchornyncus mykiss*), and their inter-taxa sensitivity differences. The study shows that ciliates are more sensitive to Mercury, Cadmium and Copper, as compared to Chromium, Zinc and Lead. The sensitivity comparison with standard test species used in ecotoxicology shows that ciliates are generally less sensitive to heavy metal contamination. Also, this study suggest that threshold concentrations based on standard test species are expected to result in a sufficient protection level for the vast majority of ciliate taxa. Finally, this study shows that some ciliate classes show a higher sensitivity to some metals (Phyllopharyngea and Nassophorea), but the ciliate taxa that have been most commonly tested (*P. caudatum* and *T. thermophila*) are not necessarily within the most sensitive taxa. These findings, and the great variability in the available toxicity data observed in this study, support the need for further studies aimed at testing the sensitivity of other ciliate taxa and the development of standard toxicity test protocols.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Jéssica Andrade Vilas-Boas: Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation, Formal analysis, Data curation, Writing - original draft. **Simone Jaqueline Cardoso:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation, Formal analysis, Data curation, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. **Marcus Vinicius Xavier Senra:** Conceptualization, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing, Supervision. **Andreu Rico:** Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing, Supervision. **Roberto Júnio Pedroso Dias:** Conceptualization, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing, Supervision, Project administration.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2020.110669>.

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5 Chapter III

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Investigating the aquatic risks of caffeine using *Paramecium caudatum* (Alveolata, Ciliophora) as a model organism

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Abstract

Caffeine is a widely consumed psychoactive substance, which is continuously disposed into the environment with the potential to affect aquatic ecosystems. Ciliates play a key role in aquatic ecosystems and are considered good biological models to evaluate the impacts of chemical pollution. This study aimed to assess the sensitivity of *Paramecium caudatum* to caffeine, and to evaluate its relative sensitivity as compared to other aquatic organisms. Finally, we evaluated the risks of caffeine to ciliates and to other aquatic taxonomic organism groups. The LC₁₀ and LC₅₀ of caffeine for *P. caudatum* were 190 and 710 mg L⁻¹, respectively. This study demonstrates that *P. caudatum* is relatively tolerant as compared to other aquatic organisms. Further ecotoxicological studies with

other ciliate species are recommended to compare their chemical sensitivity, and to understand the ecological implications of their population decline for ecosystem functioning.

Keywords: aquatic ecosystems, ciliates, emerging contaminants, model organisms, risk assessment

Introduction

Caffeine is probably the most consumed psychoactive substance globally since coffee and many other food products and medicines contain caffeine (Gardinali and Zhao 2002; Diogo et al. 2013). Humans excrete part of the ingested caffeine (1% to 5% is not metabolized), and a considerable amount is discarded down-the-drain (e.g. by washing coffee machines and disposal of coffee grounds). Caffeine is not completely removed by wastewater treatment plants (Montagner et al. 2014a; Quadra et al. 2017), so a significant amount of caffeine reaches the environment (Tokimoto et al. 2005; Montagner et al. 2014a). Caffeine has been found in a wide range of aquatic systems, including oceans, surface waters, groundwater, and even drinking water (Barnes et al. 2008; Bruton et al. 2010; Machado et al. 2016). Moreover, caffeine may work as an indicator of the presence of other organic pollutants in the environment related to human presence, such as illicit drugs, pharmaceuticals and personal care products (Buerge et al. 2003; Ferreira et al. 2005; Montagner et al. 2014a,b).

Caffeine is generally recognized as an un Hazardous compound for humans, but may pose toxicity to aquatic organisms depending on the exposure regime and the environmental conditions (Price et al. 1990, Hollingsworth et al. 2003, Montagner et al. 2014b). Caffeine has been found in concentrations up to $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ and mg L^{-1} in aquatic ecosystems (Spongberg et al. 2011; Tran et al. 2014; Rodríguez-Gil et al. 2018; Quadra et al. 2020). Some toxicity studies show that these concentrations are not expected to cause acute toxicity to aquatic organisms (Calleja et al. 1994; Moore et al. 2008; Selderslaghs et al. 2013; Zarrelli et al. 2014). However, caffeine is continuously disposed into the environment and, according to Rodríguez-Gil et al. (2018), chronic effects are expected to occur in surface waters and estuary waters. Indeed, previous studies have shown that concentrations of few mg L^{-1} of caffeine affect the development of amphibians and fish (Sakamoto et al. 1993; Chen et al. 2008). Also, Rosi-Marshall et al. (2013) demonstrated the influence of caffeine on algal and bacterial biomass and respiration at

environmentally relevant concentrations. Furthermore, a previous investigation with coffee waste demonstrated that this residue induces mutagenicity and toxic effects in crustaceans and bacteria (Moore et al. 2008; Rosi-Marshall et al. 2013; Fernandes et al. 2017). Despite some laboratory studies indicate a potential chronic risk of caffeine to aquatic ecosystems, the long-term effects at the ecosystem level have not been evaluated (Aguirre-Martínez et al. 2015). This is particularly important as a recent study suggests that caffeine concentrations in the aquatic environment might reach higher levels in the near future, especially in countries with high per capita consumption and/or a lack of sanitation system (Quadra et al. 2020).

Ciliates are considered an essential component of aquatic ecosystems. They are predators of bacteria and other protozoa and can be preyed by zooplankton species, mediating the energy flow from one trophic level to another (Sherr et al. 1988; Sherr and Sherr 1994; Madoni 2000; Mansano et al. 2014). Toxicity studies with ciliates are relatively scarce when compared to other microorganisms such as bacteria and algae. However, their small size, short life cycle, high reproduction rate and easy sampling allow the evaluation of environmental impacts in a short timescale (Grolière et al. 1990; Tan et al. 2010). Ciliates are considered good biological models, and have been proposed as model organisms for ecotoxicological studies (Gutiérrez et al. 2003, 2015, Gomiero et al. 2013). The sub-phylum Ciliophora is constituted by organisms with different physiological and morphological characteristics, which confer a wide range of sensitivities to pollutants in the aquatic environment (Madoni and Romeo 2006). Therefore, it is necessary to evaluate different species to find which one may be the most suitable model organism for different toxicological modes of action.

The aim of this study was to assess the sensitivity of *Paramecium caudatum* (Alveolata, Ciliophora) to caffeine and its usefulness as an indicator of caffeine pollution in aquatic ecosystems. Furthermore, we evaluated the relative sensitivity of *P. caudatum* as compared to other aquatic organisms, and discuss the potential risks of caffeine to ciliates making use of a global exposure dataset.

Materials and Methods

Toxicity tests

P. caudatum (Ehrenberg, 1833) individuals were isolated from the São Pedro stream, Juiz de Fora, Minas Gerais, Brazil (-43.378154, -21.762157). The stock cultures

were maintained for more than one year in the Protozoology Laboratory at Federal University of Juiz de Fora, Minas Gerais, Brazil. The culture medium used for maintenance was Cerophyl (Sonneborn 1957) with *Escherichia coli* (see Supplementary Material SI1). Cerophyl was added weekly to the culture and kept under room temperature. The characteristics of the culture medium were: temperature 23 °C, dissolved oxygen 85% (7.27 mg L⁻¹), turbidity 6.3 Nephelometric Turbidity Units, total dissolved solids 395 mg L⁻¹, salinity 0.24 ‰, and pH 8.76.

Five ciliates were introduced into each well in the 24 wells of the culture plate with 300 µl of culture medium Cerophyl (Sonneborn 1957), with three replicates during the growth phase (see Supplementary Material SI2, Table 1 and 2). The samples were maintained in an incubator at controlled temperature (25 °C) with a light:dark regime of 12 h / 12 h during 120 h. At each 24 h interval, the samples were fixed in Bouin for cell counts using a Sedgewick-Rafter chamber (Velho et al. 2013). The growth curve was made in MS Excel using the arithmetic mean and standard deviation of the cell counts. Only individuals from populations at logarithmic growth phase were used for the tests. The sensitivity range (positive control) of *P. caudatum* was assessed using sodium chloride acute toxicity tests, which were repeated 20 times. The control chart showing the sensitive range was calculated in MS Excel, where the sodium chloride LC₅₀ is displayed.

The organisms used in the experiments were removed from the stock culture using a micropipette two hours before the test to acclimatize in mineral water. The chronic toxicity test was carried using a control and six concentrations: 50 mg L⁻¹, 100 mg L⁻¹, 200 mg L⁻¹, 400 mg L⁻¹, 800 mg L⁻¹ and 1,600 mg L⁻¹ (300 µl per concentration). The tests were developed in culture plates with 24 wells. For each treatment level, 10 organisms were used per replicate (three for each concentration and control). The mortality was assessed by counting the number of cells (movement cell was considered alive). The LC₅₀ and LC₁₀ for Caffeine was calculated using R Version 3.6.0. (see Supplementary Material SI3), using a nonlinear regression model. Firstly, we checked the data normality using the Shapiro-Wilks Test and then subjected to a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). A non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test was applied for the non-normal data. We considered significant when *p* value < 0.05.

Relative toxicity

We used the toxicity data (see Supplementary Material SI4) from the US EPA ECOTOX database (<https://cfpub.epa.gov/ecotox/index.cfm>; 10th July 2020) to calculate

the relative toxicity (Trel) of *P. caudatum* as compared to other aquatic organisms. The toxicity data for other aquatic microorganisms included population effects based on growth, mortality, reproduction and development (EC₅₀/LC₅₀; 1-6h), and population, reproduction and mortality (NOEC/LOEC; > 6h) as used by Rodríguez-Gil et al. (2018). The Trel was calculated by dividing the toxicity values for the other species by the mean value LC₅₀ to *P. caudatum* using Microsoft Excel (Daam and Rico 2018). The values lower than one indicate that species are more sensitive than *P. caudatum*, while Trel values larger than one indicates that the standard species are larger sensitivity to caffeine. All calculated Trel values were used to build a cumulative distribution function that helps to visualize their higher or lower sensitivity as regards to that of *P. caudatum*.

Risk assessment

We performed a risk assessment of caffeine considering the maximum measured environmental concentrations (MEC) reported by Rodríguez-Gil et al. (2018), Quadra et al. (2020) and updated literature. Risks were calculated for ciliates, using the toxicity value for *P. caudatum* (NOEC = 100 mg L⁻¹) derived as part of this study, but also toxicity data representative of other taxonomic groups (algae, crustaceans and fish). For algae, the NOEC was 0.1 mg L⁻¹ derived from an *in situ* test checking biofilms' population biomass (Lawrence et al. 2005). For crustaceans, it was based on toxicity data for *D. magna* (NOEC of 0.12 mg L⁻¹) (Lu et al. 2013). For fish, it was based on a toxicity value for *Carassius auratus*, with a NOEC of 0.0032 mg L⁻¹ reported by observing an enzymatic effect (Li et al. 2012). The assessment factor (AF) of 100, which is commonly used for chronic toxicity data (Mansano et al. 2016), was applied to obtain the PNEC values (NOEC/AF). Therefore, the risk quotient (RQ) was obtained by dividing MEC by PNEC, and results above 1 were considered as high risk, while below 0.1 low risk and values in between as moderate risk.

Results and Discussion

Sensitivity of *P. caudatum* to caffeine

Chemical analysis showed that the actual exposure concentrations in the experiments with caffeine differed by less than 8 % from the nominal concentrations and so the LC₁₀ and LC₅₀ concentrations were calculated based on the nominal concentrations (see Supplementary Material SI5). The calculated LC₁₀ for *P. caudatum* was 190 mg L⁻¹

ranging from 150 to 240 mg L⁻¹ and, the LC₅₀ was 710 mg L⁻¹ ranging from 600 to 810 mg L⁻¹ (Fig. 1). The caffeine affected *P. caudatum* after chronic exposure but the LC₁₀ (190 mg L⁻¹) and LC₅₀ (710 mg L⁻¹) values were bigger than values detected in the environment. According to Harris and Sumpter (2015), an important issue about ecotoxicological studies is the lack of key information that enables quality evaluation, allowing comparisons and reproducibility. Hanson et al. (2017) proposed nine requirements to follow and evaluate ecotoxicological studies in order to improve the quality and reach environmental protection. We met all the requirements, although we did not develop an hypotheses test. However, especially to ciliates bioassays, most of the studies do not describe a considerable part of these requirements, such as exposure confirmation and presentation of all raw data, inducing problems of reliability, reproducibility, and comparison. According to Vilas-Boas et al. (2020a,b) standard toxicity test protocols are necessary to improve the quality of the toxicological studies with ciliates.

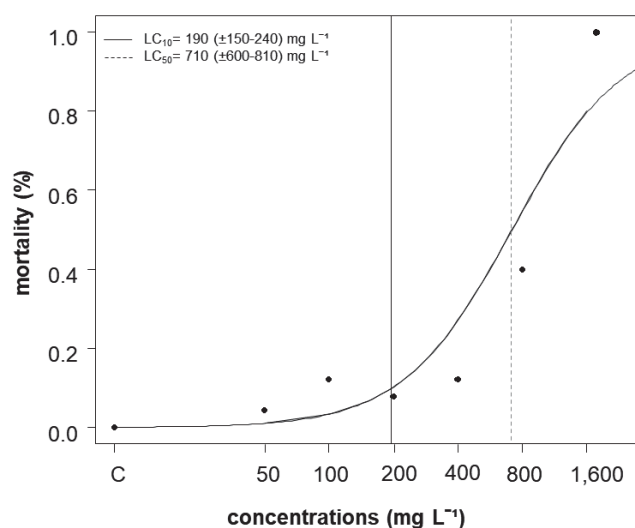


Fig 1. LC₅₀ and LC₁₀ values of *Paramecium caudatum* after 24 h exposure of caffeine.

Relative sensitivity of *P. caudatum* to caffeine

Some data reported caffeine toxicity above 100 mg L⁻¹. The rotifer species *Platyonus patulus* presented two different LC₅₀ values of 350 and 419 mg L⁻¹ (Martinez Gomez et al. 2015) and, *Photobacterium phosphorusphosporeum* species showed a LC₅₀ equal 671.8 mg L⁻¹. These LC₅₀ values are the closest to *P. caudatum* showing perhaps a

similar sensitivity. Caffeine concentrations in water samples in the order of mg L^{-1} may cause adverse effects on amphibians, fish and microorganisms. Sakamoto et al. (1993) observed changes in the development of *Xenopus leavis* after exposed to caffeine (100 mg L^{-1}). The *Danio rerio* embryos demonstrated that caffeine in concentrations higher than 300 mg L^{-1} caused mortality (Chen et al. 2008). Another study showed that embryos exposed to 150 mg L^{-1} exhibited changes in the formation and hence, affecting development and decreased ability to locomotion (Yeh et al. 2012). Chronic effects have also been reported affecting the reproduction of *Ceriodaphnia dubia* and growth inhibition of *Pimephales promelas* exposed to caffeine and the LC_{50} values were 44 mg L^{-1} and 71 mg L^{-1} , respectively (Moore et al. 2008). In addition, caffeine may reduce respiration and biomass of the bacteria and algae (Rosi-Marshall et al. 2013). Moreover, coffee residues proved to induce mutagenicity effects by affecting the DNA (Fernandes et al. 2017).

Based on Trel values (Fig. 2), *Daphnia magna* was more sensitive than the other organisms. In the distribution, *P. caudatum* demonstrated not be a good model to protect the other species.

The application of an assessment factor of 10 – usually applied to account for interspecies sensitivity differences – is not be enough, except for *Brachionus calyciflorus*.

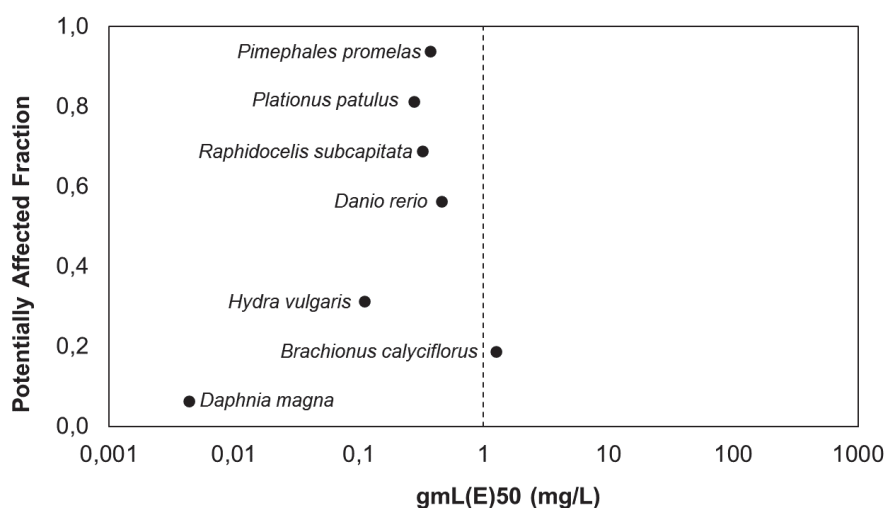


Fig 2. Species Sensitive distributions (SSD): Potentially Affect Fraction based on relative toxicity (Trel) values to *P. caudatum* and other model organisms to caffeine rank from higher sensitivity to lower sensitivity. The dashed line corresponds to $\text{Trel} = 1$ indicating the sensitivity of *P. caudatum* being $\text{Trel} < 1$ and $\text{Trel} > 1$ showing a greater and lower sensitivity relative of aquatic organisms.

Risk assessment

The maximum environmental concentrations of caffeine in surface water ecosystems of different countries varied from $0.02 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ (Estonia) to $1121.5 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ (Costa Rica), with an overall mean of $57 \pm 202 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ (mean \pm standard deviation) and median of $2.1 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ (Fig. 3). The global map shows a similar trend of caffeine consumption presented by Quadra et al. (2020), then high consumption is probably correlated to the environmental concentrations. However, some European countries showed a high consumption (Quadra et al. 2020) but lower environmental concentrations. Important factors to take into account are the number of investigations within the country, patterns of consumption, and the sewage network and wastewater treatment plant technology. The United States, for example, has many monitoring programs and the number of samples is high (Rodriguez-Gil et al. 2018), which increases the probability of finding higher concentrations. Therefore, besides those countries with more studies, the countries with a lack of sanitation show high environmental levels.

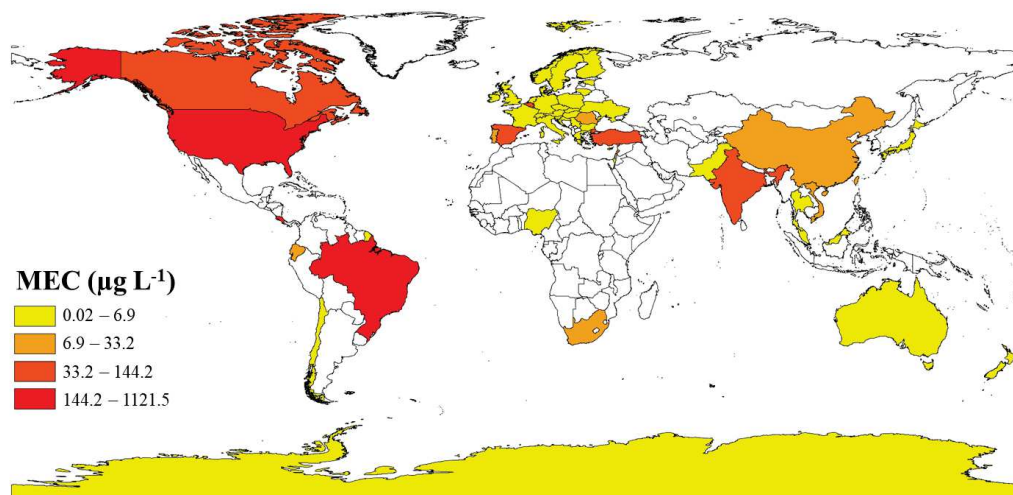


Fig 3. Maximum environmental concentration (MEC) of caffeine ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) in surface freshwater worldwide. Literature data is available on Supplementary Material SI3.

The risk assessment showed that the ciliate *P. caudatum* was tolerant comparing to others (Fig. 4). However, important to note that although all the studies investigated chronic toxicity, the observed effects differ by sensibility. Mortality is normally an observed effect less sensitive than reproduction and enzymatic effects. Moreover, the algae test with biomass was developed in field studies, which is usually more sensitive as well. Although it is not common to use different observed effects than the standard ones (growth, reproduction, mortality) to perform the risk assessment, we believe it is

necessary to develop tools to make the comparisons more robust considering different observed effects and *in situ* studies. However, the techniques to observe sublethal effects and *in situ* studies with ciliates are not entirely dominated and understudied, representing time and resource consuming.

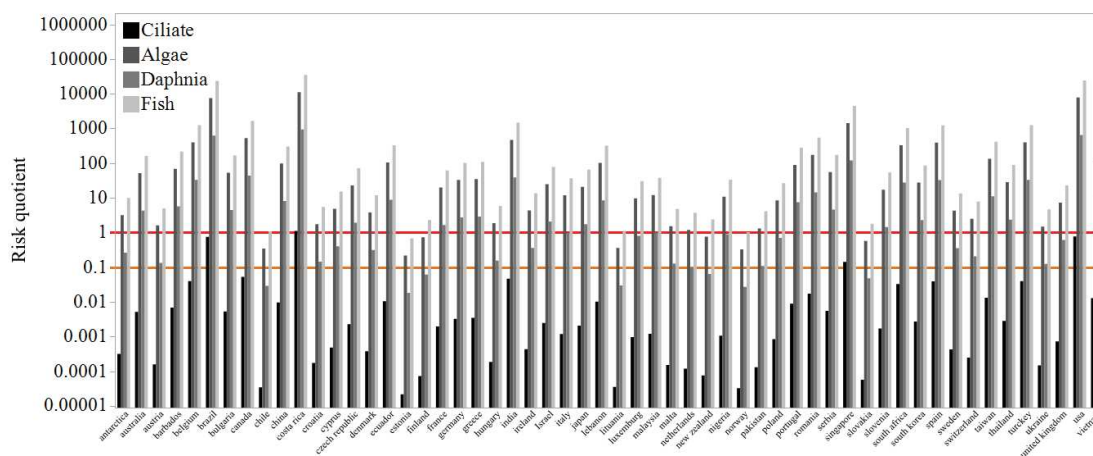


Fig 4. Risk assessment of ciliate, algae, daphnia, and fish worldwide considering the MEC and PNEC values. The orange line represents a moderate risk, while the red line high risk.

The risk assessment performed here is not only to compare different species but to show that the environmental concentrations of caffeine are posing a high risk to aquatic ecosystems considering the enzymatic test using fish. Considering the ciliate, the maximum environmental concentrations of Brazil, Singapore and the United States would pose a moderate risk to the species. In contrast, Costa Rica concentration would pose a high risk. Important to mention that finding a tolerant species does not mean that the contaminants do not represent a threat to the aquatic ecosystems. It is also crucial to consider potential mixtures effects and behavioral toxicity since caffeine already showed synergetic effects with other chemicals and some species are sensitive to low environmental concentrations using behavior as an observed effect (Dafouz et al. 2018; Rodríguez-Gil et al. 2018; Steele et al. 2018). Besides considering other observed effects and mixture toxicity, the tolerant species may also change the community composition and, consequently, the ecosystem processes and services.

Conclusion

Our study is the first to evaluate the sensitivity of ciliates (*P. caudatum*) to caffeine. The ciliate demonstrated tolerance to caffeine, which may imply a higher

resistance in the environment. Moreover, we observed a moderate risk for *P. caudatum* regarding maximum environmental concentrations of caffeine in surface freshwater. Their relative sensitivity comparison showed that *P. caudatum* used as standard test species would not have sufficient protection for most freshwater species. Even the global distribution of caffeine and the probability of increasing environmental concentrations highlight the need for more studies to better understand caffeine in aquatic ecosystems and the associated risks.

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Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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6 Chapter IV

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Multiple stressors in Mediterranean coastal wetland ecosystems: influence of salinity and an insecticide on zooplankton communities under different temperature conditions

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Abstract

Temperature increase, salinity intrusion and pesticide pollution have been suggested to be among the main stressors affecting the biodiversity of coastal wetland ecosystems. Here we assessed the single and combined effects of these stressors on zooplankton communities collected from a Mediterranean coastal lagoon. An indoor microcosm experiment was designed with temperature variation (20 °C and 30 °C), salinity (no addition, 2.5 g/L NaCl) and the insecticide chlorpyrifos (no addition, 1 µg/L) as treatments. The impact of these stressors was evaluated on water quality variables and on the zooplankton community (structure, diversity, abundance and taxa responses) for 28 days. This study shows that temperature is the main driver for zooplankton community change, followed by salinity and chlorpyrifos. The three stressors contributed to a decrease on zooplankton diversity. The increase of temperature contributed to an increase of zooplankton abundance. Salinity generally affected Cladocera, which resulted in a Copepoda increase at 20 °C, and a reduction in the abundance of all major zooplankton groups at 30 °C. The insecticide chlorpyrifos affected primarily Cladocera, although the magnitude and duration of the direct and indirect effects caused by the insecticide substantially differed between the two temperature scenarios. Chlorpyrifos and salinity resulted in antagonistic effects on sensitive taxa (Cladocera) at 20 °C and 30 °C. This study shows that temperature can influence the direct and indirect effects of salinity and pesticides on zooplankton communities in Mediterranean coastal wetlands, and highlights vulnerable taxa and ecological responses that are expected to dominate under future global change scenarios.

Keywords: climate change, multiple stressors, pesticides, salinization, coastal lagoons.

Highlights

- Multiple stressor effects investigated on Mediterranean zooplankton communities
- Temperature (T) > salinity (S) > chlorpyrifos (CPF) affected community structure
- Community effects of S and CPF were influenced by T regime
- S and CPF resulted in antagonistic effects on sensitive taxa (Cladocera).
- There was no significant interaction between the three stressors (T, S, CPF)

Introduction

Coastal wetland ecosystems support a large share of the global aquatic biodiversity and provide important ecological services, such as nutrient cycling, food provision or erosion control (Pérez–Ruzafa et al., 2010; Barbier, 2011). Several authors have identified wetland ecosystems in the Mediterranean region as particularly vulnerable to climate change and anthropogenic pressures (Romo et al. 2005; 2016; Pérez–Ruzafa et al., 2011; Osland et al., 2016; Gabler et al., 2017). Low precipitation and increasing evaporation associated to climate change, and the increasing subtraction of freshwater resources for agricultural irrigation and urban expansion modify significantly their water balance (Navarro–Ortega et al., 2012). The reduction of freshwater inputs generally results in an increase of salinity, mainly due to seawater intrusion (Millán et al., 2011; Cañedo–Argüelles et al., 2016, 2019), which modifies physicochemical ecosystem variables and changes the metabolism of aquatic organisms, interfering with their life–history traits and fitness (Rokneddine and Chentoufi, 2004; Jeppesen et al., 2015). For instance, Nielsen et al. (2003) described decreased diapausing eggs' emergence of zooplankton and richness related to slight increases in water salinity. According to Coldsnow et al. (2017), increasing salinity generally results in a decrease of cladocerans and copepods, and an increase of rotifers, which facilitates the increase of phytoplankton blooms and the alteration of functional ecosystem parameters. Furthermore, salinity can induce changes in species competition patterns and alter predation regimes, which affect population dynamics and the structure of freshwater communities (Hintz et al., 2018; Bracewell et al., 2019).

Chemical emissions from agricultural, industrial and urban activities are also important drivers of biodiversity loss in coastal wetlands (Liu and Diamond, 2005; Navarro–Ortega et al., 2012; Bassi et al., 2014). Pesticides, which are commonly used in rice, vegetable and fruit production surrounding coastal wetlands, have been identified as one of the chemical groups of highest environmental concern (Picó et al., 2019). Particularly, organophosphorus insecticides, and some carbamate and azole fungicides, have been identified as a potential threat to freshwater biodiversity in Mediterranean river estuaries and wetlands (Ccanccapa–Cartagena et al., 2019). Aquatic ecosystems in Mediterranean regions are naturally influenced by seasonal temperature variations, reaching water temperatures of nearly 30 °C during the summer period. According to the 5th report from the Intergovernmental Panel for Climate Change (IPCC, 2014), the

prevalence of summer peak temperatures, heatwaves, and periods dominated by high water temperature is expected to increase markedly in the Mediterranean region in the coming years. Increasing temperatures may influence the metabolic rate of aquatic organisms, leading to different reproductive patterns and species interactions, which affect the structure of communities (Gillody et al., 2001; Devreker et al., 2009) and their vulnerability to additional stressors (Klausmeyer and Shaw, 2009; Mantyka-Pringle et al., 2012; Rojo et al., 2017; Arenas-Sánchez et al., 2019).

Despite the elevated number of studies describing the influence of temperature, salinity and chemical pollution in freshwater ecosystems, evidence on the interactive effects of these stressors remains limited (Mantyka-Pringle et al., 2014; Jackson, 2018; Arenas-Sánchez et al., 2019). Heugens et al. (2001) and Bracewell et al. (2019) published literature reviews discussing the influence of temperature, nutritional state and salinity on the sensitivity of different groups of aquatic organisms to various classes of chemicals. Moreover, previous review papers have considered the interaction between contaminants and temperature (Cairns et al., 1975), contaminants and salinity (Hall and Anderson, 1995) and the combination of these three factors (McLusky et al., 1986). These studies show that temperature generally tends to increase metabolic rates, leading to an increase in water exchange that results in a higher uptake and toxicity of chemicals to some aquatic organisms. No clear trend was observed for the combined effects of organic chemicals and salinity, except for organophosphate insecticides, for which a synergistic effect has been described (Heugens et al., 2001). This finding was based on laboratory experiments performed with mosquito larvae (*Aedes taeniorhynchus*) and brine shrimps (*Artemia* sp.) exposed to aldicarb and dimethoate under isosmotic and hyperosmotic conditions (Song and Brown, 1998). Particularly, for mosquito larvae, the short term LC₅₀ for dimethoate was an order of magnitude lower under hyperosmotic conditions, suggesting that further studies are needed to assess the interactive effects of organophosphate insecticides and salinity in freshwater organisms.

The aim of the present study was to assess the effects of salinity, insecticide pollution and temperature regimes on zooplankton communities characteristic of a Mediterranean coastal wetland ecosystem. The main hypotheses were that different temperatures will influence community structure, and affect the single and combined effects of both chemical stressors. Also, as previously described, we expected that an increase in salinity enhances the uptake and sensitivity of some freshwater taxa to insecticide pollution. In our study, these hypotheses were tested by performing an indoor

microcosm experiment with planktonic organisms collected from the Albufera lagoon (Valencia, Spain). The Albufera lagoon is a shallow (mean depth 1.2 m), oligohaline (salinity 1–2‰), polymictic and eutrophic-to-hypereutrophic lagoon surrounded by intensive agriculture and urbanization (Romo et al. 2005). In our study, zooplankton was selected as focal taxonomic group due to their high sensitivity and rapid response to the selected stressors, and due to their relevant contribution as a food resource for fish, amphibians and birds in aquatic ecosystems. As test compound, we selected the organophosphate insecticide chlorpyrifos (CPF) [O, O-diethyl o-(3, 5, 6-trichloro-2-pyridyl) phosphorothioate]. CPF is a broad-spectrum insecticide that is widely used throughout the world in several agricultural crops (Cortina-Puig et al., 2010). This compound has been detected in a wide range of coastal wetland ecosystems and has been identified as highly toxic to aquatic non-target invertebrates and fish in the Mediterranean as well as in other regions (Moreno-González and León, 2017; Huang et al., 2020; Rico et al. In press). Since January 2020, CPF has been banned in the European Union due to its possible genotoxic and neurological effects in children (EC 2020). However it is considered a very good model compound given the amount of published data regarding its environmental exposure and effects (Huang et al. 2020). Moreover, it is expected to be replaced by surrogate pesticides with the same toxicological mode of action in European agriculture. The salinity and thermal regimes included in this study were based on monitoring data from the regional agricultural ministry (Valencian Agricultural Ministry, 2019) and represent realistic worst-case scenarios for the coastal aquatic system from which the zooplankton was collected. Overall, this study contributes to improve our understanding on the resilience of zooplankton communities to multiple stressors in Mediterranean coastal wetlands, and to identify vulnerable taxa and ecological responses that are expected to dominate under future global change scenarios.

Materials and methods

Experimental design

Thirty two microcosms (diameter 20.5 cm, total height 37 cm) were set-up in the ecotoxicology laboratory of the IMDEA Water Institute. The microcosms were filled with 12 L of water and plankton collected from the Albufera lagoon (39°20N, 0°21W). Water was collected on the 1st of October of 2019 from the inner part of the lagoon and transported to the laboratory. Zooplankton was collected on the same date and

concentrated *in-situ* with a plankton net (mesh size: 55 μm). Afterwards, it was distributed homogeneously over the test microcosms.

The experiment followed a factorial design with three treatments and two different levels each, and was run with four replicates ($n=4$). The treatments were: temperature (20 °C and 30 °C), salinity (no salt addition, 2.5 g/L salt addition in form of NaCl) and CPF exposure (i.e., control, 1 $\mu\text{g/L}$). The temperature of the 30 °C microcosms was increased slowly during the first 7 days using a temperature-controlled water bath. The salinity (NaCl) was added at a rate of 0.5 g/L per day during 5 days (until reaching 2.5 g/L) using a saline stock solution of 100 g/L and adding 60 mL per day to each exposed microcosm. CPF was added as a single dose 14 days after the set-up of the experiment. The choice of the temperature and salinity were done according to available monitoring data from the Albufera lagoon (see Supporting Information, Figures S1 and S2), and represent maximum temperature and salinity values of late summer periods.

The microcosms were subjected to a light/dark regime of 16:8 h. The light intensity was 3112 lux, which was considered powerful enough to maintain the phytoplankton community in the microcosms according to the OECD protocol for toxicity testing with algae (OECD 2006). Aeration was set inside of each microcosm with a low air flow to prevent extreme anoxic conditions, and to simulate mild water movement from air characteristic of natural ecosystems. The whole experiment had a duration of 6 weeks, with an acclimatization/adaptation period of 2 weeks and a post-insecticide exposure period of 4 weeks. The microcosms were checked weekly and refilled with demineralised water when excessive evaporation occurred.

Chlorpyrifos dosing, sampling, and analysis

A concentrated CPF stock solution of 12 mg/L in methanol was prepared. Aliquots (1 mL) of this stock solution were evenly distributed over the water surface of the corresponding microcosms and stirred with a glass pipette to reach a CPF concentration of 1 $\mu\text{g/L}$. Methanol (1 mL) was added to each chemical control according to the requirements specified by the OECD (2000) guidelines. Nominal concentrations were calculated on the basis of concentrations in the stock solution.

Water samples (100 mL) were taken from the microcosms by means of a glass pipette and transferred into glass flasks to measure CPF concentrations. Water samples were collected 2 h, and 1, 3, 7 and 10 days after the application in the microcosms that received the CPF application. Samples in the microcosms that did not receive CPF were

also collected on days 1 and 10 relative to the CPF application in order to assess any potential cross contamination. In general, samples were analyzed within 48 h after collection. When this was not possible, they were frozen and stored at -20°C until further analysis.

CPF concentrations in the microcosm water were analyzed using a gas chromatograph (GC) system (Agilent 7890A) coupled to a mass spectrometer (MS) with a triple quadrupole analyzer (Agilent 7000 GC/MS Triple Quad). The GC column used was a HP-5ms (Agilent) capillary column. Chlorpyrifos was extracted using the Stir Bar Sorptive Extraction (or Twister) technique. The Twister was placed in an Erlenmeyer flask with 100 mL of water sample containing the internal standard (chlorpyrifos-d10, 20 μL of a standard solution of 250 ng/mL) and stirred at 850 rpm overnight. After extraction, the stir bar was introduced in a glass thermal desorption tube, placed in the thermal desorption unit of the GC-MS. The limit of quantification (LOQ) and the limit of detection (LOD) of the method were 30 ng/L and 3 ng/L, respectively. The mean recovery of the method was: 98% (Relative Standard Deviation, RSD: 2%) at 30 ng/L, and 105% (RSD: 5%) at 100 ng/L (n=3).

Water quality measurements

Water quality variables (i.e., temperature, electric conductivity, pH, dissolved oxygen and total dissolved solids) were measured with a multi-meter probe (model HI98194; HANNA Instrument) at 10 cm depth on days -14 , -7 , -4 , 7, 14 and 28 relative to the CPF application. Water samples (1 L) were collected on days -3 and 14 relative to the CPF application for assessing ammonia, nitrate, orthophosphate and total P (TP) concentrations. Nitrate and ammonia concentrations were used to calculate the dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN). Chlorophyll-*a* concentrations were measured on days -3 , 7, 14 and 28 relative to the CPF application. Nutrient and chlorophyll-*a* samples were analyzed following the methods described in APHA (2005). The results of the water chlorophyll-*a* and nutrient concentrations were used to characterize the systems and to evaluate the possible influence of the tested stressors on ecosystem functional parameters.

Zooplankton sampling and determination

Zooplankton samples were taken on days -4 , 7, 14 and 28 relative to the CPF application. The samples (1.5 L) were collected using a suction pump and filtered through a zooplankton net (mesh size: 55 μm). Subsequently, the filtered water was returned to

the original microcosm. The concentrated zooplankton samples (maximum volume 100 mL) were preserved with Lugol's iodine solution (approximately 4% v/v) and let to sediment for 24 h. Afterwards, the supernatant was carefully removed to obtain a concentrated sample. Macrozooplankton (Cladocera, Copepoda, Ostracoda) were identified and counted in the entire zooplankton sample using an Olympus SZx2-TR30 stereomicroscope (magnification 20x). Microzooplankton (Rotifera) and Copepoda nauplii were assessed in 1 mL sub-samples, which were analyzed with a binocular Olympus UCTR30-2 microscope (magnification 100x). Macrozooplankton and microzooplankton taxa were identified to the lowest practical taxonomic resolution level. Abundance of each taxon was re-calculated to number of individuals per litre of the microcosm water.

Data analyses

The half-life of CPF (DT50) in the different temperature and salinity treatments was calculated by dividing $\ln(2)$ by the dissipation coefficient. The dissipation coefficients were calculated by means of linear regression of the \ln -transformed measured concentrations with the software Microsoft Excel version 2010 assuming first-order kinetics.

The influence of temperature, salinity and CPF on the zooplankton community was first evaluated with a Permutation Multivariate Analysis of Variance (PERMANOVA) test based on Euclidean distances with 999 Monte Carlo permutations (for further details see Anderson, 2001). A Principal Response Curve (PRC) analysis was performed in order to evaluate the responses associated to the different temperature scenarios, the responses associated to salinity and CPF separately in each temperature scenario, and the interaction between salinity and CPF in each of the two temperature scenarios. In each PRC analysis, the overall significance of the treatments on the dataset was tested by 999 Monte Carlo permutations under the Redundancy Analysis (RDA) option (for further details see Van den Brink and Ter Braak, 1999). The first four PRCs were inspected since the different stressors may result in different effects on the evaluated datasets, so it was expected that more than one PRC is needed to display the different community responses. In addition, a variation partitioning analysis was performed to assess the relative influence of each stressor on the zooplankton community using the RDA option (for rationale, see Peres-Neto et al. 2006). The PERMANOVA analyses were performed using the SIMPER version 7 Software (Clarke and Gorley, 2015). The

PRC and the variation partitioning analyses were performed using the CANOCO Software, version 5 (Ter Braak and Šmilauer, 2012). In all cases data were $\log(x+1)$ transformed prior to the statistical analyses, and a significance level of 0.05 was used to distinguish significant responses associated to each treatment and their interaction.

Population-level analyses were performed only with selected taxa: *Diaphanosoma* sp., *Moina* sp., *Anuraeopsis* sp. and *Lecane lunari*. These taxa were selected based on their relative large positive or negative response to the evaluated stressors as result of the PRC analysis (i.e., high or low b_k values). Population-level responses were evaluated by performing a three-way ANOVA for each sampling date, and including temperature, salinity and CPF as independent variables. Prior to any analysis, abundance data were $\log(x+1)$, exponential, \log_{10} , and square root transformed, and the best transformation was chosen for each sampling date based on the results of the Levene's variance homogeneity test and the Shapiro-Wilk normality test. When one of the two assumptions were not met, homogeneity of variances was prevailing over normality. The same analysis was performed for the calculated diversity (Simpson's index, Simpson 1949) and total zooplankton abundance, as well as for the total abundance of Cladocera, Copepoda and Rotifera, and for the water quality parameters (including chlorophyll-*a*). In this case, a first assessment of homogeneity of variances and normality was performed with non-transformed data, and only when data was not complying with the assumptions, transformed data was used based on the same criteria as described above for the population-level analyses. Ostracoda were not further evaluated since their abundances were extremely low during the course of the experiment in all treatments. The three-way ANOVAs and the variance homogeneity and normality tests were performed with the Software Jamovi 1.2.2.0 (Şahin and Aybek, 2019). The significant influence of the single stressors or their interactions on the response variables were established when the calculated p-value was lower than 0.05, although marginally significant values ($0.05 < p\text{-value} < 0.1$) are also indicated in the text.

Results

Chlorpyrifos concentrations

CPF dosing was properly done based on the concentrations measured in the stock solution. After application, CPF dissipated relatively fast from the water column. The calculated DT50 at 20 °C was 3.10 d in the microcosms that did not receive salt addition, and 4.40 d in the microcosms that received salt addition. At 30 °C, the DT50s were 1.61 and 1.85 d in the microcosms without salt and with salt addition, respectively. Therefore,

the dissipation of CPF at 30 °C was generally twice more rapid than at 20 °C, and salinization resulted in a slight delay on the dissipation of CPF.

Water quality parameters

The mean and standard deviation of the water quality variables measured in the microcosms are shown in Table 1. The measured temperatures in the 20 °C treatment were slightly above 20 °C, but in the 30 °C treatment they were very close to the intended temperature. Electric conductivity ($\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$) was more than two times higher in the microcosms that received salt addition, which is consistent with the expected salinity increase (Table 1).

Table 1. Water quality parameters (mean \pm standard deviation) measured in the different treatments during the experiment. The raw data are provided in Appendix I.

Parameters	T20	T20-S	T20-CPF	T20-S-CPF	T30	T30-S	T30-CPF	T30-S-CPF
Temperature (°C)	21.5 \pm 0.3	21.5 \pm 0.3	21.5 \pm 0.3	21.9 \pm 1.7	29.9 \pm 1.5	29.4 \pm 1.4	29.8 \pm 1.5	29.5 \pm 1.4
EC ($\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$)	1918 \pm 206	5540 \pm 1722	2053 \pm 454	5315 \pm 2097	2021 \pm 222	5787 \pm 1793	1943 \pm 462	5720 \pm 1768
pH	8.2 \pm 0.21	8.3 \pm 0.23	8.3 \pm 0.11	8.3 \pm 0.19	8.2 \pm 0.22	8.1 \pm 0.15	8.1 \pm 0.33	8.1 \pm 0.21
DO (%)	94.3 \pm 19.1	11.7 \pm 103	137 \pm 187	133 \pm 183.8	85.7 \pm 8.9	7.3 \pm 87.0	83.0 \pm 9.3	87.0 \pm 8.6
DO (mg/L)	7.8 \pm 0.9	8.1 \pm 0.8	8.1 \pm 0.6	7.7 \pm 1.3	5.9 \pm 0.7	5.9 \pm 0.5	5.6 \pm 0.7	5.9 \pm 0.6
TDS (mg/L)	964 \pm 117	2770 \pm 861	1053 \pm 203	2658 \pm 919	1014 \pm 110	2713 \pm 1018	1008 \pm 356	2848 \pm 883
Ammonia (mg/L)	0.01 \pm 0.02	<0.01 \pm 1.29	0.01 \pm 1.22	0.20 \pm 0.3	0.19 \pm 0.2	0.3 \pm 0.4	0.39 \pm 0.35	0.38 \pm 0.33
N-NO ₃ (mg-/L)	1.23 \pm 0.21	0.13 \pm 0.29	0.17 \pm 0.28	1.19 \pm 0.16	1.13 \pm 0.10	0.53 \pm 0.72	1.28 \pm 0.25	1.82 \pm 0.57
DIN ($\mu\text{g}/\text{L}$)	0.29 \pm 0.06	0.03 \pm 22.9	0.05 \pm 23.7	0.37 \pm 0.26	0.35 \pm 0.19	0.46 \pm 52.2	0.67 \pm 0.33	0.65 \pm 0.34
Ortophosphate (mg/L)	19.8 \pm 9.4	7.4 \pm 94.9	8.85 \pm 99.4	15.4 \pm 21.2	11.7 \pm 6.4	6.7 \pm 4.6	7.4 \pm 4.1	9.5 \pm 3.7
TP (mg/L)	96.7 \pm 31.9	16.4 \pm 81.9	17.2 \pm 81.9	67.6 \pm 21.3	50.6 \pm 11.9	24.5 \pm 70.3	42.2 \pm 14.9	59.7 \pm 15.7
Chlorophyll-a ($\mu\text{g}/\text{l}$)	125 \pm 167	110 \pm 110	103 \pm 138	69.1 \pm 90.3	110 \pm 146	90.3 \pm 90.3	86.9 \pm 116.1	57.7 \pm 59.2

EC: electric conductivity; DO: dissolved oxygen; TDS: total dissolved solids; T20: temperature at 20 °C; T30: temperature at 30 °C.

The three-way ANOVA indicates that all water quality variables were affected by temperature conditions (Table S1). Water pH ranged between 7.7 and 9.4, was found to be significantly lower in the 30 °C treatment and decreased after the salt and CPF addition (Table S1). As expected, dissolved oxygen concentrations were significantly higher in the 20 °C microcosms (7.7–8.1 mg/L) than in the 30 °C ones (5.6–5.9 mg/L). Oxygen levels significantly increased after the CPF addition, and in the treatments affected by CPF and salinity. TDS values were generally higher in the microcosms that had higher temperatures and received salt addition. Ammonia concentrations significantly increased in the 30 °C microcosms, and in the ones exposed to CPF and salinity (Table S1), up to

1.7 mg/L in the 30 °C microcosms that received salt on day -4. The interaction between temperature and salinity, and temperature and CPF also resulted in significantly higher values on day 14 (Table S1). DIN levels were generally similar across the different treatments, with slightly higher values in the 30 °C treatment and in the salinity ones. Conversely, TP was significantly lower in the treatment at 30 °C, with no consistent differences in the microcosms that received salinity or CPF. Mean chlorophyll-*a* concentrations ranged between 58-125 µg/L, which are representative of eutrophic freshwater ecosystems (Table 1). Chlorophyll-*a* concentrations were significantly lower in the microcosms at 30 °C (Table S1) and were notably reduced by the addition of salt in both temperature scenarios (Table 1).

Zooplankton responses

Eighteen zooplankton taxa were identified, most of them belonging to the Rotifera phylum (12 taxa) followed by the Cladocera order (3 taxa: *Diaphanosoma* sp., *Alona* sp., *Moina* sp.). Copepoda were subdivided into Copepoda nauplii and Cyclopoida (including adults and copepodites), and Ostracoda were not further identified.

The variation partitioning analysis performed to assess the relative influence of each stressor on the zooplankton community showed that temperature was the main stressor accounting for the zooplankton community variation (45% of explained variation), followed by salinity (32%) and CPF (24%; Table S2). The PERMANOVA analysis indicated that the different temperature regime significantly influenced the zooplankton community during the whole experimental period (Table 2). At 30 °C, the zooplankton diversity was significantly reduced, while the total abundance was higher, particularly at the beginning of the experiment (Table 3; Figure 1).

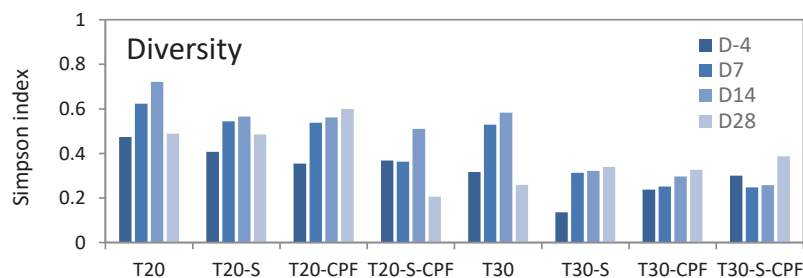
Table 2. Results of the PERMANOVA analysis performed with the zooplankton dataset. Bold values indicate significant effects (p-value<0.05) of the single stressors or their interactions. T: temperature, CPF: chlorpyrifos, S: salinity, D: days relative to the chlorpyrifos application.

Day	T	S	CPF	TxS	TxCPF	SxCPF	TxSxCPF
D-4	<0.001	0.152	0.181	0.002	0.066	0.512	0.182
D7	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.005	0.008	0.365	0.639
D14	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.003	0.303	0.296	0.710
D28	<0.001	<0.001	0.005	0.121	0.002	0.04	0.118

Table 3. Results of the three-way ANOVA (p-value) performed with the diversity index (Simpson), total abundance, and Cladocera, Copepoda and Rotifera abundances. Bold values indicate significant effects (p-value<0.05). T: temperature, CPF: chlorpyrifos, S: salinity, D: days relative to the chlorpyrifos application.

	T	S	CPF	TxS	TxCPF	SxCPF	TxSxCPF
Diversity							
D-4	<0.001	0.584	0.212	0.080	0.622	0.023	0.230
D7	0.008	0.024	0.073	0.761	0.891	0.651	0.237
D14	<0.001	0.004	0.008	0.450	0.599	0.077	0.511
D28	0.066	0.823	0.304	0.253	0.036	0.104	0.142
Total abundance							
D-4	<0.001	0.565	0.766	0.022	0.023	0.866	0.448
D7	0.642	0.454	0.011	0.022	0.005	0.375	0.652
D14	0.059	0.899	0.183	0.294	0.266	0.681	0.842
D28	0.625	0.146	0.052	0.838	0.763	0.026	0.118
Cladocera							
D-4	0.003	0.216	0.283	0.095	0.001	0.800	0.724
D7	0.009	0.002	0.006	0.014	0.578	0.012	0.056
D14	0.438	0.050	0.003	0.045	0.152	0.445	0.934
D28	0.068	0.486	0.117	0.451	0.154	0.787	0.937
Copepoda							
D-4	<0.001	0.611	0.895	0.028	0.042	0.767	0.723
D7	0.037	0.532	0.240	0.360	0.001	0.901	0.286
D14	0.059	0.899	0.183	0.294	0.266	0.681	0.842
D28	0.081	0.213	0.955	0.673	0.250	0.106	0.269
Rotifera							
D-4	0.038	0.449	0.471	0.105	0.139	0.048	0.006
D7	0.068	0.669	<0.001	0.005	0.713	0.905	0.676
D14	0.080	0.052	0.540	0.357	0.134	0.617	0.919
D28	0.008	0.462	0.002	0.431	0.020	0.901	0.126

The three-way ANOVA indicated a significant, or marginally significant, increase of Cladocera, Copepoda and Rotifera at 30 °C for the majority of sampling dates (Table 3; Figure 1).



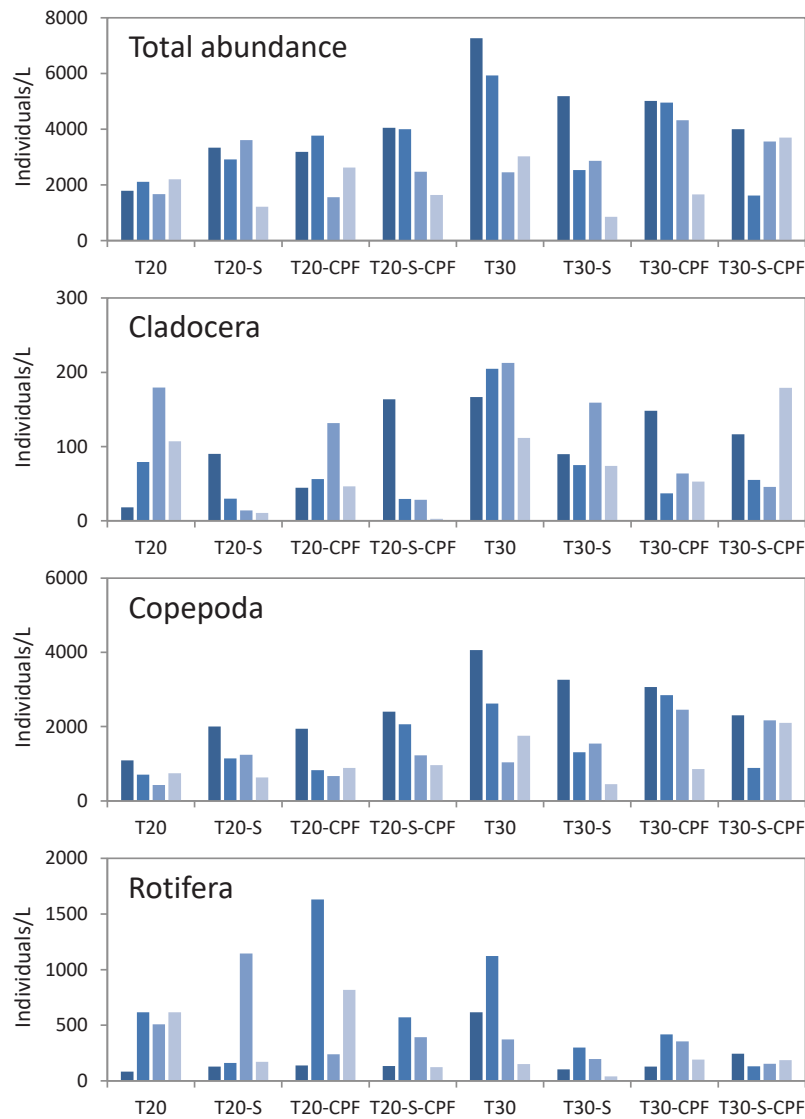


Figure 1. Average diversity, total abundance, and Cladocera, Copepoda and Rotifera abundance in the different treatments. T: temperature, CPF: chlorpyrifos, S: salinity, D: days relative to the chlorpyrifos application.

The PRC analysis performed with the temperature controls shows that temperature had a significant influence on the community structure (Table 4).

Table 4. Percentages of total variance attributed to time, differences between replicates and treatment regime in all PRC analyses performed in this study. The table also shows the fraction of treatment variance captured by the significant PRCs and the results of the Monte Carlo permutations (p-value). NS: not significant. T: temperature, CPF: chlorpyrifos, S: salinity.

Dataset	% of variance accounted for			% of variance explained by treatment regime captured by the different PRCs (p-value)		
	Time	Differences between replicates	Treatment	First PRC	Second PRC	Third PRC
T	46.0	52.4	1.6	60.6 (p=0.02) ^a	NS	NS
S at T20	21.2	57.4	21.4	64.8 (p=0.02) ^b	NS	NS
S at T30	19.7	46.5	33.8	63.5 (p=0.02) ^b	17.9 (p=0.04) ^d	NS
CPF at T20	33.5	51.6	14.9	59.8 (p=0.05) ^b	NS	NS
CPF at T30	29.6	48.9	21.5	66.9 (p=0.02) ^b	NS	NS
CPF and S at T20	43.5	49.9	6.7	36.5 (p<0.01) ^c	23.9 (p=0.03) ^c	NS
CPF and S at T30	45.7	45.3	9.0	45.7 (p<0.01) ^c	39.3 (p<0.01) ^c	12.9 (p=0.02) ^d

^a Figure 2, ^b Figure 4, ^c Figure S3, ^d Not shown.

The taxa that showed a marked increase in abundance at 30 °C were *Brachionus falcatus*, *Diaphanosoma* sp. and Copepoda nauplii, while *Ascomorpha* sp. and *Moina* sp. showed a slight decrease as compared to the 20 °C treatment (Figures 2 and 3).

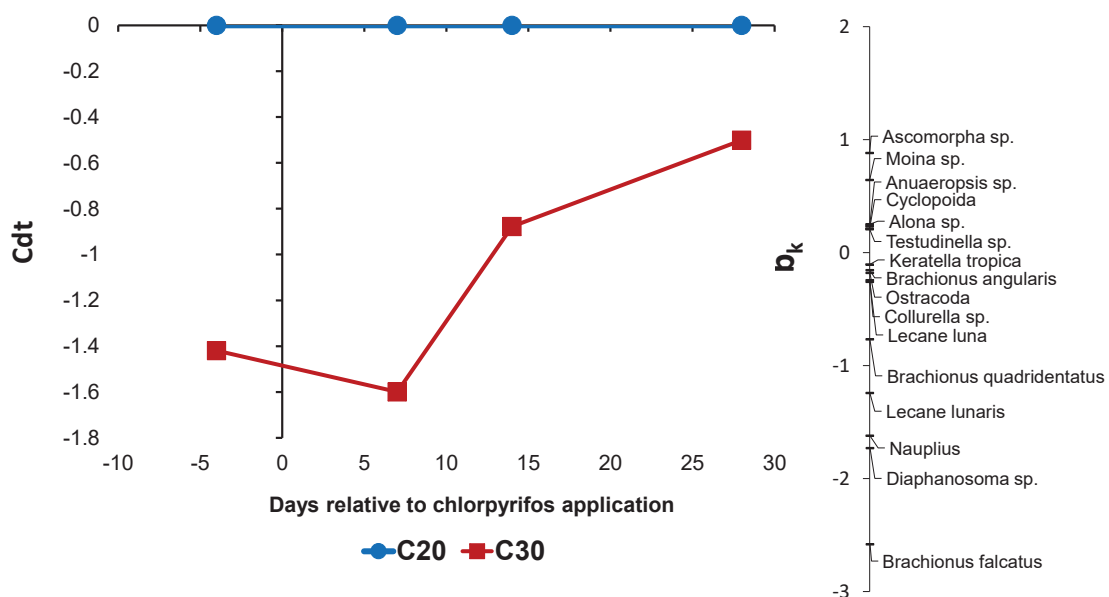


Figure 2. PRC calculated with the 20 °C and 30 °C replicates not receiving any chlorpyrifos or salinization treatment. The percentages of explained variance by time, differences between replicates and treatment regime are shown in Table 4. The raw data on taxa counts is provided in Appendix I.

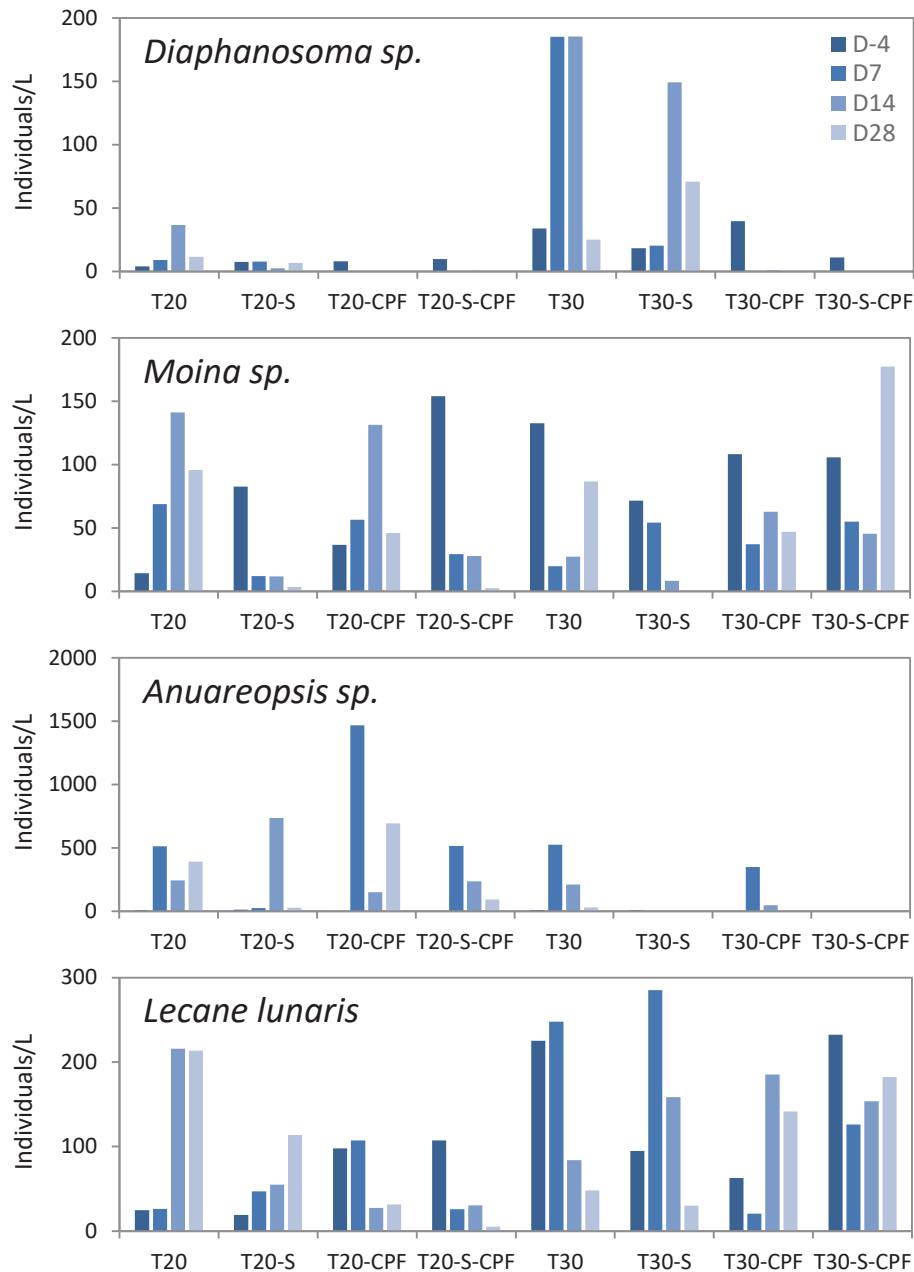


Figure 3. Abundance of *Diaphanosoma sp.*, *Moina sp.*, *Anuraeopsis sp.* and *Lecane lunaris* in the different treatments. T: temperature, CPF: chlorpyrifos, S: salinity, D: days relative to the chlorpyrifos application.

The PERMANOVA analysis showed that salinity significantly influenced the zooplankton community from day 7 relative to the CPF application until the end of the experiment (Table 2). The salinity treatment significantly reduced the zooplankton diversity and Cladocera abundance (Table 3, Figure 1). The interaction between temperature and salinity was significant during day -4 to day 14, indicating that the community effects of salinity were different at the different temperature regimes (Table 2). The temperature–salinity interaction was significant for total zooplankton abundance

at the beginning of the experimental period (day -4 and 7), and for Cladocera (day 7 and 14), Copepoda (day -4) and Rotifera (day -7; Table 3). At 20 °C, salinity resulted in a decrease on Cladocera and Rotifera and an increase of Copepoda, which resulted in an increase of total abundance. At 30 °C, salinity resulted in a decrease of Cladocera, Rotifera and Copepoda, which contributed to a significant abundance decline (Figure 1). The PRC analysis showed that, at 20 °C, salinity explained 21% of the variation (only the first PRC is significant), while at 30 °C it explained 34% (with the first and second PRCs being significant), suggesting that the impacts of salinity on zooplankton community changes at 30 °C were slightly larger than at 20 °C (Table 4). This is also observed in Figure 4, which shows that salinity effects persisted during the whole experimental period, but started earlier (some days before the CPF application) and were larger (particularly on days -4 and 7) at 30 °C than at 20 °C. At 20 °C, the PRC shows that *Anuraeopsis* sp. and *Moina* sp. decreased due to salt addition, while there was an increase of *Brachionis quadridentatus* and Copepoda nauplii. At 30 °C, the first PRC indicates a higher treatment-related decrease of *Anuraeopsis* sp. (Figure 3) and *Brachionus falcatus*, while there were no apparent population increases (all b_k values > -0.5). The second PRC shows a slight decrease of *Brachionus falcatus* and *Moina* sp. at the beginning and at the end of the experimental period (data not shown). The different response of *Moina* sp. and *Anuraeopsis* sp. to salinity in the different temperature treatments is also indicated by the significance of the three-way ANOVA interaction at the beginning and at the end of the experimental period, respectively (Table S3), confirming that *Moina* sp. had a larger population abundance decrease at 20 °C and *Anuraeopsis* sp. at 30 °C (Figure 3).

The PERMANOVA analysis showed that CPF affected the zooplankton community significantly from day 7 until the end of the experiment (Table 2), producing a (marginally) significant decrease of diversity and Cladocera abundance on day 7 and 14 (Table 3, Figure 1). The interaction between temperature and CPF was significant after the application (day 7) and at the end of the experiment (day 28; Table 2). The PRC analysis showed that CPF explained 15% of variability at 20 °C, and 21% at 30 °C (Table 4). At 20 °C, the maximum CPF effects were reached at end of the experimental period, while at 30 °C the maximum effects were already reached on day 7 and shows smaller differences towards the end of the experiment, indicating partial community recovery. At 20 °C, the CPF application resulted in a decline of *Lecane lunaris* and *Diaphanosoma* sp., and a slight increase of Copepoda nauplii and *Anuraeopsis* sp. However, at 30 °C, there was a decline of *Diaphanosoma* sp. and *Anuraeopsis* sp., and no clear treatment-

related increases (Figure 4). The different responses to the CPF treatment of *Diaphanosoma* sp., *Anuraeopsis* sp. and *Lecane lunaris* are also displayed in Figure 2, and the significant interactions are provided in Table S3.

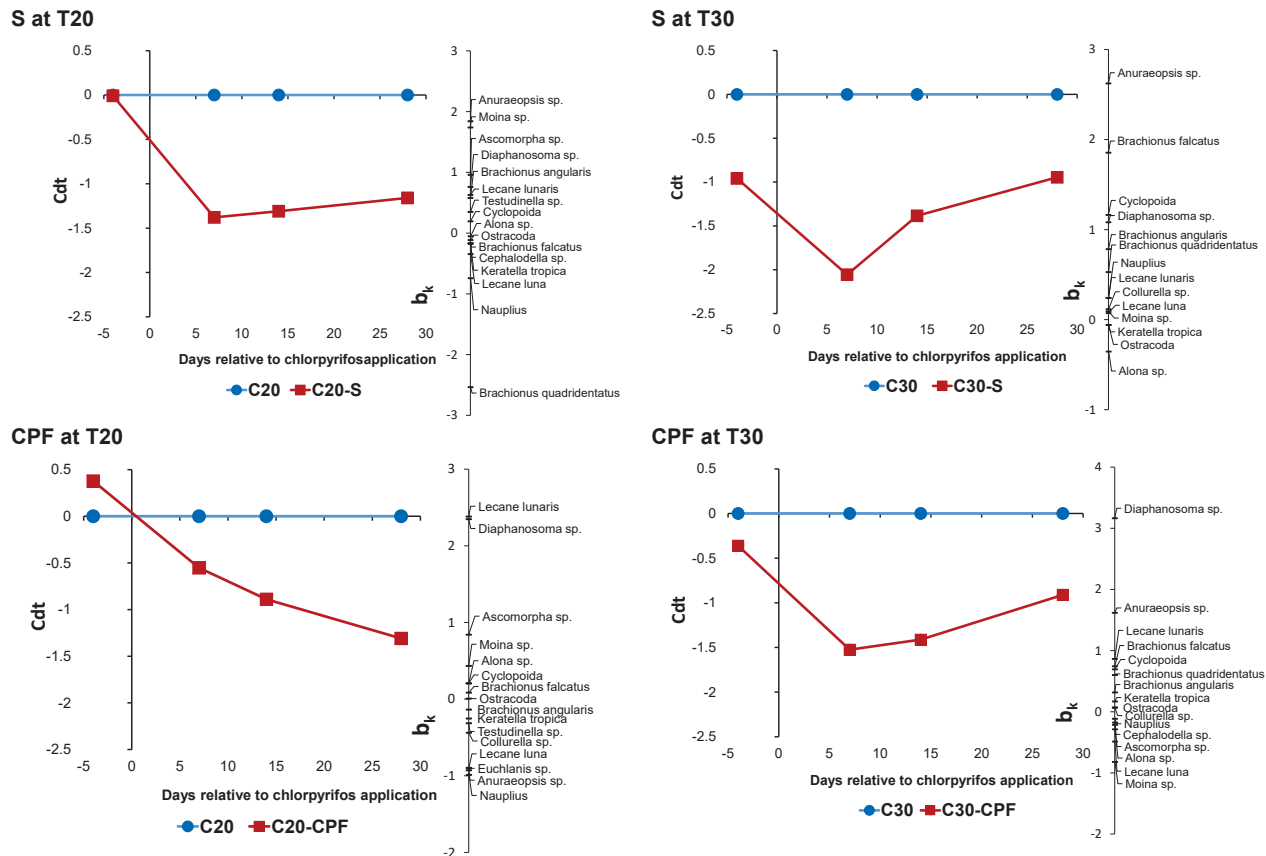


Figure 4. PRCs calculated with the chemical controls and the microcosms exposed to salinity (S) or chlorpyrifos (CPF) at 20 °C and 30 °C. The percentages of explained variance are shown in Table 4. The raw data on taxa counts is provided in Appendix I.

The PERMANOVA analysis showed that the interaction between salinity and CPF was generally not significant, except for the last sampling date, and the interaction between the three stressors was not significant at any sampling date (Table 2). However, the interaction between salinity and CPF was significant for Cladocera (Table 3) on day 7 after the CPF application (Table 3). The abundance of that taxonomic group, which was clearly dominated by *Diaphanosoma* sp., was somewhere in between the effects caused by salinity and CPF alone (Figure 1), so that it can be classified as antagonistic. *Diaphanosoma* sp. also showed significant interactive effects on that sampling date (Table S3), however the abundances were so low (Figure 3) that it was impossible to evaluate the response type.

The PRC analysis including the salinity and the CPF treatments at 20 °C and 30 °C showed that more than one PRC was significant (Table 4). As expected, by inspecting the first and second PRC it can be concluded that the majority of species responded similarly to the combination of both stressors at 20 °C and 30 °C, except for *Moina* sp. (Figure S3), which showed a clear decline at 20 °C and a notable increase at 30 °C when both stressors (i.e., salinity and CPF) were present (Figure 3). This is also supported by the marginally significant p-value calculated by the three-way ANOVA for the salinity and CPF interaction, although the triple interaction was not significant (Table S3). Overall, the variation partitioning analysis indicated that the influence of salinity was larger than the influence of CPF on the zooplankton community at 20 °C, while the contribution of each stressors was similar at 30 °C (Table S2). Moreover, the first PRC of the combination of both stressors suggests that the community effects of salinity and CPF are more strongly correlated at 30 °C than at 20 °C (Figure S3).

Discussion

CPF dissipation and water quality variables

In this study, temperature notably enhanced CPF dissipation, while salinity contributed to a slightly reduced dissipation rate. Microbial activity associated to temperature variation has been discussed to be one of the main factors that affects the dissipation of CPF from the water column (Racke, 1993), although other factors such as turbidity, organic matter (including algae) and sediment characteristics can also play an important role (Daam and Van den Brink, 2009). In an outdoor mesocosm performed under Mediterranean conditions, López-Mancisidor et al. (2008) calculated an average DT50 of 2.2 days (average water temperature was 20 °C), which is similar to the results of our study. The slight differences related to salinity may be explained by decreased hydrolysis rates (Wang and Hoffman 1991), and by the lower algae density in the water column observed in the salinity treatment (Table 1).

The assessment of the water quality variables indicated a decrease of chlorophyll-*a* at 30 °C and dissolved oxygen. The increase of temperatures resulted in an increase of zooplankton density, which could have contributed to an increasing grazing pressure on the phytoplankton community. Furthermore, salinity seemed to contribute to a reduction of phytoplankton. In our study, the levels of ammonia were increased by temperature and salinity, probably due to accelerated organic matter decomposition of decaying planktonic organisms. In fact, we observed a flocculation and sedimentation of algae in

these microcosms, which has been described as a response to biotic and abiotic stress (Sukenik and Shelef, 1984; Brady et al., 2014). The levels of unionized ammonia reached in the 30 °C microcosms, and particularly in those also treated with salt and CPF, are expected to result in toxic effects on sensitive aquatic organisms (Arthur et al., 1987) and may thus have contributed to the changes observed in the zooplankton community. It should also be noted that the water sampled for nutrient analysis was relatively high as compared to the total water volume of the microcosms (8%), so that there could be a slight impact created by this on later sampling days (e.g. day 28) which may have affected the natural dynamics of the planktonic communities in all microcosms.

Zooplankton responses to varying temperatures

Our experiment indicated that temperature was the most important factor influencing the zooplankton community, followed by salinity and CPF. Changes in water temperature, related to seasonality or climate change, have been reported as an important factor modifying the composition, structure and dynamics of zooplankton communities in wetland ecosystems, and hence, on ecosystem processes and services (Thompson et al., 2012; Gabler et al., 2017). In the present study, we show that at 30 °C there was an abundance increase of all zooplankton groups (Cladocera, Copepoda and Rotifera). For many zooplankton taxa, temperature is considered an important factor that affects their metabolic rate and the amount of energy allocated for egg production, hence, changing their life-history traits and population growth (Gillooly et al., 2001; Devreker et al., 2009). The taxa *Brachionus falcatus*, *Diaphanosoma* sp. and copepoda nauplii had an increased abundance at the beginning of the experiment at 30 °C, indicating a preference for high water temperatures. On the other hand, *Ascomorpha* sp. and *Moina* sp. abundance slightly decreased as response to the temperature increase. We also observed that community structure differences between the 20 °C and 30 °C controls were larger at the beginning of the experiment than at the end (Figure 2), indicating a potential adaptation of some taxa to the new thermal scenario. According to the existing literature (Beaugrand et al., 2002; Arenas-Sánchez et al., 2019), higher temperatures favor the dominance of smaller organisms, but may also result in a favorable condition for competition and predation among smaller zooplankton groups.

Zooplankton responses to salinity at different temperatures

At 20 °C, salinity increase induced a decrease in zooplankton diversity and total abundance. Salinity also resulted in a significant decrease of Cladocera individuals and produced an increase of Copepoda (at Nauplius stages). This is in good agreement with the mesocosm study performed by Thompson and Shurin (2012), who observed a significant increase of cyclopoid copepods after a slight salinity increase (0.3 ppt). Some authors have argued that such structural changes in the zooplankton community are characteristic of brackish lagoons during high osmotic pressure periods, and are a consequence of reduced fitness of Cladocera and competitive exclusion by well adapted copepods (Bruce et al., 2009; Jensen et al., 2010). Other studies have demonstrated that short rises of salinity can result in the dominance of few Rotifera taxa (Schallenberg et al., 2003; Anton-Pardo and Armengol, 2012; Coldsnow et al., 2017). Our experiment shows that at 20 °C, salinity resulted in a notable increase of *Brachionus quadridentatus* and a decrease of *Anuraeopsis* sp. (Figure 4). This can be explained by the low tolerance of *Anuraeopsis* taxa to osmotic pressure as compared to *Brachionus*, as demonstrated by the growth curves calculated by Sarma et al. (2006) for these two genera under laboratory conditions. In addition, Anton-Pardo and Armengol (2012) found a high prevalence of *Brachionus* species in brackish coastal Mediterranean ponds, while *Anuraeopsis fissa* was one of the few Rotifera taxa that were distributed among ponds irrespective of salinity levels.

Our experiment shows a significant interaction between temperature and salinity on the zooplankton community. In fact, under warmer conditions (30 °C), salinity had a higher impact on the zooplankton community, reducing the abundance of all the taxonomic groups. It should be noted, however, that zooplankton abundances were in the majority of the cases still above the ones in the salinity treatments at 20 °C because, as described above, temperature resulted in high zooplankton densities. For some particular taxa (e.g., *Moina* sp., *Anuraeopsis* sp.) salinity-related declines showed considerable differences between the two tested temperature conditions, which may be related to different metabolic rates and tolerances to osmotic pressure (Miracle and Serra, 1989), as well as the availability of phytoplankton resources and the presumable toxicity caused by unionized ammonia. Therefore, this study confirms that temperature influences the direct and indirect effects of salinity to the zooplankton community, so that seasonal temperature variation and climate change may significantly interact with the ecological

effects caused by salinity. In addition, some studies have reported that the shift in the structure of zooplankton communities caused by salinity intrusion in coastal lagoons, leading towards a lower zooplankton abundance or the dominance of smaller and less efficient zooplanktonic grazers, may result in a functional diversity loss and increasing eutrophication risks (Jeppesen et al., 2015; Gutierrez et al., 2018).

Zooplankton responses to CPF at different temperatures

In the present study, CPF reduced zooplankton diversity, mainly affecting Cladocera. Similar results were observed in other model ecosystem experiments performed under Mediterranean-like conditions (Van Wijngaarden et al., 2005; López–Mancisidor et al., 2008; Pereira et al. 2017). At 30 °C, we found larger community effects in the first week after the insecticide application, but also partial recovery as compared to the 20 °C treatment. This is in line with previous studies, which demonstrated a large influence of temperature in the response of aquatic organisms to pesticide stress (Patra et al., 2015; Rocha et al., 2016; Pawar et al., 2020), which affects community structure dynamics. For example, Arenas-Sánchez et al. (2019) found that the time to onset of effects caused by the insecticide lufenuron and the post-exposure recovery of zooplankton populations and communities was considerably faster at 28 °C as compared to 20 °C.

Our study also shows that the indirect effects caused by CPF were influenced by temperature. At 20 °C, the reduction of Cladocera (mainly *Diaphanosoma* sp.) resulted in an increase of some Rotifera and Copepoda taxa. This caused a temporary increase of total abundance after the insecticide application at 20 °C and indirect negative effects on chlorophyll-*a*. At 30 °C, such indirect increases in abundance were not observed, potentially due to the algae flocculation described above. In our study, the observed indirect effects were relatively mild, however they should not be neglected as these can result in long-term changes on the structure of aquatic communities and potentially affect predator-prey relationships at higher trophic levels (e.g., macroinvertebrates, fish; Thompson et al., 2015).

Zooplankton responses to salinity and CPF under different temperatures

Contrary to previous studies indicating synergistic effects of salinity and CPF on freshwater invertebrates (Song and Brown, 1998), our study shows that the interaction between these two stressors was generally not significant during the period of maximum toxicant effects (first week). Neither it was the triple interaction including temperature. The joint effects of salinity and CPF on the most sensitive taxonomic group (Cladocera)

were found to be antagonistic, possibly due to the complex bound formation of CPF with salts and the resulting slightly reduced bioavailability (Maryoung et al., 2014). In line with this, Pawar et al. (2020) observed a reduction in the toxicity of CPF to the euryhaline white leg shrimp under higher salinity, and other studies report similar findings testing these stressor combinations on fish survival (Lavado et al., 2009; Maryoung et al., 2014) or assessing biochemical responses (Durieux et al., 2011).

Overall, our study shows that, at the tested stressor levels, salinity is a more severe stressor at 20 °C than CPF; while at 30 °C, both had similar impacts and more correlated responses. This has implications for ecosystem management and suggests that under future climate change scenarios the influence of salinity on zooplankton communities can be confounded with that caused by temperature increase. Moreover, this study shows that the interaction between increasing temperatures, salinity and insecticide stress could contribute to a biodiversity decline in an additive manner. Further research should be dedicated to assess the interaction between other stressor combinations related to global change on Mediterranean wetlands and to explore their consequences for ecosystem service provision and management.

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7 Final Considerations

The present study contributed to expanding knowledge regards to the use of microeukaryotes ciliates as a model organism in ecotoxicological studies allowed to identify several gaps still existing in the study of ciliates and even directing the next steps to the future. The wide systematic review along with a meta-analysis contributed to improving the understanding of the ecotoxicological studies with ciliates being a group much neglected in studies of this nature. The caffeine bioassays added information about their chemical sensitivity on *P. caudatum* species. This species demonstrated resistance to caffeine, however, can be considered a good model inside in a tolerant class of aquatic organisms (e.g., Chironomidae). Moreover, it was added information about the effects of multiple stressors interactions on the zooplankton community in the aquatic ecosystem as a consequence of a partnership through internationalization networks. The increase in temperature, salinity, and pesticide (i.e., chlorpyrifos) affected the zooplankton community, but these three stressors have only an additive effect on the community. Based on the aquatic ecotoxicology scenario, the available data in this thesis will be used to develop more studies in this field with both ciliates and zooplankton in order to provide more details about the emerging contaminant (e.g., individual and interaction) effects and hence, the consequences to aquatic ecosystems process and services.

APPENDIX OF THESIS



Short Communication

Investigation of medicines consumption and disposal in Brazil: A study case in a developing country



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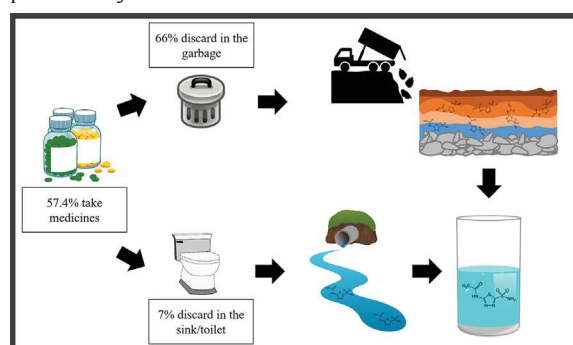
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HIGHLIGHTS

- The incorrect disposal of medicines may represent a risk to the environment.
- Investigate how people are disposing unused medicines is crucial.
- Online questionnaires were spread out in Brazil.
- 66% of the respondents discard unused or expired medicines in common garbage.
- Environmental education may help to mitigate pharmaceuticals pollution.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT

The most important pathways for pharmaceuticals to the environment considering human disposal in the present study case.



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ABSTRACT

The incorrect disposal of medicines can be harmful to the environment. Here, we aim to understand the consumption and disposal of medicines in Brazil using online forms. 64% of the respondents have the habit to self-medicate. 66% of respondents dispose the disused or expired medicines in the garbage. 71.9% of respondents never receive any information about correct disposal of medicines. 95.2% of respondents believe that residues of medicines can be harmful to the environment. Environmental education can provide information to the population and help to mitigate pharmaceuticals pollution.

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Environmental Pollution

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A global trend of caffeine consumption over time and related-environmental impacts[☆]



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ABSTRACT

Caffeine is one of the most consumed substances, and it has been largely detected in aquatic ecosystems. We investigated the trends in caffeine consumption over three decades and its relationships with gross domestic product (GDP) and human development index (HDI) to understand global patterns and to identify potential hotspots of contamination. The total caffeine consumption is increasing mainly due to population growth. Moreover, caffeine consumption per capita is also increasing in some countries, such as Brazil, Italy, and Ethiopia. A high positive correlation between caffeine consumption per capita with HDI and GDP was found for coffee-importing countries in Europe, while a high negative correlation was found for coffee-exporting countries in Africa. The literature review showed that the highest caffeine concentrations coincide with countries that present an increasing caffeine consumption per capita. Also, approximately 35% of the caffeine concentrations reported in the literature were above the predicted no-effect concentration in the environment and, again, overlaps with countries with increasing per capita consumption. Despite the high degradation rate, caffeine consumption tends to increase in a near future, which may also increase the overall amount of caffeine that comes into the environment, possibly exceeding the thresholds of several species described as tolerant to the current environmental concentrations. Therefore, it is essential to prevent caffeine from reaching aquatic ecosystems, implementing sewage treatment systems, and improving their efficiency.

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1. Introduction

Nowadays, caffeine has become one of the most consumed psychoactive substances in the world (Diogo et al., 2013). Caffeine is part of the methylxanthines – a group of central nervous system stimulants commonly present in the daily life of humans (Diogo et al., 2013). Caffeine consumption mostly occurs through food products, such as tea, coffee, energy drinks, products containing cocoa or chocolate, but can also be found in cold medicines, painkillers, appetite suppressants, and stimulants (Buerge et al., 2003). The caffeine concentration in the products vary greatly, but coffee presents one of the highest amounts of caffeine compared to other

beverage categories (Mitchell et al., 2014). Moreover, coffee is highly consumed worldwide. As an example, only in 2014, more than 8 million tons of coffee were consumed around the world (International Coffee Organization, 2015).

A small fraction of the total caffeine consumed is excreted in its original form (2–3%; Tang-Liu et al., 1983). However, a considerable amount can be discarded without being consumed, especially by cafeterias (Montagner et al., 2014a; Tokimoto et al., 2005). According to World Water Assessment Programme (WWAP-World Water Assessment Programme, 2017), around 80% of the total volume of wastewater is discharged without prior treatment in the environment. Thus, significant concentrations of caffeine may be found in sewage and it has been used as a domestic sewage tracer (Strauch et al., 2008; Tokimoto et al., 2005). Once in the sewers, caffeine can reach water bodies, and spread in surface waters, groundwater, and also in drinking waters around the world (Bruton et al., 2010; Machado et al., 2016). Wastewater treatment plants

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Inventário de microeucariotos ciliados (Alveolata: Ciliophora) em ecossistemas límnicos no município de Juiz de Fora (MG)¹

Checklist of ciliated microeukaryotes (Alveolata: Ciliophora) in limnic ecosystems in the city of Juiz de Fora (MG)

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Resumo

Neste trabalho foi realizado um inventário de ciliados bentônicos em ecossistemas límnicos, localizados no município de Juiz de Fora (MG), com amostragens mensais, no período entre março e agosto de 2018. Os ciliados foram identificados com base em observações *in vivo* e, quando necessário, foi realizada impregnação pela prata e pela coloração por DAPI. Vinte e uma morfoespécies, distribuídas em cinco classes de Ciliophora, foram identificadas. Destas, *Euplotes* sp. 2, *Euplotes eurystomus*, *Paramecium bursaria* e *Paramecium caudatum* foram as espécies encontradas que poderiam ser facilmente mantidas sob condições *in vitro*.

Palavras-chave: Ciliados. Checklist. Cultivo. Bioindicadores. Córregos.

Abstract

In this work, an inventory of benthic ciliates in limnetic ecosystems located in the municipality of Juiz de Fora, Minas Gerais, Brazil, with monthly samplings was performed from March 2018 to August 2018. Ciliates were identified based on their *in vivo* data, and when necessary, silver impregnation and DAPI staining were also carried out. 21 morphospecies distributed over five Ciliophora classes were identified. Of these, *Euplotessp. 2*, *Euploteseurystomus*, *Paramecium bursaria* and *Paramecium caudatum* were among the found species that could be easily maintained under *in vitro* conditions.

Keywords: Ciliates. Checklist. Culture. Bioindicators. Streams.

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Three-best-seller pesticides in Brazil: Freshwater concentrations and potential environmental risks

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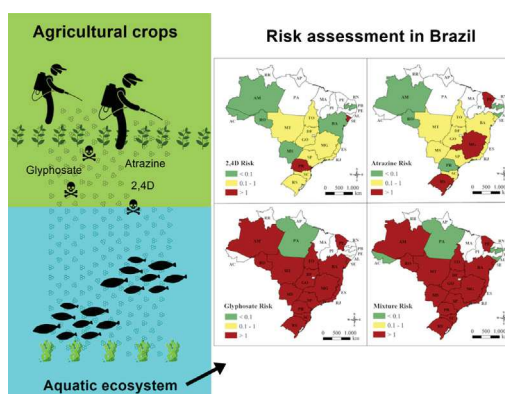
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HIGHLIGHTS

- 2,4D, atrazine and glyphosate are the three-best-seller pesticides in Brazil.
- The knowledge on pesticides in Brazilian freshwaters is incipient.
- Monitoring programs at natural and contaminated areas are suggested.
- Most Brazilian states are at high environmental risk considering pesticides.
- A review of the Brazilian freshwater legislation is suggested.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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ABSTRACT

Agricultural production in Brazil is favored by weather conditions and by the large amount of available land. Therefore, currently, Brazil is the second largest exporter of agricultural products globally. Pesticides are widely used in Brazilian crops due to their high efficiency, their low cost, and permissive legislation. However, pesticides tend to reach water resources threatening organisms and the water quality. Thereby, we aimed to review the surface freshwater concentrations of the three-best-seller pesticides in Brazil (glyphosate, 2,4D, and atrazine), and discuss the results with sales, legislation, toxicity and potential risks. For that, we performed a systematic review of quantitative studies of glyphosate, atrazine, and 2,4D in Brazilian freshwater and included monitoring data provided by the Brazilian Ministry of Health in our analysis. Finally, we calculated the risk assessment for the three pesticides. Only a few scientific studies reported concentrations of either of the three-best-seller pesticides in Brazilian freshwaters. Between 2009 and 2018, an increase in the sales of 2,4D, atrazine, and glyphosate was observed. It was not possible to evaluate the relation between concentrations and sales, due to limited number of studies, lack of standard criteria for sampling, individual environmental properties, and type of pesticide. Atrazine showed a higher toxicity compared to 2,4D and glyphosate. Regarding the environmental risks, 65%, 72%, and 94% of the Brazilian states had a medium to high risk to 2,4D, atrazine, and glyphosate, respectively. Finally, 80% of the Brazilian states evaluated showed a high environmental risk considering a mixture of the

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